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FUTURE INCOME THROUGH SKILLS AND TRAINING IN EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME

By

JABU GOODNESS MTOLO

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of Witwatersrand, in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Masters of Management in Public and Development Management (P&DM).

February 2013

ABSTRACT

Currently not all Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) beneficiaries manage to secure future jobs and earn income after exiting the programme. The purpose of conducting this research was to investigate why most Working for Water programme (WFW) beneficiaries do not secure future employment after exiting the programme. This investigation was conducted using a qualitative paradigm and semi-structured interviews for data collection. The findings indicated that WFW beneficiaries struggle to find other job opportunities because training and skills provided by the WFW programme are not relevant and appropriate. It has been concluded that the nature and scope of training provided by the WFW programme, combined with failure of the South African economy to create job opportunities, are the main contributing factors to the non-employment of beneficiaries exiting the programme. Hence the recommendations emphasise the importance of entrepreneurship and business skills which are accompanied by support programmes to ensure sustainable alignment of WFW training with the labour market, as well as a review of the duration of participation in the programme to allow enough time for proper training.

DECLARATION

I, Jabu Goodness Mtolo, declare that this research report is my own unaided work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Management in the field of Public and Development Management in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted for any other degree in this, or any other, University.

……..

Jabu Goodness Mtolo

February 2013

DEDICATION

To my late mother who inspired me from the heavens; my wonderful, amazing and loving husband Khanyiso, who supported and encouraged me during my studies; and my loving and caring daughter.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ABET	Adult Based Education and Training
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
AsgiSA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
CBD	Community Based Development
CBPWP	Community Based Public Works Programme
DWEA	Department of Water & Environmental Affairs
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
FIETA	Forestry Industry Education and Training Authority
GDS	Growth and Development Summit
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth Employment and Redistribution
HIV	Human Immune Virus
ILO	International Labour Organization
IDT	Independent Development Trust
JIPSA	Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPWP	National Public Works Programme
PWP	Public Works Programme
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SA	South Africa
SASOL	South African Synthetic Oil Limited
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WFW	Working for Water Programme

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

When the new government led by the African National Congress (ANC) took over in 1994 it inherited a situation of inequality, poverty and a high rate of unemployment. Even though significant progress has been made in areas like health, education, housing and provision of other basic services, studies show that unemployment and poverty are still serious challenges in South Africa (SA) especially in previously disadvantaged communities (Knight, 2001:5). Figures indicate that the unemployment rate in South Africa is increasing; the Statistics South Africa figures indicate that in 2002 30.7 per cent of the South African population was unemployed, and this figure has grown to almost 43 per cent. The above-mentioned socio-economic challenges are likely to undermine South Africa's economic growth. Unemployment and poverty are mainly due to apartheid policies which were implemented with the aim of preventing the black majority from participating in the economy. During apartheid era, for example, the workforce was divided on the basis of race.

The then government promoted the employment of whites in state-controlled enterprises. This was done to ensure short-term employment for whites (Bhorat, Leibbrandt, Maziya, Van der Berg & Woolard, 2001:1-4). In attempting to address this challenge, the South African government introduced various initiatives, one of which is the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). The EPWP is a short-to-medium term programme aimed at providing additional job opportunities to unemployed people. The main objective of the EPWP is to ensure that workers or beneficiaries of

the programme gain skills and training on the job which will increase their capacity to earn an income in future (www.epwp.gov.za).

The EPWP is a broad programme covering four sectors which are Social, Economic, Infrastructure and Environment and Culture. The researcher selected the Working for Water Programme (WFW) which is under Environmental sector.

This research falls under descriptive research. This is due to the fact that reality already exists and studies have been conducted on the impact and challenges of the EPWP. In this study the researcher moved a step forward and investigated challenges faced by EPWP beneficiaries after exiting the programme. The study concentrates on the usefulness of the acquired training and skills in earning future income. The investigation was conducted through qualitative research design and the Alexandra Working for Water Project was used as case study. The researcher chose the above project because it is one of the older projects which commenced around 1994. The contractors and project managers have experience and rich knowledge of the WFW programme. As a result, it was easy to obtain detailed information on the processes of the past eighteen years.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.2.1 The nature of the Expanded Public Works Programme

Due to ongoing socio-economic challenges such as unemployment, poverty and inequality facing South Africa, government has initiated different approaches to address these. The EPWP is one of those government initiatives designed to reduce unemployment and poverty. This programme was launched in 1995 and announced by the then state President Mbeki in his State of the Nation address in February, 2003, where he stated that, “EPWP will ensure that we draw significant number of the unemployed into productive work, and that workers gain skills while

they work" (President Mbeki, 2003:12). This national programme provides additional work opportunities and exposes beneficiaries to training and skills. The EPWP assumes that beneficiaries will use the skills and training acquired during their involvement to ensure future income. Earning an income is not confined to getting a job but also being able to use the skills to become self-employed (www.epwp.gov.za). The success of the programme is measured by the number of beneficiaries who are able to get other jobs or start their small businesses using the skills acquired during their participation in any EPWP programme (J. Dlamini, personal communication, 10 December 2009).

For the smooth running of the EPWP, this initiative was design to cover all three spheres of government and state-owned enterprises. In the process of ensuring that the programme covers as many sectors as possible, four sectors were included: Social, Economic, Infrastructure and Environment, and Culture (Mustaffa, 2008:7). In this case, the Working for Water Programme which was used as a case study falls under the Environment and Culture sector.

The Environment and Culture sector consists of the following Departments: Department of Water and Environmental Affairs; Department of Art and Culture; Department of Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries; and the Department of Rural Development & Land Reform. The lead Department is the Department of Water and Environmental Affairs. The aim is to create jobs through different programmes that fall under the above departments, namely Coastal Care, Working for Water, Land Care, Sustainable Land-based Livelihood, Working for Wetlands, and Fire Programmes. The environment sector has the ability to build a natural and cultural heritage and also to use the same heritage to create immediate and long-term jobs and social benefits (Environment and Culture Sector Plan, 2004:4-7).

The main aim of the sector is to create work opportunities and reduce unemployment while generating useful outputs in the fields of environment, heritage, biodiversity and land care. The above objectives are not seen in isolation but fit within the broader government objectives such as poverty alleviation, empowerment, rural and urban development, growth and job creation. The environmental programmes were designed to result in 200 000 hectares of land cleared of alien plants, 40 rehabilitated wetlands, 700 kilometres of coastal area cleaned, 10 000 hectares of rehabilitated land, and 150 historical and community tourism projects. The Department of Water and Environmental Affairs uses its poverty relief funding through Working for Water (WfW), Working on Fire, and Working on Wetlands programmes (Environment and Culture Sector Plan, 2004:7-12).

The WFW programme is responsible for clearing invasive alien plants in the stressed catchments. The programme is recognized globally and is one of the most effective environmental conservation initiatives. Currently it runs in all nine South African Provinces with over 300 projects nationally. Since its inception in 1995 the programme has cleared more than one million hectares of invasive alien plants. These alien plants are the biggest threat to the county's biological biodiversity, especially water resources. Invasive plants were introduced into South Africa from other countries and they out-compete the indigenous species. The clearing is done through different methods, including mechanical method (felling, removing or burning alien plants), chemical method (using environmentally safe herbicides), biological control (using insects and disease from the alien plant's country of origin), and integrated control which is a combination of the above three approaches (www.dwa.gov.za/wfw).

The WFW programme creates short-term jobs through clearing alien plants. The beneficiaries are non-working individuals from disadvantaged communities. The target groups are youth, women, people with disability,

and households coping with HIV/AIDS. To reach as many families as possible one person per household should be employed in the programme and that person should be locally based (Code of Good Practice for Employment of Special Public Works Programme, 1997:3-7). The above criteria apply across all EPWP programmes and Working for Water is also required to comply with the above conditions as one of the EPWP programmes. Since 1995 WFW has recruited and trained about 280 000 people, with almost 52 per cent of them being women (www.dwa.gov.za/wfw).

When the beneficiaries are involved in this programme they receive training and skills that are intended to promote future opportunities, community development and investment. A minimum of 2 days for every 22 days worked should be dedicated to training and 30 per cent of training should be accredited training. Workers are entitled to a training allowance which is up to 75 per cent of their daily rate (Code of Good Practice for Employment of Special Public Works, 1997:5-7).

Working for Water falls under the Forestry Industry Education and Training Authority (FIETA) SETA which ensures and approves accreditation of courses. This SETA also ensures norms and standard for training, and training material. The SETA is also responsible for registering all approved courses with the Department of Labour. The Department of Labour funds and provides training to WfW beneficiaries (Skills Development Act, 1998:14). Training offered by the WFW programme is grouped into the following categories: induction, operational, social development, health and safety, and contractor development courses. The induction course introduces workers to the WFW programme in terms of how the programme operates, terms and conditions of their involvement, and plant identification. Under operational training, beneficiaries learn how to use equipment like chainsaws, brush cutters, cane knifes and herbicides. Social development involves life skills training around HIV/AIDS

awareness, personal finance, Adult Basic Education & Training (ABET), and peer education. Health and safety includes First Aid courses and fire fighting, while contractor development equips them with business management skills (Working for Water training guidelines, 2005).

Ideally the beneficiaries of EPWP should be individuals who do not receive any kind of social security pension. However some of the EPWP beneficiaries are receiving some form of government grant while also being included in the programme. Social security provision includes child support grant, care dependency grant, foster care grant, disability grant, and old age pension. In terms of duration of participation beneficiaries cannot be employed for more that 24 months within a five-year cycle. However, a female worker who happens to give birth and takes maternity leave is allowed to work for a further 24 months within the original cycle. (Code of Good Practice for Employment of Special Public Works, 1997:5-7).

1.2.2 Policy and legislative issues

The South African Government was mandated to halve poverty and unemployment by 2014. The Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) and the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) are some of the government interventions designed to address South Africa's socio-economic challenges. AsgiSA principles include economic growth and reduction of unemployment and poverty. Within the above initiative an estimated R4,5 billion was set aside for the EPWP and the main purpose was to target youth, women, and people with disability.

One of the targets for AsgiSA was to have an average growth of 6 per cent of gross domestic product between 2010 and 2014. Furthermore, the social objectives required SA to improve the environment and opportunities for labour-absorbing economic activities. Another important

objective was to ensure that growth is shared by everyone in such a way that poverty comes close to being eliminated and inequality is reduced (www.info.gov.za/asgisa).

Under AsgiSA, the government initiated various interventions to overcome the challenge of inequality and to bridge the gap between the First and Second Economies, and eventually eliminate the Second Economy. This challenge of inequality is addressed through different mechanisms such as promoting small business, broad-based black empowerment, addressing the issue of access to finance, and reviewing the impact of labour-intensive sectors. At a local level, municipalities are encouraged to support local economic development. The EPWP was identified as one of the Second Economy interventions. The aim was to extend the programme beyond its targets which means larger number of projects which will result in the development of more small black contractors (AsgiSA, 2007:10).

Apartheid government's policies were designed to deny the black majority access to education and skills. This means that there were not enough skilled people to support the growing economy. To overcome this challenge, government introduced JIPSA to address the skills shortage.

The main aim of introducing JIPSA was to support the AsgiSA objectives of reducing the unemployment rate from 30 per cent to 15 per cent and to reduce poverty by half by 2014. The initial focus for JIPSA was on generic skills (Isaacs, 2007:1-7).

During the Growth and Development Summit (GDS) which took place in 2003, SA further acknowledged its persistent structural unemployment, household poverty and vulnerability. Therefore the constituencies were committed to promote sustainable jobs, more jobs and better jobs and decent work for all. During the above summit it was realized that immediate interventions were required to address the different challenges.

A range of initiatives was announced as requiring immediate attention and the EPWP was also announced as one of those immediate interventions. It was agreed that the EPWP would provide poverty and income relief through temporary work for the unemployed and participants provided with training and work experience. The GDS also agreed that the EPWP should be large enough to have an impact on employment and social cohesion, especially for the young people and rural poor (Growth and Development Summit, 2003:5).

1.3 PROFILE OF ALEXANDRA

1.3.1 Brief history

Alexandra township in Johannesburg was established in 1905. It became overcrowded around the 1930s when labour was required from rural areas and neighbouring countries to support the industrial and commercial sectors. During the apartheid period, this area was subjected to population reduction, movement control and expropriation of freehold property (Morris, 2000:5). In 1961 the apartheid government demolished most of the property and introduced hostels. Hostels were meant to accommodate single migrant workers. The first hostels, called Madala and Nobuhle, were completed in the 1970s. After the 1976 riots and protests by residents, Alexandra was re-planned for family housing and more people moved into Alexandra after the abolition of influx control in 1986. The number of shacks started increasing from 1987. Eventually shack dwellers started to move to areas that were not yet planned for human settlement and they were erected all over Alexandra at an uncontrollable rate (Morris, 2000:7-9).

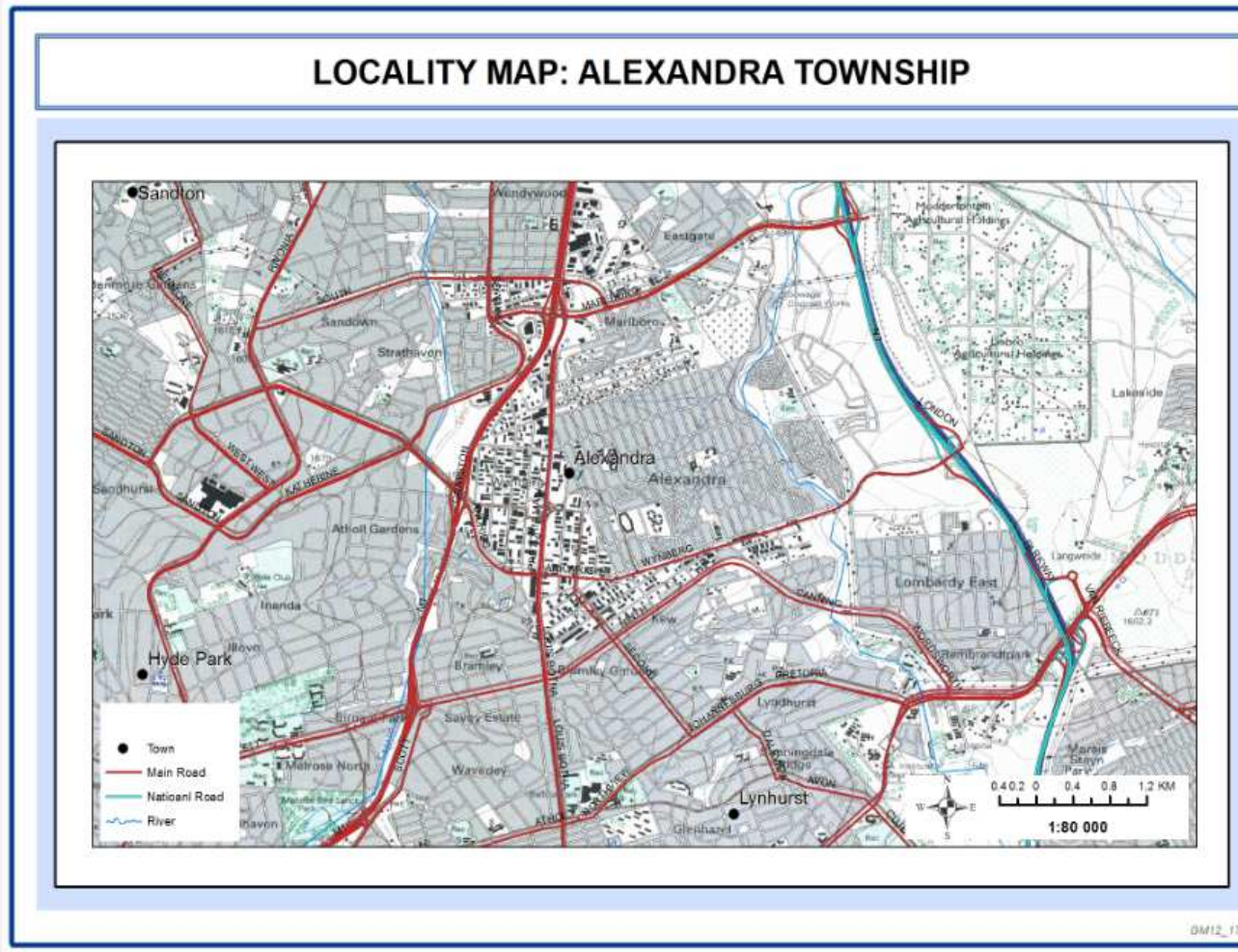
1.3.2 Spatial overview

Alexandra is situated on prime land within the key growth areas of Johannesburg. It is located in the north-eastern suburbs of Johannesburg

on the banks of the Jukskei River and adjacent to the wealthy area of Sandton. It consists of areas like Old Alex, Setswela, East Rand, Far East Bank, Tsutsumani and River Park. This township is close to key roads and highways linking Johannesburg and Pretoria and its location allows for easy access to jobs. Alexandra is characterized as a desperately poor township. Narrow roads separate the overcrowded single-room shacks from ordinary suburbs.

Alexandra is one of the urban townships characterized by high population density. Each household consist of four to seven persons. Population density normally places a massive strain on municipal services. Most of the houses are built around the Jukskei's tributaries and flood plain which normally lead to flood risk in summer. Houses are a combination of both formal and informal structures. It is estimated that Alexandra consists of 69 per cent formal and 31 per cent informal houses (Business Trust, 2005:4-7). Map 1 below depicts the location of Alexandra.

Figure 1: Map of Alexandra



1.3.3 Socio-economic status

Alexandra is home to about 750 000 people and the area covers about 800 hectares. Initially the infrastructure was designed to support about 70 000 people and the unplanned population overloaded the infrastructure and affected services are water and sewer. Operation and maintenance is normally difficult due to high densities and congestion. About 58 per cent of the population is younger than 29 years of age. About 35 per cent of the population is unemployed. Most of the households live below the household subsistence level. The income levels are below the provincial and national average and these households account for over 60 per cent. Poverty is high and this results in a high degree of dependency on welfare

grants. The main source of employment is wholesale and retail trade sectors. The majority of employed people perform unskilled and manual labour. Only 7 per cent of the employed individuals are in professional and managerial positions. About 14 per cent of the population has at least primary/secondary education while 26 per cent have a matriculation qualification. Crime is one of the major challenges in Alexandra. HIV/AIDS prevalence is at 30 per cent (Business Trust, 2005:7-11).

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The EPWP is one of the Government initiatives intended to overcome unemployment and poverty in South Africa. The main objective for this short to medium term programme is to provide work opportunities to unemployed people while ensuring future job opportunities for beneficiaries through skills provision and training. This study focuses on the WfW programme which is one of the EPWP pillars.

It seems as if not all WFW beneficiaries manage to secure future jobs and earn an income after exiting the WFW programme. Furthermore there is limited information available as to whether training and skills acquired during involvement with WFW really assist in improving the chances of the beneficiaries to secure other job opportunities after exiting the programme. There are several studies on EPWP; McCord (2003), for example, conducted a study on effectiveness of the EPWP in reducing poverty, improving livelihoods, and community empowerment. However, the existing studies are not clear as to whether EPWP beneficiaries are able to secure future jobs using the skills and training they acquired while they were working in the EPWP programme.

This study was conducted in Alexandra township in Gauteng Province. The Alexandra Working for Water programme was used as a case study with special emphasis on the period between 1996 and 2010. The

Alexandra project was chosen because it is one of those projects that have been functioning successfully, and the project manager and contractors have broader experience and knowledge of EPWP.

The EPWP beneficiaries faced different challenges after exiting the programme. For example, a study conducted by McCord (2004) on the impact of EPWP in reducing unemployment revealed that most beneficiaries returned to the unemployment pool after exiting EPWP. This study was an investigation aiming to find out whether WFW beneficiaries are able to secure future employment using the skills and training acquired during their involvement with the WFW programme, and why they do not always secure future employment.

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this research is to investigate challenges faced by EPWP beneficiaries after exiting the programme. This was done through investigating why most Working for Water (WFW) programme beneficiaries do not secure future employment. In addition, the investigation aimed to establish whether the beneficiaries are able to escape the poverty cycle after exiting the EPWP. Beneficiaries who had exited the WFW programme were interviewed to get more information about their current situation, especially the challenges they face on a daily basis. This means that the study attempted to investigate whether the EPWP is achieving its objective, which is to ensure that workers or beneficiaries of the programme gain skills and training on the job and increase their capacity to earn future income.

The researcher used explanatory investigation to conduct this study, since the research is investigating a known issue but needs answers on why a specific phenomenon occurs. This type of investigation normally looks for the causes. In this case the researcher is interested in obtaining answers

about why most WFW programme beneficiaries do not secure jobs after exiting the programme.

Furthermore, in the process of trying to address the knowledge gap identified by the problem statement, this study tried to investigate quality, relevance and appropriateness of the skills and training acquired by beneficiaries while working for the programme. The reason for investigating the above aspects in relation to training is that these will provide insight into whether the skills provided by the programme are relevant and in demand in the labour market.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following questions were used to guide the study and maintain its focus:

1. What type of training and skills was acquired by WFW beneficiaries during their involvement in the programme?
2. How relevant and appropriate are these skills in assisting the beneficiaries to earn an income and secure future jobs after exiting the programme?
3. How is the training provided by WFW structured to take into account skills required by the labour market?
4. What challenges are normally experienced by the beneficiaries after exiting the WFW programme?
5. How is the WFW programme contributing towards reducing socio-economic challenges such as unemployment, poverty and inequality?

1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Figures from Statssa (2008) indicate that unemployment and poverty continues to increase in South Africa, despite government's attempts to overcome this challenge. These challenges call for the need to evaluate whether government initiatives introduced to address these challenges are effective or not. There is also a need to assess whether different initiatives introduced by government are able to achieve the desired objectives and goals. This does not mean only meeting targets in terms of jobs created and expenditure but also assessing the extent to which different initiatives are able to improve people's lives. Studies like these can assist to influence policy and assist decision-makers and those in power to review or revise the existing strategies and ensure that government initiatives are aligned, effective and capable of improving people's lives.

1.8 OUTLINE OF CHAPTERS

The study consists of six chapters.

Chapter one: Introduction

This provides the introduction, background, legislative issues, context of the case study, problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, significance and limitations of the study. In this chapter the researcher gives the background, introduces the whole report, sets the scene and provides a broad overview of the report.

Chapter two: Literature Review

The researcher reviews literature that is relevant to the research topic and also indicates what different authors say about the research topic. This is where one needs to show where the particular study fits into existing knowledge.

Chapter three: Research Methodology

The researcher indicates the methodology used, paradigm or approach followed, as well as explaining different techniques used to collect and analyze data.

Chapter four: Data Presentation

This chapter highlights how data was collected. The collected data is presented and grouped into themes and categories.

Chapter five: **Data Analysis**

Data analysis involves analyzing what was presented by participants, recognizing trends and drawing conclusions

Chapter six: Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter summarises the whole report. It is in this chapter where the writer gets the chance to express his/her views. The researcher links what is in the literature with the research findings, draws conclusions and makes recommendations.

1.9 SUMMARY

Chapter one laid a broad background of the study by providing a picture and summary of the whole study. The next chapters go into detail in terms of reviewing literature which is relevant to the research topic. The broader background assists by providing the reader with a sense of what the study encompasses.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to examine the issues raised by the problem statement and purpose statement, the literature review is divided into sub-topics which cover the scope of the research. This will promote a logical and clear understanding of the identified challenges. The following are the topics to be discussed in this chapter: South African historical background, poverty, unemployment, inequality, macroeconomic policies, South African labour market, South African skills challenge and government response, role of education in poverty and unemployment, concepts of development, community-based development, vicious circle, the nature of EPWP, and the conclusions. The above topics will provide a clear understanding of South African socio-economic challenges. Furthermore, explanation and evidence will be provided of how the previous government created the socio-economic challenges and how the democratic government is trying to overcome those inherited challenges. The effectiveness and impact of the current government initiatives will also be discussed. The conclusion will highlight the key issues raised by the literature and present arguments from different writers. In conclusion, the researcher will support or disagree with some viewpoints and take a stand based on the arguments raised by different writers.

2.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

For decades South Africa suffered from legislated discrimination by race. This led to a situation whereby the quality and quantity of services such as

education, health and other services reinforced the segmentation. It is argued that even though South Africa is an upper middle income country, the social indicators still suggests that the living standards are closer to those of middle and lower income countries (Bhorat, *et al.,* 2001:5-6). This means that there is a big difference between economic status and social development. May (1998:17) also argues that the distribution of income and wealth in South Africa is amongst the most unequal in the world and most people do not have proper access to basic services. This can be attributed to a long South African history of segregation and discrimination which left a legacy of inequality and poverty. This supports the argument that inequality and poverty in South Africa are racially based (May,1998:23). For example, a report compiled by the Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute (2007) suggests that poverty and inequality in South Africa is due to its complex history and is always related to the impact of race and racism.

Apartheid is the most important single factor that distinguishes South Africa from other African countries. This single factor was the cause for most socioeconomic challenges that still exist. One of the initial direct aspects that led to most socioeconomic challenges was the dispossession of land by white people. Africans were forced either to retreat to other areas or become farm labourers. Land dispossession was exacerbated by land conquests which completely disempowered Africans (Aliber, 2003:474).

The discovery of gold and diamond worsened the situation as it led to rapidly growing demand for black mine-workers. It was this discovery that led to the introduction of various laws and policies to facilitate the supply of cheap labour. The laws which were introduced were meant to favour white people over Africans. One of those laws was the Native Land Act of 1913 which formalized the distinction between African reserves and white farm areas while prohibiting Africans from acquiring, owning and renting land.

This process had negative effects on the majority of Africans. For example, most people were deprived of economic options and the majority were forced to become labourers on mines and white-owned farms. Another destructive effect of this system was to force families to be split up for a long time, with men working in mines while women remained in the rural reserves. The control of the movements of African people became a priority during the apartheid era. The purpose was to have surplus unskilled labourers in the reserves. It was this process that led to high numbers of unskilled, unemployed and poor people in South Africa. Another apartheid law that contributed to the current challenges was the Native Act of 1923; this law formalized the segregation of residential settlements according to race (Aliber, 2003:476-479).

The formalization of African reserves made the situation worse. This process resulted in separate development which meant that Africans had their own economy. This type of economy was set for failure as the so-called reserves comprised only 13 percent of the country's land area, geographically isolated, with a poor infrastructure accompanied by poorly conceptualized investment strategies. Poor basic services, especially inferior education, was one of the most concerning results of the apartheid system. The consequences of this historical development are visible and easy to observe, for example, unemployment, inequality and poverty. In South Africa 71 per cent of all rural people are poor with relatively little education (Aliber, 2003:481).

2.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHALLENGES

2.3.1 Poverty

Poverty is described as a complex interplay of exclusion, inclusion and multi-dimensional human condition which does not necessarily have to be inevitable. Poverty goes beyond lack of income and also includes

economic, social and governance issues. In most cases, poor people are unable to access opportunities due to limited capabilities, geographical setting and social exclusion. Sustainable economic growth and proper economic policies are essential to fight poverty. Reducing poverty assists the poor to participate productively in the economy. In economic terms, the poor are not only deprived of income and resources but of opportunities as well. Limited access to education makes the situation worse by limiting the ability of poor people to get jobs and access relevant information that could assist to improve their lives. In most cases, poor health due to insufficient nutrition and health services also limits the chances of realizing mental and physical potential. The insecurity, marginal conditions and lack of resources make such fragile situations worse. Therefore poverty can be described as a multi-dimensional and complex set of deprivations. Poverty is now one of the central challenges of the global economy and fighting poverty is necessary to promote a stable world (African Development Bank, 2000:1-6).

To provide social security to poor people needs an approach that is capable of eliminating the elements of vulnerability and dependency. Poverty reduces where the poor are given the voice in decision-making. This requires intensive involvement of poor people and the whole society in policy, programmes, design and implementation. It has been proven that transparency and accountability normally lead to well-informed public debate and better policies with wider support. Public participation can also lead to improved public expenditure that is characterized by better allocation of resources to priority areas such as basic health, education and infrastructure. The involvement of the public, especially the poor, also assists in reducing social and economic inequality and corruption which normally become obstacles to poverty if left unchecked (African Development Bank, 2000:11-13).

Poverty can also be defined as a political issue because it relates to allocation or distribution of resources and also reflects the nature of past and present policies. Even though poverty is a contested concept, it can broadly be defined as a lack of material resources required for survival. Poverty cannot be viewed in a narrow sense as a lack of income but encompasses a range of issues like housing, health, education and access to basic services and economic opportunities. There are different types of poverty, the common being absolute poverty, relative poverty and chronic poverty. Chronic poverty is experienced by people over a long time or even throughout their entire lives and has the tendency of being transferred from one generation to another. This means that children from poor households are likely to become poor adults, whose children will in turn risk remaining in poverty. Relative poverty is related to national distribution of income or the general living standards of the society as a whole (Measurement of Poverty in South Africa, 2007:5-10).

The chronically poor are those individuals and households who are likely to remain in poverty in the absence of outside assistance, and those who are difficult to assist. It is therefore argued that government interventions that do not distinguish between chronic and other types of poverty are at risk of wasting the very limited resources. Resources can be wasted if the approaches used to reduce poverty are not relevant to the type and nature of poverty. Research has shown that South African poverty alleviation initiatives do not cater for this distinction (Aliber, 2003:483).

Terms related to poverty are normally used interchangeably: poverty alleviation, poverty relief, poverty reduction, and poverty eradication. These terms need to be used correctly because they might cause confusion especially when it comes to implementation of different initiatives by government. Poverty relief refers to policies and interventions meant to provide short-term assistance to poor people. Poverty relief is associated with emergency relief like distress grants, food parcels, drought

or flood relief. These policies are not intended for developmental purposes but to address immediate needs. Poverty alleviation is a more sustained and permanent way of reducing poverty. Poverty alleviation programmes normally have longer term goals and are developmental in nature. One example is social grants from the state. Poverty reduction refers to policies that reduce the number of people living in poverty. Poverty eradication is about ending the existence of poverty (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2007:14).

Aliber (2003:487) argues that in most cases the constraints to addressing poverty have little to do with delivery capacity or financial resources but rather with policy-makers' lack of understanding of the nature of poverty they are trying to address. This normally results in the application of inappropriate measures for alleviating poverty.

In South Africa, apartheid laws were the source of chronic poverty as these laws deprived the black majority population from accessing available opportunities. Poverty in South Africa was not only transmitted through households but also at a community level because of limited infrastructure, few amenities and communities situated in remote areas with no economic prospects. May (1998:20) argues that in South Africa poverty and other socio-economic challenges are a result of apartheid, which stripped people of their most important assets like land and livestock and led to distorted economic markets. May further argues that the situation was further complicated by lack of information concerning people's rights, roles, responsibilities and lack of accountability from all levels of government, and that the impact of apartheid has the ability to reproduce poverty even after so many changes in the South African political economy.

2.3.1.1 Measuring poverty

It is argued that to measure poverty assists in directing government policies and interventions. Measuring and clarifying the meaning of poverty

normally contributes to effective poverty reduction in different ways. For example, measuring poverty assists in mapping the severity of poverty geographically. Understanding various dimensions of deprivation experienced by different people can assist government to concentrate on specific programmes. Measuring poverty also gives an indication of effectiveness of different initiatives.

In South Africa there is a need to measure poverty due to the country's obligation to meet the United Nations Millennium Development Goals to halve poverty and unemployment by 2015. On the other hand, it is argued that in South Africa there is no need to measure poverty because it is so obvious and visible (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2007:14-16).

When it comes to measuring poverty the precaution should be taken not to accept the existing poverty line measures as definitive measure of poverty. There are many different ways in which poverty can be conceptualized, defined and measured. In most cases, different countries define the poverty line differently. Simultaneously, it is important for each country to reach consensus about one agreed measure of poverty. This prevents the situation where different departments use different measures which are based on their mandates. Even though is it important for departments to align their measures to their functions and core business, these should be based on and aligned to one standardized and agreed measure (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2007:18-22).

2.3.1.2 Poverty in the African context

Despite the abundance of human and natural resources, Africa suffers from persistent poverty and income inequality. There are various causes of poverty in Africa, including a high level of illiteracy, insufficient infrastructure, political instability, corruption, gender inequality especially when it comes to access to productive assets, lack of social services, and

excessive dependence on a narrow range of commodities for export earnings. To try and overcome these challenges of poverty most African countries embarked on anti-poverty policies. Some of these policies are macro-economic frameworks, trade and price liberation, privatization, and anti-corruption measures. The positive impacts of these economic policies were visible in some countries. Some of these initiatives were accompanied by investment in the social sector, good governance, economic reform, improved primary health care, economic growth and improved social indicators (African Development Bank, 2000:5-7).

In most cases, poor people are mainly affected by the actions of their countries. That is why it is crucial for countries to pay more attention to the promotion of sustainable and equitable growth that provides opportunities for all. Creating opportunities includes fostering broad-based economic growth.

The strong economy requires a sound macroeconomic framework with policies that promote low inflation, a stable exchange rate, reasonable fiscal deficit, and strong private sector involvement. Economic growth also needs investment in human, financial and physical assets as well as skills development. Another important aspect is for poor countries to protect their people from shocks that normally come with changes in economy like globalization (African Development Bank, 2000:7-10).

2.3.1.3 Globalisation and poverty

Poverty occurs internationally but the intensity differs from one country to another. It is argued that the structure of the global economy also contributes to poverty and inequality. Therefore poverty and inequality initiatives to tackle the roots of poverty are required in both the national and international arenas. Governments need to work together to reduce the impact of biased trade practices that favour developed countries over developing countries. At the international level, there are factors that

contribute to poverty. Some of these factors are globalization, volatility of commodity prices, the availability of knowledge and flow of private and official capital. These factors have a direct and indirect impact on poor countries and their ability to reduce poverty (African Development Bank, 2000:25).

As defined by Goldberg and Pavcnik (2006:20), globalization is a broad concept that can be used to describe a variety of phenomena that reflect increased economic inter-dependence of countries, such as flow of goods and services across borders, reduction in policy and transport barriers to trade, international capital flows, multinational activities, foreign direct investment, exposure to exchange rate volatility, and immigration. In short, globalization refers to the movement of goods, services, capital, firms and people and this movement is believed to contribute to the spread of technologies, knowledge, culture and information across borders.

It is indisputable that globalization offers many opportunities, therefore it is not an entirely ruthless and exploitive concept. Some of those opportunities involve new and increased investments, job opportunities, efficient use of resources, and higher productivity. Liberalization of capital flow allows access to external resources needed to finance investments. It is also argued that foreign direct investment attracts transfer of technology, managerial expertise, and skills. The open market allows consumers to access a wider range of better quality goods at reasonable prices. Access to global markets is important in terms of growth and poverty reduction in developing countries. Liberalization of sectors such as agriculture and textiles, which most developing countries depend on, contribute towards economic growth and poverty reduction (African Development Bank, 2000:14).

However, it is important to acknowledge that globalization has a lot of negative spin-offs, particularly when poorly managed. It is even more vital

to be clear about the negative aspects of globalization and the fact that the costs are very unevenly distributed across and within countries and the benefits are very unevenly shared. This means that the benefits tend to concentrate on a few geographical areas. Some of those negative impacts include wider openness to global economy which sometimes increases the risks and exposure to economic shocks. Some countries, especially poor countries, become exposed to sharp fluctuation in capital flows which have a negative impact on poor people (Bond, 2001:123).

Globalization is viewed by some writers as making the task of poverty eradication more difficult. Nsibambi (2001:113) argues that, as the global actors pressurize African governments to open up more and maximize foreign investment and capital inflows, and as big multinationals and local enterprises utilize this environment to cater for their own interests, governments have less space to pay attention to poverty.

Statistical evidence clearly demonstrates a widening of the gap between the rich and the poor, both between countries and within countries. More often, it is the poor Third World countries that are most adversely affected. There is mounting evidence that the distributional changes that were envisioned with globalization were actually the opposite of what conventional wisdom had predicted. While globalization was expected to help the less skilled who are presumed to be the local relatively abundant factor in developing countries there is overwhelming evidence that these countries are generally not better off (Santarelli & Figini, 2002:16).

Watkins and Fowler (2002:204) state that globalization has left millions of people behind. They are of the view that, as a result of globalization, increased prosperity has gone hand-in-hand with mass poverty and the widening of the already concerning inequalities between rich and poor. World trade has the potential to act as a powerful driver for the reduction of poverty and for economic growth. However, that potential is not being

utilized adequately due to the manner in which globalization has been and continues to be managed, or mismanaged.

The problem is not that international trade is inherently opposed to the needs and interests of the poor, but rather that the rules that govern international trade and globalization at large are often rigged in favour of the rich. Watkins and Fowler (2002:206) argues that the human costs of unfair trade are immense, particularly for the developing world. There is a clear link between globalization and poverty, particularly for the developing world, which is often at the receiving end of the negative consequences of globalization. Evidently globalization appears to promote the concept of 'the rich getting richer and the poorer getting poorer".

According to the United Nations Millennium Development Goals Report of 2006, in Sub-Saharan Africa, although the poverty rate declined marginally since 1990, the number of people living in extreme poverty increased by 140 million. While the proportion of people in the developing world suffering from chronic hunger has declined, progress overall is inadequate.

According to Stiglitz (2002:87-90) despite repeated promises of poverty reduction made over the last two-three decades the number of people living in poverty has actually increased by almost 100 million whilst the total world income has actually increased by an average of 2.5 per cent annually. In Africa in particular, instead of the high aspirations following colonial independence being fulfilled, the standard of living is declining.

In general, developed countries have managed to take full advantage of globalization in getting the benefits while minimizing the costs. On the other hand, developing countries have failed to reap the promised rewards of globalization and instead have experienced disadvantages (Stiglitz, 2002:92-94).

2.3.2 Unemployment

2.3.2.1 Global overview on unemployment

According to the International Labour Organization (2010) about one billion people, which is 30 per cent of the world's workforce, are unemployed. It is argued that the national government commitment to the concept of full employment with sustained annual global growth rate of 3,5 per cent could remedy the situation. It is also argued that the current unemployment levels are not economically logical, and in most cases unemployment is either political or economical. In most cases, global unemployment is due to "jobless growth". This is the phenomenon where the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grows with no substantial jobs being created. Creating more open and competitive economies that benefit from expanding trade and investment flows in the global economy can improve the current situation on unemployment. The 2008 economic crisis moved across the globe and crippled most economies, forcing millions of people out of work. As a result, the global unemployment rate for 2009 alone was estimated at 6.6 per cent (International Labour Organization, 2010:6-9).

In both regional and global levels, women are still at a disadvantage in labour markets. Current figures show that the unemployment rate for woman increased by 0.8 per cent globally. This means the gap in unemployment rates by gender is increasing. This is more visible in countries where women still face stronger barriers in the labour market such as in South Asia, Latin America, Caribbean Middle East and North Africa to mention a few. Similar to women, youth are often in a disadvantaged position in the labour market. In most cases, the youth are more likely to be unemployed than adults. Figures show that the number of unemployed youth increased by 8.5 million between 2008 and 2009 (International Labour Organization, 2010:15-18).

In the year 2000, world leaders adopted the Millennium Declaration which was translated into eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to be achieved by 2015. The declaration was endorsed by 189 countries. The eight MDGs entail the following: to reduce poverty and hunger, achieve universal education, promote gender equality, reduce child mortality, combat HIV/AIDS, improve maternal health, promote environmental sustainability, and develop global partnership. The MDGs identified the efforts which must be made by developing countries while highlighting the contribution to be made by developed countries.

Based on the above, in 2007 the United Nations Commission for Social Development decided to expand the MDGs by including new targets for employment, and four new employment indicators. The purpose was to assist countries to monitor and effectively report progress on employment rates. The new employment targets were: proportion of employed people living below the poverty line, vulnerable employment rate, employment to population ratio, and growth rate of labour productivity. These employment indicators were designed to provide relevant measures of progress towards the new targets for MDGs. They also assist countries to interpret and provide a basis for international comparison. Indicators were also designed to be relevant and link to a country's monitoring systems (International Labour Organization, 2009:11-13).

It is argued that monitoring employment trends both internationally and at country level is becoming more necessary due to the impact of the economic crisis that started in 2008. The ongoing global economic crisis in both developed and developing countries is consuming government revenue and affects their ability to pay more attention to health, education and infrastructure. The International Labour Organization (ILO) predicts a dramatic increase in unemployment and poverty and there is thus an urgent need for accurate and detailed data on employment to be produced regularly. Reliable statistics, information and analysis become more

important in influencing development plans, priorities and monitoring policies (International Labour Organization, 2009:14).

2.3.2.2 Unemployment in the South African context

Unemployment largely affects those with least skills, education and work experience. In the South African context, the discrimination in provision of proper education during apartheid meant that millions of South Africans were prevented from acquiring the skills that would assist them to obtain employment (Lewis, 2002:12). Unemployment often contributes to social disorder as a result of loss of hope and leads to crime, disengagement with political processes, and lack of investment in future well-being. This disillusionment normally poses a threat to the future of the country (Levinsohn, 2007:2).

Unemployment and income inequality in South Africa is often spatially influenced, which means that people from urban areas are better off than those in rural areas (Bhorat ,*et al,* 2001:6-8). Previously the black majority lived in rural reserves or in white farming areas. The reserves were set aside for the African population under the Land Act and they also served as an important pillar for segregation (Seekings & Nattrass, 2005:19-23).

Before 1994, the South African workforce was divided on the basis of race, and this meant that a segregated labour market became a stumbling block to economic growth. Previous government promoted employment of white people into state-controlled enterprises and public relief programmes. This was done in order to ensure short-term employment for whites (Bhorat, *et al.,* 2001:9-13). Black people entered the labour market with a disadvantage due to discriminatory expenditure on education. It is also argued that the income and welfare of individuals was based on racial classification and location in the racial hierarchy. For example, Black people were denied access to property because of their skin colour.

The other view is that unemployment and poverty are closely linked in South Africa. This is due to the fact that access to wage income is regarded as the key component when it comes to poverty. This can be attributed to a high reliance on wages and low levels of self-reliant activities including in the informal sector. The growing pool of unskilled labour is contributing to increasing levels of poverty amongst the poor. It can be argued that unemployment in South Africa is structural, chronic and widespread, and there has been a gradual decrease in demand for unskilled labour. This is due to structural changes in the economy which led to a decline in the primary sector, changes in technology and South Africa's involvement in the global economy. Levinson (2007:5) also argues that one of the reasons for unemployment in South Africa is skill-biased technological changes which affected the mining and agriculture sectors. This affected the African population most as they were the majority in these sectors. Recently there has been an influx of less skilled women into the labour market just as demand for less educated workers declined. This automatically led to increased labour supply coupled with a decrease in labour demand. This phenomenon resulted in a situation where labour market demand exceeds the number of new jobs. Therefore this means that there is an urgent need for both medium and long term job creation interventions (McCord, 2004:3-6).

2.3.2.3 South African labour market

There has been debate about progress in the South African economy especially after 1994. Normally the rate of unemployment is one of the key measures of economic progress and in South Africa the unemployment rate has been on an upward trend. This means that the South African economy is not creating enough jobs and employment opportunities are insufficient to meet the needs of a growing labour force. It is argued that one of the contributing factors to this challenge is a severe mismatch between labour demand and supply. The table below shows unemployment rates in South Africa from 2001 to 2011.

Table 1: South African Labour Force Survey (Unemployment rates from 2001-2011)

Year	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Unemployment rates in %	26,4 %	29,7 %	31,3 %	27,9 %	26,5 %	25,6 %	25,5 %	21,9 %	24,3 %	25,2	25,0

Source: Statssa, 2008

The absorption rate remains consistent for a long period and thereby increases supply. Recent studies indicate a very poor labour market performance especially in terms of absorption rate. This is not surprising considering the limited number of jobs available in the market. This means that concentrating on labour supply quality through training and work experience may not have a positive impact if the main issue is demand (McCord, 2004:8-12). The table below indicates the absorption rate from 2001 to 2009.

Table 2: South African Labour Market Indicators (absorption rate Working age population 15-64) from 2001-2009

Year	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Absorption rate in %	43,7 %	41,0 %	39,3%	39,1 %	40.3%	41,7%	41,9 %	44,8 %	41,5 %

Source: StatsSA 2008

It is argued that the post-apartheid era has been characterized by relatively poor performance in economic growth; therefore the economy is struggling to create employment. This phenomenon is normally called “jobless growth”. On the other hand, even though there are not enough jobs for all, the economy is able to create employment for educated individuals. In the South African context this means that fewer people will

get jobs because there are more uneducated people than educated ones. On the other hand, one needs to consider jobs created by the informal sector which are not correctly accounted for (Bhorat, 2007:8-13).

In most cases, the maximum population employed is about 70 per cent for African males and 50 per cent for African females, a level that is lower than other races. The African population enters the workforce at a slower pace due to later school completion and the imbalance between the flow out of school and absorption rate into work. In general there are more Africans who are unemployed, and among African females the number is even higher, as they are entering the labour force at a faster rate than they are being employed. This increase is normally not met equally by demand which automatically results in an increase in unemployment amongst females (Branson, 2006:5-6).

Branson (2006:6) argues that in most cases previous work experience increases the chances of getting a job. Therefore people with no previous work experience are always at a disadvantage when searching for work since their main challenge is that of never been employed. Furthermore, because they spend longer periods without any job their skills become eroded. A large number of unemployed and discouraged people fall into a group of work-seekers who have never worked.

One of the challenges faced by the labour force is that job information is decentralized, limited, costly and it takes time to evaluate. In some cases employers rely on internal networks to supply them with new employees; this automatically reduces the pool from which they pick productive workers (Branson, 2006:2-4).

2.3.3 Inequality

Inequality can be defined in various ways, firstly as a characteristic of social power relations, and secondly as social exclusion. In most cases

inequality is associated with deeply institutionalized social hierarchies especially in societies where class and race is an issue. On the other hand, inequality means imbalance in the distribution of resources. It is therefore argued that policies designed to reduce inequality must also be geared to redistribute resources from rich to poor people. Inequality also involves exclusion from full citizenship which has particular resonance in the South African context (Measurement of Poverty in South Africa, 2007:11).

Discrimination and segregation in South Africa was systematically enforced by apartheid policies, a set of racially discriminatory policies which covered aspects like political, social and labour market apartheid. The core of the system was political apartheid. This resulted in deep and chronic inequality. For example, Seekings and Nattrass (2005:37-45) argue that State policies affected inequality by denying the black majority important opportunities such as business opportunities. These policies played a role in reproduction of inequality. The purpose was to ensure that one section of the population (which was white) was privileged while excluding the majority.

2.4 SKILLS SHORTAGE

Previously in South Africa education for Africans was not adequately funded and school leavers entered the labour market at a disadvantage. White applicants were given first preference when it came to job allocation. Apartheid policies which restricted education and training to whites resulted in under-investment in skills for Africans. Africans were not given the opportunity to accumulate capital and gain job experience. The economic boom of the 1970s created a demand for skilled labour and the state responded by upgrading skills for whites and bringing women into the labour market. Eventually it became impossible to rely on a small base of white employees and the state responded by allowing Africans to be

trained in less skilled jobs – even so, skilled work for blacks was still limited (Bhorat, *et al.*, 2001:10-13).

Quality of education would vary considerably and Africans had a poor and inferior education. The former African school system was inadequate to allow large numbers of African people into modern economy. Those families who were better off or earning better salaries managed to send their children to better schools. This means that resources like money were a determining factor in educational outcome (Van der Berg, 2002:10-17).

Before 1994, South Africa had 19 racially-defined education departments which led to institutional disorganisation. The then Department of Manpower was responsible for co-ordinating all matters relating to training of workers in the private sector. The challenge was that there were separate Manpower departments in the different Homelands and the administration of training for local authorities, the public sector and some parastatals was not handled by the Department of Manpower. Therefore, the certification process was not aligned. The certification challenges were further complicated by the lack of a certification council which was supposed to co-ordinate and synthesize both academic and vocational education and training (McGrath, Badroodien, Kraak & Unwin, 2004:51).

The above led to a situation where there was no accreditation of training being received across industrial sectors and between education and training. There was a high degree of non-co-ordination of study material and certification processes between examining bodies and this led to duplication. The non-transferability of skills was one of the direct results of the fractured system of education in South Africa. In most cases training received from the private sector was not recognized outside the boundaries of a specific enterprise or industry. Sometimes training was provided on an ad hoc basis which denied workers the chance for mobility

(McGrath, *et al.*, 2004:53). The above writers further argue that during the apartheid era the state did not provide institutional linkages that could result in effective macro planning for social and economic development. Even job creation schemes were not linked to economic growth strategies and training provided to the unemployed was of short duration and of poor quality. As a result there was no transfer of credits into the formal training sector. This resulted in a high number of unskilled and illiterate black people remaining unemployed.

Due to the above-mentioned obstacles, by 1994 about half of economically active individuals were not in a position to secure formal employment. Growing unemployment resulted in high levels of poverty and social degradation amongst previously disadvantaged groups. The new democratic government described this legacy as its chief challenge (McGrath, *et al.*, 2004:55).

2.5 ROLE OF EDUCATION IN REDUCING POVERTY AND UNEMPLOYMENT

In most cases unemployment and poverty are associated with illiteracy. The majority of unemployed people do not possess post-school qualifications and are not trained or skilled for specific work (Mthombeni, 1996:4). The role of education in reducing poverty is still considered very important due to its ability to improve the earnings of the poor. Earnings normally include both competing for jobs and as a source of growth, employment and increased labour participation. In South Africa, inequality of education has been a determining factor in earnings distribution. It is argued, however, that while changes in education played a minor role in terms of the shift in earnings, it was the removal of labour market discrimination that made a huge impact. This resulted in a situation whereby some Africans were in a better position to benefit from new

opportunities related to upward movement. Education determines who can and cannot benefit from those new opportunities (Van der Berg, 2002:3-6).

Post-1994, inequality in the education system was no longer based on race but on affordability. African families who had the means managed to send their children to better schools, which resulted in inequality among Africans. Those who could not afford to send their children to expensive schools remained in poor schools which have no resources and substandard teachers. Van der Berg (2002:9) argues that even though there were some improvements in the education system, the damage was already done especially in terms of skills shortages in the country. The growing economy and international competitiveness associated with globalization resulted in a growing demand for skills. A growing economy requires quality human capital to contribute to an economy. Studies show that educational access is no longer a problem but quality is. While about 90 per cent of children of all race groups attend school until matriculation, inequality is mainly visible through low pass rates in black schools (Van der Berg, 2002:22-23).

South African government strategy is based on two assumptions: firstly, that growth will automatically lead to increased employment, and secondly that improved education will assist workers to get skilled employment opportunities. This is the reason why most policies focus on growth and education.

2.6 OVERVIEW OF SKILLS

2.6.1 Skills shortage and economic growth

Berman (2007:52) argues that the most enduring apartheid legacy was the destruction of human capital. This process took place both directly and indirectly. The indirect aspect was when children were used for revolutionary purposes during the fight against repression and the direct

aspect was when African people were denied the chance to further their studies. Even though South Africa has good public and private schools throughout the country, it will take decades to correct the consequences of the apartheid system. The skills shortage in South Africa has been identified as an impediment to economic growth. Other countries find it difficult to do business with South Africa due to the shortage of skilled personnel and companies are forced to source skills from abroad. Accounting firm Deloittes released a report in June 2007 which indicated that 81 per cent of companies struggle to find appropriate staff in South Africa. Studies show that the country has a 40 per cent shortage of artisans with many experienced artisans either retiring or emigrating, and young people refusing to train as artisans as this is seen as a menial occupation.

Berman (2007:54-58) argues that big companies attribute ongoing skills shortages to the replacement of apprenticeship by Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs). It is argued that SETAs are inadequate, inefficient, bureaucratic and need effective management which South Africa does not have, especially in the public sector. Companies like South African Synthetic Oil Limited (SASOL) are embarking on initiatives to overcome skills shortages, investing in skills development by putting aside R140 million for skills development. This funding is channelled through the SETA for Chemical Industries Education and Training. Furthermore, the skills shortage affects all sectors as well as research capabilities. Recent reports indicate that between 40 and 50 per cent of research papers produced around 2003 were written by people who are over 50 years old. Yet South Africa needs academics to stay competitive in the global knowledge economy.

The high dropout at lower grades is also a contributing factor to the skills shortage. For example, in 1992 1.5 million children enrolled in grade one and expected to reach matriculation in 2003. Of the 1.5 million children

only 457 000 reached matriculation. The skills shortage is a real challenge facing government and requires immediate interventions. Skills are under direct threat in relation to South Africa reaching and maintaining 6 per cent growth which is important for reduction of poverty and unemployment and also to halve unemployment by 2014 (Berman, 2007:60).

2.6.2 Training institutions and skills shortages

When the new government took over there was a racially segregated and employer-dominated training system as well as fragmented training institutions and qualifications. Government responded with the Skills Development Act, intended to improve co-ordination for skills development and training among the workforce. The Act was also meant to improve the skills profile of the workforce. A number of institutions were established: the National Skills Authority, Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), National Skills Fund, and the Skills Development Planning Unit in the Department of Labour. The National Skills Fund allocates funds for development of skills for a wide range of workers. All companies and government departments were instructed to contribute towards a skills levy which was to be used for training of unemployed people and those who fall outside of the recognized SETAs. The aim was to address the shortage of skills among the workforce through public-private partnerships (Maziya, 2001:213-214).

In order to ensure that the labour force was regulated to allow for collective bargaining structures across the country, government enacted labour legislation: the Employment Equity Act (1998), Basic Conditions of Employment (1997), Skills Development Act (1998) and Labour Relations Act (1995). The above legislation was implemented to protect the labour force and to address the imbalances of the past. On the other hand, market regulations may lead to employment losses due to reduced demand for the working poor. The labour market policies aimed at

addressing imbalances of the past are also the tools against poverty and inequality. On the other hand, government had to ensure that the working poor do not pay the price of change. For example, there was a contingency plan for possible job losses. The plan was to create employment for low paid workers and to improve their skills (Maziya, 2001:219-220).

2.6.3 Government response to skills shortages and unemployment

To overcome skills shortages, the South African government initiated a number of programmes, one of them the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA). This is part of the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA). JIPSA was initially driven by the then Deputy President Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka. The main objective was to develop skills required by South Africa to achieve a 6 per cent target of economic growth and to halve unemployment by at least 15 per cent by 2014.

This programme involves recruiting and placing graduates in different companies where they are exposed to different marketable skills. Some graduates get the chance to go overseas. It is within this programme where companies are encouraged to spend at least 4 per cent of their payroll on skills development (Berman, 2007:68). This initiative showed that interaction between users and suppliers of education is desirable and possible. The following were some of the mandates for the programme: to prioritize key skills and develop appropriate human resource development strategies, to identify blockages and obstacles within the system of education that might hinder JIPSA achievements, and to maintain momentum and support for the implementation of AsgiSA.

In the process of trying to overcome skills challenges, government tried to introduce quotas for specific scarce skills. This initiative was not

successful due to poor publicity and Home Affairs bureaucracy. This was further complicated by non-recognition of most foreign qualifications by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA). It is argued that large scale emigration of South Africans, especially white people, is adding to the skills crisis. Reports show that about 800 000 white South Africans left the country since 1995 (Berman, 2007:23).

The Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) economic policy was also one of government responses to unemployment. This idea of President Mbeki was to develop a small elite/capitalist groupnwho will in return employ large numbers of people and thereby reduce unemployment. It was believed that it was going to be easy to influence capitalists who are a product of government initiatives to pay more attention to the development of the poor. Unfortunately, the plan did not work because capitalists always look for opportunities to maximize profit. The initiative was criticized for favouring a very small group of elites who were close to the ruling party. Different scholars and writers in general still question the success of BEE in transforming ownership of wealth in South Africa (Freund, 2007:18-25).

Unemployment is mainly concentrated amongst youth and less educated individuals and BEE does not appear to enhance employment of the above-mentioned groups (Levinsohn, 2007:21).

The challenge is that most government initiatives concentrate more on formal skills and as a result the initiatives exclude the majority. Training systems in both industrialized and developing economies tend to be biased towards formal sector skill requirements whereas the reality is that in most cases the challenge of skills is common in most vulnerable groups which are the youth, women and people with disability. The above-mentioned groups mainly constitute the informal sector. Therefore it is imperative for government to concentrate on initiatives that cater for all

South Africans including the vulnerable groups (McGrath, *et al.,* 2004:109).

2.7 MACRO-ECONOMIC POLICIES IN RELATION TO POVERTY AND UNEMPLOYMENT

When the new government took over in 1994 there was an urgent need to complement political liberation and global trade with economic growth that would benefit all South Africans. This meant improved education and training to ensure that the workforce become employable and productive. In order to reduce poverty and increase employment, the South African government made it a priority to promote economic growth. This was done through introduction of macroeconomic policies like the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), and AsgiSA.

The main theme for the RDP was to reduce poverty thereby redressing the inequalities and injustices of the past. Access to education, basic services, jobs, land, and infrastructure were amongst the priorities for the RDP. The RDP office was closed in early 1996 and the staff deployed to other government offices (Aliber, 2003:475). A new policy framework called GEAR was introduced. The objectives for GEAR were to reduce budget deficit, to ensure that South Africa reached 6 per cent economic growth and to ensure redistribution through job creation (Khamfula, 2004:7-8). GEAR also put more emphasis on controlling inflation, interest rates and flexible foreign exchange controls. The criticism of GEAR was that it hindered economic growth and had an impact on high levels of unemployment, inequality and poverty. Another criticism was that GEAR was a neo-liberal compromise as well as an inappropriate approach to solving most economic problems.

One of the weaknesses of GEAR was that it introduced a reduction in government expenditure without putting measures and mechanisms in place to promote expansion of investment and exports. This is one of the reasons why the strategy was seen as an obstacle to growth (Aliber, 2003:475). GEAR managed to increase economic growth but unfortunately it was jobless growth. This became apparent in 2000 when growth reached a four-year high while formal sector job losses accelerated. The positive side was that GEAR managed to reduce the fiscal deficit (Aliber, 2003:478).

The performance of GEAR was also affected by the global economic crisis of 1998. Due to a global economic crisis there was a decline in world demand for South African exports between 1995 and 2000. This phenomenon resulted in massive shedding of labour by most firms. When government realized that GEAR did not reduce poverty and unemployment a new intervention was introduced - AsgiSA (Khamfula, 2004:8-9).

The AsgiSA principles are economic growth and reduction of unemployment and poverty. Within the above policy an estimated R4,5 billion was set aside for the EPWP whose main purpose was to target youth, women and people with disability. The abovementioned macroeconomic policies were introduced by government to address the challenge of unemployment and poverty (Mustaffa, 2008:41).

In the process of trying to reduce poverty and unemployment in South Africa, government introduced various approaches including the trickle-down approach. There was a belief that poor people would benefit from growth through a trickle-down effect. Unfortunately this approach did not work as planned and underscores the point that economic growth and human development are linked through opportunities that each imposes upon the other. Growth is a necessary condition but not a sufficient condition for poverty alleviation and human development. May (1998:40)

argues that what was needed for development was a freeing of markets and removal of state control and intervention. Unfortunately this view was challenged by most writers, especially political economists. Academics agree that the state has an important role to play especially when it comes to provision of non-tradeable goods like infrastructure and public administration. It is also argued that the poor did not benefit from market-oriented macroeconomic policy reforms due to the underlying institutional context which remained the same (May, 1998:43).

2.8 NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE EPWP

2.8.1 Historical background

The historical PWP was on a smaller scale as compared to the current interventions. It was around the 1920s and 1930s that PWP emerged on a larger scale in most countries. The International Labour Conference of 1919 debated and considered PWP in its first resolution: this was one of the early modern attempts to increase both infrastructure and employment (Social and Economic Planning Council, 1946:6-8).

The growth and influence of social conscience resulted in the extension of PWP to construction of social infrastructure like hospitals, low cost housing and roads. Previously most country's economic growth was not sufficient to generate the required employment opportunities and this became worse during times of recession. Therefore most countries had to rely on development policies to provide employment opportunities for unemployed, unskilled and retrenched people. This situation forced many countries to introduce different initiatives on either a short or long-term basis, and PWP was one of those initiatives (Mthombeni, 1996:24-25).

In the 1920s and 1930s, PWP was used as a tool to overcome a short term unemployment crisis. PWP was mainly popular in developed countries. The United States of America is one of the countries that

embarked on PWP to overcome a short-term crisis at the same time that there were some measures in place to avoid dependency. Britain, Sweden and Canada also implemented PWP but as unemployment decreased in the 1960s, PWP also became less important (Meyer, 1948:21-28).

During the same period PWP was also introduced in less developed countries like Kenya, Nigeria and Tanzania with assistance and support of the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and other donors. Most of these programmes were in a form of Special Public Works Programmes. This means that the aim was to supplement existing government policies by providing urgent employment to those in need. The difference between developed and developing countries was the nature of unemployment. It is argued that developed countries had acute unemployment while developing countries were suffering from structured and chronic unemployment. This means that unemployment was a permanent feature of most countries' economic profile. It is this difference in the nature of poverty and unemployment that raises concerns in terms of applying the same initiatives across different countries and continents. In most cases the same measure cannot be applicable across the board due to different circumstances in each country, therefore measures need to be revised and adjusted to suit the real needs of different countries (Steward, 1987:198).

PWP in South Africa was introduced around the 1930s as a short to long-term initiative which was used to cater for post-war conditions and as a post-depression measure. It was introduced to cater for poor whites, of mainly Afrikaans-speaking origin. This population was from farms, illiterate and not aware of urban life and with no industrial skills. These were the reasons why they did not secure permanent and formal jobs in the labour market but were hired to build railways, work at irrigation works, forestry plantations and anti-erosion rehabilitation in rural areas. It is argued that

the beneficiaries were trained in different skills and eventually found permanent jobs in both the private and public sectors. This was due to the nature of economic growth at that time.

In the 1930s PWP was described as one of the successful programmes (Abedian and Standish, 1986:124), but this success is debatable considering the discriminatory nature of the then PWP. It is impossible and inappropriate to claim success when the initiatives are catering for a small group at the expense of a larger population.

2.8.2 EPWP objectives, rationale and assumption

EPWP was adopted by the Government of National Unity as a key delivery tool for the RDP. The aim was to ensure that infrastructural provision highlighted by the RDP is provided in ways that creates more job opportunities while at the same time ensuring provision of skills and training to beneficiaries. According to Mthombeni (1996), EPWP was contextualized on the basis of four aspects, namely: the work should be carried out by either government or private institution and if private it should be subsidized and supervised by government; the programme should be financed through public funds; the programme should be short to long-term; and the programme should serve public interests which could not be catered for under normal circumstances. The EPWP was not meant to become a welfare or relief scheme but to empower beneficiaries through training and provision of skills.

EPWP is one of the government's short to medium strategies. Different types of EPWP have common objectives, which are poverty alleviation and asset creation. Poverty reduction is through a transfer to increase household income. It is argued that this transfer does not take participants out of poverty but instead it relieves poverty. McCord (2003:4) stated that poverty reduction programmes like the EPWP are more complex to

manage and implement because they have various components like training, micro-finance, empowerment and sustainable livelihoods. The EPWP in South Africa consists of multiple objectives which makes it one of the more innovative programmes in the world but there are some negative effects that come with a multiplicity of objectives. On the positive side, the multiple objectives give the EPWP developmental potential. The main objectives of the EPWP are: 1) to create, rehabilitate and maintain physical assets; 2) to educate, train and empower beneficiaries; 3) to capacitate communities, strengthen local government and community-based institutions and generate sustainable economic development; 4) to reduce unemployment through job creation. On the other hand, it is argued that the multiplicity and plurality of EPWP objectives hinders progress on the most important objective which is job creation. For the EPWP to achieve the abovementioned objectives it must be correctly arranged institutionally (McCord, 2003:6-9).

The assumption was that the EPWP will assist in addressing the challenges of poverty and unemployment. This means addressing both social development and economic objectives. It is argued that the non-wage benefits like improved labour market access as a result of experience and training are often assumed but not proven.

The rationale behind this initiative was that economic growth will generate demand for labour exiting from EPWP. This assumption contributed to false expectations because economic growth does not necessarily guarantee job creation. South Africa is faced with the challenge of jobless growth. It is this assumption as well that made government assume that EPWP beneficiaries will get jobs after exiting the programme. Such assumptions also led to a false belief that participating in EPWP will enable most workers to progress from the second to the first economy as demand for labour increases. However, evidence drawn from South Africa and internationally indicates that the EPWP does not necessarily draw

participants into the labour market. Instead it provides temporal employment, it does not move beneficiaries out of poverty, and it does not offer a sustainable livelihood (McCord, 2003:4-5).

Complications were further increased by the way the Department of Public works defined the nature of unemployment in South Africa. It is argued that the Department of Public Works described the South African challenge of unemployment as an interim or transitory matter while within government there is a consensus that South Africa has the challenge of chronic and structured unemployment and poverty. It is argued that wrong descriptions normally result in wrong initiatives. The above argument shows that some assumptions and objectives were based on an incorrect analysis of the situation (McCord, 2004:7).

The scope of EPWP covers all public expenditure on infrastructure and this makes it economically viable and practically possible to use labour-intensive techniques. The overall goal is to use labour instead of machines where technically and economically possible. In 1996/1997 financial year R150 million was made available and eventually allocated to all nine provinces. The amount allocated to each province was based on level of unemployment, level of poverty, skills level, and requirements relating to infrastructure (Mthombeni, 1996:44).

2.8.3 Duration of participation

The EPWP is a short term policy instrument by the government. EPWP is defined a short-term, non-permanent and labour-intensive programme. Employment is offered for between one and four months. This duration of participation was structured to provide as many people with opportunities as possible. The duration of participation is important because it determines the impact on poverty. Due to the short-term nature of employment in the EPWP the wages received increase household income

during the employment period but do not necessarily impact on poverty reduction or improved livelihood (McCord, 2003:24).

Furthermore, the short duration of participation in the EPWP results in a situation where participants are not properly trained to be absorbed by the labour market. Considering the chronic and structural nature of unemployment in South Africa, this indicates a situation where participants return to a poverty cycle after exiting the programme. The short period of the intervention also makes multiplier effects and any form of informal income generation impossible, and the income received by beneficiaries is not invested but rather used for immediate needs.

The impact of the EPWP is visible in areas of non-income poverty. This is seen in improved regular school attendance, reduced stigma of poverty and the purchase of adequate clothing (McCord, 2004:11). The duration makes the EPWP inappropriate to respond to the chronic labour market crisis facing South Africa. Even though unemployment in South Africa is described as being chronic rather than acute, the EPWP only offers short term or temporal employment; this means that EPWP offers an acute response to a chronic problem. The failure to recognize that unemployment is chronic resulted in a situation whereby different initiatives respond to transient rather than chronic unemployment. In most cases short term policy instruments like the EPWP are used if there is temporal unemployment resulting from acute economic shock. In the case of South Africa, which is characterized by chronic unemployment, the policy instrument should be oriented to the creation of demand through large scale public sector employment offering employment guarantees and sustained employment. This means that the EPWP is too limited in scale and too short in duration to make a difference and impact on the unemployment crisis (McCord, 2004:6-8).

Studies show, however, that the EPWP has the potential to respond to poverty and unemployment if it is appropriately designed in terms of scale and duration. There is at present a gap between policy outcomes and programme outcomes and the exaggerated assumptions and claims for what the EPWP can achieve are believed to inhibit and prevent further debate on alternative and larger scale government initiatives to address unemployment and poverty.

The EPWP should not be viewed as the solution to unemployment but as one of the short to medium interventions aimed at alleviating the poverty associated with unemployment. The job opportunities which are created by the EPWP are small when compared with the scale of unemployment in South Africa (McCord, 2004:13).

The programme should be regarded as complementary to social security grants but not as an alternative, because it is not realistic to assume that the programme will provide for all those who are in need. One of government's concerns is the hand-out nature of the social grant. The EPWP can be used as one of the mechanisms to channel income into the hands of the unemployed. The impact of the EPWP on unemployment depends on the scale of the programme. The EPWP needs to be designed in a manner that avoids and minimizes unintended consequences like displacement of long-term employment with short-term and lower paid jobs (Phillips, 2004:4-9).

International experiences reveal that there are mistakes that are easily avoided to ensure the success and positive impact of the EPWP, such as attempting to achieve too much too quickly, less time to plan properly, and overloading the programme with too many objectives that are not achievable (Phillips, 2004:5-6).

2.9 COMMUNITY BASED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME

The Community Based Public Works Programme (CBPWP) is the second component of the National Public Works Programme (NPWP). The CBPWP is normally implemented by Provincial Departments and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). This does not mean that any Provincial Department or any NGO can implement CBPWP; it depends on a proven capacity and ability to effectively distribute and handle public funds. In 1996 funds were distributed to all nine Provinces and selected NGOs. The NGOs were the Independent Development Trust (IDT), Siyakha Sugar Community Development Programme, National Youth Services, and Transkei Community School Building Trust (Mthombeni, 1996:37).

The CBPWP is a short-term programme under the umbrella of NPWP. The main objective is to provide short-term employment especially to the most needy. Initially the CBPWP was initiated to kick-start the NPWP and demonstrate that it is possible to provide sustainable infrastructure through active involvement of communities. It is argued that the main purpose of the CBPWP, especially in its first year, was to capacitate provinces to be able to implement development projects and to build capacity of communities for development (Mthombeni, 1996:40).

Under CBPWP projects come from community groups, local authorities and line function departments. The projects should align with CBPWP criteria. Some of the criteria are labour intensive methods of delivery, a high degree of community involvement, management and maintenance aspects, and training and capacity building components (Mthombeni, 1996:45).

Even though the CBPW was initiated to provide short-term visible poverty relief to the poor, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Transport took a

different approach, and initiated the Zimambele programme in 2000. The objective was to carry out routine maintenance on the Province's rural roads by poor rural households with no other sources of income. In this programme, work was allocated per household meaning that if the participating member of the household got sick or died, another member of the same household could take over the activities. The advantages of this arrangement were that income remained in one household for a reasonable period. Another advantage was that due to the continuous nature of routine road maintenance work, it is possible to create longer term job opportunities (Phillips, 2004:121-124).

As mentioned, the CBPWP was suppose to be a pilot programme and lay a foundation for the NPWP but its duration was not clearly stipulated. In most cases, the duration of a pilot is determined by the scale and duration of the main programme. This was due to the procedure laid down by the NPW which is in line with experience and lessons learned. The lesson was that a large-scale programme must be preceded by a pilot phase. The CBPW was expected to exist for at least two to three years to build institutional and technical capacity required by the main programme. The main challenge was that there was no monitoring and evaluation framework in place to assist in the revision of the National Programme. This can be attributed to a lack of understanding of what a pilot phase is and its main objectives (Mthombeni, 1996:47-51).

2.10 INSTITUTIONAL CHALLENGES

There are institutional challenges which were identified as stumbling blocks to the success of the EPWP. These are lack of project management skills at both government and community levels, inconsistencies between projects in wages and duration for participation, duplication of effort by different line ministries, limited community participation, lack of Integrated Development Plans to promote departmental co-ordination, and lack of incentives to convince provincial

ministries and the private sector to use labour-intensive techniques. It is argued that duplication and inefficiencies hinder overall employment creation objectives and contribute to an inability to spend funds (McCord, 2003:21-22). One of the disadvantages of the EPWP is that a large proportion of resources are absorbed by administration and bureaucrats administering the projects rather than being channelled to the poor. During the process of trying to provide skills, many resources are absorbed by management (Nattrass, 2003:11).

2.11 WHAT DOES DEVELOPMENT MEAN?

The concept of development is broad, complex and difficult to define. Economists may define development as achievement of economic growth. It has been argued that this narrow definition offers little meaning to the poor. Experience shows that economic growth does not necessarily lead to improved living standards for the poor (Clark, 1991:95). When it comes to the country's development, the following questions should be asked: What has been happening to poverty, unemployment and inequality? If the listed socio-economic challenges have decreased, one can say that the country has achieved higher development. The reason for failure in development efforts has been an inability to address the challenge of hunger. Development can also be defined as enabling people to achieve their aspirations. The challenge lies in how to define what people's aspirations are. This brings in the argument that says development should be done by the people not to the people. Governments and aid agencies should assist in co-ordinating institutions, infrastructure, services and support but ensure that development is achieved by people themselves. Financial aid did not result in development in Africa. In most African countries this aid merely assisted elites to increase their personal fortunes and power (Clark, 1991:98).

Since the Second World War the main development actors have been international institutions like the World Bank and the United Nations organizations. The type of development promoted by these international organizations was insensitive to the needs of the local people. This type of development was also insensitive to the environment, especially in developing countries. For example, there was more focus on extraction of natural resources rather than environmental protection. It is argued that the focus was more on wealth production than wealth distribution. The international view of development was also on production for export rather than the needs of the local people. Even the technologies used in agriculture were not appropriate and this led to ongoing problems that developing countries still face. All these factors raise the issue of the definition for the concept of development. Another issue that needs clarity is "whose" development it is. Development is in serious crisis and there is a growing concern that a new approach is required (Clark, 1991:99-105).

Evans (1995:108) has a different perspective of the theory of development. She believed that development in the 21st century should depend on generation of intangible assets like ideas, skills and networks rather than tangible assets like accumulation of capital. This put more emphasis on human capabilities or human capital. It is also argued that new development theories take political institutions and capacity to set those goals as main elements of economic growth. Evans (1995:110) further emphasizes that open participation and public interchange can define development goals and the means of achieving those goals. If one considers what modern development is suggesting it becomes clear that state capacity will have a major role in societal success.

The way in which Evans views development using a modern development approach raises questions like what type of institutional arrangement can assist societies to acquire new skills, knowledge and ideas, as well as networks to achieve development. For the past decades, development

strategies were based on natural resources and land but not on knowledge and ideas. Evans further argues that reproducing ideas is less expensive which means that multiplying valuable ideas lead to high returns. The new development theories also emphasize the importance of human capability as an essential element to development. This includes capabilities of people to be able to lead the kind of life they prefer. On this aspect, the capabilities of political institutions and civil societies are considered important in the process of developmental goal setting. Individual capabilities, which are knowledge and skills, are considered as one of the key inputs to growth (Evans, 1995:112-118).

2.12 COMMUNITY-BASED DEVELOPMENT

It is argued that Community Based Development (CBD) is amongst the fastest growing mechanisms for development. The cornerstone of CBD is active involvement of target communities. Participation should ensure that projects are better designed, ensure that project benefits are distributed equally, and minimize leakages due to corruption. Mthombeni (1996:112) argues that community development should involve self-reliance, community participation and involvement especially in own initiatives. Community development can also be defined as social learning, a collective action at the grassroots level and a process that results in community capacity-building There are many levels of participation but most initiatives become effective if communities are involved at least at the level of design and implementation (Mansuri & Rao, 2004:90).

That is where “local knowledge” becomes so important. CBD is different from other types of development because this is where communities have direct control over key project decisions. This includes direct involvement in the management of investment funds. In most cases, CBD promotes sustainability, improves efficiency and effectiveness, allows for poverty reduction efforts, makes development more inclusive and empowers poor people. The above positive elements of CBD can be attributed to effective

communication, flow of information between potential beneficiaries and funders, as well as giving targeted communities the chance to identify and prioritize their projects. If the above is done carefully, it automatically leads to support from communities which in most cases results in sustainability of community initiatives. Giving people the chance to voice their views and allowing them to have control over development encourages success (Mansuri & Rao, 2004:95-106).

It is, however, argued that CBD is not always successful, especially if community projects are dominated by elites and a self-serving agenda like rent-seeking activities. If the community is dominated by elites most project benefits are normally consumed by community leaders with little attempt made to include ordinary members. In this case, well trained project staff is critical to bring the element of inclusiveness and ensure that communities are informed participants of development.

Participation is not always perfect. There are disadvantages associated with this process. For example, participation can be costly under certain conditions. In some cases, participation is a public event which means local relations of power, authority and different agendas. The above can lead to prolonged participation processes with less positive results. Studies have shown that community projects are better maintained than those managed by local government. Evidence shows a correlation between community participation and better project outcomes (Mansuri & Rao, 2004:115).

2.13 THE VICIOUS CIRCLE

Myrdal (1963 :6-10) argues that there is a circular and cumulative process in which one negative factor causes another negative factor. This is a set of complex, interlocking factors. This process is normally called the “vicious circle”. This is usually visible in social processes which follow a specific direction based on the circumstances at that particular time. For example, in a South African context, the African population was excluded from the economy, moved to rural “homelands” where there were no resources, most of them were not educated and because they are uneducated they are unemployed and poor and it is likely that their children will also be poor.

Myrdal further argues that this circular force has the ability to keep poor people in poverty indefinitely. The circular causation also tends to become cumulative and gain momentum. On the other hand, it is argued that this circular movement of the social processes can be stopped. In most cases it is policy intervention that has the ability to slow down or stop the circular process. In the case of South Africa the policies and initiatives introduced by a democratically elected government managed to slow down the cumulative process caused by apartheid laws. The policies and initiatives should be comprehensive and strive to holistically address the challenges. The interlocking nature of the factors makes it useless and inefficient to address challenges in isolation or separately.

The time factor is critical in addressing the vicious circle. For example, a rise in employment can immediately raise the standard of living but the change in levels of education or health is achieved slowly and its effects on other factors are delayed and non-visible (Myrdal, 1963:12-22).

According to Joubert (2008:89) growing up in rural areas of Southern Africa means growing up without a decent education. Rural people are

caught in the vicious cirle of limited access to services or opportunities that might lift them out of poverty. Those opportunities are education, adequate nutrition, infrastructure and communication. Poverty and illiteracy remain overwhelmingly rural phenomena. It is argued that the curriculum should be relevant to rural people's needs and combine content and information related to local conditions to allow learners to apply knowledge and skills learned. Improving education requires long term effort, commitment, and integrated action at local, provincial, national and international levels.

2.14 SUMMARY

The literature revealed that the challenges of unemployment, inequality and poverty inherited by the new government in 1994 was as a result of apartheid government policies which were based in segregation, discrimination and job reservation. This resulted in a large pool of unskilled labour that cannot secure formal employment. The literature also reveals inconsistencies in policy discourse about the labour market in South Africa particularly related to appropriate initiatives.

There is an element of exaggeration around what the EPWP can achieve. It is this exaggeration that normally inhibits further debate on alternative programmes and more effective government responses to unemployment and poverty. There is an urgent need to differentiate between realistic potential impact and rhetoric impact of the programme. Based on the literature there is a need for a large scale policy intervention if government really wants to encourage participation of poor people in the economy by providing a ladder from the second to the first economies. However, this would not be a quick and easy process considering the fact that the majority of the South African population is not fully literate, and have few skills and capital to enter the economic mainstream.

On the other hand the socioeconomic challenges faced by most developing countries, including South Africa, are further complicated by changes in technology and entry into the global economy. This phenomenon contributed to the widening of the gap between the poor and rich. This means that the benefits of the global economy are usually enjoyed by a select few. The short-term nature of the EPWP does not allow the programme to respond to the chronic poverty and unemployment facing South Africa. One cannot expect chronic poverty to be eradicated through employment that lasts for only 24 months. Whether the cause of poverty and unemployment is due to a complex history or a challenging global economy coupled with change in technology, the South African government has the mandate to initiate different approaches to address these challenges.

The EPWP can be used as one of those initiatives but it needs to be reviewed in terms of its impact and effectiveness. The impact can be maximized by reviewing the nature and scope of the programme. The literature also indicated that the growing unemployment and poverty challenges faced by South Africa are due to the economy's inability to absorb the increasing economically active population and a mismatch between labour demand and supply. Policies and initiatives must be properly designed to minimise the effects of this situation.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This section indicates how data was collected, presented and analyzed. In this chapter the researcher demonstrates how the raw data was incorporated into the research report and whether the findings confirm the general assumption.

According to Neuman (2006:79), methodology is what makes social science scientific. Regarding social science, social researchers normally choose from various approaches, and each approach comes with its own philosophical assumptions. These different approaches assist researchers to make informed decisions on the appropriate approach, and the decisions are normally influenced by the type and nature of the research. The dominant and popular approaches in social science are positivist social science, interpretive social science, and critical social science.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

Due to the nature of the research topic, this research followed a qualitative paradigm which is influenced by the interpretive approach. In most cases interpretive researchers use participant observation and field research, which involves personal interaction with the participants. Interpretive research normally concentrates on how people construct meaning in their natural setting. The above points characterize the type of the study conducted and these points support the reason for choosing the qualitative paradigm.

The decision to use a qualitative approach was because the type of study needs personal interaction with participants and relevant officials in order to get details of their situation. The qualitative approach requires the researcher to understand the reason why a specific phenomenon is happening. The why and how questions cannot be answered by quantitative but by qualitative research (Woods, 2006:36).

Qualitative research is concerned about life as it is lived, situations as they happen and situations as they are constructed. Qualitative researchers try to seek out lived experiences in a real situation. The purpose is not to disturb the scene but to ensure that data analysis comes closer to what is really happening (Woods, 2006:38).

In most cases, the qualitative researcher is more interested in understanding the meaning that the participants attach to their situation. It is also argued that the field researcher strives to understand the world of his or her participants without influencing its shape and content (Singleton, Straits & Strains, 1993:12) It is crucial for a qualitative researcher to be close to participants, to look at things through their eyes, and to appreciate inconsistencies, ambiguities and contradictions. Due to the fact that social life is ongoing and constantly changing, this calls for the researcher to spend more time with participants observing the situation in order to gain the richness of the situation (Woods, 2006:43-47).

According to Henning, Van Rensburg, Wilhelm and Smith, (2004:105), qualitative research investigates qualities of the phenomena instead of quantities. Bryman (2004:265-268) argues that qualitative research normally emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and interpretation of data. Qualitative is mainly characterized by face-to-face interaction and participation. Qualitative researchers are more interested in providing descriptive details and are concerned with explanation. One of the reasons why qualitative researchers concentrate on providing details is

that they value the importance of a contextual understanding of social behaviour. In most cases, the specific behaviour makes sense when it takes place in a particular context. Bryman (2004:269) also argues that qualitative research tends to view social life in terms of process. This normally happens in different ways, such as showing how events and patterns unfold over time. That is why this research approach is referred to as interpretive. It also strives to find out what happens, how it happens and why; this means that the aim is not only to look at human actions but also to look at people's feelings and thoughts.

There are criticisms normally associated with the qualitative approach. One of them is that qualitative research is too impressionistic and subjective. This means that this type of research relies on the researcher's non-systematic views of what is significant. In most cases what a researcher decides to focus on becomes significant. Bryman (2004) further argues that the subjectivity is due to close personal relationships that the researcher builds with the participants. The argument further states that even the interpretation of data is easily influenced by the subjective leanings of the researcher and this therefore makes qualitative research impossible to replicate. Another criticism is associated with generalization. It is argued that the scope of findings is restricted. This criticism is linked to unstructured interviews which are normally conducted with a small number of participants in a specific locality or organization. The argument is that it is impossible to know how the findings can be generalized to other settings. Another concern is how one can or two cases can be considered representative of all cases (Bryman, 2004:283-290).

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data. In most cases, the choice of a specific research design is influenced by a range of dimensions of the research process (Bryman, 2004:297). Qualitative research can be defined as an approach rather than a

particular technique. Field studies can be used in the description of groups, small communities and organizations (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005:99). Regarding the EPWP, in trying to understand whether beneficiaries are able to use their skills to survive after exiting the programme, the case study was deemed appropriate. This helped the researcher to get details from the participants. Gauteng Province: Alexandra Working for Water Project was used as a case study.

A case study means that a limited number of units of analysis are studied intensively. Bryman (2004:109) argues that the case study normally entails the detailed intensive analysis of a single case. The unit of analysis may consist of individuals and groups. Even if an individual is studied, that individual becomes a representative of a particular population. The unit of analysis is not always a human being but may also be personal documents such as diaries, letters, institutions, classrooms, a programme or a policy. Simons (2009:2-6) also argues that a case study is a study of the singular, the particular and the unique. The main purpose is to study the uniqueness of the single case. There are different types of case studies and different reasons for their use. Case study can be defined as an approach because it has an overarching research methodological purpose which affects the type of method to be used to collect data (Simons, 2009:8-13). In most cases where a group or an institution is being investigated, fieldwork becomes more appropriate. This assists in investigating a certain phenomenon under its natural circumstances. The term case study also means that the case should be defined or demarcated (Welman, *et al*., 2005:103-109).

Some advantages of the case study are as follows: (a) it is easy for the researcher to document multiple perspectives, explore contested viewpoints, and observe interaction between the key actors; (b) it is possible to document, observe and interpret events as they unfold in their real life and setting; and (c) there is also the chance to engage participants

in the research process. On the other hand, the disadvantages include personal involvement and subjectivity of the researcher. Case study can also present a distorted picture of the way things are (Simons, 2009:18-24).

Simons also indicated that there are three types of case studies: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. Intrinsic is where the case is studied for the interest in the case itself, to acquire an understanding of issues or questions.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION

3.4.1 Primary data

Interviews were the main source of data collection in this study and assisted the researcher to get detailed information direct from the participants. The researcher arranged interviews with the beneficiaries who exited the WFW programme with the assistance of Working for Water Programme leader, Project Manager and Contractors. This method is normally called “snowball” where the researcher reaches other respondents through the assistance of a few people. Rubin (2005:39) argues that it is important to target people who are directly involved rather than to get information via someone else. This helps the researcher to get first-hand information and understand how people feel about their situation.

An interview is defined as a structured conversation where the researcher gently guides a conversation in a specific direction but without asking leading questions. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data for this study. Based on the nature of the research, questions can be narrow or broad (Rubin, 2005:4).

During the interview it is critical to listen actively in order to hear what is being presented by the respondent. This may sound easy but in actual fact it requires a specific skill and patience. A common mistake of researchers is to ask too many questions at the same time and to intervene too quickly. But at the same time one should also try to avoid the situation where the interviewee dominates the interview, takes the interviewer off track and prevents the researcher from gaining relevant data (Simons, 2009:47).

In order to identify beneficiaries for this study, the researcher communicated with a Gauteng Working for Water Programme Leader who then requested the Project Managers based in Alexandra/Jukskei Project to link the researcher with relevant beneficiaries. The beneficiaries who exited the programme were traced using the database obtainable from the Working for Water office and the satellite office in Alexandra. Besides using the database, Working for Water contractors assisted to identify beneficiaries who were previously involved in the WFW programme. Contractors are normally close to the beneficiaries, and know where to find them even if they are no longer working for them. This is made possible by the fact that contractors and beneficiaries reside in the same areas.

Face-to-face interviews with those beneficiaries who exited the programme was conducted. Talking to beneficiaries individually and on different occasions gave them the freedom to express themselves without influence from others. To attend to participants on a one-on-one basis gave the researcher the advantage of hearing views that were not influenced by others. The researcher also arranged interviews with four officials from the Gauteng Working for Water Programme, including Working for Water Programme Leader, Training Office, Social Development Officer and Jukskei Project Manager. This was done to obtain different views from different levels of participant.

One of the advantages of conducting interviews is that those being interviewed get the chance to raise their views freely and also get the time to ask questions of clarity (Mustaffa, 2008:63-64). Silverman (1993:87-94) argues that some advantages of conducting interviews are as follows: The researcher gets the chance to collect facts (biographical information), know people's beliefs, feelings, motives, present and past behaviours. However, according to Silverman (2007:99) interviews do have disadvantages as well, some of them that information provided might be distorted due to feelings, emotions and beliefs of the respondents, in some cases respondents find it difficult to adequately express their views, the researcher might misinterpret data, and the researcher may unconsciously influence respondents. To minimize these disadvantages, the researcher needs to undertake various actions.

To mitigate some of the disadvantages, the following techniques were used: probing, which means asking follow-up questions to get more details; clarification, which includes providing more clarity to the questions for better understanding and confirmation of answers to prevent misinterpretation of responses. Furthermore, the respondents were encouraged to express themselves in their language. To avoid influencing responses the researcher listened carefully without trying to provide answers to respondents.

3.4.2 Secondary data

Secondary data was used to enhance and strengthen the findings collected through interviews. The secondary data was from the following sources: database of ex-beneficiaries from Jukskei Working for Water Programme office, Environment and Culture Sector report (2004), an overview of the performance and potential of EPWP in S.A (2003), Growth and Development Summit (2003), and overcoming underdevelopment in S.A's secondary economy (2004). The advantage of using secondary data

is that it provides information that may not be collected through interviews. In addition to the above-mentioned sources of information, books, journals and research reports were used. Books and journals normally assist to enhance and highlight key points and also to draw comparisons between findings and literature.

3.4.3 Sampling

The main purpose of sampling is to collect specific cases, events or actions that can give more clarity and understanding of a specific phenomenon. In most cases the qualitative researcher is concerned about finding cases that will enhance what was learned. Qualitative researchers prefer to use non-probability or non-random samples. This means that they are not concerned about the size of the population from which the sample was drawn (Neuman, 2006:217).

In this study the researcher used snowball sampling which is non-probability sampling. The researcher identified beneficiaries who exited the WFW programme through the assistance of project manager and contractors. In this type of sampling the researcher depends on the referral from one person to the other. Snowball sampling is also called network or chain referral. The important feature of snowball sampling is that each person or unit is connected with another, whether direct or indirect (Neuman, 2006:222-223). There are some weaknesses associated with non-probability sampling: (a) there is a possibility of researcher's bias in the selection of units; (b) the pattern of variability cannot be predicted from probability sampling theory, and this makes it difficult to detect sampling error. The stated weaknesses mean that one should be careful when using this method (Singleton, *et al*., 1993:159).

To overcome or minimize some of the above weaknesses of non-probability sampling, the researcher ensured that aspects such as gender, age and marital status were considered during the selection of

beneficiaries. This was done through guiding the contractors to consider the above aspects when selecting the beneficiaries.

The number of people interviewed was limited to sixteen (16) as this is a reasonable figure to avoid large volumes of data that will be difficult to analyze. This comprised twelve (12) beneficiaries and four (4) officials. The researcher believed that responses from sixteen respondents gave a broader picture of the situation.

3.5 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

According to Eysenck (2004:87-90), in qualitative research information obtained from participants is not interpreted in a numerical form because the emphasis is on the stated experiences and meaning participants attach to themselves, other people and their environment. In most cases, investigators using interviews, case studies or observations normally make use of qualitative data. Researchers who collect qualitative data use a variety of data analysis methods. The popular method is to divide information according to categories or themes.

The following steps were taken in this study:

- Gathered information obtained from participants.
- Reviewed field notes and transcripts, label and put into categories. Items that seemed relevant in all groups were included in all groups.
- Coded data as it was collected. This prevents a situation where the researcher feels overwhelmed by data. It also assists to sharpen understanding of data.
- Formed a set of categories based on the information obtained from previous steps.

- The final step was to make interpretation or derive meaning from the data.

The categories were flexible and were changed whenever relevant information came to light. Eysenck (2004:93) argues that qualitative researchers are not only interested in the number of items falling into each category but their major concern is variety of meaning, attitudes and interpretations found in each category. Direct quotations from participants were also used during data presentation.

Neuman (2006:457-458) states that qualitative researchers carefully formulate conceptual definitions, create new concepts and establish relationships among concepts. The above process lead to a point where concepts are linked together in terms of sequence, oppositional or similar categories that can be interwoven into theoretical statements.

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:102-107) argues that when a researcher conducts a study he/she provisionally supports a theory and the data obtained will finally determine whether that theory is supported or not. Data analysis means converting raw field notes into write-ups which can be read, edited and analyzed. Theme identification is one of the most important aspects of data analysis. In this study themes were identified before, after and during data collection. There are different techniques available that can be used to identify themes. In this study the researcher used word analysis which involves considering word repetitions and keywords in context.

One of the advantages of qualitative analysis is that it is less influenced by the biases and theoretical assumptions of the researcher. On the other hand, the disadvantage is that findings tend to be unreliable and hard to replicate, since qualitative approach is subjective (Eysenck, 2004:93-98).

3.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

During data collection the limitation was in identifying beneficiaries who exited the programme a few years ago. Most of them were no longer staying in Alexandra township, but had moved to other areas in search of other job opportunities. The assistance from the project manager and contractors became very important to overcome this limitation. They managed to trace some of the beneficiaries using the contact details found in their offices. Friends and family members of the beneficiaries were also used to trace those who were no longer staying in the township. Another limitation was limited literature on EPWPs.

The researcher also worked for the Working for Water Programme from 2000-2005, where the researcher was responsible for the social development component which involved interacting with contractors, workers and different communities. The researcher has been exposed to most of the challenges associated with the WFW programme. This could easily lead to a situation where the findings are influenced by the researcher's views. To avoid a situation where the researcher's previous knowledge lead to bias the researcher documented and presented participants views as is without allowing the interference of the researcher's previous knowledge and background. The researcher also avoided asking leading questions and allowed respondents to express their views.

3.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Unlike in quantitative research, where everyone answers the same questions in the same way, in qualitative research questions and wording changes as the relationship between researcher and interviewee evolves. This is influenced by the level of closeness and trust (Rubin, 2005:34). Neuman (2006:195-196) supports this argument by stating that most

qualitative researchers believe in evolving relationships between subject matter and the researcher as compared to fixed and static instruments associated with quantitative research. He further argues that data collection is supposed to be an interactive process in an evolving setting. In this study the researcher carefully added questions which were not part of the set questions but which were still relevant. Some questions were rephrased and paraphrased to make them simpler for the interviewees. This assisted the researcher to ask follow-up questions and probe for more information.

Interviews are normally done for the following reasons: to document the interviewee's perspectives on the topic, to find out what is in someone else's mind, promoting active engagement, and learning for both interviewee and interviewer. It also provides the required flexibility in pursuing new emerging issues, to probe further by asking follow-up questions which normally deepen a response. At the same time the researcher should avoid providing information and answering some of the questions on behalf of the interviewee (Simons, 2009:.43). The researcher tried to ask follow-up questions from participants and paraphrased questions where necessary. This assisted the researcher to obtain further information and explore issues which were not directly answering the questions but still relevant to the subject matter. Even though most qualitative researchers agree with the basic principles of reliability and validity, they do not apply it so often because these terms are closely related to quantitative measurements. Interviews, photographs, recording and documentation are some of the techniques normally used by qualitative researchers. In this study the researcher audio-recorded the whole conversation with participants. This technique was used as a backup in cases where the hand-written data was not clear. It is also argued that qualitative researchers try by all means to be consistent but the challenge is that in most cases qualitative researchers deal with unstable processes (Neuman, 2006:194-195).

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Simons (2009:59) argues that it is very important to create transparent and open relationships with the participants. He further indicated that it always helps to ask and not to assume. This involves communicating the nature of the research to participants, explaining the procedures to be used to collect and analyze data, obtaining permission to interview each person and audio-record, to explain how information will be used and stored, and ensure confidentiality. Ethical conduct assists to build trust between the researcher and participants (Simons, 2009:41-42).

In this study the researcher carefully explained all the processes to Working for Water management and beneficiaries before the interview. The explanation covered all the above-mentioned aspects. To show that the participants understood their rights and were free to express their feelings, they did not give the researcher permission to use their names in the data presentation. Therefore in this study their names were not disclosed and the researcher used letters of the alphabet to identify them. However, officials allowed the researcher to use their names.

Ethics normally defines what is or is not right to do. One can say it is the proper way of conducting any study which takes into consideration respect for people's morals and values when conducting research. It is argued that considering ethical issues helps the researcher to maintain the balance between collecting data and acknowledging the rights of those being studied. However, this may depend on the individual's integrity and values. In most cases, ethically irresponsible conduct by the researchers can be as a result of various reasons including pressure to finalise a study within a specified period, to impress friends and family, or to keep their jobs (Neuman, 2006:129).

3.9 SUMMARY

This chapter highlighted the research approach followed by the researcher, different techniques used to collect data, as well as precautionary measures applied by the researcher to minimize the temptation of influencing responses from the respondents. This means that a specific skill is required when collecting data to avoid a situation where the researcher may influence the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present data collected through semi-structured interviews conducted with beneficiaries who exited one of the EPWP projects, the Working for Water programme. Quotes taken directly from respondents will be used. This will assist to properly present some of the responses as they are made.

The following is the brief profile of the respondents. Sixteen (16) respondents were interviewed for this study. As far as the demographics are concerned all respondents were African. Of sixteen respondents 4 were officials and the remaining twelve (12) were the beneficiaries. The gender split was seven (7) females and nine (9) males.

The average age for respondents was 37 years. Of the 16 respondents, five (5) were married and eleven (11) were single. Regarding their level of education only four respondents, who were mainly management, had tertiary education; four completed matriculation; five had secondary school education (grade 8 to 11); and three had primary education.

4.2 BACKGROUND

The interviews with beneficiaries took place in Alexandra township and the office of the project manager was used for this one-on-one engagement with ex-beneficiaries of the programme. The reason for meeting beneficiaries individually was to try and avoid the situation where

beneficiaries influence each other. One-on-one interviews also allow respondents to express their views freely without the fear of being heard by others.

Besides interviewing the beneficiaries of the programme, the following officials from Working for Water Programme were also interviewed: Regional programme leader, Training officer, Social Development Officer and a Project Manager for the Jukskei project. This was done in order to get an overall overview of the impact of training and skills on future employment. Interviews with officials took place on a different occasion. Contractors could not be interviewed as most of them are still working for the programme and this study is focused on beneficiaries who exited the programme. As highlighted in the methodology chapter, respondents did not give the researcher permission to use their names on the data presentation. Therefore in this study their names were not disclosed and the researcher used letters from A to L to identify them. Officials allowed the researcher to use their names.

During semi-structured interviews, respondents raised various issues, but some issues emerged several times. Those issues were noted and put into categories or themes. Categorizing respondents' answers assisted the researcher to put views into context and present data in a more organized manner. Data presentation will consist of the following broad themes:

a) Nature of training received by beneficiaries
b) Employment and relevance of training after exiting the programme
c) Acquired skills and job market
d) The motive behind exiting the programme.

4.3 A: EX-BENEFICIARIES

4.3.1 Nature of training received by beneficiaries

The data collected indicated that most beneficiaries attended some form of training while they were working for the WFW programme. Of twelve respondents interviewed, all of them mentioned that they attended the following courses: induction, peer education, health and safety, HIV/AIDS, gender awareness, and personal finance (Respondents A-L, interview, 14 September 2010). Of the twelve respondents, only two of them indicated that they also attended additional courses which were chain saw, brush cutter and First Aid. One of them explained how training boosted his self-esteem and made him do his work efficiently.

“I was very happy to be selected to attend brush cutter and chain saw courses. These courses assisted me to do my job with confidence and I used to earn more money than other workers because of my special skills” Respondent F, interview, 14 September 2010).

The respondent who had the chance to attend First Aid as the additional course stated that:

“Attending a First Aid course made me an important person in my team. It made me feel important to know that I am responsible for the health of other team members. And you know in that kind of job people get injured every time therefore I had to be always there with my first Aid kit to assist”.

She also indicated that it was fulfilling to be able to provide assistant to other people (Respondent L, interview, 14 September 2010).

The researcher realized that brush cutter and chain saw training were specialized training for a few individuals per team while general courses

like induction, personal finance and HIV/AIDS awareness were for everyone in a team. The brush cutter and chain saw courses are normally attended by two people per team, and the contractor and especially those who completed matriculation. The fact that few beneficiaries per team attend brush cutter and chain saw training resulted in a situation where most beneficiaries were exposed to general courses while very few people attend technical courses which might assist them to get other jobs after exiting the WFW programme.

The duration of courses provided by the WFW programme ranges from one to ten days depending on the type of course. Life skills training which was attended by most respondents normally takes between one to five days. When respondents asked about days spent on each course they came with different days, depending on the type of training attended by that particular individual. Respondents L, J and H (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that they spent three days attending an induction course, while respondents A, D and K (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that health and safety training took two days. On the other hand, respondents C, F and G (interview, 14 September 2010) spent five days attending a peer education course and respondents B and I (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that their HIV/AIDS awareness training took only one day. Finally, respondent E (interview, 14 September 2010) said that he spent ten days attending chainsaw and brush cutter training.

When asked whether they received certificates after completing training, ten respondents indicate that they did. One of the beneficiaries expressed himself as follows:

“You know…. I was very happy and excited to get a certificate after attending chain saw training for ten days, and this was my first certificate. Our trainer told us that the certificates will open more doors for us. From

that day I started imagining myself having a small company that specializes in tree cutting and employing other people but unfortunately I did not manage to get any job since I left the WFW programme. I am starting to lose hope that I will ever find a job where I can practice my skills" (Respondent F, interview, 14 September 2010). Two respondents indicated that they did not receive their certificates after attending their short courses. Respondent K (interview,14 September 2010) mentioned that she had to wait for months for her certificate and eventually she was told that hers was misplaced by officials at the office and she was promised that a new one will be printed. However, she did not get it until the end of her contract with the WFW programme. Respondent G (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that he did not get his certificate because the service provider who was providing training did not take his name and his certificate was not printed.

4.3.2 Employment and relevance of training after exiting the programme

The following responses provided a picture of what actually happened once the beneficiaries exit the WFW programme. Six respondents indicated that they did not get any jobs after exiting the programme. Another two respondents mentioned that they managed to find other jobs but their current jobs are not related to the acquired skills, while two respondents stated that they managed to get other jobs using the acquired skills. The other two respondents saved the money and started small businesses. Those who are still unemployed commented as follows:

Respondent A (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that he never thought it will be so difficult to get another job after the end of his contract with the WFW programme and further mentioned that if he can be given the chance he would go back and work for the programme again.

The oldest of all respondents expressed himself as follows:

“I have been unemployed for six years now and I gave up hope - I do not think that I will ever get the job elsewhere. I am afraid that I will forget what I learned while I was working for the programme. Life is so difficult especially if you have a family to feed. To make things worse I have five kids to feed and my wife, they all expect me to come out with a plan but the truth is that I do not have a plan - my only hope was to get another job” (Respondent C, interview, 14 September 2011).

One of the respondents raised his concerns as follows:

“You know my sister maybe if I had the chance to attend useful courses like chain saw and brush cutter may be I will be talking a different story by now’’ (Respondent B, interview, 14 September 2010). He indicated that few people were selected per team to attend courses like chain saw and brush cutter while the majority were sent for general courses like induction, personal finance and HIV/AIDS awareness. He also said that these courses assisted them to do their work properly but they were not meant for any assistance after exiting the programme. He concluded by saying that their contractors made them believe that they would find jobs using the training received during their involvement with WFW but in reality this is not happening.

Another respondent expressed herself as follows:

“I never thought that I will be unemployed for such a long time after exiting the programme. My contractor used to encourage us to attend courses telling us that they will open more chances for us, but now I see that it was a lie and a joke. Therefore I refuse to believe that the so-called skills are of any assistance, they just assisted us to do the job while we were still working” (Respondent D, interview, 14 September 2010). In addition she

observed that in her area all the people that she knows who were also employed in the WFW programme are also unemployed. Respondent E (interview, 14 September 2010) explained that, “I did not get any job and I gave up on looking for a job a long time ago, anyway why carry on looking for job while you know that you have few chances of getting one. When I got my certificate on brush cutter I thought that getting a job will be easy but now I see it is not”.

Respondent F (interview, 14 September 2011) mentioned that he believed that the programme was meant to develop people who were appointed as contractors. He further stated that contractors managed to attend all the right courses which are useful even outside of the WFW programme. Labourers used to attend induction and health and safety and other life skill courses while contractors attended courses like business management, contractor development and other useful courses which assist them to get jobs somewhere or open small businesses.

The responses below indicate that there are beneficiaries who manage to get other jobs after exiting the programme. However, the researcher realized that those who were employed in their current jobs had nothing to do with the acquired skills and training.

This is the story of a young male who worked for a Carletonville mine from 2005 to 2008 after exiting the programme:

“After resigning from WFW programme I was lucky to get the job in the mine. That was the best job for me even the salary was not that bad. For four years I managed to support my family. But things got sour when I got injured. My left arm became paralyzed and I could not perform normal duties and I was forced to do other less paying jobs. That is when I decided to resign because the new salary was very small and it was only enough for my transport and lunch box that is when I decided to quit. I felt

that it's better to stay at home rather than to wake up every day in the morning but still fail to support your family. These days it will be difficult to get another proper job because of my injury'' (Respondent G, interview, 14 September 2010).

"After exiting the programme I managed to get the job at Edgars and I am still working there. I take myself as one of the lucky ones. To be honest my current job has got nothing to do with the training provided by Working for Water Programme. I got it by luck. To tell you the truth I even forgot what I learned in the programme" (Respondent H, interview, 14 September 2011).

While a majority of beneficiaries interviewed indicated that they were not happy because they were not working, there was a small number of those who appreciated the training provided by the programme. They indicated that the acquired skills assisted them to get other jobs. One of the ex-beneficiaries who is currently working for the waste management company "Pikitup" observed that:

"I was working as a driver for one of the contractors while I was working for the programme and I was transporting workers from home to work. After some time the contractor informed me about advance driving that was offered by the Working for Water. Through that advance driving I managed to get the job as one of the drivers at "Pikitup" and I like my job" (Respondent I, interview, 14 September 2010).

A male respondent who is currently working as a taxi driver explained that:

"Immediately after resigning from Working for Water I got the job as a taxi driver. I got this job because of the PDP that I received while I was working as a driver for one of the WFW teams. This is not the best job but it's better than nothing. You know how difficult it is to deal with the public.

Some people are just difficult to handle - some have no manners. But what is surprising is that they blame us as taxi drivers they say we are very rude and have no manners but I disagree we are not the same. I would like to get a less stressful job one day or own my taxis so that I can employ drivers and stay at home and not deal with people every day. It's not that I do not like people, it's just that they are difficult sometimes" (Respondent J, interview, 14 September 2010).

Some ex-beneficiaries did not get a job after exiting the programme but they managed to save money and started their small businesses. A female respondent who managed to buy a few sewing machines and employed two women explained that:

"The programme assisted me to start this business. I managed to save money from my salary and bought the sewing machine, fortunately I knew how to use the machine even before I got the job in Working for Water. Look at me now my small business is doing well and I hired two women to assist me. I decided to employ two additional people because I was not coping with orders. In most cases I get big orders from schools, they place orders for school uniform and tracksuits. Sometimes it becomes hectic and very busy in January but we are coping" (Respondent K, interview, 14 September 2010).

Another female respondent who owns a small tuck shop expressed her views**:**

"After my contract ended I told myself that I am not going to go back to poverty again. With the very small money I had I decided to buy few items and sell them to my neighbours'' (Respondent L, interview, 14 September 2010). She further said her small business started with very basic items like bread, sugar, vegetables and sweets. These items are very popular especially bread, since school children buy bread in the morning and in

the afternoon when they come back from school. Slowly she bought more items. She also indicated that even though she owns a small tuck shop she can pay school fees and buy food for her children. The issue of the high crime rate was highlighted and the respondent was worried that one day criminals will take everything and she was not sure whether she would be able to recover and start all over again

4.3.3 Acquired skills and job market

The mismatch between the training provided by the WFW programme and skills required by the job market was highlighted in the responses provided below. Five respondents indicated that people with building skills are the most popular with employers; two mentioned that they would like to be trained in these skills. However, three of them prefer electrical skills, one respondent stated that sewing is useful skill while another preferred driving.

Respondents B, E, H, L and I (interview, 14 September 2010) mentioned that each time they approach some employers for work they tell them that they need people who have plumbing or building skills. They further highlighted that these days most jobs are in the construction sector which is why people with building skills are in a better position to get jobs.

“I would be happy to get the chance to be trained on building skills because they are more popular with employers these days. I think people with these skills get jobs easily” (Respondent C, interview, 14 September 2010). Respondent D (interview, 14 September 2010) said plumbing would be a blessing to him as more employers need this skill.

Respondent F (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that people with a driver’s license are in demand and most employers need people to transport goods around town or to other provinces. “I think sewing is one

of the useful skills especially if you want to open your own small business and people with this skill sometimes get jobs in factories" (Respondent K, interview, 14 September 2010).

Respondent A (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that he would like to have electrical skills and be able to work as handy man. Respondent G (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that he wished he knew how to legally connect household electricity. He further pointed out that there are many houses which are connected illegally in his area. "If I knew how to repair and fix electrical appliances I would make more money around here. Most people complain about broken appliances on a daily basis and some end up throwing their kettles and irons out while they can still be fixed'' (Respondent J, interview, 14 September 2010).

The data presented under this theme indicates that most beneficiaries were trained in irrelevant courses. As a result most of them wish they were trained in something different. This shows that the general skills they were exposed to are not assisting them to get other jobs and the courses provided were not aligned to the job market.

4.3.4 The motive behind exiting the programme

The reasons for leaving the programme were different but most reasons revolved around payment of salaries and end of contract. When asked why they left the programme, four respondents complained about late payment, three complained about low salaries and five respondents left because their contract ended. The project manager provided a summary of what he thought are the main reasons for high turnover.

Respondent H (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that if given the chance she can still go back and work for the programme. Her reason for leaving the programme was end of the contract. "The period given by the

government for unemployed people to work in EPWP is not enough. Before I noticed my twenty-four months was over and the contractor told me that I need to give other people a chance" (Respondent L, interview, 14 September 2010).

Respondent C (interview, 14 September 2010) also complained about the length of the contract and even mentioned that his contract ended before he got the chance to attend training which was organised by the training officer.

"You know what….. by the time my contract ended I still had plans and extending my house was on top of the list. But the contractor told us from the beginning that our contract was only for a short period" (Respondent J, interview, 14 September 2010).

"What I can say is that Working for Water programme is giving unemployed people a very short time. The period provided does not allow us to even save money. I am one of those who spent money on basic needs only but I am glad because I managed to attend training which I hope that one day it will be useful" (Respondent A, interview, 14 September 2010).

Respondents E and F (interview, 14 September 2010) mentioned that it is difficult to budget if you are not sure when are you will be getting your salary.

"Late payment of salaries used to be a big problem in WfW I will rather be unemployed than to wake up in the morning for nothing. How can an employer pay you after two or even three months? (Respondent I, interview, 14 September 2010).

“I really need a job but not Working for Water one. I resigned because the contractor took very long to pay us. Working for that programme was a waste of time. Unfortunately I did not get another job after resigning but I still have hope’’ (Respondent K, interview, 14 September 2010).

“I decided to resign and look for other job because I could not support my family with that salary, firstly it was not enough secondly we did not get it on time” (Respondent B, interview, 14 September 2010).

Respondent D (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that her salary could not cover even the basic needs and that is why she decided to resign.

“Just imagine working under those harsh working conditions but getting a small salary. We used to work in thick bushes and mountainous area we were lucky not to be bitten by snakes there” (Respondent G, interview, 14 September 2010).

The Project Manager was also asked to share his opinion on why beneficiaries leave the programme, since he interacts with the contractors and workers more frequently, and this helps him understands most of the challenges facing the beneficiaries. His response highlighted issues similar to those of the beneficiaries but some issues were different.

He stated that on top of other complications like late payment of salaries and harsh working conditions, uncertainty normally pushes workers to look for other jobs elsewhere. This uncertainty is due to the nature of the job which is contractual and seasonal. He further emphasised that most people become so stressed and panic if they know that their jobs are not guaranteed. The stop and start situation make most people look for more reliable and stable jobs elsewhere. “What I have noticed all these years is that young people do not stay for a long time - they get other jobs

somewhere. This is not the bad thing because the programme was meant to do just that - to train people and exit them to work in other sectors but the only negative thing is that those who resign after a short period take the protective clothing with them. Another thing is that we end up training people on an ongoing manner" (Z. Mokoana, interview, 14 September 2010).

4.4 B*:* OFFICIALS / MANAGEMENT

Even though the main focus of this study was to investigate the survival of beneficiaries after exiting the programme, the researcher found it necessary to interview both ex-beneficiaries and management. This assisted the researcher to get different views on the subject matter. Comparing responses from both sides assisted in terms of drawing conclusions and also to find out how managers see and assess the programme as regards meeting the set objectives and contributing toward employment and reducing poverty.

The management referred to in this study consists of the following: Regional Programme Leader, Training Officer, Social Development Officer and Project Manager for the Jukskei project. The Regional Programme Leader is responsible for the WFW programme in Gauteng Province. Under her supervision there are project managers, training officers, social development officers and administration staff. The role of the training officer is mainly to ensure that all contractors forward names for their workers who need to attend different courses. The training officer organizes training with a relevant service provider, organizes the venue and keeps the records of all trained beneficiaries. The training officer normally concentrates on specialized training like chain saw, brush cutter, herbicide application, contactor development, first aid and health and safety training. Parallel to training officer, the Social Development Officer co-ordinates mainly life skills training and ensures the well-being of the

beneficiaries. The following courses fall under life skills: HIV/AIDS training, personal finance, gender equality, and counselling and induction course. The project manager is responsible for supervising about ten contractors who work under a specific project; in this case the project manager who is working on the Jukskei project in Alexandra Township.

To obtain more insight from management the researcher developed a new set of questions to collect data from officials or management. This assisted in getting strategic information on the matter and to verify information provided by the beneficiaries. Some questions were almost the same as the ones used to collect data from beneficiaries but they were paraphrased to be relevant to management. New questions resulted in the following themes or categories:

a) Employment and relevance of training after exiting the programme
b) Acquired skills and job market
c) Exit strategy for beneficiaries to other sectors
d) Contribution of the programme towards poverty alleviation and unemployment
e) Challenges associated with training in WFW Programme.

4.4.1 Employment and relevance of training after exiting the programme

The training officer responded when asked whether the training provided by the programme is relevant and useful for beneficiaries even after exiting the programme:

“I believe that the programme really assists the beneficiaries even after they exited the programme. Especially those who were trained on brush cutter and chain saw - some of them get contracts in different Municipalities to cut the grass alongside the road. Some get contracts with

Spoornet to cut and maintain areas along the railway lines. Some of those who were trained in First Aid are normally recruited to join the municipal fire department. These are just some of the examples that I can still remember" (N. Modisane, interview, 12 July 2010). She further stated that there are more ex-beneficiaries who are working somewhere using the skills and training they acquired during their involvement with the programme. However, she highlighted that the unfortunate part is that the WFW programme does not keep proper records of the beneficiaries who exit the programme or exit workers properly. Therefore it becomes difficult to know exactly how many of beneficiaries are working for other departments

Regarding the relevance of training provided, the Programme Leader explained:

"Even though I cannot say that all beneficiaries use the acquired skills to get other jobs but there is a certain percentage that manages to secure other jobs after exiting the programme. For example some land owners employ our contractors to clear and maintain their land. In most cases they prefer our contractors because they believe they have experience when it comes to alien vegetation clearing" (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010).

The Social Development Officer came with another dimension which is relevant to her life skills training. N. Taki (interview, 12 July 2010) indicated that it is difficult to see impact of life skills training as it is not tangible and in most case it is all about changing people's lives in an indirect way. She further said in her case she cannot tell that this type of training is contributing to increase chances of getting future jobs but throughout the years it became clear that contractors and workers who attended life skills training are now able to handle their book keeping, manage their salaries and are able to save and calculate their profit and workers salaries.

“After each training I visit teams to find out how they benefited from each training course. You know it’s so fulfilling to know that you are making a difference in the lives of the people…. During those visits I normally picked up that some workers noticed decrease in gender related violence in their families. Those who are already HIV/AIDS positive they learn more ways of dealing with their situation through attending counselling and HIV/AIDS awareness” (N. Taki, interview, 12 July 2010).

The project manager who is close to both workers and contractors had a balanced view on the issue of relevance of skills acquired. He politely expressed himself as follows:

“To me the issue of whether the skills provided to both workers and contractors really assist them to get other jobs is a complicated one. What I can say is that it depends on what each beneficiary was exposed to while working for the programme. For example contractors get the chance to attend hard core courses like brush cutter, chain saw and contractor development as this creates more chances for them as compared to workers who normally attend general training. They are contractors I know who are doing well and they get contracts from other Departments. They benefited a lot while they were working for the WFW programme. Contractor development is one of the courses that assisted them to be able to bid for contracts and fill tender documents” (Z. Mokoana, interview, 12 July 2010). He further indicated that most general workers who exited the programme are struggling to get other jobs using the acquired skills, since most general workers were exposed to general or soft skills. At the same time, some of the beneficiaries get other jobs by luck and if they happen to get jobs they get jobs that are not related to their skills. He highlighted a few examples of beneficiaries who are working as taxi drivers, those who work at retail shops, and those who own small tuck shops

4.4.2 Acquired skills and job market

Management admitted that most of the skills provided by the programme are not in line with what is required by the job market. In most cases they attribute this situation to lack of funding to be able to expand training to what is required by most employers. This was further emphasized by the training officer.

She stated that it would be a big achievement to have people who exited the programme and enter other sectors like construction and other relevant sectors. Sometimes people exit the programme and become unemployed because they have skills that are not in demand. She admitted that in most cases the training provided by the WFW programme concentrates on the core business. Most people attend training on induction which includes herbicide application and plant identification. Only a few people per team manage to attend specialized training like chain saw and brush cutter use. Insufficient funding is normally the reason why they only provide training that caters for the core business (N. Modisane, interview, 12 July 2010).

The Programme Leader acknowledged that most skills provided are not in line with what is required by the job market and gavesimilar reasons for why the programme cannot expand training to cater for various types of training.

“You know what I wish I could have powers to change the current situation I would ensure that all beneficiaries receive relevant training before exiting the programme. I mean skills that would make them enter any sector. We know very well that these days South Africa needs people with technical skills but budget limits us to stick to work related training” (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010).

The Project Manager and Social Development Officer, when asked the same question, also indicated that the WFW programme provides work-related training without checking what skills are in demand. They also attributed this to shortage of funds (Z. Mokoana and N. Taki, interview, 12 July 2010).

4.4.3 Exit strategy for beneficiaries to other sectors

To obtain insight into systems in place to formally exit beneficiaries to other sectors, the researcher had to ask a question around preparing beneficiaries. This is what the programme leader had to say on the matter.

“To be honest as a programme we would like to exit beneficiaries to other sectors. But at the moment this process is not yet formalized” (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010). She also stated that there was once a suggestion to have an exit strategy but the document was never finalized or implemented. As a result beneficiaries exit in a very informal and disorganized manner and it becomes difficult to trace beneficiaries and check whether they are surviving after exiting the programme

The training officer was also asked similar questions and this was the response on the matter.

“As a training officer my job is to ensure that beneficiaries are empowered to be able to sustain themselves and get other job opportunities elsewhere. But at the moment there is no system in place to ensure that we capacitate beneficiaries and exit them to other sectors. We do not have even a proper database that can tell us who exited, when and where is that person” (N. Modisane, interview, 12 July 2010). In addition she said that at the moment they just assume that those that are no longer with the programme managed to get jobs somewhere.

The Social Development Officer raised her concerns about women and young people who normally work as labourers under different contractors, those are the ones that gradually disappear and the programme is not in a position to trace them. She also highlighted that contractors are in a better position because it is easy to keep their records and trace them. Sometimes the WFW programme gets to know their whereabouts when institutions like municipalities or Mondi Paper contact the programme for cross-reference purposes. Because of insufficient information and lack of a proper database the programme cannot prove that the training provided really assisted or prepared beneficiaries to exit the programme and join other sectors (N. Taki, interview, 12 July 2010).

The project manager stated that beneficiaries are not shifted over to other sectors but they gradually disappear, He further mentioned that as the person who also works with them he happens to meet some of them and most of them are unemployed (Z. Mokoana, interview, 12 July 2010).

4.4.4 Contribution of the programme towards poverty alleviation and unemployment

The theme of contribution of the programme to poverty reduction and reducing unemployment was deemed relevant, especially to management. The Social Development Officer seemed to be more passionate about this issue. This was her response:

“My main job is to make sure that the lives of people are improved and that people are assisted to get out of a cycle of poverty. The programme does that by providing employment, skills and training to beneficiaries. This is done with the hope that trained beneficiaries will get other jobs somewhere. That is why I believe that the programme is contributing to poverty alleviation. Even though this is a complicated and debatable subject as it is not something that is always tangible and easy to measure.

For example some beneficiaries were very poor when started working and some were living in shacks but as they get salaries they managed to build proper houses and some managed to pay school fees for their kids. Some managed to buy food for their families which was not the case before they join the programme. To me all the above contribute towards improving people's lives and eventually assist in poverty alleviation" (N. Taki, interview, 12 July 2010).

The programme leader made the following observation on the issue of poverty alleviation and unemployment.

"We are positive that we are making a difference in people's lives through provision of skills and training. Even though we cannot present figures but each time we see a person who used to work for us working somewhere we feel like we have done something to improve standard of living for that person. Even though poverty alleviation cannot be quantified but the programme is doing something toward the above challenges" (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010).

The project manager stated that the salaries received by the beneficiaries while they are still working for the programme assists them to support their families. He further indicated that the challenge is they become poor again as soon as their contract ends. He mentioned that in most cases people who work as contractors are the ones who normally get other jobs after exiting the programme (Z. Mokoana, interview, 12 July 2010).

4.4.5 Challenges associated with training in WFW Programme

The training officer seemed to have more experience on the issue of challenges associated with training of beneficiaries. She stated that as the programme they do not choose the service providers which are used to train beneficiaries. This is done by the Department of Labour. The challenge with this is some of the service providers do not fully understand the type of training provided by the WFW programme and some have trainers who are not properly trained (N. Modisane, interview, 12 July 2010).

The programme leader commented on the issue as follows:

“In most cases the training we provide takes between one to ten days and these days are not enough for the beneficiaries to be well trained. Therefore our training becomes a summary which does not have details. For example, courses like contractor development need more days for the contractors to be well trained. But due to these short durations service providers try by all means to squeeze everything in ten days of which I think contractors end up trying to absorb more information in short period of time (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010).

The Social Development Officer stated that in most cases budget becomes a challenge when it comes to training of beneficiaries. She indicated that every year as a regional office they request funding that they think would it be enough for most of the beneficiaries but they always get funding that is far less than what was requested. She further mentioned that due to this challenge it becomes difficult to organise refresher courses for beneficiaries as some courses require ongoing refresher training for the trainees to remain relevant (N. Taki, interview, 12 July 2010) .

The project manager indicated that sometimes the contractors ignore and postpone the training element. In most cases they attribute this to work pressure. They believe that releasing people for training leads to late completion of their contracts. On the other hand, some beneficiaries do not see the importance of training, especially those who are old (Z. Mokoana, interview, 12 July 2010).

4.5 SUMMARY

The main aim of this chapter was to present responses from both ex-beneficiaries and officials. It was interesting to hear individuals expressing how they feel about their situation and hear stories about the challenges they face on a daily basis. The responses provided by ex-beneficiaries indicated that most of them are not employed, while those employed are doing the work that has got nothing to do with the acquired skills. On the other hand, officials are positive that beneficiaries who exit the WFW programme get jobs in other sectors. The researcher noticed that the officials are making examples of very few individuals who happened to get other jobs using the acquired skills. The next chapter will carefully analyze and interpret data presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher will interpret and analyse the data presented by both beneficiaries and officials in chapter four. The purpose of this research was to investigate why most WFW programme beneficiaries do not secure future employment after exiting the programme. The main objective of this study is to investigate quality, relevance and appropriateness of the skills and training acquired by beneficiaries while they were working for the WFW programme.

In this chapter the researcher will present arguments raised by different writers in the literature review, make linkages with key issues from data presentation raised by respondents, and provide an opinion. This will assist to establish logic and consistency and also reflect the interplay between the above-mentioned aspects.

There were various themes and categories which emanated from the data presentation. The researcher selected a few of them which are: labour supply and economic growth, work experience, skills and future jobs, duration of contract, and contribution towards poverty alleviation. These themes were chosen because they were seen as being dominant during data presentation.

5.2 LABOUR SUPPLY AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

The data collected from the respondents revealed that beneficiaries who exited the WFW programme remain unemployed for a long time and some

never get other jobs. This challenge affects even those beneficiaries who acquired some skills through training while they were working for the programme. This was mentioned a number of times by different respondents. Respondent A (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that he never thought it will be so difficult to get another job after the end of his contract with the WFW programme. The same issue was raised by respondent C (interview, 14 September 2010): “I am afraid that the certificate I received will expire or become outdated. I have not used my certificate for a long time now’’. Respondent H (interview, 14 September 2010) noted that, “I did not get any job since I left WFW programme and I gave up on looking for a job a long time ago”. This last response which indicates loss of hope is supported by Robinson (1991:3) where he indicated that the job search activity of the unemployed declines as the period of searching for work becomes longer.

In correlation with the data, McCord (2004) provides an insight on why the EPWP beneficiaries struggle to find other jobs as per the main objective of the EPWP. She argued that the South African economy is not creating enough jobs and employment opportunities are not sufficient to meet the growing labour force. It is also argued that one of the contributing factors to unemployment is a severe mismatch between labour demand and supply. The South African unemployment rate has been on an upward trend. Furthermore, the labour absorption rate remains consistent for a long period and labour supply increases over time. This means that concentrating on labour supply quality through training and work experience may not have a positive impact if the main issue is demand (McCord, 2004:8-12). However, Robinson (1991:4) argues that in most cases unemployment is due to a mismatch between the type of job available in the labour market and the type of skills that unemployed people have. McCord (2003) also argued that the assumption was that the EPWP will assist in addressing the challenges of poverty and unemployment. This means addressing both social development and

economic objectives. It is argued that the non-wage benefits like improved labour market access as a result of experience and training are often assumed but not proven.

The rationale behind the EPWP initiative was that economic growth will generate demand for the labour exiting from EPWP. This assumption contributed to false expectations because economic growth does not necessarily guarantee job creation, and South Africa in particular is faced with the challenge of jobless growth. It is this assumption that led government to assume that EPWP beneficiaries will get jobs after exiting the programme. Such assumptions also led to a false belief that states that participating in the EPWP will enable most workers to ascend from the second to first economies as demand for labour increases. However, evidence drawn from South Africa and internationally indicates that the EPWP does not necessarily draw participants into the labour market. Instead it provides temporal employment and does not move beneficiaries out of poverty nor does it offer a sustainable livelihood (McCord, 2003:4-5).

In support of the above statement, Fox (2008:5) stated that even higher growth African countries like South Africa and Botswana still experience poor job creation due to a fast-growing labour force and skills shortages, and this calls for new and innovative programmes meant to increase the quality of labour. It is further argued that the above is happening despite efforts by most countries to implement economic reforms (Fox, 2008:7).

It is further argued that the post-apartheid era has been characterized by relatively poor performance in economic growth and the economy is therefore struggling to create employment. This phenomenon is known as “jobless growth”. However, even though there are not enough jobs for all the economy is able to create employment for educated individuals (Bhorat, 2007:8-13). In the South African context this means that few

people will get jobs because there are more uneducated people than educated ones. Robinson (1991:6) further argues that while the public sector in some cases manages to create job opportunities, in most cases those jobs need professionals and skilled labour. This means that those who are unskilled remain unemployed even if there are job opportunities. As regards South Africa there is a serious challenge of skills shortages but beneficiaries exiting from the EPWP cannot address this challenge because they have very basic skills.

Fox (2008:9) argues that a lack of adequate and appropriate skills prevents countries from benefiting from investment. For example, if firms do not find adequate skills in a specific country they look for skills elsewhere. As a result, the intended investment does not contribute to job creation and economic growth. In support of this statement, Berman (2007:54-58) stated that skills shortages in South Africa have been identified as one of the challenges to economic growth. Other countries find it difficult to do business with South Africa due to shortage of skilled personnel and companies are forced to source skills from abroad. A report from international accounting firm Deloittes in June 2007 indicated that 81 per cent of companies struggle to find appropriate staff in South Africa, and the country has a 40 per cent shortfall in artisans.

Respondent D (interview, 14 September 2011) stated that: “I have been unemployed for six years now and I gave up hope. I do not think that I will ever get the job elsewhere. I am afraid that I will forget what I learned while I was working for the programme”. This is supported by Branson (2006:75) who explains that the longer people remain unemployed the more their skills decrease.

The above argument indicates that if the WFW as one of the EPWP divisions continues to train beneficiaries who are not absorbed by other sectors, this will mean waste of resources, especially if more people are

trained but are not able to use the skills since they will eventually forget what they were trained on. The researcher further argues that training in the EPWP must not be done only to comply with the EPWP principles but to fulfil the set objective which is about exposing beneficiaries to skills that will assist them to secure future jobs. This could be achieved if the scope and nature of training provided by the EPWP, and the WFW, is aligned to job market requirements.

In contrast, the researcher realized that management has different version of what normally happens once beneficiaries exit the programme. Management believes that most beneficiaries manage to secure other jobs after exiting the programme and that the majority of beneficiaries, including general workers who exit from the programme, get other jobs somewhere. This is based on assumption because management admitted that there are no systems in place to formally exit beneficiaries to other sectors. The contributing factors to these opposing views include the lack of proper documentation and monitoring and evaluation. Even the examples provided by some managers of the beneficiaries who are working in other sectors were not formally documented.

The view of management that most beneficiaries get other jobs was expressed by the training officer, when she stated that: “I believe that the programme really assists the beneficiaries even after they exited the programme. Especially those who were trained on brush cutter and chain saw some of them get contracts in different Municipalities to cut the grass alongside the road. Some get contracts with Spoornet to cut and maintain areas along the railway lines” (N. Modisane, interview, 12 July 2010).

The programme leader also supported the view that most beneficiaries get jobs after exiting WFW programme, and emphasised this point as follows: “Even though I cannot say that all beneficiaries use the acquired skills to get other jobs but there is a certain percentage that manages to secure

other jobs after exiting the programme. For example some land owners employ our contractors to clear and maintain their land" (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010).

After analysing the above statements, the researcher realised that managers based their arguments and examples on those beneficiaries who were working as contractors and not labourers or general workers. This raises questions regarding the impact of the programme for the majority of beneficiaries because contractors form a small number of beneficiaries while labourers are the majority. This means that if the programme assists to improve the lives of the contractors, this simply indicaes that it is impacting on few individuals and not the majority.

The researcher is of the view that the reason why management is positive about the contribution of the WFW towards improving the chances of the beneficiaries to secure future job opportunities is because they are trying to defend the WFW.

This argument shows that the EPWP was initiated based on the assumption that everything will fall into place once the economy improves. The researcher argues that the decision taken by the South African government was taken without considering key issues like creating a conducive environment which will enable beneficiaries to enter other sectors after obtaining skills. The decision was also based on the assumption that economic growth will create jobs. There is thus a need for a review of the approach and polices guiding the EPWP. It has been some time since this initiative was introduced and the evaluation of the whole programme is necessary to assess the impact and effectiveness and also to assess whether the programme is achieving the stated objectives.

5.3 WORK EXPERIENCE, SKILLS AND FUTURE JOBS

Lewis (2002) argued that unemployment is prevalent amongst those with least skills, education and work experience. It is also argued that in the South African context the discrimination in provision of proper education during apartheid meant that millions of South Africans were prevented from acquiring the skills that would assist them to obtain employment (Lewis, 2002:12). Branson (2006:6) also argues that in most cases previous work experience increases the chances of getting a job; therefore people with no previous work experience are always at a disadvantage when seeking work.

Even though the above argument indicates that work experience and skills increase the chances for future jobs, the researcher is of the view that it depends on the type, relevance of the skills and the duration of such work experience. For example, as regards to the WFW, most of the beneficiaries interviewed for this study have work experience and they were exposed to some skills while they were working for the programme. However, that training and experience is limited to control of invasive alien plants and the training is limited to short courses on life skills which are useful for their personal survival but do not assist in finding other jobs because the skills and experience they have is not necessarily what is required by the job market.

The type of course attended by most beneficiaries was explained by the respondents during data collection. Respondents A-L (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that they attended induction, peer education, health and safety, HIV/AIDS, gender awareness and personal finance while working for the WFW programme. The data revealed that this type of training and skills does not assist the beneficiaries to get other jobs once they exit the programme since these skills and work experience are not required by the job market. Furthermore, the training provided by the

programme was for a short period. The duration for most courses was between one and five days. Respondents L, J and H (interview, 14 September 2010) indicated that they spent three days attending induction course while respondents C, F and G (interview, 14 September 2010) spent five days attending the peer education course. This raises concerns that the duration of the courses are insufficient to train people thoroughly.

With regard to the WFW programme, the challenge of inappropriate work experience is clear and visible to those beneficiaries who were employed as labourers or general workers and who get other jobs after exiting the WFW programme. Data indicates that there is no link between the acquired experience and their current jobs. This means that they were not employed because of their WFW work experience but got the jobs by coincidence or luck. Respondent E (interview, 14 September 2010) notes that, “After resigning from WFW programme I was lucky to get the job in the gold mine. That was the best job for me and I managed to support my family for four years through this job”.

The above indicates that not all types of skills, training and work experience can be used as a mechanism to ensure future jobs and reduce unemployment, especially if those skills are not aligned to what is required by the job market.

However, the researcher realised that those who were employed as contractors are better off because they have technical experience and skills with chain saw and brush cutter work. These skills provided them with relevant experience which assisted contractors to secure jobs from other sectors after exiting the WFW programme. Even though they were not directly interviewed, their names and numbers were mentioned by interviewees including the management.

5.4 DURATION OF THE CONTRACT

The duration of participation or contract duration emerged as one of the dominant themes during data presentation. Most respondents felt that they should have been given a longer period to participate in the programme. This issue was expressed in different ways by the various beneficiaries. Respondent H (interview, 14 September 2010) stated that if given the chance she can still go back and work for the programme. She indicated that her reason for leaving the programme was the end of the contract.

Respondent L (interview, 14 September 2010) explained that:

“The period given by the government for unemployed people to work in EPWP is not enough. Before I noticed my twenty four months was over and the contractor told me that I need to give other people a chance”.

Respondent C (interview, 14 September 2010) also complained about the length of the contract and mentioned that his contract ended before he got the chance to attend training organised by the training officer.

The issue of the duration of participation in the EPWP is argued by McCord (2003) where she stated that the short duration of participation in the EPWP results in a situation where participants do not get the chance to be properly trained to be absorbed by the labour market. On the other hand, she argued that the short-term nature of the EPWP does not take into account the chronic and structural nature of unemployment in South Africa. She further mentioned that this normally contributes to a situation where participants return to the poverty cycle after exiting the programme.

The short period of the contract also makes multiplier effects and any form of informal income generation impossible, since the income received by beneficiaries is not invested but instead is consumed (McCord, 2003:24).

The EPWP is a short term policy instrument developed by the South African government defined as a short-term, non-permanent and labour-intensive programme. Because it is of limited duration, the wages received increase household income during the employment period but this does not necessarily impact on poverty reduction or improved livelihoods (McCord, 2003:24).

The impact of the EPWP is visible in areas of non-income poverty such as with improved regular school attendance and purchase of basic needs (McCord, 2004:11). The limited duration makes the EPWP inappropriate to respond to the chronic labour market crisis in South Africa. The failure to recognize that unemployment is chronic resulted in a situation whereby different initiatives respond to transient rather than chronic unemployment. In most cases, short term policy instruments like the EPWP are used if there is temporal unemployment resulting from acute economic shock. In the case of South Africa, which is characterized by chronic unemployment, the policy instrument should be oriented to the creation of demand through large scale public sector employment offering employment guarantees and sustained employment. The EPWP is too limited in scale and too short in duration to make a difference and impact on the unemployment crisis (McCord, 2004:6-8).

However, Mthombeni (1996) argues that the EPWP was not meant to become a welfare or relief scheme but to empower beneficiaries through training and provision of skills in preparation for their exit to other sectors.

The researcher is in support of the argument that duration of participation which is twenty-four months is not enough. The researcher is of the view that the short period results in a situation where the programme provides very basic short courses to beneficiaries which does not make them employable in other sectors. Even though the EPWP was meant to act as

a training ground for other sectors, the beneficiaries should be given the chance to make a difference in their lives through earning salaries for a reasonable time.

5.5 CONTRIBUTION TOWARDS POVERTY ALLEVIATION

Officials working for the WFW programme are confident that the programme is assisting in reducing poverty amongst its beneficiaries. The challenge is that their statements are based on assumptions. They all admitted that they do not keep records for beneficiaries who exit the programme therefore they cannot accurately assess whether the lives of the beneficiaries have changed or not.

Their side of the story was re-emphasised by the social development officer where she highlighted that, “some beneficiaries were very poor when they started working for the programme but eventually some managed to pay school fees for their kids and some managed to buy food for their families which was not the case before they joined the programme” (N. Taki, interview, 12 July 2010.

The programme leader spoke about the issue of poverty alleviation:

“We are positive that we are making a difference in people’s lives through provision of skills and training. Even though poverty alleviation cannot be quantified but the programme is doing something to reduce poverty” (L. Mabuza, interview, 12 July 2010).

When these statements are compared with the reality on the ground it is clear that management has a different version of the situation. To a large extent, beneficiaries who exit the programme become poor again. This means that their lives become better only while they still earn salaries. Another challenge is that officials are making examples of people who

managed to obtain basic needs while still working. However, the researcher believes that people's lives can be improved through providing them with something more suitable like skills that will enable them to start small businesses. The researcher supports the view that the EPWP was not meant to alleviate poverty through employment but to reduce poverty indirectly by preparing the unemployed for long-term employment in other sectors.

McCord (2004) argues that the EPWP is one of the short to medium term interventions aimed at alleviating the poverty associated with unemployment. The EPWP provides temporal employment, but does not move beneficiaries out of poverty, it does not offer a sustainable livelihood, and it does not necessarily impact on poverty reduction or improved livelihoods. She further argued that different types of EPWP have common objectives, which are poverty alleviation, empowerment and asset management.

Poverty reduction in the WFW is through salaries to increase household income; however, this does not take participants out of poverty but instead merely alleviates poverty. There is a belief that job creation - whether for short or long term - can assist to reduce poverty. Fox (2008:4) states that if job creation remains sluggish this normally results in a situation where poverty reduction efforts and social stability are impossible to achieve.

Phillips (2004:4-9) argues that the EPWP should be regarded as complementary to social security grants but not as an alternative because it is not realistic to assume that the programme will provide for all those who are in need. He further states that government has expressed some concern about the hand-out nature of the social grant. The EPWP can be used as one of the mechanisms to channel income into the hands of the poor, but must be designed in a manner that avoids and minimizes

unintended consequences like displacement of long-term employment with short-term and lower paid jobs

5.6 SUMMARY

The interface between literature, data and the researcher's views revealed that there are various reasons why most WFW beneficiaries do not secure future jobs after exiting the programme. The current South African economy which does not create enough jobs to absorb people exiting from the EPWP is one of them. Another contributing factor is that the courses provided by the WFW programme are not aligned to the labour market. This means that skills acquired by beneficiaries are not relevant and appropriate to assist them to get other jobs. The issue of irrelevant skills affects even their work experience because it is not easy for the beneficiaries to be hired elsewhere. Furthermore, the short-term nature of the WFW programme does not allow all beneficiaries to be trained properly. This means that the EPWP objective that training and skills acquired by the beneficiaries of the EPWP during their involvement in the programme will increase their capacity to earn an income and secure future jobs may well apply to some EPWP initiatives but not all.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The EPWP is one of the government initiatives intended to address unemployment and poverty in South Africa. The main objective of the EPWP is to provide employment to the unemployed and ensure that beneficiaries acquire skills and training on the job and use the acquired training to secure future jobs. However, not all EPWP beneficiaries manage to earn an income and secure future jobs after exiting the programme. There is no clear or adequate information as to whether training and skills acquired during involvement with the EPWP really assist beneficiaries to secure other jobs after exiting the programme. Furthermore, it is also not clear whether the jobs that beneficiaries normally acquire after exiting are in relation to what they were trained on while they were working for the different EPWP programmes.

The purpose of this research was to investigate why most WFW programme beneficiaries do not secure future employment after exiting the programme. The main objective of this study is to investigate quality, relevance and appropriateness of the skills and training acquired by beneficiaries while working for the WFW programme.

The following research questions were used to guide the study:

a) What type of training and skills was acquired by WFW beneficiaries during their involvement in the programme?

b) How relevant and appropriate are these skills to assist the beneficiaries to earn an income and secure future jobs after exiting the programme?
c) How is the training provided by WFW structured to take into account skills required by the labour market?
d) What challenges are normally experienced by the beneficiaries after exiting the WFW programme?
e) How is the WFW programme contributing to reducing socio-economic challenges such as unemployment, poverty and inequality?

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

6.2.1 Unemployment, poverty and skills

This study revealed that socio-economic challenges such as unemployment and poverty are linked to historical background. This historical background was characterized by denying the majority of the population access to proper education and the acquisition of skills. This automatically resulted in many people not being eligible for employment and exacerbated the high levels of poverty. Unemployment and poverty is more dominant amongst the African population. The socio-economic challenges compelled government to embark on different initiatives to address the challenges.

One of those initiatives is the EPWP which is aligned with different departments for proper management. In order to reduce unemployment and shortage of skills, the EPWP was designed to act as a training ground for the unemployed and those without skills. It should be noted that the EPWP is broad and it involves different sub-programmes which are aligned to different sectors. Furthermore, the skills and training provided is not the same across all sub-programmes. This study established that the

WFW programme - which is a component of the EPWP - does not provide training and skills that enable beneficiaries to secure other jobs after exiting the programme. The contributing factor to this is the degree of appropriateness and relevance of the training provided by the programme. The only benefit to beneficiaries is through earning salaries for 24 months. Furthermore, the South African economy is not capable of creating enough jobs to be able to absorb beneficiaries exiting from the EPWP.

6.2.2 Economic growth and job creation

The South African economy is relatively stable with some growth, but this is largely jobless growth. This type of economic growth does not result in job creation and it does not absorb the unemployed especially the unskilled. This means that there is an imbalance between labour supply and demand. Therefore concentrating on training more people who have less chances of entering the job market might not assist in reducing the national challenges of high unemployment and poverty. This current economic scenario makes it difficult for the EPWP to achieve its intended objectives which includes using the EPWP to provide skills and prepare beneficiaries to enter other sectors.

6.2.3 Appropriateness and relevance of training and skills

The findings indicated that the WFW programme needs to review and redesign aspects like appropriateness and relevance of the training as well as alignment of training with what is required by the job market. The skills currently provided by the WFW programme are not aligned with the job market although the programme is providing some work-related and life skills training to beneficiaries. This type of training only assists beneficiaries to do their work properly while still working for the programme but does not necessarily increase their chances of acquiring other job opportunities. This means that even if the economy was in a

position to create jobs, beneficiaries exiting from this programme would be in a disadvantaged position in terms of acquiring future jobs.

The researcher is of the view that while there is the recognition of what have been done to date to overcome socio-economic challenges, there is still much to be done. This calls for a massive effort from both private and public sectors. For example, over and above using the EPWP to create short term employment there is a need to place greater emphasis on creating more permanent jobs. This can assist in order to address the chronic nature of the unemployment challenge facing the country. The research findings indicated that the EPWP, like WFW, provides short term employment to poor people who have been poor for their entire lives. This means that this programme is providing a temporal solution to a chronic problem which is not effective.

The EPWP was announced by the then state President Mbeki in his State of the Nation address in February, 2003 and it was launched in 1995. This indicate that it has been some time since this programme was introduced in S.A. This means that there is a need to review this initiative based on the impact made to date. Such a review might assist to re-design or improve the impact by ensuring that this initiative lead to sustainability and positive impact on the lives of the previously disadvantaged groups.

6.3 SUMMARY

The nature and scope of training provided by the Working for Water programme is a contributing factor in the non-employment of beneficiaries exiting the programme. The type of skills provided by the programme and the duration of training for each course are inadequate and should be reviewed. This is exacerbated by the fact that the South African economy is not creating enough job opportunities and the labour absorption rate is

very low. This contributes to an imbalance between labour supply and demand.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.4.1 Entrepreneurship and business skills

The EPWP should train beneficiaries on entrepreneurship and business skills. These can be combined with job-related training as is it also important for the safety of the workers and for efficiency while they are still working for the programme. Recommended skills can assist beneficiaries to start their own small businesses and be self-employed after exiting the programme rather than expecting to be employed. As more people become self-sustainable this will reduce the labour pool which is increasing on an annual basis and will eventually address the challenge of the current mismatch between labour supply and demand which is facing South Africa. This recommendation is based on the fact that there is the challenge of low labour absorption and the economy is not able to create more jobs. Training of EPWP beneficiaries in the hope that they will be absorbed by other sectors was well-intentioned but has proven not to be practical.

6.4.2 Ensuring sustainability

To complement the above suggestion it is recommended that a capital and courtesy programme be made available to increase the chances of survival for small businesses. To ensure that beneficiaries get reasonable funding to start small business, the EPWP should exert influence on existing financial institutions and persuade them to accommodate emerging businesses. Government influence may assist because currently the financial institutions cater for people with recognised property and capital which is not the case when it comes to EPWP beneficiaries. These

are just poor individuals with no previous business experience or any assets of their own. Alternatively, government can earmark funding for the small businesses and manage funding through existing structures or establish a new structure. The courtesy programme consisting of business experts dedicated to providing advice and mentoring support will assist to increase the chances of survival for emerging small businesses.

6.4.3 Exit to other sectors

Maintaining a formal database of all beneficiaries who exit the WFW programme will assist the exit of beneficiaries in a meaningful way. This recommendation is informed by the finding that currently there is no formal database for beneficiaries who exit the programme and enter other sectors. Keeping a proper database may assist the WFW management to formally hand over the trained beneficiaries to other sectors, and will also assist in providing reliable data on the number of beneficiaries who exit the programme each year, how many of them get other employment, and how many are still unemployed. This exercise can also inform the annual reporting to government while quantifying the contribution made by the programme towards reducing poverty and unemployment.

6.4.4 Duration of participation

If government decides to continue with the using the EPWP as a mechanism to reduce poverty and unemployment, aspects like duration of participation for beneficiaries needs to be carefully reviewed. Currently the EPWP is a short-term programme aimed at reducing unemployment and poverty through provision of skills and training. Findings indicated that beneficiaries exit before they get the chance to attend training or they end up attending one-day courses which are not effective to make them employable. The duration of participation which is 24 months needs to be

revised to allow proper training to take place. This may assist in ensuring that beneficiaries get enough time to be properly trained.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: COURSES OFFERED TO BENEFICIARIES BY WORKING FOR WATER PROGRAMME

No.	Course Name	Course Duration
Technical Training		
1.	Brush Cutter Operator	10 days
2.	Chainsaw Operator	10 days
3.	Herbicide Applicators	3 days
4.	Fire Fighting (basic)	3 days
5.	Bees Handling	5 days
6.	Contractor Development (advance)	5 days
7.	Contractor Development phase 1-3 (basic)	10 days
8.	First Aid level 1-2	2 days
9.	Advanced Entrepreneur	10 days
Life Skills Training		
10.	Induction Course	3 days
11.	Diversity Management (gender and race)	2 days
12.	HIV/AIDS Awareness	1 day
13.	HIV/AIDS Counseling	10 days
14.	Peer Education	5 days
15.	Personal Finance	1 days
16.	Fire Awareness	1 day
17.	Health and Safety phase 1	2 days
18.	Swimming (basic)	5 days
19.	Advanced Driving	5 days

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR BENEFICIARIES

Future income through skills and training in Expanded Public Works Programme

A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (*Mark with an **X** where applicable*)

1. **GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT**

MALE	
FEMALE	

2. AGE CATEGORY

18 – 34 years	
35 – 44 years	
45 – 54 years 55-64	

3. WHAT IS YOUR MARITAL STATUS?

SINGLE - NEVER MARRIED	
MARRIED (TRADITIONAL/ WESTERN)	
DIVORCED / SEPARATED	
WIDOWED	

4. PLEASE INDICATE HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE

1-5 Children	
6-10 Children	
More than 10 Children	
None	

5. HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION COMPLETED

None	
Primary School: From grade 1-7	
High School: From grade 8-11	
Metric: Grade 12	
Post metric- Diploma or Certificate	

6. WHAT WAS THE NATURE OF YOUR JOB WHILE YOU WERE WORKING FOR IN WFW PROGRAMME

Contractor	
Supervisor	

Labourer	
Machine operator	
First Aider/Health and safety representative	

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

1. What training did you receive during your involvement with WFW programme?

   ……

   ……

   ……

2. What was the duration for the courses you attended?

   ……

   ……

   ……

3. Did you receive any certificate for the courses you attended?

   ……

   ……

   ……

4. Did you manage to get any job or start your own business since you exited the programme? If yes what is the nature of the job or business you are involved in?

   ……

   ……

   ……

5. Which skills and experiences are normally required by most employers and which skills do you think are more relevant in the work place?

   ……

……

……

6. What was the reason for leaving WFW programme?
……

……

……

7. Can you describe your current standard of living as compared to what it was while you were working for WFW programme?

……

……

……

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

Future income through skills and training in Expanded Public Works Programme

NAME AND SURNAME……

DESIGNATION……

A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (*Mark with an **X** where applicable*)

1. **GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT**

MALE	
FEMALE	

2. **AGE CATEGORY**

18 – 34 years	
35 – 44 years	
45 – 54 years 55-64	

3. WHAT IS YOUR MARITAL STATUS?

SINGLE - NEVER MARRIED	
MARRIED (TRADITIONAL/ WESTERN)	
DIVORCED / SEPARATED	
WIDOWED	

4. **PLEASE INDICATE HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE**

1-5 Children	
6-10 Children	
More than 10 Children	
None	

5. HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION COMPLETED

None	
Primary School: From grade 1-7	
High School: From grade 8-11	
Metric: Grade 12	
Post metric- Diploma or Certificate	

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Do you think that the training provided by WFW programme really assist beneficiaries to secure future jobs? If yes how?
   ……

   ……

   ……

2. Are the skills provided by WFW programme in line with what is required by
   the market?
   ……

   ……

   ……

3. Does the programme formally exit the beneficiaries to other sectors? If yes which sectors?

   ……

   ……

   ……

4. Is the programme contributing toward poverty alleviation and unemployment? If yes how?
   ……

   ……

   ……

5. What are the challenges normally associated with training provided by WFW programme?
   ……

   ……

   ……