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The role of the Community Work Programme (CWP) in poverty alleviation: a case of Naledi Local Municipality in Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District, North West Province

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THE ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY WORK PROGRAMME (CWP) IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION: A CASE OF NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY IN DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT, NORTH WEST PROVINCE

A report on a research study presented to

The Department of Social Work

School of Human and Community Development

Faculty of Humanities

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In partial fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree Master of Arts by in the field of Social Development

by

Ontiretse Mongale

14 March 2022

DECLARATION

I, Ontiretse Mongale, declare that the work submitted is my own and that credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others

Signed:  Date: 14 March 2022

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ABSTRACT

South Africa is of a typical example of countries which adopted development welfare services. Social development approach has been practiced since 1994 in South Africa. Evidently development policies, projects and programmes illustrate such. The Community Work Programme (CWP) was adopted in 2009 to contribute towards poverty alleviation in South Africa. CWP is a Public Employment Programme (PEP) led by government which provide regular employment and social protection to people vulnerable to poverty. Therefore, this study aimed to explore contributions of CWP in poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality (NLM) in Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District, North West Province. The research approach was qualitative in nature, and an instrumental case study design was applied. This research is rooted in interpretivism paradigm hence purposive sampling technique was used to select participants who could provide in-depth examination of the topic. The sample consisted of twenty research participants. These include thirteen CWP participants, four field supervisors and three participants from the office staff and implementing agent. Three different semi-structured interview guides were used to collect data. Data was collected through in-depth face to face interviews to collect data from CWP participants and field supervisor while visual platform called Zoom was used to collect data from office staff members. Covid19 protocols were adhered to during face to face interviews with respondents. Thematic analysis was used to analyse data. The main conclusion derived from the study is that the CWP provides sufficient benefits to its participants and community of NLM that accelerate government efforts to alleviate poverty and reduce unemployment. The study also established that the CWP has the potential to improve provision of basic social needs and skills required to enter in the job market only if multiple stakeholder partnerships and collaborations are enhanced. The study concludes with an optimistic view that social protection directly reduces the effect of unemployment across South Africa.

Keywords

Community Work Programme, Poverty, Poverty Alleviation, Social Development, Social Protection, Public Employment Programmes, Naledi Local Municipality.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration i
Acknowledgements ii
Abstract iii
Keywords iii
Table of contents iv
List of figures viii
List of tables ix
List of acronyms x
1. Chapter One: Introduction 1
1.1 Introduction 1
1.2 Statement of the Problem and Rationale for the Study 3
1.3 Research Questions 4
1.4 Research Aim and Objectives 5
1.5 Definitions of Key Concepts 5
1.5.1 Community Work Programme (CWP) 5
1.5.2 Poverty 5
1.5.3 Poverty Alleviation 7
1.5.4 Social Development 7
1.6 Brief Overview of the Research Methodology 8
1.7 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study 8
1.8 Organisation of the Research Report 9
1.9 Summary of the Chapter 9
2. Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework and Literature Review 10
2.1 Introduction 10
2.2 Theoretical Framework Fundamental to the Study 10
2.2.1 Statist Approach 11
2.2.2 Basic needs Approach 12
2.3 Poverty in the Global Context 13
2.4 Poverty in Africa and Sub-Saharan Region 13
2.5 Poverty in South Africa 14
2.6 Social development: a third wordlist approach for poverty alleviation 15
2.6.1 Social Development by Individuals 16
2.6.2 Social Development by Communities 17

2.6.3 Social Development by Governments 18
2.6.4 Social Development by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) 20
2.6.5 Social Development by Private Sector Institutions 21
2.6.6 Social protection as a strategy for social development 22
2.6.6.1 A Brief History of Social Protection 22
2.6.6.2 Social Protection in South Africa 23
2.7 International poverty alleviation strategies 24
2.8 Poverty alleviation in Africa 25
2.9 Legislation and policy framework for poverty alleviation in South Africa 26
2.9.1 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) 27
2.9.2 Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) 27
2.9.3 Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) 28
2.9.4 National Development Plan (NDP) vision 2030 28
2.9.5 Public Employment Programmes (PEPs) in South Africa 29
2.9.5.1 The Community Work Programme (CWP) 30
2.9.5.2 Community development approaches in CWP 31
2.9.5.3 CWP in Naledi Local Municipality (NLM) 32
2.10 Summary of the Chapter 35
3. Chapter Three: Research methodology 36
3.1 Introduction 36
3.2 Research approach and design 36
3.3 Population, sample, and sampling procedure 37
3.3.1 Population 37
3.3.2 Sample and sampling procedure 38
3.3.2.1 Study area 38
3.4 Research instruments and pre-testing of the research instruments 39
3.5 Methods of data collection 39
3.6 Methods of data analysis 41
3.7 Trustworthiness of the Study 42
3.8 Ethical considerations 43
3.8.1 Voluntary Participation 44
3.8.2 Informed Consent 44
3.8.3 Confidentiality 44
3.8.4 Anonymity 45

3.8.5 Non-Maleficent 45
3.8.6 Sharing of Research Findings 45
3.9 Summary of the Chapter 45
4. Chapter Four: Presentation and Discussion of Findings 46
4.1 Introduction 46
4.2 Classification of the Research Participants 46
4.3 Themes and Findings from the Study 47
4.3.1 Feelings about being part of the CWP 47
4.3.1.1 CWP participants' feelings 48
4.3.1.2 CWP Field Supervisors 48
4.3.2 Official's Understanding of the CWP 49
4.3.3 Useful work carried out by the CWP in NLM 50
4.3.4 Benefits of Participating in the CWP in NLM 51
4.3.5 CWP's contribution to poverty alleviation in NLM 54
4.3.6 Challenges Faced when Implementing the CWP in NLM 56
4.3.6.1 Monthly Stipend 56
4.3.6.2 Personal Protective Equipment (PPEs) 57
4.3.6.3 Trainings 57
4.3.6.4 Recruitment Processes 58
4.3.6.5 Budget Constraints and resource allocation 59
4.3.6.6 Local Reference Committee (LRC) 60
4.3.7 Ways to Address the Challenges to improve the programme 61
4.3.7.1 Working Days 61
4.3.7.2 Provision of Accredited Trainings 62
4.3.7.3 Supervisors and Implementing Agents (IAs) to Participate in the Recruitment Processes 62
4.3.7.4 Remodelling of the CWP Framework 64
4.3.7.5 Strengthening the LRCs 64
4.3.7.6 Resource Allocation 65
4.3.7.7 Provision of Clear Exit Strategy 65
4.3.7.8 Clarity on the Roles and Responsibility 66
4.3.8 Existing Exit Strategies Put in Place for CWP Participants so that they can be Employable and Self-reliant 66
4.4 Summary of the Chapter 68

5. Chapter Five: Main Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations 69
5.1 Introduction 69
5.2 Aim and Objectives of the study 69
5.2.1 Objective 1: To explore the experiences of CWP beneficiaries about the CWP in NLM 69
5.2.2 Objective 2: To explore benefits of participating in the CWP 69
5.2.3 Objective 3: To determine challenges experienced by CWP beneficiaries and the views of officials on how the CWP can contribute to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality. 69
5.2.4 Objective 4: To explore the ideas of CWP beneficiaries and officials to improve the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality. 69
5.2.5 Objective 5: To discover exit strategies put in place for beneficiaries of the CWP 69
5.3 Key Findings of the Study and Conclusions 69
5.3.1 objective 1: To explore the experiences of CWP beneficiaries about the CWP in NLM 69
5.3.1.1 Finding 1 70
5.3.1.2 Finding 2 70
5.3.2 Objective 2: To explore benefits of participating in the CWP 70
5.3.2.1 Finding 1 70
5.3.3 Objective 3: To determine challenges experienced by CWP beneficiaries and the views of officials on how the CWP can contribute to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality 71
5.3.3.1 Finding 1 71
5.3.3.2 Finding 2 72
5.3.3.3 Finding 3 72
5.3.3.4 Finding 4 72
5.3.3.5 Finding 5 72
5.3.4 Objective 4: To explore the ideas of CWP beneficiaries and officials to improve the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality. 73
5.3.4.1 Finding 1 73
5.3.4.2 Finding 2 73
5.3.4.3 Finding 3 74
5.3.5 Objective 5: To discover exit strategies put in place for 74

beneficiaries of the CWP
5.3.5.1 Finding 1 74
5.4 Recommendations 74
5.4.1 Recommendations to IA 75
5.4.2 Recommendations to government and policy makers 75
5.4.3 Recommendations for further research 75
5.5 Summary of the chapter 76
References 77
Appendices 83
Appendix A: Participant Information sheets 83
Appendix B: Consent form for participation in the study 84
Appendix C: Consent form for audiotaping of the interviews for the study 85
Appendix D: Semi-structured interview guide for participants 86
Appendix E: Semi-structured interview guide for field work supervisors 87
Appendix F: Semi-structured interview guide for office staff and implementation agent (IA) 88
Appendix G: Ethics Clearance Certificate 89
Appendix H: Permission letter form IA, Beulah Africa and Future Families Joint Venture 90

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 4.1: Benefit of participating in the CWP 52

Figure 4.2: Summary of exist strategies for CWP participants in NLM 67

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Limitation and Delimitation of the study 8

Table 2.1: CWP anchor activities, useful work, and participating stakeholders 33

Table 3.1: Distribution of research population 38

Table 4.1: Distribution of research participants per category group 46

Table 4.2: Themes and Sub-themes that emerged from the study 47

Table 4.3: Different work carried out by the CWP participants and supervisors 50

Table: 4.4: Distribution of challenges faced by the CWP per category group 56

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ASGISA: Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa

AUC: African Union Commission

BRICS: Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa

CBO: Community Based Organisation

CSO: Civil Society Organisation

CWP: Community Work Programme

DCOG: Department of Cooperative Governance

DPME: Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation

DSD: Department of Social Development

EPWP: Extended Public Works Programme

GEAR: Growth, Employment and Reconstruction

IA: Implementing Agent

ILO: International Labour Organisation

LRC: Local Reference Committee

MDGs: Millennium Development Goals

NDP: National Development Plan

NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation

NHI: National Health Organisation

NLM: Naledi Local Municipality

NPC: National Planning Commission

PEP: Public Employment Programme

PPE: Personal Protective Equipment

RDP: Reconstruction and Development Programme

RSA: Republic of South Africa

SASSA: South African Social Security Agency

SDGs: Sustainable Development Goals

SMME: Small Micro Medium Enterprise

Stats SA: Statistics South Africa

TIPS: Trade and Industry Policy Strategy

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

UNRISD: United Nations Research Institute for Social Development

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The end of the Second World War saw a significant focus on social development due to distorted development which resulted in abject poverty (Midgley, 2014). These developments led to the 1995 World Summit for Social Development hosted by United Nations General Assembly which adopted a social development agenda for the twenty-first century known as poverty alleviation (Davids & Theron, 2014).

The Summit for Social Development has highlighted various indicators of poverty around the world. The indicators ranged from basic social services, education, health care, shelter, water, sanitation, individuals, and country earnings as well as security and social protection (Midgley, 2014). It was therefore declared to the nations around the world that achieving social development goals particularly alleviating poverty and reducing unemployment should be conveyed as top priority targets on every development agenda in governments, private sector, nongovernmental organisations (NGOs) and ordinary citizens.

Equally, Todaro and Smith (2012) in their robust view of development argued that improving social lives should discernibly result in the reduction of poverty and unemployment which ultimately close the gap between the peripheral poor and the rich who continues to enjoy the benefits of the growing economy. The direction to focus on poverty alleviation was perhaps a result of the failure of economic growth alone to address micro-level issues at the grassroots level to achieve agenda for social development.

In the year 2000, the United Nations Millennium Declaration also committed a universal war to eradicate poverty through developing Millennium Development Goals (hereinafter referred to as MDGs). The MDGs as adopted by partner states of the United Nations has acknowledged and put poverty alleviation as goal number one. This goal was targeted to halve poverty among people living below 1 dollar per day by the year 2015 (Davids & Smith, 2014). As emphasised by Sachs (2012), notable progress has been recorded on efforts to fight poverty and hunger.

The progeny of the MDGs being 17 Sustainable Development Goals (hereinafter referred to as SDGs) adopted in 2015, has also tabled alleviation of poverty as a top priority. This shows a serious international commitment to fight poverty to the latter. Since the born of democracy in

1994, the South African government has shown commitment to improving the living conditions of the people through social policy that guide and directs social development programmes. As Midgley (2014) points out, programmes and policies have been developed by the government in partnership with NGOs as well as private sector organisations to address the problem of poverty. South Africa after becoming a democratic country in 1994, has introduced policies and programmes to address socio-economic problems. The most well-known development programmes initiated from 1994 include the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) and the currently implemented National Development Plan Vision 2030 (NDP) (Levisha, 2015).

The RDP was adopted in 1994 when the country entered democracy (Patel, 2015). Many projects were designed to address the aspiration of the RDP policy, however, although positive impacts were significantly evident, the RDP had its challenges which led to the development of a new policy in 1996 called Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR). According to the Department of Social Development (Hereinafter referred not as DSD) the purpose of this macroeconomic policy was to safeguard the economy and ultimately alleviate poverty through redistribution of the economy and scares resources to the poor people (DSD, 2008).

The South African fifth administration introduced a new vision for South Africa's development in the year 2012, the NDP Vision 2030 (the Presidency, 2012). The United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (hereinafter referred to as UNECA) noted that this policy direction for development is inspired by aspirations of the African Agenda 2063, and the SDGs in particularly goal number one which have an objective to end poverty and increase the availability of food by 2030 (UNECA, 2017).

The NDP Vision 2030, SDGs, and African Agenda 2063 have led to the implementation of many programmes and projects targeting problems of poverty, unemployment, and vulnerability. Midgley (2014) asserted that more than 300 interventions have been implemented through projects and programmes to achieve the agenda for social development. South Africa has introduced many programmes which are active and implemented at the grassroots level across the country. In the year 2009 government launched the CWP as a second pillar strategy of poverty alleviation (Masuku, 2015). The goal of this programme is to contribute towards poverty alleviation through the provision of temporary employment for poor economic active populations. The CWP serves as a safety net Public Employment

Programme (hereinafter referred to as PEP) towards alleviation of poverty in all nine provinces of South Africa (Philip, 2013).

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The White Paper for Social Welfare 1997 section 27 (a) acknowledge that most South African people are poor in general, and African people including vulnerable groups (children, women and people living with disability) are living in extreme poverty. The paper which followed the guidelines of the March 1995 World Summit for Social Development postulates that the government must develop policies and programmes aimed at alleviating poverty and ensuring that the war on poverty continues. The White Paper also acknowledges that poverty in South Africa is caused *inter alia* by sickness, socio-economic and political crises which have led to the increase of poverty and unemployment among the economic active populace.

As a response to curb or deal with the increasing poverty, the South African government has three pillar strategies for poverty alleviation. These include boosting the first economy, creating opportunities for employment creation to address the challenges of the second economy and finally alleviating poverty through social security nets (Philip, 2013). The CWP was therefore introduced by the South African government in the year 2009 to address these problems. According to the Trade and Industry Policy Strategy (hereinafter referred to as TIPS) government saw a need to provide a short-term strategy to address problems of poverty and unemployment (TIPS, 2018). However, a long-term strategy has not yet been found to address the objectives of the second economic strategy.

The government has initiated about 30 000 programmes and projects aimed at tackling poverty in the country (Midgley, 2014). This shows a commitment towards the realisation of social policies as a contribution to achieving SDGs and the objectives of the NDP Vision 2030. However, many programmes and projects most commonly fail due to ineffective management, poor monitoring, and evaluation as well as a lack of sufficient financial resources allocated for such initiatives (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2011).

There has been an emphasis on social policies through efforts led by the government of South Africa. The White Paper on Social Welfare has contributed to the adoption of many social protection programmes and projects. The establishment of the CWP as a national PEP aims to address the second pillar of strategies of poverty alleviation (Bruce, 2015). According to Philip (2010), the second economy refers to the rural and urban population which is mostly

marginalised, underdeveloping and provide a little contribution to the GDP. The CWP provide hope at least to the government and its beneficiaries as Madonsela from the Department of Cooperative Governance (hereinafter referred to as DCOG) put it:

"The structural inequality, disadvantage and marginalisation that is handicapping a significant percentage of South African society requires government's attention. In response to the challenges, the government has initiated public and community work programmes: part of wider anti-poverty measures, promoting access to economic opportunities, and helping increase the economic participation of poor people" (DCOG, 2018).

The DCOG (2018) argued that the CWP provides regular work to poor unemployed South Africans as a strategy to improve living conditions, and ultimately fight the elements of poverty. This is done through participation in the programme to earn a monthly stipend. A standardised criterion since the inception of this programme in the year 2009 is that participants are supposed to work two days a week, eight days a month and 100 days a year (Masuku, 2015).

Despite the continuous increase in unemployment and poverty that major contributors of 27.4 percent of people without access to food in Naledi Local Municipality (StatsSA, 2016), the CWP is believed to be one of the most inclusive and perceptible poverty alleviation programmes that have been implemented in Naledi Local Municipality. Therefore, this study explores the role played by the CWP in alleviating poverty in this municipal area and exit strategies which are believed will accelerate the CWP efforts in contributing to poverty alleviation among participants. The findings of this study are anticipated to be useful for implementing agents, government, and policymakers to understand the perceptions of the CWP and its challenges through the eye of beneficiaries of the programme.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research project attempted to answer the following questions:

1.3.1 How does the Community Work Programme (CWP) contribute to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality?

1.3.2 What direct benefits does the CWP provides to beneficiaries?

1.3.3 What are exit strategies put in place for beneficiaries of the programme?

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The primary aim of this research was to explore the contributions of the Community Work Programme (CWP) to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality, Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District in North West Province.

The secondary objectives of this study were:

1.4.1 To explore the experiences of CWP beneficiaries about the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality.
1.4.2 To explore the benefits of participating in the CWP.
1.4.3 To determine challenges experienced by CWP beneficiaries and the views of officials on how the CWP can contribute to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality.
1.4.4 To explore the ideas of CWP beneficiaries to improve the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality.
1.4.5 To determine the views of officials on ways in which the CWP can be improved to better address poverty alleviation in the Naledi Local Municipality.
1.4.6 To discover exiting strategies put in place for beneficiaries of the CWP.

1.5 DEFINITIONS OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following key concepts are defined which form the basis of this study.

1.5.1 COMMUNITY WORK PROGRAMME (CWP)

For this study, Community Work Programme (CWP) refers to a government fully funded programme established in the year 2009 to address the second economy project strategy of poverty alleviation (DCOG, 2018). CWP forms part of Public Employment Programmes (PEPs). It was introduced as a second phase of the EPWP to provide employment and social protection for unemployed people across South Africa (Phillip, 2013). CWP is discussed in detail later in this research report as it is an area of focus for this study.

1.5.2 POVERTY

Poverty is associated with the lack of basic needs (food, water, sanitation, shelter, health, clothes, and security). According to Jensen (2009) poverty refers to a chronic and devastating human condition caused by a combination of factors affecting people's physical and psychological. This definition is also supported by Botchway (2013) who asserted that poverty

involves multidimensional deprivation including lack of basic human services, lack of income, lack of material resources and insufficient social networks.

The existence of poverty co-exist in a situation of no development either socially, economically, or politically as Davids and Theron (2014) refer to poverty as a multi-dimensional concept involving lack of income, power, resources, and opportunities. As much as reducing poverty may mean development, Davids and Theron (2014) emphasise that poverty refers to lack of development. The establishment of the CWP was mainly due to the continued prevalence of poverty in the country hence government believed that people who may get an opportunity to participate in the programme will be able to meet their basic daily needs. There are six forms of poverty acknowledged by this study as stated by Jensen (2009). These are situational, generational, absolute, relative poverty, urban as well as rural poverty. Situational poverty, poverty occurs when a person has experienced life-changing events such as divorce or separation, natural disaster, or disease. These situations may lead a person to poverty however conditions like that may not persist for the long run.

Generational poverty occurs when two or more generations are born in poverty-stricken families. In generational poverty, families have no means and skills to improve their condition making it difficult for them to improve their socio-economic condition. Absolute poverty occurs when a person has no access to immediate needs for survival. This includes food, water, clothes, and shelter. This type of poverty often occurs in developing countries where there is resource scarcity leading to malnutrition, hunger or even disease.

Relative poverty occurs when a family cannot meet the standard of living of other families in the community. This is measured by income when is way less than that of another person in the same society leading to income inequality. Urban poverty occurs when an urban area is characterised by overcrowding, violence, and limited services. More often this type of poverty is found in urban areas with over 50 000 people. Rural poverty occurs in rural areas where the population is expected to be less than 50 000 with limited opportunities to work, education and service delivery (Jensen, 2009).

Absolute poverty and rural poverty apply to this study. Firstly, it is undoubtedly that most areas, families, and individuals in South Africa are still unable to meet their basic human needs. Secondly, rural areas remain the epicentre of poverty with the slow pace in service delivery, limited access to education and skill as well as no or insufficient opportunity for employment. Botchway (2013) argues that this kind of poverty is found in North West Province, South

Africa in a way that people migrate to big cities to seek opportunities and improve their lives. This illustrates the need to redirect poverty alleviation strategies to those affected by absolute poverty and those living in rural areas because they are far left behind in terms of service delivery provisions.

1.5.3 POVERTY ALLEVIATION

Poverty alleviation refers to any strategy or method established to address the cause of poverty focusing on specific individuals, communities, or countries (United Nations, 2002). Measures established by the international community, governments, private sectors, and civil society to address poverty are known to be poverty alleviation strategies. Poverty alleviation requires the government to provide measures to tackle the poor living conditions of the people. For this study poverty alleviation refers to government policies and programmes such as the CWP aimed at improving living conditions of the poor and those in rural areas because it offers an opportunity for people in rural areas to improve their circumstances through the provision of regular employment to the most marginalised areas where high unemployment is prevalent.

1.5.4 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Social development is a relatively new approach to development that came as a result of distorted development in the 1950s. According to Midgley (1995), distorted development was perpetuated through increasing corruption in government administration, maladministration, little attention made to the needs of women, children, poor people etc. Social development became an ideal approach after it was recommended by the United Nations during Social Development World Summit in 1995 in Denmark. Social development is therefore understood as any policies or programmes aimed at *inter alia* addressing the needs of the poor, promoting social justice, optimising opportunities, empowering local people, and promoting people's participation (Patel, 2015).

Furthermore, Midgley (2014, p. 3) define social development as "a process of planned social change designated to promote the wellbeing of the population as a whole within the context of a dynamic multifaceted development process". This is in line with the United Nations Research Institution for Social Development (hereinafter referred to as UNRISD) which also view social development as a process of change to improve the well-being of the people and relationships while promoting good governance and social justice (UNRISD, 2015). Both definitions point out the multidimensional aspect of social development in process of improving the living

conditions of the people. Patel (2015) also note that social development takes place through government and other stakeholders such as civil society and private sector organisations aiming to alleviate poverty. The implementation of CWP as a collaborative national programme for poverty alleviation illustrates an example of social development programmes among many in South Africa.

1.6 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used a qualitative research approach. An Instrumental case study was used as the research design to explore the topic. The study utilised purposive sampling as the technique to select 20 research participants. Three different semi-structured interview guides were used to collect data from the three groups of participants who were interviewed. Secondary data was obtained from academic books, journals, government documents and other publications. Finally, thematic analysis was used to analyse the data.

1.7 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATION OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

Limitations involve whatever may be a constraint or limitation when researching that a researcher cannot control while delimitations involve any factor that may affect the study, but the researcher has control over (Plooy-Cilliers, Davis & Bezuidenhout, 2014). Limitations involve whatever may be a constraint or limitation when researching that a researcher cannot control while delimitations involve any factor that may affect the study, but the researcher has control over (Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014). Therefore, the researcher must always find ways to address these challenges so that they do not affect the outcome of the study. In Table 1.1, the limitations and delimitations of the research study are presented.

Table 1.1: Limitation and Delimitation of the research study

No	Limitations	Delimitations
1	Difficulty to verify results as participants provide their lived experience.	The researcher contextualized research findings while following the interpretivism model
2	Non-probability sampling method was used which does not guarantee chances of including all units	The use of purposeful sampling to provide in-depth analysis of subject matter

3	Unmanageable data analysis resulting in time-consuming	The use of thematic analysis is an appropriate method of data analysis.
4	Researcher's bias, participants' socially desirable answers and lack of rigour in reporting research findings	Application of research ethics mentioned in chapter three and supervision and guidance from the research supervisor
5	Covid-19 interrupting research processes	Adhering to government regulation and exploring other means of interaction (conducting interviews via a virtual platform called Zoom) with two participants.

1.8 ORGANISATION OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

This research report consists of five chapters. Chapter one introduces the study where the statement of the problem and rationale for the study is discussed, research questions, aims and objectives are outlined, key concepts are defined and limitations, as well as delimitations of the study, are provided. Chapter two focuses on the theoretical frameworks that underpin this study and the literature review. In Chapter three the research methodology and methods used during this study, are explained. In Chapter four the focus is on the presentation and discussion of research findings. Chapter five provides the main findings, conclusions about the findings and recommendations.

1.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter gave an introduction and background to the study. The problem statement and rationale for the study was highlighted. The three research questions that this study seeks to answer were outlined. The aims and research objectives were presented. A brief overview of the research methodology and methods applied were discussed. Lastly, the limitations and delimitations of the research study were explained. In the next chapter, the theoretical framework underpinning the research study as well as the relevant literature reviewed to the study will be presented.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter has two focuses, namely, examining and explaining the theoretical framework underpinning the study, and providing a comprehensive literature review relevant to the study. The main topics of the literature review include poverty in a global, regional, and national context. International, regional, and national poverty strategies are discussed. Social protection and social development strategies are also elaborated on. The CWP and its nature in Naledi Local Municipality (NLM) is also discussed.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS FUNDAMENTAL TO THE STUDY

Although social development is mainly a practice rather than a theory, for many years there have been theoretical standpoints from which social development practice evolved. Davids and Theron (2014) argue that the main original competing theory was the economic growth perspective advocated by modernisation theories and the structural foundation put forward by the dependency has dominated social development literature from the early 1950s to the later 1960s. This has led Seers (1969) to stress that we are unable to differentiate development from economic development and economic growth from economic development. Midgley (2014) notes that past theories of development have never been accepted in social development which has led to the emergence of contemporary perspectives on social development. This was due to prevailing poverty, inequality, and unemployment that became worrisome in developing countries (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000; Davids & Theron, 2014).

In the 1970s, social development theory turned to a new direction and started to focus more on human-centred approaches to social development. This was a response to the distorted development which failed economic growth to address poverty and redistribute the economy to the most marginalised in the developing nations (Midgley, 1994; Midgley, 2015). These issues include lack of provision of basic needs to the people as explained by basic needs theory and failure of governments to act on these development problems as the statist approach urge the state to realise its power and role in social development. Both the basic needs and statist approaches will form the theoretical base of this study because of their nature to advocate for poverty alleviation. The basic needs approach advocates for primacy of food and other basic needs in ensuring quality life, and protection of social beings, while the statist approach gives

the government a coordinating power to ensure this takes place. The two theories discussed below will help us understand how this study was conducted.

2.2.1 *STATIST APPROACH*

Statist perspectives encapsulate that the state or government should develop, regulate, implement, monitor, and evaluate policies and legislature to facilitate social development. For this approach, the government have always had the best interest of its citizens at heart and should use its power and resources to alleviate poverty among its citizens (Midgley, 2014). Obah-Akpowoghaha (2013) view statist theory as a political school of thought which attribute poverty because of a lack of government agency to implement good policies and fight corruption. Moreover, government inefficiencies result in service not being delivered and what Todaro and Smith (2012) call false development paradigm. However, concerning the statist approach government should embrace good governance to improve living conditions. In this way, government remain a prominent key player to achieve goals and objective of social development. The role and efforts of government agencies, community and non-governmental organisations in poverty alleviation remain equally essential.

The adoption and funding of CWP demonstrate elements of the statist approach as the South African government played a leading role in this social protection programme. Statist perspective promotes social development through the institutional structuralism approaches. The statist approach denotes that government must lead efforts to achieve social development goals. Among social development goals is to eradicate poverty and reduce unemployment. Therefore, these are the rationale behind the establishment of the CWP. This shows the government's commitment to social development as advocated by statist theory.

In a nutshell, the statist approach is identified as a theoretical framework that underpins this research because of its ability to view government or state as a strong mechanism to provide social basic services. Secondly, the theory provides and promotes the government's efforts together with community and civil society organisations to foster inclusiveness and people's participation to become self-reliant individuals and society. Thirdly, statist maintain that cooperation is the best recipe for poverty alleviation hence the CWP relies on stakeholder collaboration to achieve its desired goals (Midgley, 2014). The statist approach is relevant in this study since it helps us to understand the role of CWP as a government-led programme for poverty alleviation. However, Todaro and Smith (2012) insist that albeit the indispensable role

of government in development, state intervention in developing countries is always challenged by corruption, inefficiency, and distortion of economic planning.

2.2.2 BASIC NEEDS APPROACH

Basic needs theory serves as another theoretical framework for this study. The basic needs approach was introduced into the social development theoretical debate around the 1970s. According to Watson (2014), the basic needs approach refers to the welfare approach that reprioritises human needs necessary to fight poverty. In this instance, the focus is on absolute needs rather than monetary gains. Midgley (1994) also assert that the basic needs approach perspective came as a response to concerns over poverty and inequality. The essence of this theory is that poverty is prevailing because of the lack of access to resources to meet the basic needs to ensure human functioning. Reinert (2020) stresses that basic needs include food, water, clothing, shelter, housing, sanitation, and security. Lack of access to basic social services may be what poverty means. Access to employment in developing nations is fundamental to tackle poverty and in particular absolute poverty (Davids & Theron., 2014).

The basic needs approach has been advocated by the World Bank and later adopted by International Labour Organisation (hereinafter referred to as ILO) (Watson, 2014). These international institutions have requested governments, especially of developing countries to prioritise the immediate felt needs of the people (Midgley, 1994). This approach requires governments to introduce social policies and programmes aimed at alleviating poverty like the CWP. Furthermore, the basic needs approach underpins this study because just like the statist approach they provide a binding principle for government to promote social development by alleviating poverty through the creation of social protection programmes. According to the perspective of the basic needs, economic growth has no value if people have no access to resources that address their basic needs (Watson, 2014). Additionally, the basic needs approach is used in this study to help us understand what it means to be poor and which indicators although not exclusive we might identify to be influential and contributing to the alleviation of poverty by the CWP.

2.3 POVERTY IN THE GLOBAL CONTEXT

Although the World Bank aimed to reduce extreme poverty by 3 per cent or less in the year 2030, poverty remains a global concern since millions of people live below one US Dollar per day. According to Smith (2015), the World Bank has estimated global poverty to 1.25 billion

people living below one US dollar per day. According to the report by the World Bank (2018), in 2015 the world's population living below the poverty line was estimated to decrease by 9 per cent as compared to more than 8 decades ago. World population is measured in terms of the percentage of people living below 1 US dollar per day. Today, attention to poverty has increased worldwide as poverty alleviation has become an agenda point for the 21st century (World Bank, 2018).

Poverty on its own is multidimensional and income measurement is not sufficient to measure the extent of poverty. The past decades saw the multilateral collaboration of five states known as BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) emerge to enhance economic performance, fast track creation of employment and eradicate poverty and inequality. Massarova and Potapenko (2018) noted that BRICS accounts for 44% of people affected by extreme poverty in developing nations.

Recent data from the World Bank indicate that percentage of people living below 1 US dollar per day in India is above 21,2%, in South Africa 18,9%, in Brazil 3,4%, China recording at least 1,4% and Russia is below 0,0% of the total population. Poverty in developing nations remains a global concern however as far as BRICS countries are concerned there is steady progress towards economic growth and development (World Bank, 2018). While India and South Africa face rural poverty and slow economic growth, Brazil, Russia, and China remain "engines" for developing nations with impressive socio-economic improvements (Massarova & Potapenko, 2018).

2.4 POVERTY IN AFRICA AND SUB-SAHARAN REGION

Africa is the poorest region in the world. African countries still endure the impact of imperialism and colonialism today. Historical trends including war and terrorism contributed to the current state of poverty in Africa. The impact of HIV and AIDS is immense especially when people cannot work or are forced to leave their hard labour due to health conditions or severe illness. According to Hamel, Tong & Hofer (2019), 422 million people are living in poverty as measured by the global poverty line of one US dollar per day in Africa.

In Africa, 70 per cent of people living in poverty come from sub-Saharan Africa. There are some improvements in some of the countries including Mauritania, Gambia, Mauritius, Gabon, and Equatorial Guinea with the poverty rate being lower than three per cent. According to the World Bank (2019), the level of Sub-Saharan Africa poverty has lowered from 54 per cent in

1990 to 41 per cent in 2015. This has shown a 13 per cent decline in the overall poverty rate in Africa. However, despite these improvements, most people in Sub-Saharan countries still experience absolute poverty.

2.5 POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

Moreover, poverty in South Africa is mainly structural due to social, political, and economic challenges of the past and present. Sources of poverty in a post-apartheid South Africa include but are not limited to lack of income, limited opportunities for employment in the formal and informal sector, and poor policies and programmes to address poverty. Poverty in South Africa is mostly associated with a lack of meeting basic needs including food, shelter, water, sanitation, clothes, and security. More often people who go to bed without food or struggle to meet their basic needs are said to be poor in South Africa. According to the Department of Social Development (DSD), 2018,) poverty mostly affects black Africans, people in rural areas, and women living in South Africa. The collaboration between the Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME), the World Bank as well as Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) launched an inquiry into the extent of poverty and inequality in 2018. The study came to conclude that poverty continues to remain high in the country with at least 75 per cent of the whole population living below minimum standards (DPME, 2018).

Jensen (2009) provides six types of poverty, situational, generational, absolute, relational, urban, and rural poverty. It is without any doubt that South Africa is highly affected by generational as well as absolute poverty among the six. Most families in South Africa are born in families which are poverty-stricken from generation to generation. The conditions, therefore, result in a lack of basic social services needed for human survival. There is a strong link generational as absolute poverty where a family of limited or sometimes no skills will always lack in terms of basic needs. Todaro and Smith (2012, p. 211) put it directly that "Absolute poverty is the situation of being unable or only barely able to meet the subsistence essentials of food, clothing, and shelter". As indicated earlier in this chapter, the government of South Africa through the statist model is utilising the CWP as an attempt to close a gap between skills and provision of basic needs. The basic need approach is used as a guiding framework for the provision of basic social needs. These needs are also entrenched in Chapter 2 especially sections 25 and 26 of the South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1996 (RSA, 1996).

According to (DPME, 2018) poverty in South Africa is the result of maladministration and corruption across all sectors (public sector, private, and third sector). Therefore, such impact

results in poor economic growth and poor project/programme implementation contribute to increasing poverty, unemployment and inequality. However, recent studies highlighted that the poverty rate is decreasing as compared to pre-1994. According to Davids and Theron (2014) political, social, and economic problems of apartheid in South Africa makes poverty structural because eliminating it will require structural solutions. Furthermore, poverty is more than meeting basic needs, it includes lack of power to participate in initiatives to bring about development, lack of formal quality education, lack of sufficient income and participation in economic activities (Davids & Theron, 2014).

Economic growth was expected to reduce poverty through redistribution. However, the rate at which the economy grows in the country has been low if not stagnant. Without undermining the global poverty measure, poverty in South Africa, given the local context can be measured by R992 per person per month (DPME, 2018). Given the measurements and circumstances of this country, poverty is high and increasing. The major contributor to increasing poverty is unemployment which was reported to be 29.1 per cent during the last quarter of the year 2019 and lack of skills to secure jobs in the market (Stats SA, 2020). Poverty remains a challenge in the country hence poverty alleviation programmes, projects and policies are of paramount importance in social development practice.

2.6 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT: A THIRD WORLDIST APPROACH TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The social development approach came as a response to distorted development in developing nations after Second World War. Issues arising during that time were poverty and an inequality gap between the rich and poor. In addition, negligence of addressing the basic needs of the people due to corruption and maladministration saw social development as a viable strategy to redirect resources and call on stakeholders to recognise a need to pursue a social development agenda (Midgley, 1995). Social development then became an obvious strategy for poverty eradication around the world suppressing economic growth strategy. Today social development is widely accepted globally with efforts from the government, third sector organisations and private sector.

As social policies become relevant in contemporary development, social development emerges as a necessary approach advocated by the UN in the late 1960s. Later in March 1995 UN General Assembly hosted a World Summit for social development. The objective of the

Summit was to mobilise governments, the business sector, NPOs, and people around the world to adopt an agenda for social development (Patel, 2015).

UN Summit for social development produced concrete solutions to improve living conditions for the poor, particularly in developing nations. People's participation, poverty alleviation and improvement in formal employment top the agenda in the Summit (Davids and Theron, 2014). The need for reduction and eradication of poverty has then remained a principle for social development. Hence the rationale for this study is focusing on the role of the CWP in poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality. Furthermore, the impact of employment or at least project or programme of social development in poverty alleviation is prominent.

Social development seeks to improve the social conditions of the people through policies, projects, and programmes that focus on poverty alleviation. Midgley (2014, p. 3) defines social development as "a process of planned social change designated to promote the wellbeing of the population as a whole within the context of a dynamic multifaceted development process". For Patel (2015) social development is a people-centred approach that promotes the rights of the people for decision making. The common agreement between these authors is that social development is also an essential strategy for social protection. Achievement of social development requires commitment from individuals, communities, governments, and private sectors to forge progress.

2.6.1 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT BY INDIVIDUALS

Social development is concerned with building self-reliant individuals and communities. Alcock, May and Wright (2012) maintain that the idea of *laissez-faire* has been advocated by mostly the conservatives and liberals to promote social justice and fight absolute poverty. However, Dugarova (2015) highlighted that individual freedom has been rejected within social development practice because of its ability to promote extreme individualism and competition while threatening social cohesion and undermining an integrated approach to social development. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) remarked, individuals are important, but development is a collective process, not an individual action. Social development strategy by individualism is rooted in enterprise normative perspective. According to Midgley (2014) individualists believes that empowerment of individuals especially those in need is necessary for social development. Desai & Potter (2008) argues that emphasis is placed on the market to provide equal opportunities for individuals. Antwi (2018) added that individual strategy is

mostly advocated by the modernisation theory which believes that social development can be promoted through individual performance or functioning.

However, Alcock, et al., (2012) assert that individual prosperity promotes freedom and societal security. Other positives are that this approach promotes self-reliance as Todaro and Smith (2012) also proclaim that social development is realised when policies, approaches and programmes are implemented to effectively promote individual prosperity. An individualist approach to social development requires a stable and strong economy that can create opportunities for jobs, self-employment, and increased investments. According to Antwi (2018), the modernisation theory has advocated for social development to adopt an individual strategy urging the government to adopt policies and programmes that promote competition and entrepreneurship. Philip (2010) maintain that this approach has the potential to create a job for local people. The shortcoming of this approach is that in developing countries the economic growth remains poor leaving limited funds to support small micro-enterprises. Government should prioritise meeting people's basic needs while ultimately growing the economy.

2.6.2 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT BY COMMUNITIES

Community participatory perspective believes to be the best approach to achieve social development. According to Swanepoel and De Beer (2011), this perspective put the community at the centre of social development. It, therefore, promotes an integrated approach to poverty alleviation. Social development by communities promotes people's participation in development viewing people as owners of their destinies (Midgley, 2014). This is contrary to the individualist approach and argues that community members, government, NGOs should work together to avoid competitions, conflicts, and fragmentation. They must plan and implement projects in an integrated manner. Theron (2008) asserts that the role of external stakeholders for example the government or its change agents will be to guide, motivate advice, facilitate, and liaise in this process. Similarly, social development is also promoted through communities.

Social development in terms of community participatory perspective brings us to a well-known strategy of social development called community development. Community development is viewed as a process of establishment of structures for people to improve their lives and meet their basic needs (Ife, 2002). Similarly, Swanepoel and De Beer (2011) view community development as a process in which local people or collective communities come together to initiate change to improve their lives. Community development is associated with indigenous

culture and knowledge, local skills, and resources. This is important for the realisation of the social development agenda. According to Midgley (1994), community development strategies have played a vital role in poverty alleviation through the implementation of community projects and programmes. He made an example of the War on Poverty programmes in the United States established in the 1960s for poverty alleviation.

Community development has also been directed toward addressing rural poverty in developing nations (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000). There is a strong link between community development, participation, ownership, and empowerment (Theron, 2008). According to Midgley (1994) empowerment is a popular concept in community participatory perspectives. This has shown an increase in the involvement of women in social development issues. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) maintain that community development seeks to ensure social development through empowerment and community capacity building to promote self-reliance. As the community come together to address issues of concern, identify projects, and participate in implementation, monitoring and evaluation of these projects social development goals are realised (Midgley, 2014).

2.6.3 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT BY THE GOVERNMENT

Statist approaches form a basis that government should play a critical role in achieving the agenda for social development. According to the statist perspective, the government in the pursuit of growing the economy should always prioritise the interest of its people (Midgley, 2014). This is also in line with advocates of redistribution and basic needs theory which urge the government to ensure access to basic social needs to the most marginalised in the society. In addition to the provision of a statist approach, Davids and Theron (2014) provided a similar view that the key role of government in designing and implementing policies, projects and programmes aimed at achieving socio-economic development. It is based on this reason that the Constitution of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 holds the state accountable for the provision of sustainable basic needs within a participatory manner. This is coordinated by three branches of government (legislative, executive, and judicial authority).

The legislative, executive and judicial spheres of government should hypothetically operate independently and by the Constitution of RSA, Act 108 of 1996. According to Davids and Theron (2014), the legislature also known as parliament is responsible for making laws. There are two kinds of parliaments in RSA, namely the National Assembly, and the National Council of Provinces. According to the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996), the National Assembly

consists of 400 members while the National Council of Provinces consists of 90 permanent delegates. Provincial legislatures which consist of 30-80 elected members in each province are also important branches of the legislature. The executive authority is responsible to implement laws and policies. All three spheres of government (national, provincial, and local government), state-owned enterprises, universities, etc. are responsible for policy implementation. On the other hand, the judiciary refers to the courts of law. Among courts, there is the constitutional court, Supreme Court of appeal, high courts, and magistrates' courts. The state through its institutions has a responsibility to promote social development. According to Davids and Theron (2014) main role of the state in promoting social development includes the formulation of social development policies, designing and implementation of social development projects and programmes, raising revenues to fund such programmes and ensuring state accountability which is the exclusive overall responsibility of the judiciary.

Around the 1970s, the need for government to integrate social issues into economic policies was popularised by the United Nations. This saw an increase in socio-economic planning by governments especially in developing nations and poverty alleviation was given increased attention in planning, policy, and administration. (Midgley, 1994; Midgley, 2014). The National Development Plan (NDP) vision 2030 will be discussed in the following sections which illustrate socio-economic development planning intending to alleviate poverty, promoting rural inclusiveness and sustainable development in South Africa.

Moreover, in the pursuit of social development, the government must address poverty through the provision of basic social needs while the scarcity of formal employment persists. Government should therefore accept its institutional responsibility to foster social development and alleviate poverty. According to Davids and Theron (2014) in South Africa, the Constitution (RSA, 1996) makes provision for local government to provide basic social services, develop the local economy and promote people's participation. These highlight proponents of the basic needs approach as well as the statist approach. As it is advocated by the statist theory, the government can plan, mobilise resources, and develop policies and programmes for social development (Midgley, 2014). However, such programmes must be directed to focus on the poor people in society. Accordingly, Davids and Theron (2014) argue that the provision of basic services in South Africa is embedded in the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) chapter 2 as a fundamental right to which every citizen is entitled.

Furthermore, De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) stress that government has a role to ensure socio-economic development. As people interact at the grassroots level, the constitution of South Africa gave the local government a mandate to realise this goal. Subsequently, the government should protect the environment and ensure sustainability. Government has a mandate to develop policies for the protection of social, economic, and environmental issues (Midgley, 2014). This requires commitment from the government to protect the environment while equally alleviating poverty.

2.6.4 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT BY NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOS)

Although the role of government in social development remains paramount as advocated by the statist theory, their administrative role has always been associated with corruption and incompetence of public organisations and officials. This hinders progress to achieve the social development agenda in developing nations. For these reasons, NGOs emerged to strengthen Civil Society Organisations (CSOs), promote people's participation, and ultimately contribute towards poverty alleviation (Davids & Theron, 2014).

There is a distinct difference between Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) and NGOs. CBOs are understood to include organisations and associations such as stokvels, sports and cultural associations as well as cooperatives operative within their geographical boundary. NGOs are understood to be development-oriented not for profit organisations (NPOs) promoting social development within different areas of specialisation. In South Africa, NGOs are defined in terms of the Non-Profit Organisation Act 71 of 1997 as "a trust, company or other association of persons established for a public purpose and income and properties of which are not distributed to its members or office-bearers accept as reasonable compensation for service rendered". NGOs are said to be self-governing profit organisation established for the public good or "in the interest of marginalised poor" (Davids & Theron, 2014. p. 64). However, although NGOs are private and self-governing, they are regulated and accountable to the government through the NPO Act 71 of 1997.

NGOs in South Africa are addressing social development issues such as education, social justice, access to land, gender issues, community development, capacity building, crime prevention, victim empowerment, psycho-social support and rehabilitation services, sports, culture and recreation, research, public health, participation, career guidance, governance, etc (Davids & Theron, 2014). This shows the developmental nature of NGOs as they promote

objectives of social development within their projects and programmes, they implement in South Africa.

NGOs contribute vigorously, towards poverty alleviation and the achievement of social development agenda. They demonstrate a micro-level approach to social development that is reported to be effective in mobilisation of people at the grassroots level, promotion of capacity building of local people, encouraging learning when people become part and parcel of development initiatives, and increased likelihood of sustainability in social development programmes and project (Patel, 2012). NGOs are employed as Implementing Agents (IA) for CWP throughout the country to assist the government in implementing the programme. Furthermore, participants of CWP come from people who are members of NGOs hence they are given stipends as a recognition of their contribution to social development through useful work in their respective organisations. Regardless of their important role in social development, NGOs are confronted with challenges including lack of funding and withdrawal of international donors, insufficient state support, political interference, administrative inability, poor partnerships, and collaboration with local and international organisations promoting social development (Davids & Theron, 2014).

2.6.5 SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT BY PRIVATE SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

The role of individuals, the community, the public sector, and NGOs in achieving social development is essential, hitherto the private sector's contribution to development cannot be ignored. Following Davids and Theron (2014), the private sector promotes social development through Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Through CSR private sector accept responsibility to participate in social development by the provision of employment, provision of funding for projects and initiatives and overall involvement in the development agenda.

CSI is defined as a corporate effort by a company as a responsibility to the community where the production takes place (Davids & Theron, 2014). In South Africa, CSR was first introduced at Cape Town University by Professor Meyer Feldberg in the business school. Private companies were urged to contribute to social development as an investment return. More private organisations have contributed to community development projects through funding and resource allocation in South Africa.

2.6.6 SOCIAL PROTECTION AS A STRATEGY FOR SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

2.6.6.1 A Brief History of Social Protection

The reformist attempts to cater for children, orphans, elders, and people with disability have led to the emergence of social protection. Midgley (2014) have noted the historical emergence of social protection including 1600 poor law established poor relief programme by Queen Elizabethan which was adopted by British colonies including Australia, India, Jamaica, Canada, South Africa, and Mauritius. In 1873 the German government established a national sickness insurance fund which was subsequently supported by Italy in 1893. In 1901 Sweden and Netherlands introduced social insurance and many nations followed thereafter. The Social protection approach became widely accepted in 1948 after the end of the Second World War. It was then that the International Labour Organisation (ILO) followed by the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights supported the provision of social protection (Midgley, 2014). Social protection became an institutional approach to remedy the impact of the Second World War globally.

There is a consensus on the meaning of social protection. The United Nations (2015) view social protection as safety nets and social insurance schemes targeted toward poor or vulnerable people in society. Merrien (2013) argue that social protection is perceived as policies for social security. This implies that social protection is mostly meant to be social insurance and assistance provided as a subsidy to the most marginalised poor in the society (Midgley, 2014). Dugarora (2015) also states that social protection should include a variety of programmes and policies such as cash transfer, provision of nutritious meals, support grants and capacity building to eradicate poverty. Barrientos (2010, p. 2) view social protection as "a policy framework addressing poverty and vulnerability in developing countries". He further associates social protection with labour market regulation, social insurance, and social assistance wherein labour market regulation refers to the enhancement of worker's basic conditions, social insurance refers to programmes such as old age and unemployment and sickness funds.

Social assistance involves programmes aimed at poverty alleviation (Barrientos, 2010). Social assistance such as poor relief, social grants and safety nets provided by government and NGOs to poor people and communities to alleviate poverty is regarded as social protection (Midgley, 2014). While we note that social protection reflects a statist approach, Midgley (2014) assert that social protection is widely implemented by those countries that have adopted institutional structuralism approach to social development such as South Africa and Mauritius.

2.6.6.2 *Social Protection in South Africa*

Social grants, projects, and programmes for poverty alleviation are introduced by the government and the NGO sector including Faith-Based Organisations (FBOs) as safety nets to improve hardships faced by the people. In South Africa, social protection is one of the most visible strategies for poverty alleviation. According to Ulriksen and Plagerson (2017), South Africa provides the most extensive social assistance programme among the African countries. The post-apartheid government has shown its commitment to social policy by introducing various cash transfer grants immediately after taking over the administration. Merrien (2013) notes that social grants and cash transfer programmes of social protection have been successfully implemented in South Africa and other countries like Mexico, and Brazil. Dugarova (2015) also note the remarkable impact of inclusive health care in reducing mortality rate and improving life expectancy introduced in 2003 by the Rwandan government. The types of grants in South Africa include old person grant, child support grant, foster care grant, war veteran grant, care dependency grant, disability grant and social relief of distress. The provision of this social security net is championed by the Department of Social Development and its agency, the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA).

Moreover, social protection is among the key objectives of the NDP Vision 2030, (2012) a current plan of the South African government to address development. The Public Employment Programme (PEP) is another typical example of social protection. The PEPs are Public Works Programmes established by the government as a response to confront poverty through the creation of regular employment. (Bruce, 2015). The United States under President Roosevelt adopted a New Deal programme in 1930. Furthermore, India's Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme and Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Programme are typical examples of international social protection. In the case of South Africa, the Extended Public Work Programmes (EPWP) sought to be the first PEP established by the post-apartheid government in the year 2004 (Bruce, 2015).

However, we must also note that the significance of PEP has led to the adoption of the Community Work Programme (CWP) as a pilot programme of EPWP in 2007 to provide an employment safety net among poor unemployed people (Masuku, 2015). The detailed discussion on CWP is covered in the following sections. The persistence of poverty not only in South Africa but among developing nations has attracted attention from the international community as many efforts are being made in terms of funding and technical assistance to

support social development initiatives. The following discussion focuses on poverty alleviation strategies explored internationally, regionally, and in South Africa.

2.7 INTERNATIONAL POVERTY ALLEVIATION STRATEGIES

The adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations in 1948 marked global concern for increasing poverty and vulnerability. Such developments brought the emergence of constant efforts put forward by the international community. Notably, the World Summit on Social Development which took place in Copenhagen, Denmark 1995 brought to the world social issues affecting the people and a need to focus on social development as a key priority (Department of Social Development, 2008). According to the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD) (2015), the Social Development World Summit sees poverty alleviation, employment (full-time jobs), and people's participation as new emerging issues of concern for social development. For this reason, the summit mobilised all institutions such as governments, the private sector, NGOs, and community members to participate in an agenda to achieve social development (Davids & Theron, 2014).

In the year 2000, the United Nations translated key priorities of the social summit into 8 development goals during Millennium Declaration. Sachs (2012) note that MDGs was global innovation for poverty alleviation and sustainable development. Eight MDGs include eradicating poverty and hunger (1), achieving universal primary education (2), gender inequality and women empowerment (3), reducing child mortality (4), improving maternal health (5), combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases (6), promoting environmental sustainability (7), developing global development partnership (8). All these goals were targeted with indicators to be reached by 2015. Merrien (2013) argued that MDGs demonstrated a global compromise to transform living conditions in developing nations. Although MDGs was a 15-year project and by 2015 most problems remained persistent, Sachs (2012) note that some progress has been recorded among all 8 goals.

Notwithstanding MDGs' efforts, the fight against poverty was beyond 2015 hence the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) became a preeminent substitute for MDGs in 2015. SDGs were adopted in 2015 by 193 countries represented by their leaders across the globe. It was then that 17 goals were set aside to be achieved by 2030 (United Nations, 2016). The halting proportion of people living below 1 US dollar per day is a critical indicator to achieve SDG1& 2. This commits the international community towards poverty alleviation and ending

hunger. Essentially, as Hugo and Carter (2019) emphasised, some SDGs have a direct impact on poverty alleviation for example SDG 3 (good health and wellbeing), SDG 4 (quality education), SDG 5 (gender equality), SDG 6 (clean water and sanitation), SDG 8 (decent work and economic growth) and SGD 10 (reduced inequality). These goals address critical issues of basic human needs. The goals are overtly linked to social development. Sachs (2012) suggests that promoting sustainable development and improving living conditions of the poor is vital for decades to come, it is hoped that the SDGs will realise this fundamentally critical goal of the 21st century by 2030.

In addition, global commitment towards poverty alleviation must be extended to other international organisations such as International Labour Organisation (ILO), World Health Organisation (WHO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) have for many years collaborated with governments across the globe to gear against poverty and social problems (Midgley, 2014). These organisations have for years fought against poverty and inequality, particularly in developing countries. Financial efforts are made through projects and programmes to realise ending hunger and poverty as a foremost objective of SDGs by 2030. While we recognise transformative change challenges ahead of SDGs it is quite astonishing how all development-related events and publications emphasise the need to support the implementation of SDGs 2030. Hujo and Carter (2019) assert that transformative change is required for sustainable development agenda involving policy reform and global integration to tackle grassroots problems of poverty, inequality, and sustainability. This showed the foreseeable impact that SDG has in poverty alleviation although we have yet to see what results may come out of the 2030 agenda.

2.8 POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN AFRICA

New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) has a fundamental goal of alleviating poverty in Africa. According to Mashau (2006), NEPAD is an effort of African leaders to bring about development in the continent. Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) also plays a prominent role to reduce poverty in Africa. Emphasis is put on the provision of aid to developing countries which contributed directly to the creation of jobs, development of skills for production and improvement of industrial technologies (Gohou & Soumare, 2011). With international aid assistance Africa should be in the right position to tackle the development issues at hand. Nonetheless, structural policies coming along with foreign investment remain a challenge for many African countries hence Africa is forever indebted.

It is undoubtedly that the African Union Commission (hereinafter referred to as AUC) is at the forefront of the battle against poverty in Africa. This is evident through its robust African Agenda 2063 which emphasises commitment to poverty alleviation and other structural problems faced by the continent (AUC, 2015a). The African Agenda 2063 as adopted in January 2015 has seven aspirations expected to cut across all structural problems faced by the continent. Achieving inclusive growth and sustainable development (aspiration 1) has priority areas that contribute to the social development agenda. Areas of priority are increased individual income with decent jobs, reductions of poverty, hunger and inequality and improving basic social services through promotion of social protection, especially among children, women, and people with disability (AUC, 2015b). Promoting people's participation including women, youth and caring for children as aspiration six highlights' efforts made towards achieving social development goals (AUC, 2015b). All seven aspirations for African Agenda 2063 together with their specific targets are required to be incorporated in national plans and policies for development.

Sub-Saharan Africa is reported to be the poorest region in terms of poverty rates in Africa especial extreme poverty. The World Bank (2018) reported that the poverty rate in Sub-Saharan Africa was at 41% in 2015 with 27 out 28 most poor countries in the world coming from Sub-Saharan Africa. Aforesaid illustrate how ending poverty in Africa requires a special focus on the Sub-Saharan Africa region. The Southern Africa Development Committee (hereinafter referred to as SADC) is in this instance a leading institute to combat structural poverty in the region. SADC was created for regional integration and cooperation on key issues affecting the region especial poverty alleviation, economic participation, and security. In 2008 during their meeting in Mauritius, SADC constituting of 14 member states re-emphasised the need to implement its key objective which includes a) eradicating poverty through sustainable and equitable socio-economic development, b) improving living conditions of SADC people, c) ensuring gender mainstreaming in development initiatives (SADC, 2008). With these objectives, SADC should realise its role in social development.

2.9 LEGISLATION AND POLICY FRAMEWORKS FOR POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The end of apartheid in South Africa in 1994 saw a significant focus in addressing the level of poverty. South African government, therefore, formulated policies and programmes which sought to address injustices of the past. Legislation and policy framework include the RDP to

the recent NDP Vision 2030. These policy and legislation frameworks for poverty alleviation are discussed below.

2.9.1 THE RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (RDP)

The RDP came as the election manifesto for the African National Congress (ANC) in 1994. It later became a policy document after a well-earned victory for ANC during the 1994 national elections. Seekingss (2013) argue that the purpose of the RDP was to address the injustices of the apartheid regime. Additionally, the RDP aimed to promote the participation of the people wherein government should create a collaborative environment where all sectors (state, private, civil society, and community) contribute to ensuring delivery of basic needs for human functioning (Davids & Theron, 2014). With active participation, it was hoped that the RDP will promote empowerment and a self-reliant society (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000). According to Davids and Theron (2014), the RDP adopted people-centred principles of social development which put people at the centre of development initiatives, from planning to implementation and monitoring. Although RDP was an essential policy programme, it did not realise its objectives which led to its collapse later in 1996. According to Davids and Theron (2014), the limitation of the RDP was that the programme lacked administrative capacity to meet the expectations of all stakeholders (community, the state, business, and third sector). Seekings (2013) and Seekings and Nattrass (2015) both asserted that the RDP made a significant contribution to poverty alleviation and job creation. The end of RDP saw the establishment of a new neo-liberal macroeconomic policy, Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR).

2.9.2 GROWTH, EMPLOYMENT AND REDISTRIBUTION (GEAR)

Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) was introduced in June 1996 as an alternative to the RDP. Lack of jobs in the market is believed to be the leading driver of poverty in South Africa. Seekings and Nattrass (2015) argue that GEAR was aimed to grow a competitive economy and attract investment from the global north to expand the availability of jobs in the market. However, Plagerson, et al., (2015) argue that the aspirations of GEAR policy became a growth centred approach to social development which was criticised to be a neo-liberal strategy obsessed with prioritisation of state assets and enterprises. The neo-liberal direction of GEAR which undermined principles of people-centred development for effective service delivery lost popularity and eventually collapsed (Davids & Theron, 2014). While GEAR contributed significantly in improving the economic growth of the country, reducing

government spending and stabilising inflation, the limitation was that such developments were unable to be redistributed to the people which ultimately worsened existing poverty and unemployment rate in the country (Habib & Padayachee, 2000; Seekings, 2013).

2.9.3 ACCELERATED AND SHARED GROWTH INITIATIVE FOR SOUTH AFRICA (ASGISA)

ASGISA is a progeny of GEAR. The policy was introduced in February 2006 to enhance the economic growth of the country. ASGISA (2008, p. 6) indicates that "its objectives were to introduce policies, programmes and interventions that would allow the South African economy to grow enough to halve poverty and unemployment between 2004 and 2014". According to DSD (2008), the purpose of ASGISA was to grow the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 5% between 2004-2014. This was based on key objectives; to attract investment, grow Small, Micro and Medium Enterprises (SMMEs) and ultimately combat problems of poverty and unemployment. Moreover, it was believed that if 5% of economic growth is achieved, more funds will be available to finance government interventions (Ramnath, 2015).

ASGISA was also meant to address the skills shortage in the public sector, lack of policy implementation, lack of financial resources to implement policy, corruption, and mismanagement of funds by public servants, lack of co-ordination and opportunities but all these key national priority issues have worsened (Ramnath, 2015). It was hoped that economic growth would create employment opportunities and ultimately contribute to poverty alleviation. However, just like the former, ASGISA failed to bring change to prevailing poverty and unemployment but rather it became another neo-liberal mechanism to pursue economic growth.

2.9.4 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (NDP) VISION 2030

Poverty and unemployment in South Africa continue to persist regardless of government efforts through policies and legislature. This has led to the development of the most ought to be comprehensive policy document called the National Development Plan (NDP) Vision 2030 in the year 2012. The NDP has a primary goal of reducing poverty by 2030. To alleviate poverty, reduce inequality and create employment, the NDP remain a hope for every citizen that in 2030 we shall all live in a future we all envisaged.

As highlighted by the National Planning Commission (NPC) (2011) the NDP vision 2030 have a primary objective of reducing poverty, inequality, and employment by 2030. This requires the responsibility of all sectors not only the state. The role of the private sector, NGOs, academic institutions, and community members are immensely critical to realise the vision of the NDP. Growing the economy is central to the NDP vision 2030 as it is targeted that create 11 million jobs will be created by 2030. The NDP also recognises rural poverty, which is characterised by poor standards of living, poor health care provision, and poor standard of education, transportation, and infrastructure. Through the NDP the government aim to ensure inclusive and integrated economic development in rural areas. In this regard, interventions include implementation of successful land reform programmes, rural employment creation schemes and expansion of agricultural outputs as a primary means of production for the rural economy (NPC, 2011).

The NDP further identified social protection as a critical strategy for inclusiveness and poverty alleviation in this country (NPC, 2011). The Department of Social Development has been tasked to oversee and provide social protection since 1994 (DSD, 2008). A decade has already passed with the NDP being implemented as the current national strategy for poverty alleviation. Some government Departments have already incorporated priorities of the NDP in their strategic plans and key performance areas. To promote quality health care for all citizens the National Health Insurance (NHI) is still underway for adoption by parliament as led by the Health Ministry at the national level. Ulriksen and Plagerson (2017) note that NHI may be the finest framework to overcome inequality in health care services. It is with no doubt that the NDP vision 2030 demonstrates the goals of social development which includes as listed by Midgley (2014) social change, progress, and social justice. Furthermore, features of social development such as basic rights, equity, peace, and security are vested in the NDP` and there are targets set to realise this imperative goal. While it is feasible to achieve the objectives of the NDP we have yet to see the future promised as 2030 is less than a decade away and its overall contribution to the international development agenda is significant.

2.9.5 PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMES (PEPs) IN SOUTH AFRICA

Poverty and unemployment in South Africa have contributed to the government's focus on PEPs. There are many types of PEPs implemented across the country. Bruce (2015) view PEPs as the government's strategic response to the state of poverty and unemployment. In South Africa, the CWP is another form of PEP. Phillip (2013) postulates that PEPs include public

works programmes focusing on infrastructure, employment guarantee schemes, and part-time work. The CWP which is the focus of this study is an example of part-time work opportunities offered through PEPs. According to Phillip (2013), all PEPs have similar characteristics. These include income provided to participants, opportunity to work, assets and service creation and participation in community development and social inclusion. Furthermore, ILO (2020) asserted that PEPs are financed publicly and implemented by the government to create jobs for those who need them most.

Seekings (2013) note that the PEPs became a strategy for the democratic government in South Africa to reduce poverty and unemployment because of their nature to provide socio-economic assistance to the poor in a form of income. ILO (2020) note that PEPs are essential for social protection floors with the specific most disadvantaged target groups. Most writers hail the South African government for their pro-poor policies and strategies (Seekings & Nattrass, 2015). As it is discussed below, Masuku (2013) insist that the CWP have become a yardstick of how PEPs can be used to close a gap between employment and social protection with just provision of ongoing temporary income and job experience.

2.9.5.1 Community Work Programme (CWP)

Community Work Programme (CWP) is one of the PEPs in South Africa. The programme was established as a second economy strategy project for poverty alleviation in 2007. The CWP was approved by the Cabinet of RSA and became a part of the ASGISA final report in 2007 (Phillip, 2013). With assistance from the International Development Agencies, the programme had a trial period between 2007 and 2009 operationalised by the Department of Social Development and the Presidency (TIPS, 2018). Despite poverty alleviation strategies designed post-1994 including RDP, GEAR and ASGISA poverty, and inequality has deepened due to poor economic performance to enable the provision of full-time employment in the country. It is for these reasons that the CWP was designed primarily for the provision of a regular employment safety net to the unemployed economic active population. Regular income earned contributes to the overall objective of poverty alleviation (Masuku, 2015). The purpose of the CWP is also to improve the living conditions of the poor in marginalised areas through the provision of opportunities for work experience, skills development, and economic participation. The programme further seeks to improve and maintain public assets and strengthen community development approaches (DCOG, 2018a).

In 2009 CWP became part of the second phase of the Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP) after the success of phase 1 implementation since the year 2004 (Phillip, 2013). CWP received full funding from the government and was introduced and implemented throughout the country (DCOG, 2018b). It is not permanent formal employment, but a safety net aimed at supplementing existing income and improving livelihoods. CWP is implemented by the Implementing Agencies (IA) across all the provinces in the country. CWP is an opportunity for regular useful work for unemployed, underemployed, and poor adults throughout the country. Useful work performed by the participants includes but is not limited to cleaning, the environment, community-based care workers, early childhood development teachers, looking for the sick, orphan, children and old, developing food gardens (DCOG, 2018b; Masuku, 2015).

Furthermore, the programme does not exclude those people who benefit from social protection programmes such as social grants, beneficiaries of the RDP housing scheme and those who have another temporary job outside the programme. Participants are required to work only two days a week, which makes it eight days a month and ultimately 100 days a year (TIPS, 2018). Selection of CWP participants is done through community structures including ward committee and Local Reference Committee (LRC) which are sourcing a list of unemployed people at the community level interested to work in the CWP. Normally the indigent list and ward committee list responsible for the social sector is used to select participants (Masuku, 2015; DCOG, 2018a).

CWP selection has faced criticism including nepotism and maladministration however the DCoG has urged recruitment transparency in this regard. Participants are therefore placed in their respective ward whenever a certain number is needed. Unlike participants, supervisor selections go normal employment process where positions are advertised, and interviews take place. Currently, participants are earning R81 per day while supervisors and storekeepers earn R106 per day. Stipends are not standard as they are increased by at least 5 % on 1 November every year based on the minimum wage stipulated by the Department of Labour and Employment (DCOG, 2020).

2.9.5.2 Community Development Approaches in CWP

The CWP has adopted community development approaches for the implementation and management of its work. According to Swanepoel and De Beer (2011), community development is a process in which community members take initiatives to set goals to improve their living conditions. Community participation is a central strategy of CWP where

participation of local people is prioritised through the Local Reference Committee (LRC) to identify useful work and strengthen partnerships (DCOG, 2018b).

Other elements of community development in the CWP include implementation at a local community called 'sites' of which are within local municipality borders. Additionally, there is a partnership between the community, NPOs, local, provincial, and national government throughout implementation. CWP also demonstrate principles of empowerment, ownership, community building and learning which are rooted in community development approaches (Philip, 2013; Swanepoel& De Beer, 2011). This integrated approach of community development as adopted by the CWP is prominent to address development problems, especially poverty.

According to Swanepoel and De Beer (2011), community development must further demonstrate these other characteristics such as collective action by all key players or stakeholders which as Midgley (2014) notes, shows how social development and alleviating poverty is a multifaceted process. Secondly, identification of community needs or problems that will ultimately lead to the adoption and implementation of projects and programmes to address those needs demonstrate the community development process. Thirdly, community development must have specific objectives that seek to address certain community needs or problems and community development takes place at the grassroots level where the basic needs of the people are better identified and addressed with a special focus on poor people. Fourthly, community development makes use of local asserts to initiate change and development. Human capital is of great asset in this regard as it improves capacity and promotes learning. However, this does not discourage external assistance which aid existing local resources for development and finally, community development promotes democracy as this research continue to emphasise that the people have a democratic right to access basic social services.

In this regard, local people become the centre of the development process (Theron, 2008). Therefore, there is no doubt that the CWP as implemented nationally and in NLM have adopted the practice of community development. These key features of community development inform the implementation of the CWP. CWP in Naledi Local Municipality in the North West Province is discussed below.

2.9.5.3 CWP in Naledi Local Municipality

Naledi Local Municipality is a local municipality in Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District Municipality, Northwest Province. Naledi Local Municipality recorded 68 803 total populations during the 2016 Community Survey. There are 27,4% of people that run out of money to buy food in the area while at least 4 350 people skip a meal due to poverty or poor living condition in the households of Naledi Local Municipality. At least 12,8% of people in the municipality have no access to safe drinking water, 14 946 have access to flushing toilets meanwhile the rest of the population relies on chemical toilets, and pit toilets (Stats SA, 2018). These statistics show the level of socio-economic conditions in Naledi Local Municipality. One may conclude that the conditions illustrate rural poverty with people relying on social protection programmes such as social grants and CWP for survival.

The CWP site in Naledi Local Municipality was first introduced in 2012. Seriti Institute was the Implementing Agent of the programme. Beula Africa is the current Implementing Agent that is responsible for the implementation of the CWP programme in two districts within the Northwest Province namely, Ngaka Modiri Molema and Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati. The site office in the Naledi Local Municipality comprises of Site Manager, Site administrator, Storekeeper and Safety Officer. The current total number of participants is 1135, 1100 are participants/beneficiaries and 35 are site supervisors of the programme. Participants are also taken through various training including computer courses, auxiliary social worker, bricklaying, sewing, children and youth care worker. These types of training services develop participants so that with accredited training they may be in a good position for improved work opportunities.

In Naledi Local Municipality the integrated sector implementation includes agriculture, education, infrastructure, health, social services, and community services. The most visible implementation partners include Naledi Local Municipality (LED office & EPWP office), Ward Councillors, Ward Committees, Tribal Authorities, Local Parastatals, Department of Health, Department of Social Development, Department of Education, Department of Labour, Department Agriculture, Department of Sports and Arts and Culture, Community Development Workers, South African Police Services. The following table 1.2 indicate the kinds of useful work undertaken in Naledi Local Municipality.

Table 2.1: Naledi CWP anchor activities, useful work, and participating stakeholders

Anchor activity	Useful work	Stakeholders
Agriculture	Cultivation of vegetable gardens	-Department of Agriculture

	Maintenance and Planting of Indigenous trees	-DSD -NPOs -Municipality
	Maintenance of fruit trees	
	Pruning of trees and shaping of shrubs	
Education	Identification of learners that do not have a school uniform	-Department of Education - DSD -NGOs -CBOs
	Distribution of sanitary towels to identified learners in schools	
	Provide scholar patrol for learners who crosses the roads during arrival and departure from the schools	
Infrastructure	Repairing broken chairs and school desks	-Department of Education -District and Local Municipality -NGOs
	Repairing of school fence and garden fence	
	Repairing of broken taps and leaking pipes	
	Repairing of CWP machinery (grass cutters, chain saw, broken tools)	
Health and social services	Identification of bedridden patients	-DSD -CBOs -NPOs
	Provide care and support for bedridden patients	
	Conducting health awareness to organised groups within the community	
	Assisting with queuing and medication dispensation during a mobile clinic visit	
	Identification and provision of support to child-headed households	
	Identification and referral for people in need of social and security services	
Community services	Clearing of Public spaces for easy access of the road	-Department of Public Works and Roads -District and Local Municipality -Department of -Environmental Affairs. -SAPS
	Cleaning of Illegal dumping sites	
	Clearing of overgrown grass in schools and public buildings	
	Clearing of crime hotspots	

Undoubtedly, the CWP has improved living conditions in the area, particularly through the outcome of the 'useful work' of those activities of the public good. The programme faces various implementation challenges including delays in payments, lack of working tools, personal protective equipment, and stakeholder relationships. Recruitment is also a challenge as the number of participants is limited although so many people are unemployed and job Seekings.

2.10 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented the theoretical framework that underpins this study. A literature review of the study was provided. The focus was to contextualise poverty globally, regionally and in South Africa. Poverty alleviation strategies globally, in Africa and South Africa, were also discussed. The focus of the study was on South Africa, therefore all the strategies adopted by the South African Government since 1994 were elaborated on. The PEPs and CWP were explained to familiarise the reader with the implementation of the programme in South Africa and special focus was placed on CWP in NLM, as this was the research site during the study. The following chapter focuses on the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the research methodology applied during the study. It will include the research approach and design selected to use in the research study. The population, sample and sampling procedures will be highlighted. The research instrument used during the collection of data is explained. In addition, the methods of data collection and data analysis are also described. The trustworthiness of the study will be explained and the ethical considerations the researcher observed before and during the study will be highlighted.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

The nature of this study was exploratory, and therefore a qualitative research approach was most suitable for the study. This qualitative research is rooted in the interpretive perspective. Interpretivism believes that knowledge is personally and subjectively perceived. The emphases are on how, what, and why people feel in a certain way hence the better way to study a phenomenon is focusing on human constructions and interpretations they make about their lives through a qualitative research approach (Marrow, 2005). To achieve the aim and objectives of the research study, the researcher needed to explore and understand the perceptions of CWP programme participants about CWP in Naledi Local Municipality.

The qualitative approach is concerned with the in-depth study of phenomena (Bless et al., 2013). This approach implies investigating the reasons for human behaviour. Maradhan (2018) emphasises that qualitative research has an immense focus in words to understand 'how and why the world evolves the way it does. Poverty is a complex phenomenon that requires a researcher to understand the perception, experiences and various situations people live in (Theron, 2008). Changes to these circumstances are purely qualitative in nature hence exploring the experiences of participants and allowing them to share their voices about specific situations is essential.

A case study design, in general, refers to the study of a specific case (individual or groups, organisation, or a project) within the context of their specific everyday life, systems, or operations. Creswell and Poth (2018, p. 96-97) define a case study as "a qualitative approach in which investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple

bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observation, interview, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case themes". This study will use an instrumental case study design. An instrumental case study is used when a researcher seeks an in-depth understanding of a single case of concern (Creswell & Poth, 2018), and it focuses on “an issue or concern” (Creswell et al., 2007, p. 246). The issue in this study is exploring experiences about the role of CWP in poverty alleviation. This study aims to explore the contributions of the CWP in alleviating poverty in Naledi Local Municipality (NLM) North West Province. Therefore, a single case being CWP will be studied in-depth to assess its contribution to poverty alleviation through the eye of participants or beneficiaries.

3.3 POPULATION, SAMPLE, AND SAMPLING PROCEDURE

3.3.1 POPULATION

The population involves individuals or groups targeted for a specific research study. Creswell (2014) define a population as a group of people identified for a research study that have similar features and characteristics. Bless, Smith and Sithole (2013) refer to the population as people or things required for achieving research findings. The research problem under investigation should either be directly or indirectly linked to the population. The population of this study involves all the CWP project participants, site coordinators/supervisors, and participants from the implementing agent at the provincial and local level whom the researcher believe have knowledge and experience about contributions of CWP in poverty alleviation in NLM. In Table 3.1, the research population is presented.

Table 3.1: Research Population

Population	
CWP participants in NLM	1100
Site coordinators/supervisors in NLM	35
Site office staff members	4

3.3.2 SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

Picardi and Masick (2014) define a sample as a representation group from the entire population which have the same characteristics. The total sample of this study comprised 20 research participants. This includes 13 CWP participants, five field supervisors, two managers

representing site office staff who are employed on a full-time basis by IA. The study used purposeful sampling also known as judgemental sampling. Purposeful sampling allows the research to select cases judged to be relevant to the study. Picardi and Masick (2014) refer to purposive sampling as the technique used when the researcher specifically selects the cases judged to be most typical of the population having relevant information on the topic under study. Purposeful sampling was used to select participants because the researcher believes that only participants who have enough experience in the CWP can provide in-depth information on the topic under study (Plooy-Cilliers et al., 2014). All participation was voluntary.

The inclusion criteria were as follows:

- Only people who are currently involved in the CWP in NLM took part in the study.
- Only people who have been in the programme for not less than two years were purposively selected.
- Managers currently responsible for managing CWP in NLM participated

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the Head office of Beulah Africa, an NGO responsible for CWP implementation in NLM (see annexure F). After the researcher obtained the permission he visited the CWP site office in NLM to share information about the planned study and to make them aware of the study purposes and who the potential participant groups would be. During a meeting with the CWP site manager in NLM, the manager introduced the researcher to CWP participants and office staff. The researcher used this opportunity to explain to participants the aim and objective of the study. This was followed by the researcher making arrangements for interviews with participants in different areas to conduct the research study.

3.3.2.1 *Study Area*

Naledi Local Municipality in Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District, Northwest Province is considered poor. The area is faced with challenges of poverty and unemployment and has limited opportunities and livelihoods. Stats SA (2016) reported that 27.4 % of the population in Naledi Local Municipality do not have access to food daily. CWP has been hailed as a workable solution for this crisis. Local areas covered by NLM include Stella Township, Colridge Township, Devondale farm, Dithakwaneng village and Huhudi Location.

The CWP is one of the opportunities available in the area to provide people with regular income, work experience and opportunities to gain knowledge and skills. This research project

was conducted in Naledi Local Municipality to explore the perceived contributions the CWP is making in the area and to establish if it makes a difference in the lives of the beneficiaries of the programme.

3.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS AND PRE-TESTING OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The researcher used three different semi-structured interview guides. According to Greeff (2011), semi-structured interview guides contains open-ended questions which guided the researcher during the interview processes. There were three different interview guides used for this study. One for CWP participants (see Appendix D), a second interview guide for supervisors (see Appendix E), and a third interview guide for CWP office staff (see Appendix F). Plooy-Cilliers, et al., (2014) state that a researcher should view himself as a primary instrument when conducting qualitative research. In this way, the researcher demonstrated good interview skills to coordinate and implement the research process. This allowed participants to interact effectively with the researcher and provide insights on the research questions.

When using interview guides, the researcher was able to clarify other issues of concern by providing follow-up questions where new themes emerge. According to Bhattacherjee, (2012) the researcher may provide clarity and translate questions to participants. The research instruments were pre-tested before the study to identify potential problems which may arise during the data collection process. Two participants were used for the pilot study, one CWP participant and one supervisor. This was because it is easy to access CWP participants and supervisors compared to office staff members employed by the IA. In this regard, the researcher came to realise that both participants understood the questions and had no difficulty in the understanding language used. However, two questions were interrelated after participants offered the same answers to the questions. Therefore, the research re-constructed the questions to one question. Data collected from the different participants during pre-testing were not included as part of the actual study.

3.5 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

During the study, the researcher conducted face to face interviews. Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) argue that an interview is a valuable data collection method because it allows the researcher to create a conversation, get clarity by probing and asking questions of clarification and become

flexible when interacting with participants. According to Bhattacherjee (2012) when conducting face to face interviews the researcher is unable to be as subjective as compared to when the researcher is using observations to collect data. The open-ended questions during the interviews allowed the participants to express themselves and seek clarity where needed. However, interviews are time-consuming and participants might think they have to provide socially desirable answers.

During the data collection process, the researcher provided participants with the participation information sheet (PIS) that contains important information including the purpose, procedures and estimated duration of the interviews was also provided to participants (see attached Appendix A).

The potential participants received a consent form so that they can give written consent to participate in the study (see attached Appendix B), and participants were asked to sign a consent form for an audio recording of the interviews (see attached Appendix C). Two participants refused to be audio recorded and their decisions were respected.

The researcher obtained the contact details of all participants who are currently participating in the programme and have a minimum of two years of experience. The database was obtained from the CWP site office and was used to communicate with participants. Telephonic communication was used to set a date, suitable time, and venue to conduct the research interview. The researcher identified five main areas of NLM where participants are residing, namely, Huhudi Township, Dithakwaneng village, Stella Township, Colridge Township and Devondale farm. In Huhudi Township the researcher managed to book a community hall to conduct interviews. The venue was used to interview five participants (four CWP participants and one field supervisor). In Dithakwaneng, the researcher managed to secure a classroom from a local school to interview the school. Four participants were interviewed in Dithakwaneng village (three CWP participants and one field supervisor). Identified school is also used as a CWP working site which makes it easy to access participants. One of the field supervisors volunteered to provide a venue to interview participants in Devondale farm. Three interviews were conducted on different days, two with CWP participants and one with the field supervisor. The researcher used a local primary school in Colridge Township to interview two CWP participants and one field supervisor. It was not difficult to secure a school for the interview after the principal understand the purpose of the study and the fact that CWP is providing cleaning services there at the school made things easy for the researcher. In Stella, the field

supervisor managed to secure a venue for interviews after telephonic communication with the researcher. These two interviews were conducted with CWP participants and one field supervisor.

Taking into consideration the worldwide spread of the Coronavirus, the researcher had to take critical measures to adhere to all regulations put in place by the government during the process of data collection using interviews to curb the spread of the COVID19 virus. Therefore, the researcher ensures that there was social distancing during interviews and both researcher and participants wore masks and were using 70% alcohol hand sanitiser throughout the interviews. The researcher used a visual platform (Zoom) to conduct the last two interviews with CWP office staff. This was because the country was on Coronavirus alert level 3 and human interaction was supposed to be minimised. Both interviews were recorded, and no challenges were experienced.

Furthermore, to collect secondary data, the researcher used academic books and journals, government documents and policies, the internet, as well as CWP documents including reports, presentations, minutes obtained from the CWP site office to prepare the literature review. Most CWP reports are compiled by the DCOG as CWP lead agent and published for community access.

3.6 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

The study used thematic analysis to analyse data. The thematic analysis involves identifying, analysing, and reporting data to obtain answers for the research. Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 78) argue that "thematic data analysis provides a flexible and useful research tool which can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex data". The data collected were analysed by developing themes in chronological per the research objectives. The thematic analysis involves a researcher identifying key ideas then categorising them into themes and sub-themes (Neuman, 2011).

The following six steps by Braun and Clarke (2006) was used to analyse data:

Step 1: Data was prepared, organised, and arranged accordingly.

During this first phase, the researcher transcribed audio records, reread the transcripts while noting all information collected.

Step 2: After data was arranged and organised, the researcher went through interview transcripts to learn general information provided. In this phase, the researcher

made himself familiar with raw data through repeated readings. In this way, the researcher can get an understanding of the interesting codes.

Step 3: The researcher organised data through codes and categorises them according to codes identified which are in line with the research aim and objectives. During this step, the researcher searched for themes by identifying and collating together codes. Tables and mind map was used to identify codes that can form themes or subthemes.

Step 4: The researcher identified themes based on the description provided on the incidence. The researcher through screening identified and highlighted themes that are connected and those providing another alternative or perspective were also recorded.

Step 5: Themes and sub-themes were named and defined. In this step, the researcher named and defined all themes and sub-themes. A researcher provided a clear understanding of what this theme is about and its importance in the study through brief descriptions made to each theme.

Step 6: The researcher produces a report. During this phase, the researcher answers the research questions and can achieve the aim and objectives of the study. This is a final analysis where a researcher made an argument to produce an academic report.

3.7 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Researchers are to consider trustworthiness when conducting research studies. Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) asserted that qualitative researchers are concerned with in-depth study of a particular phenomenon and while doing that they should ensure that their study is credible to determine the trustworthiness of their findings. Shenton (2004) discusses four constructs to ensure the trustworthiness of research findings, namely, credibility, dependability, transferability, and conformability to ensure trustworthiness when undertaking a qualitative research study.

Credibility, Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) argue that credibility can be facilitated when the researcher spends enough time with research participants to understand the reality of their everyday lives. Qualitative research should become as credible as possible. In doing so appropriate research methods should be followed, the use of triangulation wherein various methods of collecting data is employed. Furthermore, other strategies applied includes making

follow-ups, avoiding being biased, reporting both positive and negative findings and promoting peer review of the study to provide fair criticism on the work done. The researcher recorded interviews and all interviews were transcribed.

Dependability refers to arriving at the same results wherein the same study may be repeated in the same setting, using similar approaches, and repeating participants (Shenton, 2004). Different studies may have discrepancies in their finding especially since social studies is concerned with changing phenomena. The nature of CWP and common characteristic of participants make this study to be dependable because the same approaches, methods of delivery and management is used to implement the programme across the country. To ensure the quality of the research the researcher tried to provide good integration between theoretical framework, methods of data collection and analysis and the overall design and approach of the study.

According to Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) also supported by Shenton (2004) **transferability**, involves the extent to which research findings can be transferred to other situations or sittings but still produce the same results. In the case of this study, the perception of CWP participants may differ in other areas therefore transferability is not guaranteed.

Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) argue that **conformability** refers to the extent to which research findings confirm expected findings. The finding should therefore promote objectivity and disregard the researcher being biased on the findings. To ensure conformability the findings of this study was verified against CWP reports, and relevant documents (Shenton, 2004). Data transcripts and recordings were kept safely to ensure that if other researchers can analyse that data they will arrive at the same findings. The researcher has also put aside his beliefs and assumptions and focused only on the experiences and expression of the participants when collecting, analysing, and reporting findings.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to Praveen and Showkat (2017), research ethics refers to a set of principles that guide research on what is right and wrong when conducting a study. Researchers need to anticipate ethical issues concerning research throughout the process of research. Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) note that research ethics are imperative because they influence the participation of everyone involved in the study. Because research involves people, researchers need to protect their participants with integrity. This study has upheld all ethical issues necessary when

engaging with participants. The researcher has obtained an ethical clearance certificate, Protocol number: SW20/10/04 (see Appendix G) from the Departmental HREC (Non-medical) to ensure that the study is approved ethically before undertaking the research study. The following ethical aspects were highly considered when conducting this study:

3.8.1 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Ethically, research should promote voluntary participation where participants know that their participation is strictly voluntary, and no one should be forced to participate in the study (Bhattacherjee (2012). Plooy-Cilliers et al., (2014) argue that participants must be informed in writing about their roles in the study and how their identity will be protected. A Participation Information Sheet was provided to participants to familiarise themselves with the purpose and other important information regarding the study (see Appendix A).

3.8.2 INFORMED CONSENT

Praveen and Showkat (2017) state that participants must give consent whether they wish to take part in the study, withdraw their participation or even refuse to participate. The researcher has provided participants with a participant information sheet and consent forms. Before interviews, the researcher went through the participation information sheet with participants to ensure that they understood what is required from them before agreeing to participate. This enabled participants to understand the purpose of the study, why their participation is required, the duration of the interview and that there are no direct benefits or costs involved during the process of data collection. Participants were also informed about clarity Seekings questions including where they needed questions to be translated into their language for better interpretations. Consent forms for participation and audio recording of interviews were signed before interviews commenced (see Appendix A).

3.8.3 CONFIDENTIALITY

Plooy-Cilliers, et al., (2014) alluded that confidentiality in research means that the researcher will ensure that information provided by participants will not be accessed by any other third party and their identity is being kept secret. Information will be kept safe by the researcher and no other person will have access to the interview transcripts and audio records. A researcher will protect his computer to avoid free access to research information by other people by use of a password that can only be shared with his supervisor.

3.8.4 ANONYMITY

Anonymity in research means that information provided cannot be linked to any person who has participated in the research Plooy-Cilliers, et al., (2014). The researcher ensured anonymity by protecting participants' identities when reporting the findings. No names were required from participants and data collected was kept in a computer with a password. Anonymity implies that it is not possible to link research findings to any individuals who took part in the study.

3.8.5 NON-MALEFICENT

According to Praveen and Showkat (2017), the safety of participants must be a primary concern of the researcher. Plooy-Cilliers, et al., (2014) states that no harm should be imposed on participants such as questions that revive painful historical events, questions that may embarrass participants or harm their future. This means that there should be no physical, emotional, or psychological harm, whether intentional or not international to participants taking part in the study. This study has avoided either emotional, psychological, or physical harm to the participants. The researcher used his research skills to ensure that no harm is inflicted on any participants. In this regard the researcher considered respect for all participants and gave participants assurance that they can never be judged based on the information they provide including if they choose not to comment on issues they don't feel free discussing. The study also contained no sensitive questions.

3.8.6 SHARING OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

A researcher should disclose both positive and negative information obtained during data analysis and reporting. Finally, during data analysis, the researcher avoided being biased on the finding, protected participants' privacy, and avoided reporting false findings (Creswell, 2014; Bhattacherjee, 2012).

3.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter elaborated on the research methodology followed to undertake this study. Key topics discussed are research approach and design, population, sample, and sampling procedure. The research instruments used were explained and the methods of data collection and analysis were provided. Ethical issues the researcher considered, measures to ensure the trustworthiness of the research findings and limitations that confronts this research report.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the presentation and discusses of research data collected and analysed. Data was collected through face-to-face interviews with CWP participants and field supervisors while Zoom, an online platform was used to interview two programme managers responsible for the implementation of the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality. Primary data was used to answer the following questions of the study.

- How does the Community Work Programme (CWP) contribute to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality?
- What direct benefits does the CWP provides to beneficiaries?
- What are exit strategies put in place for beneficiaries of the programme?

4.2 CLASSIFICATION OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

Data was collected from research participants who are involved in the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality. Therefore, interviews were conducted with three different categories of participants. The following table provides the category classification of research participants.

Table 4.1: distribution of research participants according to their category

No.	Category of participants	No of participants
1	CWP participants	13
2	CWP field supervisors	5
3	Site office staff members	2
	Total	**20**

Table 4.1 indicates that data was collected from 13 CWP participants which represent five areas of NLM namely, Huhudi, Colridge, Stella, Dithakwaneng and Devondale. The second categories involve five field supervisors responsible for the day-to-day supervision of participants and daily allocation of work to participants in the above areas of NLM. The last category involves two programme managers, one manager responsible for NLM CWP site

office while the other one is overseeing programme implementation in the entire North West Province.

4.3 THEMES AND FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY

Research findings are presented regarding the research aim and secondary objectives. Themes and sub-themes are categorised to enable the researcher to find the meaning out of the mass of data collected from participants. Therefore, themes and sub-themes that emerge from the research findings are presented in Table 4.2 and discussed below.

Table 4.2: Themes and sub-themes that emerged from the study

Themes	Sub-themes
4.3.1 Feelings about being part of CWP	4.3.1.1.CWP Beneficiaries feelings 4.3.1.2 Supervisors feelings
4.3.2 Understanding CWP	
4.3.3 Value of CWP	4.3.3.1 CWP Beneficiaries views 4.3.3.2 Supervisors views
4.3.4 Benefits of participating in CWP	
4.3.5 CWP and Poverty Alleviation	
4.3.6 Challenges in implementing CWP	4.3.6.1 CWP Beneficiaries' perceptions 4.3.6.2 Field Supervisors' perceptions 4.3.6.3 Site office staffs' perceptions
4.3.7. Strategies in addressing the challenges	4.3.7.1 Increasing workdays 4.3.7.2 Provide accredited training 4.3.7.3 Include field supervisors in the recruitment process 4.3.7.4 Revise and remodel the CWP Framework 4.3.7.5 Strengthen the local reference committee 4.3.7.6 Mobilise resources 4.3.7.7 Prepare a clear exit strategy 4.3.7.8 Clarify the roles and responsibilities of the IA and the DCOG
4.3.8 Preparing CWP participants in becoming employable and self-reliant	

4.3.1 *PARTICIPANTS' FEELINGS ABOUT BEING PART OF THE CWP*

Two participant groups were asked about what it is like to be part of the CWP. The question was directed to only CWP participants and field supervisors. The following findings are presented separately.

4.3.1.1 *CWP Participants' Feelings about Being Part of the Programme*

The researcher has asked the CWP participants and field supervisor about what it is like to be part of the CWP for more than five years. All participants said they are more than happy to be part of the CWP in NLM. One participant said it in this way "*it is great, you learn and get to be prepared for the world of work outside the CWP".* Other CWP participants who have a slightly different view said, "*It is good, but I feel like I can be more than this, I wish I finished school because even certificates offered don't work for me because they are not accredited" (*Participants 3).

Generally, participants have provided positive feedback about being part of the CWP. They insist that through CWP their lives are better off. The impact of a monthly stipend in their lives seems to make a living difference. The CWP is therefore equally meant to provide regular employment in a form of a safety net to poor unemployed people. The programme enables them to earn a stipend and participate in the efforts to develop their communities (DCOG, 2018b). The extent of poverty and unemployment in NLM led participants to expect the programme to be more than social protection or a safety net. Participants seem to regard the CWP as a formal and full-time employment opportunity.

4.3.1.2 *CWP Field Supervisors' Feelings about Being Part of the Programme*

Field supervisors were also asked about their feelings about being part of the programme. Although they all have a critical view of the programme, they all insist that it is good to be part of the CWP in NLM. One supervisor said *"it is good to be in the CWP, I started as a participant now I am a supervisor. I gained a lot of experience; I can work with elderly people to change their lives. I also provide help to the children with the help of social workers in our place"* (Supervisor 1).

Another supervisor altered to say, *"it is good and bad (laughing) I have learned a lot and the environment is challenging when asked why she said it is bad the supervisor said, "unlike participants, we are required to produce qualifications like you can only be a supervisor if you have passed matric but the stipend is little"* (Supervisor 4).

The findings of this study reveal that, unlike CWP participants, field supervisors undergo a normal recruitment process. Requirements to be a field supervisor is grade 12 certificates with experience in community work. Additionally, supervisors work 5 days a week and 20 days a month. 5 field supervisors interviewed have mentioned that CWP is a great opportunity to gain work experience and different skills particular facilitation and coordination skills. This concurs

with De Beer and Swanepoel (2011) who alluded that facilitation and coordination are special skills needed to promote community development.

4.3.2. *OFFICIALS' UNDERSTANDING OF THE CWP*

The CWP is a PEP that provides an opportunity for predictable but regular work to deserving participants. It is, therefore, not full employment but only a safety net to the most marginalised in society (TIPS, 2018; Masuku, 2015). Due to the high level of poverty and unemployment in rural and township areas of South Africa, the CWP was introduced to supplement incomes (Phillip, 2013). The CWP understanding of CWP was identified as a second theme derived from the interviews. One manager's understanding of the CWP is quoted below.

"*The Community Work Programme was introduced in 2007 by the Presidency to be implemented jointly by DCOG and Department of Social Development as a pilot programme. The CWP was formally introduced in 2012 to be implemented across all municipalities in the country. Here in Naledi Local Municipality the CWP site was first introduced and established in 2012. The primary objective of the programme is to alleviate poverty among disadvantaged communities' particularly young people who experience a high level of unemployment due to limited jobs and economic opportunities. To participate in the programme no formal education is required and when you join you will be expected to work 2 days a week and 8 days a month reporting to the field supervisor. The work includes cleaning public buildings like schools, clinics and government offices, taking care of the children and elderly and also starting and maintaining vegetable gardens to improve food security in our communities"* (Manager 1).

Another manager provided a similar description of the CWP. He further asserted that the programme is targeting poor communities in general and women beneficiaries in specific. This coincides with Patel's (2015) view that the underlying principles in the adoption and implementation of policies and programmes should seek to encourage women participation, empower poor individuals through productive labour and strengthen their assets and institutions of households and society. The model of the CWP seems to advance the feminist ideology which posits that the primary responsibility of women is not only nurturing children and families but also to become participants in the activities for social and economic advancement (Midgley, 2014). Moreover, this shows the level of attention given to women through projects and addresses what Midgley (2014, p. 55) call the "Domestication" role of women. The role limits women to access economic, educational, and employment opportunities to mention only a few.

4.3.3 *USEFUL WORK CARRIED OUT BY THE CWP IN NLM*

Both CWP participants and field supervisors were asked what work they perform. According to the DCOG (2018b), the CWP utilise community-based approaches to identify useful work that should be carried out by the participants and supervisors. TIPS (2018, P. 35) indicated that "*the work in CWP must be 'useful work', which is defined as work that contributes to the public good, and/or improves the quality of life in communities. A crucial part of the CWP model is that the identification and prioritization of such work must take place through consultative and participatory community processes*". The focus is on the social sector to address the social challenges through labour-based approach as Phillip (2013, p) explicitly alluded that "the ability to put a thousand people to work each week means that things that need to be done can get done – visibly and quickly". This useful work is carried out by CWP participants and field supervisors as indicated in the table below.

Table 4.3: Different work done by the CWP participants and supervisors

No.	CWP Participants' useful work	Field Supervisors' useful work
1	Conducting environmental cleanups particular in public places (clinics, police stations, ECD centres, Churches, graveyards, dumping sides, community halls, sports centres, public roads, and schools.	Identify sides for work and allocate daily work/tasks equally to participants.
2	Participating in community development initiatives to address needs including home and community-based care work, ECD and cooperatives	Report incidents to the site office and take responsibility.
3	Fixing classrooms with authorization and cooperation from the Department of Basic Education and school management.	Writing reports (daily, weekly, and monthly)
4	Caring for orphans, vulnerable children, the elderly and the disabled.	Facilitating signing of attendance register by participants on daily basis.
5	Developing and maintaining food gardens including providing labour to maintain food security for vulnerable households.	Engaging site office on needs and developments.

6	Organising community sports events, arts and culture activities and responding to community violence, gender-based violence, crime, rape etc.	Screening and sanitising participants (emerging new task due to Covid-19)

Table 4.3. Indicates useful work carried out by participants and supervisors in Naledi Local Municipality. This kind of useful work is in line with the CWP guideline on anchor activities to be carried out at various CWP sides. According to DCOG (2018a, p. 36) on their briefing note for NGOs that will implement the CWP during the 2018-2021 cycle, useful work refers to "the work that contributes to the public good and or improves the quality of life in the community". This definition of useful work is supported by Midgley (2014) on his view on social development as a process and intervention to improve the living conditions of the people and community at large.

The paper reemphasises anchor programmes to include community care work, ECD centres support, school support and food security innovations (DCOG, 2018). Research participants have equally provided that the above anchor programme serves as guidance to identify useful work at CWP sites. As equally highlighted by Philip (2013) these types of programmes reflect features of community development in which safety nets interventions serve as a vehicle to contribute towards social development.

4.3.4 *BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATING IN THE CWP IN NLM*

The fourth, main theme from the study is the benefits that CWP participants enjoy when they are involved in the programme. This is broken down into four sub-themes, namely, skills development and training, monthly stipend, community development and personal development and fulfilment as shown in figure 4.1 below.



Figure 4.1: Benefits of participating in the CWP in NLM

Figure 4.1 provides reported benefits of participating in the CWP. Findings from the study indicate that participants involved in the CWP not only enjoy receiving monthly stipends but also their involvement in the programme brings personal fulfilment. It indicates four benefits from participating in the CWP by participants and supervisors. These include a monthly stipend, skills development and various pieces of training that are offered to those involved in the CWP, the opportunity to participate in the development of local communities and personal fulfilment. One participant had to say this regarding stipend; "with *the stipend I am receiving which is R780.00 I can do something like buying electricity and food at home. I can pay funeral insurance and buy children's clothes*" (Participant 6).

Supervisors have emphasised their involvement in community development as one of the benefits of participating in the CWP. In this instance one participant reported in this way; "*besides stipend, I have learned a lot in the CWP including taking care of the children, managing people. Because there are no jobs around here, most participants are empowered to be self-reliant through training certificates we receive, you can be able to open your business while still in the CWP"* (Participant 11).

Participants referred to skills development and pieces of training as the benefit of participating in the CWP. They reported that they have been receiving training in food/crop production, Early Childhood Development Practices, sewing, grass cutting, animal farming especially the

formation of cooperatives and some participants have attended training in Social Auxiliary Worker. This connotes with guidelines from DCOG (2018) that participants in the CWP are expected to be offered training to optimise their productivity in the workplace and acquire experience and skills to enhance their chances of getting formal employment outside the programme. Training of participants is also aimed at equipping them to establish profit-making projects. This can be viewed as a productive move to promote self-reliant individuals from the CWP. As Midgley (2014) note, through the training, the government have the opportunity to increase ordinary people's opportunities to participate in the economy. The following were responses of participants regarding the benefit of participating in the CWP.

"*In 2018 I was sent to a short course in crop production and received a certificate, which is when I gained knowledge in producing food gardens"* (Participant 5).

"I have attended plumbing course which took about a week, a certificate was not offered. A bad thing is that we used our money to pay for transport and lunch, but I am glad I had to learn something" (Participant 9).

"I can do paving; I can do plumbing because I was taken to a course for two weeks and certificate was offered" (Participant 4).

A filed supervisor further reported that; *"I benefited a lot, I can facilitate meetings, write and present reports. The community have trust in me now because I can facilitate and coordinate our programmes in the CWP and sometimes when there are initiatives taking place in the community, I get invitations to facilitate programmes"* (Supervisor 3).

In as much as participating in the CWP enable beneficiaries to receive stipends, work experience and training, the programme is reported to be the best platform to contribute towards community development and participants further find personal fulfilment through the efforts they make towards taking care of children in need, orphans, elderly and disabled. The view of Swanepoel and De Beer (2011) is that the involvement of people in community development initiatives create awareness so that the people themselves can start to become part of the solution to the community needs. The positive awareness of community development initiatives brings self-reliance and fulfilment as ordinary citizen becomes organs that bring about change in their communities and this regard is the CWP participants. Theron (2008) also offers a similar explanation arguing that development benefits should include empowerment through capacity building and participation which this process will bring about sustainability

and social learning. In the CWP context, the above-mentioned benefits seek to bear the fruits of community-driven development.

4.3.5 *CWP'S CONTRIBUTION TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN NLM*

Reinert (2020) assert that development policies and interventions should exist to address basic needs deprivation such as food insecurities, shortage of water and sanitation, education, and skill development which when integrated, form the basis of poverty. On the other hand, the classical view of Seers (1969) reemphasised that to affirm that development is taking place, we should be able to report that there has been a reduction in poverty and unemployment. He further assumes that "a plan which conveys no targets for reducing poverty, unemployment and inequality can hardly be considered a development plan" (Seers, 1969, p. 5). The fifth main theme from the study is regarding CWP's contribution to poverty alleviation in NLM. Participants had the following comments on the theme regarding contributions of the CWP in poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality:

"CWP is helping us a lot because most of us are coming from poverty-stricken families but with the little stipend, we are getting I can buy necessities in the household" (Participant 7).

"CWP does contribute to poverty alleviation in NLM, more lives have been changed because in the CWP you can do other jobs like food gardens, joining income-generating cooperatives and many microenterprise initiatives" (Participant 12*).*

"The impact of CWP programme in NLM is evident, CWP has been able to create jobs for youth which ultimately reduce crime and substance abuse. Participants have learned about taking care of their community especially elders and people in need" (Supervisor 2).

"We have food gardens; we produce fresh vegetables and give them to poor households in our community. We also participate in events that seek to address poverty in our community like last year we participated in Nelson Mandela Day when a house was been built for a poor family and food parcels from the Department of Social Development were given to poor households in our community" (Participant 10).

Masuku (2015) ascertain that public works programmes such as the CWP are used as policy instruments to address development issues such as poverty and unemployment. Bruce (2015), Masuku (2015, Mathende's (2015) previous studies have also indicated that although it may not be sufficient, the CWP remain an essential contributor to poverty alleviation. Midgley (2014) state that the government through the statist approach have the responsibility to coordinate and lead the process to improve the living conditions of the masses. Therefore,

participants' views are reaffirming the important role that the state should play through programme and policy implementation to contest hardship confronting its people.

One participant with a different view has posited the following statement.

"Nothing much has changed because there is poor support. Like in Devondale we requested the site office to assist us with the establishment of a food garden but even now nothing has happened. Food garden would've assisted the whole community especially poor households" (Participant 9).

The negative feedback from the CWP concerning poverty alleviation relates to the results of the study conducted by McCord (2013) which reveal that social protection programmes in Africa are reported to have done little in alleviating poverty. The disappointing outcomes are reported to be attributed to the wage that participants seem to earn because it is much little compared to formal employment. With this finding, some light is shed that poverty alleviation does not require short term strategies. Notwithstanding such deliberation, Patel, et al., (2012) maintain that social protection programmes seem to be effective policies and strategies for poverty alleviation in South Africa. They argue that positive outcomes of social protection programmes in South Africa can serve as a lesson to other developing countries of Africa to fight against poverty, unemployment, and inequality.

Managers responsible for site office and manager responsible for CWP in the province both agreed that CWP is contributing enormously to poverty alleviation in NLM. They pointed out that since its inception in 2012, CWP has provided an opportunity for young people to get regular employment, obtain work experience and skills and earn stipends. The CWP contribute enormously to minimising the effects of unemployment among the poor youth and most marginalised. One manager was quoted saying "*since 2009 the CWP has changed so many lives. In NLM since 2012, we had over 1000 participants coming in and out of the programme each year. Out of this 1000 participants, 95% of them had no bank accounts when they joined the programme but now they have bank accounts*". These findings are similar to Mathende's (2015) study which revealed that CWP has provided an opportunity for participants to access banking services for the first time. For these participants, the CWP is their first job opportunity which enabled them to be bankable, to be able to buy food for their children and supplement the Child Support Grants (CSG) because most of our participants are also beneficiaries of the CSG. As one manager indicates "*the CWP is a great instrument to fight factors contributing or exacerbating poverty in the lives of poor people*". The confusion may be that participants regard CWP as full-time employment while the model of the programme in the implementing

manual by DCoG (2018) is clear that CWP offers regular part-time jobs allowing participants to exit as their livelihoods changes and economic opportunities expands. Therefore it is only a job opportunity, not full-time employment.

4.3.6 *CHALLENGES FACED WHEN IMPLEMENTING THE CWP IN NLM*

Participants have identified many challenges that they face when implementing the CWP in NLM. Table 4.4 presents the challenges of implementing CWP per participation group.

Table 4.4. Distribution of challenges facing CWP implementation in NLM per participation group.

CWP Participants	CWP Field Supervisor	Site Office Staff Members
Monthly stipend	Monthly stipend	Training
Personal Protective Equipment's (PPEs)	Personal Protective Equipment's (PPEs)	Recruitment Processes
Training	Training	Local Reference Committee
Recruitment Processes	Recruitment Processes	Budget and Resources
Budget and Resources	Budget and Resources	

The study has revealed five challenges experienced by CWP participants as well as Supervisors. They indicated challenges such as monthly stipend which is little to sustain them, lack or poor provision of PPEs, lack of accredited training, means of recruiting participants in the programme and poor resource allocation and budget constraints. Another category identified under this theme is challenges faced by office staff when implementing the programmes. Challenges such as budget constrain, lack of limited resources, poor stakeholder participation in the Local Reference Committee was highlighted by managers as major stressing issues in the implementation of CWP.

4.3.6.1 *Monthly Stipends*

"Our stipend is very little; it must be increased. For this reason, on the 3 November 2020, we marched to DCOG Head Office in Pretoria to submit a memorandum in which we demand that they increase our stipend to R3 500.00 per month" (Participant 12).

"My brother our payments come late. I can't even tell you which day is our payday in the CWP" (Participant 13).

4.3.6.2 *Personal Protective Equipment (PPEs)*

*"In the CWP we don't have enough tools to do our work. To tell you the truth it takes time to get PPEs and sometimes we opt to use our tools of trade" (*Supervisor 4).

*"I have spent 2 years without getting uniform" (*Participants 9).

"PPEs is our biggest challenge. It takes a long time before we can receive them and when we do, they don't give us enough PPEs" (Participant 13).

The DCOG (2018) insists that implementation of the CWP at the site require 65% of intensive labour. However, the provision of PPEs to perform these intense labour activities is reported to be poor and not prioritised by the Department and IA in NLM.

4.3.6.3 *pieces of training*

Through the NDP vision 2030, the NPC (2011) emphasise that South Africa's long term development can only be realised through education and training. As stated "*education, training and innovation are not a solution to all problems, but society's ability to solve problems, develop competitively, eliminate poverty and reduce inequality is severely hampered without them"* (NPC (2011, P. 262). Development of skills and training have a positive impact in realising social development agenda and achieving goals and objectives of the NDP vision 2030. Phillip (2013) point out that training is one of the key objectives of the CWP. Training in CWP is aimed at optimizing the output of useful work. Secondly, to provide skills to participants so that they become employable in the job market outside the programme. Thirdly, training is used to empower participants so that they may establish profit-making businesses after obtaining technical skills and experience.

In addition, DCOG (2018) clearly states that training is a key identified exit strategy. This is mainly because the targeted beneficiary of the CWP is unskilled less-educated young unemployment, therefore, gaining formal training alongside work experience which advances the chances of getting into formal employment. Although training is highly recommended in the CWP, solemn, CWP participants are taken through uncredited training and are not offered completion certificates. The following are research participants' regarding training in the CWP.

"Training that is offered in the CWP are short courses. We should be provided with accredited training so that the certificates that we receive can have value and help us when we look for employment elsewhere" (Participant 1).

"Participants were offered training in Social Auxiliary Work and Grade R Diploma which are supposed to be 12 months but both pieces of training took only 4 months and participants were never taken back to finish the course" (Supervisor 1).

*"I have attended a training in First Aider; however, it seems like there is nothing I can do with the certificate because it is not accredited". Also, the management does not assist us in getting jobs" (*Participant 14).

DCOG is committed to providing accredited training whenever it deem necessary. However, the reports on the ground indicate that most of the training provided is not accredited.

4.3.6.4 *Recruitment Processes*

NPOs referred to in this report as IAs are responsible for CWP implementation. These NPOs contracted to implement the programme at contracted CWP site offices. The IAs are responsible for the recruitment of CWP participants and the appointment of field supervisors and site office staff. Phillip (2013) note that through a contractual agreement with DCOG, the IA should recruit participants into the programme as per the targeted number of each site. In practice, the recruitment process in the CWP has been done through various methods such as the utilisation of municipal indigent register, ward councillors and committees compiling a list of unemployed poor youth around their constituencies and submitting of names at the site office by the general public who in need of a job. However, CWP recruitment has always been confronted with challenges of nepotism, unreasonableness and patronage. According to DCOG (2018) recruitment process in the CWP is one area in which the IAs should consult all stakeholders through LRCs to find a meaningful solution and prevent malpractice. The following are participants' comments on recruitment processes.

"The ward councillor only recruit participants which he has a personal relationship. Most of those participants when they become part of the programme I was a supervisor have to suffer because they don't have interest in the programme, they are only there to get stipend" (Supervisor 3).

"Recruitment process in the CWP is a challenge because sometimes councillors are recruiting participants that do not have any interest in the programme, they don't understand the main purpose of the programme hence we have a larger number of people who pull out of the programme. This also affects our performance as IAs" (Manager 1).

"We have learned that not everybody that is in the programme is deserving. This point directly to our recruitment process of which I believe the remodelling of the programme that is

underway lead by Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs will address this challenge" (Manager 2).

The CWP implementing policy indicates that DCOG, LRC and AI have the responsibility to resolve recruitment disputes in the CWP (DCOG, 2021a). With the Department of Cooperative Governance leading the policy framework in the CWP, draft policy framework for CWP outline criteria for recruiting programme participants. CWP is targeting the most marginalised poorest unemployed people who are;

- Over 18 years of age
- Unemployed or underemployed
- Currently not having a job paying above national minimum wage or participating in other government PEP programmes (DCOD, 2021b).

Furthermore, the programme does not exclude people who receive social assistance grants, Unemployment Insurance Grant or people participating in any other economic activities that improve their livelihoods. For that reason, the major focus is on women, youth and people living with a disability.

4.3.6.5 *Budget Constrains and Limited Resource*

Since 2009, the CWP has been a government full funded PPE based at DCOG. This means that DCOG is responsible to ensure the CWP budget on annual basis. The programme is interdependent and multifaceted requiring multiple support and collaboration from various stakeholders to augment standard budget and resources. TIPS (2018) asserted that 70% of the CWP site budget should be allocated to wages while the remaining is used for working tools, materials, PPEs and project management.

"There are always budget constraints putting a lot of pressure in the allocation of resources to implement the CWP" (Manager 2).

"Budget allocation for CWP is not enough. I hope that moving forward more budget will be made available, especially for training" (Manager 1).

The CWP model was designed in a way that there should be a huge stakeholder mobilisation to forge multi-stakeholder collaboration (government, private sector, non-profit sector and community at large) in the programme so that other partners can assist with financial and other resources to enhance smooth operation and success.

4.3.6.6 *Local Reference Committee* (*LRC*)

The guideline for implementation of the CWP indicates that the CWP require stakeholder collaborations, partnerships and support from all key government department operating in the local sphere, civil society organisations and the local municipality including its Council (DCOG, 2018b). This is comprehended through the LRC which is a multi-stakeholder body comprising of municipal officials, political representatives assigned by the mayor, government officials from local departments, IA, representatives from civil society organisations and key community members who work as an advisory committee for the CWP. The approved CWP implementation policy highlighted that LRC should not be used as a political structure to prejudice participants' selection and programme implementation (DCOG, 2021a).

Philip (2013) further reckons that the LRC) which involves different stakeholders is expected to advise on the best way to improve the CWP. During interviews with one of the managers, it was emphasised that "*the LRC at CWP sites consist of Ward Councillors, Local NGOs, Traditional Leaderships and an official from government departments"* (Manager 2). Another manager states *"the local reference committee is the best platform for stakeholders to engage on challenges of the CWP and find innovative solutions. However, as the IA we are very worried about poor participation in the LRC by relevant stakeholders"* (Manager 1).

Furthermore, it was highlighted that the role and partnership with traditional leaderships are indispensable since CWP operates in villages that are spaces of traditional councils.

"*The CWP work is implemented at our local community and you know in North West Province most of our community areas are under traditional councils. It is important that local Chiefs should be made permanent stakeholders in the CWP, they should not only see people working in their villages without being informed and bought formally into the programme" (Manager 2).*

In addition, there is an ongoing conflict between CWP participants, IA and the lead agent DCOG. These parties mainly contest for roles and responsibilities which the implementing manual does not clearly outline and distinguish. A similar challenge was noticed by Masuku (2015) who observed that unresolved disputes continue to prevail and they result in division within the CWP.

4.3.7 *WAYS TO ADDRESS THE CHALLENGES TO IMPROVE THE PROGRAMME*

As discussed throughout chapter two, although the CWP is facing numerous challenges mentioned above and more, the statist approach clearly states that government should

coordinate the design, planning, and execution of policies and programmes aimed at bringing about social development (Midgley, 2014). Therefore, the government should coordinate efforts to address the challenges encountered in the CWP. In this regard, the National Department of Cooperative Governance is supported by Provincial Departments responsible for local government as well municipal administration. Participants provided the following suggestion to address challenges and improve the CWP.

4.3.7.1 *Increasing Working Days*

"Working days must be increased so that we can get enough money. For example, EPWP participants are working 5 days a week and they are getting more stipends than us in the CWP. In the CWP you only work 2 days a week which makes 8 days a month. I think if our working days can be increased it will help to aid our stipend" (Participant 7).

"You can't work only two days a week and expect a good salary, we want to work every weekday so that our stipend can improve" (Participant 2).

The above quotes indicate participants' frustrations towards low wages which led them to strike as a way of showing their frustrations. During the time of conducting interviews, the research already observed CWP participants and field supervisors were still on go slow knocking off at 12H00 am. Ordinarily, participants are supposed to knock off at 16H00 pm every working day. Participants highlighted that they have collected with other CWP participants from other provinces went to DCOG head office in Pretoria to submit a memorandum demanding a monthly salary of R3500.00 and other issues in the CWP. During data collection, the researcher was unable to obtain a copy of a memorandum of demand submitted to the national DCOG. Moreover, during the interview with CWP management, it was highlighted that the participants need to understand the primary role of the programme which is the provision of a safety net. Unlike other projects like EPWP projects which are short term and participants receive a higher wage than in the CWP.

This disillusionment from CWP participants about the stipend shows the need to differentiate between a project and a programme. Oosthuizen and Venter (2018) define a project as a temporary and ongoing activity performed to achieve a particular result or deliver outputs. On the other hand, Cloete and De Conning (2011) define a programme as two or more projects implemented to achieve the mission and objective of the organisation. The CWP in this regard is a programme aimed towards ensuring social protection for poor unemployed and underemployed people in the community. The above explanation is important so that the design

and strategic direction of the CWP may be understood as a programme providing a safety net and social protection, and not a permanent employment opportunity. CWP Implementing manual for 2018-2021 indicate that the participants must work two days a week, 8 days a month and 100 days a year because it offers only a safety net through regular ongoing work and not a permanent employment solution (DCOG, 2018). The Ministerial Determination is responsible for setting a minimum wage for all EPWP programmes including the CWP. These wages are reviewed annually (Philip, 2013). The CWP's model is strictly aimed to contribute towards poverty alleviation through regular and predictable work to poor people able and willing to work.

4.3.7.2 *Provision of Accredited Training*

The implementation manual also outlines that participants should be provided with training to aid in their work, increase chances of getting employment outside the CWP and obtain the necessary skill to be self-reliant where they can establish income-generating businesses (DCOG, 2018). With this establishment, the question is why training is offered to participants not accredited as reported.

"Training that we receive are not accredited, our work involves a partnership with different sector departments of government, therefore this department must provide CWP participants with accredited training in their respective field and also insource them thereafter" (Participant 11).

Ironically, CWP implementation policy indicates that IA should ensure participants' access to training. Policy documents indicate that the nature of CWP does not necessarily require South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) accreditation in courses provided. However, site office staff such as site managers, safety officers, administrators and supervisors should offer accredited training (DCOG, 2021a).

4.3.7.3. *Supervisors and IA to Participate Recruiting Participants*

All five supervisors who were interviewed have emphasised the need to enable them to become part of the recruitment process of participants. One respondent mentioned that "*supervisors must be involved in involved in the recruitment process of participants. Supervisors must work hand in hand with word councillors to recruitment participants"* (Supervisor 4). Another reason to involve supervisors in the recruitment is that they understand community dynamics better and because are coming from the community, they know it community better than IA representatives, Government officials and Ward Councillors who may reside outside the area.

One supervisor mentioned "*if we supervisors recruit participants CWP would play a big role because would only select those that are coming from the poor of the poorest within our communities. People were not going to continue working in farms because we have the CWP*" (Supervisor 1).

During the interviews with local and provincial managers responsible for the implementation of the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality, they both emphasised that if the IA can recruit participants the programme would be improved. They asserted that most participants are recruited by ward councillors which are in line with the CWP recruitment process however, the people who are conducting this task are not providing enough information about what exactly is the CWP hence there are expectations from the programme. Participants who are recruited are expecting similar benefits to people who got full employment somewhere else. They disregard the fact that the CWP is only a safety net to provide regular work opportunities to the unemployed poor. Such information is not provided during recruitment. One programme manager said, "*I think the recruitment would have been much better if used the indigent register and the database of household profiles from Department of Social Development"* (Manager 2).

Philip (2013) indicate that CWP is an intergovernmental social protection programme that aims to address the effects of unemployment in South Africa. The programme is targeting people living in extreme levels of poverty where there are limited employment opportunities. DCOG (2021, p. 1) provide the following key objectives of the CWP:

- To provide predictable basic income through access to regular and predictable part-time useful work to the poorest in the community.
- To provide an employment safety net not a permanent unemployment solution. The programme recognises that the current economy may take time to create full employment.
- To enhance the skills of participants which will contribute to the management of public assets, improve service provision and development.
- To promote community development approaches in local communities through local community identification of useful work and the use of participatory rural appraisal methods.
- To increase economic inclusion and participation by poor people which will enhance their dignity.

4.3.7.4 *Remodelling of the CWP Framework*

Managers have stressed the need to remodel the CWP asserting that the inception of the programme in 2009 and its formal roll out in 2012 should provide lessons and reflections today so that the programme can be improved. One manager stated the following: *"DCOG is working on remodelling the CWP programme. I think the new model will address all challenges that are there in the programme"* (Manager 1). He further alluded that *"remodelling must be conducted in consultation with the stakeholders especially the implementing NGOs across the country and other stakeholders like the traditional council"* (Manager 1). Whatever has worked since the programme started can be improved. This calls for the engagements between the leading Department of Cooperative Governance, municipalities where the CWP is being implemented, IAs responsible for implementing the programme in various provinces and municipalities and the communities through various structures like the ward committees and civil organisations to conduct round table discussions regarding the improvement of the programme. By the time of writing this report, the draft CWP policy framework was published for stakeholder and public comments. Drafts policy framework does not highlight any improvement in key issues indicated by respondents. The new framework provides the same norms and standards that have been used since the inception of the programme with little improvement in conditions of work.

4.3.7.5 *Strengthening Local Reference Committee*

One of the concerns with the CWP is the lack of participation in the Local Reference Committee (LRC). This committee provides an opportunity for key role players including IA, Ward Committees, and sector departments to engage on issues concerning the CWP. Quoted below, the following are the manager's comments regarding the need to strengthen LRC in NLM. "*The new implementation model which DCOG is working on must provide everyone with a chance to participate in the CWP and have buy-in"* (Manager 2).

"LRC needs to be prioritised on CWP issues. Whenever a need arise LRC must be able to advise the CWP on recruitment, funding, training and exit strategies for participants" (Manager 1).

TIPS (2018) assert that a new form of partnership and cooperation is required by the CWP to make this initiative successful. The draft framework also proposes multi-sectorial partnership in CWP implementation (DCOG, 2021b).

4.3.7.6 *Resource Mobilisation*

Poor resource allocation is one of the main challenges of the CWP. It has been mentioned that if resources can be mobilised from external stakeholders it can ease the burden on the limited budget allocated for the programme.

"*CWP through stakeholder partnership campaigns should be able to mobilise resources and support from many role players in local government"* (Supervisor 2).

"We don't have enough resources in the CWP, I think we should have to pour own offices in Dithakwaneng. A place where we can keep safe our working tools and go for our safety especially when it is raining" (Participant 6).

For managers, this requires stakeholder collaboration and partnerships to improve the CWP in NLM. Bruce (2015) notes that the allocation of resources to CWP is a responsibility of all stakeholders as LRC is a great platform to ensure that CWP is supported by all sectors. TIPS (2018) also assert that government departments must allocate resources to CWP from their budgets. This is because CWP is a multi-stakeholder programme. This is supported by the draft CWP policy framework which requires IA, Department responsible for local government and officials in the CWP to forge partnership and collaboration as resource mobilisation strategy for working tools and materials (DCOG, 2021b).

4.3.7.7 *Provision of Clear Exit Strategy*

Although participants and supervisors are offered skills training and liked with other stakeholders for economic opportunities, the programme should develop a clear exit strategy. One of the proposals is the establishment of the training unit within the CWP. One manager was quoted saying;

"*There is a need to establish a training unit within CWP. The unit will be responsible to facilitate training and skill development in the CWP"*

The unit will be responsible to provide technical training to the participants so that they must be employable and be in the best position to take economic opportunities that may arise.

4.3.7.8 *Clarity on the Roles and Responsibility between* IA and DCOG

Participants have indicated that the separate roles that the IAs and DCOG play in the implementation of the CWP must be clarified as their roles are sometimes confusing. They pointed out that DCOG must implement the programme differentiate and money used for

administration by IA can be redirected to address challenges such as stipends and PPEs. Quoted directly one respondent from the CWP participants group said,

"*If you face out the role of IAs we can be able to use their budget to increase stipends and buy PPEs in time*" (Participant 5).

One respondent from the field supervisor group is also directly quoted bellow

"*The IAs are in business with the government so in everything they do they will always want to make profit out of their allocated budget. In doing so we participants suffer the consequences" (*Supervisor 1). According to Philip (2013), the CWP IA is appointed by DCOG to manage the daily operation programme, provide reporting and accounting for all daily budget expenditure on behalf of the government. On the other hand, DCOG is responsible for funding and strategic design, planning of the programme and policy-making and oversight of the CWP across South Africa.

4.3.8 *EXIT STRATEGIES PUT IN PLACE FOR CWP PARTICIPANTS SO THAT THEY CAN BE EMPLOYABLE AND SELF-RELIANT*

The final theme emanated from the study is regarding the exit strategies put in place for participants involved in the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality. The following figure 4.2 summarises the views of participants on this topic.

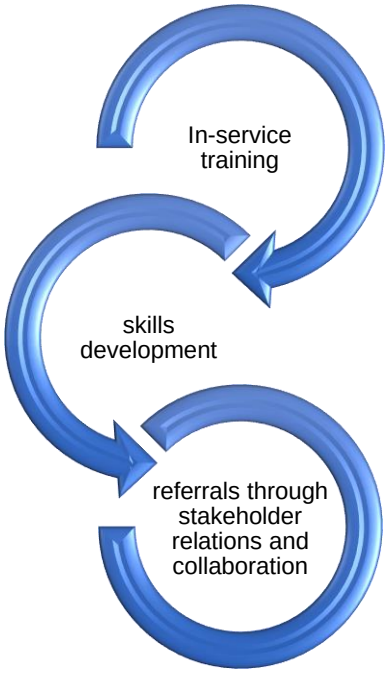

Figure 4.2: Summary of Exit Strategy for CWP in NLM.

The above figure indicates the CWP exit strategy in NLM. The current exit strategy for participants in the programme is in-service training, skills development programmes and referrals to stakeholders for empowerment. As already mentioned in previous chapters, the main objective of social protection programmes is to reduce poverty. ASGISA prioritised skills development and training as vital for effectively achieving the social development agenda (ASGISA, 2008). The multifaceted process of social development recognises the need for integrated service delivery provision and programme coordination. This enables multiple stakeholders to participate in the CWP. The communitarian approach to poverty and development advocates for collaboration to ensure that enough capacity is increased to meet basic needs. Participants have expressed themselves in the following way:

"We have partnered with North-West University so that participants can enrol for Auxiliary Social Work and Diploma in Grade R. as I am talking with you some have already been absorbed by the Department of Basic Education and others managed to get employment opportunities in different institutions" (Manager 2).

"We have encouraged many participants to establish cooperative for income-generating programmes and we are giving them support" (Manager 1).

*"I hope that in the future the implementing agent can have its training unit so that we prioritise training in the CWP" (*Manager 1).

"Stakeholders have a huge role to play in the CWP they support the skills development through funding and also train our participants in different skills" (Supervisor 5).

Participants are enrolled on various skills development programmes such as crop productions, sewing, bricklaying, carpentry, and others. Participants are also provided with practical skills when undertaking their job activities. They can familiarise themselves with the practicality of taking care of children in ECDs, sick people, elderly and disabled people. They can grow their food garden for household consumption and income generation. Participants are encouraged and supported to establish small businesses and cooperatives. These kinds of initiatives enable the officials to refer them to relevant stakeholders for assistance with capacity building, funding, and resources. However, it has been stressed by managers that these interventions require individual responsibility and determination as well as the desire to be more than CWP participants for the rest of their lives.

This aligns with the study conducted by Phillip (2013) which revel that participants in the CWP are provided with technical support and skills development to encourage them to participate in

income-generating projects such as the establishment of different cooperatives. Furthermore, he also reveals that CWP work is voluntarism which makes the participation fulfilling while participants enjoy experimentation and mind-shift towards self-consciousness. With their crime prevention, community care and food security innovation, participants have an opportunity to contribute towards community development.

4.4 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter presented the analysed data collected from three different groups of participants. Data were presented in line with themes that emerged during interviews with research participants. Through data analysis, the researcher was able to detect the role CWP is playing in alleviating poverty in Naledi Local Municipality. The challenges and problems that impede the programme to fulfil its desired goals have also been presented and analysed together with suggestions from participants on how these challenges can be better addressed. As the programme aims to impact the lives of its participants, exit strategies were studied and analysed by the researcher. What follows is the final chapter of this research report which provide final findings, recommendations, and conclusions.

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This final chapter presents the main findings of the study about the aim and objectives of this research project. This chapter also provides recommendations for the study aiming to reach the relevant role player in the CWP and social development practice and theory. Recommendations are also provided to show the necessity for future research about this research project.

5.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of this research was to explore the contributions of the Community Work Programme (CWP) about poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality, Dr Ruth Segomots**i** Mompati District in North West Province. The research aim and objectives of the study were achieved through in-depth interviews, review of literature and application of the appropriate theoretical framework. The aim of the study was achieved through the following objectives:

5.2.1 Objective 1: To explore the experiences of CWP beneficiaries about the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality.

5.2.2 Objective 2: To explore the benefits of participating in the CWP.

5.3.3 Objective 3: To determine challenges experienced by CWP beneficiaries and the views of officials on how the CWP can contribute to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality.

5.2.4 Objective 4: To explore the ideas of CWP beneficiaries and officials to improve the CWP in Naledi Local Municipality.

5.2.5 Objective 5: To discover exit strategies put in place for beneficiaries of the CWP.

5.3 KEY FINDINGS OF THE STUDY AND CONCLUSIONS

5.3.1 *OBJECTIVE 1*: *TO EXPLORE THE EXPERIENCES OF CWP BENEFICIARIES ABOUT THE CWP IN NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY.*

Key findings and conclusions of objective 1 are provided below:

5.3.1.1 Finding 1: The study has provided insights into the participants' experiences with the CWP. These include the experiences of CWP field workers. Therefore, the study revealed that through the CWP lives of the poor and unemployed are improved. The programme provides an opportunity for participants to make a living out of the stipend

they receive. Additionally, the findings also reveal that participants and supervisors appreciate the experience and skills they obtain from their involvement in the programme.

Conclusion 1: The CWP seem to contribute positively to the life of its beneficiaries. Effects of poverty and unemployment are minimized and participants reported to have been able to make a living out of the programme.

5.3.1.2 Finding 2: There is some disappointment regarding the programme, especially concerning the amount of the stipend they receive. This is due to the misunderstanding of the purpose of the CWP by participants. The programme manual indicates that the CWP is a safety net providing access to regular and part-time employment to deserving poor people (DCOG, 2021b). This is implemented as a response to the structural imbalances and poor economic growth which is unable to create jobs for the unemployed. Midgley (2014) maintain that a safety net is provided to prevent families from being the victims of poverty. Philip (2013) also argues that the CWP like any other PEPs is meant to supplement existing livelihoods as participants who receive CSGs can also participate in the programme.

Conclusion 2: Although some participants have indicated their frustration towards low wages in the CWP. The overall experience is reported to be reciprocal to all beneficiaries through wage, work experience, training and involvement in community development. The need to educate participants and the community about the purpose of CWP and other public employment programmes is essential as this will enable them to differentiate between safety nets provided through part-time jobs and full-time employment.

5.3.2 *OBJECTIVE 2: TO EXPLORE THE BENEFITS OF PARTICIPATING IN THE CWP*

5.3.2.1 Finding 1: The findings of the study revealed that there are at least four reported benefits of participating in the CWP. These include obtaining job experience which is supplemented by various training and skills development programmes. Secondly, participants receive a monthly stipend for the useful work undertaken at their respective sites. Various useful work performed by CWP participants is mentioned in chapter 4

above. Thirdly, participants can undertake work that contributes to community development. This contributes to poverty alleviation in their communities. And finally, participating in the CWP brings personal fulfilment and development.

Similar work conducted by Mathende (2015) reveals that most CWP participants are empowered by participating in development processes in their communities and through work opportunities that boost or supplement their existing incomes. It has been asserted throughout the study that CWP participants are beneficiaries of CSGs Therefore, these grants are supplemented when participating in the programme. Additionally, it has severally been noted that involvement in the CWP has aided positively to the personal development of participants. Mathende (2015) found that CWP elevates participants' self-esteem and promote community cohesion. Furthermore, the programme is an opportunity to escape poverty traps because the income received is directed to meet basic needs, albeit disillusionment about the stipend. Their work provides hope to vulnerable groups of children, the elderly and persons living with a disability. To the child-headed families and bedridden in need of CWP services this to participants is a fulfilment that they can have an impact on other people's lives.

Conclusion 1: The benefits of participating in the CWP is more than the monthly wage. The programme does not only benefits its beneficiaries but also the community of NLM. Useful work provided has an immense impact on the life of vulnerable groups such as children, older persons and persons living with a disability.

5.3.3 *OBJECTIVE 3: TO DETERMINE CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY CWP BENEFICIARIES AND THE VIEWS OF OFFICIALS ON HOW THE CWP CAN CONTRIBUTE TO POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY.*

5.3.3.1 Finding 1: It merged that although the CWP is only a social protection programme that seeks to improve the living conditions of poor unemployed people in our communities, the implementation is faced with numerous challenges which may hinder its relevance and impact. Participants revealed that the stipend they receive is little which is unable to meet all their needs.

Conclusion 1: The policy framework of the CWP should not seek to provide quantitative outcome but qualitative impact because even when the numbers are high, programme impact can still be minimal.

5.3.3.2 Finding 2: The study reveals that PPEs is not provided on time and when provided is not sufficient to enable them to carry out intensive work.

Conclusion 2: Among other challenges PPE should be prioritized primarily because the CWP is labour intensive programme through anchor programmes in infrastructure maintenance, agriculture, environmental cleanups, etc.

5.3.3.3 Findings 3: Most of the skills training received by participants are not accredited and sometimes training is not being completed, and certificates are not offered thereafter. Moreover, it was also revealed that there are two accredited training offered by North-West University. This training includes a Diploma in Grade 12 and a certificate in Social Auxiliary Worker.

Conclusion 3: skills development, as well as accredited training, maximizes chances of future employment outside the CWP. If training is prioritized most beneficiaries can be absorbed into economic markets outside the CWP.

5.3.3.4 Finding 4: It was also revealed that the CWP is faced with budget restrictions and insufficient resources. In this instance, it showed that the budget of the CWP is not aligned with the scope of work needed to implement.

Conclusion 4: CWP implementation policy indicate that at least 75% of the budget can be used for wages. This means little is budgeted for resources. Perhaps, a need for policymakers in the CWP to review budget structure align it with useful work is necessary.

5.3.3.5 Finding 5: the study reveals that poor participation in the LRC by CWP role players is another challenge. Of these concerns, the DCOG (2020) 2020-2025 strategic plan also indicates that the CWP is unable to achieve its target due to budget constraints. The plan also indicates that outdated CWP design may be the reason for all the challenges faced by the programme.

Conclusion 5: Active mobilization of all key stakeholders in the CWP would augment the financial resources needed for successful programme implementation. LRC would be actively involved in advising the IA and DCOG if only it was not used as a political

structure to create more problems than finding workable solutions to issues concerning the CWP not only in NLM but across the country.

5.3.4 *OBJECTIVE 4: TO EXPLORE THE IDEAS OF CWP BENEFICIARIES AND OFFICIALS TO IMPROVE THE CWP IN NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY*

5.3.4.1 Finding 1: The study revealed suggestions from participants, supervisors, and management to mitigate challenges faced during implementation and ways to improve the CWP. It is revealed that participants have already submitted a memorandum of demands to DCOG demanding the increase of stipend to R3500.00. A Memorandum of demand was submitted on 3 November 2019.

Conclusion 1: it is regrettably that the participants are contesting the model of the CWP which need to be understood as social policy promoting access to minimum work and incomes without replacing existing livelihoods. Policymakers can find it difficult to meet the demands of participants because of programme intention and purpose as discussed in previous sections.

5.3.4.2 Finding 2: Only accredited training should be provided. Additionally, this is regarded as a perfect exit strategy for participants.

Conclusion 2: the nature of the CWP does not require the provision of accredited training but on-the-job training and skills development. Despite that agreement with North-West University to train CWP beneficiaries is a positive milestone. The new CWP policy framework also emphasizes training in the CWP through EPWP. This training is provided 1 to 4 months in duration when applicable. Courses include:

- Project management
- Community development
- Human resource management
- Bookkeeping
- First Aid
- Principles of supervision
- Child and home-based care and HIV counselling
- Food gardening, vegetable cultivation

- Rural pipe laying and construction maintenance
- Brickmaking, bricklaying and plastering

5.3.4.3 Finding 3: The is a need for redesign or remodeling of the CWP programme which will ultimately strengthen the LRC, enhance transparent and authentic recruitment and participation in the programme and provide a clear exit strategy. A similar suggestion is mentioned in the 2020-2025 strategic plan of DCOG (2020) that the CWP model is redesigned and implemented by 2025. The redesign will enhance the partnership between government, NGOs, the private sector, and communities. Furthermore, remodeling will improve implementation and redirect resources towards an increasing number of CWP beneficiaries.

Conclusion 3: By the time of writing this report the draft implementation framework was published for comments by stakeholders and the general public. This is important to attend to implementation issues raised by the respondent.

5.3.5 *OBJECTIVE 5: TO DISCOVER EXIT STRATEGIES PUT IN PLACE FOR BENEFICIARIES OF THE CWP.*

5.3.5.1 Finding 1: Training and skills development are regarded as a sustainable exit strategy in CWP. Similarly, stakeholder partnership and collaboration are used as an opportunity to link participants with socio-economic opportunities. Partnerships are also reported to be a coherent source for training support. Finally, these exit strategies including in-service training, skills development and referrals through stakeholders' relationships are provided to enhance participants' chance to get employment outside the CWP and engage in income-generating projects and programmes. This is in line with the proposal of Theron (2008) who insist that development efforts should always seek to promote among others, capacity building, social learning, empowerment, self-reliance, and sustainability.

Conclusion 1: Exit strategies in the CWP are indispensable because they promote self-reliance and future career parting beyond the CWP. All strategies are important to bring about social development and protection of individual social lives.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this study the following recommendations are made:

5.5.1 *RECOMMENDATION TO IA*

It is recommended that the IA through LRC and other community outreach programmes provide adequate information to community members on what CWP is. The goals and objectives, targeted beneficiaries and type of work required should be communicated clearly. Community members must be well informed and understand the programme to prevent confusion and misunderstanding on the participants' or beneficiaries' side once they have joined the CWP.

It is also recommended that the IAs establish CWP site offices separately from municipal buildings as this may limit political interference in the programme. It has been revealed that in NLM the CWP is operating from a municipal building and that pose a serious challenge when participants are recruited into the programme.

5.5.2 *RECOMMENDATION TO GOVERNMENT AND POLICYMAKERS*

It is recommended that the government especially DCOG as the lead agent need to fast-tract the redesign of the CWP model to accommodate suggestions mentioned above which include wage augmentation, provision of accredited training, and strengthening of the LRC to avoid political interference. The new revised CWP model should seek to improve the working conditions of CWP participants and strengthen strategic partnerships and collaborations.

5.5.3 *RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH*

The CWP is implemented through a strategic partnership between government, civil society organisations, private sectors, and traditional authority and community members. Therefore, future research is needed to look at ways to enhance stakeholder collaboration and partnership in the CWP which is currently lacking.

Further research is also needed to provide a comparative analysis between CWP and other social protection programmes in South Africa to find synergy and ways to align these programmes such as EPWP, Social Support Grants, Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) and most recent Social Employment Programme (SEP) and Covid-19 Relief Fund launched by the Presidency to realise theirs intend purposes.

5.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter provided a summary of the findings of the study with recommendations. Certainly, the findings have been presented and discussed, the researcher note that, the CWP is one of the emerging social protection programmes in South Africa which offer a regular and ongoing job opportunity to unemployed poor people across the country. The programme is fully implemented in Naledi Local Municipality since the year 2012 targeting over 1000 beneficiaries per year. While poverty remains a concern not only in NLM but also in the entire country and across the Southern Saharan region, it is evident that the CWP provide an opportunity for government and other stakeholders to improve the living conditions of the people, particularly the poor in the society. The training and work experience obtained from participating in the CWP also enhance the chances of getting into the formal employment sector. Through experience and skills, there is also an opportunity to establish income-generating initiatives that will subsequently promote self-reliance.

Beyond any reasonable doubt, the study has revealed that challenges experienced in the CWP are not larger than the opportunities available to the unemployed. The programme enhances the livelihoods of poor unemployed youth and women who have been neglected for a very long time. The CWP programmes do not require formal education and job experience that most poor do not have. There is a need to attend to every concern of all role players in the CWP as a measure to improve programme implementation ensure its success. Finally, while the partnerships and sector collaborations are essential in the CWP, participants should also be at the core centre of the design, planning, implementation, and review or evaluation of the programme. It is only in this way that the CWP will continue to achieve its desired goals and objectives which is to improve the living conditions of the poor while the slow economic growth is unable to create formal employment.

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APPENDIX A

PARTICIPATION INFORMATION SHEET (PIS)

THE ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY WORK PROGRAMME IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION: A CASE OF NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY IN DR RUTHSEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT, NORTH WEST PROVINCE

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Ontiretse Mongale and I am a postgraduate student registered for the degree Master of Arts in Social Development at the University of Witwatersrand. As part of the requirements for the degree, I am conducting research, and I am investigating the contributions of the CWP in relation to poverty alleviation in Naledi Local Municipality, Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District in North West Province.

I therefore wish to invite you to participate in my study. If you accept my invitation, your participation would be entirely voluntary and you are free to withdrawn at anytime without penalty. There are no consequences or personal benefits of participating in this study. If you agree to take part, I will arrange to interview you at a time and place that is suitable for you. The interview will take about an hour. With your permission, I will be audio recording the interview. No one other than my supervisors will have access to the audio records. The audio records and interview schedules will be left for two years following any publication or for five years if no publications emanate from the study. Please be assured that your name and personal details will be kept confidential and no identifying information will be included in the final research report. The results may also be used for academic purposes (including books, journals and conference proceedings) and a summary of findings will be made available to study participants on request.

Please contact me on my mobile number 0674154639 or my email address 1503739@students.wits.ac.za or my supervisor Associate Professor Edmarie Pretorius on Edmarie.Pretorius@wits.ac.za if you have any questions regarding my study. We shall answer them to the best of our ability. If you have any concerns and complaints about the study please contact Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) contacts details: hrec-medicaloffice@wits.ac.za, telephone 011 717 1408

Yours sincerely,

Ontiretse Mongale

APPENDIX B

CONSENT FORM

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY

THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY WORK PROGRAMME (CWP) IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION: A CASE OF NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY IN DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT, NORTH WEST PROVINCE.

I ……agree to participate in this research project. The research has been explained to me and I understand what my participation will involve. I agree to the following:
(Please circle the relevant options below).

I agree that my participation will remain anonymous	YES / NO
I agree that the researcher may use anonymous quotes in his / her research report	YES / NO
I agree that the interviews may be audio recorded	YES / NO
I agree that the information I provide may be used anonymously after this project has ended, for academic purposes by other researchers, subject to their own ethics clearance being obtained	YES / NO

Name of participant: _____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

Name of person Seeking consent: _____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

APPENDIX C

CONSENT FORM FOR AUDIO-TAPING OF THE INTERVIEW FOR THE STUDY

THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY WORK PROGRAMME (CWP) IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION: A CASE OF NALEDI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY IN DR RUTH SEGOMOTSI MOMPATI DISTRICT, NORTH WEST PROVINCE.

I hereby consent to tape-recording of the interview.

I understand that:

- The recording will be stored in a secure location (a locked cupboard or password-protected computer) with restricted access to the researcher and the research supervisor.
- The recording will be transcribed and any information that could identify me will be removed
- When the data analysis and write-up of the research study is complete, the audio-recording of the interview will be kept for two years following any publications or for five years if no publications emanate from the study.
- The transcript with all identifying information directly linked to me removed, will be sorted permanently, and may be used for future research.
- Direct quotes from my interview/ interview group discussions without any information that could identify me may be cited in the research report or other write-ups of the research.

Name: _____

Date: _____

Signature: _____

APPENDIX D

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CWP PARTICIPANTS

1. You are a participant in the CWP, tell me what is it like to be part of the CWP?
2. What kind of work do you do in the CWP?
3. What skill (s) have you acquired in the CWP?
4. What are you directly benefiting from participating in the CWP?
5. How joining the CWP did affect your circumstances at home?
6. What are the challenges you experienced in the CWP?
7. How did you deal with and address the challenges experienced?
8. Share with me how do you think the CWP can be improved.
9. In your view, how does the CWP contribute to the alleviation of poverty in Naledi Local Municipality?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

APPENDIX E

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CWP FIELD SUPERVISORS

1. You are a participant in the CWP, tell me what is it like to be part of the CWP?
2. What kind of work do you do in the CWP?
3. What are you directly benefiting from participating in the CWP?
4. How do you think the CWP has influenced the lives of participants you are working with?
5. How do you think CWP has contributed to alleviating poverty in Naledi Local Municipality?
6. How do you ensure that participants become employable after exiting the CWP?
7. What challenges you experience in the CWP?
8. How do you address the challenges experienced?
9. What suggestions do you have to improve the CWP?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

APPENDIX F

SEMI-STRUCTURAL INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CWP OFFICE STAFF MEMBERS

1. You have been involved with the CWP, tell me more about the CWP including your general views about the CWP?
2. How do you think the CWP has contributed to alleviating poverty in Naledi Local Municipality?
3. What are exit strategies put in place for beneficiaries of the CWP so that they become employable in the future?
4. What are the challenges you have experienced with the CWP?
5. How did you deal with and addressed the challenges experienced?
6. What suggestions do you have to improve the CWP?

THANK YOU FOR YOU PARTICIPATION!!!

APPENDIX G

ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

DEPARTMENTAL HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (SOCIAL WORK) CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Protocol number: SW20/10/04

Project title: The role of the community work programme in poverty alleviation: a case of Naledi local municipality in Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District, North West Province.

Researcher/s: O Mongale, student number: 1503739

School/department: SHCD Social Work

Date considered: 23 October 2020

Decision of the committee: Approved (Minimal risk)

Date ratified: 20 November 2020

Expiry date: 30 November 2023

Date: 12 December 2020 **Chairperson:** Prof E. Pretorius

Cc: Supervisor: Prof E Pretorius

Declaration of researcher(s)

To be completed in **DUPLICATE** and **ONE COPY** returned to the Administrative Assistant, Room 8, Department of Social Work, Umthombo Building Basement or e-mailed to Fezile.Ndebele@wits.ac.za

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorised to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the committee. **For Masters and PhD an annual progress report is required.**

SIGNATURE DATE 12/11/20

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

School of Human and Community Development: Social Work
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050, South Africa
T +27 11 717 4472 | **E** socialwork.SHCD@wits.a.c.za | www.wits.ac.za/shcd/social-work/social-work-as-a-profession/

APPENDIX H

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FROM BEULA AFRICA AND FUTURE FAMILIES JOINT VENTURE

BA&FF JV

Beulah Africa & Future Families JV: Not For Profit Company
REG no 2018/331769/08 | PBO no 930064453
TEL (+27) 12 348 0682
EMAIL cwpadmin@beulahafrica.co.za | WEBSITE www.BAFFJV.co.za
ADDRESS Pretoria: 84 Glenwood Road, Lynnwood Ridge
Mahikeng : 2 Molopo Street, Mahikeng, 2745

Dear O Mongale,

This letter serves as an approval to you to conduct your research with the NW CWP participants based at Naledi Municipality. As part of the approval, you are granted three (3) months to conduct the study. Further requires an email address where study/research findings can be shared with BA&FF JV once concluded.

Regards,
Katleho Foka
HR Manager



Beulah AFRICA FOUNDATION NPC
CREATING SUSTAINABLE CHANGE
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