

**IMPLEMENTATION OF THE EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) IN
SOUTH AFRICA (2004-2014)**

by

EVELYN NOMVULA MAPULE MKHATSHWA-NGWENYA

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SUPERVISOR: PROF P KHUMALO

CO-SUPERVISOR: PROF E J NEALER

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the study entitled “*Implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in South Africa*” is my own work and all the sources that I used or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

SIGNED
ENMMKHATSHWA-NGWENYA

March 2016
DATE

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Abstract

Most developing countries are faced with high levels of unemployment, poverty, underemployment and inadequate infrastructure. The causes of poverty and unemployment in South Africa are manifold and complex. South Africa is one of the developmental states which gained its independence in 1994. There is a high rate of unemployment, poverty, unskilled workforce, inequality and low quality service delivery in South Africa (SA). Communities across provinces are unhappy about the above mentioned issues and have, over the years, expressed their dissatisfaction through picketing, demonstrations and strikes.

SA, as a developmental state, has to balance economic growth and social development. Post 1994, the African National Congress (ANC)-led government promised to address the triple challenges facing the SA economy, namely poverty, unemployment and inequality. The study pursues to identify and describe factors that necessitated the EPWP in SA. It further investigates the performance of provinces during the implementation of the EPWP in order to understand the current implementation approach. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to obtain data. Published figures from the Department of Public Works (DPW) reports and on the websites of relevant organisations were analysed. The objective was to identify small-medium-micro enterprises (SMMEs) that were created, trainings supported, and work opportunities (WOs) as well as full time equivalents (FTEs) that were created. A questionnaire was disseminated to three officials per four sectors, totaling (twelve) across four provinces namely Mpumalanga, Limpopo, Gauteng and North West. The officials were from the EPWP implementing bodies and coordinating departments. The questionnaire sought information on how EPWP projects were implemented and reported in the two phases. The implementing bodies were expected to specify their roles, targets and work opportunities that they hoped to create. The correct sampling method and size were chosen based on the approved research proposal and its intention.

Challenges experienced by the coordinating bodies, implementing bodies and data managers during the implementation of the EPWP were tabulated. Recommendations and remedial actions to identified challenges were also highlighted. This study proposes interventions with regard to the coordination of the EPWP, training, improved monitoring of projects, political buy-in and allocation of budget that will improve the daily wage rate.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Most developing countries are faced with high levels of unemployment, poverty, underemployment and inadequate infrastructure (Hove, Ngwerume and Muchemwa, 2013:1 - 7). The causes of unemployment in South Africa are manifold and complex. South Africa, gained its independency in 1994 when Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela was elected as the first black president. After the second democratic elections, Thabo Mbeki, the second President of post-democratic South Africa noted that South Africans had high expectations of Government to deliver on its mandate to reduce poverty, underdevelopment and marginalisation experienced by people participating in the Second Economy (Mbeki, 2006:5). It was further noted that the country still experienced a division between the First and Second Economy (Mbeki, 2006:10). The Government's employment strategy has been based on two assumptions. Firstly, that economic growth will lead to increased employment; and secondly, that improved education will enable workers to take up skilled employment opportunities resulting from this economic growth. Policies are therefore focused on promoting growth and education. However, as these policies advance, another key second economy intervention is the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). In dealing with the critical economic policy challenges of poverty, unemployment, growth and infrastructure provision, Government has expressed a heavy reliance on public works programmes (PWPs). The EPWP seeks to give those without a skill the opportunity to acquire one, while simultaneously earning an income. This programme will be expanded beyond its original targets in terms of the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA). According to Government, greater attention will be given to the relevance of training provided (Mbeki, 2006:10).

Although Government implemented key policy interventions to steer the economy in the right direction, the state of the economy remained gloomy as was aptly articulated in a report by Kathleen Utgoff (2003), Commissioner of Labour Statistics which stated that:

The unemployment rate, at 5.7 percent in December, continued to trend down from its recent peak of 6.3 percent in June. Over the month, job losses in retail trade and manufacturing were offset by small gains in several service industries and construction. The number of jobs in retail trade fell by 38,000 on a seasonally adjusted

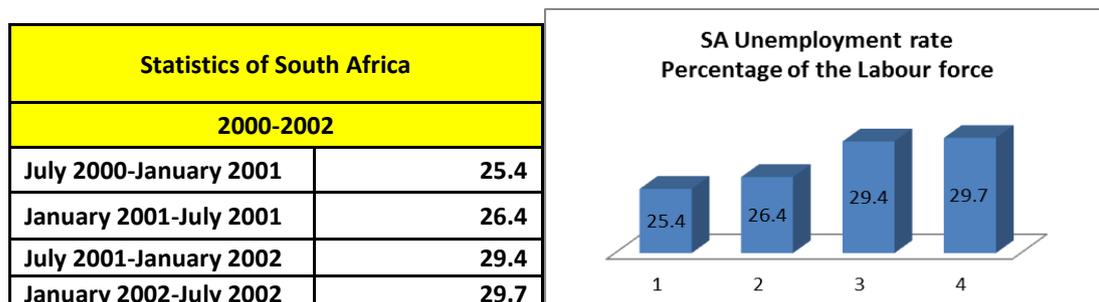
basis, as hiring for the holidays was less than usual in general merchandise stores and some other retail industries. Employment in manufacturing continued to decline in December. The loss of 26,000 jobs was about in line with the average monthly decrease for September through November (21,000) but well below the average decrease for the first 28 months of the year (54,000). During 2003, manufacturers shed about half a million jobs. In December, the average workweek in manufacturing edged down by 0.1 hour and factory overtime was up by 0.1 hour. Within government, seasonal hiring in the postal service was smaller than usual, resulting in an employment decline after seasonal adjustment. Over the year, total government employment was down by 88,000, reflecting declines at the Federal and state levels. Local government employment was little changed over the year, compared with gains of 182,000 in 2002 and 368,000 in 2001. Several industries added jobs over the month. Employment in professional and business services rose by 45,000. Within this industry, temporary help firms, which supply workers to other employers, added jobs for the 8th straight month, with employment increasing by 194,000 over the period. Job growth continued in education and health services in December. This industry gained 301,000 jobs in 2003, well below the increases of the prior 2 years. Construction employment continued on the upward trend that began early in 2003. Since February, the industry has added 173,000 jobs, mostly in specialty trade contractors. Average hourly earnings for production or nonsupervisory workers rose by 3 cents in December after a 1 cent gain the prior month. Over the 12 months ending in December, hourly earnings increased by 2.0 percent. Turning to data from our survey of households, the number of unemployed persons, 8.4 million, and the unemployment rate, 5.7 percent, continued to trend downward in December. Since June, the rate has declined by 0.6 percentage point, and the number of unemployed has fallen by 847,000. The labour force declined by 309,000 in December; the labour force participation rate-the number of people in the labour force as a percent of the population-declined by 0.2 percentage point to 66.0 percent. In December 2002, the participation rate was 66.4 percent. Nonfarm payroll employment was flat in December after 4 months of gains totalling 277,000. Job losses occurred over the month in retail trade and manufacturing, while there were gains in temporary help services and several other industries. The unemployment rate continued to trend down from its midyear high to 5.7 percent (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2004:1 - 4).

It can be observed from the above excerpt that South Africa faces a high rate of unemployment within its working age population. A person is unemployed if he or she

desires employment but cannot find a job. According to Natrass (2002:1-2), the unemployment rate is obtained by expressing the number of unemployed persons as a percentage of the total number of people willing and able to work (the so-called labour force). The unemployment rate can be defined as the number of people actively looking for a job divided by the labour force. The participation rate is the number of people in the labour force divided by the population of working age that is not institutionalised. The employment rate is defined as the number of people currently employed divided by the population of working age. The unemployment rate has thus been growing by 1% to 2% per annum, reaching 30.7% by September 2002 (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2003). To reach government's target of halving unemployment by 2014 (i.e. reducing the unemployment rate from 30% to 15%) 546 000 work opportunities would have to be created each year. Table 1.1 below shows the unemployment rate in South Africa between 2000 and 2002:

Unemployment rate from 2000-2002

Table 1.1: Unemployment rate 2000-2002



(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2003)

According to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (2004), the magnitude of South Africa's unemployment crisis is such that in September 2003, 4.6 million people in South Africa were unemployed in terms of the strict definition. It is also mentioned that unemployment as per the strict definition is defined as those people who take active steps to find employment but fail to do so. Bokolo (2013:2) highlighted that, it is estimated that about 24% of South Africans are willing and able to work. Natrass (2002:1 - 4) elucidated that, in terms of the broad or expanded definition, 8.3 million people were unemployed irrespective of whether or not they actively tried to obtain a job. In 1999, for example, the South African unemployment rate was 23, 3% according to official definition and 36, 2% according to the expanded definition. Irrespective of the definition used, there can be no doubt that unemployment is one of the most important

socio-economic problems in South Africa (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2004).

High and increasing rates of unemployment are a consequence of dynamics on both the demand and supply sides of the labour market. A large proportion of the unemployed population lacks the skills and/or opportunities to earn a living and participate actively in the South Africa's economy. In the first few years of democracy, delivery remained slow, hampered by the lack of focus and division of attention spread over several different government departments. In South Africa one of the challenges facing the skills revolution is that acquisition of accredited qualifications or certificates has not yet been properly strategised.

1.2 Background to the study

In developmental states such as South Africa where unemployment is high, increase in population usually translates to rising unemployment rates. In the context of South Africa the youth, women and people with disabilities tend to suffer the most from the rising unemployment rate. Inadequate economic growth and lack of investment have resulted in unemployment hikes. This, combined with the legacy of the past has led to high numbers of unskilled or fewer opportunities for the skilled to participate effectively and efficiently in the economy to earn a living. Previously, men used to get the lion's share of employment opportunities at the expense of women, youth and people with disabilities (McCutcheon, Parkins and July, 2012: 4 - 6).

In response to the above mentioned challenges, former President Thabo Mbeki announced (in February 2003) the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in his State of the Nation address (ANC, 2004:7). In June 2003, the EPWP was discussed at the National Growth and Development Summit (GDS). This summit involved government, labour, business and identified Community Based Organisations (CBOs). The programme was launched in May 2004 with a target of creating one (1) million work opportunities over a period of five (5) years; that is 2004 to 2009. The EPWP is one of an array of short to medium-term initiatives that focus on the use of government expenditure to alleviate poverty and reduce unemployment. It was initiated to draw the unemployed into productive work so that workers gain skills while they work, and increase their capacity to earn an income. The EPWP sought to achieve this aim through the provision of work opportunities coupled with training. Training is a key

element of the EPWP not only as an exit strategy but also as a means to increase the future employability of participants.

It is anticipated that the EPWP will continue to exist until the medium- to long-term programmes are successful in reducing unemployment. Based on the fact that most of the unemployed irrespective of age are unskilled and the fact that the causes of unemployment in South Africa are structured rather than cyclical, the EPWP aims to provide additional and mostly temporary work opportunities which are combined with training in all spheres of government (national, provincial and municipal) and through state owned enterprises (SOEs). It was declared that the programme will be nationally driven by the National Department of Public Works (NDPW) but implemented in all spheres of government across four sectors, using existing budgets and expenditure on goods and services to create additional work opportunities for the unemployed and unskilled people. A sector coordinating department was set up in each of the sectors (sector lead departments) to take responsibility for implementing components of the programme. According to the NDPW (2004); the EPWP sought to alleviate unemployment for a minimum of one million people in South Africa, at least forty percent (40%) should be women, thirty percent (30%) youth and two percent (2%) disabled by 2009. As contained in the Code of Good Practice for employment and conditions of work for special public works programmes phase 2 of the programme (2009 - 2014) will target sixty percent (60%) women, twenty percent (20%) youth of between age 16 - 34 according to the Youth Commission's definition) and two percent (2%) people with disabilities. Although men are also welcome to participate in the EPWP, the programme mainly targets the stipulated groups.

The idea that public works programmes (PWPs) can provide sustained employment was ruled out when the Code of Good Conduct for PWPs was drafted during tripartite negotiations between the union movement, the state and the public sector. The code permitted the payment of lower than minimum wages for PWP employees only on the condition that the employment offered under government PWP schemes was of short-term duration and those workers were given training to compensate for the reduced wage. This conditionality made employment guarantee inadmissible showing the inherent tension between protecting the rights of the workers and promoting a PWP which can serve an effective unemployment alleviation function (Kingdon and Knight, 2005:3 - 8).

There is a crucial tension between policy expectations and programme implementation in relation to PWPs. While policy documents (for instance the Expanded Public Works Programme document by the Department of Public Works, 2004) characterise public works as a work experience and training programme to improve labour market access and performance, at the end of which workers will graduate to employment under normal conditions, other analysts may be closer to the mark when they characterise PWPs as a social protection response to the challenge of “unemployable” working age persons with no skills and geographical isolation (Abedian, 2004:184 - 187).

As a developmental state with insufficient skills development programmes for the unskilled, South Africa’s level of service delivery in terms of quality and quantity is expected to improve as EPWP is implemented through the National Department of Public Works (NDPW) that aims to:

- Increase the contribution of public sector expenditure on goods and services the alleviation of unemployment.
- Provide (unskilled) unemployed people with a combination of work experience and training.
- Deliver quality, cost effective services using labour-intensive driven techniques.
- Contribute to halving unemployment by 2014 through public and community service delivery (NDPW, 2004:13).

Phase1 of the EPWP was implemented from 2004 - 2009 as announced by the President. National, provincial and municipal targets were set so as to provide work opportunities under the following programmes that constitute EPWP:

- The Environment and Culture Sector Programmes includes Working for Water (WfW), Working on Fire (WoF), Working for Wetlands (WfW), People and Parks, Working for Energy, Working for the Coast, Landcare, Working on Waste (WoW), and Working for Tourism. Figure 1 below illustrates one of the WoW projects with participating beneficiaries wearing their protective clothing.



Figure 1: WoW project (NDPW, 2004:17)

- Secondly are the Infrastructure Sector Programmes and Projects which are declared part of EPWP that include the construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of: rural and low-volume roads, storm-water drains, water reticulation, paving, basic sanitation, footpaths, sidewalks, bicycle paths, schools and clinics. Projects are implemented across nine (9) provinces and involve men and women. Figure 2 below shows beneficiaries constructing paving and sidewalk wearing EPWP protective clothing.



Figure 2: Construction project (NDPW, 2004:15)

- Thirdly, the Social Sector Programmes including Early Childhood Development (ECD), Home, Community Based Care (HCBC), Community Safety and other community based programmes. Beneficiaries also wear protective clothing.
- Lastly, the Economic Sector Programmes including Service Providers as Emerging contractors and or Small Medium Macro Enterprise (SMME). The programme is implemented across nine provinces.

Phase 1 was revised in 2008. In 2009 the second phase was introduced where it was found that the Economic Sector programme was cross cutting. Subsequently other programmes were added as determined in the Ministerial Determination such as the non-governmental organisations (NGOs); Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and the Community Works Programme (CWP) (NDPW, 2004:16).

Workers were to be employed on a temporary basis either by contractors, government or non-government organisations (NGOs), under employment conditions governed by the Code of Good Practice for Special Public Works Programme, or by the Learnerships Determination for Unemployed Learners. It was envisaged that the EPWP would provide a combination of work experience and training that would enable

workers to access further income opportunities once they exit the programme (NDPW, 2004:17).

It is stated in the EPWP phase 1 Logical framework that the training element has been considered to be crucial in this programme where the majority (70%) of the unemployed youth have never been employed and 69% of the unemployed have never had a job before. It is further mentioned that the training targets were based on the requirements in the Code of Good Practice for Special Public Works programmes. Subsequently, during the implementation, unemployed local people were identified and they participated as beneficiaries in the EPWP.

Table 1.2 below reflects the approximated work opportunities (WOs) targets per annum over the first five years of the implementation of the EPWP. This study will stipulate on the number of WOs created over the first five years of the EPWP. It will be difficult to reveal as to whether created opportunities were sustainable or not because contact details including physical addresses of individual beneficiaries were not captured during the first phase.

Phase I Overall Annual Targets (2004 – 2009)

Table: 1.2 Overall Annual Targets (1st 5 Years)

Year	EPWP Annual Gross Targets	EPWP Cumulative Gross Targets
2004/5	110,000	110,000
2005/6	190,000	300,000
2006/7	250,000	550,000
2007/8	280,000	830,000
2008/9	282,000	1,112,000
Total	1,112,000	
Total: about 1 million net		

(NDPW, 2004)

Table 1.2 above reflects the first annual gross targets and cumulative gross targets. It further shows that from 2004/5, the opening annual target was 110,000. In 2005/6, the opening target was 190 000 and it cumulated to 300 000. In 2006/7, the target cumulated from 250 000 to 550 000. It reached 830 000 from 280 000 in 2007/8. In 2008/9, the annual target started at 282 000 up to 1,112 000 cumulatively. These WOs targets from 2004/5 – 2008/9 were called phase 1 work opportunities (WOs) targets.

As mentioned above it is unfortunate that, the EPWP phase 1 beneficiaries were not reported hence it was difficult to measure the sustainability of WOs created.

In EPWP phase 2, each participating beneficiary's contact details including physical address were captured and included in reports in order to monitor and evaluate their impacts. One of the broad objectives of the EPWP is that when the beneficiary exits the programme, he or she should be "skilled during active participation and accredited or non-accredited training is promoted". As per the EPWP (Integrated) Incentive Grant to Departments and Municipalities document; hereunder are the set targets for work opportunities (WOs) and Full Time Equivalent (FTEs) to be created across sectors and provinces from 2009 - 2014 (see table 1.3 and 1.4):

Phase II Work Opportunities targets per sector & per year

Table 1.3 Work Opportunities Targets (WOTs)

Year	Infrastructure	Environment & Culture	Social	Non-state	Total
10-Sep	300,000	150,000	80,000	20,000	550,000
11-Oct	342,000	156,000	96,000	48,000	642,000
12-Nov	440,000	200,000	132,000	96,000	868,000
13-Dec	572,000	275,000	187,000	176,000	1,210,000
13/14	720,000	375,000	255,000	300,000	1,650,000
Total	2,374,000	1,156,000	750,000	640,000	4,920,000

(NDPW, 2009)

Phase II Full Time Equivalent targets per sector & per year

Table 1.4 Full Time Equivalent targets (FTEs)

Year	Infrastructure	Environment & Culture	Social	Non-state	Total
10-Sep	108,696	32,609	60,870	8,696	210,870
11-Oct	130,435	41,739	67,826	20,870	268,870
12-Nov	170,435	59,130	90,435	41,739	361,739
13-Dec	220,000	81,304	124,348	76,522	502,174
13/14	273,913	110,870	169,565	130,435	684,783
Total	903,478	325,652	513,043	278,261	2,020,435

(NDPW, 2009)

The researcher examines and evaluates the implementation of the broader programme in South Africa. The thesis highlights the factors influencing the creation of sustainable work opportunities through the implementation of the EPWP. This study was conducted from phase 1 (2004 - 2009) up to phase 2 (2009 - 2014) of the EPWP

in order to compare the implementation of both phases for the purpose of recommending improvements. Provincial and municipal performances on targets are tabulated.

1.3 Statement of the problem

The rising unemployment rates, lack of skilled labour and low quality service delivery necessitated government to come up with a remedial strategy or programme of action to address the imbalances in areas such as construction and maintenance of roads, installation of storm water drainages, potholes management, construction of houses etc. One of Government's responses to these challenges was the implementation of the EPWP which sought to provide temporary employment to the unemployed and skills to the unskilled. This motivated the researcher to undertake the study to assess the implementation of the EPWP with particular focus on the roles of the Implementers, Coordinators and Data managers. The study also assessed the period of work participation and training as well as types of courses offered to beneficiaries, exit strategies, withdrawals and their impact on incentive grants. For this purpose, the study focused more on provinces rather than individual municipalities. The researcher chose this research area because there is, currently, a concern unemployment levels are increasing especially among the youth and other vulnerable groups. Currently the EPWP is approaching its fifth year in phase 2 and current strategies need to be reviewed for further improvements.

1.4 The research problem

The increase in unskilled labour, poverty and unemployment often translates to public dissatisfaction which in turn leads to mass action in the form of picketing, demonstrations and strikes. As per the discussion above, it is evident that the South African government is aware of the challenges facing the country, hence it responded by establishing the EPWP with a mandate to address the high level of unemployment, poverty, unskilled labour and poor service delivery.

The African National Congress (ANC)'s Election Manifesto highlights that millions of people without jobs will be at the top of the Government's agenda:

"In establishing a dynamic and growing economy we will employ various means to create more jobs and opportunities... An ANC government will immediately start a national public works programme which will address community needs and create

jobs. Through this programme alone we will aim to provide employment and training for about 2.5 million people over the next ten years, building roads and providing water, electricity, schools, clinics, housing and meeting other needs” (African National Congress, 1994:2)

The study investigates performance on work opportunities created per sector across provinces. It also reviews strategies used to sustain work opportunities and evaluates the effectiveness of beneficiary exit strategies used in this programme. The study also addresses the national targets set, the actual implementation of the EPWP and the incentive grant strategies of project funders across spheres and sectors.

1.5 The purpose of the study

According to Mouton (2007:103), the rationale of any study seeks to provide answers to the following question: Does the study aim to fill a gap in the literature? Do you [as a researcher] wish to address a very practical and urgent problem in society (unemployment) or in your company (effects of retrenchment on staff morale)?” This study seeks to address an urgent problem in South Africa, which is the drastic increase in poverty, unskilled labour and unemployment especially among the youth, women and people with disabilities. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the implementation of the EPWP and assess the development of new intervention strategies to curb the rising unemployment rate. The study also investigates how reporting was conducted in an attempt to unpack shortcomings and identify gaps. The ultimate goal is to find ways of improving policies and guidelines for the EPWP. It further highlights the targets set and achieved in all sectors across the provinces. The correlation of legal frameworks such as the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) and guidelines such as the Code of Good Practice for employment, the conditions of work for Special Public Works Programmes and the Ministerial Determination 4: Expanded Public Works Programme 22 October 2010 was also examined.

1.6 The objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:

- Examine how the Government of South Africa addresses the triple threats of unemployment, poverty and inequality;
- Identify and describe factors that necessitated the implementation of the EPWP

- Evaluate the implementation of the EPWP in both phases (phase 1, from 2004 – 2009 and phase 2, from 2010 - 2014);
- Assess the efficacy of the EPWP in terms of its objectives and targets visa vis what it actually achieved in communities

1.7 Research Questions

In order to achieve the set objectives, the study seeks to answer the following questions:

- How has the Government of South Africa addressed the triple challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequality that are facing the economy
- What are the factors that necessitated the implementation of the EPWP?
- What challenges have been encountered by the two phases of the EPWP and how have these challenges been addressed
- To what extent has the EPWP been successful in meeting its set objectives and targets

1.8 Research design

Quantitative research measures the properties of phenomena systematically, using structured data-collection techniques, and requires that data collected be expressed in numbers; that is quantified (Babbie and Mouton, 2003:49). Welma, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:188) stated that qualitative research can be used successfully in the description of groups, communities and organisations. Based on the above explanation and formulated research questions both quantitative and qualitative approaches were adopted in the study. The EPWP was implemented by state and non-state organisations therefore relevant literature from both was consulted.

1.9 Limitations of Research

This study had a delayed response from prospective respondents. Several follow-ups were made, however; the response rate was 85.4% that is 41 out of 48 participants. Potential errors and limitations such as the misinterpretation of questions by respondents were eliminated during the pilot study conducted by the researcher.

1.10 Structures of Chapters

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

This chapter provides a background to the issues researched, the significance of the problem, problem statement, research questions, research objectives, and key concepts in the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter focuses on literature review and theoretical reasoning behind the EPWP. Factors that influence creation of work opportunities were determined. Public administration and the role of public administrators were highlighted. Literature on public works programme (PWPs), unemployment, poverty and public administration were also reviewed. This chapter further reviews literature on the various definitions of unemployment, the reasons for high unemployment rate, government policy interventions in response to high unemployment and poverty; and the role of PWPs in addressing poverty and unemployment. Literature related to funding and beneficiary training was also examined in relation to exit strategies in PWPs. The implementation of best practices was evaluated in tandem with international case studies on PWPs and EPWPs.

Chapter 3: The implementation of the EPWP across provinces and sectors

In this chapter the implementation of the EPWP in provinces and municipalities across is examined. Performance in terms of work opportunities (WOs) created and reporting mechanisms is highlighted. A review of the programme since its inception in 2004 is made and tabulated. General programmes that were easily implemented are highlighted. This chapter also looked at the regulatory frameworks for the creation of work opportunities.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

The objective of this chapter is to present the methodology that was adopted in the study. It explains the research design, the research instruments as well as the sampling techniques that were used to conduct the study.

Chapter 5: Analysis of empirical key findings, presentation and discussion

This chapter reflects on methodology and gives a synopsis of previous chapters. The study is undertaken by reviewing related literatures as well as primary and secondary sources of information that might be numeric using structured instruments available for the research. An empirical study using a questionnaire is undertaken in order to extract relevant information from reporting bodies at the provincial and local levels including non-state institutions. Representatives of interest groups such as project implementers, Coordinators and Data managers are consulted with regard to the implementation of the EPWP. Limitations and strengths of the research are also highlighted. The chapter further dwells on data analysis in order to provide an overview of key findings, problems and challenges faced by Implementers, Coordinators and Data managers during the implementation with a view to propose solutions and recommendations.

Chapter 6: Summary, recommendations and conclusion

This chapter provides the summary, recommendations and concluding remarks on the study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

2.1 Introduction

This chapter glances at definitions and conceptualisations of unemployment, poverty and public administration. It also contextualises the research and reviews the literature with regards to theories of unemployment and poverty, and the role of PWPs in addressing unemployment and poverty. The state of poverty and unemployment in SA both qualitatively and quantitatively are elucidated. The question that this chapter seeks to address is what necessitated the implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). Sustainability is emphasised in this chapter. However, a major hurdle in achieving sustainability is alleviation of poverty.

The form of literature reviewed here is theoretical. In summary, for South Africa, the challenge is to support growth in innovative activities that can create sustainable decent employment that will alleviate poverty. The creation of decent and sustainable employment remains the key, long term objective, and public employment programmes can provide substantial poverty relief to households who struggle to meet basic needs. The International Labour Organisation (ILO)'s Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalisation (2008) identifies employment, social protection, social dialogue and rights at work as the four pillars of the Decent Work Agenda. Thus this chapter also focuses on the theories of poverty, unemployment and the international best practice of PWPs. Below clarifies unemployment, poverty and its theories:

2.2 Understanding unemployment and poverty

Poverty, inequality and unemployment are the major economic challenges which necessitated the implementation of the EPWP. It has been argued that the problem of unemployment lies most particularly in its correlation with poverty.... (Dewar and Watson, 1981:10). However, labour force participation is not a guaranteed ticket out of poverty (Schiller, 2001:18). In fact, the reality is that millions of South Africans who do participate in the job market usually fail to elude poverty, and the two principal reasons for this are unemployment and underemployment. Unemployment is categorised and described in many ways. The strict definition of unemployment is the status in which individuals are without a job but looking for one. South Africa's unemployment rate by the strict definition is 25%, whilst its unemployment rate by the broad definition is between 30 - 40% (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2012:3). The broad definition of unemployment includes both the searching and the

non-searching unemployed (Brynard, 2011: 68). According to Guichard and Rusticelli (2010), the structural unemployment is defined as the rate of unemployment that is consistent with inflation. All definitions avowed that unemployment aggravates poverty and inequality, and impacts negatively on the economic and social development of a country. According to Woolard (2002:5), the unemployment rate among those from poor households is 52%, in comparison with an overall national rate of 29%. Only 4% of poor adults (about 2 million people) are employed, compared with 49% (or 8 million) from non-poor households. The structural nature of unemployment and poverty in SA really needed to be improved using policy intervention. The EPWP is one of the PWP's targeting unemployed people with an emphasis to women, youth and people with disabilities.

According to McCord (2003:3), the economy of South Africa is currently facing structural unemployment. The longer it takes for envisaged workers to be employed, exposed and experienced, the lesser confident and attractive they become to potential employers due to their undeveloped skills and experience. Subsequently, the country's economy and life style is also negatively affected.

Professor Hausmann, who is director of Harvard's Center for International Development and a professor at the Kennedy School of Government, spent considerable time in SA between 2004 and 2010, chairing the panel of international and local economists that advised the former President Thabo Mbeki's government on the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for SA between 2005 and 2008 (Nortje and Maswanganyi, 2014:2). He revealed that the government's indecisiveness and confusion is robbing SA's young and poor of their future. He enunciated that; "it is as clear now as it was in 2004 that black economic empowerment (BEE) is more about making the top of society black than about making the bottom of society better. He further pronounced that; "ideally you want to achieve both, but the way the emphasis has been on the first and not the second ... suggests that they have an agenda" (Nortje *et al.*, 2014:3 - 6).

According to Chief economist Lings Stanlib (2013:6, 10 - 12) SA is in need of growth and had many initiatives aimed at redistribution such as BEE and affirmative action. But while these had been beneficial, the benefits had not been sufficiently broad-based. He argued that; these initiatives have not benefited the population broadly enough. He further contended that the SA government has not been able to draw the youth into the labour market, for instance.

Hausmann declared his disappointment not at SA's ability to write plans, but at the performance of actual policies (Nortje *et al.*, 2014: 5). He mentioned that the policies often go in the opposite direction of the documents. He avowed that failure of the government to act on policies that were supportive of economic growth showed that the government had priorities other than including marginalised members of the economy. He further declared that there is no political commitment to shared growth and one of his biggest criticisms was the government's failure to address the skills constraints on the economy. Professor Hausmann affirmed that contrary to what the government seems to believe, skilled people are the complement of unskilled people and will lead to job creation. He raised a concern that the country approved an immigration law that goes in the opposite direction to that. He argued that SA should, in the short run, relax its immigration policy to attract skilled people who would grow the economy. The unemployment rate of those without matric is about 50% compared to 3% for those with tertiary qualifications (Nortje *et al.*, 2014: 4 - 7).

A high unemployment rate is attributed to the presence of structural inefficiencies in the supply-side factors of labour, such as skills development and labour market inflexibility (McCord, 2002:9). SA is a developmental State and is in need of skilled labour. Unemployment aggravated in SA because of the increase of unskilled labour over the years due to a changing structure of the economy after apartheid. (Kingdon *et al.*, 2005:4) for it have not been able to curb unemployment significantly over the years. Unemployment is not the only challenge that necessitated EPWP, but poverty as well.

The definition of poverty and theories that explain it are deeply rooted in strongly held research traditions and political values, reinforced by encompassing social, political and economic institutions that have a stake in the issue. Thus, a purely objective explanation of poverty is displaced by a proliferation of socially defined issues and concerns from both liberal and conservative perspectives. Explaining poverty remains a lucrative field for academics, policy makers, book publishers, and ideologues, and as a consequence the range of explanations has proliferated. Poverty in its most general sense is the lack of necessities. Basic food, shelter, medical care, and safety are generally thought necessary based on shared values of human dignity. Valentine (1970:2) reflects that the essence of poverty is inequality. The most common objective definition of poverty is the statistical measure which calculates poverty as the annual income needed for a family to survive. The poverty line was initially created in 1963 by Mollie Orshansky at the U.S. Department of Agriculture based on

three times her estimate of what a family would have to spend for an adequate but far from lavish diet.

In this sense, political agendas are the overriding factors on poverty that not only influence the choice of theory of poverty but the very definition of poverty to be explained by each theory. Powerful interests manage how poverty is discussed and what is being done about it; unfortunately this study can only identify the politicisation of theories of poverty rather than separate it out for analysis. According to Michael Darby (1996:4); the very definition of poverty was political, aimed to benchmark the progress of poverty programs for the War on Poverty.

Regardless of how people look at the “science” of poverty, or what O’Connor (2001:12) calls the “knowledge of poverty,” it is essential to retain focus on the fact that the definition of poverty and the policies addressing it are all shaped by political biases and values. It is this disparity of status and interest that make poverty research an inescapably political act: it is an exercise of power, in this case of an educated elite to categorise, stigmatise, but above all to neutralise the poor and disadvantaged through analysis that obscures the political nature of social and economic inequality (O’Connor, 2001:12). This solicits an investigation on how EPWP is implemented in SA to assuage unemployment, inequality and poverty rates.

2.3 The role of PWP in addressing unemployment and poverty

The primary purpose of PWPs is poverty alleviation through labour absorption. Governments achieve this by spending money on the creation of public assets through labour intensive methods (McCord, 2002:10). The expanded public works programme (EPWP) is one of the PWPs which emphasise on the creation, maintaining and rehabilitation of quality assets. These programmes are expected to contribute towards the local economic development and skills development. Howel (2001:11) argues that PWPs are a vital mechanism for vulnerable groups to reattach themselves to the labour market and develop skills, and can thus play a potentially important role in addressing high unemployment and poverty rates in countries such as South Africa. PWPs are expected to reduce reliance on social protection instrument to address the needs of the working-age poor (McCord, 2012:14). Phillips (2004:13) recommends that successful PWPs require consistent political support. However, the negative side of this is that PWPs are popular with politicians because governments claim to be creating jobs but projects are not always structured and targeted with the best interest of the community at heart (Wahenga, 2007:1). A study of emergency employment programmes in Argentina found that politics affected the

targeting and thus the effectiveness of these programmes, and that these programmes were vulnerable to political manipulation because they were not conducted in a “clientelistic way “(Giraudy, 2006:6). In addition, a case study on the National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme in Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan in India (Shankar, Gaiha and Jha, 2010:2) showed that corruption was a major barrier in the success of these PWP. This is congruent with Howell’s (2011:10) assertion that vulnerable groups pay a high price for corruption and that governance and accountability are pertinent to the success of any PWPs. Political interference has been identified as one of the challenges encountered by the EPWP Implementers. Respondents further mentioned that this delayed the start and end dates of projects thus also identified as a barrier in the success of the EPWP.

However, PWPs are generally viewed as short-term emergency responses to cyclical shocks in the labour market and are not generally considered an appropriate response towards addressing structural employment challenges and chronic poverty (Kostzer, Lal, Lieuw-Kie-Song and Miller, 2010:5). Despite this notion, other international experiences show that large scale PWPs can be successful in substantially reducing unemployment. This is evident in the examples of the Maharashtra Employment Guarantee (EGS) in India and the New Deal Programme during the 1930s Great Depression in the USA which both absorbed up to 30% of the unemployed in their respective countries (McCord, 2003:7 and Phillips, 2004:3). The Indonesia’s Padat Karya programme is also one of the PWPs that offer short-term employment which applied primarily in the infrastructure sector as a response to labour market disruption (McCord, 2007:13). Its intention is to increase, temporarily, aggregate employment, while providing a basic income for consumption smoothing during the period of labour market disruption

In SA, there are other developmental programmes aimed at absorbing the unemployed such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which was in operation between 1994 and 1999, the Special Poverty Relief Allocation which commenced from 1999 and ended in 2004 (Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009:6), and the community work programme (CWP) which started in late 2007 as a pilot project until current (Philips, 2009:2). South Africa has three spheres of government namely local, provincial and national government. On each sphere of Government, there are political office-bearers and administrators. Political office bearers took a decision post 1994 and established the EPWP. Administrators are the implementers of public policies hence they are called public administrators. The EPWP is implemented and coordinated across three spheres of Government by public administrators.

In this thesis, public bodies are examined on their support to the implementation of the EPWP as implementing bodies, coordinators and data managers. As policy implementation research evolved, two schools of thought developed as to the most effective method for describing policy implementations which are top-down and bottom up. Advocates of the top-down approach see policy designers as the central actors and concentrate their attention on factors that can be manipulated at the national sphere. Proponents of the bottom-up approach put greater emphasis on target groups and service deliverers. Currently, most theories agree that some convergence of two perspectives exists. This is exactly why a close relationship exists between policy implementation and service delivery. The output, outcome and impact on the policy implementation will be reflecting on how the implementation was carried out in order to accomplish what was intended.

The EPWP is one of the arrays of poverty alleviating strategies that were initiated by government in South Africa. The EPWP was introduced as a policy response to the high incidence of unemployment amongst young, women, people with disabilities South Africans who are unemployable due to their lack of skills (McCord, 2002:15). The EPWP has a variety of objectives and is seen as among the most innovative (PWPs) in the world, with multiple objectives that include not only job creation, poverty reduction, and infrastructure development, but simultaneously job training and community capacity building (Adato and Haddad, 1999:8 and McCord, 2003:9).

The varying successes of the PWPs around the world are attributed to variations in their design features and their implementation elements (Howell, 2001:13). This is similar to McCord's (2003:21) assertion that the achievement of the objectives of PWPs depends on the programme design, institutional capacity for implementation and the addition of social development considerations to projects identified for the public works programmes that are conceived and executed. Most PWPs have common features.

2.4 The design features of PWPs

The literature review will now explore the best practices with regard to both the design and implementation aspects of PWPs by considering international case studies of PWPs that have succeeded and failed in the past. This study will clarify on how the EPWP was coordinated and implemented in South Africa for the betterment of the country by alleviating poverty and creating work opportunities. PWPs are usually designed according to the state capacity; the programme's cost effectiveness, the intensity of labour required and the targeting of the poorest of the poor (Queen *et al.*,

2006:9). These design factors, in turn, influence some of the best practices that are incorporated into the mandate of PWP, such as:

- Wage rate paid
- Wage payment arrangements
- Timing and duration of employment
- Skill and labour intensity
- Exit policies
- Microfinance
- Assets / infrastructure created

These best practices determine the livelihood impact (McCord, 2003:4). The following section elaborates the best practices with international case studies:

2.4.1 Wage rate

The self-targeting concept advocates that a PWP's wage in a low daily payment rate country should be no higher than the market rate for unskilled labour. It is argued that a sufficiently low rate will ensure self-targeting by the poor. This will reduce the number of the less vulnerable in the PWP and thus wider coverage for the most vulnerable groups. The logic rests on the assumption that anyone who is willing to do unskilled manual labour for such a low wage is poor and that workers will take up alternative, better paying work if it becomes available (Queen, Samson & Van Niekerk, 2006:32). The PWP's payment rates for participants are determined by legislative frameworks. In SA, the EPWP minimum daily rate currently is R78.86, revised annually and stipulated in the Ministerial Determination document. EPWP implementers mentioned that it is not enough especially when participants are supposed to transport themselves to the project site daily, meals for lunch, municipal rates and taxes, social responsibilities and also support the family etc. McCord (2003:5) contends that the wages that are paid by the PWP are usually only enough to satisfy basic human consumption needs, and do not allow for the satisfaction of human and social capital and investment needs. Queen *et al* (2006:15); and Wahenga (2007:1) emphasise that supplementary mechanisms should be put in place to ensure that relevant focus groups which are the poor, unemployed, women and people with disabilities are targeted. In the case of the Maharashtra EGS programme, self-selection reduced the administrative burden of targeting by keeping wage rates a little lower than the normal agriculture wage rate in private farms. However, to supplement the low wage rate, a number of welfare benefits were included in the project, such as shelter during breaks, first aid boxes, crèches and babysitters to look after the babies of labourers, maternity benefits to women

labourers, rent for working tools, and the availability of work within eight kilometers from the residence of the labourers (Pellissery, 2008:12).

2.4.2 Wage payment arrangement

Queen *et al* (2006:11) affirms that payments must be regular, and must be based on transparent processes clearly communicated to workers. Workers must enter into individual contracts with project owners. It has been elucidated by Queen *et al* (2006:4) that delays and widely varying payments create confusion, resentment and social tension among the workforce. PWP's payments can be made on a time based, task based and piece rate. Queen *et al* (2006:5) clarified that task based rate and piece rate payment systems provide greater flexibility in scheduling work and are often preferred over time based systems because they avoid labour incentives that may be compromised. Task based, however can lead to confusion. Transparency and communication are critical in avoiding resentment provoking misunderstandings (Queen *et al.*, 2006:3). In SA, the NDPW EPWP monitoring and evaluation unit is emphasising to report on the daily wage rate irrespective of task or time rate based. Participants are usually paid on a monthly basis and the daily wage rate should be reflected in their contracts.

2.4.3 Timing and duration of employment

The PWP's are offered in short duration of time that is; contract basis. From the second phase of EPWP, public bodies are encouraged to contract participants at least for hundred (100) days. The length of employment offered is critical in terms of the ability of participation in a programme to have a sustained impact on poverty (McCord, 2003:21). However, some PWP's such as the Maharashtra EGS programme and Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Programme have been effective in addressing chronic poverty. These offered longer term jobs (Queen *et al.*, 2006: 13). To alleviate unemployment and poverty caused by seasonal and cyclical factors; the Overseas Development Institute (2012) Maharashtra EGS programme agreed on implementing programmes on a seasonal and or cyclical basis. In SA, programmes and sub-programmes are also implemented on a seasonal and or cyclical basis in the EPWP. Participants are contracted on different days per month with the maximum of 23 days. According to the Ministerial Determination (2014), participants do not work on public holidays. When the chronic poverty or structural unemployment is experienced; then the PWP's need to provide employment on an ongoing demand basis (that is long-term) as a form of income insurance to protect consumption, rather than on a once-off basis which is typical for many PWP's.

The shorter the duration in a programme, the shorter the costs involved. Many programmes in India and Bangladesh which focus on developing domestic capacity, for example, operate continuously throughout the year. This is because in the absence of established capacity, projects are likely to suffer delays, particularly when social protection is needed the most. Permanent duration, and the associated building of capacity, therefore helps support PWPs as a viable social protection instrument against unemployment and poverty (Quene *et al.*, 2006:10). The focus on part time asset/infrastructure maintenance, rather than asset/infrastructure creation has been observed by McCord (2003:7) as an option for sustained employment creation.

Korea provides a good example of appropriate duration of employment. Preceding the economic boom of the late 1970s, the Korean government offered temporary employment at an unskilled labour wage by implementing infrastructure projects such as roads. In the 1980s, as the boom continued and market labour costs soared, the more productive workers found higher jobs. Consequently, unemployment fell which led the government to replace the EPWPs with a cash transfer programme that provided social protection more effectively to people who were unable to supply labour to the market. The programme lasted for as long as the unemployment of productive workers was a chronic programme. PWPs thus need to be flexible enough to deal with changing circumstances, and allow the introduction of appropriate instruments when required (Quene *et al.*, 2006:7).

2.4.4 Skill and labour intensity

The labour intensive method is used and encouraged in the PWPs. Labour describes an operation where proportionately more labour is used than the other factors of production (McCutcheon, 2014:21). Training of supervisors and other personnel in the PWPs is important before the projects kick start. Labour intensity is measured in terms of the share of PWP expenditure that is spent on wages. The greater the share of PWPs expenditure on wages, the more effective will the intervention policy be at reducing poverty for the participants in the short term. However there may be a tradeoff between higher labour intensity and the ability of the PWP to generate indirect or medium term benefits from the assets that are created (Quene *et al.*, 2006:18). This is evident in the Maharashtra programme where EGS projects were selected on the basis of the intensity of the use of unskilled labour. When the EGS started, it was required to have 90% of the cost of the project spent on wages for

unskilled labour and 10% on skilled labour and material. However, in later years this ratio was found difficult to maintain, so it was adjusted to a ratio of 60:40 of unskilled to skilled labour (Pellissery, 2008:11). In 2004 when the EPWP was introduced, training of participants was compulsory. However, from the second phase (2009) of EPWP it was found that it was difficult to maintain the standard due to insufficient funds (NDPW, 2009:24). The principle for the PWP is that the projects must be income generating.

Other authors suggest that an excessive focus on labour intensity may undermine the ability of a PWP to build the capacity of a participating worker. It is because the skills development of unemployed workers requires training costs and other forms of additional non-wage expenditure. Failure to purchase technical inputs and materials could render the assets that are created of little value to communities. While a greater investment into these non-labour inputs will shift resources away from wages, in the longer term, PWPs may generate greater socio economic benefits for vulnerable groups, their communities and their nation as a whole (Quene *et al.*, 2006:7).

The assumption that participation in the PWPs will offer experiential and formal training, and absorb future participation into the labour market, does not take into account the limited demand for labour in the context of current unemployment levels (McCord, 2003:8). Training for a short duration of work is unlikely to impact on future labour market success as some projects last for three months and shorter, whereas developing marketable skills takes longer than this. Usually short term training duration is not adequate and sufficient to guarantee the future employability of participants in PWPs (Adato *et al.*, 1999 and McCord, 2003:17).

2.4.5 Exit policy

Policy makers often assume that participation in a PWP will enable a participant to rise out of poverty. However, the reality is that in the absence of an effective exit strategy, most participants in PWPs will sink back into poverty once the scheme ends (Quene, 2006:9). Skills development is one of the exit policies that enables workers to move into employment and aims to provide a ladder up from the low wages of PWPs. Most PWPs however, provide only the basic skills necessary to carry out the specific duties of the job and these skills rarely have significant value in the local market place for work. Thus, the value of any training will depend on its quality and its relevance in the labour market (Quene *et al.*, 2006:14). The NDPW EPWP Training unit emphasise on accredited training (NDPW, 2009:12).

2.4.6 Micro finance

The provision of training as one of the aspects of PWPs is problematic without simultaneous access to capital through either savings or micro credit facilities, especially if the low wage level and short term nature of employment provided has not enabled participants to accumulate capital directly from wage earnings. Without the provision of capital for formal or informal income generating activities, the livelihood impact of a training intervention is unlikely to be successful, as a lack of access to capital is a major form of discouragement towards self-employment among PWP participants (McCord, 2003:7).

2.4.7 Assets / Infrastructure created

In the PWPs, assets are created, rehabilitated or maintained and service provided or delivered. McCord (2003:10) asserts that the evidence base for the real value of assets or infrastructure created through PWPs is limited. He further mentions a disjuncture between the aspiration of a project and a quality, appropriateness and strategic value of the assets created. Mashiri *et al* (2002:6) and McCord (2003:11) emphasised that PWPs assets and infrastructure should be strategically selected in order to realise real value in the assets created. The created assets should be recorded and reported. In SA, the NDPW have developed, revised and integrated the reporting system where project outputs and assets are reported (NDPW, 2009:58).

2.5 Five theories of poverty in contemporary literature

There are five theories of poverty and their anti-poverty programmes. Virtually authors distinguish between theories that root the cause of poverty in individual deficiencies (conservative) and theories that lay the cause on broader social phenomena (liberal or progressive). Rank (2004:50) declares that, it is very clear that the focus on individual attributes as the cause of poverty is misplaced and misdirected. Structural failings of the economic, political, and social system are causes instead (Rank, 2004:50). The various theories are divergent, and each results in a different type of community development intervention strategy.

2.5.1 Poverty caused by individual deficiencies

This first theory of poverty is a large and multifaceted set of explanations that focus on the individual as responsible for their poverty situation. Typically, politically conservative theoreticians blame individuals in poverty for creating their own problems, and argue that with harder work and better choices the poor could have

avoided (and now can remedy) their problems. Other variations of the individual theory of poverty ascribe poverty to lack of genetic qualities such as intelligence that are not so easily reversed. The belief that poverty stems from individual deficiencies is old. Religious doctrine that equated wealth with the favour of God was central to the Protestant reformation (Weber, 2001:4). Blind, crippled, or deformed people were believed to be punished by God for either their or their parents' sins. With the emergence of the concept of inherited intelligence in the 19th century, the eugenics movement went so far as to rationalise poverty and even sterilisation for those who appeared to have limited abilities. Rainwater (1970:16) critically discusses individualistic theories of poverty as a moralising perspective and notes that the poor are afflicted with the mark of Cain. They are meant to suffer, indeed must suffer, because of their moral failings. They live in a deserved hell on earth. Rainwater goes on to say that it is difficult to overestimate the extent to which this perspective (incorrectly) under-girds our visions of poverty, including the perspective of the disinherited themselves.

Ironically, neo-classical economics reinforces individualistic sources of poverty. When some people choose short term and low-payoff returns, economic theory holds the individual largely responsible for their individual choices, for example to forego college education or other training that will lead to better paying jobs in the future. In the EPWP when participants are contracted, they are informed on the start and end date of their contracts, unfortunately they do not have a choice. During the implementation of projects, participants have a choice to also partake as trainees in the EPWP projects. A daily wage is paid whilst attending training irrespective of accreditation (NDPW, 2004:12). The economic theory that the poor lack incentives for improving their own conditions is a recurrent theme in articles that blame the welfare system's generosity on the perpetuation of poverty. The welfare programs have introduced a perverse incentive structure, one that penalises self-improvement and protects individuals against the consequences of their own bad choices (Gwartney and McCaleb, 1985:7).

2.5.1.1 Anti-Poverty programs from an individual theory of poverty perspective

The anti-poverty programs from an individual theory of poverty emphasises community development practice though working with individual needs and abilities. Self-help strategies are also encouraged by the elimination of other forms of assistance (Maskovsky, 2001:472 - 3). SA is implementing the community works programme (CWP) and is reported in the EPWP reports. The best example of this

response to poverty is to limit the number of years people can be on family assistance and to require participation in work activities after two years on welfare (Levitan *et al.*, 2003:59 - 72), a core part of the politically conservative and ironically named Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA).

Another program studied (MERCAP) reduces assistance payments to families if their children fail to attend school, hoping that children will eventually graduate from high school and not become another generation of welfare recipients. This study found that the punishment did little to change behaviour, while attention from teachers and school administrators helped identify more complex reasons for poor school attendance (Campbell and Wright, 2005:8) The punitive approach of individual theories of poverty justifies policies that restrict public assistance to services and goods instead of cash because there is a lack of trust in the discretion of poor people. For example, providing food at school for children or offering homeless people shelters rather than cash to pay for housing are examples.

The disabled, elderly, youth, and even the unlucky are part of every community, and without blame, their individual needs can be met by collective action. Thus the EPWP is targeting local unemployed with more emphasis on women, youth and people with disabilities. A safety-net, without pejorative connotations, is a key to civility. Making the safety net work and available is broadly accepted

2.5.2 Poverty caused by cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty

The second theory of poverty roots its cause in the culture of poverty. This theory suggests that poverty is created by the transmission over generations of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated but individually held. Cultures are socialised and learned. American sociology has long been fascinated by subcultures of immigrants and ghetto residents as well as the wealthy and powerful. Culture is socially generated and perpetuated, reflecting the interaction of individual and community. This makes the culture of poverty theory different from the individual theories that link poverty explicitly to individual abilities and motivation. Technically, the culture of poverty is seen as a subculture of poor people in ghettos, poor regions, or social contexts where they develop a shared set of beliefs, values and norms for behaviour that are separate from but embedded in the culture of the main society. Ryan (1976:120) describes the culture of poverty as a set of beliefs and values passed from generation to generation and it tends to perpetuate once it come into

existence. By the time slum children are six or seven they have usually absorbed the basic attitudes and values of their subculture. Thereafter they are psychologically unready to take full advantage of changing conditions or improving opportunities that may develop in their lifetime (Ryan, 1976:120). Majority in SA are used that the government should create or provide jobs to the people. The apartheid culture of not creating jobs is still seen in most of the people. The EPWP is encouraging the culture of learning, forming cooperatives and entrepreneurs' in order to create more sustainable work opportunities (WOs) that lead to jobs.

This theory of poverty based on perpetuation of cultural values has been fraught with controversy. Poor people have subcultures that are distinctive and perhaps detrimental. The concern is over what causes and constitutes the subculture of poverty. Moynihan found the concept particularly applicable to his study of "Black poverty" in the early 1960s and linked Black poverty to the largely "dysfunctional" Black family found in central cities (Bradshaw, 2006:9). Currently, the sub-cultural values for higher education and entrepreneurship among Asian and Indian immigrant groups are prized as an example of how subcultures can work in the favour of groups trying to escape poverty (Bradshaw, 2006:9).

2.5.2.1 Anti-poverty programs from a culture of poverty perspective

Based on Valentine's (1968:6) the anti-poverty strategies may work in three different models of cultural theories of poverty:

- Replacement with a more functional culture that supports rather than undermines productive work, investment, and social responsibility (Goetz *et al.*, 2003).
- Educational programs as accentuated by Zigler and Styfco (1996:13) are successful at providing an alternative socialisation for the next generation to reduce poverty, though it needs more coherence and quality. Similarly, community developers are often involved in helping establish after school programs for teens where their peer culture is monitored and positive social values are established, while keeping youth away from gangs and detrimental behaviour. These programs are a policy favourite (Levitan *et al.*, 2003:5) because they are believed to change the culture of youth while their values and norms are still malleable. This educational programme is evident in SA, coordinated and implemented by the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) under the EPWP subprogramme called extra school support programme (ESSSP) where homework's are assisted, schools patrols, and sports supported after schools (NDPW, 2009:49).

- A third approach to the culture of poverty is to try to work within the culture to redefine culturally appropriate strategies to improve the group's well-being. Local crafts cooperatives are examples, as are programs that tap the traditions of small business and entrepreneurship found in subcultures as different as urban gangs and middle class single mothers. This is happening in EPWP where participants are grouped in a project for the environment and culture sector projects such as the multipurpose center. While programs promising micro-enterprise as a path from poverty are often oversold (Goldstein, 2001:10), the mystique of Gramin bank type programs as a road out of poverty offer culturally compatible strategies that build on a groups strengths. The EPWP also encourages and supports cooperatives. There is a unit called Enterprise development which assists in the improvement of the group's well-being. Some participants are even identified and placed at FET colleges (NDPW, 2009:35 – 38).

2.5.3 Poverty caused by economic, political, and social distortions or discrimination

This is a progressive social theory. Theorists in this tradition look not to the individual as a source of poverty, but to the economic, political, and social system which causes people to have limited opportunities and resources with which to achieve income and well-being. Research and theories in this tradition attempt to redress the problem noted by Rank, Yoon and Hirschl (2003:4) that; “poverty researchers have in effect focused on who loses out at the economic game, rather than addressing the fact that the game produces losers in the first place.”

The 19th century social intellectuals developed a full attack on the individual theory of poverty by exploring how social and economic systems overrode and created individual poverty situations. Radical thinkers argued that the system was flawed and should be radically transformed. Much of the literature on poverty now suggests that the economic system is structured in such a way that poor people fall behind regardless of how competent they may be. Partly the problem is the fact that minimum wages do not allow single mothers or their families to be economically self-sufficient (Jencks, 1996:72). Thus, the EPWP identified them as one of the target groups for participation. The problem of the working poor is increasingly seen as a wage problem linked to structural barriers preventing poor families from getting better jobs, complicated by limited numbers of jobs near workers and lack of growth in sectors supporting lower skilled jobs (Tobin, 1994:10). Hence, the EPWP is encouraging local unemployed labours. Interestingly research is showing that the availability of jobs to low income people is about the same as it has been, but wages

workers can expect from these jobs have fallen. Respondents in this study highlighted insufficient funds which lead to low daily wage rate on participants. SA is protecting the EPWP minimum wage rate through the Ministerial Determination annually. Elimination of structural barriers to better jobs through education and training have been the focus of extensive manpower training and other programs, generating substantial numbers of successes but also perceived failures. This systemic failure of the schools is thus thought to be the reason poor people have low achievement, poor rates of graduation, and few who pursue higher education (Chubb and Moe, 1996:11).

A parallel barrier exists with the political system in which the interests and participation of the poor is either impossible or is deceptive. Recent research has confirmed the linkage between wealth and power, and has shown how poor people are less involved in political discussions, their interests are more vulnerable in the political process, and they are excluded at many levels. Coupled with racial discrimination, poor people lack influence in the political system that they might use to mobilise economic benefits and justice (Bradshaw, 2006:17).

2.5.3.1 Anti-poverty programs from a structure of poverty perspective

Community participation is encouraged in PWPs. The public private partnership (PPP) cannot be divorced from the PWPs. If the problem of poverty is in the system rather than in the poor themselves, a community development response must be to change the system.

The system can be changed at three levels. From a grassroots level, social movements can exert pressures on vulnerable parts of the system to force desired change. Although most studies show a decline in support for poor people's social action, Rank (2004:189 - 191) argues that change could be mobilised to support better jobs for the poor and a more effective system since as the subtitle of his book states, "American poverty affects us all". For example, public pressure including unionisation can increase wages and gain employment for persons systematically excluded. Civil rights movements have had a strong impact on breaking down formal barriers, as has the woman's movement. Community organising in the Alinsky (1945) tradition has helped reduce poverty across the country (Rank, 2004:233). The ANC-led Government introduced the EPWP in SA which is politically driven. Respondents in this study and the EPWP reporting system have shown in the participant

recruitment strategy that some participants are identified by ward councillors etc. Therefore political buy-in is important.

A second strategy within community development for changing the system involves creating and developing alternative institutions which have access, openness, innovation, and a willingness to help the poor gain well-being. This strategy is at the cornerstone of most community development corporations which aim to provide alternative businesses, housing, schooling, and programs. In addition, business strategies such as employee ownership or networks of minority or women's businesses also work. Community owned businesses such as community banks also provide alternative structures. Finally, change can occur through the policy process (Page and Simmons, 2000:12). As mentioned above, the EPWP within the Enterprise development unit is also placing and supporting participants at FET colleges and forming cooperatives.

2.5.4 Poverty caused by geographical disparities

Rural poverty, ghetto poverty, urban disinvestment, Southern poverty, third-world poverty, and other framings of the problem represent a spatial characterisation of poverty that exists separate from other theories. This theory highlights that people, institutions, and cultures in certain areas lack the objective resources needed to generate well-being and income, and that they lack the power to claim redistribution. As Shaw (1996:29) points out the space is not a backdrop for capitalism, but rather is restructured by it and contributes to the system's survival. The geography of poverty is a spatial expression of the capitalist system.

In SA poverty is most intense in rural areas than in urban areas. To address that, the implementation of the EPWP is structured in such a way that it supports all projects in the rural areas. Each public body, apart from rural municipalities must meet a minimum eligibility threshold before they can start accessing the incentive grants, see details in chapter 3. This will also culminate the migration of rural areas dwellers to urban areas due to unemployment and poverty. In a thorough review of the literature on rural poverty, Weber and Jensen (2004:8) note that most literature finds a rural differential in poverty, but that the spatial effect is not as clearly isolated from individual effects as needed for confidence.

As Hansen (1970:13) points out, rural areas are often the last stop of technologies; low wages and competitive pricing dominate production. The lack of infrastructure that allows development of human resources limits economic activity that might use

these resources. Investors usually do not invest in disadvantage areas, therefore, it was best for the EPWP to prefer local labour and cater for rural municipalities when setting thresholds for incentives. Rural poverty is similarly attributable to selective out migration. Gauteng respondents in this study specified that participants in urban areas demand high stipend as compared to participants in rural areas. Population density is another part of a growing body of theory on spatial variables in social science using the tools of GIS to track spatial dynamics of opportunity and poverty (Bradshaw *et al.*, 2003:13). The EPWP reporting system has got ability to geo reference projects.

2.5.4.1 Anti-poverty programs from a geography of poverty perspective

The geographical theory directs community developers to look at places and the processes by which they can become self-sustaining. Interestingly, a few disadvantaged communities around the world are finding their way out of poverty and as such show that it can be done. However, as Morrill and Wohlenberg (1971:119 - 120) point out, it is hard. Some who view regional poverty analysis made proposals in the 1970s to encourage out migration under the premises that it would reduce poverty to have people in a place where there was a growing economy. Instead, the rural poor people moving to the city became urban poor, with much the same hopeless situation. It has been said that much of urban poverty is actually displaced rural poverty.

It has been observed by respondents that some of the Gauteng participants in EPWP migrated from rural areas. The community development approach through community visioning, planning, and especially community investment is central to efforts to turn around distressed areas and places where poverty is rampant. Policy makers in South Africa understand the community and their efforts often leverage community assets and integrate economic development.

2.5.5 Poverty caused by cumulative and cyclical interdependencies

The previous four theories have demonstrated the complexity of the sources of poverty and the variety of strategies to address it. Bradshaw (2006:14) argues that this theory of poverty is most complex and to some degree builds on components of each of the other theories that look at the individual and their community with set of problems that make any effective response nearly impossible. The cyclical explanation explicitly looks at individual situations and community resources as mutually dependent, with a faltering economy, for example, creating individuals who

lack resources to participate in the economy, which makes economic survival even harder for the community since people pay fewer taxes.

Myrdal (1957:23) notes that personal and community well-being are closely linked in a cascade of negative consequences, and that closure of a factory or other crisis can lead to a cascade of personal and community problems including migration of people from a community. A third level of the cycle of poverty is the perspective that individual lack of jobs and income leads to deteriorating self-confidence, weak motivation, and depression.

2.5.5.1 Anti-poverty programs from a cycle of poverty perspective

The complexity of the cycle of poverty means that solutions need to be equally complex. Project managers of project implementers are specialists in appreciating the interdependence of different parts of the community and their solution are to try to address issues like poverty from a multifaceted approach. Steps taken to break the cycle of poverty are necessarily complex, but they are embedded in some of the most successful anti-poverty programs from the community development corporations, local neighbourhood revitalisation projects, and other efforts linking grass roots problem solving with diversified organisational management (Fung, 2004:15).

Kretzman and McKnight (1993:1-11) argue that asset mapping is a way to identify whatever strengths the community has and to use them to solve problems in the most effective way rather than to spend time identifying problems for which there may not be adequate answers. Only active empowered community participation with effective and efficient broader programmes will be able to breach the gap of unemployment and poverty. The EPWP is encouraging active community participation because it is for the community and with the community.

2.6 The role of EPWP in South Africa

The EPWP draw its mandate from the agreements entered into by Government and its social partners in a growth and development summit (GDS) convened in 2003 and later adopted by Cabinet in November 2003. The EPWP is viewed as an instrument for creating a high volume of employment in the short-term in a context of chronic unemployment which maybe a consequence of acute social and political struggles (Clegg, 2003:2). The EPWP can be described as the unemployment and poverty reduction strategy aimed at improving efficiently and effectively service delivery by transferring skills to participants whilst gaining work experience on-the-job training

and skills using goods and services funding. According to Adato (2002:1- 36), the EPWP intervenes for the marginalised group into the formal labour market. This influenced emphasis on the target group to be women, youth, and people with disabilities. Though it is still a process in closing the gap between urban and rural disparities but the implementation of EPWP had a positive effect in both urban and rural areas.

The EPWP is implemented across all nine provinces in four EPWP sectors namely; social, environment and culture, infrastructure and non-state sectors. Below three major theories were employed in the discourse of EPWP namely social sector model, conventional building and construction model, and non-conventional building and construction model.

The social sector model argues that the EPWP can be successful if the programmes enhance the social component. This strong social component will succour in addressing issues of poverty, skills, gender migration paths and exit pathways for participants. Once those issues are sorted they will be able to progress from lower level to higher levels of wealth and prosperity. Table 2.1 below elucidates the envisaged types of transformation that a social sector based model of the EPWP can support and sustain if well managed:

Table 2.1: Social sector based model

Inputs	Processes	Outputs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unemployed indigent household / family members, women, youth, aged and disabled participate in EPWP • Training and skills development programme in EPWP. • Poverty and unemployment profiling of district, municipality, ward, households and individuals • Community participation and involvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Screening of participants • Training of participants • Targeting special groups advisory committee • EPWP local assembly meetings/structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exit EPWP with work experience and training of a maximum of 2 years • Exit strategies and pathway options • Employment with a new major employer/contractor • Further education and training • Self-employment • Establishment of enterprise cooperatives • On-going employment with same employer at normal conditions of employment

Mashiri *et al.*, 2009; McCutcheon *et al.*, 2014; NDPW, 2004 and 2009

This model integrates the socio-economic growth and development needs of EPWP intended for relevant participants. The social sector is most implementing the early

childhood development (ECD) and the home community based care (HCBC) programmes. In phase 2, the sector created 68% of work opportunities (WOs) and 43% were full-time equivalent (FTE). The social sector reflects a very good footprint at provincial level than at local level. Its top performers are Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. Ms Pearl Lukwago-Mugerwa from the NDPW stated that since inception in 2000, the cost per FTE has declined from R56 262 to R27 376 and R23 134, with some inconsistencies owing to incomplete reporting. She further highlighted that the social sector incentive grant is too small and spell out the need to revisit the funding model so that the sector can continue to deliver the EPWP. The sector was affected negatively in such a way that in trying to be cost-effective, costs were cut which resulted in contravention of minimum daily wage in terms of the Ministerial Determination (MD) of the EPWP. This also results in non-compliance in terms of reporting EPWP project performance. The mid-term review report indicates that the social sector is unable to attract young people (NDPW, 2011:18). Having identified the challenges, Ms Pearl Lukwago-Mugerwa cited that the social sector proposes greater effort to attract youth into the sector; adoption of a demand-driven approach that is both top-down and bottom-up; monitoring of service delivery impacts; expansion of programmes for massive implementation at local level; and interface between sectors to realise the value chain. She further stated that there has been constant engagement with Treasury for additional funding allocations and with national departments for the provision of oversight for provincial departments. The need for institutionalisation of the EPWP in departments; deliberate ring-fencing of appropriate budgets; and adequate training of workers were also highlighted by the sector (NDPW, 2013:19 - 21). This integrates well with the above social sector model as it will enhance the social sector component in EPWP.

The second model is the conventional building and construction model. This model is based on the importance of economic competitiveness as a guiding principle in carrying out building and construction field. Statistics have shown that on average conventional methods are cheaper and less arduous for workers than what EPWP provides for, and found a lack of competitiveness on labour intensive methods (McCutcheon *et al.*, 2001:17). Whilst EPWP is implemented, quality should not be compromised. Therefore, quality training and control systems, and management across all stakeholders should be put in place as emphasised in the summit resolution. The conventional method is based on classical economic theories and argues in terms of efficiency and economies of scale.

The third and last model is the non-conventional building and construction model. It challenges the philosophy and founding principles behind the conventional EPWP concept. It further challenges the efficiency and effectiveness of the conventional models in addressing poverty, equity and welfare distribution dimensions of technology and machine-based technologies. It was argued that appropriate based labour-based technologies with adequate supervision results in similar outputs but very cost-effective than the advanced building and technology.

The EPWP encourages on local resources such as labour and material. Chapter 3 dwell on the implementation of EPWP in SA. Generating and extending beneficial and non-exploitative opportunities for employment is an enduring way to tackle poverty (FAO, 2004:2). The short-term income-generation needs of poor communities and economic growth in the long-term can be addressed by effectively implementing EPWP. According to NDPW (2003:2-10) EPWP adopted the community-based labour-intensive methods in the provision of basic infrastructure, construction of low-income housing and schools, investment in access roads, community markets etc. ILO (1999:1) and NDPW (2003:2-9) emphasise on employment-intensive where optimal use is made of labour as the predominant resource in infrastructure projects, while ensuring the cost-effectiveness and safe guarding quality.

With regard to skills development, the EPWP provides opportunities beyond the skills acquired on the job to prepare participants for longer-term employment, self-employment or further education and training. For example, youth employed as manual labourers in a labour intensive road projects, may be offered training in unrelated building skill such as bricklaying, if there is a demand for such skills in the labour market. The number of average training days varies from 10 days in the environmental sector to 30 days for those participating in the social activities. As far as possible, all training must result in some type of accreditation certificate (Del Ninno, 2009: 8). However, chapter 3 highlights the EPWP key indicators which specify that the maximum days for a participant in EPWP is 23 days per month including training. McCord *et al* (2007: 5) argues that the skills transferred during participants' brief period of EPWP employment are not consistent with the skills required in the economy, since the limited period of training included in most EPWP employment opportunities, prohibits the acquisition of the artisanal and other skills in short supply.

McCord (2004:61) found that neither programme significantly reduced headcount poverty. Training, skills transfer and experience were not sufficient to impact on labour market performance. Impacts were less significant in Limpopo and were not expected to have a sustained impact.

2.7 EPWP Implementation process

Since 2010, the NDPW has hosted three (3) EPWP Summits namely Durban ICC in 2010, Midrand Gallagher estate in 2011 and Irene St George hotel in 2012. The purpose was to raise awareness, increase stakeholders' participation and foster exchange of information through knowledge sharing and participative involvement. The EPWP phase 2 targets were emphasised in the 2010 summit to be achieved by provincial, municipalities and national government departments by 2014. Municipalities were expected to sign protocol agreements which were introduced at the 1st EPWP summit in 2010 covering the period 2009/10 – 2014/15. The key aims of the protocols are to ensure effective inter-governmental relations and cooperation amongst the three spheres of Government in relation to EPWP. Table 2.2 below reflects the number of municipalities per province that were monitored protocols and sent to Councils:

Table 2.2: Number of Municipalities monitoring protocols

Province	Number of Municipalities monitoring protocols & sending it to Councils
EC	45 out 45
FS	24 out of 24
GP	12 out 12
KZN	61 out 61
LP	30 out 30
MP	14 out 21
NC	25 out 32
NW	23 out 23
WC	30 out 30
TOTAL	264

(NDPW, 2012)

The progress made in signing of protocols for EPWP was noted. The highlighted ones are from the four (4) selected provinces. To ensure and accelerate the implementation of the EPWP, synergy, coordination, and a unified approach the following resolutions were taken at the 2nd summit:

- All protocols should be signed by the 30th June 2015;
- Progress on implementation of protocols agreements should be monitored and sent to municipal councils on a quarterly basis. The NDPW to provide technical support in that regard;

- The NDPW to provide intensified, focused technical support across all EPWP sectors to optimise the implementation of EPWP;
- All EPWP municipal policies should be endorsed by 30th June 2015;
- All spheres of government should ensure that there is dedicated capacity to coordinate and implement EPWP. Progress made in appointing dedicated officials by municipalities at appropriate level of seniority for EPWP was noted in the summit;
- The Summit noted the progress made by three provinces in establishing District forums, and encouraged all other provinces to establish District Forums that will meet quarterly;
- Municipalities should ensure that their IDPs prioritise the implementation of EPWP project methodology;
- The principles of EPWP phase 3 should be applied during the implementation of EPWP projects;
- The National Department of Public Works and all lead sector departments should continue to provide technical support to all spheres of government to promote the implementation of the EPWP in the use of labour-intensive methods, promotion of community involvement, sustainable livelihoods, and convergence;
- At a very practical level, the DPW will continue to develop and make available implementation manuals on EPWP (DPW, 2011: 2);
- There must be reviewal of the integrated incentive models;
- All public bodies should continue to ensure that there is proper record management for EPWP projects;
- The NDPW committed the development of an appropriate management information system (MIS) for EPWP phase 3 by 30th June 2015;
- The concept of sustainable livelihoods should be promoted; The NDPW and lead sector departments were encouraged to continue liaising with relevant stakeholders to source funding for training. Quality training provided to EPWP participants was overemphasised. Lead sector departments should encourage public bodies to set aside part of their budgets to fund training of participants on their projects; and
- The National Department of Public Works will continue to strengthen the coordination between municipalities, NPOs and implementing agents so as to promote the implementation of the Non-State Sector (NDPW, 2012)

The aforementioned resolutions are necessary seamless approach in the implementation of the EPWP across three spheres of government. The NDPW is

providing technical support across spheres however, respondents in this study cited that there is still insufficient technical support especially in the environment and culture and social sectors.

The NDPW has developed the EPWP reporting system which is currently used by all reporting bodies. In year 5 (1 Apr 2013 – 31 March 2014) of EPWP, out of 278 municipalities across nine provinces only 273 reported projects in the NDPW. To be precise as per this research, 86 municipalities reported from the four (4) identified provinces which are Gauteng – 12 created 75 967 WOs, Limpopo – 30 with 56 393 WOs, Mpumalanga – 21 with 29 309 WOs, and North West – 23 with 36 727 WOs (DPW, 2012:6 - 7). Funders are incentivised in EPWP. The incentive grant process is elaborated in chapter 3 of this thesis.

The NDPW has developed the EPWP policies and implementation framework. The main objective of the policy framework is to guide implementers and coordinators in the implementation of the EPWP. Administrators and political leadership should be committed in order to realise the impacts. International best practices are elaborated below.

2.8 EPWP performance in SA

2.8.1 Gauteng Province

The Province is active in all four EPWP sectors. In 2002, the Province implemented the Klipspruit River Clean-up under the environment and culture sector programme. This was a combined venture in-between the Gauteng Department of Agriculture, Conservation and Environmental Affairs (GDACE) and the Johannesburg Development Agency (JDA), with the main funding provided by the DEAT (NDPW, 2009:129). This project benefitted people living in Soweto by creating both a pristine slice of nature and many job and training opportunities. This project was incorporated into the EPWP for participants to acquire skills and practical experience that would assist them in finding job opportunities. This is in line with EPWP for making the unemployed more employable.

In 2009, the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) expanded its programme and introduced the extra school support programme (ESSP). This subprogramme is supporting all rural schools in all Gauteng districts by providing safety and security, homework assistants, and sports. Participants are contracted on an annual basis. More than 5 000 WOs were created since the onset of the programme (NDPW,

2012:6). Challenges observed in this programme are low rate of reporting compliant projects which is currently improving, high rate of turn-over and lack of proper hand over to new system users for reporting.

2.8.2 Limpopo Province

The EPWP was piloted in Limpopo. The key programme of the Limpopo Roads Agency is the Gundo Lashu project. It focuses on constructing access roads using labour-intensive methods. The agency increased access to villages through more than 57 labour intensive projects, to the value of more than R230 million. This project created approximately 5 000 job opportunities. The agency created a Contractor Development division which provided emerging contractors with social and technical skills to manage the projects. Through this programme, 24 contractors and six consulting firms received training and skill transferred (NDPW, 2009:126).

2.8.3 Mpumalanga Province

The province participated in all four EPWP sectors. The Nkangala District Municipality (NDM) in Mpumalanga is pioneering the implementation of EPWP learnerships. In June 2004, the NDM took a resolution to implement a total of 200 learnerships and is currently implementing well. The municipality is credited as being the public entity with the most learnership which is above 190. In 2009, R93 million was spent for 157 projects under the "Forging the Way" programme. This programme created 2 400 person days of work, and workers have accessed about 1 000 days of training. The NDM budget provides for three projects per learner contracting company as workplace experience in order to correlate theory into practical. In support of this strategy, the NDM has trained its officials to achieve NQF Level 5 on labour-intensive construction. To fast track the process, a Project Management Unit (PMU) was established in November 2004. The purpose is to manage and be responsible for MIG-funded projects and EPWP implementation.

2.8.4 North West Province

In the first phase of EPWP, the North West (NW) social sector performed well by producing almost half the WOs and 75% of the FTEs. The infrastructure sector only created 36% of WOs and 21% of the FTEs of which municipalities were extremely under-performing. The main reasons for poor performance includes the lack of capacity in government and amongst professional service providers who are expected to coach, advice, design, manage and specify projects to be technically and

economically feasible; lack of clarity regarding the key objective of employment creation; and insufficient commitment amongst some officials. Despite the above reflected under-performance, the NW Provincial Government created 55 830 jobs during the 2011/12 financial year through the EPWP. According to the EPWP phase 2 (2009 – 2014) 4th quarter report for the past financial year tabled by the Executive Council Cluster on Economic and Infrastructure Development, over R6,2 billion was spent across departments on 1 554 projects. In total, the provincial government created 27 289 jobs, national government created 17 855 jobs and local government created 10 686 jobs. The Mahikeng local municipality recently scooped the National Kamoso Award as the leading municipality in the implementation of the EPWP. The highest wage paid for the EPWP in the province was R94 for participants in the infrastructure sector whilst the lowest was R41 in the social sector projects (NWPG, 2012:2).

The infrastructure sector of the EPWP involved the use of labour-intensive construction methods to deliver service in all government-funded infrastructure projects for constructing rural and low-volume roads, municipal pipelines, pavements and storm water drains.

Farm activities took place in the NW under the environment and culture sector. Twenty seven (27) people were trained at Taletso College as farmers and received NQF level 2 Mixed Farming training. In year one (1) the farm in the Modimolla village was functioning well with 29 farmers and 11 permanent staff members. The farm progressed well and employed 30 casual workers. Very high quality crops were yielded in this farm especially in the first year and was R150 000 in 2009 which was retained in the Cooperative. Due to this farm, the Mafikeng-Vryburg road was upgraded and maintained. Resources used such as labour and material were local as per the EPWP principles and guidelines. In 2005, the project was awarded the Premiers' Golden award for the most outstanding project in the North West.

The social sector in the North West Province is implemented by the Departments of Education, Health and Social Development. The sector focuses on HCBC and ECD but broadens programmes and included Community Counselor Project (CCP), School nutrition programme (SNP), High transmission area programme (HTAP) etc. The School nutrition programme (SNP) is advocated by the DOE. It is implemented within communities and mobilise their involvement through the securing of food within the schools. Food handlers are paid a stipend of R500 per month at a ratio of 1:200 learners. The target was to have 2915 by 2010/11 and was implemented well

(NWPG, 2012:2). The programme brought in positive impacts on both the community and participants. All social sector programme and sub-programme involves the community actively. The social sector need to clarify roles of stakeholders involved in the EPWP, strengthen NPOs and Municipalities.

In order to leverage the above state of affairs on the EPWP, the executive committee in the NW decided that all heads of department (HODS) must prioritise the programme to meet its targets. Consequently, all senior managers must sign performance agreements that integrate EPWP implementation and success (NWPG, 2012:2). In order to improve the number and labour intensity of projects, consulting engineers are required to design more labour-intensive projects and to be capacitated in the labour-intensive construction approach. The Province should focus on maintenance programme in order to increase the duration of employment. Departmental officials should also be trained more on the EPWP, clarity on service delivery models per sector and the labour-intensive strategies. Generally, since the NW Province did not perform well in phase 1, in order to mend insufficient commitment amongst some officials and meet its targets, the Province require strong political buy-in and support, and committed senior administrative leadership. Chapter 3 reflects on the EPWP targets and performances per province.

The above case studies and discussion is in line with SA's Millennium Development Goals of halving unemployment by 2014 (Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009:19). Respondents highlighted majority of challenges raised above and recommendations. There are factors that necessitated the EPWP and are discussed below.

2.9 Factors that necessitated the EPWP

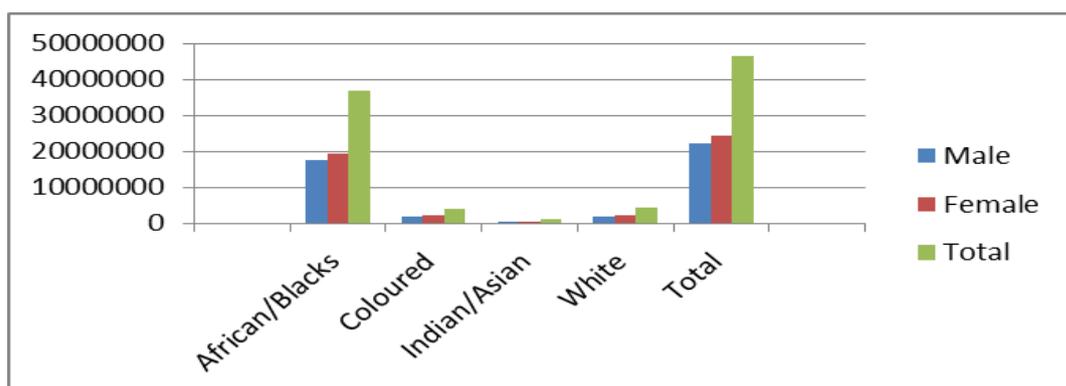
2.9.1 Population in South Africa

It was estimated by the Population Reference Bureau (PRB) that 50% of the population lived in urban areas in 2001. The capital city, Pretoria, had a population of 1,475,000 in that year. The largest city, the commercial and industrial center of Johannesburg, had a metropolitan population of 2,412,000; the legislative capital, Cape Town, had 2,727,000. Other major cities include East Rand, 2,021,000; Durban, 1,379,000; West Rand, 1,297,000; Port Elizabeth, 1,226,000; and Sasolburg, 1,259,000. According to the United Nations, the urban population growth rate for 2000 – 2005 was 1.3%. However, more than a third of the people live on only 4% of the land area (Digital, [No date]).

The 2003 mid-year population for South Africa was estimated at 46.4 million. Africans were in the majority (nearly 36.9 million). Fifty-two percent (approximately 24.3 million) of the population was female. The provincial estimates show that KwaZulu-Natal has the largest share of the population 21 percent (%) followed by Gauteng (20%) and the Eastern Cape (14%). The Northern Cape has the smallest share of the population (2%). These estimates have been derived using the 2001 South African census as base population.

Table 2.1: Mid-year population estimates for South Africa by population group, 2003

Race	Male	Female	Total
African/Blacks	17 562 179	19 352 105	36 914 284
Coloured	1 979 934	2 151 162	4 131 096
Indian/Asian	556 278	583 819	1 140 097
White	2 051 917	2 192 429	4 244 346
Total	22 150 308	24 279 515	46 429 823



(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2011)

The population of South Africa in 2003 was also estimated by the United Nations (UN) at 45,026,000, which placed it as number 26 in population among the 193 nations of the world. In that year approximately 5% of the population was over 65 years of age, with another 34% of the population under 15 years of age. There were 96 males for every 100 females in the country in 2003. According to the UN, the annual population growth rate for 2000 – 2005 is 0.59%, with the projected population for the year 2015 at 44,266,000. The population density in 2002 was 36 per sq. km (93 per sq. mi).

The provincial estimates show that since 2003 Gauteng Province had the largest share of the population followed by KwaZulu-Natal and Eastern Cape provinces.

Approximately 10% of South Africa's population lives in Western Cape. Limpopo's population is more than the Western Cape one. Northern Cape has the smallest population. Free State has the second smallest share of the South African population, constituting approximately 6% of the population. Below figures reflect 2011 population estimates by province (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2011).

Table 2.2 Mid-year population estimates by province, 2011

	Population estimates	% of total population
Eastern Cape	6 829 958	13,50
Free State	2 759 644	5,46
Gauteng	11 328 203	22,39
KwaZulu-Natal	10 819 130	21,39
Limpopo	5 554 657	10,98
Mpumalanga	3 657 181	7,23
Northern Cape	1 096 731	2,17
North West	3 253 390	6,43
Western Cape	5 287 863	10,45
Total	50 586 757	100,00



(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2011)

Hereunder figures in table 2.3 reflect 2003 total population in South Africa between the ages of fifteen (15) up to fifty nine (59) years of age irrespective of race. The youth were in the majority as highlighted in red of both males and females (20 394 670). Youth women were leading with 682 710 as compared to total women of 1 275 105. Out of the 28 459 589 million people; 8 064 919 were belonging to the working class and in need of employment opportunities. As mentioned above that approximately 5% of the population was over 65 years of age, with another 34% of the population under 15 years of age.

Table: 2.3 Total Population: 2003

Group Age	TOTAL POPULATION		
	Males	Females	Total
15 - 19	2 594 731	2 668 543	5 263 274
20 - 24	2 156 680	2 235 677	4 392 357
25 - 29	1 979 090	2 121 326	4 100 416
30 - 34	1 633 298	1 788 812	3 422 110
35 - 39	1 492 181	1 724 332	3 216 513
40 - 44	14 867 347	14 867 347	2 794 291
45 - 49	14 867 347	14 867 347	2 241 976
50 - 54	14 867 347	14 867 347	1 779 225
55 - 59	14 867 347	14 867 347	1 249 427
TOTAL	13 592 242	14 867 347	28 459 589

(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2003)

South Africa, Central Statistical Service (2001) estimated the 2011 mid-year population as 50, 59 million. Approximately fifty-two per cent (approximately 26, 07 million) of the population is female. In 2003, females were also estimated at fifty-two per cent 52% of the population. Gauteng with approximately 11, 3 million people (22, 4%) comprises the largest share of the South African population. The second largest population, with approximately 10, 8 million people (21, 4%) is KwaZulu-Natal. Northern Cape remains the province with the smallest share of the South African population of approximately 1, 10 million people (2, 2%). Nearly one-third (31, 3%) of the population is aged younger than 15 years and approximately 7, 7% (3, 9 million) is 60 years or older. Of those younger than 15 years, approximately 23% (3, 66 million) live in KwaZulu-Natal and 19, 4% (3, 07 million) live in Gauteng.

According to South Africa, Central Statistical Service (2004) South African population has grown in 2003 from 46 429 823 million to 50, 59 million in 2011. The Africans are in the majority (40, 21 million) and constitute just more than 79% of the total South African population. The white population is estimated at 4, 57 million, the coloured population at 4, 54 million and the Indian/Asian population at 1, 27 million. Just over fifty-one per cent (26, 07 million) of the population is female. The estimated overall growth rate declined from approximately 1, 33% between 2001 – 2002 to 1,1% for 2010 – 2011. The growth rate for females is lower than that of males. There more the number of people increase in South Africa the more the need for service delivery and employment opportunities increases. In 2003, 34% of the population was younger than 15 years of age as compared to the current 31, 3%. That means some of them are now falling within the youth age group which is 15 – 35 and in need of basic service delivery and employment opportunities. Government had to come up with

medium and short term strategies that will alleviate poverty, unemployment and improve service delivery.

2.9.2 Unemployment in South Africa

Unemployment is said to have risen from 20% to 29% in South Africa between 1994 and 1999. In October 1995 the overall unemployment rate for young women and men in South Africa was 43%. This figure excludes those who were schooling at that point in time, house keepers and those who were permanently unable to work due to various reasons (National Youth Commission, 2000:9). That reflected a crisis in 1996 as the unemployment rate increased. The unemployed population is made up of persons above a specified age who are available to, but did not; furnish the supply of labour for the production of goods and services. When measured for a short reference period, it relates to all persons not in employment who would have accepted a suitable job or started an enterprise during the reference period if the opportunity arose, and who had actively looked for ways to obtain a job or start an enterprise in the near past. The causes of unemployment in South Africa are complex. The growing rates of unemployment are consequences of dynamics on both the supply and demand of the labour market. The unemployment rate, in particular, is widely used as an overall indicator of the current performance of a nation's economy. The unemployment rate can be defined as the number of people actively looking for a job as a percentage of the labour force. The employment rate is regarded as the number of people currently employed divided by the population of working age (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2014).

Adcorp warns that South Africa's skills shortage poses a significant limitation on the country's long-term economic growth potential, with viable economic opportunities often rendered thereby unviable. Adcorp is critical of the uncertainty surrounding the quantum of South Africa's skills shortage, noting that many governmental skills development initiatives are based on an imprecise idea of the extent of skills shortages, not only in particular occupations, but in the economy as a whole. With regards to the marginal 1, 86% increase in employment, the fastest growth was seen in the high-skilled occupations (senior management, professionals, and technicians) and then declining in the low-skilled occupations (elementary and domestic work) (Press Release issued on behalf of: Mandy Jones, Adcorp Holdings and Group Marketing Manager). This is currently observed by having the escalating number of graduates seeking for employment in SA.

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2003) and South Africa, Central Statistical Service (2012:3); the sum of the employed and the unemployed population measured for a short reference period is equivalent to the labour force, also known as the current economically active population. It can be simplified as the number of people employed plus the number of unemployed people seeking for work. Another measure of economically active population relates to the usually active population, which is measured with reference to a long reference period such as a year. It comprises all persons above a specified age whose main activity status as determined in terms of number of weeks or days during a long specified period (such as the preceding 12 months or the preceding calendar year) was employed or unemployed. All these definitions make reference to persons “above a specified age”, also known as the working age population (ILO, 2003:4 and South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2012:5).

In South Africa; people below the age of 35 are regarded as youth, and above 35 years are considered as adults. Even when reporting EPWP projects, people aged in-between 16 - 35 are classified under youth. It has been observed in South Africa that the child headed families have upsurge. The minimum age limit for defining the working age population in South Africa is 16 as amended in the Ministerial Determination from 18. It has been amended to cater for participants to partake in the special public works programme. In South Africa, unemployed persons are individuals who are without a job and actively seeking to work. At a glance it looks like unemployment didn't move much during the recession time. There was a significant increase in the number of vulnerable people who became unemployed. Banerjee *et al* (2008:8) emphasises that due to the structural nature of unemployment it is unlikely to improve in the future without policy interventions.

The EPWP is one of the policy interventions introduced to contribute positively towards government endeavours of reducing the levels of unemployment. Its main objective is to provide income and training to enable people to exit through provision of infrastructure and services. The EPWP uses special employment framework to discern from public service and other formal employment: maximum duration of employment, allowance for lower wages, training entitlement, and without unemployment insurance. The no special budgets: additions to existing budgets and conditional intergovernmental mechanisms and mobilisation for provincial and municipal government to use their own budgets as well:

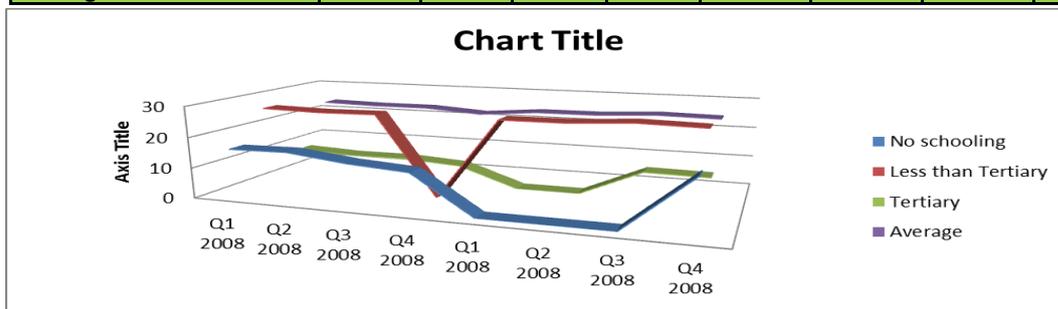
- Employment creation to be mainstreamed in core function of government, not a parallel/ peripheral function;
- Limit establishment of separate/ parallel institutions for implementation; and

- Focus on maintaining productivity and limit risk of make work-programmes (Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009: 6)

Cees Bruggermans as cited in Growth Magazine issue (11:37) mentioned that during the 4th quarter of 2008 to the third quarter of 2009, the national unemployment rate went up by 2.4% points. Below table 2.4 shows unemployment rate by education that it went up by 3.9% points among those with no schooling.

Table 2.4 Unemployment Rate by Education

Education Type	Q1 2008	Q2 2008	Q3 2008	Q4 2008	Q1 2009	Q2 2009	Q3 2009	Q4 2009
No schooling	15.8	16.1	13.9	12.6	15.0	16.0	16.5	17.7
Less than Tertiary	26.4	26	26.3	25.0	26.7	26.8	27.9	27.5
Tertiary	8.6	7.7	7.8	6.6	8.0	8.0	8.9	8.6
Average	23.5	23.1	23.2	21.9	23.5	23.6	24.6	24.3



South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2009)

The most striking impact of the recession was that most people lost their jobs and they did not go searching for work because they lost hope of getting work at a time of recession. According to Bruggermans as cited in Growth Magazine issue (11:38); most people moved from employment into discouragement as discouraged work seekers increased by 39.7% or 464 000 people. It was further stated that the true impact of the recession where the unemployment rate is concerned was observed in the expanded unemployment rate which went up by 5.1 % points to 34.4%. In late 2007, the community works programme (CWP) was piloted as part of the EPWP to complements other components. The CWP is the area-based programme intended to be ongoing and this allows it to target the poorest areas where market-based jobs are unlikely to come any time soon. It is multi-sectoral and contributes to public/community goods and services. The start-up scale is 1,000 participants per site (Philip, 2009: 2). Ward committees are actively involved during work decision making. The CWP as part of the EPWP aims to supplement existing livelihood strategies such as the EPWP without disrupting or displacing them (Phillip, 2009: 3). It is implemented across provinces in all three sectors of EPWP and provisionally located within 'non-state' sector (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2010: 2).

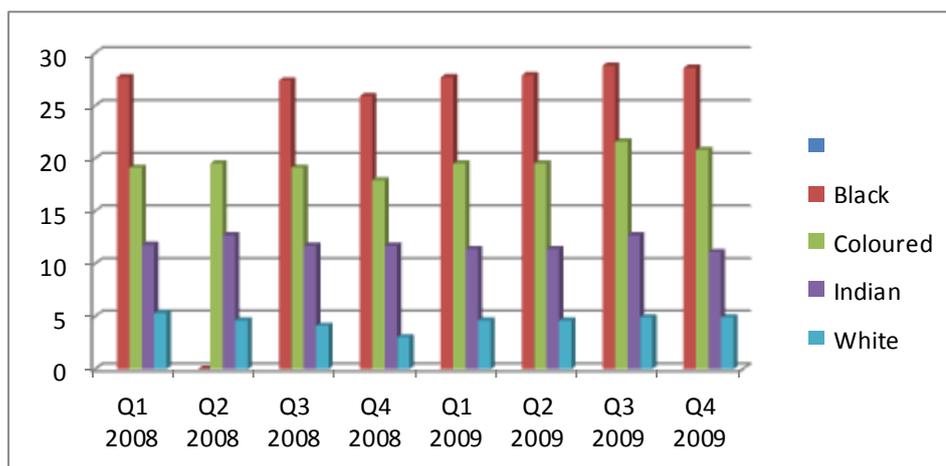
Clarke as cited in Growth Magazine issue (11:28) mentioned that during the final quarter of 2009, the unemployment rate was at 24.3%. According to Stats SA, when those who are discouraged from seeking work are included the rate rises to 34.2%. The unemployment rate in South Africa was last reported at 24.9 % in the second quarter of 2012. This figure was positively influenced by the implementation of the EPWP which commenced in 2004 and CWP in 2008 after the 2007 pilot. Historically, from 2000 until 2012, South Africa unemployment rate averaged 25.51 percent reaching an all-time high of 31.20 % in March of 2003. It was recorded low of 21.90 % in December of 2008 (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2012).

As cited in chapter 3, it is crucial to note that the EPWP's design impact is not detached from the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) related investments. Firstly, its conditional infrastructure grants are meant for basic infrastructure, as well as education and health facilities (MDG 2, 4, 5). Secondly, the early childhood development (ECD) and home community based care (HCBC) activities contribute to health, education and gender equity objectives of the MDG's (MDG 2,3,4,5 & 6). Last but not least, the environmental sector programmes promote environmental sustainability - MDG 7 (Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009: 10).

Blacks whose unemployment rate is the highest in the country were the most affected by the recession. Bruggermans as cited in Growth Magazine issue (11:38) mentioned that the unemployment rate for Coloured and Blacks went up significantly by 3.8% and 2.9% points respectively. Whites and Indians were not as affected as their unemployment rate went up by 1.9 and 1% points respectively. The youth were the most affected when their unemployment rate with the youth ages of 15 to 24 and 25 to 34 went up by 3.5 and 3.7% points respectively, see below table 2.5:

Table 2.5 Unemployment by Population Group

Population Group	Q1 2008	Q2 2008	Q3 2008	Q4 2008	Q1 2009	Q2 2009	Q3 2009	Q4 2009
Black	27.7	27.0	27.4	25.9	27.7	27.9	28.8	28.6
Coloured	19.1	19.5	19.1	17.9	19.5	19.5	21.6	20.8
Indian	11.8	12.7	11.7	11.7	11.4	11.4	12.7	11.1
White	5.3	4.6	4.1	3	4.6	4.6	4.9	4.9



(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2009)

The differentiation after 1999 in terms of unemployment by race and gender reflects the history of economic development in the country. Krige (1998:13) highlighted the fact that, historically, South African local authorities were not sustainable or economically viable and that the level of service delivery in township areas was “appalling”. It is a legacy that must be redressed through transformation of the South African economy that will benefit the marginalised, unemployed, youth, women and people with disabilities, reviewing social policy, the skills development and retention strategies in the labour market. The unemployment rate also went up in other age groups but the increase was not as high as in the youth categories. The pattern of employment and unemployment among youth by geographical area has always been more challenging. All provinces except Gauteng and Western Cape registered high levels of unemployment amongst youth in the country. During 1995 - 2002; the most rural provinces such as Limpopo, Kwa-Zulu Natal and Eastern Cape recorded the highest levels of unemployment in the country (Bhorat and Oosthuizen, 2004).

According to Mbangwa as cited in SDR Vol 3 No 2 (2004:104); the unemployment rate in the Eastern Cape (one of the most dominantly rural province) was 55% in 2003 and during the same year the province set a target of halving this rate by 2014. It was further stated that the fact that there are skills gaps in the country while so many economically-active young people in the country remain unemployed points to some problems that should be attended to in the country’s training and education system. While the country has experienced jobless economic growth, there are new jobs that have emerged which no people can take up due to unavailability of appropriate skills. It has been observed that there is lack of youth information services. Therefore, hereunder, needs for youth in relation to their participation in the economy were identified:

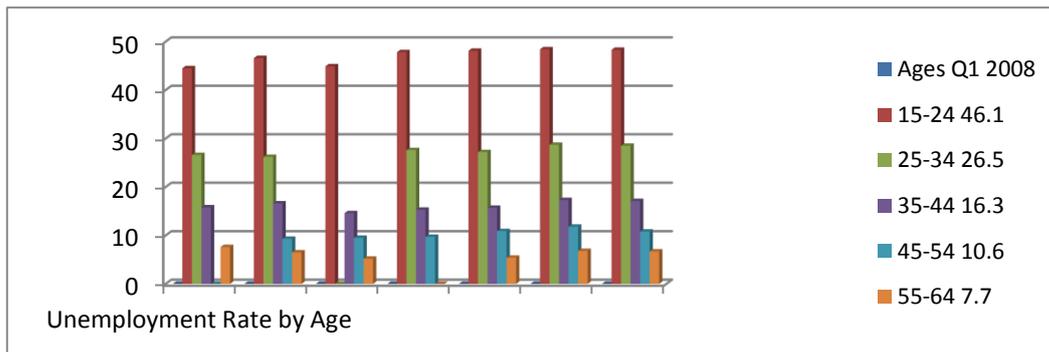
- To be informed in the economy, the labour market, career paths and opportunities including how to prepare for a rapidly changing economy.

- Services that provide immediate and consistent support in addressing the problems and challenges they face; and
- Guidance and advice from knowledgeable people who can communicate effectively with them and assist them in their entry and participation in the economy (National Youth Commission, 2000:12).

The unemployment rate by age in 2008 – 2009 directly negatively impacted on the youth as shown below:

Table 2.6 Unemployment rate by Age

Unemployment Rate by Age								
Ages	Q1 2008	Q2 2008	Q3 2008	Q4 2008	Q1 2009	Q2 2009	Q3 2009	Q4 2009
15-24	46.1	44.5	46.6	44.9	47.8	48.1	48.4	48.3
25-34	26.5	26.6	26.2	25.0	27.6	27.2	28.7	28.5
35-44	16.3	15.8	16.6	14.6	15.3	15.7	17.3	17.1
45-54	10.6	10.0	9.3	9.5	9.7	10.9	11.8	10.8
55-64	7.7	7.6	6.5	5.2	6.0	5.4	6.8	6.7



(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2009)

Clarke as cited in Growth Magazine issue (11:28); mentioned that some 870 000 jobs were lost during 2009, effectively scuppering President Jacob Zuma's pre-election vow to slash the unemployment rate to 14% by 2014. According to South Africa, Central Statistical Service (2008 and 2009), 959 000 net jobs were shed by the economy from quarter 4 of 2008 to quarter 3 of 2009. 464 000 of them were formal sector jobs and 253 000 were informal sector jobs. Agriculture constituted 110 000 and 132 000 were in private households. Agriculture sector suffered the most job losses during the time of recession where 110 000 jobs were lost. It was further stated that employment amongst Black Africans contracted by 8.2% or 801 000 jobs during the recession time as opposed to other population groups contracted by 3.9% for Whites and Coloured respectively and by 3.5% for Indians. Below table 2.7 clarifies exact figures from quarter 4 - 2008 up to quarter 3 – 2009.

Table 2.7 Net Change in Employment by Population Group

Population Group	Q4: 2008 to 3: 2009	
	Net change	Percentage change
Black	-801	-8.2
Coloured	-61	-3.9
Indian	-17	-3.5
White	-81	-3.9
Total	-959	-6.9

(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2008 and 2009)

The youth have long been identified as one of the most vulnerable groups in the labour market. Their vulnerability was more evident in the recession time. The employment for the 15 - 24 age group contracted by 15.1%, followed by the 25 – 34 age group whose employment contracted by 8.7 %. Hereunder table 2.8 as highlighted clearly shows the hardest hit on youth during the recession:

Table 2.8 Net Change in Employment by Age

Age Group	Q4: 2008 to 3: 2009	
	Net change	Percentage change
15-24	-245	-15.1
25-34	-413	-8.7
35-44	-106	-2.9
45-54	-138	-5.2
55-64	-58	-5.0
Total	-959	-6.9

(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2008 and 2009)

According to a report released by the Stats SA, unemployed persons in South Africa decreased to 4470 thousand persons in May of 2012 from 4526 thousand persons in February of 2012. Historically, from 2001 until 2012, South Africa unemployed persons averaged 4273.72 thousand persons reaching an all-time high of 4843.00 thousand persons in February of 2003 and a record low of 3873.00 thousand persons in November of 2008 (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2012).

As mentioned above that the South African unemployment rate was 23, 3% according to the strict (official) definition used and 36, 2% according to the expanded definition applied in 1999. It has also been highlighted that 4.6 million people as per strict definition used and 8.3 million people in terms of the broad or expanded definition applied were unemployed in September 2003. In the first three quarters of 2009; the trade and manufacturing sectors alone shed 312, 000 and 221,000 jobs. The

economy as a whole declines by 1.8% in 2009. The response of the South African government to the global recession has received plaudits internationally for its prompt action in easing monetary policy and providing a fiscal stimulus package to maintain demand and create jobs. The ILO reported that South Africa's above average fiscal stimulus was important to its strong rebound in growth in mid-2009 compared to other G20 countries. The Framework Response of February 2009 planned investment programmes totaling R787 billion over three years. This included support to the EPWP and a new Training Layoff Scheme which subsidises workers' wages for a set period whilst putting them on training programme. Yet, despite strong progress in creating work opportunities leading to job opportunities through other schemes such as the EPWP, the government has fallen short of its ambitious target of half a million new jobs in 2009 (Clarke cited in Growth Magazine issue 11: 28 - 29).

Key lessons learnt from the first phase (2004 – 2009) of the EPWP include:

- Combining work creation and training for exit strategies was extremely difficult, especially at a large scale;
- Technical support and capacity building critical: requires a long term view and strong financial and institutional commitment;
- Better delineation between work in formal public sector versus work in EPWP required as tensions likely to increase as programme gets bigger;
- Performance varied widely between public bodies; and
- Self-targeting (low wages) generally works in reaching target groups

(Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009: 20)

2.10 Poverty in South Africa

There are conflicting views on poverty. May (1998:3) define the poor in line with the RDP White Paper (1994), as the poorest 40% of households, and ultra-poor as the poorest 20% of households. According to these definitions, households who earn less than R352.53 per adult are regarded as poor, and households who earn less than R193.77 per adult are regarded as ultra-poor. Most people claim to understand poverty correctly and that is based on logical argument or scientific research. The concept and definition of poverty in a society is like a mirror image of the ideals of the society in conceptualising and defining what is not acceptable, we are also saying a great deal about the way we would like things to be. It is therefore vital that a concept and definition of poverty as well as being theoretically robust, is appropriate to the society in which it is to be applied (Noble *et al.*, 2004:3). White *et al* (2001:7) argued

that; there is no established theory of poverty, a conceptual framework that allows the identification of the major causal factors in a particular setting. However, the causes maybe classified in various ways; three of which appear particularly helpful. First, they may be classified by social process: economic, political, social/demographic, and situational (for example, remoteness). Second, they may be classified by level: international, national (macro), and household (micro). One set of factors (for instance, poor economic performance) determines the overall level of poverty in a country, and another, such as lack of education, determines which households are poor. Finally, causes may be identified as being either primary or proximate.

Based on the abstract of this study, apartheid era, above and below justifications, SA can be well placed on the first classification which is social process: economic, political, social/demographic, and situational. Magasela (2005a:48) conserved that political and social causes are identified as primary causes of poverty, with a poor environmental base and demographic factors. Low rates on economic growth are a key factor and identified as a proximate cause, an outcome of political systems unfavourable to growth. According to White *et al* (2001:2) Africa as a whole is falling behind the rest of the world in the prevention of poverty, and in some areas the problem is getting worse, but indicators point out what has been reflected below.

The poverty rates of South Africa's nine provinces differ significantly, as do those of the urban and rural areas of the country. In 2005/06 the poverty rates ranged from 24.9% in Gauteng and 28.8% in the Western Cape to 57.6% in the Eastern Cape and 64.6% in Limpopo. The Human Development Report (2003:4 - 6) found out that with the exception of Gauteng and Western Cape, over half the population across provinces lives in poverty. This report further reflects that out of the 21.9 million poor in South Africa, 59% live in the three provinces namely; KwaZulu-Natal, the Eastern Cape and Limpopo. These three provinces are having the highest poverty rates that are also relatively populous. At the time of IES2005, they housed 47.4% of the South African population. It should come as no surprise then that fully 60.1% of poor individuals lived in these three provinces and they were part of the homelands. The incidence of poverty, however, was much higher in the rural areas of South Africa – 59.3% of poor individuals were rural dwellers despite the fact that the rural areas housed well below one-half of the South African population. May (2000: 3 - 6) declares that, about 70% of people living in rural areas are living in poverty, compared to about 30% of people in rural areas.

It is well known that South Africa's apartheid past imparted a strong and stubborn racial character to the country's poverty level and distributions of income and wealth. In 2005/06; more than a decade after democratisation; the incidence of poverty among black and coloured individuals remained dramatically higher than that among whites. There was also a major difference in the poverty rate according to gender: 45% of all female-headed households lived below the "lower-bound" poverty line, compared to only 25% of male-headed households. The 2003 Human Development Report shows that; in 2002, about 50.9% of the poor were females, compared to 45, 9% who were males. May's 1998 report showed that the poverty rate among female-headed households was 60%, while it was 31% among male-headed households. Similarly, Woolard (2002:3) found that a household headed by a resident male has a 28% probability of being poor, whereas a household with a *de jure* female head has a 48% chance of being poor, and a household with a *de facto* female head (because the nominal male head is absent) has a 53% chance of being poor.

Poverty and unemployment are also closely related in South Africa. According to Woolard (2002:5), the unemployment rate among those from poor households is 52%, in comparison with an overall national rate of 29%. In addition, labour force participation is lower in poor than non-poor households. More than half of the working-age poor (or about 5 million adults) are outside of the labour market. As a result, the percentage of working age individuals from households below the poverty line who are actually working is significantly lower than the average. Only 24% of poor adults (about 2 million people) are employed, compared with 49% (or 8 million) from non-poor households. The government of SA had to develop PWPs that will alleviate unemployment, poverty and lack of skills. The reflected challenges on age, gender and youth acted as a guideline on where the focus supposed to be most (Burns, 2010:1 - 3).

The incidence of poverty generally increased with the age of the head of the household. The only exception is the group of households headed by 15-to-24 year olds; an indication of the extent of youth unemployment in South Africa. The relatively high poverty rates among households headed by individuals aged 65 and older reflected the clustering of the destitute around the recipients of state old-aged grants. Living conditions and access to services are areas in which considerable disparities also exist; the lack of access to services experienced by the poor often contributes to the difficulty entailed in moving out of a state of poverty. A large proportion of the poorest households continue to live in informal and traditional dwellings. South Africa

has an exceptionally well-developed system of social assistance grants and social assistance expanded dramatically in recent years: government spending on such grants increased from 1.9% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2000/01 to an estimated 3.3% in 2007/08, while the number of beneficiaries increased from 3 million to an estimated 12.4 million. (Armstrong *et al.*, 2009)

Whiteford and Van Seventer (1999) found that, in 1996, approximately 67% of children in the age groups 0 - 5 years and 6 - 15 years were living in households earning less than the minimum living level (MLL). Similarly, Woolard (2002:3 - 5) whose analysis was based on the 1999 October household survey, found that almost 10 million (58%) children are poor (using a relative poverty line, which defines the poorest 40% of households as poor). There is a very strong correlation between the level of education and the standard of living in South Africa. According to Woolard (2002:3), in 1998, 58% of adults with no education were poor; 53% of adults with less than seven years of education were poor; 34% of adults with incomplete secondary schooling were poor; 15% of adults who had completed secondary school were poor; and only 5% of adults with tertiary education were poor. Poverty and demographics are linked at both the macroeconomic and microeconomic levels.

2.11 Poverty reduction policies

The RDP, CWP and the EPWP are amongst the policies introduced and implemented to alleviate poverty in SA. There are various conceptualisations of poverty, and how it is understood and measured can influence the choice of policy responses. Poverty-reduction policies must be realistic about what is feasible, and more specifically about identifying the limitations on what can be achieved through the state.

The EPWP is characterised by short-term employment, labour intensification of infrastructure provision, government employment programmes, and skills development. Furthermore, the work conditions during work experience are governed by the Code of Good Practice for Special Public Works Programmes (SPWP). In order to facilitate greater employability on the EPWP, the employers may set rates of pay locally at self-targeting, to avoid attracting workers away from more permanent employment. The employers' obligation to UIF payments is also reduced. Employers make task-based payments for labour intensive works (DPW, 2004: 15).

The EPWP alleviates poverty, unemployment and inequality. Chapter 3 elaborate on the number of work opportunities (WOs) created and cited that employers are advised to include daily wage rate in the contracts of EPWP participants.

2.12 Sustainability

The word sustainability is derived from the Latin *sustinere*; *that is tenere* i to hold; and *sub* indicates up. Sustain can mean maintain, support, or endure. Sustainability implies responsible and proactive decision-making and innovation that minimise negative impact and maintains balance between ecological resilience, economic prosperity, political justice and cultural vibrancy to ensure a desirable planet for all species now and in the future. It further insinuates to hold up. Blackburn (2007:5); perceive sustainability or sustainable development as a concept of growing popularity aimed at producing long term global well-being through the wise use and management of economic and natural resources, and through respect for people and other living things. On one account, sustainability concerns the specification of a set of actions to be taken by present persons that will not diminish the prospects of future persons to enjoy levels of consumption, wealth, utility, or welfare comparable to those enjoyed by present persons. In 1987 the World Commission on Environment and Development Report was published after a four year study period. The Commission defined sustainability as the development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Walker (2007:22) states that it is still the most frequently quoted definition. Wackernagel (2000:34) defines it as living well within the limits of nature. Blackburn (2007:4) states that '...the scores of definitions of sustainability have reflected a common theme about its meaning'. He uses the theme to develop a meaning for sustainability in his 'Sustainability Handbook' and '...call(s) this meaning the "2Rs," which stand for:

- Resources: the wise use and management of economic and natural resources; and
- Respect: respect for people and other living things.

Blackburn (2007:4 - 5) states that; the general consensus is that we should do what we can to protect ourselves and the environment for the present and the future. Some firms, companies and even individuals see sustainability as a burden rather than for the benefits that a sustainable approach can achieve. This thesis focuses on the benefits for organisations which encompasses project managers, who are likely to be either working within the organisation or on behalf of another organisation having being contracted to do so. Sustainable development consists of balancing local and global efforts to meet basic human needs without destroying or degrading the natural environment. While the United Nations Millennium Declaration identified principles and treaties on sustainable development, including economic development, social

development and environmental protection it continued using three domains: economics, environment and social sustainability.

- **Economic dimension**

Sustainability interfaces with economics through the social and ecological consequences of economic activity. At present, the average per capita consumption of people in the developing world is sustainable but population numbers are increasing and individuals are aspiring to high-consumption western lifestyles. The developed world population is only increasing slightly but consumption levels are unsustainable. The challenge for sustainability is to curb and manage western consumption while raising the standard of living of the developing world without increasing its resource use and environmental impact. This must be done by using strategies and technology that break the link between, on the one hand, economic growth and on the other, environmental damage and resource depletion (Daly, 1996).

A recent UNEP report proposes a green economy defined as one that improves human well-being and social equity, while significantly reducing environmental risks and ecological scarcities; it does not favour one political perspective over another but works to minimise excessive depletion of natural capital. Most of the environment and culture sector projects are from the greening economy. The report makes three key findings that; greening not only generates increases in wealth, in particular a gain in ecological commons or natural capital, but also (over a period of six years) produces a higher rate of Growth Development Product (GDP) growth; that there is an inextricable link between poverty eradication and better maintenance and conservation of the ecological commons, arising from the benefit flows from natural capital that are received directly by the poor; in the transition to a green economy, new jobs are created, which in time exceed the losses in “brown economy” jobs. However, there is a period of job losses in transition, which requires investment in re-skilling and re-educating the workforce.

2.12.1 Decoupling environmental degradation and economic growth

Historically there has been a close correlation between economic growth and environmental degradation as communities grow, so the environment declines. This trend is clearly demonstrated on graphs of human population numbers, economic growth, and environmental indicators. Unsustainable economic growth has been starkly compared to the malignant growth of a cancer because it eats away at the Earth's ecosystem services which are its life-support system. There is concern that,

unless resource use is checked, modern global civilisation will follow the path of ancient civilizations that collapsed through overexploitation of their resource base. While conventional economics is concerned largely with economic growth and the efficient allocation of resources, ecological economics has the explicit goal of sustainable scale (rather than continual growth), fair distribution and efficient allocation, in that order. The World Business Council for Sustainable Development states that "business cannot succeed in societies that fail". Same applies to South Africa, EPWP implementing bodies (institutions) must be able to sustain their economic growth in order to be able to create and fund EPWP projects that will realise sustainable WOs and FTEs (International Resource Panel Report, 2011).

In economic and environmental fields, the term decoupling is becoming increasingly used in the context of economic production and environmental quality. When used in this way, it refers to the ability of an economy to grow without incurring corresponding increases in environmental pressure. Ecological economics includes the study of societal metabolism, the throughput of resources that enter and exit the economic system in relation to environmental quality. An economy that is able to sustain GDP growth without having a negative impact on the environment is said to be decoupled. Exactly how, if, or to what extent this can be achieved is a subject of much debate. In 2011 the International Resource Panel, hosted by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), warned that by 2050 the human race could be devouring 140 billion tons of minerals, ores, fossil fuels and biomass per year three times its current rate of consumption unless nations can make serious attempts at decoupling. The report noted that citizens of developed countries consume an average of 16 tons of those four key resources per capita per annum (ranging up to 40 or more tons per person in some developed countries). By comparison, the average person in India today consumes four tons per year. Sustainability studies analyse ways to reduce resource intensity (the amount of resource (e.g. water, energy, or materials) needed for the production, consumption and disposal of a unit of good or service) whether this be achieved from improved economic management, product design, or development of new technology (United Nations Environmental Program, 2011:1 - 4).

There are conflicting views whether improvements in technological efficiency and innovation will enable a complete decoupling of economic growth from environmental degradation. On the one hand, it has been claimed repeatedly by efficiency experts that resource use intensity (i.e., energy and materials use per unit GDP) could in principle be reduced by at least four or five-fold, thereby allowing for continued economic growth without increasing resource depletion and associated pollution. On

the other hand, an extensive historical analysis of technological efficiency improvements has conclusively shown that improvements in the efficiency of the use of energy and materials were almost always outpaced by economic growth, in large part because of the rebound effect (conservation) or Jevons Paradox resulting in a net increase in resource use and associated pollution. Furthermore, there are inherent thermodynamic (i.e., second law of thermodynamics) and practical limits to all efficiency improvements. For example, there are certain minimum unavoidable material requirements for growing food, and there are limits to making automobiles, houses, furniture, and other products lighter and thinner without the risk of losing their necessary functions. Since it is both theoretically and practically impossible to increase resource use efficiencies indefinitely, it is equally impossible to have continued and infinite economic growth without a concomitant increase in resource depletion and environmental pollution, i.e., economic growth and resource depletion can be decoupled to some degree over the short run but not the long run. Consequently, long-term sustainability requires the transition to a steady state economy in which total GDP remains more or less constant, as has been advocated for decades by Herman Daly and others in the ecological economics community (Ruffing, 2007:211 – 222).

2.12.2 Financial Sustainability

There are no extra funds allocated separately for the implementation of the EPWP. Employers should use their funds allocated for goods and services. In terms of financing, the EPWP involves the large scale reorientation of the large budgets so that government expenditure results in more work opportunities (WOs) in the short to medium term (DPW, 2005:24). The EPWP is thus a decentralised programme, relying on the contribution of national, provincial and local government (Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009:3). The example of sustainable practices in poverty alleviation is the use of exported recycled materials from developed to developing countries, such as Bridges to Prosperity's use of wire rope from shipping container gantry cranes to act as the structural wire rope for footbridges that cross rivers in poor rural areas in Asia and Africa (United Nations Environmental Program, 2011:1 - 4).

In South Africa, recycling through EPWP environment and culture (E&C) sector is used to sustain income in a form of waste either wire, plastics, tins, steel, papers, boxes, glasses etc. The 2011 National Waste Information Baseline reported that 57 percent of all papers were recovered. Likewise, the recovery rate for metals was 80 percent. It was further reported that 35 percent of organic waste, 32 percent of glass

and 18 percent of plastic was recycled. South Africa generated approximately 108 million tons of waste in 2011. 98 million tons was disposed of in landfill and 10 percent of all waste generated was recycled. The Government has set ambitious targets on waste management to be delivered by 2016 (DEA, 2011: 3 - 7). These waste service delivery and recycling created 69, 000 new jobs, 2, 600 additional SMMEs and cooperatives in which the EPWP is encouraging. Waste management is the responsibility of local government (DEA, 2011:5 - 9).

2.13 Population

According to the 2008 Revision of the official United Nations population estimates and projections, the world population is projected to reach 7 billion early in 2012, up from the current 6.9 billion (May,2009), to exceed 9 billion people by 2050. Most of the increase will be in developing countries whose population is projected to rise from 5.6 billion in 2009 to 7.9 billion in 2050. This increase will be distributed among the population aged 15 – 59 (1.2 billion) and 60 or over (1.1 billion) because the number of children under age 15 in developing countries is predicted to decrease. In contrast, the population of the more developed regions is expected to undergo only slight increase from 1.23 billion to 1.28 billion, and this would have declined to 1.15 billion but for a projected net migration from developing to developed countries, which is expected to average 2.4 million persons annually from 2009 to 2050. Long-term estimates in 2004 of global population suggest a peak at around 2070 of nine to ten billion people, and then a slow decrease to 8.4 billion by 2100. Emerging economies like those of China and India aspire to the living standards of the Western world as does the non-industrialized world in general. It is the combination of population increase in the developing world and unsustainable consumption levels in the developed world that poses a stark challenge to sustainability (U.S.Census Bureau, 2011)

On the 25th of January 2002 the Government Gazette (No. 23045) of South Africa published the following:

- *No R63 Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997;*
- *Ministerial Determination: Special Public Works Programmes;*
- *No R64 Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997*
- *Code of Good Practice for Employment; and*
- *Conditions of Work for Special Public Works Programmes.*

Full details are found in the Gazette. Below are the few highlights of the principal features:

In the Ministerial Determination (R63), *inter alia*, it was stated:

“Special public works programme” means a programme to provide public assets through a short-term, non-permanent, labour-intensive programme initiated by government and funded from public resources...

The Schedule “Code of Good Practice” (R64) included, *inter alia*:

Reducing unemployment is one of the greatest challenges facing South Africa. Government has undertaken a number of initiatives to address unemployment and poverty, including the promotion of labour-intensive Special Public Works Programme (SPWP). A SPWP is a short-term, non-permanent; labour-intensive programme initiated by government and funded either fully or partially, from public resources to create a public asset.

Another crucial piece of legislation was enacted in 2002: Division of Revenue Act (DoRA). For the state to successfully implement its development programmes, Matomela (2005:40) suggested that it needs other ingredients such as corporatist state model. This type of model is based on strong interventionist state and is characterised by a reciprocal relationship between government, business and organised interest groups in society.

Government, after community consultations through government to the people strategy, looking at the above mentioned challenges, statistical census results and its interpretations or analysis from different institutions such as the University of Stellenbosch and others; introduced the expanded public works programme (EPWP) that was announced by the then President Thabo Mbeki in February 2003 during his State of the Nation address. They emphasised the use of labour intensive methods through public private partnership (PPP) to decrease unemployment levels and alleviate poverty. It was also mentioned that the legacy of the past has resulted in a large proportion of our population not having the skills or opportunities to effectively participate in South Africa’s economy and earn a living. The EPWP is one of government’s initiatives to bridge the gap between the growing economy and the large numbers of unskilled and unemployed people who have yet to fully enjoy the benefits of economic development. The then President stated with concern that; *“our country has a continuing task to push back the frontiers of poverty and expand access to a better life for all. The challenge we all face as South Africans is to put our*

shoulders to the wheel to accelerate the pace of change. To address this goal, we called on our people to offer their time and skills to the nation, as letsema volunteers for reconstruction and development. We also urged the nation to follow the example set by some of our nationals' resident in the United States, who had decided to support the development of the country of their birth. As they engaged this task, they adopted the call vuk'uzenzele (Mbeki, 2003: 1 - 3).

The EPWP is a nationwide programme which makes systematic use of public expenditure to boost productive employment and to develop marketable skills among targeted marginalised section of the community thereby contributing towards the national goal of alleviating poverty. In 2004 the Division of Revenue Act made it mandatory to use labour-intensive methods for specific categories of infrastructure funded through the formal channels through which public infrastructure is funded: the Provincial Infrastructure Grant (PIG) and the Municipal Infrastructure Grants (MIG). It is important to stress that the funding allocated for the Expanded Public Works Programme formed part of normal government expenditure and must follow normal procedures as specified by National Treasury under the DoRA. These procedures include an annual audit. Thus, the funding is not an “add-on” for emergency / poverty / drought relief. This marks a significant difference between the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) and all previous programmes of this nature in South Africa. Thus, labour-intensive construction had been brought into the normal budgetary procedures and, at face value, was therefore part of the major economy. On the 31st of January 2005, in a speech to the Limpopo provincial and municipal government representatives the Deputy Minister of Public Works, Kganyago said: *“We need to remember the law of the country as stipulated in the Division of Revenue Act (DoRA) requires that provinces and municipalities must use the Guidelines for Labour Intensive Infrastructure when using the PIG and MIG budgets for certain types of projects. These guidelines require that provinces and municipalities amend their existing contracts to ensure that certain activities are designed to maximise the use of labour instead of machines.”*

After the implementation of the EPWP, the table below reflects 0.5% GDP growth rate and a decrease of 0.3 % unemployment rate. Hereunder are the indicators that assisted the Government to monitor the contribution of the EPWP to the country's economy and improvement of human dignity.

Table 2.9 South Africa's Growth Development Product (GDP) rate and unemployment rate

	ACTUAL	PREVIOUS	HIGHEST	LOWEST	UNIT
GDP					
GDP	408.24	363.7	408.24	7.34	Billion USD
GDP Growth Rate	3.2	2.7	7.6	-6.3	Percent
GDP Annual Growth Rate	3	2.1	7.1	-2.7	Percent
LABOUR					
Employed Persons	8425000	8383000	8512000	3694977	Persons
Labour Costs	318	318.4	318.4	3.2	Index Points
Unemployment Rate	24.9	25.2	31.2	21.9	Percent
Unemployed Persons	4470	4526	4843	3873	Thousand Persons
Population	50.59	49.99	50.59	17.4	Million

(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2000 – 2014)

2.14 Conclusion

The vulnerable groups seemed to have been affected the most by the economic crisis as unskilled labourers were the first to lose their jobs. The youth were the hardest hit as their employment contracted by a large margin and their unemployment rate went up significantly. The unemployment rate for people with no education went up by a large margin. Scarcity of skills against the background of the rising unemployment rate and chronic poverty is arguably a serious economic dilemma in the country. The above stated statistical figures on unemployment and poverty rates reveal that the country has experienced a jobless economic growth. The literature review shows that PWP's such as EPWP can be an appropriate tool for addressing high unemployment and poverty rates in the country. The three major theories employed in the discourse of EPWP during the implementation were elaborated. The next chapter will dwell on EPWP legal frameworks, implementation and performance, monitored and reported.

CHAPTER 3: THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE EPWP ACROSS PROVINCES AND SECTORS

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the EPWP guidelines and legal frameworks. The EPWP performance indicators and concepts are clarified. It further explains on how the EPWP is implemented and funded. The EPWP reporting structures, which include validation rules plus phase 1 and phase 2 performances, are elucidated. Disaggregated figures on women and youth are tabled. SA is going through a skills revolution, thus, the thesis touched on trainings and exit strategies of the EPWP. The chapter compare the SA PWP with international experiences of public works programmes. Qualitative and quantitative approaches in social research are also compared. Below reflects the background and what necessitated the EPWP. Case studies on the effectiveness of the EPWP in SA are presented.

3.2 Background

Throughout the years of colonialism and apartheid, inequality and privileges of minorities were protected and maintained by the South African state. Since 1994, the democratic government has to face incredible challenges to overcome the legacy of the past to meet the needs of all South Africans. South Africa is a developmental state, thus resources should be allocated appropriately and policies implemented efficiently and effectively to fight the backlog of unemployment that leads to poverty. A developmental state has to balance economic growth and social development. Scott and Allen (1982:148) emphasise that the first step in defining the publics is to define the problem. Failure to accurately define the problem by ascertaining audience opinions lead to pillow-punching devoting time, money and creative energy to promoting a theme that simply is not perceived as relevant by the target audience. As mentioned in the previous chapter the democratic government of South Africa post-1994 was able to identify problems that led to the rolling out of a range of programmes with specific purposes and outcomes.

The unemployed South Africans with a special emphasis on women, youth and people with disabilities are the target group of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). These are classified as local, poor, unemployed and unskilled or lowly skilled South African citizens. The eradication of poverty, skills development or transfer and restoration of self-esteem has been the focal point of government programmes and strategies since 1994. The Government of South Africa has made a nationally significant response to these problems through the implementation of the

largest development programme in the country's history. With approximately 40% of the working-age population unemployed at the start of 2003, the need for work opportunities and job creation was urgent. It was with this in mind that the Growth and Development Summit (GDS), which took place in June of that year, allocated R100 billion for employment-intensive public works projects. The triple threats of SA's economy that is poverty, unemployment and inequality are largely a result of decisions that were made by the apartheid government.

Integrating skills development and employment creation is a sustainable option to the challenge of unemployment faced by many countries all over the world, South Africa included. It has also been mentioned in Scott *et al* (1982:408), that some of the discontent related directly to the performance of the business system is due to social problems. This includes shortages of trained manpower, pockets of unemployment, movement of industrial jobs away from the central cities, atmospheric pollution, foreign competition, labour strife, inflation, and more. Each of these problems had its own social implications and involvement. There have been more than 700 episodes of civil unrest around the country in the last five years in response to frustration over service delivery and unemployment. Spitzer, a public relations counselor who served both government and business, emphasised the need for collaboration:

- Government can help business by reducing bureaucratic red-tapes, coordinating related and overlapping programs, and offering specific ideas.
- Business can help government by offering realistic plans and proposals that respond to general needs as well as to company goals (Scott *et al.*, 1982:409)

Statistician-General, Lehohla, said the unemployment rate in 2012 was at 24.7% and was the highest among emerging market economies (Stats SA, 2014). According to the report on labour market dynamics released by Statistics South Africa in Pretoria on Wednesday the 9th May 2014, unemployment is still the major driver of poverty in the country. In the third quarter of 2012, there were about 4, 7 million people who were looking for jobs, and out of these 3.1 million (or 67.1 per cent) had been looking for a job for more than a year. The unemployment rate of 24.7% in 2012 was marked as the highest among emerging market economies. However, it showed that there has been resumption in employment growth since 2011. It also reveals that youth unemployment has risen from 32% in 2008 to 35% in 2012. The figure however declined to 34.4% in 2013 (South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 20014).

It is clear that the Government has identified the EPWP as a critical programme in response to the economic crisis. The EPWP has a positive impact on the above

mentioned rates of unemployment. The assumption is that there is a willingness to work especially among young males yet there are no employment opportunities. The level of unemployment in the cities is high because most people travel to urban areas in search of greener pastures.

The major driver of unemployment in South Africa is the lack of skills and experience among the unemployed population. Unemployment and poverty remain the greatest threats to stability in South Africa. The Poverty and Inequality Institute (2007) describe poverty as situation of living without indispensable goods and services for proper well-being such as sufficient shelter, foodstuffs, adequate earnings, a job, access to essential public services and societal standing. South Africa, Central Statistical Service (2000:54) recognised poverty as the denial of opportunities and choices for basic human development. It is a situation whereby one cannot lead a long, healthy life and enjoy a descent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self-esteem and respect from others. In 1995 at the World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen, poverty was defined as the state of affairs characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. Magasela (2005:49) argues that poverty is a statement that has its basis in the dominant political, economic and social ideology in a society. It is further stated that poverty informs those in power on how to source and allocate funds directed at its eradication. Poverty is an unacceptable and undesirable state. Poverty prevents the community or individuals from accessing enough allocated resources in order to practice a minimum standard of living. Inability of those in power to allocate resources or goods and services to correct people or communities in need can also cause poverty. Poverty also requires policies on poverty eradication. Policy reviewal during monitoring processes is important. By 1999, unemployment and resulting poverty were identified as the most significant threats to South Africa's new democracy. Approximately 40% of working-age people were unemployed, with a strong weighting amongst the youth. The South African previous education practices pre-1994 had left most working people either under-skilled or unskilled. At its policy conference in late 2002, the African National Congress (ANC) resolved that there should be a large scale expansion of the use of labour-intensive construction methods to alleviate poverty and unemployment in order to address the backlogs of infrastructure in previously disadvantaged areas.

Poverty in the country is rife even though it is classified as an upper middle income country. During 2004, the South African government implemented a new electoral mandate based on the core objectives of increasing employment and reducing

poverty (ANC, 2004:3 - 7). The then President of the African National Congress (ANC), President Thabo Mbeki wrote in the *ANC Today* newsletter (2007) that the movement and government have taken a leading role in drawing attention to and focusing on the challenges of fighting poverty. He further mentioned that it was tabled in the 2004 and 2006 election Manifesto precisely because the critical challenge to alleviate and eradicate poverty was recognised (Mbeki, 2007).

There are short to long-term programmes and strategies to address poverty, unemployment and skills shortage in South Africa. The EPWP is one of the government ranges of programmes and multi-pronged national strategies to fight the triple threats of unemployment, poverty and inequality through the creation of work opportunities for the unemployed and development of skills. The EPWP has been seen as among “the most innovative PWPs in the world, with multiple objectives that include not only job creation, poverty reduction and infrastructure development, but simultaneously job training and community capacity building” (Adato *et al.*, 1999: 1 - 11 and McCord, 2003:9).

The programme was designed and implemented in phases across spheres of government and sectors. Each phase ran over a five (5) year period with its specific attention guided by legal frameworks. The EPWP implementing institutions were expected to align themselves with the legal frameworks and EPWP policies during the planning and implementation of projects. They were required to focus on closing the gap between the first and the second economies. Existing activities were to be restructured to create greater employment opportunities per unit of expenditure, together with skills training across the four sectors. The Government had confidence on expanding the EPWP, hence a target of 500 000 jobs by December 2009 was communicated by the President in the State of the Nation Address (NDPW Report, 2009:104).

3.3 EPWP guidelines

A guiding framework for the implementation of labour-intensive projects was issued by the EPWP in 2004 and updated in 2005. The document provides the means by which labour-intensive works could be implemented under a proper delivery model. The EPWP guidelines cover procurement procedures, required stakeholder skills, roles and responsibilities. It also stated that the public body should appoint a consultant to design the works and to administer the contracts. The document provided guidance in respect of the following:

- Identification of suitable projects;
- Appropriate design for labour-intensive construction;
- The specification of labour-intensive works; and
- The compilation of contract documentation for labour-intensive projects

The EPWP guiding framework further stipulates that the employment of local temporary workers on all EPWP labour-intensive projects had to be in line with the Code of Good Practice for Employment and Conditions of Work for Special Public Works Programmes (SPWPs) issued in terms of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997 (Act No 75 of 1997) and promulgated in the Government Gazette (Notice No P64 of 25 January 2002).

The major concern of the EPWP is to get more people into productive work. This is done by limiting the number of machines used on the site and employing more people to perform the duties that would have been done using machines. Hence the restoration of self-esteem was a focal point of government since 1994. Elliot (1988:4) views industrial democracy as a comprehensive concept that cuts across different levels and subsystems of the economy. Industrial democracy has been observed as the workers' opportunity to exert influence on qualitative and quantitative organisational decisions (Bowleg, 1976:91 as cited in Nel, 1997:23). In the EPWP, beneficiaries are identified as unemployed local individuals who actively participate in projects within structured programmes and sub-programmes. As mentioned above, beneficiaries are contracted prior to participating in projects. When beneficiaries are appointed, the Labour Relations Act (LRA), No 66 of 1995 and the Occupational Safety Act No. 6 of 1983 are considered. Nel (1997:70) mentioned that the contract of employment is usually entered into between one person (an employer) and another person who is to work for him/her (an employee), under his supervision and for remuneration (stipend). The contract must comply with the requirements set for all valid contracts, such as contractual capacity. Contracts may not be *contra bonos mores* (against the public moral values) and they must comply with any formalities which may be prescribed.

3.4 The legal frameworks

The EPWP is a national driven programme initiated by the Government of South Africa to alleviate poverty, unemployment and inequality. Below legal and policy frameworks guide the implementation of the EPWP:

3.4.1 South Africa. 1996. The Constitution of South Africa Act, no 108, 1996

- It highlights the Bill of Rights in chapter 2. The roles and responsibilities of spheres of government are clarified

3.4.2 South Africa. Code of Good Practice for Employment and Conditions of Work for Special Public Works Programmes

- Sets affirmative action targets for the employment of youth, women and people living with disabilities on EPWP projects. It provides good practice guidelines to all stakeholders involved in EPWP in respect of working conditions, payments and rate of pay, disciplinary and grievance procedures. It further promotes common set of good practices and minimum standards in employment practices

3.4.3 South Africa. Ministerial Determination, Special Public Works Programmes, issued in terms of the South Africa. Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA). 1997. (Notice No, R63 of 25 January 2002) by the Minister of Labour It contains the standard terms and conditions for workers employed on an EPWP

3.4.4 South Africa. 1998. *Skills Development Act, No 97, 1998*

- Promotes the development of skills and trade

3.4.5 South Africa. 1995. *Labour Relations Act (LRA)*, no 66, 1995.

- Guides and emphasises the roles and responsibilities of employers and workers irrespective of whether full time or part time.

3.4.6 South Africa. 2004. *Government Gazette Division of Revenue Act (DORA) 2004*

- Different grants and conditions such as the South Africa. Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) and Provincial Infrastructural Grants (PIG) are clarified

3.4.7 South Africa. Division of Revenue Bill, 2006

The Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) is a grant direct from national government which aims to provide basic services (water, sanitation and access to services) to the poorest of the poor. Schedule 4 funding allocation conditions are prescriptive for municipalities to adhere to the labour intensive construction methods in terms of the EPWP guidelines agreed to between Department of Public Works, National Treasury and SALGA.

3.4.8 South Africa. Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, no 13, 2005

- The aim of this act is to provide the principles of cooperative government, as set out in Chapter 3 of the Constitution. This is to promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations, for provincial and local government to implement national policy/legislation. Quoted in the Act's preamble are challenges facing the South Africa as a developmental state and the need for government to address poverty, underdevelopment, marginalisation of people and communities, and other legacies of apartheid.

3.4.9 South Africa. Consolidated Programme Overview and EPWP Logical Framework June, 2006

- Emphasised how EPWP is implemented and the importance of Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of the programme.

The above cited legal and policy frameworks guide the planning, implementation, monitoring, reporting and evaluation of sustainable EPWP across provinces and sectors. The objective of the policy framework is to create an enabling environment that:

- Entrenches the Expanded Public Works Programme across spheres as an approved socioeconomic developmental and poverty alleviation programme with sustainable exit strategies that maximise Small Medium Micro Enterprises (SMMEs) development, skills development and employment creation.
- Establishes the EPWP methodology within the departmental annual business plan, sector plans, national development plans (NDP) and integrated development plans (IDP) in order to fast-track an approach that expands the current service delivery model of goods and services to ensure shared economic growth.
- Ensures developmental integration across spheres and all sectors
- Concocts project planning, designing and implementation within the existing operational and capital budgets.
- Promotes the procurement of goods and services from local manufacturers, suppliers and service providers.

The EPWP policy framework documents clearly state that the skills development part of the programme is of great importance as it makes public-works jobs sustainable. In other words, the programme implies that providing skills to those without jobs will help to meet the demand for skilled labourers. It carries out social relief activities that promote economic growth and create sustainable development. The South African government took an excellent decision by establishing EPWP as one of its special programmes that enhance active participation of public private partnership (PPP). Service providers were appointed in the programme to implement projects and train beneficiaries. South African economic policy has to address high unemployment, poverty and income inequality in the society. As indicated by the Minister of Public Works, Mr. Geoff Doidge in the EPWP Five Year Report (2004/5 – 2008/9:11) the programme would, in addition, provide some basic training and work experience for participants, which would empower them to earn a living on an on-going basis. These objectives were closely aligned with those defined in the African Union Plan of Action

for the Promotion of Employment and Alleviation of Poverty, adopted at the Third Extraordinary Session on Employment and Poverty Alleviation in September 2004. As a consequence, the study is interested in examining the implementation of the two phases of the EPWP across provinces and sectors. The performance of the project in terms of work opportunities created and methods of reporting will be highlighted. A comparison of the two phases, 2004 - 2009 (phase 1) and 2009 - 2012 (phase 2), will be tabulated. General programmes that contributed to the implementation will also be highlighted. The study will also look at the guidelines for the creation of work opportunities (WOs).

3.5 EPWP performance indicators and concepts

The EPWP has got performance indicators that are used to monitor performance progress. These indicators are used by EPWP monitoring and evaluation (M&E) personnel during the validation of projects across all three spheres in all sectors. These monitored indicators are used together with supporting documents namely the “EPWP M&E validation rules” and “Guidelines for reporting on outputs”.

Dictionaries define an indicator as a sign that shows the condition or existence of something. It measures current conditions and provides a forecast. Therefore one can see an indicator as a sign that measures the current and projected condition or existence of something. The key performance indicators (KPIs) are the significant measurements used to track performance against targets and/or business objectives. KPIs have ranging targets to measure the improvements or deterioration in the performance of an activity critical to the business. KPIs differ depending on the business. After the implementation of phase 1, targets and performance indicators were reviewed and added, hence the need for the additional information on project outputs that is both qualitative and quantitative. KPIs are a type of performance measurement, a qualitative or quantitative measure of a service or activity used to compare actual performance against set standards or other target. In the context of EPWP, the key performance indicators relate to worker demographics, project budget and expenditure, work and training days, stipend, project output, social impact studies, etc.

An organisation may use KPIs to evaluate its success, or to evaluate the success of a particular activity such as projects in which it is engaged. Sometimes success is defined in terms of making progress toward strategic objectives and goals, but often success is simply the repeated, periodic achievement of some level of operational

goal (such as zero defects, 4/100 poverty, 7/100 unemployment, 10/10 community satisfaction, etc.). Accordingly, choosing the right KPIs relies upon a good understanding of what is important to the organisation and/or programme such as the EPWP. What is important often depends on the department through the monitoring and evaluation (M&E) units measuring the performance, for an example, the KPIs useful to marketing/finance will be quite different from the KPIs assigned to projects. Since there is a need to understand well what is important to an institution, various techniques to assess the current state of the programme or project, and its key activities, are associated with the selection of performance indicators. These assessments often lead to the identification of potential improvements.

Performance indicators are routinely associated with performance improvement initiatives. It can be formative and/or summative. A very common way to choose KPIs is to apply a management and monitoring frameworks such as the balanced scorecard. In the EPWP, validation rules were applied. Table 1 below highlights the key EPWP indicators and concepts that are taken into consideration during the implementation and reporting of projects as per the guideline documents:

Table 1: Key EPWP indicators, concepts and clarifications

EPWP Indicators and Concepts	Definitions and Clarifications
3.5.1 Work opportunity (WO)	Is paid work created for an individual on an EPWP project for any period of time, or number of individuals reported to have been employed on an EPWP project within the employment conditions of the code of good practice for special public works programmes. In the case of social sector projects, learnerships also constitute work opportunities. The same individual can be employed on different projects and each period of employment will be counted as a work opportunity. One contract entered with the participant as a worker equals to one work opportunity created in a project. 1 contract = 1 work opportunity.
3.5.2 Beneficiary	A participant in a project contracted to work. The contract should specify the job description, start and end date of participation in a project and daily wage as a stipend. Personal particulars of a beneficiary are only reported in phase 2 including work and training data. In phase 1 only quantitative data was reported.
3.5.3 Demographic Data	The EPWP is targeting unemployed, local, low skilled South African citizens willing to work on EPWP projects. The proportion of beneficiaries that fall within the following categories must be recorded: Youth i.e. 18 – 35 years of age Women People with Disabilities

	<p>The definitions contained in the Preferential Procurement Regulations of 2001 for these categories of beneficiaries will be utilised. Information to be reported: Number of Youth, Women and People with disabilities. In phase 2 the youth age was revised to 16 – 35 years of age. A number of issues informed the above decision. The number of child headed families is increasing rapidly in South Africa due to many reasons that include HIV/AIDS.</p>
3.5.4 Work days (WD)	<p>The number of days each beneficiary worked in a project. It is calculated at 8 hours per day and 40 hours per week. It is managed by signing a daily attendance register at the project site and must serve as a portfolio of evidence (POE).</p>
3.5.5 Training days	<p>The number of training days received by each beneficiary. It should at least be 7 hours of formal training.</p> <p>Types of training include literacy and numeracy, life skills, vocational training and business training.</p> <p>In EPWP, training constitutes a work opportunity. The stipend is paid to the beneficiary when attending training. Daily attendance register during training sessions is signed and must serve as a POE.</p>
3.5.6 Daily Wage Rate	<p>Daily wage rate (whether task-rated or time-rated) per individual project. This wage rate must be inserted in the project tender document and individual beneficiary contract as per the EPWP Guidelines. Even if the participant receives payment or stipend monthly, it should be converted to a daily wage.</p> <p>Information to be reported monthly: Daily wage per beneficiary.</p>
3.5.7 Learnership	<p>A learnership combines work-based experience with structured learning. It results in a qualification that is registered within the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) by the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA). A learner who completes a learnership has a qualification that signals occupational competence and which is recognised throughout the country. A learnership requires that a trainer, a coach, a mentor and an assessor assist the learner.</p>
3.5.8 Person days of work	<p>The number of people who worked on a project times the number of days each person worked.</p> <p><i>Example:</i></p> <p><i>Twenty people work for 20 days a month for 12 months</i></p> <p><i>20 people X 20 days X 12 months</i></p> <p><i>Therefore 20 X 20 X 12 = 4800 person-days of work to be reported</i></p>
3.5.9 Person-days of Training	<p>The number of people who worked on a project times the number of days each person trained. A training day is at least 7 hours of formal training. Formal training is further categorised as: literacy & numeracy, life skills, vocational skills and business skills and includes the assessment of beneficiaries. For each category of training a distinction will be made between accredited and non-accredited training days and type of training received whether learner ship or skill. In the case of the social sector (and for all sectors from 2005/06) information on credits (towards NQF</p>

	<p>qualifications) and NQF qualifications acquired will also be reported. Information to be reported: Number of person-days of training and course specification.</p>																		
3.5.10 Project Budget	<p>It is the overall allocated monies including beneficiary stipend for the project (wages & non-wages). Is price tendered by the contractor plus the professional fees for the professional service provider appointed to design and supervise the project. The project budget excludes government management & administration costs.</p> <p>A project that has no budget is excluded from the final report.</p>																		
3.5.11 Project Expenditure	<p>It is actual overall costs spent (as defined by National Treasury) on projects PLUS the expenditure by the professional service provider appointed to design and supervise the project and supporting infrastructure, including beneficiary stipends, feasibility studies and research but excluding government administration costs.</p> <p>Information to be reported: figures / rands of actual quarterly expenditure. During reporting, projects without expenditure and those exceeding the budget with 20% are excluded in the final report.</p>																		
3.5.12 Government expenditure	<p>Money actually transferred to project and supporting infrastructure, but excluding government administration costs. These monies were spent in the project carried out.</p>																		
3.5.13 EPWP Incentive Grant (IG)	<p>Grant paid to public bodies to motivate creation of work opportunity in a longer term. The grant is paid per quantum of employment created for the target group. This grant was introduced in phase 2 and to participate in it, the Reporting body should have reported project(s) in the previous year</p>																		
3.5.14 Full Time Equivalent (FTE)	<p>One Full Time Equivalent (FTE) is equal to 230 days of work and training. The person days of work and training is divided by 230 days. This number was decided on in the following way:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Types</th> <th>Minus</th> <th>Days</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>1 Year</td> <td></td> <td>365 days</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Weekend</td> <td>–</td> <td>104 days</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Public Holidays</td> <td>–</td> <td>10 days</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Annual leave days</td> <td>–</td> <td>21 days</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td>=</td> <td>230 days</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Types	Minus	Days	1 Year		365 days	Weekend	–	104 days	Public Holidays	–	10 days	Annual leave days	–	21 days		=	230 days
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3.5.15 Implementing body	An Organisation implementing EPWP project(s)																		
3.5.16 Reporting body	An Organisation reporting EPWP project(s)																		
3.5.17 Funding body	An Organisation funding an EPWP project(s)																		
3.5.18 Code of Good Practice for Special Public Works Programmes	<p>The Minister of labour issued a Ministerial Determination and Gazetted a Code of Good Practice for Special Public Works Programmes in 2002. This allows for special conditions to facilitate greater employment on Public Works Programmes. The Code guides the EPWP and provides for a training entitlement of at least 2 days per month of service for workers in this programme. Gazette No 64, 25 January 2004.</p>																		

(NDPW, 2001 and 2004)

The EPWP is labour intensive. Manual work is encouraged. The labour-based method is defined by the ILO as the use of an appropriate mix of labour and capital equipment in the construction of infrastructure, with a preference for labour where technically and economically feasible, while maintaining established quality standards. Sectors in the EPWP are supposed to agree on the percentage of labour per expenditure in their project. 'Labour-intensive' refers to the economically efficient employment of a greater proportion of labour, which is economically and technically feasible to execute projects in all sectors without compromising cost, time and quality. The result being a significant increase in employment generated per unit of expenditure (*Ethekwini Municipality, 2006*).

Labour-intensive infrastructure projects under the EPWP entail using labour-intensive construction methods to provide employment opportunities to local unemployed people, providing training or skills to those locally employed workers and building cost-effective and quality assets. Quality standards are not compromised in the use of labour based methods. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2007:1 - 2), since the early 1970s, thousands of kilometres of rural roads have been constructed using labour based methods (LBM) in developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. In SA it was encouraged by the ANC-led government as stipulated in their 2002 manifesto that led to the launch of the EPWP first phase in 2004.

3.6 Funding of the EPWP

The Department of Public Works (DPW) does not have a separate fund for EPWP projects at national government level. The EPWP was not allocated its own special budget for projects. It was funded by earmarking funds on the budgets of line-function departments, provinces and municipalities. The emphasis of the EPWP is to expand the use of labour-intensive methods in government funded service delivery projects and is supported by the government as a means of generating employment. EPWP funds are channeled through conditional provincial infrastructure grants (PIGs) and municipal infrastructure grants (MIGs) as direct allocations to provinces and municipalities from the National Treasury. Other projects are funded through regular budgets of State Owned Enterprises (SOEs). Projects are implemented, essential services provided; skills developed, and needed WOs created for the unemployed without creating any financial burden.

Most government departments supported the EPWP by allocating funding to public works projects, thus making a major contribution towards the achievement of the programme's target of creating one million WOs by 2009. In the Infrastructure sector,

approximately R15 billion of the conditional infrastructure grants allocated to provinces and municipalities from 2004 – 2009 had been earmarked for the labour-intensive construction and maintenance projects, mostly low-volume roads, storm water drains, trenching for pipelines and sidewalks.

A top-up of R4 billion of the Environment and Culture sector departments' budgets were allocated to environmental EPWP programmes over the corresponding period and at least R0.6 billion apportioned to social sector. It was anticipated that this spending would increase to R2 billion over five years. The economic sector's practical work experience component of the learnerships were funded through public bodies allocating learning contracts to the learners and using general public sector expenditure on goods and services (NDPW, 2004: 39 and 2009: 39 - 48).

The EPWP makes systematic use of public expenditure to boost productive employment and develop marketable skills among targeted marginalised sections of the community, thereby contributing towards the national goal of alleviating poverty. Unemployment and poverty cause low self-esteem in man. As mentioned by the Deputy Minister of Public Works; Mrs. Henrietta Bogopane-Zulu in the EPWP Five Year Report (2004/5 – 2008/9:13), the EPWP is aligned with the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), which seeks to halve poverty and unemployment by 2014. In terms of this programme, Government committed to increase public sector capital budgets at a rate of 10% to 15% per annum, and to raise Gross Domestic Fixed Investment (GDFI) from 15% to 25% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) over the next five years. Nel (1997:69) mentioned that any country's industrial relations system is shaped by its history as well as by influences from other countries. SA has been shaped by its apartheid history that contributed to inequality which resulted in poverty and unemployment etc. Derber (1969:180) as cited in Nel (1997:22) described the underlying basis of industrial democracy more generally as follows:

... a respect for the dignity of man which must not be arbitrarily disregarded in the promotion of the interest of the total society. It requires an equal opportunity for advancement to all men, regardless of race, religion, national origin, political belief or any other personnel characteristic apart from the requirements of the job. It also calls for certain minimum standards of life relating to wages, leisure, education, health and safety.

A general atmosphere which regards all men as spiritually equal, even though they may differ in intellectual or physical abilities is involved. Since the majority of unemployed people are unskilled; the emphasis on WOs to be created requires limited or no skills. The government also introduced the incentive grants in support of public bodies implementing and reporting the EPWP projects aimed at halving unemployment in 2014.

3.7 Sector plans

The EPWP consist of three clusters namely the infrastructure development cluster, the economic sector, the employment cluster, and the social and community development cluster. Each cluster is responsible for the implementation of sector plans and ensures EPWP compliance in terms of the respective national sector EPWP guidelines.

3.7.1 Infrastructure sector plans

As contained in the EPWP Logical framework (June, NDPW 2004:15) , the infrastructure sector plan was led by the Department of Public Works (DPW) and includes the Departments of Transport, Housing, Provincial and Local Government, Water and Sanitation, Public Enterprises, Minerals and Energy and Education. The Independent Development Trust (IDT) has also been added. The infrastructure plan builds on the experience of the piloted Zibambele Programme in KwaZulu-Natal and the Gundo Lashu Programme in Limpopo. This sector was identified as the largest employment generator within the EPWP. It was envisaged that out of the estimated one million work opportunities (WOs) to be created in the first phase, 750 000 was set as a target for the infrastructure sector. The majority of WOs to be created were within the framework of PIGs and MIGs respectively. The maintenance of public buildings was targeted as a means of creating 150 000 WOs over five years within the sector. These WOs were to be created during the normal provision of public assets and services. The infrastructure sector envisaged 37 000 kilometres of road, 31 000 kilometres of pipelines, 1 500 kilometres of storm water drains, and 150 kilometres of sidewalks that were to be constructed using labour-intensive methods. The Independent Development Trust (IDT) expected to act as a programme implementing agent for both provincial and national DPWs.

The infrastructure sector envisaged to deliver the bulk (48%) of the employment opportunities. It was projected that 30% of WOs will be generated from road projects as it was predicted that infrastructure projects provide the highest employment creation potential. Therefore, enhancement of the labour intensity approach in the

provision of roads has potential to significantly impact on the overall performance of the EPWP (NDPW 2004, 16). This will be monitored in the performance of the EPWP in all phases.

3.7.2 The environmental and culture (E&C) sector plan

The environmental sector plan is a joint plan of the Departments of Environmental Affairs (DEAT) and Tourism, Water and Sanitation, Arts and Culture, and Agriculture. The DEAT is the lead department that aims to create 200 000 WOs through programmes such as the Department of Agriculture's Land Care programme, the DEAT's People and Parks, Coastal Care, Sustainable Land-based Livelihoods, Cleaning up SA, a Growing a Tourism Economy programmes; and the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry's Working for Water, Wetlands, and Fire programmes. Many of these programmes are already established and expected to be expanded under the EPWP. In the first phase (2004 - 2009) new programmes such as waste collection and recycling were to be established by the sector in partnership with metros and municipalities (NDPW, 2004:4)

3.7.3 The social sector plan

The social sector plan emanates from the departments of Health, Education and Social Development. The Department of Social Development (DSD) is the Lead department that aims to create 150 000 WOs through the first two programmes namely, home community based care (HCBC) and early childhood development (ECD). The programme would result in 2.9 million people accessing qualified HCBC services and 400 000 children serviced by registered ECD sites and trained practitioners as project outputs (NDPW, 2004:6)

3.7.4 The economic sector plan

The sector focuses on entrepreneurial and cooperative income-generating activities. Its two flagship programmes are the New Venture Creation Learnership Programme (NVCLP) also known as the Vuk'uphile Building Programme and the Cooperative Development Programme. A target of 3 000 venture learnerships over five years is set in consultation with the Department of Labour (DOL). The economic sector aims to create 12 000 WOs and kick off with a micro-enterprise venture learnership project. Selected learners from amongst the target group will be registered on full-time SETA-funded learnerships and supported to set up small, micro and medium enterprises (SMMEs). The learners would graduate from their learnerships with the necessary technical knowledge to run their businesses, tender for public sector projects, work

experience and a credit track record (NDPW, 2004:16 - 17).

3.7.5 The non-state sector

This sector commenced in phase 2 as part of the expansion of the EPWP. The Non-State Sector (NSS) Programme comprises the Community Works Programme (CWP) and the Non-Profit Organisations (NPO). The CWP is area based and managed by the Department of Cooperative Governance (DCOG) and the NPO is institutionally based and managed by the Department of Public Works (DPW) while supported by the Independent Development Trust (IDT). The target for the Non-State Sector Programme over five years (2009 - 2014) was the creation of 280 000 FTEs of employment and 640 000 WOs. The EPWP allocated 40% towards the NPO and 60% to the CWP (NDPW, 2009)

3.8 EPWP reporting

The EPWP projects are implemented across three spheres in all four sectors but centrally reported to the EPWP Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) unit. The projects are reported quarterly but updated monthly. Prior to 2007, projects were captured and reported manually on Excel spread sheets. From 2007 up to 2012, performance reports were captured and reported using the web based system (WBS) and the management information system (MIS). The MIS was introduced as a management tool for the infrastructure sector but was later joined by the E&C sector.

Performance reports measure the performance of something. They are routinely produced by government bodies which, being financed by public money, are required to show that the money is spent efficiently and usefully. Such reports will contain performance indicators which measure the achievements of the organisation and its programmes (NDPW Performance report, 2014).

Robert and Mayne (2005:1) stated that information should be regular, systematic, and reliable since it is the life-blood of democracy and the fuel of effective management. Information received during performance reporting should be measured. Robert and Mayne further mentioned that performance measurement is an ongoing activity that provides data about outputs and intended outcomes. According to Mayne and Zapico-Goni (1997); performance monitoring often uses an array of performance indicators. The purpose is to provide information on how well the programme or organisation have been doing, what have been accomplished and how. In the EPWP, the performance of the programme is reported per sector with focus on outputs, WOs and

FTEs created. The EPWP key performance indicators are described in Table1 above. Performance reporting can be described as the on- going conveying of what has been achieved on outputs in a programme or organisation using a narrative format or template provided. Mayne *et al* (1997:7) emphasised variety of sources used during reporting such as internal administrative data system depending on the programme or organisation. The EPWP also used primary sources of data such as attendance registers of participants (for work and training) and payment certificates. These data and reporting systems are to be audited by internal and external auditors. Performance audits are examinations carried out following accepted auditing procedures. Although Power *et al* (1997:6) argues that "...the power of auditing is the vagueness of the idea", auditing can best be described as checking what has occurred, or is occurring against some standard. Whilst the EPWP is implemented, auditors (both internal and external) assess actual performance across spheres in all sectors and systems of reporting.

EPWP M&E apply validations on the reported project and beneficiary data in order to exclude incorrect and inconsistent data from the quarterly reports. Projects and beneficiaries will be excluded from the quarterly report if they fail to meet one of the following validation rules:

Project exclusion rules

- Project data has no budget;
- Project data has no expenditure;
- Project data has no work days;
- Project data has no participants;
- The expenditure of the project exceeds the budget by more than 20%;
- Calculated wages of the project are more than the expenditure of the project;
- There is a duplicate project; and
- Project fails to meet minimum labour intensity as set out by the sector (was not included in phases 1 and 2)

Participants' exclusion rules

Participants will be excluded from the quarterly report if they fail to meet one of the following validation rules:

- Participant without certified identification document (it was not compulsory in phases 1 and 2);
- Project data has no daily wage;

- The total maximum employment period was exceeded as determined by the Ministerial Determination; and
 - Beneficiary under sixteen years of age (it was 18 years in phase 1)
- (NDPW EPWP M&E, 2014:1 - 5)

WOs that are non-compliant are not included in the quarterly report. The reported created WOs and FTEs are from the validated compliant reports and are available with annexures in the EPWP website (www.epwp.gov.za).

3.9 EPWP phase 1

The EPWP, which commenced in 2004, is a government short-term intervention strategy that seeks to address the socio economic challenges of the country. As contained in the Consolidated Programme Overview and Logical Framework (2004) EPWP is a nationwide flagship programme targeting the unemployed; at least 40% women, 30% youth and 2% people with disabilities in phase 1. Men were also accommodated in the programme. The first phase (2004 - 2009) of the EPWP was implemented by all three spheres of government, namely: National, Provincial and Local government across four sectors, namely: Infrastructure, Environment & culture, Social and Economic sector. The implementation of the EPWP is being led and coordinated by the DPW which has established a dedicated unit (the EPWP unit).

According to the Consolidated Programme Overview and Logical Framework, of June 2004, the first phase's mandate was to alleviate poverty and unemployment through the provision of training and work opportunities to the poor, unskilled and unemployed South Africans. To achieve this goal as stated in the previous chapter, the Government would: over the first five years of the programme create temporary work opportunities and income for at least one million unemployed people, provide needed public goods and services, labour-intensively, at required standards, through mainly public sector resources, and public and private sector implementation capacity. Government would also increase the potential of (at least 14% of public works) participants to earn a future income by providing work experience coupled with training and information related to local work opportunities, further education and training, and small medium and micro enterprise (SMME) development. (12% = infrastructure 8%, environment 10%, social 40% and economic 30%). The above stated tentative percentages would be achieved by creating work opportunities in the following four ways: Increasing the labour intensity of government-funded infrastructure projects; creating work opportunities in public environmental

programmes (e.g. working for water); creating work opportunities in public social programmes (e.g. community care workers); and utilising general government expenditure on goods and services to provide the work experience component of small enterprise learnership / incubation programmes.

The EPWP targets were set over a five year period. Performance targets are the success measures of the programme's performance management system and are defined by performance indicators. Without performance targets the programme's vision cannot be quantified. A performance target is assigned to a measurable strategy map item and run over a specific period of time and defined by the performance indicator assigned to it. A target is assigned a measurer, reporter, validator and owner. In theory, these roles could be occupied by the same post but in practice the measurer is a distinct post from the reporter/validator/owner. In the EPWP project reporting, capturers directly capture projects into the EPWP reporting systems. During capturing, project owners and/or supervisors are expected to view captured projects in order to identify gaps, inconsistency and incorrect data. The Head of Department (HOD) of the Coordinating department or mandated official is expected to view, authorise and sign-off validated project reports before releasing final quarterly report. Targets running continually over successive time periods can be added using the target setup wizard (e.g. Target1 (2008/9), Target2 (2009/10), Target3 (2010/11) etc. (NDPW, 2010).

The first phase of the EPWP was implemented in April 2004 and the aim was to create 1 million work opportunities (WOs) through the provision of training over the first five years of the programme, (April 2004 to 31 March 2009). The EPWP first phase targets were to be achieved over a five year period as alluded above. These WOs targets were broken down into sectors including compliant reported projects as highlighted in table 2 below:

Table 2: Phase 1 Reported Projects and WOs Progress against 5 Year targets

Reported Projects and WOs Progress against 5 Year targets				
Sectors	Targeted WOs	Actual WOs (2004-2009)	% Progress (WOs)	Compliant Reported Projects
Infrastructure	750 000	955 233	127. 36%	17 205
Environment & Culture	200 000	467 720	233. 86%	6 200
Social	150 000	174 366	116. 24%	17 258
Economic	12 000	20 377	169. 80%	834
TOTALS	1 112 000 (1m)	1 617 697	161. 76%	41 497

(NDPW, 2009)

All sectors performed well in the first phase. 1 617 697 WOs were created in phase 1 against the 1million target from 41 497 compliant reported projects. These targets were achieved one year early in March 2008. The compliant reported project is described as a project that was reported, passes the validation rules and included in a final report. Overall 161.76% was achieved on the creation of WOs in the first five year period. The social sector and infrastructure sector had 17.2 compliant projects which totaled 344 63. Surprisingly, the infrastructure sector, because of the nature of its projects, created 955 233 WOs. This confirms what is stated above that the infrastructure sector is the largest employment generator within the EPWP. Most WOs were created from maintenance and construction projects associated with civil infrastructure (without sacrificing quality or cost), such as low-volume roads, municipal water and sanitation pipelines, as well as storm water drains where more labour is sourced.

Based on the phase 1 targets set in Table 2, the E&C led with 233.86%, followed by the economic sector, infrastructure and lastly the social sector. The social sector created 174 366 WOs that were even lesser when compared to the E&C sector that was 467 720 WOs from 6 200 compliant reported projects. This has shown that the social sector *modus operandi* contracted few participants as compared to the other two mentioned sectors. The economic sector created 20 377 against 834 compliant reported projects. According to the 2004 - 2009 NDPW EPWP reports; the E&C sector created one million jobs; 2 100 accredited learnerships, 250 emerging contractors, 15 000 professionals and 1 000 public sector officials trained on employment-intensive approaches. According to the ANC (2009); this has created a massive possibility for expanding this programme and improving its quality and quantity.

3. 10 Training in the EPWP

SA is in a skills revolution as stated in the previous chapter. The country is facing high rates of low or unskilled people. This has been confirmed by the NPC in the NDP (2011:18) which stated that the further education and training system in SA is ineffective and output quality poor. It was further spelled out that the quality and relevance of courses needed urgent attention. Therefore strategies need to be put in place and managed properly to rectify the situation. A strategy is described by Collins and Thesaurus (1989:991) as the art or science of the planned conduct of a war. It addresses on how effective, efficient and cost-economic ways of doing things possible.

Rosen (1995:6 - 9) stated that strategies may be developed deliberately for a purposeful intention. The development of skills through accredited and non-accredited courses was overemphasised in order to facilitate the participants' absorption into the job market. Since the advent of democracy in 1994, a National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and a system of Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) were put in place. This national training framework enabled the implementation of the EPWP. In 2004, the Construction SETA (known as the CETA), as requested by the Department of Public Works, funded the development of unit standards for the design, supervision and management of labour-intensive construction at NQF levels 2, 4, 5 and 7 for small contractors, lower level supervisors, higher level supervisors, technicians, undergraduate engineers and post-graduate engineers. In phase 1, training was one of the focal points. Table 3 below reflects that 7 186 145 days of training were reported in phase 1 and a decrease of 2 508 933 in phase 2. The infrastructure sector was leading in phase 1 and the economic sector achieved less of them all. In phase 2, the infrastructure sector dropped severely and E&C sector led, followed by social sector and non-state sector.

Table 3: Person days of training

Person days of Training		
Sector	Phase 1	Phase 2
Infrastructure	3 397 695	188 674
Economic	55 918	
Environment and Culture	1 650 648	1 191 862
Social	2 081 883	1 044 471
Non-State Sector		83 926
Total	7 186 145	2 508 933

(NDPW, 2004 and 2009)

The economic sector was found to be cross-cutting; therefore, it was discontinued as a stand-alone sector in phase 2. Training was compulsory in phase 1 hence, the high performance figure reported on the person days of training. In the second phase, training was no longer compulsory as implementing bodies were not receiving dedicated funding for training on EPWP projects. That negatively affected the exit strategy on the programme and beneficiaries tended to recycle. Even the type of training received was affected, as both accredited and non-accredited training constituted WOs created and stipend paid on both.

In EPWP, learnerships constitute a work opportunity. According to the “Training Guidelines for the Social Sector” (2011:6) a learnership is a formal agreement of structured learning and work experience between an organisation/company and learner, leading to a formal qualification. The true learnership has strict legal requirement as laid down by the Skills Development Act (SDA). Training in the EPWP is used as one of the strategies to combat lack of skills in SA; therefore management of it is crucial. Kroon (1995:7) as cited in PALAMA (2014:38) describes management as a process whereby managers utilise human and other resources as efficiently as possible to achieve the objectives of the institution, and to provide the services and products that people need to live a good life. It is evident that management deals with monitoring, managing and skillfully controlling the use of human, material and financial resources including time.

The Minister of Higher Education Dr Blade Nzimande, in the Leadership edition 348 (2014:10) enunciated that Nelson Mandela saw education as a tool for developing Africa and empowering individuals to lift themselves out of poverty. Quoting Nelson Mandela, he said “education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world”. Managers should be guided by government policies and procedures. The manager sets goals, formulates strategies and plans to implement the vision and mission of an institution. The same applies to the EPWP policy that needs to be implemented accordingly. The EPWP has various project cycles with different stakeholders involved in numerous roles. There is a Training unit within EPWP that is responsible for coordination of Beneficiary trainings, sourcing and appointing of Training Organisations (SETAs, Training providers). This unit monitors and manages skills audit; development of training material; and training of EPWP beneficiaries and stakeholders (NDPW, 2004). This prohibition has had little impact in practice. In view, of the obligations placed on employers in terms of the EEA and SDA, it may become more important in the future. According to the SA Labour Law; employees may challenge the denial of training where such training is a prerequisite for advancement in the workplace.

During the second democratic election (2000), the government was faced with fourfold important socio-economic challenges namely to reduce unemployment; to alleviate poverty; to strengthen the general skills base; and to improve social services. What is good is that government did not deny the said challenges. Instead the matter was prioritised hence different summits were held; the EPWP policy was formulated and implemented. The Government convened the Government Development Summit (GDS) in June 2003 where it was resolved that an EPWP

would be established to ensure that R100 billions of planned government expenditure be targeted for employment-intensive programmes. The GDS resulted in an agreement on a number of interventions aimed at reducing household poverty and vulnerability, including public investment initiatives, sector partnerships and strategies, local procurement, small enterprise promotion, support for cooperatives, and EPWPs. The GDS agreement highlighted that the EPWP can provide poverty and income relief through temporary work for the unemployed to carry out socially useful activities. These EPWP projects will be designed to equip participants with a modicum of training and work experience, which should enhance their ability to earn a living in future.” This agreement was entered into prior to the implementation of EPWP in 2004. The GDS agreement emphasised that relevant and targeted training should form a central component of the EPWP to ensure that workers attain relevant and marketable skills (NDPW, 2004 and 2009).

Training is defined as an organised activity aimed at imparting information and/or instructions to improve the recipient's performance or to help him or her attain a required level of knowledge or skill which includes but is not limited to orientation; competency assessment; and current job and industry specific training (Nadler, 2013:1).

According to Beach (cited in Kumar *et al.*, 2013:87), training is the organised procedure by which people learn new knowledge and skills for definite purpose. Dr. Leonard Nadler described training as learning that is provided in order to improve performance on the present job. Looking at the above definitions training can be referred to providing skills and competencies that might be practical and theoretical to enable an individual to perform a task or job such as grass cutting, frail care, concrete mixing and/or bricklaying. It is intended to improve work or job performance of the individual or participant. Training can further be described as the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and competencies as a result of the teaching of vocational or practical skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful competencies. In the EPWP Training Framework (2012:7); training is defined as any structured learning or skills development intervention which is intended to enhance productivity during project implementation and facilitates placeability and employability beyond the EPWP project. Training components include the theory, practical learning and workplace learning. Training is also perceived as the process of teaching new knowledge and skills to perform a job effectively. EPWP training covers both technical and soft skills interventions which are accredited and registered by SAQA. Technical

training programmes are hard skills which may amongst others include bricklaying, laying of gabions, and toy making. Soft skills training programmes are courses which are non-technical in nature e.g. financial management and new venture creation.

Shortage of skills in South Africa continues to remain a challenge. The Minister of Higher Education Dr Blade Nzimande, in the Leadership edition 348 (2014:13) pronounced that; it's been proven that countries with high levels of education have better social justice and societies with inequality are a ticking time bomb. The Government highlighted that a better life for all is what is needed in SA, hence the EPWP was introduced and skills development was emphasised. The National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS), through its funding leverages, continues to strive to develop skills relevant for both the market and the economy. EPWP training objectives are aligned to the National Skills Development Strategy and a key source of EPWP training funds is the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET). DPW and DHET have concluded a Memorandum of Agreement for the training of EPWP beneficiaries. EPWP training also partners with various Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) in terms of funding and training compliance matters. Training is essential in EPWP for the following reasons:

- To produce skilled labourers to ensure effective and efficient project implementation
- To enhance placeability of participants upon exit from EPWP projects.
- To develop the capacity of EPWP officials and implementers to ensure effective and efficient management and implementation of the programme.

(NDPW, 2012:11)

The EPWP policy framework document clearly testifies that the skills development part of the programme is of great importance as it makes public-works' work opportunities sustainable. Training as mentioned above that is cross cutting in EPWP, and every sector is encouraged to provide sector specific training to its beneficiaries or participants. When developing sector specific training guidelines, the following principles must be adhered to;

- Training must target project specific outcomes.
- Quality training must be based on accredited training that lead to a qualification.
- Training must prioritise technical skills and minimal soft skills.
- Training must prioritise longer training interventions.

These above mentioned principles reinforce the quality of training to be provided in EPWP in order for participants receive relevant and marketable skills to promote sustainable jobs.

Since skills transfer is encouraged in EPWP, some participants were provided with prior training in their projects or programmes. Prior training refers to training of beneficiaries/participants before they implement the project. This model is intended to create a pool of skilled labourers required for a particular project. Proper planning and monitoring is needed. This model is ideal for projects with small, medium and long term duration. The theoretical and practical learning/simulation is conducted at the classroom before the project is implemented, whilst the workplace training is undertaken at the project site. The precondition for selecting this model is that the project must be approved and a contractor appointed by the public body before training commences. The advantage is that it affords learners adequate time to undergo training without interfering with project activities; training duration is not limited by the project duration; learners have sufficient exposure to workplace experience immediately after completing theoretical and practical training; and public bodies have enough time to manage and monitor training.

Reported training in EPWP should be attached to a project. Learnership constitutes a work opportunity. Prior learning / training in phase 1 was not really reported in the EPWP reporting systems. On-site training was conducted the most in the projects. On-site training refers to the training of beneficiaries during implementation of the project. This model proposes that the theoretical, practical and workplace components of training are undertaken concurrently with project implementation. There is correlation of theory and practice at the same time. This enables workers to acquire and apply skills immediately to project activities. The advantages of this model are that exit training needs are determined at sub-programme level with clear exit plans; and programmes develop document management systems for reporting purposes. Table 4 below shows a guideline on how training programmes may be selected according to various EPWP project types:

Table 4: Selection of training programme

EPWP Project Type	Recommended Learning Routes/ Programmes	Recommended Training Providers
Short term projects (Less than 12 months projects)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No training may be required but job created are reported on M&E Dual purpose programmes Short skills programmes Public bodies internal training and capacity building initiatives 	Accredited providers
Medium term projects (12 months - 2 year projects)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> SETA registered skills programmes Medium duration noted programmes 	Accredited providers for the skills programmes
Long term/on going (2 -3 years projects)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Accredited long training interventions e.g. Learnerships, Skills programmes 	Accredited providers for full qualifications , skills programmes
Exit opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vocational & occupational programmes eg. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ ABET ✓ Trades /apprenticeships ✓ Learnerships Accredited skills programmes 	Accredited FETs Colleges& HETs institutions Fully accredited providers for learnerships accredited trade Test centres

(NDPW, 2012)

The EPWP endeavours to provide accredited training to its beneficiaries in the form of:

- Skills programmes - Occupationally-directed programme, which comprises of a pre-registered cluster of unit standards.
- Learnerships - Structured learning programme within a specific industry, which is unit standard based and comprises more than 120 credits.
- Artisan Development - Technical training system, including both practical, theoretical and workplace learning components offered in designated trades to achieve artisan status.

The above guidelines clarify the type of projects, recommended learning routes or programmes to be conducted and type of service providers to be utilised during the provision of training. It is evident in the table above that training units spell out exit opportunities available in the EPWP (NDPW, 2012:7 - 12).

The public works programme aims at providing training to its participants so that they will be able to gain permanent employment after the programme, or even become self-employed. The EPWP national structure consists of a Training Beneficiary unit, which is represented in Regional structures placed in each province. The Training Beneficiary Coordinators across provinces are expected to play vital roles in the implementation process. Figure 1 below is the summary of the implementation of learnerships and skills programmes funded by the departmental line functions budget:

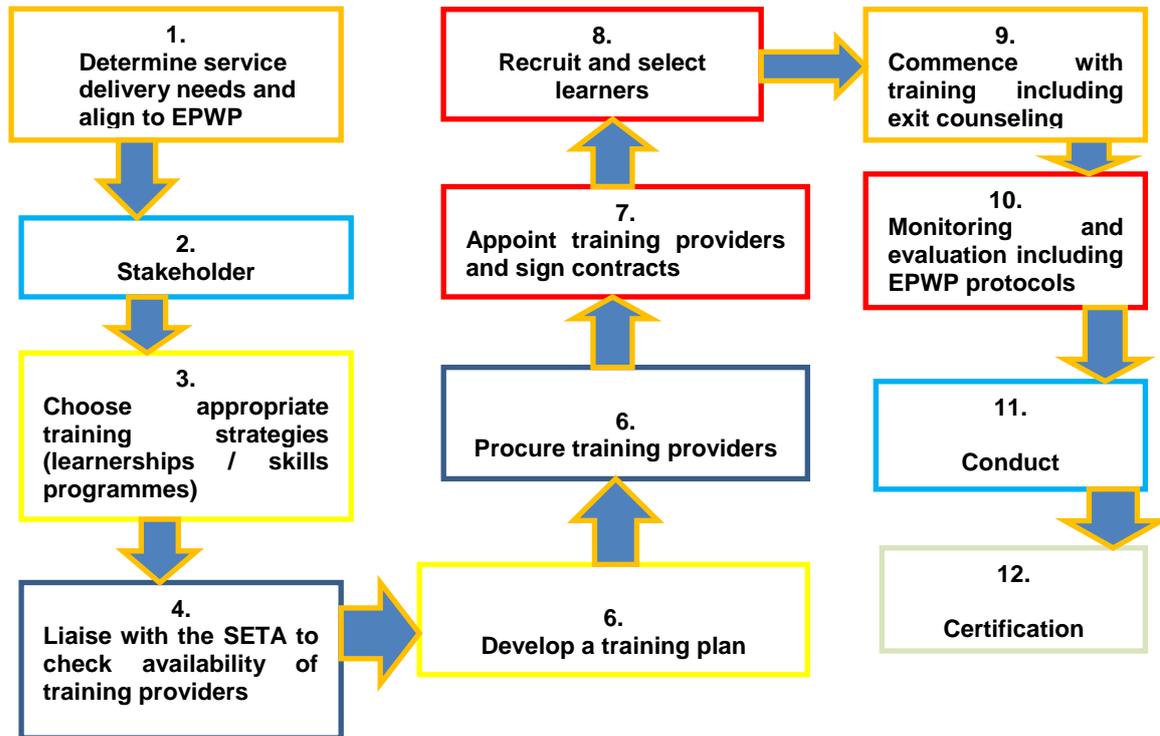


Figure 1: Summary of the implementation of learnerships and skills programmes funded by Departmental line functions budget

Table 5 below illustrates that out of 432 45 SMMEs created, 261 were cooperatives. A co-operative is defined as “an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled environment”. The Webster dictionary describes a cooperative as a business or organisation that is owned and operated by the people who work there or the people who use its services (Merriam-Webster, 2014:1). A co-operative business is based on democratic principles in that every member in the co-operative participates in making decisions which affect the business. Polyp (2012:9) emphasises that co-operation is a major driving force in nature equaling the power of selfish genes. Therefore, a cooperative can be perceived as a group of people or organisation involving mutual assistance in working towards a common goal or objective. People in a cooperative are guided by set

principles or guidelines that are why every member has clearly defined tasks in order to achieve goals set. The EPWP Economic sector has been partnering with a number of government departments and programmes on the development of co-operatives. The EPWP contributes to the development of the latter through the provision of accredited business skills training, and up to the end of phase 1 (2004 - 2009), 24 accredited business skills courses were developed. Various co-operative development initiatives were piloted during EPWP Phase I, including cleaning and gardening co-operatives through NDPW regional offices, as well as co-operatives that provide food under the School Nutrition Programme. Table 5 below highlight the provinces, programmes and the 261 Co-operatives that received EPWP support in phase 1.

Table 5: Co-operatives receiving EPWP support

Province	Programme/Public Body	Number
Eastern Cape	Working for Waste - NMMM	9
	Co-operatives: Other (Provincial)	57
Limpopo	NDPW Co-operatives (Regional Office)	27
	Various Co-operatives - LIBSA	48
	School Nutrition Co-operatives - DOE	10
Northern Cape	Asisebenze Poverty Alleviation Programme - DOA	10
KwaZulu Natal	Asisebenze Poverty Alleviation Programme	29
	Economic Development	42
Western Cape	Co-operatives – City of Cape Town	4
Mpumalanga	Co-operatives – the DTI and DSD	3
North West	Modimolla	2
Gauteng	Co-operatives – Various Municipalities	14
TOTAL		261

(NDPW, 2009)

Some public works programmes have a strong training component that allows participants to gain the relevant skills needed for them to gain permanent employment. It was reported that there was a decline of 4 677 212 reported person days of training in phase 2 as compared to phase 1. The difference between the two phases on training is huge amounting to 286.42 %. Surprisingly, the number of projects and WOs increased in phase 2 as elaborated below. This massive drop will have a negative impact on the exit strategy and the realisation of sustainable WOs. Out of the 126 572 total validated and included projects as highlighted in Table 2 and 3, between 2004 – 2014, only 9 695 078 person days training were achieved. It has been observed that government institutions are not allocated funds earmarked specifically for training which makes the EPWP M&E units exclude projects without training. This has affected the exit strategy across spheres and the level of training courses received on projects as nothing compels them in phase 2 as compared to

phase1. Currently, training funds are accessible through DOL and EPWP Training units but the above records have shown that is not enough. The Minister of Higher Education Dr Blade Nzimande in the Leadership edition 348 (2014:10) stated that Government's focus on building expanded, flexible, quality, and responsive post-school education training system has already delivered results, but there are still many challenges ahead.

The ILO has confirmed in its report (2013:40 - 42) that while training is no longer mandatory, some projects offer limited informal training mainly aimed at ensuring workers can safely and correctly undertake tasks on site. Older beneficiaries are more interested in obtaining support to set up SMMEs. It has also been noted that beneficiaries from Working on Fire (WoF) received extensive training both formal and informal. It was stated that interviewees showed a high level of commitment to training and mentoring to ensure that they are more marketable for entry into more formal and permanent employment. The report (2013:41) also reflected that 27 percent of beneficiaries have moved into formal jobs with Parks Boards and related organisations.

As a way of expanding the programme and increasing WOs, plus person days of training, the non-state sector was commenced in phase 2. The non-state sector managed to achieve 83 926 person days of training. Since the youth is among the target group of the EPWP, the National Youth Service (NYS) was launched in 2007 mandated to provide employment and skills development to the unemployed youth in South Africa. Amongst others, the NYS is aimed at creating work and training opportunities for the unemployed youth whilst addressing the shortage of artisan skills within built environment; and ensuring that youth develop skills, understanding and aspirations for working within the built environment. Currently, a total of 1 526 beneficiaries are participating in the programme at the National department and 4 403 are participating in the provincial departments. A total of 92 apprentices are participating in the department's NYS Artisan Development Programme which is implemented jointly with the Northern Cape Province. The apprentices have completed their theoretical training and are currently placed in various private companies to obtain practical training experience in various construction and related skills trades (NDPW, 2013: 41).

As mentioned above, the development of SMMEs were over emphasised in phase 1. The Vuk'uphile Contractor Learnership Programme is a cross-cutting programme within the Economic Sector. It was confirmed in the NDPW 2009 report that more than 492 labour-intensive contracting companies have been developed across all nine provinces. It is further mentioned that the NDPW has partnered with 22 municipalities, six government departments and two government agencies in the creation and development of the 492 labour-intensive civil works companies. Each of the public entities has actively participated in the Labour-intensive Contractor Development programmes (NDPW, 2009). The objective of the Vuk'uphile Programme is to build the capacity of contractors at NQF level 2 and supervisors at NQF level 4 knowledgeable in the areas of labour-intensive methods of construction. The picture below shows beneficiaries in the Vuk'uphile Programme who actively participated in the Labour-intensive Contractor Development programme:



Figure 2: Vuk'uphile Contractor Learnership Programme (NDPW, 2009)

The SMMEs have been established in various sectors under various programmes as follows as shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6: SMMEs supported by various sectors

Programme	No of SMMEs
Vuk'uphile Labour-Intensive Civils	492 civil contracting companies
Vuk'uphile Buildings	250 building contracting companies
Cooperatives	261 cooperatives
DWAF Contractor Development Programme (Working for Water): Environment and Culture Sector	3322 emerging contractors
Total SMMEs across all EPWP sectors	4325

(NDPW, 2009)

Overall, 4325 SMMEs were established across the infrastructure, economic and E&C sectors and were supported by the various EPWP contributing departments. It is clear from Table 6 above that the first two programmes for Vuk'uphile contributed positively to the infrastructure sector. The very high figures on the number of SMMEs established were from the emerging contractors of the E&C sector. Generally, the Economic sector programmes created 20 514 WOs over the five-year period in phase 1, thus surpassing the set target of 9 000 by a significant margin.

3.11 International experiences of public works programmes

In some countries, such as India and Bangladesh, the public works programmes have been successful. They managed to significantly reduce poverty and ameliorate unemployment. In average and low income countries, the government or a donor agency will finance a programme that will create temporary employment for people in the given community. The public works programmes are expected to yield three final impacts: raising the income levels of the poor or unemployed; reducing poverty and the poverty gap ratio; and lastly, promoting infrastructural development. It can be argued that it is possible for public works programmes to address or achieve these objectives simultaneously.

A second core component of the public works programme is skills development. The public works programme aims to provide training to its participants so that they will be able to gain permanent employment after the programme, or even become self-employed. This was the intention of the EPWP in SA. Some public works programmes have a strong training component that allows participants to gain the relevant skills needed for them to gain permanent employment. An example of this is the *Jefes* programme in Argentina, which had an option for participants to work for payment or to participate in training or education activities for four to six hours a day in exchange for the payment (Bokolo, 6:1 - 3)

Despite the fact that poverty elimination or at least reduction has taken the centre stage in the development rhetoric, the share of the developing country population living below the international poverty line, (colloquially known as \$1 per day at 1993 PPP) still remains at unacceptable levels. Reports for the most recent year, 2002, put this share below this line at about 21.7% which is about one fifth of the world's population, assuming that nobody lives below the \$1 per day in developed countries. (Chen & Ravallion 2004 and Global Monitoring Report 2006). This means that the decline (a fall of 6.6% from 28.3% in 1981) in the incidence

thereof has actually been very modest over the past 20 years or so (between 1981 and 2002). Table 7 below depicts the global progress in this regard and confirms that it was not uniform across the different regions:

Table 7: Regional comparison of income poverty in developing countries

Region	People living on less than US\$1 a day (million)				Share of population living on less than US\$1 a day (%)			
	1981	1990	2001	2002	1981	1990	2001	2002
East Asia & Pacific (EAP)	795.6	472.2	271.3	233.58	57.7	29.6	14.9	11.6
South Asia (SA)	474.8	462.3	431.1	541.79	51.5	41.3	31.3	31.2
Eastern Europe and Central Asia (ECA)	3.1	2.3	17	7.42	0.7	0.5	3.6	2.1
Latin America and Caribbean (LAC)	35.6	49.3	49.8	64.93	9.7	11.3	9.5	8.9
Middle East and North Africa (MENA)	9.1	49.3	49.8	64.93	9.7	11.3	9.5	8.9
Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA)	163.6	226.8	312.7	327.61	41.6	44.6	46.4	44.0
Total	1481.8	1218.5	1089.0	1181.43	28.3	27.9	24.5	21.7

(World Bank 2004, Chen & Ravallion 2004 and Global Monitoring Report, 2006)

Table 7 reflects that Sub-Saharan Africa is in danger of not even meeting the poverty reduction target of MDG1 that is; halving the 1990 \$1/day poverty rate by 2015. Economies that have done extremely well with regard to poverty reduction are mostly found in the East Asian and Pacific region. These include, inter alia, China and Vietnam, both of which have managed to reduce their poverty incidence by more than half since the 1980s. Apart from the poverty reduction success that is apparent in most East Asian economies, there are a number of other success stories that can be found elsewhere, including in regions that have achieved little or no progress in this regard. Uganda is one such example as reflected below under section 10.3. Although this country is situated in a region i.e. Sub-Saharan Africa, with the highest poverty incidence of 44.0% in 2002, it has managed to reverse its poverty rate from 56% in 1992 to 35.2% in 1999/2000 as displayed above in Table 5 even though this rapid rate of poverty reduction has slowed down somewhat in recent years.

This thesis gazed at some of best practices with regard to various anti-poverty strategies that have been implemented in China, Vietnam and Uganda. This is a very important exercise because there are valuable lessons that can be learnt from the experience of countries that have been relatively successful in reducing poverty. To ensure that these lessons would be relevant to the above, this thesis looked at

countries with a context that is similar to that of South Africa. Once these poverty reduction strategies have been examined, some general conclusions will be made on how best to deal with absolute poverty. In order to meet this objective, a variety of sources were consulted. If policy solutions to this end are to be effective, they need to, not only provide an integrated approach to the diverse set of factors that influence this phenomenon, but also be designed according to the context that circumscribes the society wherein they will be applied (White and Killick, 2001). The following reflects how China, Vietnam and Uganda successfully implemented the public works programmes in reducing their poverty levels:

3.11.1 An overview of how China managed to reduce poverty during the 1981-2003 periods

According to the World Bank (2004) the annual economic growth levels of 8-9% since the late 1970s, coupled with well designed and implemented poverty reduction programmes, have provided China with the ability to be able to uplift a total of about 402 million people out of poverty when using the international poverty line of \$1 per day during the 1981 - 2002 period. Wang *et al* (2004) cited that poverty reduction policies in China can be roughly divided into four phases, namely:

- The rural reform of 1978 - 1985
- The National Targeted Poverty Reduction Programmes of 1986 -1993
- The 8 - 7 Plan of 1994 - 2000
- The New Century Rural Poverty Alleviation Plan for 2001 - 2010

The most pressing challenge during the early years of the post-1978 reform period was to create economic opportunities for the poor by boosting rural economic growth through rural reforms. The national economy was stagnating, and poverty was widespread throughout the country, exacerbated by the shocks of the ten-year long Cultural Revolution and the long-standing restrictions on economic activity. In order to boost the rural economy, the government of China launched institutional reforms for the purposes of creating a reasonable economic incentive system that would, in turn, engender economic opportunities for the poor in the rural economy that were aimed at expanding agricultural production, diversifying the rural economy, improving the rural standard of living and promoting new technologies.

The fundamental institutional change was the land reform, characterised by the implementation of the household responsibility system in rural China, which allowed farmers to have use rights over productive land (i.e. the natural asset). Collectively

owned and operated land was distributed to farmers based on family size and the number of family workers. Farmers had the right to choose their own crop mix and input levels, as long as they fulfilled government quotas for certain grain and cash crops. Any surplus output could be sold in the free markets. This system motivated farmers to reduce production costs and to increase productivity, since their efforts were closely linked to their income. This was accompanied by increases in procurement prices and government encouragement of the establishment of free markets. Markets further stimulated agricultural production (Wang *et al.*, 2004:5). The early rural reforms delivered remarkable results in terms of poverty reduction, as well as agricultural production and rural industries. A strong growth in grain yields (5.7% per year) and rural industries, accompanied by sharp increases in agricultural procurement prices, raised rural incomes by 15% a year in real terms. The growth in agricultural production and farmers' income was spectacular in some extremely poverty stricken regions, such as the Huanghuaihai region in Eastern Fujian (Wang, 1994). As poverty in China was widely dispersed across China's rural areas in the early years of post-1979 reforms, rural income growth delivered nearly universal poverty reduction. Table 8 below demonstrates that between 1981 and 1984, income poverty, at the \$1/day level, fell from 49 to 24%, and the number of rural poor declined from 250 million in 1978 to 125 million in 1985, measured in terms of the official poverty line of \$0.66 per day.

Table 8: Rural poverty in China (1978-2004)

Year	Number of poor people (million)	Poverty incidence (%)
1978	250	33.1
1984	128	15.1
1985	125	14.8
1992	80.1	8.8
1993	75	8.2
1994	70	7.6
1995	65	7.1
1996	58	6.3
1997	49.6	5.4
1998	42.1	4.6
1999	34.1	3.7
2000	32.1	3.4
2001	29.3	3.2
2002	28.2	3.0
2003	29.2	3.1

(States Statistical Bureau (SSB), 1980 - 2004)

3.11.2 The national targeted poverty reduction programmes (1986 - 1993)

By the mid-1980s, rural economic growth and living conditions appeared to lag again, particularly in the revolutionary, minority and border regions. This translated into poverty reduction being relatively slower. Consequently, these areas received special attention in the Seventh Five Year Development Plan 1986 - 1990 (Wang *et al.*,

2004). This marked the beginning of China's targeted rural poverty reduction programmes. The rural poverty reduction programmes launched in the mid-1980s comprised a wide variety of actors, initiatives and funding channels. The State Council's Leading Group for Poverty Reduction (LGPR) was established in 1986 to provide coherence for the large number of poverty reduction initiatives and, in particular, to expedite economic development in poor areas. For the officially designated poor counties, the central government created special funds to support a subsidised loan programme, food for work (FFW) programme, and budgetary poor area development fund grants. Subsidised loans covered both households and enterprises in industry and agriculture, the food-for-work programme was utilising surplus farm labour, mainly to develop infrastructure, and government budgetary grants supported investment in poor areas across all sectors (World Bank, 2001b).

At the local level, most poor provinces, prefectures and counties had all established leading groups, and local governments were required to provide counterpart funds. Different agencies became responsible for different poverty reduction projects. Activities such as rural roads constructed under the FFW programme, for example, were implemented by local staff of the Transport Bureau. Certain preferential taxation treatment was offered to poor regions, and this went a long way in boosting the financial assets of the poor (Leading Group for Poverty Reduction and Development (LGPR) 1989). As highlighted in Table 6, rural poverty continued to decline during this period, although at a slower rate. By the end of the National Targeted Poverty Reduction Programmes (NTPRP) phase in 1992, rural poverty had declined to 80.1 million, and the incidence of rural poverty had fallen to 8.8%.

3.11.3. The 8 - 7 plan (1994 - 2000)

In 1994, the government introduced the 8 - 7 Plan (National Plan for Poverty Reduction), aspiring to lift the majority of the remaining 80 million poor above the government's poverty line during the seven-year period of 1994-2000. The purpose of the plan was to fast track creating more economic opportunities for the poor, by means of augmenting their essential assets. This would result in intensifying the poverty reduction policies that commenced in the second half of the 1980s. The 8 - 7 Plan outlined several objectives. According to Wang *et al* (2004), the 8 - 7 Plan aimed at the following:

- Assisting poor households with land improvement, increased cash crop, tree crop and livestock production, and improved access to off-farm employment opportunities.

- Providing most townships with road access and electricity, and improving access to drinking water for most poor villages.
- Accomplishing universal primary education and basic preventive and curative healthcare
- Graduating better-off counties in the coastal provinces from the newly established list of nationally designated poor counties
- Managing available funding successfully, with attention to the appraisal and financial viability of poverty reduction investment activities, recovery of loan funds and leakage of poverty reduction funding to alternative activities, and
- Enlisting involvement and support from all government ministries and agencies, coastal provinces and major municipalities, and other domestic and international organisations.

In implementing the 8 - 7 Plan, the selection of poor counties was refined by the Government. The effectiveness of poverty reduction activities were emphasised as the responsibility of local government leaders within their jurisdictions. Since 1997, the jump by over 50% on annual funding for poverty reduction was observed. This reversed a decade of decline in real funding for poverty reduction in China. The 8 - 7 Plan sustained below three channels of interventions launched in 1986, that is, the subsidised loans programme, government budgetary grants, and food-for-work programme. The subsidised loans programme accounted for the greatest increase in funding (Wang *et al.*, 2004). As a consequence of the above interventions, poverty reduction in China accelerated, particularly during the period 1994 - 1996. Table 6 shows that the number of rural poor declined from 70 million to 29 million between 1994 and 2001.

According to Wang *et al* (2004:3), the rapid rate of economic growth was directly supported by the 8 - 7 Plan, agricultural price increases (related to the 1994 - 1996 government procurement reform) and rural-urban migration and poverty reduction efforts. In addition to the reduction of poverty, there was also steady progress in human capital development in China in the 1990s. By 2001, adult literacy rates had risen to 85% and enrolment rates to 99% (net) in primary schools and 89% and 44% (gross) in junior and senior secondary schools respectively. During the period 1980 - 2001, the average years of schooling in the 15-64 year age group rose from 5 to 8 years. In terms of educational attainment, the share of the population with primary schooling remained at about 35%, but the shares increased from 15% to 34% for those with junior secondary schooling and from 6% to 11% for those with senior

secondary and technical schooling. Major progress was also achieved in healthcare, with China overhauling lower middle-income standards by 2001 (Wang *et al.*, 2004:2).

3.11.4. China's current poverty reduction strategy: the new century rural poverty alleviation plan (2001 - 2010)

In spite of the impressive improvements in terms of poverty incidence in rural areas by the year 1999, rural-urban and coast-interior disparities in poverty reduction had widened. Moreover, within some of these high-level poverty regions, particularly the western regions, poor households were, and still are, relatively scattered in poor villages, that were marked by poor agricultural land and weak infrastructure, rather than being concentrated in poor counties. The implication of this was that targeting poor counties was no longer effective. In view of this, the Chinese government launched a New Century Rural Poverty Alleviation Plan for 2001 - 2010. This new plan targeted poor villages rather than poor counties, emphasising the development of poor people's essential assets (particularly the human asset) in poor localities, and promoting participatory poverty reduction approaches. China's Rural Poverty Reduction and Development Compendium (2001 - 2010) was drafted and issued in 2001. Villages have been made the basic unit of targeting, and poverty reduction investments will cover poor villages in non-poor counties, while the list of poor counties has been updated in order to focus more on the western regions.

The new plan emphasises, among other things, the development of science and technology, education and healthcare, recognising that illness has been the principal factor pushing rural households into poverty. Furthermore, the new plan calls for participatory poverty reduction approaches and village-based comprehensive development and overall progress (LGPR 2001 and GAO 2001). Finally, the new plan has recognised, contrary to what has been stated that rural urban migration is a critical avenue for poverty reduction, and new policy initiatives are making it easier for rural inhabitants to benefit from new job opportunities arising in China's towns and cities. The recent poverty statistics reflected in Table 6 show that this current poverty reduction strategy has managed to reduce China's rural poverty slightly, from 32.1 million people in 2000 to 29.0 million people in 2003.

3.11.5 An overview of how Vietnam managed to reduce poverty during the 1993 - 2004 period

Same as China, there are two main factors that were responsible for Vietnam's success in poverty reduction during the 1993 - 2004 periods. These are:

- Good economic performance, especially in rural areas which has been attributed to the economic and institutional reforms of the late 1980s
- Various targeted poverty reduction programmes that were initiated in 1992.

These two factors will be discussed below:

3.11.5.1 The impact of economic growth on poverty reduction during the 1993 - 2004 periods in Vietnam

At the end of the 1980 - 1988 periods, the status quo of the Vietnamese economy was dire. Output expansion dropped, and the rates of inflation accelerated to several hundred percent per year, with a peak of 774.7% in 1986. The real income of the majority of government employees fell sharply. Poor weather and poor incentives led to a miserable agricultural harvest in 1987, with grain production down by nearly one million tons from the 1986 level. Regional food shortages caused real hardship in some areas. In the north, supply did not meet demand, leading to starvation in 21 provinces and cities in early 1988, affecting 9.3 million people, who represented 39.7% of farm households, of which 3.6 million people were subject to serious starvation (Nguyen and Chu, 1996:13).

In order to remedy this situation, in the Sixth Party Congress in December 1986, the Vietnamese Congress approved the *doi-moi* (Renovation) programme, which was an official promulgation of socio-economic policies that began in the early 1980s. Up until March 1989, the implementation of this 'Renovation' programme was very slow. However, after March 1989, the Vietnamese government made significant changes in the direction of the *doi-moi*. Similarly to the various economic and institutional reforms that were undertaken in China, the *doi-moi* programme sought to create economic opportunities for the poor, as well as foster sound macroeconomic management that would engender a reasonable economic incentive system for private businesses to mushroom. Furthermore, the *doi-moi* programme was associated with the distribution of agricultural land to rural households, marketisation of the rural economy, and the creation of the right incentives for farm production such as the relaxation of trade restrictions on rice exports; relaxation on internal barriers in order to allow rice to flow from the south to the north; reduction in fertiliser supply constraints, by allowing state-owned enterprises that earned foreign exchange to import fertiliser directly; and improved development of market infrastructure. *Doi-moi* also eliminated production and consumption subsidies and streamlined the public sector (Dollar and Litvack, 1998:32 and Weinns, 1998:19). In addition, this reform effort included the stabilisation

of inflation and the liberalisation of foreign trade and investment (Dollar, 2002: 20). What also accompanied the foregoing measures was the creation of a legal framework for the corporate sector through promulgating and amending business-related laws and regulations.

During the 1990s, as a result of the above reforms, Vietnam turned into one of the fastest growing economies in the world, with an average GDP growth rate of between 7 - 8% per annum throughout the 1993 - 2004 periods. Inflation was kept under control at a low, single digit level. Vietnam's commitments to market oriented reform and its impressive achievements in economic growth and poverty reduction have resulted in substantial increases in overseas development assistance. The reforms in Vietnam were supported by foreign governments and international organisations. Twenty billion of US dollars of Official Development Assistance (ODA) were committed. From 1993 to 2004, over \$14 billion of ODA has been disbursed, out of total commitments of nearly USD 29 billion. The ODA funds were used to assist in developing infrastructure, capacity building, improving the system of public administration and further improvement of investment environment (Nam, 2006:31).

Vietnam performed well in agriculture by growing at slightly over 5.6%, while industrial value-added tax (VAT) increased rapidly at an average rate of 11.2% per year. An increase by 7% per year on the service sector was observed. During the 1990s, there was a high agricultural growth in Vietnam which turned from a rice-importing country into the second largest rice exporter in the world. Vietnamese agricultural competitiveness has converted to a major exporter of rice, agricultural products such as cashew nuts, coffee and pepper. Vietnam has enhanced its exports from 854.2 million US\$ in 1987 to 11,540.0 million US\$ in 1999 (Dollar, 2002:22).

Table 9: Poverty incidence in Vietnam

Percent	1993	1998	2002	2004
Poverty Rate	58.1	37.4	28.9	19.5
Urban	25.1	9.2	6.6	3.6
Rural	66.4	45.5	35.6	25.0
Food Poverty	24.9	15.0	10.9	7.4
Urban	7.9	2.5	1.9	0.8
Rural	29.1	18.6	13.6	9.7
Poverty Gap	18.5	9.5	6.9	4.7
Urban	6.4	1.7	1.3	0.7
Rural	21.5	11.8	8.7	6.1

(Fan *et al.*, 2004)

Vietnam has made substantial and steady progress in poverty reduction, particularly in the agricultural sector. Table 9 displays that the poverty rate dropped from 58.1% in

1993 to 37.4% in 1998, 28.9% in 2002 and 19.5% in 2004, while in the same years, food poverty declined from 24.9% to 15%, 10.9% and 7.4%. Rural and urban poverty declined sharply during the 1990s. The depth of poverty also declined in both rural and urban areas. According to Fan *et al* (2004), this decline in poverty in Vietnam reflects rising household expenditures and GDP per capita, due to an increase in real income (i.e. financial assets) during the 1990s. Income and thus expenditure levels improved significantly during the 1990s. The real annual per capita expenditure was 1,936 thousand Vietnamese dong (VND) which is equivalent to 130 US\$ in 1992 - 1993, 2,764 VND in 1997 - 1998, and 3,229 VND in 2002. The annual average household per capita expenditure rose by 7.4% between 1993 and 1998; and by 4.0% between 1998 and 2002. These figures indicate a considerable improvement in living standards during the 1990s.

3.11.5.2 The impact of national poverty reduction programmes on poverty reduction during the 1993 - 2004 period in Vietnam

Besides focusing on attaining macroeconomic stability which generated, inter alia, economic growth as well as creating economic opportunities for the poor by way of, for example, distributing land, the Vietnamese government also initiated a number of targeted programmes that were mainly aimed at assisting those who lacked the necessary assets to participate meaningfully in the general economy. After recognising that poverty was a serious barrier to development, the 7th Congress of the leading Communist Party of Vietnam (CPV) in 1991 called on the government to pay more attention to boosting the essential assets of the poor by supplying better social services and improving infrastructure in poor regions. In 1992, the administration of Ho Chi Minh City initiated a hunger eradication and poverty reduction action plan. Soon thereafter, this plan was adopted and extended to some other provinces. As a result, hunger eradication and poverty reduction quickly became a nation-wide movement (Vu, 2005:35).

During the period 1992 - 1995, the government took various steps towards poverty reduction within a framework of 14 national development programmes, such as reforestation, job creation, provision of preferential credit, eradication of illiteracy, reduction of child malnutrition, etc. The budget allocated to these national programmes was 2,855 billion VND, of which 1,328 billion VND (or 47%) was provided as credit for households, 629 billion VND (or 23%) for essential goods supplied to the poor to address immediate poverty (e.g. food, salt, clothes, blankets, kerosene, etc.), and 835 billion VND (or 30%) for the construction of communal

infrastructure for long-term economic opportunities such as rural roads, electricity grids, irrigation, schools, commune clinics, etc. In addition to the state budget, local people voluntarily contributed 425 billion VND for poverty reduction activities (Ha, 2002). A special financial service institution, the Bank for the Poor, now renamed the Bank for Social Policies was established in 1995 to encourage the economic development of the poor. In 1993, the Ministry of Labour Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) promulgated the national poverty line to guide the identification process of poor households, who were targets of poverty reduction policies and projects (Vu, 2005:13).

In 1996, the government established the National Targeted Program for Hunger Eradication and Poverty Reduction (HEPR), with the aim of co-ordinating poverty reduction actions and mobilising more resources to fight against poverty. The National Targeted Program for Hunger Eradication and Poverty Reduction for the period 1998 - 2000 were approved in July 1998. A job creation component was included during the period 2001-2005 and was named the National Targeted Program for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction and Job Creation (HEPR in short, or Programme 143). Another programme, the Programme for Socio-Economic Development in Communes faced with Extreme Difficulties (PDCED, also known as Programme 135), which (like China) focused on poverty reduction in the poorest regions, was also promulgated in 1998. From 2000 onwards, the earlier national targeted projects which were mainly aimed at supporting disadvantaged households of ethnic minorities, sedentarisation, and the construction of inter-commune centres in mountainous regions were integrated into Program 135.

This programme was, in turn, designed to focus on poverty reduction in the poorest communes and ethnic minority groups. In addition, there were other national targeted programmes, poverty alleviation programmes and development projects supported by international donors implemented in different regions, which also considered poverty reduction as one of their major goals (Vu, 2005). Besides the abovementioned specialised programmes for poverty reduction, the Vietnamese government also issued several policies for social protection, health insurance, exemption of education fees, support for improvement of private housing, supply of safe water, additional allocation of cultivated land to the poor, support for ethnic minority groups, etc., which have been implemented by different authorities (Vu,2005). Table 10 below reflects the indicators on the Vietman development for the poor:

Table 10: Vietnam development for the poor (1993 - 2002)

INDICATOR	YEAR		
	1993	1998	2002
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education 			
Primary enrolment rate (net)			
Female	87.1	90.7	100
Male	86.3	92.1	107
Lower secondary enrolment rate (net)			
Female	29.0	62.1	67*
Male	31.2	61.3	72*
Upper secondary enrolment rate (net)			
Female	6.1	27.4	
Male	8.4	30.0	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Child Nutrition 			
Incidence of stunting among children 0-59 months	51	34	
Female	51	33	
Male	50	35	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adult Nutrition 			
Incidence of moderate and severe malnutrition in adults (Body Mass Index less than 18.5)	32	28	
Female (non-pregnant)	32	30	
Male	32	25	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Access to Infrastructure 			
% of rural population with public health centre within the commune	93	97	
% of rural population with access to clean water	17	29	
% of urban population with access to clean water	60	75	
% of rural population using electricity as a main source of lighting	48	77	

(Swinkels & Turk 2003 and United Nations Development Program, 2007)

This represents the average of secondary enrolment rates. In other words, the secondary demarcation (i.e. lower secondary and upper secondary) does not apply. The above mentioned programmes have had a positive effect on poverty reduction in Vietnam. According to MOLISA's 1993 poverty definition, from 17.7% in 1997 to 10% in 2000, the objective of the HEPR during the period 1998 - 2000 was eradication of chronic hunger and reduction of the poverty rate. This objective was reached after three years of HEPR implementation. The housing policy in Vietnam had impacted on

about 260 000 households by the end of 2004. These households have received assistance for housing improvement, of which 180 000 constructed new houses and 80 000 repaired their existing houses. In addition to these, a lot of other developments as highlighted in table 10 have benefited the poor, including infrastructure development in rural areas, electrification, access to education and healthcare, better water supply, irrigation for poor farmers, access to telecommunications etc (Clark, 2009)

3.11.5.3 An overview of how Uganda managed to reduce poverty during the 1992 - 2000 periods

As in the case of China and Vietnam, the two main forces behind Uganda's success in poverty reduction are economic growth which has been attained through a series of economic and institutional reforms, and a wide range of poverty reduction programmes. Precisely how these translated into improved living conditions for the poor will be discussed in the sections below:

3.11.5.4 The impact of economic growth on poverty reduction during the 1992 - 2000 periods in Uganda

When the National Resistance Movement (NRM) came into power in January 1986, it inherited an economy in ruins. The rate of inflation was very high. It was running at an annual rate that was over 100%, occasioned by economic mismanagement and the scarcity of basic goods. The official exchange rate was highly overvalued with unofficial rates many times greater, thereby curbing the level of exports. Government finances were so weak that foreign exchange reserves only provided two weeks' import cover. The banking system was unable to provide loans for working capital and productive investment, on account of insolvency. Growth rates went into reverse, with real GDP declining by 10% between 1984 and 1985. By this time, the economy had shrunk by more than 20%, compared to a peak in 1970. Aid flows had fallen to very low levels, following a modest recovery in the form of quick-disbursing IMF credits to assist with economic stabilisation in the early 1980s (Kasekende and Atingi-Ego 1999; Devarajan *et al.*, 2001).

In May 1987, the NRM-led government was faced with the severity of the economic crisis. With the help of the World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and bilateral donors embarked on the economic recovery programme (ERP), which was a standard IMF/World Bank structural adjustment programme (SAP). According to Opolot and Kuteesa (2006:3), the broad policy objectives of this reform programme focused on stabilisation of the economy through the restoration of fiscal and monetary

discipline; liberalisation of consumer and producer prices; liberalisation of interest rates within a restructured and more efficient financial system; liberalisation of the foreign exchange market and the strengthening of the balance of payments position; liberalisation of trade and compliance with other regional and international trade obligations; and the privatisation and rationalisation of state enterprises. Below are some of the key policy measures which were undertaken so as to fulfil the foregoing policy objectives:

- The Coffee Marketing Board (CMB), the Lint Marketing Board (LMB) monopolies and the Produce Marketing Board (PMB) were all abolished in the early 1990s. This meant that exporters were now free to borrow directly from commercial banks to pay farmers, instead of going through marketing boards. These market reforms were also accompanied by the removal of restrictions on the movement of produce across districts.
- Government interest in agricultural pricing and marketing activities was divested. Instead, the role of government institutions was narrowed down to supportive activities such as quality control, provision of market information, and research and development.
- A pricing policy was introduced. This policy focused on the liberalisation of input and output prices by reducing or eliminating subsidies on agricultural inputs such as fertilisers and credit, realigning domestic prices with world market prices, eliminating pan-territorial and pan-seasonal pricing, and reducing exchange rate overvaluation. It was expected that this would benefit poor, smallholder rural households whose real incomes were assumed to rise in line with relative price movements.
- Import and export procedures were liberalised and licensing requirements abolished. Import controls were replaced with tariff-based protection, and the temporary export stabilisation tax on coffee exports was removed.
- The Bank of Uganda (BOU) initiated a facility to provide medium to long-term financing to potential exporters through a number of credit lines and support schemes. These credit lines and schemes supported by external donor agencies provided loans to small- and medium-sized enterprises within the private sector through licensed banks.
- The National Agricultural Research Organisation was established in 1992, with the objective of undertaking, promoting and co-ordinating research in aspects pertaining to agricultural development.

As a result of the abovementioned efforts and more, the Ugandan economy has recovered very well. During the 1990s, the economic growth rate accelerated to 6.9%

per annum which influenced positively the inflation turn out. This resulted in the rise of the GDP per capita from \$251 in 1990 (1995 constant prices) to \$347 in 1999. The annual inflation rate has declined to less than 10% per annum after the volatile trend in consumer prices during the 1980s which led to a headline annual inflation rate of 250% in 1987. There was a rise in producer prices and a surge in production as a result of the abolishment of the marketing board's monopoly on coffee, tea and cotton at the beginning of the 1990s. Uganda regained its position as Africa's leading coffee exporter. Farmers' share of the export price was less than 30% at the time when the CMB was solely responsible for exporting Uganda's coffee. Their share rose from 45% in 1991/92 to 82% in 1996/97 after liberalisation of the coffee sub-sector in 1991. This has positive impacts for poverty, because an estimated 2.5 million people which is about 13% of the total population depend on coffee for their livelihood through production and marketing (Opolot and Kuteesa, 2006:16).

What is also apparent from the literature is that this economic recovery coincided with a reduction in the poverty incidence (Kappel *et al.*, 2004 and Fan *et al.*, 2004 and Kabanankye *et al.*, 2004). Table 11 below shows that the incidence of poverty declined from 55.5% in 1992 to 35.2% in 1999/2000, but nearly half of this reduction occurred after 1997. In the five years from 1992 to 1997, Uganda reduced its poverty rate by 11.5 percentage points. However, it reduced this by more than 10 percentage points in only two years, i.e. from 1997-99. Similar to China and Vietnam, Table 11 also confirms that poverty has declined in both the rural and urban areas, although it appears as if urban residents benefited more from the recent economic boom than did their rural counterparts. Another interesting similarity between these East Asian economies and Uganda has to do with the fact that areas with better infrastructure have been more successful in reducing poverty. For instance, the central region has the best infrastructure in the country and the lowest incidence of both rural and urban poverty. Poverty reduction was also the greatest within this region. Table 11 indicates that in the north, however, where infrastructure is poor, the incidence of poverty is almost double the national average and poverty reduction has been the smallest within this region.

Table 11: Incidence of poverty in Uganda (1992 - 2000)

REGION	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1997/98	1999/2000
National	55.5	52.2	50.1	48.5	44	35.2
Rural	59.4	56.7	54.0	53.0	48.2	39.1
Urban	28.2	20.6	22.3	19.5	16.3	10.3
Central	45.5	35.6	30.5	30.1	27.7	20.3
Rural	52.8	43.4	35.9	37.1	34.3	25.7
Urban	21.5	14.2	14.6	14.5	11.5	7.4
East	59.2	58.0	64.9	57.5	54.3	36.5
Rural	61.1	60.2	66.8	59.4	56.8	38.4
Urban	40.6	30.5	41.5	31.8	24.8	15.7
West	52.8	56.0	50.4	46.7	42.0	28.1
Rural	53.8	57.4	51.6	48.3	43.2	29.5
Urban	29.7	24.9	25.4	16.2	19.9	5.6
North	71.3	69.2	63.5	68.0	58.8	65.8
Rural	72.2	70.9	65.1	70.3	60.7	67.7
Urban	52.6	46.2	39.8	39.6	32.6	30.6

(UBOS 1992 - 2000 cited in Fan *et al.*, 2004)

3.11.5.5 The impact of poverty reduction programmes on poverty reduction during the 1992 - 2000 periods in Uganda

In addition to policies that were meant for restoring macro-economic stability and economic growth, there were a number of other policies that placed more emphasis on poverty alleviation, although these were initially muted in the early years of the economic and institutional reforms. These initially focused on efforts to mitigate the perceived negative effects of structural adjustment on some groups within the population. The PAPSCA programme that started in 1990 was similar to many such programmes initiated under the auspices of the World Bank-supported social dimensions of adjustment programmes. However, by 1994, MFPED officials recognised the need for a more comprehensive analysis and strategy to tackle poverty, partly motivated by strong pressure from elements within the ruling National Resistance Movement (NRM), who were convinced that poverty was getting worse during the adjustment years. The government had moved away from socialist policies, but not from the objective of a more prosperous and equal society, and was particularly sensitive to such criticism from within its own ranks (Foster and Mijumbi, 2002:23).

Subsequent to a 1995 workshop; in which the Uganda president participated, the first poverty eradication action plan (PEAP) (i.e. Uganda's current official poverty reduction strategy) was prepared in 1997 as the overarching document, setting out government's poverty reduction strategy. It was subsequently updated in 2000, with far broader consultation, including a participatory poverty assessment to determine the views of the poor themselves. The PEAP has four pillars of action and according to the government of Uganda (2000), these are:

- Creating an enabling environment for rapid and sustainable economic growth and structural transformation (this pillar is associated with macroeconomic stability, equitable and efficient collection and use of public resources, and private sector development)
- Good governance and security (this pillar is associated with conflict resolution, decentralised governance, with strengthened bottom up accountability, tackling corruption, legal sector reform and public information)
- Actions that directly increase the ability of the poor to increase their income (this pillar is associated with access to agricultural advisory services, rural finance and markets, sustainable natural resource utilisation, rural roads, secure access to land, and sustainable energy resources for the poor)
- Actions that directly improve the quality of life of the poor (this pillar is associated with free primary education, improved healthcare, reducing the HIV/AIDS infection rate, improved access to clean water and sanitation, and improved adult literacy).

The PEAP was further buttressed by the creation of the poverty action fund (PAF). The PAF is where money from debt relief is channelled, with the sole purpose of funding activities that have a direct bearing on poverty, such as primary education, primary health care, agricultural extension, feeder roads, water and sanitation, etc. In essence, the PAF strengthened the government budget allocation emphasis on infrastructure and social services (Foster and Mijumbi, 2002:9). In line with the PEAP, especially the policies that are aligned with the last two pillars, the living standards of the poor were improved. For example, in addition to the poverty reduction that was due to the positive effects of the free market reforms, major investments in roads have contributed to lower transportation costs, which have, in turn, led to a significant reduction in the spread of market prices. Likewise, the introduction of free primary education resulted in a 90% increase in enrolments (Larson and Deininger, 2001). Health standards improved as a result of increased access to safe water, proper sanitation and better health facilities. The most significant achievement has been the halving of HIV infection rates from 14% in 1995 to 6.1% in 2000, following a relentless public education campaign (Uganda Demographic & Health Survey, 20001/2002).

Table 12 reveals that China, Vietnam and Uganda implemented best practices with regard to poverty alleviation in which interventions hold particular relevance. The following are the reasons why it is necessary to examine poverty reduction in the three countries:

Table 12: Reasons for choosing to examine poverty reduction in China, Vietnam and Uganda

CHINA	VIETMAN	UGANDA
<p>(i) Due to the fact that it is a country, which is highly populated, progress (pertaining to poverty reduction) translates into significant poverty reduction at a global level.</p> <p>(ii) Targeted poor villages rather than poor counties, emphasises the development of poor people's essential assets</p> <p>(iii)The country has managed a steady progress in human capital development in the 1990s and grew its economy at a rate of 8-9% since the late 1970s.</p> <p>(iv)The economic growth in the country has trickled down to the poor, thereby lifting over 500 million people out of poverty.</p> <p>(v) Declined rural poverty to 80.1 million, and the incidence of rural poverty had fallen to 8.8%.</p> <p>(vi) Managed effectively a joint effect of economic growth which directly supported agricultural price increases rural-urban migration and poverty reduction effort</p> <p>(vii)The country has managed to significantly improve its key socio-economic indicators, especially in the areas of health and education.</p> <p>(viii) In the same way as South Africa, poverty is mainly concentrated in rural areas that have poor infrastructure, agricultural land, etc</p> <p>(ix)Augmented their essential assets</p>	<p>(i) It has managed to overcome the negative effects of a war that lasted for 30 years by being able to achieve price stability and an annual economic growth rate of 7-8% between 1993 and 2004.</p> <p>(ii) Moreover, as a result of this growth, it has managed to reduce its poverty levels from 58.1% in 1993 to 19.5% in 2004.</p> <p>(iii)The government issued several policies backing up poverty alleviation programmes and development projects.</p> <p>(iv)This country has made substantial and steady progress in poverty reduction.</p> <p>(iv) It has also managed to open doors at financial institutions and invests in other key developments that have benefited the poor.</p> <p>(v) The development focus in this country was infrastructure and agriculture in rural areas, electrification, access to education and health, better water supply, irrigation for poor farmers, access to telecommunication etc.</p> <p>(v)Foster sound macroeconomic management that would engender a reasonable economic incentive system for private businesses to mushroom</p>	<p>(i)This country was able to grow its economy through a series of economic and institutional reforms at a rapid rate.</p> <p>(ii)Their government managed to review its policies and that influenced the impact positively</p> <p>(iii)Much as they faced poverty but this country has managed to reduce its HIV infection rates by half.</p> <p>(iv)They were also faced with poverty that is concentrated in rural areas with poor infrastructure, agricultural land, etc., similar in South Africa.</p> <p>(v)They encouraged the use of public resources and private sector development</p> <p>(vi)The were able to embark on the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP)</p> <p>(vii)The managed to reduce its poverty rate by 11.5 percentage points from 1992 to 1997, and reduced this by more than 10 percentage points in only two years, i.e. from 1997-99.</p>

(Opolot and Kuteesa, 2006; Vu, 2005 and Wang *et al.*, 2004)

3.12 Moving towards international best practices

In all of the cases discussed above, there is consistency with regard to factors responsible for poverty reduction. Evidence from these cases suggests that a potentially successful poverty reduction strategy should encompass the following three complementary elements:

- Creation of economic opportunities for the poor
- Good governance, i.e. sound macroeconomic management that engenders macroeconomic stability
- Social programmes (i.e. social safety nets) that are targeted at the poor.

3.12.1 Creation of economic opportunities for the poor: augmenting the poor people's assets and providing them with market access

Findings from the above cases suggest that an improvement in the gini-coefficient measurement serves to reinforce the favourable effect of growth on poverty and vice versa. Significantly, economic reforms in China were initiated in a reasonably low inequality environment, which had a gini-coefficient measurement of 32.0 in 1980. As such, economic growth which emanated mainly from these reforms trickled down to the poor with greater ease. What is even more interesting about China's case is that poverty reduction was fastest during the period 1980 - 84. This is when income growth coincided with a reduction in income inequality from 32.0 in 1980 to 25.7 during the 1980 - 84 periods. However, when income inequality increased (from 35.5 in 1990 to 44.7 in 2001), there was also a decline in the poverty reduction rate (State Statistical Bureau, 1980 - 2004). Similarly, the benefits of economic growth in Uganda have been broad-based, with overall income poverty declining from 56% in 1992 to 35% in 2000, as this growth occurred in a low inequality environment. This was even more so when the gini-coefficient declined to 34.7 in 1997/98 from 36.4 in 1992/93 (Fan *et al.*, 2004). However, the trend in poverty reduction was reversed from 35.2% in 2000 to 38.8% in 2002/03.

According to Kabanankye *et al* (2004:22), this may be attributed to the fact that income inequality increased during the 1998- 2003 period (gini-coefficient rose from 34.7 to 42.8), when GDP growth had slowed. In Vietnam, the various reforms were also initiated in a reasonably low inequality environment. For example, in 1993, the initial stage of economic reforms, the ginicoefficient in Vietnam measured 34. As this figure grew to 35 in 1998 and 37 in 2002 the rate of poverty reduction also decreased (World Bank, 2004). Based on this, it is therefore important that growth oriented policies should be accompanied by measures that enable the poor to share in this growth. This calls for what White and Killick (2001:34) refer to as double-blessed policies, i.e. policies that promote both economic growth and a more broad-based distribution of benefits. These are comprehensive policies which are aimed at:

- Augmenting the poor people's assets and poverty reduction.
- Providing access to markets for the poor.

Subsequent to the view that the poor are in this state because they lack access to essential assets, the development of poor people's possession of (or access to) assets is of fundamental importance in the fight against poverty. This view is motivated by the fact that improving the various (human, physical, natural and financial) assets that poor people possess, or have access to, can enable them to take advantage of economic opportunities whenever they arise. This can, in turn, enable the poor to escape poverty especially since there are powerful complementarities across assets that is, the benefits of one asset can depend significantly on access to another (World Bank, 2000). Moreover, an increased number of participants in the general economy enable the government to accrue more tax revenue (from the newly employed individuals and increased company profits) that can be utilised towards, inter alia, infrastructure and programmes that are targeting the poor. In essence, focusing solely on attaining rapid economic growth, without actually paying attention to enhancing the diverse assets that the poor possess, can prove to be detrimental to the war against poverty; access to markets and poverty reduction. Just like everyone else, the poor rely on formal and informal markets to sell their main asset (i.e. labour) and other agricultural products (Bathrick, 1998). Consequently, access to such markets is paramount for the poor, because not only does it enable them to commercialise their productive activities, but it also provides them with an opportunity to improve their socio-economic circumstances. In light of this, it is therefore important that the various barriers that tend to limit economic opportunities for the poor are minimised, especially since these barriers tend to be higher for the poor, since, in comparison with everyone else, more of them live in remote areas and lack connections. It is evident from the cases of China, Vietnam and Uganda that; there are a variety of ways in which these barriers can be removed. This includes improving property rights to land (for example, security/clarity of property rights and access to land through land reform) and improving access to credit through an increase in low-cost microfinance schemes.

3.12.2 Good governance: sound macroeconomic management

What is also evident from the cases discussed above is that sound macroeconomic management plays a crucial role in poverty reduction. Due to institutional and economic reforms (which included policies that fostered, inter alia, trade liberalisation, low inflation, more competition and the liberalisation of state monopolies), these countries have managed to create a reasonable economic incentive system, i.e. an environment that is conducive to the mushrooming of private businesses. Since private business is the engine for economic growth, this reasonable economic

incentive system has, to date, managed to engender remarkable economic growth levels of 8 - 9%, 7 - 8% and 6 - 7% in China, Vietnam and Uganda respectively. Most importantly, economic growth in all these countries has been rapid and sustainable enough to offset the tendencies of population growth. When the economy is growing, it will directly reduce the living conditions of the poor, as well as the scope for redistribution. Moreover, growth particularly in the initial stages of the reforms in these countries has also been pro-poor. Same applies to South Africa, these above mentioned three countries growth pattern's has been broad-based and inclusive with respect to the sectors in which poor women and youth earn their livelihoods, as well as men in the regions in which they live. Hence, growth in these countries has easily translated into higher earnings for the poor through increased economic opportunities. These employment opportunities match the skills that are mainly possessed by the poor and increased business opportunities for the self-employed. The lesson to be learnt is therefore clear that, countries should pursue policies that foster a macroeconomic environment which is conducive to attaining rapid, pro-poor and sustainable economic growth (Mbuli, 2008:122 - 125).

3.12.3 Targeted programmes: social safety nets

Due to their nature, the above two axes of intervention take long periods of time to take effect. In some instances, they even have adverse effects that exacerbate the living conditions of the poor, presumably in the short-term. As a result, it is therefore important to devise, as has been done in China, Vietnam and Uganda, social programmes that are aimed at softening the hardships which are vulnerable individuals or households have to bear. However, these social programmes should be designed in such a way that incentives are to be a productive member of society and are not unduly diminished. Moreover, for the purposes of efficiency, these should be mainly targeted towards areas that are seen to be having a relatively higher level of poverty incidence, just as was done in the above cases, and these should have a time-frame, so as to determine their effectiveness. These social programmes should be specifically directed towards pressing issues (such as high unemployment rates; malnutrition; and a lack of or inadequate access to lodging, schooling and healthcare facilities) that require immediate relief. There is a broad range of mechanisms that can be devised in this regard. These include, among other things, pension systems (targeted at older people), disability benefits, child support grants, public works programmes and free primary education (Vu, 2005:4).

3.13 Strategies that can be adapted to a South African setting

It has been stated by Hadland; Chief Research Specialist at the Human Science Research Council (HSRC) (Cape Times 20 November (2006:13)) that an astonishing 18 million South Africans are poor and the number is growing all the time. 40% unemployment rate is one of the highest in the world and poses profound challenges to policy makers. What is worse in SA in terms of our *modus operandi* is that when one is unemployed mentally and practically it means poverty whereas this is not the case in other countries. In other countries, there are a variety of safety nets or benefits available to stave off disaster when you lose your job. According to McCord (2003) in India people are guaranteed minimum wage employment by their local authority, and if there is nothing to do they are paid a salary that will meet their basic needs. There are various social grants available in SA; however none of them caters for the rank poverty. Its focus is on children, people with disabilities and pensioners.

According to Borat and Kanbur (2006); there is overwhelming evidence to suggest that poverty is on the march in SA. McCord (2003:7) stated that even if SA achieves 6% economic growth, we still have unemployment per annum among lower and/or unskilled people of around 30%. The end of SA's economic isolation in the 1990s together with a shift in the structure of the economy from primary to tertiary economic production, has led to the loss of half a million jobs in the primary sector. It has been observed that only skilled jobs were growing in the past 20 years of South African democracy. When it was conceived, the EPWP was meant to be a ladder by which members of the marginalised and unemployed poor will ascend out of poverty into the first economy. McCord argued that in the EPWP phase 1 there is little to differentiate people who participated in the EPWP from those who did not. The average length of the EPWP was too short as cited in the *Cape Times* (2006:13) that is; four months and eight average days of training. It is a short period for parents to invest in school uniform, education, and improved nutritional levels with confidence. McCord (2003) further contends that a once off transfer is not a response to sustained poverty. Mirjam van Donk, director of Isanda Institute mentioned that chronic systematic poverty is clearly a reality for many South Africans today. PWPs are seen as short term and not considered as emergency responses to cyclical shocks in labour markets and are not generally considered an appropriate response towards addressing structural employment challenges and chronic poverty (Korstzer *et al*, 2010). Despite this notion, other international experiences show that large scale interventions can be successful in substantially reducing unemployment. McCord (2003) and Phillips (2004) further mentioned that in the USA, The Deal Programme

during the 1930's Great Depression managed to absorb more than 30% of the unemployed in their respective countries. Hadland (2006:13) argued that "Government fixation on the EPWP; together with its blind faith that small and medium sized business will roll back South African's march into poverty is providing one of the greatest hindrances to a change in policy".

For any country to be able to deal with poverty, unemployment and skills shortage, it needs to have an effective strategy. In this thesis; strategies of the three countries, China, Vietnam and Uganda were looked at including policies that they implemented to achieve varying degrees of success in poverty reduction. Table 13 below is a summary of various anti-poverty strategies that have been adopted by these respective countries. There is a plethora of poverty reduction strategies that the SA government has embarked upon since the start of the democratic era. These various strategies shown in Table 13 are divided into the following categories: measures that foster pro-poor economic growth, job creation measures and infrastructure programmes earmarked to address household consumption basic needs; contributory and non-contributory social security measures; and asset building or redistribution measures. To be effective, strategies are coupled with massive stakeholders' active participation.

Table 13: A summary of anti-poverty strategies that have been adopted by China, Vietnam and Uganda

COUNTRY	ANTIPOVERTY STRATEGIES
China	<p>(i) The Chinese government stimulated (rural) economic growth by implementing reforms which were aimed at, among other things, assisting poor households with land improvement; increasing cash crops, tree crops and livestock production; procuring goods produced by poor farmers at reasonable prices; and improving access to off-farm employment opportunities.</p> <p>(ii) Programmes aimed at improving the income-generating prospects of the poor (in particular, providing the poor with access to arable land, education and healthcare) were implemented.</p> <p>(iii) For the officially designated 'poor' areas, (a) the central government created special funds to support a subsidised loan programme, food-for-work (FFW) programme, and budgetary poor area development fund grants; (b) in addition, preferential taxation treatment was offered to these poor regions; and (c) the government also provided these underdeveloped areas with road access (thus lowering transportation costs), electricity and safe drinking water.</p>
Vietnam	<p>(i) The Vietnamese government implemented measures which were aimed at growing the (rural) economy. These measures included, among other things, the marketisation of the rural economy and the creation of the right incentives for farm production (such as the relaxation of trade restrictions on rice exports; relaxation on internal barriers to allow rice to flow from the south to the north; reduction in fertiliser supply constraints by allowing state-owned enterprises that earned foreign exchange to import fertiliser directly; and improved development of market infrastructure).</p> <p>(ii) The agricultural land was distributed to the poor to beef up their asset base (or to raise the return on productive assets held by them) and issued several policies for social protection, health insurance, support for improvement of private housing, supply of safe water, job creation and reforestation were</p>

	<p>issued by the Vietnamese government. For long-term economic opportunities, this government allocated funds for the construction of communal infrastructure (i.e. rural roads, electricity grids, irrigation, schools, commune clinics, etc.), and a special financial service institution – the Bank for the Poor (now renamed the Bank for Social Policies) – was established in 1995 to encourage the economic development of the poor.</p> <p>(iii) To address the immediate needs of the poor, this government introduced a number of targeted anti-poverty programmes that were aimed at, inter alia, supplying essential goods to the poor (e.g. food, salt, clothes, blankets, kerosene, etc.), alleviating unemployment among the poor, providing preferential credit, exempting the poor from paying education fees (thus reducing illiteracy), reducing child malnutrition, and so on.</p>
Uganda	<p>(i) The government of Uganda adopted various economic and institutional reforms. These included policies that were aimed at, inter alia, stabilising the economy (e.g. restoring fiscal and monetary discipline), as well as creating a conducive environment for the agricultural sector to grow (e.g. enabling exporters to borrow directly from commercial banks to pay farmers, instead of going through marketing boards, and removing restrictions on the movement of produce across districts).</p> <p>(ii) In an attempt to directly increase the ability of the poor to increase their income, the government initiated policies that sought to, among other things, (a) enable the poor to access arable land, agricultural advisory services, (rural) finance and markets; (b) foster sustainable natural resource utilisation; and (c) build the rural infrastructure (most notably, rural roads and sustainable energy resources for the poor).</p> <p>(iii) To improve the quality of life of the poor, the government of Uganda also created programs that were associated with free primary education, improved health care etc.</p> <p>(iv) Income-enhancement policy was also introduced such as microfinance programme, employment generation programme and public works programme (PWP).</p>

(Nguyen and Chu, 1996; Wang *et al.*, 2004 and Gubrium *et al.*, 2014)

Pro-poor growth has proved to be the most effective poverty reduction strategy across different settings. Significantly, if one looks at the long-term relationship between economic growth and the poverty rate in most developing countries, it is clear that there has been a close and inverse relationship between the rate of economic growth and the poverty rate (Dollar and Kraay, 2000).

Governments of the above mentioned states used various mechanisms to develop skills, alleviate poverty and create opportunities for the poor, the unskilled and the unemployed. These mechanisms include the provision of skill-enhancing education and training, providing financial and non-financial support to SMMEs, and special employment programmes such as public works programmes. The general consensus among most developmental analysts is that labour is the main asset of the poor (Abedian, 2004:13; Desai, 2005:19). Basically, it has been observed that providing the poor with fruitful employment opportunities can go a long way towards reducing poverty. Alcock (1993:214) argued that the idea behind social security policy is the use of government support, collected in the form of contributions or taxes from those in employment, to provide an income for those who cannot secure an adequate

income for themselves, and are thus at risk of poverty. This section focuses mainly on occupational insurance in the form of the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), as well as social assistance in the form of social grants and other poverty relief programmes, namely: the School Nutrition Programme, the Social Relief of Distress Programme, the Disaster Relief Programme and the Food Relief Programme.

3.13.1 Poverty reduction through economic growth: the trickle-down effect principle

A commonly held view is that maximising economic growth, measured by increased output per capita, is the most effective policy for reducing poverty. This view is based on the notion that more economic growth potentially leads to more income for all. If any of this increase in income 'trickles down' to the poor, particularly via higher earnings, business opportunities and employment, then there will invariably be a rise in their standard of living, and a reduction in the poverty rate in due course. Correspondingly, empirical research, using data from a large group of developing countries, suggests that this view is tenable (Dollar and Kraay, 2000). Fortunately, available evidence suggests that this newly initiated EPWP will improve the record that has been set by the abovementioned PWPs. Thus far, the EPWP has been surpassing all employment creation targets, with more than 220 000 employment opportunities created in the first year, and an additional 60 000 in the first quarter of the second year (Skweyiya, 2006). There are also indications that this programme will have a positive impact on developing the skill base of the poor. For instance, the Vuk'uphile Learnership Programme has already grown from the initial target of 500 learnerships to 1971 (Skweyiya, 2006:9).

PWPs do not only serve as palliatives by way of providing short-term income to the poor, but also attempt to enhance the human capital of those who participate in them. Among other things, this explains why PWPs have enjoyed considerable policy prominence in the post-1994 era. Significantly, in 1997, the government announced a R300 million Poverty Relief Fund, which the Minister of Finance, Trevor Manuel, described as an attempt to extend the social security net to the unemployed (Business Day, 1997 cited in Barker 2003). Since its inception, this fund has focused on financing, among other things, the following labour-intensive projects (RSA 1998 cited in Barker, 2003):

- Clean Cities Campaign (the delivery of waste services to poorly serviced areas);
- Working for Water (clearing invasive alien vegetation);
- Coastal Care;
- Land Care Campaign (rehabilitation and conservation of natural resources);

- Municipal Infrastructure Programme (for low-income areas);
 - Welfare programmes (which offer training, education and other opportunities for the destitute);
 - Community-Based Public Works Programmes (CBPWP) (primarily in rural areas);
- and
- Arts and Culture poverty relief projects.

From the above discussion, it is quite clear that for the purposes of poverty reduction, it is imperative for the government to come up with a clear policy initiative that would pull the economy out of its recessionary slump, since it inherited an economy with an average annual real per capita growth that had been on the decline for over three decades. Consequently, the government introduced the growth, employment and redistribution (GEAR) policy framework in 1996. This macro-economic strategy recognises the important role that higher economic growth plays in creating economic opportunities that are of significance to poverty reduction (Knight, 2006). This strategy has sought to create an optimal climate for private investment which is the engine for economic growth through a set of macroeconomic stability measures (low budget deficits, privatisation of state assets, relaxation of labour laws, competitive exchange rates, low inflation, etc.). Of significance to poverty reduction, this set of measures was expected to, inter alia, lead to an economic growth rate of 6% per annum by the year 2000, which, in turn, would generate up to 400 000 jobs per annum, thus resulting in a drastic improvement in the livelihoods of the needy. In essence, GEAR was expected to create 1.35 million jobs during the 1996 - 2000 periods (Weeks, 1999; DOF, 1996). Critical to the attainment of the foregoing goals was a significant increase in private investment and non-gold exports, together with increased state expenditure on social infrastructure (Mbeki, 1996:9).

Another sector which the government hopes to increase from 8% to 12% of the GDP, while simultaneously increasing employment by up to 400,000 jobs, is tourism (Knight 2006). South Africa's social safety net programme is, probably due to limited resources, restricted to certain categories of people. Subsequent to the above, the importance of job creation as a way of reducing South Africa's high poverty levels can never be overemphasised (Abedian, 2004; Desai, 2005 and Vavi, 2003 cited in Desai, 2005). As a matter of fact, at an international level, the Director-General of the International Labour Organisation (ILO), Juan Somavia, believes that "job creation should be put at the center of global efforts to halve extreme poverty by 2015" (Financial Times, 2003 cited in Desai, 2005). It is believed that employment creation

that is fruitful can increase the tax base as more people will be eligible to pay tax, thus enhancing the government's ability to fund PWPs and pro-poor services such as healthcare, clean water and education.

It is in this context that the government uses employment creation as one of its main strategies for curtailing the high poverty levels in South Africa. The SA government wants to create jobs by promoting skill-enhancing education and training, providing financial and non-financial support to SMMEs and undertaking special employment-creating projects. In South Africa, only a fortunate few possess inherent talent that needs little training in order to be translated into high-paying effort. Without much training or education to develop aptitudes into marketable skills, the earning power of most people would be mainly limited to what their simple physical strength and effort were worth on the market (Perlman, 1976). This is attributed to the fact that acquiring good-paying jobs in the contemporary economic and technological environment requires one to possess technical knowledge and skills that are usually acquired through skill-enhancing education and training. Among other things, this explains why most of the black population who were subjected to the '*Bantu*' education system were a source of cheap labour during the apartheid era (a factor that made them susceptible to poverty). Against this background, it then follows that the government has incorporated a number of human resource development measures into the GEAR policy. These have sought to improve the overall education system, as well as to develop the skill base of the workforce (the emphasis being on those who are a product of '*Bantu*' education). The idea is that, in due course, these various human resource development measures will create graduates or workers who are able to take advantage of skilled employment opportunities, which will arise as a result of economic growth. With regard to the development of the education system, the following key initiatives have been undertaken since 1994 (Department of Education 2001 cited in Barker, 2003):

- The Further Education and Training (FET) Act of 1998 (and related policies), which provides the basis for developing a nationally coordinated further education and training system, comprising the senior secondary component of schooling and technical colleges. This Act attempts to ensure that learners from this band especially out-of-school youth and adult learners, acquire education that is relevant to the workplace, thus making them employable.
- The Adult Basic Education and Training Act (2000), which provides for the establishment of public and private adult learning centres, funding for adult basic education and training (ABET) provision, governance of public centres, and quality

assurance mechanisms for the sector.

With regard to developing the skill base of the workforce, the key initiative that has been undertaken in the new political dispensation (i.e. post-1994) is the National Skills Act, which was enacted in 1998. According to Barker (2003), this Act seeks to, among other things; develop the skills of the South African workforce and thereby increase the quality of working life for workers; promote self-employment; improve the delivery of social services; and encourage employers to use the workplace as an active learning environment, and to provide opportunities for new entrants to the labour market to gain work experience. 'Learnerships' and 'Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs)' are the main vehicles through which all the above mentioned objectives are achieved.

Like apprenticeships, learnerships combine practical work experience (in normal workplace conditions) and structured learning (which might be taught by an educational institution) (Barker, 2003). This is with the hope that this will, in turn, assist young, unemployed people to become employed, as well as help existing workers to improve their skills level. The SETAs, on the other hand, are mainly aimed at charging a skills levy to firms, to be repaid on the presentation of evidence by the firm that it is undertaking approved training for its workers; encouraging FET institutions in the provision of education and skills for work; developing and administering learnerships; and undertaking quality assurance. All of this (and more) is done with the view that it will go a long way towards addressing the skills shortage problem, which is perceived to act as a constraint to poverty-reducing employment and economic growth in South Africa (Kingdon and Knight, 2005:9). The EPWP is also encouraging accredited training for skill transfer and improvement of skills level.

According to GCE (2010) quoted in the *City Press* (2014:8) education is a prerequisite for tackling poverty and promoting short and long-term economic growth. No country has achieved continuous and rapid economic growth without at least 40% of adults being able to read and write. The sad reality, however, is that, in general; these abovementioned initiatives have not been very successful in assisting the workforce to accumulate the skills that are required in today's labour market. For example, in March 2004, there were as many as 500 000 job vacancies in South Africa (Abedian, 2004). What this essentially implies is that South Africa is still characterised by structural unemployment, in the sense that a large proportion of the labour force in South Africa is still unskilled or only possesses very basic skills, which

is in contrast to the type of skills that are urgently needed in this country (Abedian, 2004). It is a concern that, the paucity of formal sector jobs in South Africa which require low skill levels, continues to manifest itself in open unemployment. According to Kingdon and Knight (2004), this is generally in contrast to the pattern that exists in most developing countries where the paucity of formal sector jobs usually manifests itself in large informal sectors rather than in high levels of open unemployment. In light of this, it would therefore be safe to assume that these various human resource development strategies have also not been very successful in reviving the culture of entrepreneurship among the black people who were previously oppressed in this regard. Consequently, South Africa continues to have a small informal sector in comparison to other developing countries (Kingdon and Knight, 2004).

3.14 EPWP Phase 2

The sustained economic growth that South Africa has recorded over the years, particularly during the first decade after apartheid, has not helped to ameliorate the situation, as unemployment has kept on soaring. According to South Africa, Central Statistical Service (2009), in 2008 around half of South Africa's people survived on less than R528 per month. People with disabilities were among the poorest of the poor and most marginalised people in South Africa. About 4% of people were disabled and most of them survived on social grants. The majority of the poor are women and about 60% of female-headed households live under the poverty line. Black women experience triple oppression which includes discrimination and oppression on the basis of their race, gender and class. The legacy of the triple oppression of women has caused the feminisation of poverty. This is where women form the majority of the poor, unemployed and illiterate and have less access to opportunities and resources in the country than their male counterparts. Many women are left at home by their husbands who move to the cities to search for work. They are expected to look after their kids and other siblings some of whom are disabled. The basic resources needed such as clinics, water, schools etc. might not be available nearer or accessible.

South Africa has a very high rate of unemployment and a low skills base. According to Stats SA, approximately 35% of people in South Africa were not employed in 2009. Table 14 below shows employment opportunities that were created in 2009 per sector.

Table 14: Employment in South Africa

Primary sector (gets things from the earth)	
Mining	2.40%
Agriculture	5%
Subtotal	7%
Secondary sector (turns raw materials into something else)	
Construction	8.20%
Manufacturing	13%
Subtotal	21%
Tertiary sector (supports and services first two sectors)	
Finance	12.60%
Government/community/personal services	19.40%
Retail	22%
Transport	5.50%
Household	9.50%
Subtotal	69%
Total	97%

(South Africa. Central Statistical Service, 2009)

The Manifesto of the ANC identified reduction of poverty and unemployment by half as one of its key objectives for 2014. It also emphasised the need for provision of skills required by the economy; ensuring that all South Africans are able to fully exercise their constitutional rights and enjoy the full dignity of freedom and government services to the people. Based on a Mid-Term review of the EPWP and the policy objectives of South Africa, it has been agreed by Cabinet that the EPWP would be expanded to reach 4.5 million people by 2014. This allowed the programme to make a significant contribution to the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of halving unemployment by 2014.

The EPWP's second phase (2009 - 2014) was launched in April 2009 at the University of the Western Cape. It was initiated as a cross-cutting programme aimed to develop, promote existing best practices and expand their application more widely to create 4.5 million work opportunities. This is equivalent to creating 2 million full-time jobs over a year {2 million Full Time Equivalents (FTEs)}. Achievement of the EPWP Phase 2 targets requires deliberate enhancement of labour intensity in the delivery of EPWP projects. In the South African context, labour intensity is measured as the percentage of the total project expenditure that goes to labour. According to the study commissioned by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) on EPWP, it has been noted that increasing labour intensity does not translate into increasing the

wage rate, but increasing the number of work opportunities created per unit of expenditure and their duration at a fair wage rate that does not distort the local economy.

Through the successes and lessons learned in phase 1 over five years, the second, R4 billion was added to this programme to incentivise the creation of longer term, more stable employment in provinces, municipalities and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). It was anticipated that this programme would be phased up to grow the number of FTE jobs from about 145 000 in 2009 to over 300 000 a year” (NDPW, 2009). These incentives were a strategy to inspire implementing bodies to contract participants as beneficiaries in a longer term. The longer the term of a participant contract, the longer the exposure to the EPWP project and its impact on a beneficiary’s life.

The EPWP did make some progress in addressing unemployment challenges. The goal of EPWP phase 2 was to create 4.5 million WOs that would lead to 2 million FTEs for poor and unemployed people in South Africa. This translates to 4, 5 million short and ongoing WOs, thereby contributing significantly to the MDG of halving unemployment by 2014. The average duration of employment is assumed to be 100 days. This was to scale up from 500 000 WOs in 2009 to 1.5 million in 2014. Public bodies from all spheres of government (in terms of their normal mandates and budgets) and the Non-State sector (supported by incentives from government), were expected to deliberately optimise the creation of work opportunities for unemployed and poor people in South Africa through the delivery of public and community services. Training and enterprise development would be implemented in sector-specific programmes to enhance service delivery and beneficiary well-being (NDPW, 2013).

The quarterly reports and the press release by Mr. Stanley Henderson (DDG: NDPW EPWP) dated 3 July 2013, confirmed that the programme achieved its objectives and targets through the delivery of public and community services. Municipalities are expected to be the custodians of job creation. In the second phase of EPWP, participation of municipalities increased as compared to the first phase. Currently, 277 out of 278 municipalities have signed protocol agreements, committing them to achieve their EPWP targets. Public bodies from all three spheres collaboratively work with the National Department of Public Works, as the lead and coordinating department of the programme to accomplish these targets through their existing budgets and mandates (NDPW, 2013). Table 15 below indicates the WOs and FTEs

targets set for the EPWP phase 2:

Table 15: Overall annual WOs and FTEs targets (5 Years) per financial year

Overall Annual Targets (5 Years) per financial year				
Phase 2 Financial Year	EPWP annual work opportunity targets	EPWP cumulative work opportunity targets	EPWP annual FTE targets	EPWP cumulative FTE targets
2009/10	550,000	550,000	210,870	210,870
2010/11	642,000	1,192,000	260,870	471,740
2011/12	868,000	2,060,000	361,739	833,479
2012/13	1,210,000	3,270,000	502,174	1,335,563
2013/14	1,650,000	4,920,000	684,783	2,020,436
Total		4,920,000		2,020,436

(NDPW, 2009)

The above set targets were accumulating annually. According to the aforementioned breakdown, the total cumulative WOs were 4,920 000 but EPWP takes into cognisance the 4.5 million set and 2,020.436 FTEs to be created. These set targets were to be achieved across spheres and in all sectors (infrastructure, environment and culture, social and non-state). Table 16 below clarifies WOs and FTEs created per sector over a five year period (2009 - 2014):

Table 16: Overall WOs and FTEs against 5 year targets per sector

Work Opportunities and FTE Progress against 5 Year targets per sector						
Sector	Targeted WOs	WOs 2009-2014	% Progress (WOs)	Targeted FTE	FTE 2009-2014	% Progress (FTE)
Infrastructure	2,374,000	1 647 379	69.39	903 478	469 206	51.93
E&C	1,156,000	817 588	70.73	325 652	235 388	72.28
Social	750,000	866 246	115.5	513 043	314 944	61.39
Non-State: Non-Profit Organisations	256,000	180 154	70.37	111 304	49 454	44.43
Non-State: Community Works	384,000	559 925	145.81	166 957	78 708	47.14
Total	4,920,000	4 071 292	82.75	2 020 435	1 147 699	56.8
Total against 4.5 m WO and 2 m FTE	4,500,000	4 071 292	90.47	2 000 000	1 147 699	57.38

(NDPW, 2009 and 2014)

The non-state allocation and performance was sub categorised into non-government organisations (NGO) and community work programmes (CWP). The CWP is implemented by the Department of Cooperative Governance (DCOG). In terms of reporting performance, both NGO and CWP projects are implemented across three sectors namely, infrastructure, E&C, and social sector. According to the performances of various sectors in Table 8 below, the non-state sector exceeded their WO target of 640 000 to create 740 049 WOs. However, their allocation was the lowest. The FTEs

were the lowest at 46%, that is 128 161. This demonstrates that the non-state sector contracted many beneficiaries to participate in shorter term employment, hence the lesser percentage in the FTEs created. The social sector also performed well at 115.5% followed by the E&C sector at 70.73% and lastly infrastructure at 69.39%. The total achieved WOs reported for phase 2 was 4,071.292 against the targeted 4,500.000, which is 90.47%. The targeted FTEs were 2 020 435 and 56.8% was achieved. It is clear that the E&C sector created more FTEs than the rest. This means that the E&C beneficiaries were contracted for longer days, followed by the social sector with 61% and infrastructure with 52%.The non-state sector was at 46%. These WOs and FTEs reported were created from 85 075 validated compliant projects that were included in the final report. The following is a breakdown of the number of reported and included compliant projects per sector. 48 022 projects reported for social sector, 23 874 infrastructure, 11 833 E&C and 1 346 non-state.

Table 17: Phase 2 Reported Projects and WOs Progress against 5 Year targets

Reported Projects and WOs Progress against 5 Year targets				
Sectors	Targeted WOs	Actual WOs (2009-2014)	% Progress (WOs)	Compliant Reported Projects
Infrastructure	2,374,000	1 647 379	69.39	23 874
Environment & Culture	1,156,000	817 588	70.73	11 833
Social	750,000	866 246	115.5	48 022
Non state	640 000	740 079	115.63	1 346
TOTALS	4,500,000	4 071 292	90.47	85 075

(NDPW, 2014)

It is evident from the above tables that in phase 2, the 4,071.292 WOs and 1 147 699 FTEs created were contributed from the 85 075 compliant reported projects across spheres in all sectors. This study was conducted using the validated compliant project reports. It was observed that WOs and FTEs created from non-compliant reported projects were excluded in the final report. Overall achievement was excellent at 90.47%.

The EPWP in the second phase easily reached its target for women and youth participating in the programme, with 60% of the participants being women and 50% being youth, compared to the targets of 55% women and 40% youth. Table 18 below demonstrates that the participation of women in the EPWP accumulated from year 1 in phase 1 until year 2 in phase 2. In year 3 of phase 2, there was a drop from 502 057 to 479 550 but later in year 5 it increased to 618 134. The economic sector was not a standalone sector in phase 2; hence WOs created were cross-cutting. The

leading sector on the creation of WOs for women in phase 1 was infrastructure followed by the E&C and social sector. In phase 2, the infrastructure sector was still leading. Interestingly, the social sector created more WOs than the E&C and non-state sectors. In year 4 of phase 2, the infrastructure, non-state and social sectors dropped but picked up in year 5. From the 5 688 989 overall WOs created in phase 1 2 938 501 were women.

Table 18: Performance on Women

EPWP 2004 - 20014 Performance on Women										
Sector	Phase 1					Phase 2				
	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5
Economic										
E&C	26 041	36 187	46 613	50 150	42 677	29 526	55 854	86 434	124 840	109 674
Infra	55 810	49 764	59 992	92 122	133 717	66 302	129 685	182 420	158 447	184 282
Social	1 959	11 168	22 005	48 514	44 457	93 872	120 394	133 281	99 982	159 056
Non-state						32 267	89 684	99 922	96 281	165 122
TOTAL	83 810	97 119	128 610	190 786	220 851	221 967	395 617	502 057	479 550	618 134

(NDPW, 2004 - 2014)

The implementation of the EPWP also focuses on youth. Table 19 below shows that the youth participated in all sectors for both phases. In both phases, 2 033 557 WOs created were the youth. The social sector moved from 590 to 6 831 WOs created for youth. In year 5 of phase 1, the social sector declined from 26 220 to 24 456. In year 5 of phase 2, the social sector also decreased. The infrastructure sector led the creation of WOs on youth. There was a decline in year 2 and 3 of phase 1 but an increase in year 4. Year 4 in phase 2 also declined but increased in year 5. The youth participated in the economic sector and 7 034 WOs were created. It is evident that from the 41 497 compliant reported projects in Table 5, 4 071 292 overall WOs were created, 2 033 557 WOs created were for the youth. There was more youth participation in phase 2 (494 238) as compared to phase 1(246 254) totaling 200.70%. The difference between the two phases was 247 984.

Table 19: Performance on Youth

EPWP 2004 - 20014 Performance on Youth										
Sector	Phase 1					Phase 2				
	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5
Economic	1 169	948	1384	1357	2 176					
E&C	29646	30 143	41 617	45 927	43 021	31 993	62 538	96 382	137 141	118 296
Infra	61 247	39 652	43 220	95 173	176 600	11815 2	128 292	177 481	158 871	174 185
Social	590	6 831	10 482	26 220	24 456	52 784	66 435	77 178	135 113	91 552
Non-state						26 713	69 736	71 066	129 444	110 205
TOTAL	97 657	77 574	96 704	171 676	246 254	229 642	327 001	422 107	560 569	494 238

(NDPW, 2014)

The government of SA has dedicated itself to eradicate unemployment and poverty in the country. 2% of people with disabilities were targeted. Table 20 reflects each sector's performance on people with disabilities. The EPWP created 39511 WOs for people with disabilities. A drastic improvement was observed in the E&C during year 3 and 4 of the second phase.

Table 20: Performance on People with Disability

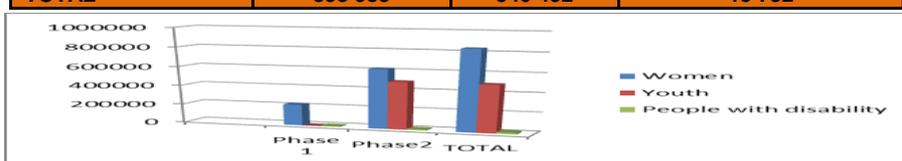
EPWP 2004 - 20014 Performance on People with Disability										
Sector	Phase 1					Phase 2				
	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5
Economic	36	0	14	26	58					
E&C	622	814	1705	1895	1566	480	726	494	2 895	1 809
Infra	564	185	2895	2012	3975	1 691	360	552	485	1 154
Social	5	38	88	183	125	545	431	154	566	4 095
Non-state						300	1 328	382	1 308	2 950
TOTAL	1227	1037	4702	4116	5724	3 016	2 845	1 582	5 254	10 008

(NDPW, 2014)

As highlighted above the EPWP focused on women, youth and people with disabilities. Table 21 below shows that out of the overall 5 688 989 WOs created, 838 985 were created for women, 540 492 for the youth and 15 732 for people with disabilities in both phases.

Table 21: EPWP Focus Group Performance

EPWP Phases	Women	Youth	People with disability
1 (2004-2009)	220 851	246 254	5 724
2 (2009-2014)	618 134	494 238	10 008
TOTAL	838 985	540 492	15 732



EPWP performed well during phase 2 (2009 – 2014). Municipalities also contributed to the overall 4 071 292 WOs created. Below Table 22 elucidates Municipal targets and performance per financial year:

Table 22: Municipal 5 Year Targets and Actual WOs plus FTEs

Municipal 5 Year Targets and Actual WOs plus FTEs				
Phase 2 Y1 - Y5	WO Targets	Actual WO	FTE Targets	Actual FTE
2009/2010	174 844	136 663	57 775	42 225
2010/2011	199 323	159 959	65 863	44 127
2011/2012	256 439	221 903	84 736	60 761
2012/2013	335 916	240 404	110 998	62 167
2013/2014	423 087	262 441	139 803	64 106
TOTAL	1 389 609	1 021 370	459 175	273 384

(NDPW, 2014)

Table 22 above further indicates that out of the overall 4 071 292 WOs created, municipalities contributed 1 021 370 WOs while 3 049 922 WOs were created by national, provincial and non-state sectors. Municipalities performed well by creating 73% of WOs and 59% FTEs against their set target. An annual growth on both WOs and FTEs created by municipalities is evident. This confirms that reports are cumulative; therefore WOs will not drop but might not grow if there are no new contracted participants or beneficiaries. Table 23 below illustrates municipalities' performance per sector in the second phase:

Table 23: 5 Year Actual WOs and FTEs per sector

5 Year Actual WOs and FTEs per sector								
Phase 2 Y1 - Y5	Environment & Culture		Infrastructure		Social		TOTAL	
	Actual WO	Actual FTE	Actual WO	Actual FTE	Actual WO	Actual FTE	Actual WO	Actual FTE
2009/2010	4 054	770	127 222	40 793	5 387	662	136 663	42 225
2010/2011	19 372	6 255	137 375	36 695	3 212	1 177	159 959	44 127
2011/2012	55 258	14 651	160 937	44 323	5 708	1 787	221 903	60 761
2012/2013	80 354	22 413	154 051	38 610	5 999	1 143	240 404	62 167
2013/2014	70 086	19 003	176 404	41 442	15 951	3 661	262 441	64 106
TOTAL	229 124	63 091	755 989	201 863	36 257	8 430	1 021 370	273 384

(NDPW, 2014)

The 1 021 370 WOs and 273 384 FTEs created by municipalities were from the above three sectors. Generally this implies that few participants were contracted for longer periods in the entire project duration. The infrastructure sector had the highest performance creating 755 989 WOs but with lesser FTEs, followed by E&C and lastly

social sector which shows that participants were contracted on shorter terms. When calculating FTEs, all participants in a project and project duration are taken into consideration as clarified above in the key EPWP indicators and concepts. The E&C sector poorly performed in 2009/10 on both WOs and FTEs but picked up drastically in the third financial year from 19 372 WOs to 55 258 WOs in 2011/12. The infrastructure dropped a little bit in 2012/13 with 154 051 WOs as compared to 160 937 in 2011/12. In 2013/14, the last year of the EPWP phase 2, WOs and FTEs for municipal E&Cs dropped as compared to the previous years. The social sector dropped in year 2 from 5 387 to 3 212 but picked up in year 3. In year, 4 there was also an improvement from 5 999 WOs in 2012/13 to 15 951 in 2013/14; and 1 143 FTEs in 2012/13 to 3 661 in 2013/14.

Table 24 shows the targets and WOs created for the first and second phases. The targets set for phase 2 were higher than those set in phase 1, which confirms that the EPWP is expanding.

Table 24: Overall 5 Year targets and NET Work Opportunities per Sector

Overall 5 Year Targets and NET Work opportunities per sector (1 Apr 2004 - 31 March 2014)					
Sectors	Phase 1: 2004-2009		Phase 2: 2009-2011		TOTAL: Phase 1 and Phase 2
	Targets	Reported	Targets	Reported	
Infrastructure	750 000	955 233	2, 374. 000	1 647 379	2 602 612
E&C	200 000	467 720	1,156.000	817 588	1 285 308
Social	150 000	174 366	750. 000	866 246	1 040 612
Economic	12 000	20 377			20 377
Non-State Sector			640. 000	740 079	740 079
TOTALS	1 112 000 (1m)	1 617 697	4 175. 750	4 071 292	5 688 989

(NDPW, 2014)

It should be noted that the non-state sector was not yet implemented in phase 1 and the economic sector was not implemented as a stand-alone sector in phase 2. Across all three spheres in all sectors, the EPWP created 5 688 989 WOs in phases 1 and 2. The EPWP reached its target in phase 1 by exceeding the 1million set target. The infrastructure sector led all sectors by creating 2 602 612 WOs overall, followed by the E&C 1 285 308, then 1 040 612 social, 740 079 non-state and lastly 20 377 economic sector. It can be observed that a 251 67% difference was achieved between phase 1 and phase 2.

Table 25 below compares the 2 phases and highlights the differences.

Table 25: Comparison between Phase 1 and Phase 2

PHASE 1	PHASE 2
It was launched in April 2004 in the Limpopo province at Sekhunyani Village, Giyani, and commenced in 2004 – 2009 aimed to promote economic growth and create sustainable development.	It was launched in April 2009 at the University of the Western Cape, and initiated in 2009 – 2014 aimed to contribute to halving unemployment by 2014, through the delivery of public and community services.
The immediate goal was to alleviate unemployment and poverty by creating 1 million WOs to unemployed South Africans, surprisingly created 1 617 697 WOs.	The immediate goal was to create 4, 5 million (short and on-going) WOs leading to 2 million Full time equivalents (FTEs) jobs for poor and unemployed people in South Africa, expanded and created 4 071 292 WOs and 273 384 FTEs .
Targeting beneficiaries of at least 40% women, 30% youth and 2% people with disabilities	Reached beneficiaries target of 60% women, 50% youth and 2% people with disabilities
Implemented across three spheres of government in all four sectors namely; Environment & Culture, Infrastructure, Economic and Social sector.	Implemented across three spheres of government in all four sectors namely; Environment & Culture, Infrastructure, Non-State and Social sector.
Reported 41 497 compliant projects and achieved 220 851 WOs on women, 246 254 youth and 5 724 people with disability.	Reported 85 075 compliant projects and achieved 618 134 WOs on women, 494 238 youth and 10 008 people with disability.
To provide needed public goods and services, labour-intensively, at acceptable standards, through the use of mainly public sector budgets, public and private sector implementation capacity	Public bodies from all spheres of government (in terms of their normal mandates and budgets) and the Non-State Sector (supported by government incentives), deliberately optimises the creation of WOs for unemployed and poor people in South Africa through the delivery of public and community services
To increase the potential for at least 14% of public works participants to earn future income by providing work experience, training and information related to local work opportunities, further education and training and SMME development	Training and enterprise development implemented in sub-programmes to enhance service delivery and beneficiary well-being. Less emphasis on training, exit strategies and enterprise development
Exit strategies will be developed for each sector and will identify possible exit routes for workers once they leave the EPWP programmes. Opportunities include possible longer-term employment, self-employment, or further education or training. These exit strategies will inform the training provided to beneficiaries under the	Training is still provided to participants depending on the planning and budgeting. Exit strategies not overemphasised.

programme.	
Incentive grants not yet introduced	Funders incentivised through the grant

(NDPW, 2004)

Although the EPWP was reported to have performed above the set targets however, minimum standards for the length of a job were not reached. Hemson (2008:2) also raised same arguments. This was encouraged by introducing the FTEs. The target for people with disabilities was also not reached. Hemson (2008:1) and respondents detected a challenge in terms of funding EPWP implementing bodies.

3.14.1 The roles of stakeholders in EPWP

The EPWP is coordinated by the NDPW in the EPWP unit and by the DPW across provinces. There are different stakeholders involved in the EPWP. This thesis focuses on the coordinators, implementers, and data managers.

The EPWP consists of implementing bodies such as Municipalities, Provincial Departments, National Departments and State Owned Enterprises. Their role is to consult all relevant stakeholders, role players and ensure buy in and understanding of their respective roles. They also compile a list of stakeholders that might be involved at various stages of the project and agree on roles and responsibilities. They further establish clear communication channels for stakeholders, establish a decision making structure and dispute resolution mechanisms, set guidelines and procedures for projects in line with EPWP requirements, identify and prioritise EPWP projects through a consultative process, identify community needs in line with the municipal mandate, participate in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) discussions, ensure that projects are aligned with overall government objectives and operational procedures, ensure environmental impact assessments are properly conducted as necessary, secure funding for the business plan, report implemented projects and identify sites where projects should be implemented. The provincial departments should further identify and prioritise EPWP projects through the Provincial Growth Strategies, whilst Municipalities should make sure that that is done through the IDP processes. This is a national driven programme, therefore, national departments are expected to provide technical support to Public bodies, ensure policies are developed in line with each department mandate as approved by cabinet, and ensure that provincial structures are in place and functional.

The NDPW is the custodian of the EPWP, thus the following is expected from them: overall EPWP coordination of the programme including facilitating reporting by implementers, developing EPWP policy, setting national targets, provision of technical support, establishing business plans, setting standards and guidelines with lead sector departments and engaging with Treasury on overall EPWP funding. The effective coordination of the EPWP is crucial as it enable entities to be aware of the role each stakeholder plays in the value chain. The EPWP is expected to be coordinated by EPWP champions in each organisation especially in municipalities and provincial departments. Respondents in this study identifies coordination of the EPWP especially in municipalities as a challenge as not all are proactive in the EPWP, EPWP champions also work on other programmes due to shortage of staff, high staff turnover which lead to the EPWP led by people who are not well conversant with the programme. To make sure that the EPWP is coordinated effectively; forums for information sharing of best practices should be created, awareness of roles, ensure the functioning of the EPWP steering committees across four sectors, creativeness and innovativeness of implementing bodies on how they can increase EPWP targets within the limits of the EPWP policy framework, improvement of site monitoring of EPWP projects, enhancement of reporting process and data quality management outside the reporting system.

Where Consultants are involved, they should add value by providing adequate capacity to carry out these functions. This is done through feasibility studies and business plans prepared on behalf of the Implementing bodies. The NGOs are also EPWP stakeholders and their role is to support EPWP projects, mobilise communities and conduct social facilitation to inform plans, input during identification and planning of projects and implement EPWP projects and report progress to clients. The same applies to civil society as they form a legal entity and drive community based projects such as Zibambele projects in the KwaZulu Natal. The SOEs are expected to mentor EPWP enterprises, provide industrial placements for EPWP participants and partner with EPWP public bodies for SMME and Cooperatives development. Training is important, therefore, training organisations such as SETAs and training providers are supposed to conduct skills audit, develop training materials and train EPWP participants and stakeholders. Politicians and traditional leaders are part and parcel of stakeholders who identify the community needs, ensure, political buy in, assist in mobilising and organising the community, input during identification and planning of projects,, and provide project progress report to the community. The level of

importance and influence of stakeholders will be highlighted below under the Stakeholder matrix in figure 2:

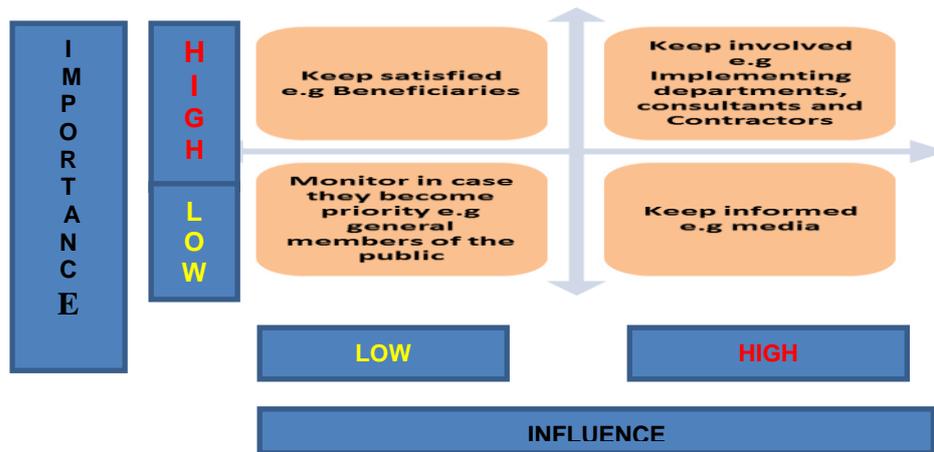


Figure 2: Stakeholder Matrix (Mitchell, 1997:253 - 288)

Some stakeholders may have low importance on the implementation of the project but wield high influence in other areas such as the media. Thus, it is wise to keep them informed about the progress of the project (NDPW, 2013).

These stakeholders play different roles in various stages of the EPWP project cycles. Klitgaard (1997b:32) notes that additional technical assistance can be provided to communities lacking capacity. Thus, it is imperative to identify and map stakeholders so as to engage them for their relevant input at the right time. Figure 3 below shows the various stages of the EPWP project cycles:

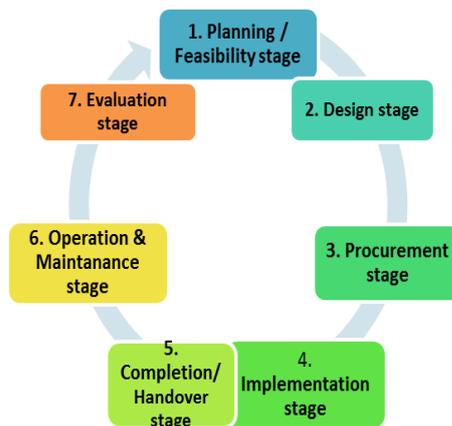


Figure 3: Various Stages of the EPWP project cycles (NDPW, 2013)

The NDPW has got a specific unit that coordinates EPWP in the National department. Figure 4 below reflects the National EPWP organogram. The following units in the EPWP are interconnected and cross cutting: Communication

unit, Enterprise Development unit, Training unit, and M&E unit. Natrass (1998) argues that business acts collectively for a variety of different reasons.

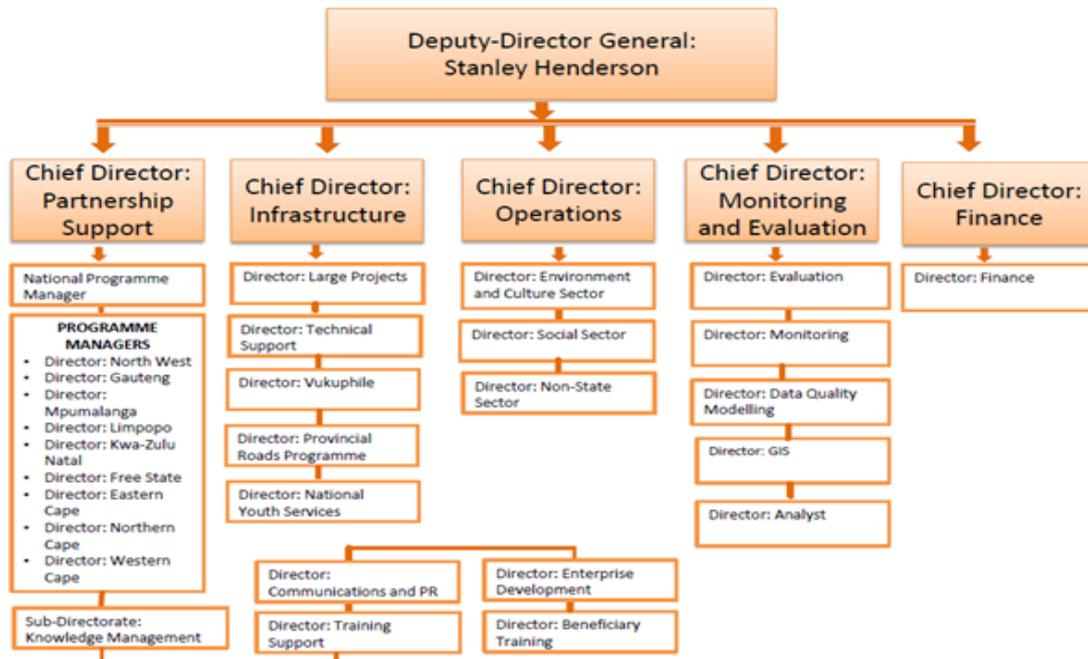


Figure 4: National EPWP Organogram (NDPW, 2014)

Clear roles of the above units are clarified. These units are interrelated therefore an integrated approach is essential to avoid duplicates and confusion across provinces. The theories of poverty in chapter 2 encourage active participation of social stakeholders such as individuals, community and government. Agrawal and Gibson (1999), Ashby and Knapp and Ravnborg (1998), and Caldecott and Lutz (1998) contend that the impact of participatory arrangements can be enhanced when outside agencies provide specialist advice. The Partnership support unit support provinces and municipalities with the signing of protocol processes, understanding of EPWP policy etc. Parastatals such as the Independent Development Trust (IDT) also plays key role in the EPWP.

The (IDT) supports the EPWP technically and with data management. Institutions that implement the EPWP are expected to report and update monthly and quarterly progress of their projects. The EPWP M&E in the NDPW is responsible for monitoring the reported EPWP performance and validating it based on EPWP validation requirements. DPW across provinces consist of Provincial Coordinators. Each province under the Provincial Coordinators unit is assumed to monitor project compliance, processes, recording and reporting. The responses on the questionnaires corroborate on whether coordinators and data managers did what they

were anticipated to or not. It is postulated that IDT and EPWP M&E work closely. It is important to clearly define the type of support IDT should provide to EPWP M&E in order to avoid duplication of tasks. The above units are set up to fight against unemployment, inequality and poverty. The bastions of apartheid have to be dismantled to create a better life for all. A businessman and leader of the Free Market Foundation's (FMF); Herman Mashaba legally challenge to LRA S32 that South Africa has over 8 million unemployed citizens with no real prospect of ever working in their lives under the current labour regime and with economic growth so low (Mashaba, 2014:2).

All institutions are expected to contribute to the EPWP objectives and targets in SA. International and local experiences has shown that with well-trained supervisory staff and an appropriate employment framework, labour-intensive methods can be used to successfully implement projects and create additional work opportunities than using the conventional methods. On the basis of this experience, institutions are required to carry out projects utilising labour-intensive methods. It is important to understand what is meant by labour-intensive as described by ILO in chapter 2. Labour-intensive projects can be pronounced as projects that are economically efficient, that employ as great a proportion of labour as is technically feasible throughout the implementation process to achieve the standard demanded by the specification, the result being significant increase in employment being generated per unit of expenditure by comparison with conventional equipment-intensive methods. Therefore, labour-intensive projects are further described as those projects in which the labour content has been optimised and will in most projects comprise between 30 percent and 80 percent of the project cost (NDPW, 2013). The approach adopted by EPWP Implementers in the implementation of labour intensive projects is that existing and planned projects are to be reviewed to incorporate the philosophy of labour-intensive construction. As highlighted in the previous chapter the EPWP is supported by governments across spheres through funding towards projects and programmes, thus making a major contribution towards the achievement of its target of creating one million WOs during the first-phase (2004 - 2009) and 4.5 million in the second phase (2009 - 2014). Since the start of Phase II, over 4 million work opportunities and 1.1 million FTEs have been created. In the 2013/14 financial year alone the EPWP created 1 017 265 WOs (NDPW 2014). The figures reflected in EPWP reports are cumulative. Tables 2 - 4 below illuminate Quarter 4 FTEs of the second phase (2013 - 14) across provinces and sectors:

Table 2: Social sector FTEs - Phase 2 Quarter 4 (2013/14) across provinces

Social sector FTE (1 April 2013 - 31 March 2014)									
	Provinces			Municipalities			Total		
	Target	FTE Reported	%	Target	FTE Reported	%	Target	FTE Reported	%
EC	9 811	3 339	34		589		9 811	3 908	40
FS	11 703	3 960	34		80		11 703	4 040	35
GP	34 486	14 488	42		328		34 486	14 816	43
KZN	36 880	8 361	23		468		36 880	8 829	24
LP	14 232	5 717	40		137		14 232	5 854	41
MP	12 134	5 182	43		1 002		12 134	6 189	51
NC	5 789	2 000	35		30		5 789	2 030	35
NW	70 748	4 138	6		66		70 748	4 204	6
WC	25 661	1 142	4		982		25 661	2 124	8
Total	221 444	48 327	22	753	3 662	486	221 444	51 989	23

(NDPW, 2014)

Table 2 above reflects that in the last financial year, 2013/14, out of 221 444 FTEs that were targeted under the social sector projects, only 51 989 (23%) were achieved. The provinces achieved 22% and 486% was achieved by municipalities. However, only 753 FTEs were targeted across municipalities. By observing and analysing the above performance on Table 2, it indicates that there is a need for more projects to be implemented under this sector on longer terms.

Table 3: Infrastructure sector FTEs - Phase 2 Quarter 4 (2013/14) across provinces

Infrastructure sector FTE (1 April 2013 - 31 March 2014)									
	Provinces			Municipalities			Total		
	Target	FTE Reported	%	Target	FTE Reported	%	Target	FTE Reported	%
EC	19 256	17 989	93	24 644	3 071	12	43 900	21 060	48
FS	8 344	1 770	21	10 063	1 341	13	18 407	3 111	17
GP	18 074	2 743	15	27 763	13 406	48	45 837	16 149	35
KZN	25 526	19 475	76	32 964	14 172	43	58 490	33 647	58
LP	16 361	2 487	15	19 535	2 581	13	35 896	5 068	14
MP	9 066	4 977	55	11 279	2 271	20	20 345	7 248	36
NC	6 439	858	13	4 054	947	23	10 493	1 805	17
NW	10 211	3 080	30	12 325	1 282	10	22 536	4 362	19
WC	8 108	3 234	40	9 944	2 369	24	18 051	5 603	31
Total	121 387	56 613	47	152 570	41 440	27	273 956	98 053	36

(NDPW, 2014)

The Infrastructure sector is perceived as having projects that contract more

participants. Table 3 above confirm 273 956 FTEs targets and 98 053 FTEs were realised, that is 36%. Provinces outperformed municipalities, 47% versa 27%.

Table 4: E&C sector FTEs - Phase 2 Quarter 4 (2013/14) across provinces

Environment and Culture sector FTE (1 April 2013 - 31 March 2014)									
	Provinces			Municipalities			Total		
	Target	FTE Reported	%	Target	FTE Reported	%	Target	FTE Reported	%
EC	5 334	577	11	3 216			5 334	3 793	71
FS	2 845	894	31	453			2 845	1 347	47
GP	6 242	307	5	3 823			6 242	4 130	66
KZN	5 234	4 044	77	2 049			5 234	6 093	116
LP	4 993	1 204	24	1 393			4 993	2 597	52
MP	3 150	1 337	42	2 938			3 150	4 275	136
NC	2 550	362	14	804			2 550	1 166	46
NW	3 979	882	22	1 957			3 979	2 839	71
WC	2 543	613	24	2 370			2 543	2 983	117
Total	36 871	10 220	28	3 751	19 003	507	40 622	29 223	72

(NDPW, 2014)

The E&C sector achieved 29 223 FTEs on both municipalities and provincial departments against the 40 622 set target that is 72 percent. It should be noted that these reported FTEs were calculated on created WOs that were compliant. Waste management is the largest cluster of projects in the E&C sector. This has been proven in 2011/12 when 65 percent of employment from municipalities, 24 percent of total expenditure and 29 percent of all employment was generated. The above figures were rivalled with the 677 waste management projects reported in the EPWP management information system (MIS) under the E&C sector. As mentioned above waste management is the responsibility of local government and roughly 50 percent of all expenditures are informed by that. Table 4 illustrate performance of municipalities on FTEs that is 19 003 as compared to the 3 751 overall set target. The same table also prove that waste management has contributed in the excellent FTEs performance of municipalities as compared to 10 200 reported for provinces. Projects run by the provinces involve a variety of departments including Local Government, Environmental Affairs, Agriculture, Public Works, Co-operative and Traditional Affairs and Rural Development. There are E&C sector projects implemented at national level which are managed by the Social Responsibility Programme in the DEA. The programmes achieved the creation of temporary employment (individual contracts) for poor households in times of major shock, for instance during economic crises (including stabilisation programmes or other reforms causing a sharp rise in

unemployment and poverty), natural disasters, or seasonal shortfalls in employment and income (such as drought seasons or agriculturally slack seasons in low income agrarian economies).

Based on the above, it is clear that the EPWP prospered in phases 1 and 2 by performing above the target on WOs (5 688 989); reaching the targeted proportion of WOs for women (838 985), youth (540 492) and people with disabilities (15 732); attainment of departments to take EPWP seriously by allocating funding to public works programmes (PWP); and public bodies expanding new programmes such as Gauteng DOE implementing extra school support programme (ESSP) etc.

However, the EPWP fell short in five other important ways:

- Decent work: minimum standards for length of a job were not being reached,
- Training: only 19% of training targeted has been met
- Actual spending: only 59% of the funds allocated over 3 years have been spent,
- Wages: overheads and other costs are rising while wages are static, and
- Earnings: earnings per job are declining over time (Hemson, 2008: 2).

For the EPWP projects to be performed and achieved effectively, active involvement of various stakeholders is crucial as hinted under the roles of the EPWP stakeholders. These stakeholders will partake in the EPWP projects life cycle as specified in figure 3 above. The Stakeholders are expected among other things to address the problems of vulnerable groups and create opportunities for a prosperous economy. Subsequently, outbursts of civil unrest will be avoided.

3.14.2 EPWP Coordination

The success of the EPWP is dependent on the contribution of the three spheres of government including SOEs and Non-Governmental organisations. There are various levels at which planning, coordination, implementation, management and progress reporting takes place in EPWP. The DPW is the overall-coordinating department and the sector-coordinating department for the infrastructure. As the overall coordinating department, the DPW is responsible for monitoring and evaluation, sending progress reports to Cabinet, promoting linkages between sectors, establishing common support programmes and common monitoring, evaluation, designing exit strategies and training frameworks (ILO, 2012).

Intrinsically, coordination structures are imperative to ensure that the implementation

of the EPWP is effective across spheres and in all sectors and for the accomplishment of the PWP. A set of accountability arrangements have been put in place in order to ensure that all spheres of government can be held accountable. Figure 5 below shows the political accountability arrangements across spheres of government that will be accountable for the coordination and implementation of EPWP as a whole. This involves a range of agreements or protocols that aim to secure the commitment by all spheres of government to their respective targets. These agreements or protocols are signed between the political heads of the different spheres of government and stipulate how the spheres will work together to achieve EPWP goals.

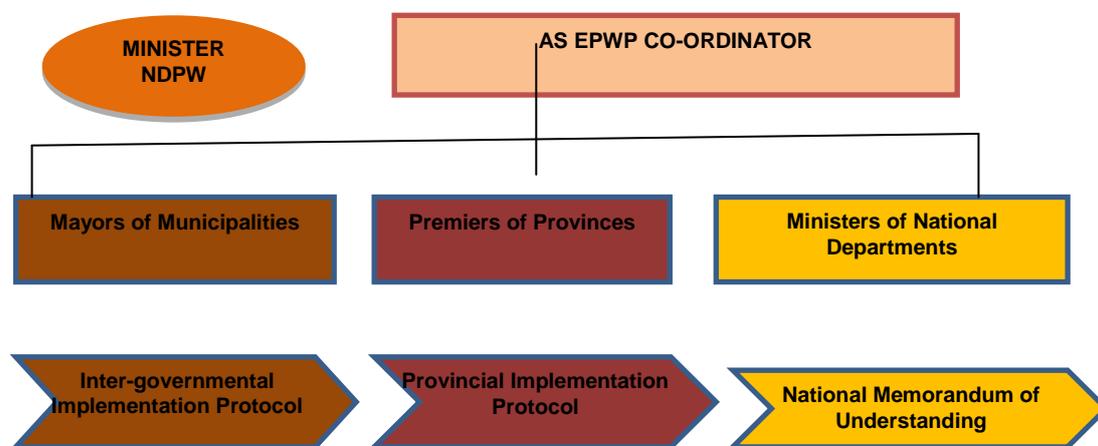


Figure 5: Political Accountability Arrangements for EPWP Implementation (NDPW, 2014)

The above mentioned level of agreements is separate from the financial accountability arrangements for the EPWP Incentive grants. The Minister of Public Works is the overall champion of the EPWP and provides national policy leadership and direction on the design, framework and implementation of the EPWP. During both EPWP phases 1 and 2 (2004 – 2014), the DPW was the custodian of the EPWP. The overall coordinating role of DPW can thus be summarised as follows:

- Creating a supportive and enabling environment for the implementation of EPWP projects,
- Coordinating activities of different public bodies so that wherever possible they are aligned,
- Developing funding frameworks,
- Providing technical support to participating public bodies,
- Facilitating learning between public bodies on the implementation of public works projects and programmes,

- Monitoring, evaluating and reporting on the EPWP, and
- Assisting with the identification of opportunities to implement EPWP projects

DPW is the lead department for both the Infrastructure and Non-State sectors. The IDT also supports the Non-State sector. The Environment and Culture sector is led by the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA) and the Social Sector (SS) is led by the Department of Social Development (DSD). Each sector consists of national and provincial coordinators. The sector coordinators provide leadership and authority, coordination and direction, advocacy, risk management, and capacity building for the respective sectors. At the provincial government level, members of the executive council (MECs) for Public Works (note: MEC for Transport in Kwa-Zulu Natal) leads on the EPWP by providing provincial leadership and direction on the EPWP. Each province has a dedicated EPWP unit established within the Provincial Departments of Public Works such as the Department of Transport in Kwa-Zulu Natal, that are instrumental in mobilising other provincial departments, NGOs as well as municipalities and SOEs within the province to perform in accordance with the objectives of the EPWP (Department of Public Works (DPW), 2009).

Figure 6 below reflects different structures and committees that have been established nationally, provincially and locally to coordinate and monitor EPWP implementation at different spheres and sectors of government, these include amongst others National coordinating Committee [NCC], National Sector Committee [NSC], Provincial Steering Committees [PSC], Provincial Sector Coordinating [PSCCs], and District Steering Committees [DSCs]. The Minister of DPW participates in and accounts for the ones highlighted in orange colours. The yellow reflects the national committees. Blue highlights the provincial committees which are accountable to the national committees. Municipalities' coordination committees are highlighted in green and account to the District committee which is reflected in purple. They then account to the provincial committees. The technical coordination and reporting is highlighted in grey and is managed under different clusters as reflected in figure 6 below:

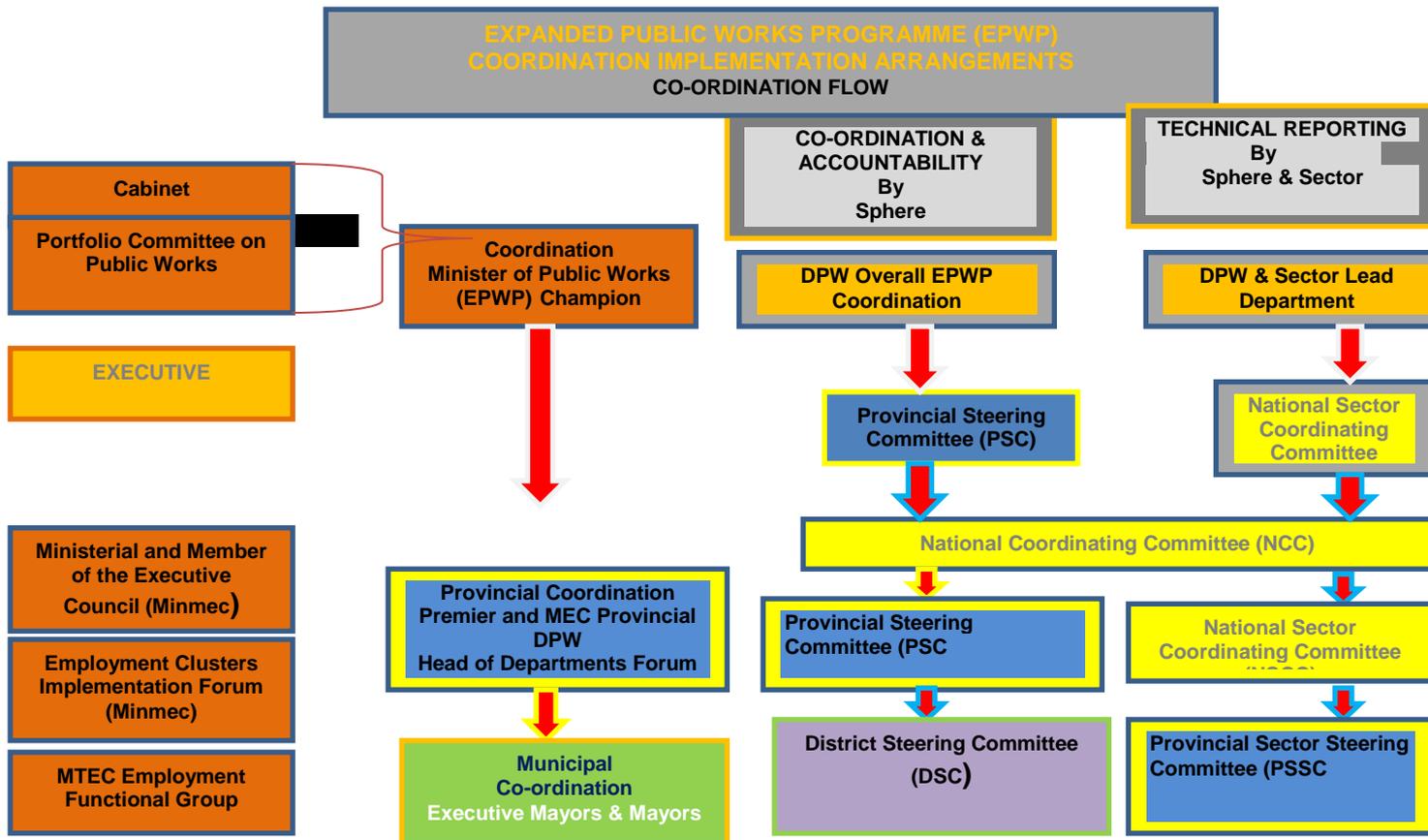


Figure 6: EPWP COMMITTEES COORDINATION FLOW (NDPW, 2012)

The issues underlying the role of community participation in antipoverty interventions have been examined. A simple framework has been described to discuss the analytics of participation and poverty reduction. The main trade-off is identified as being between the way in which different modes of delivery vary in the costs of intervening and the design of objectives. Trade-offs arises when the most efficient provider happens not to care most about the poor. The framework is based on below three main types of actors involved in the delivery of antipoverty interventions: *financiers, providers, and participants*:

- The primary role of financiers is to provide funds for the intervention. Good examples are multilateral and bilateral donors, ministries of finance and NGOs. The EPWP is funded through the budget allocated for the goods and services of employers.
- The main role of providers is to implement interventions. For example, Morrison (1998:222) describes officers of the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) as “managers of contracts rather than development projects.” Providers may be line ministries, autonomous government agencies, private firms, or NGOs. In many cases, the providers and financiers are one and the same. Depending on context, financiers or providers may initiate or design interventions. The EPWP is

implemented and funded by the departments across three spheres of government, state owned enterprises (SOEs), non-government organisations (NGOs) and private sectors are encouraged to do so.

- Participants comprise communities, households, and individuals who receive the benefits of the intervention. This group could be quite narrowly targeted or quite diverse. The EPWP recruits participants through ward councillors, advertisements, indigent list, list from the department of labour etc. The popular one is the use of ward councillors. Respondents from this study mentioned that favouritism and biasness is observed at times.

Conversely, Lam (1996:105) contends that there may also be powerful extrinsic motivations that discourage individuals within financier and provider entities from supporting activities that participants' desire. Since there are no specific funds allocated for the EPWP, Funders of the EPWP projects are incentivised. The section below explicates the incentive grants in EPWP as implemented from 2009 to current.

3.15 EPWP incentive grants (IG)

3.15.1 Incentive grant background

The EPWP incentive grant was introduced as part of phase 2 to further enhance the creation of EPWP Full Time Equivalent work opportunities by Public bodies (1 Full Time Equivalent = 230 Person days). This was after the realisation that NDPW had limited authority in phase 1 to make Public bodies meet their targets. R4.1 billion has been allocated to DPW over the medium term framework (MTEF) (9/10 to 11/12) to pay out the incentive to public bodies and this was expected to grow to at least R5 billion in the 13/14 financial year. The fiscal incentive was applicable to the infrastructure sector and non-state in the 09/10 financial year and was rolled out to the social and environmental sectors from the 10/11 financial year.

Since the EPWP incentive is structured as a conditional grant, it is subject to the provisions of the DORA. In order to ensure that the required financial accountability arrangements are in place, it is required that the accounting officer of the national transferring department (the Director-General of the NDPW) and the accounting officer of the receiving public body (the provincial Head of Department or Municipal Manager) sign an agreement which specifically deals with the stipulations, requirements, conditions and obligations of the EPWP Incentive Grant allocation and disbursement).

3.15.2 EPWP fiscal incentive principles

The EPWP incentive paid all public bodies that created work above a minimum threshold for the EPWP target group an incentive of R50 (according to the Ministerial determination of 10/11 financial year) person day of work created. Currently, as from November 1st, the minimum wage is R75.10 as stipulated in the Ministerial determination. Rural Municipalities have no minimum threshold. Eligible public bodies that want to participate in the incentive would have to enter into an agreement with the DPW. While indicative performance targets and incentive amounts are set for each eligible public body, they will only be able to claim the incentive upon proving that work has been created. Moore and Joshi (1999) argue that community participation is more likely to be forthcoming when the financier has established a credible reputation for trust and reliability, in other words, when the financier can take steps to reduce the uncertainty regarding these activities. Such considerations suggest that the focus that many financier organisations place on community participation may miss the mark. What may really matter are the incentive structures within these entities. As Narayan (1998:110) observes, “Indicators of success send important signals to staff about program priorities. If community involvement, the number of women or the poor reached, and the number of systems functioning is not reflected in indicators of success, there is little incentive for staff to change their way of doing things to reach these goals.”

3.15.3 Basis for measuring EPWP performance

EPWP performance is measured using “Number of FTE’s per million Rand” of infrastructure budget, taking into account the different portfolios of infrastructure and the rate at which each can contribute to employment creation. Each public body (apart from rural municipalities) must meet a minimum eligibility threshold before they can start accessing the incentive. The incentive is not paid out for work created below the eligibility threshold, but is paid for all work created above this threshold.

3.15.4 Determining eligibility

To be eligible for the EPWP IG, the only criteria is that: “A public body must currently be participating in EPWP and reporting performance.”

3.15.5 Reporting criteria

In any one financial year, to be eligible for the EPWP Grant, public bodies must have reported to the National Department of Public Works on their EPWP performance (*the amount of work created and other indicators associated with this work*) in the past 18

months. In other words, to be eligible for the grant in the 2014/15 financial year, a public body must have reported either, EPWP performance for the 2012/13 financial year by 15 April 2013, or EPWP performance for the first and second quarters of the 2013/14 financial year by 15 October 2013. It should be noted that Public bodies can report EPWP performance in any sector to be eligible for the grant. The NDPW monitors the EPWP performance of each public body through its EPWP reporting system. Every year, the NDPW reviews which public bodies have reported to determine the public bodies eligible for the grant. Therefore, for those public bodies that are not yet eligible, the NDPW will undertake a more active mobilisation campaign in terms of marketing EPWP, support these public bodies to identify projects in the focus areas suitable for the application of labour intensive delivery, and deploy reporting support to assist these public bodies to simply begin to report their current programmes/ projects and the work created to be eligible in the following financial year (NDPW, 2013/14:19).

3.15.6 Agreements

Eligible public bodies entered into agreements with DPW which specified targets to be met by the public body, amounts that can be claimed by the public body for reported EPWP work created, reporting, verification and audit requirements through the EPWP Management Information System (MIS) and Integrated Reporting System (IRS), and EPWP workers may not be paid less than what is stipulated in the Ministerial Determination. The IG Agreements stipulates the obligations of the implementing public body and the NDPW required for the implementation of the EPWP Incentive Grant. Figure 7 below demonstrates financial accountability arrangements:

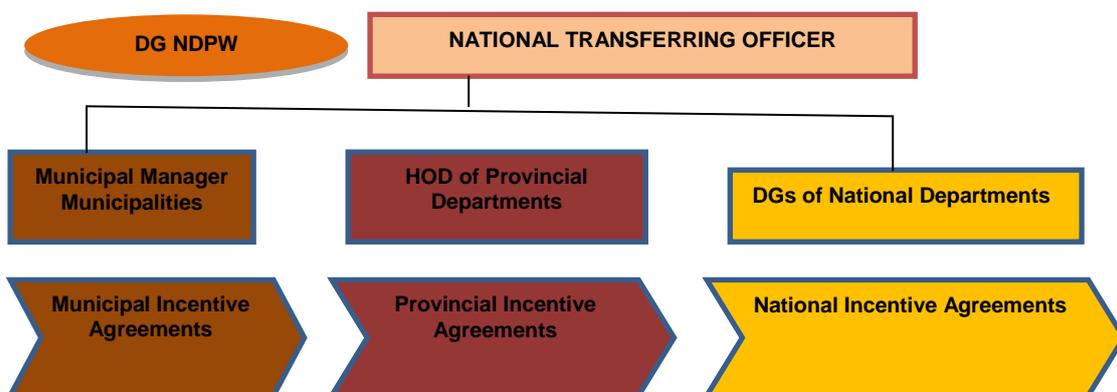


Figure 7: Financial Accountability Arrangements (NDPW, 2009)

3.15.7 Monitoring and progress reporting

After the IG agreement has been signed and implementation planning is ready to be embarked upon, public bodies are required to report on the progress of implementation. Public bodies are required to load all their EPWP programmes/projects onto the EPWP reporting system. It should be noted that, it is the responsibility of the public body to ensure that they then collect the standard information required to report on their projects and that this information is correctly captured on the EPWP reporting system. Accordingly, public bodies are required to report 15 calendar days after the end of every quarter, the monthly performance of their EPWP programmes/ projects by the end of every quarter in the manner required on the EPWP reporting system. Only projects on the EPWP reporting system will count towards the reported EPWP performance. Furthermore, public bodies are required in terms of the DORA to report on monthly 15 days after the end of the month, on expenditure against the grant, key outputs and implementation challenges. This is a separate report via Municipal and Provincial Treasuries to the National Treasury (NDPW, 2013/14:28).

3.15.8 Disbursement of the grant

At the beginning of the financial year, the National Department of Public Works determines the payment schedule for the EPWP Grant. This will be provided to all receiving officers and their relevant treasuries. The only drawdown from Municipal or Provincial Revenue Funds in terms of the EPWP Grant are the disbursements authorised by the NDPW in terms of the payment schedule. In order to receive grant disbursements, public bodies must meet certain planning and/or reporting requirements. In addition, amendments to the planned payments schedule are subject to specific defined processes. 40% of the grant disbursed by 15 May (provincial departments) and 15 August (municipalities) at the beginning of the financial year conditional upon which the Grant Agreement is signed, and the NDPW has approved the public body's EPWP project list. Further disbursements (2 disbursements of 30% each) will take place during the financial year, provided that, reporting monthly expenditure in terms of the PFMA/ MFMA has been done, the public body is implementing its EPWP project list and spending its initial 40% towards its job creation targets and is reporting quarterly as per EPWP requirements. It should be noted that the above mentioned processes should be met by 30 May 2014 for provincial departments and 15 August 2014 for municipalities. The EPWP Grant disbursement could be withheld or stopped according to DORA S18-19 if not complying (NDPW, 2013/14).

IGs funds are allocated from Treasury to the DPW. The DPW therefore disburse allocated funding directly to the Funder. A Funder or Funding Department is the institution or organisation that funds the EPWP projects. Eligible public bodies should incorporate the incentive allocation into their budgeting and planning process but take into account that payment by DPW will occur quarterly after employment has been created. Where projects implemented are funded from the IGs, NDPW want them to be recorded and reported as *IG/the name of the project*. In her review of incentive schemes for SOEs, Shirley (1998) notes that governments often have poor information on performance. Managers use their informational advantage to negotiate targets that are hard to monitor or easy to achieve.

3.15.9 Use of the EPWP IG

Public bodies must utilise the EPWP Grant in accordance with, and in the manner stipulated in, the 2014 DORA and the Grant Agreement with the NDPW. The EPWP grant cannot be used to fund the costs of permanent municipal personnel. A maximum of 5% of the grant can be used to fund contract based capacity (for data capturing/management, on-site management costs, technical support for labour intensive design). It is imperative that both Grant Framework and Grant Agreement should serve as a reference. A receiving officer may not transfer any schedule 5/5b allocation or any part thereof to any other entity or other sphere of government for the performance of a function envisaged in terms of the allocation, without the approval of the National Treasury and the NDPW (NDPW, 2013/14:30).

3.15.10 Fiscal incentive for provinces

The average FTE for the different infrastructure portfolios (e.g. Roads, Public Works, Education, and Health) was considered in calculating the incentive amounts. The following is the formula used:

Full incentive amount = (FTE Target – FTE minimum threshold)

X 230 X 50.

DORA amount = 75% X Full incentive amount.

The total Incentive allocated to provinces was R151 million. 3 Provinces namely, Gauteng, Limpopo and Northern Cape did not meet the FTE minimum threshold and were allocated a nominal incentive amount of R500, 000. Disbursement of the

incentive for Provincial Departments is from the NDPW to the Provincial Treasury from where it is disbursed to the eligible Provincial Department.

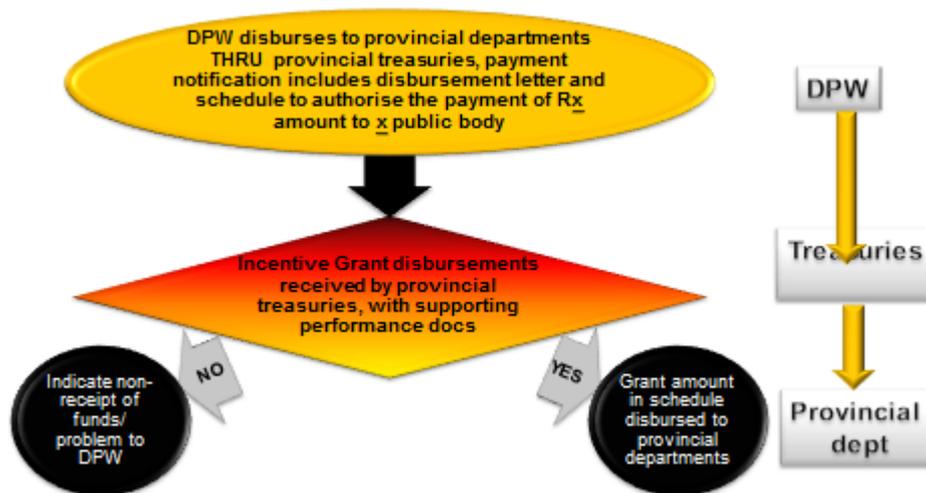


Figure 8: Disbursement Flow for Provincial Departments (NDPW, 2012)

3.15.11 Fiscal incentive to Municipalities

In order to cater for rural Municipalities in line with comments from the Select Committee on Finance, the following considerations have been considered:

- The FTE target for Metros per million rand of expenditure is 6, different from 3 considered for other Municipalities.
- The FTE minimum threshold for Rural Municipalities = 0
- Full incentive = (FTE Target – FTE minimum threshold) X 230 X 50
- DORA amount = 50% x Full incentive amount.

In the 09/10 financial year, 68 Municipalities including 6 metros were eligible for the incentive. The total incentive allocated to Municipalities were R201.7 million, of which R147.2 million went to rural Municipalities and R54.5 million to Metros. According to NDPW (2011) reports, at least 100 municipalities were eligible for the incentive in the 10/11 financial year. 5 Municipalities were eligible for the incentive in the Northern Cape for the 09/10 financial year. A total of R15.5 million has been provided as indicative allocation for these municipalities. Oates (1995) notes that, where local authorities provide services funded by a central body; local incentives for efficient local fiscal allocations are destroyed because local authorities do not bear the costs of their own actions. Figure 9 below reflects on the disbursement flow of Incentive grants to Municipalities from the Department of Public Works.

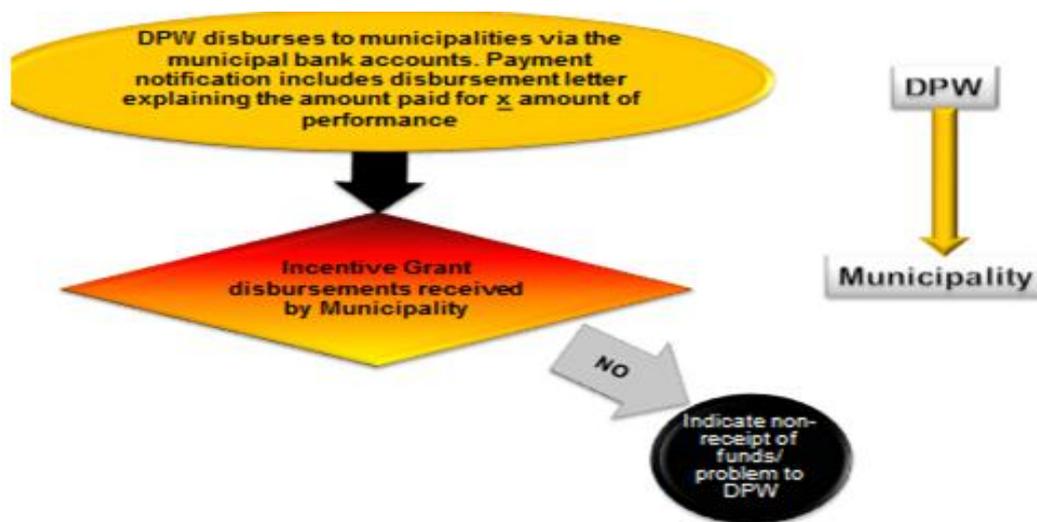


Figure 9: Disbursement Flow for Municipalities (NDPW, 2012)

Progress made on the EPWP incentive grant. 9 out of the 16 eligible provincial departments signed their incentive agreements as of 1st of August 2009. To date, the majority of provincial departments have signed their incentive agreements. As of 1st of August 2009, 35 out of the 68 eligible Municipalities signed their incentive agreements. Only 2 eligible provincial departments that is, KwaZulu-Natal Transport and Eastern Cape Transport submitted 1st quarter reports for the 09/10 financial year in time. KwaZulu-Natal Transport exceeded their quarterly eligible threshold and paid R19, 308,839 as their EPWP incentive grant considering the 1st quarter 09/10 report. The first payment to municipalities was due on the 30th October 2009 due to the difference in the financial years (NDPW, 2013).

3.16 Monitoring & evaluation (M&E) and reporting

Monitoring and evaluation (M&E) is important to ensure that the PWP achieves the objectives that it set out to achieve. The Monitoring and Evaluation unit is set within NDPW EPWP. The role of the EPWP Monitoring unit is to provide framework for data collection and capturing, verify and validate data collected, coordinate the development/upgrading of EPWP reporting tools/systems, generate quarterly and adhoc reports, and build data collection and capturing capacity (NDPW, 2011). The EPWP Evaluation unit's role is to plan and implement evaluation studies and requests with sector managers, commission evaluation (process, outcome and impact) studies as per the framework. They further oversee EPWP performance evaluations undertaken and implementation of recommended action plans to improve qualitative performance, analyse EPWP quarterly data, identify trends and prepare reports per sector and province and produce specific progress reports against set targets, analyse quarterly data to determine if the programme is implemented as planned and

identify data quality challenges, and disseminate programme results through workshops and forums. Both two units are crucial in the EPWP as deliverables and performances are reported and measured as well as outcomes together with impacts evaluated.

Phillips (2004) asserts that strong institutions should be put in place to manage and coordinate the implementation of the PWP. Hopewell (2001) insinuated that an effective PWP requires a capable and accountable administrative system of considerable complexity. He further proposes that government should be responsible for this administration in a consistent and transparent criterion to evaluate the effectiveness of the PWP; and review performance on a quarterly or annual basis, where PWPs are longer-term projects

The EPWP reporting for phase I commenced in 2004 - 2008 using the excel template. In 2009, the web based system (WBS) was introduced. It was used by the E&C sector and social sector system users. The Infrastructure sector was using the management information system (MIS) and IDT was supporting system users on behalf of the NDPW. The EPWP M&E Capacity building unit is responsible for training and data capturing support to all Implementing and Reporting bodies irrespective of sectors across three spheres and SOEs on the M&E issues and reporting using the EPWP system(s). During EPWP phase II, the EPWP M&E unit upgraded the WBS and introduced the integrated reporting system (IRS). The EPWP is presently in phase 3 (April 2014 – March 2019) and the reporting system is enhanced. Phillips (2004) avows that high priority be given to effective systems of M&E of the PWPs. Therefore, it is imperative to monitor whether the benefits of the PWPs are reaching all or most of the intended participants, whether the PWP is cost effective and or whether there has been a leakage of programme benefits to non-target groups (Hopewell, 2011). During the monitoring process, reported data should be validated against the set validation rules as specified in the previous chapter.

McCord (2003:62) asserts that M&E is important in collecting data and baseline information about the impacts of PWPs. Information such as work days created, units of training delivered, kilometers of road constructed and number of workers recruited are important for analysing the real impacts on the livelihoods of the participants of the PWP against the government investments made in those PWPs (McCord, 2003). Reporting bodies should adhere to the EPWP M&E reporting processes by ensuring that, correct data is collected at the project level using appropriate data collection

tools, collected information is verified for inconsistency, incompleteness and within reasonable time period, project data is captured and updated monthly in the correct reporting system, and all the non-compliant project data is corrected in the system (s) prior cut-off date within a week after the validated data dump has been issued.

3.17 Effectiveness of the EPWP

Phillip (2004) emphasises that effective planning of the PWP is crucial to ensure that that pace of implementation is linked to the pace of the development of the required implementation capacity. Regarding the effectiveness of the EPWPs in enhancing employability once exiting the programme, Moyo (2013:52) conducted a study in the North West province at Modimolla Village which revealed that;

- Once the participants exited the EPWP projects they were employed on, the employment opportunities in implementation areas disappeared. Though this finding should be viewed within the nature and design of the EPWP projects, EPWPs are an emergency and a poverty-alleviation programme not meant to provide long-term employment opportunities to the unskilled poor, and
- While the training provided in the Modimolla Integrated EPWPs was useful to participants, it did not enhance their employability after exiting the projects.

McCord (2003:67) mentioned that the employment creation performance of PWPs in SA has been limited due to the scale of budgetary allocations (less than one percent of the annual social security and welfare budget); institutional constraints (relating to programme conceptualisation and design); project management capacity (in both the public and private sectors); and multiplicity of fragmented programme objectives that has contributed to a lack of focus which has reduced the amount of employment generated.

Though the budget is tight, but respondents mentioned some participants were absorbed in various departments around Gauteng, Mpumalanga, North west and Limpopo provinces.

The Bushbuckridge Local Municipality's EPWP study revealed that there was economic and social impact on the participants. From the economic perspective, the EPWP has enabled the participants to earn an income and be able to fulfill the basic needs such as food, shelter and school fees for the kids. In addition, the researcher also observed that the income earned enabled participants to buy televisions and radios. Furthermore, the level of social capital in the communities where the EPWP

projects are located has improved. Social networks, norms and mutual trust among the community members has improved because of the pro EPWP project participants, who were receiving wages which enabled them to join community investment clubs (stokvels) and burial clubs to help one another pay for funerals of the dead (Mothapo, 2011: 53).

Within the Zululand District Municipality it was found that the participants in one (Phongola) of the five local municipalities .i.e. Dumbe, Ulundi, Abaqulusi, Nongoma, and Phongola in the district, had sustainable EPWP employment (1 year or longer). This represented only 9.42% of the total participants initially employed in the EPWP projects. 90.58% of the participants had worked on the EPWP projects for an average period of 6 months, which meant that they were temporary jobs and not sustainable. With regard to training of participants and skills gained, only 46.97% respondents received training and 53.04% did not receive training. This low rate of training amongst respondents may suggest that the jobs created were not sustainable and they were unable to have an exit strategy from the EPWP. One of the possible exit strategies would be for the workers to use the skills gained during training to get permanent employment or open their own businesses (Khanyile, 2008:86 and Lenneiyee, 2005:69 - 73).

McCord (2004:61) detected that neither programme significantly reduced headcount poverty. Training, skills transfer and experience were not sufficient to impact on labour market performance. The short-term nature of the EPWP does not permit the accumulation of surplus for investment in income earning activity. In general, impacts were less significant in Limpopo and were not expected to have a sustained impact.

Van Dijk and Croucamp (2007:666) indicated that perhaps the greatest impediment to the implementation of a developmental state in South Africa is the robust societal urge which is embodied in the legislation and entrenched in the South Africa, The Constitution of South Africa Act, no 108, 1996 emphasise that local communities to participate and determine policy and policy outcomes. This is a reflection on the social as well as institutional memory (the connective tissue of the continued resistance), which, perhaps, somewhat ironically, was conceived in the liberationist political realm.

3.18 Challenges facing Implementing and Reporting bodies

EPWP is as a bridge between unemployment and employment which equips participants with skills and experience. As such the EPWP is exempt from much of the current labour legislation. In return for this exemption, the programme is obliged to provide a higher level of training than would be normally provided in any other place of work. Training is therefore the backbone of the EPWP Code of Good Practice. Developing the capacity to deliver on this commitment is critical to the success of the programme.

The social arm of the EPWP sector aims to:

- Provide 147 763 person years of work in the next 5 years
- Ensure that a minimum of 60% of those trained secure a permanent job on exiting the programme
- Provide accredited training and linked to NQF unit standards

Currently most of the training has been provided by the Departments, NGOs and CBOs. The challenge within the EPWP is funding for training and to translate all of this into accredited training and link the training more explicitly to possible exit opportunities for participants. The types of training that were envisaged in this programme are as follows:

- Skills programmes at NQF levels 1, 3 and 4;
- Qualifications at levels 1 and 4 (NDPW, 2013).

The EPWP is well on course to meet its WOs targets that will lead to job opportunities and meeting of set targets. However, there is still an on-going need to correct the tendency to see the EPWP as a DPW programme rather than a cross cutting broader programme of government. Hemson (2008:1) mentioned that based on his analysis, it is clear that the EPWP succeeded in phase 1 by reaching the target of 1 million WOs but couldn't reach the target for the disabled. He further observed that funding was a challenge to implementing bodies. Though EPWP was reported as performing above the set target, Hemson (2008:2) argued that the minimum standards for length of a job are not reached; targets of training are not met; only 59% of the funds allocated over 3 years have been spent; expenditure for non-wages are rising whilst wages are static; and earnings per job are declining over time (Hemson, 2008:2). The above analysis will be compared with the response from questionnaire respondents.

Respondents mentioned that there is insufficient technical support on social, and environment and culture sector projects; lack of commitment and political buy-in in

some departments and municipalities; insufficient funding which directly affects participants training; delay in projects; poor monitoring of projects on site; and poor reporting due to unstable reporting system. The NDPW and DPW across provinces are the coordinators of the programme. It has been observed through EPWP M&E reports since 2004 - 2014 that not all institutions across the spheres were reporting their projects as they were supposed to. That is why the Department has established the Partnership support unit that is led by the Chief Director and Programme managers for buy in purposes. Some projects implemented were not initially designed for EPWP hence they affected reporting and data collection process flow. Currently, not all implemented projects are supported and reported accordingly. Good cooperative governance exist but some institutions still need to be orientated as there is high political and staff turnover.

The key EPWP stakeholders are Coordinating bodies, Implementing bodies and Data Managers who are expected to be aware of their roles, responsibilities and accountabilities. Their level of knowledge and insight prior and during the EPWP is essential. If the key stakeholders are not clear on their roles and responsibilities, and their managers also do not measure them accordingly, the programme would be a disaster. All key stakeholders must be aware of the requirements for projects and participants in EPWP. Coaching and guidance through referral such as technical support is needed to avoid implementing projects that are not compliant to EPWP. Technical support should be provided during the planning stage such as IDP processes in Municipalities. An open ended questionnaire was prepared for the key EPWP stakeholders. Their response assisted with the analysis of the challenges facing provinces, municipalities and non-state sectors. The challenges outlined in this chapter were compared and analysed with the ones that were received from respondents. Amongst the key challenges facing municipalities such as the City of Tshwane in the implementation of the EPWP as specified by Moeti (2013:91) are lack of exit strategy, inability to meet a 2% disability target, capacity in terms of designing projects labour-intensively, capacity in terms of reporting, dedicated coordination capacity within the municipality, low incentive draw-down and achievement of longer duration of work opportunities targets. Almost all the above challenges were mentioned by different respondents in this study. The lack of an exit strategy was also raised by 10 respondents out of 17.

The duration of employment in the EPWP during phase 1 (2004 - 2009) was minimal, such that the programme could not make a significant contribution to reducing

unemployment. Hence in phase 2, implementing bodies were encouraged to contract a participant for at least 100 days or more. Furthermore, the jobs created in the programme were not sustainable because the training provided as part of the programmes did not last for long and was often not accredited. This meant that those who left these programmes were usually not equipped with the necessary skills to gain employment elsewhere. There are also budgetary constraints in the programme. Compared to the sums allocated to social security and welfare projects, budgetary allocations for public works programmes are very low. Also, there are institutional constraints relating to the conceptualisation and design of programmes, while insufficient project management capacity has also contributed to the poor performance of EPWP in creating employment among the unemployed population.

The EPWP still has to overcome widespread resistance to the use of more labour-intensive methods in infrastructure projects. Figure 10 below shows flaunting EPWP participants constructing the 2.5km storm water canal at the Greenpoint Township outside Kimberley. Precisely, 55 youths were employed under the EPWP to labour intensively construct the storm water drainage canal to mitigate the effects of occasional flooding that brought hardship to this community during the rainy seasons. More than 200 WOs were created, indicating the popularity and usefulness of the programme. In support of the National Skills Development and the sector's skills pipeline, it has been observed that there is a need to import the second phase of the Cuban Technical Advisors mainly for skills transfers and service delivery improvement (NDPW, 2014). Resistance to labour intensive methods was based on the perception that labour-intensive methods were more difficult to manage, took longer, were more costly, and resulted in inferior quality products. Implementing bodies are supposed to have project managers and technical support that will advise during the planning stage and guide the implementation stage.



Figure 10: EPWP workers implementing labour-intensive methods in an infrastructure project (NDPW, 2014)

The partnership support unit together with the operations and infrastructure sector unit emphasised that transfers and/or newly appointed staff in EPWP should be oriented and inducted so that they can familiarise with the background, objectives and implementation of the EPWP. It has further been witnessed through AG findings and M&E research that some projects do not have supporting documents as POEs on site. This has raised alarm that some stakeholders may not be clear on their roles and may not be aware of the primary objectives of the programme and its *modus operandi*. Monitoring especially on projects is an on-going process and it starts from planning, implementation and evaluation of the project. Monitoring is the systematic collection and analysis of information (numeric / words) as a project progresses that is aimed at improving the *efficiency*, *cost-economic* and *effectiveness* of a project. It is based on set targets and activities planned during the planning phase of work to achieve planned outputs. Therefore stakeholders involved in EPWP should know their expected roles and support needed.

The on-job training seemed insufficient as not all participants were offered trainings. This might be due to the fact that institutions are not provided with funds specifically for training. Delays in training or no training at all negatively impacted expectations of many participants and affected the smooth running of projects. However, the aim of the programme which is to provide skills to the unemployed has not been met. As discussed, the skills component of the EPWP has not been prioritised in most public works programmes. Even after completion of the programme, participants cannot take up skilled job opportunities in the labour market. Furthermore, the jobs created in the programme are not sustainable due to the limited duration of the work. It can be argued that the EPWP has made a slight impact but has not fulfilled its mandate of reducing the rising unemployment rate in South Africa. Hence, more needs to be done to improve the effectiveness and relevance of the broader programme. The Minister of Higher Education, Dr Blade Nzimande mentioned that the key challenge facing SA is boosting the post-school education level among the masses and aligning it to the needs of the people and the economy. He also stipulated that the one big difference between our own situation and that of other countries grappling with difficult educational issues is that SA has to deal with a huge backlog in the entire education system which is a throwback from the apartheid era. He further substantiated that despite the advances made since the advent of democracy, the education system continues to replicate many of the divisions of the past (Sowetan, 2014:10).

The ILO report (2013:43) reflected on the review that was undertaken prior to EPWP2. It cited the principles for wage setting for the EPWP as laid down in the Employment Conditions Commission (EEC) which stated that the minimum wage should not be lower than old age and disability grants; minimum wage should not differ by location; and that increases should be above inflation given current inequalities in earnings. Budlender as cited in the report noted that rates should consistently remain above the grants and that the minimum wage should be equal to 1.3 of disability grant = R74 in 2013 for 22 days' work. This rate will not lift workers out of poverty but it will make people less poor; linking the rate to the grant will ensure that there is an automatic increase with the annual grant increase. It has been noted that EPWP is targeting local labour where beneficiaries are expected to walk to projects. Unfortunately, it is not always like that as most participants use transport to go to projects and must eat on site and at home with families from the stipend received.

Adato *et al* (1999) as cited in the report (2013:44) suggest that a review of wages in 10 programmes on three continents offers a very varied picture. In Bangladesh and Pakistan, programmes pay below market wage; two programmes in Phillipines pay above market wage; two programmes in India and one in Kenya pay equal /above market; one programme in India pays equal to the minimum but below market. It was found that in Botswana they pay less than the minimum and equal to market wage. Other studies state that the nature of the public work programme could have a bearing on wages. Lieuw-Kie-Song (2009) and Phillip argued in the report that by setting the wage rate low, the programmes become self-targeting because only the poorest people will work for these rates, whereas higher wages could result in displacement of existing economic activity; where someone who is actually employed but at a lower wage leaves their job to join the programme. Their concern is that the poor are more likely to be squeezed out of the programme. The MTR (July 2013) states that it is crucial that programmes address the location of work and hence the costs of getting to work.

The failure to achieve targets could be attributed to the following challenges that were highlighted by central departments as contained in the 2011/12 financial year annual report: planning processes not completed on time to implement in the financial year (capital projects); some projects not labour intensive (in terms of the design); implementation of EPWP not prioritised on maintenance projects; budget constraints; standardisation of daily wages; and reprioritisation of projects (CTMM, 2012:4).

3.19 Conclusion

The EPWP focuses on ensuring that labour intensive methods are used in government service delivery programmes across sectors. This chapter noted that the EPWP was implemented across three spheres of government in four EPWP sectors namely environment and culture, infrastructure, social and economic sector during phase 1. In phase 2, the EPWP was implemented across three spheres of government in all four sectors; however the economic sector was a cross-cutting sector rather than a standalone. In the second phase, the non-state sector driven by NGOs was also added. The legal frameworks and guidelines for the implementation of EPWP were discussed. The EPWP's performance targets, indicators and actual performance on WOs and FTEs were tabulated.

Since 1994, women, youth and people with disabilities were identified as groups that needed Government intervention to access employment and skills. Thus Government identified them as the target group for the EPWP. The discussion showed that the EPWP has made a significant contribution to alleviating poverty among women, the youth, people with disabilities and poverty stricken SA communities in general. The achievements of the EPWP in phases 1 and 2 were highlighted. The WOs and FTEs reported were created from compliant projects. That means, projects were reported by the EPWP's implementing bodies across spheres, validated by the EPWP M&E that utilised the projects as alluded to above. Once they met the requirements, it meant that they were compliant and figures reflected as such in the final report. The WOs and FTEs that were found to be non-compliant after validation were not included in the final report. This chapter noted that for ten years, out of the compliant reported projects, 5 688 989 WOs were created, totalling 1, 161 76% in phase 1 and 2.

International best practices were also outlined as they form the basis of a strategy to make the unemployed more employable using the PWP. The best practices and poverty reduction strategies that were adopted in China, Vietnam and Uganda were discussed. This is because these countries have done extremely well in terms of poverty reduction. This chapter established that the Chinese government stimulated rural economic growth by implementing various reforms which were aimed at, among other things, assisting poor households with land improvement; increasing cash crop, tree crop and livestock production; procuring goods produced by poor farmers at reasonable prices and improving access to off-farm employment opportunities. It also implemented programmes that were aimed at improving the income-generating

prospects of the poor in particular, providing the poor with access to arable land, education and healthcare.

It was highlighted that the Vietnamese government implemented measures which were aimed at growing the rural economy. From the above discussion, it has been observed that the immediate needs of the poor were addressed by these three governments namely, China, Vietnam and Uganda. The Vietnam government went as far as introducing a number of targeted anti-poverty programmes that were aimed at, inter alia, supplying essential goods to the poor e.g. food, salt, clothes, blankets, kerosene, etc., alleviating unemployment among the poor, providing preferential credit, exempting the poor from paying education fees (thus reducing illiteracy), reducing child malnutrition, and so on. In order to return the economy to a growth path, the government of Uganda adopted various economic and institutional reforms. The government of Uganda also improved the quality of life of the poor by creating programmes that were associated with free primary education, improved healthcare, reduction of the HIV/AIDS infection rate, improved access to clean water and sanitation, and improved adult literacy. The income of the poor in Uganda was strengthened by the government when it initiated policies that sought to, among other things, enable the poor to access arable land, agricultural advisory services, (rural) finance and markets; foster sustainable natural resource utilisation; and build the rural infrastructure (most particularly, rural roads and sustainable energy resources for the poor). This was also seen in the NW, Mpumalanga provinces. The experience of these respective countries suggests that a potentially successful poverty reduction strategy should encompass three elements, namely; the creation of economic opportunities for the poor, augmenting poor people's assets and providing them with access to markets; sound macroeconomic management that engenders macroeconomic stability; and social programmes (i.e. social safety nets) that are targeted at the poor. Training of the poor in all three countries was emphasised as it provided an exit strategy from poverty and enhanced sustainability. The next chapter will focus on the research methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology of the study. It discusses the research design that was selected for the study, data collection instruments as well as sampling methods.

4.2 Description of research methodology

Research methodology is the methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan, as well as the underlying principles and assumptions that underlie their use (Babbie *et al.*, 2009: 647). Methodology" connotes a discourse about methods i.e., a discourse about the adequacy and appropriateness of particular combination of research principles and procedures (Brewer and Hunter, 1980 & 1989).

The study is explanative and descriptive because one of the objectives is to identify and describe factors that necessitated the implementation of the EPWP; therefore the findings are grounded in reality and not only in the researcher's beliefs. The purpose of descriptive research is to gain more information about characteristics within a field of study, and to provide a picture of situations as they naturally happen. Welma, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:188) view the descriptive approach as good when applied to a qualitative research. Looking at work opportunities (WOs) and FTEs' set targets per sector across provinces; it is evident that it is paramount essential to tabulate performances. The performances tabulated in this thesis are explanative, descriptive and qualitative which are based on facts that will enhance the probability on attaining validity. Webb and Auriacombe (2001:21) assert that qualitative and descriptive knowledge assists towards achieving valid research objective.

Evidence is gathered using structured instrument. This study identifies types of training that participants received, impacts on participants, assets created or delivered, challenges encountered and proposed remedial action using a questionnaire as an instrument of data collection. Descriptive designs are used for the purpose of developing theory, identifying gaps, problems in current practice and determining what other countries are doing in similar situations.

Gathering of data, recording observations, collecting experiences, developing plans, discussing with stakeholders and solving a real-world problem is not necessarily research. Admitted, all these are valuable activities, but knowledge creation becomes

research when the data and information we have gathered are systematised, analysed and fed back into academic communities (Winder, 2003). This is what distinguishes scientific knowledge from non-scientific knowledge (Audi, 2003). In order to become research, knowledge has to be transformed from being tacit into being explicit. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) used the terms *tacit knowledge* to refer to subjective knowledge and *explicit knowledge* to refer to as objective knowledge; however, the researcher uses the terms in a more specific sense, adapted to the needs of the research context. In the context of this research, tacit knowledge is implicit and personal. This means that the knowledge is not directly accessible to others and that it is impossible to assess its significance in relation to existing knowledge. In contrast, explicit knowledge is accessible to others. Explicit knowledge is mostly tangible; it is fixed on some kind of medium such as a book, scientific journal, CD, video or a web site. As a consequence, it is brought into the wider context of the public domain.

This research is conducted systematically using different study of materials which are books, magazine, information from the public domains, websites, presentations, scientific journals, dissertations, documents and reports in order to gain knowledge and insight, establish facts and reach new conclusions. A rigorous scrutiny using explicit knowledge was ultimate for this thesis hence facts were discovered, gathered using afore mentioned materials and questionnaire filed by data managers, implementing bodies and coordinators across four provinces in all three EPWP sectors. The retorts of the above mentioned EPWP stakeholders were critically analysed and facts interpreted. To complement the above, Kerlinger (1970:8) cited in Walliman (2001:4) enunciated technically that research is the systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about presumed relations among natural phenomena. The UK Research Assessment Exercise 2001 (RAE, 2001) also avows that research is to be understood as original investigation undertaken specifically to gain knowledge and understanding. Thus, different theories consulted, investigation carried out to gather facts, analysed and recommendations made. Below dwell on how this research was designed.

4.3 Research design

This study was designed appropriately as reflected in chapter 1 under structure of chapters. It highlighted what needs to be searched, collected, collated, conducted and achieved. From the above avowal it is evident that a research design is not just a work plan. A work plan details what has to be done to complete the project but the work plan will flow from the project's research design.

A data collection tool mechanism was planned for this study. The questionnaire attached as annexure A for this study was relevant to the research questions cited in chapter 1. Relevant stakeholders per EPWP sector were identified to participate in the questionnaire. Data managers were asked about the data reported in the EPWP. Same applies to the Implementers and Coordinators of the EPWP who participated in the study. The function of a research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables us to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible. Obtaining relevant evidence entails specifying the type of evidence needed to answer the research question, to test a theory, to evaluate a programme or to accurately describe some phenomenon. In other words, when designing research we need to ask, given this research question (or theory), what type of evidence is needed to answer the question (or test the theory) in a convincing way? Research design deals with a logical problem and not a logistical problem (Yin, 1989:29).

Social research needs a design or a structure before data collection or analysis can commence. In this thesis, data was collected in the following ways or approaches:

- Through EPWP M&E published performance reports
- Evaluation of the EPWP secondary sources
- Analysing secondary data on international best practice case studies of PWWs
- By way of structured questionnaires targeting Coordinators, Implementers and Data Managers involved in the EPWP across the four provinces namely, Mpumalanga, Limpopo, North West and Gauteng. The researcher targeted 12 participants per province and had a total of 48 participants.

People with knowledge and insight were targeted for specific purpose. Hence, open ended questions were preferred as a qualitative explorative approach mechanism. The questionnaire was designed, reviewed and disseminated after analysing EPWP performance reports from the public domain. As alluded to in chapter 2, review of relevant academic literature on job creation and poverty alleviation were consulted and highlighted prior. Scholars have warned that researchers should avoid designing questionnaires or begin interviewing far too early prior thinking through what information they require to answer their research questions. Without attending to these research design matters at the beginning, the conclusions drawn will normally be weak and unconvincing and fail to answer the research question. Good research design will anticipate competing explanations before collecting data so that relevant information for evaluating the relative merits of these competing explanations is obtained.

Mouton and Marais as cited in Blanche and Durrheim (2004:33) stated that the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research project in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised. The purpose of research design is to reduce the ambiguity of much research evidence. Based on the above it is clear that research design for this study guided on the type of knowledgeable officials or stakeholders and clarity seeking questions needed prior. It also steered on the sampling and questionnaire as the type of data collection method which is relevant for this study. Same applies in social research; the issues of sampling, method of data collection such as questionnaire, observation and document analysis. The design of questions and evidence that the researcher needs to collect plays a key role in social research. Creswell (2009) confirms that research design is the plan or proposal to conduct research and it involves the intersection of research philosophy, strategies of inquiry and specific methods. The researcher selected appropriate methods and techniques to the research goal as highlighted in chapter 1 under structures of chapters. It is not uncommon to see research design treated as a mode of data collection rather than as a logical structure of the inquiry. But there is nothing intrinsic about any research design that requires a particular method of data collection. In this thesis as highlighted that data is collected using a questionnaire across four provinces. The purpose was to measure different responses to one questionnaire as the officials' tasks are the same irrespective of a province. Challenges in provinces might differ as people are unique. Although cross-sectional surveys are frequently equated with questionnaires and case studies are often equated with participant observation. Poor evaluation of designs is caused by failure to distinguish between design and method. Equating cross-sectional designs with questionnaires or case studies with participant observation, means that the designs are often evaluated against the strengths and weaknesses of the method rather than their ability to draw relatively unambiguous conclusions or to select between rival plausible hypotheses.

This study examines the role of the EPWP in reducing unemployment and poverty in South Africa vis-à-vis international best practices. Lewis and Saunders (2012) recommends for this type of study a qualitative approach, where research is about discovering new phenomena where the researcher may not be prepared to launch into an in-depth, full scale research but may only want some insight into the study. In this study only data managers, project implementers and coordinators for three provinces across EPWP sectors were consulted using the questionnaire. More detailed research in an exploratory study assist in providing more dependable

answers. In-depth information is required in a qualitative study. Exploratory research is done through searching academic literatures (as elaborated in chapter 2), interviewing experts in the subject and conducting interviews with stakeholders (Lewis and Saunders, 2012). Beneath clarifies the scope of this study.

4.4 Scope

The study evaluated the implementation of the EPWP in South Africa against the backdrop of similar projects in other countries. This evaluation was carried out through analysing the EPWP M&E documents across nine provinces. Analysing Secondary data on international best practice case studies of PWP's were analysed. The target group for this study in this scope is described below.

4.5 Target population

This thesis targeted people who managed data, coordinated and implemented EPWP projects. Consequently, officials who managed data, coordinated and implemented EPWP projects across the nine provinces were considered for selection. Out of the target population, sampling was conducted. Below explicates on how sampling was conducted.

4.6 Sampling

For the evaluation of this study, the sample population was the EPWP projects implemented across nine provinces in three EPWP sectors namely environment and culture, infrastructure, and social sectors. Though this study evaluated secondary data from the public domain across three EPWP sectors but sampled provinces when disseminating the questionnaire. Huysamen as cited by Brynard and Hanekom (1997:16 - 19) avers that if the population is relatively homogeneous, a smaller sample may be sufficient. The high level of validity was promoted by requesting prospective participant to specify if they ever heard of the EPWP and ever involved in the implementation or coordination of the EPWP in between 2004 – 2014 March. If they were not involved, they were requested not to proceed. Brynard and Hanekom (1997:18) argue that sample size does not only depend on heterogeneity or the size of the sample but require obtaining a high level of validity. Brynard and Hanekom (1997:18) maintain that sample size does not only depend on heterogeneity or the size of the sample but require obtaining a high level of validity.

Blumberg (2005: 213) mentions the following principles that influence sample size:

- The greater the dispersion or variances within the population, the larger the sample must be to provide estimation precision;

- The greater the desired precision of the estimate, the larger the sample must be;
- The narrower the interval range, the larger the sample must be;
- The higher the confidence level in the estimate, the larger the sample must be;
- The greater the number of sub-groups of interest within a sample, the greater the sample size must be, as each sub-group must meet minimum sample size requirements; and
- If the calculated sample size exceeds 5 percent of the population, sample size may be reduced without sacrificing precision.

Out of the nine provinces targeted, only four provinces sampled for the questionnaires. This simple random sample was guided by theoretical considerations. Punch (2005) asserts that samples are usually small and are guided by theoretical rather than probabilistic considerations. These four sampled provinces are Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Limpopo and North West provinces. Gauteng province is chosen because it is the economic hub of SA and a sizeable proportion of the investment in all three EPWP sectors. The EPWP was piloted in Limpopo province as specified in chapter 1 and that swayed the researcher to include it. The North West and Mpumalanga provinces were sampled because of similarities among the elements in a population. Punch (2005) asserts that sampling is based on two premises. One is that there is enough similarity among the elements in a population and that a few of these elements will adequately represent the characteristics of the total population. The second premise is that while some elements in a sample underestimate a population value, others overestimate this value.

There are many methods of sampling when conducting research. Simple random sampling is the ideal, but researchers seldom have the luxury of time or money to access the whole population, so many compromises often have to be made. The process of purposefully sampling EPWP champions assisted in establishing the challenges they currently face, and what solutions they propose moving forward. Their inputs in this research are important because effective implementation addressed current issues faced by stakeholders in the value chain .i.e. implementers (municipal officials), and participants (women, youth, men, indigents and people with disabilities). It is evident that there is no time wasted in a purposeful sampling.

4.7 Selective methods

Sometimes a research study leads one to target particular groups. Just as in this study, the researcher used purposive sampling by targeting officials managing data,

coordinating and implementing EPWP projects across the provinces. Lewis and Saunders (2012) affirm that purposive sampling is based on intent and one is studying particular groups. It is evident that this method selected is cost effective and not time consuming.

4.8 Data sampling technique

The sample technique that is employed in this study is purposive sampling. Lewis and Saunders (2012) assert that random sampling ensures adequate representation in terms of sample size and geographic spread. Through this sampling technique, any official who meets the qualification criteria within the population has an equal chance of being selected. All 48 participants were provided with the same questionnaire to fill it in. If this approach was not followed, the researcher could have run the risk of selecting a dependent variable that might be biased. Lewis and Saunders (2012) added that results could be skewed and may not be an accurate reflection of the population or what is transpiring on the ground.

✓ Sample size

This study had a sample size of four provinces namely; Mpumalanga, North West, Gauteng and Limpopo provinces.

4.9 Research paradigms

In this elaborative study, figures were also collected and analysed. The mixed method approach is the most applicable to this research. The research is essentially of an exploratory nature. The objective is to endeavour to establish a body of valid knowledge about the phenomenon and to interpret the phenomenon to the extent that there can be meaningful interpretation. Through this approach a greater understanding of cardinal roles of officials managing data, implementing and coordinating EPWP will be understood. There is also a substantial volume of participatory research which can be brought to bear on the research problem. Few months leading up to the adoption of the EPWP phase 3 in 2013, the researcher was participating in the discussions aimed at formulating inputs for the reviewal of the EPWP indicators, reporting, monitoring and evaluating the EPWP. The work, which was both analytical and creative, was done by a team with expertise in EPWP and M&E, with the assistance and co-operation of officials from departments including Wits University and ILO. This participative approach produced situation specific knowledge and insights, and has been directed at accomplishing modifications that assimilate *modus operandi* during the implementation of EPWP in phase 3.

Creswell (2012) avows by emphasising that a quantitative study should be followed-up qualitatively to obtain more detailed information. Bryman (2008) added that "...qualitative research can be construed as a research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data..." This approach is concerned with how the social world is interpreted, understood and experienced. Therefore, qualitative research can be described as the efforts of collecting information from the perspective of people for the purpose of unfolding the meanings that they affix to their experiences, behaviour and to understand their lives prior to scientific explanations.

The mix approach design of qualitative, quantitative and participatory embarked on in this study. This is highlighted in chapter 3 of this thesis. Wessels (1999:382 - 384) confirms the applicability of social science methods in the public administration discipline, and identifies the same three macro-research methods (or paradigms) referred to by Mouton (1996), viz the quantitative, the qualitative, and the participatory. Mouton also adds that participatory action research is more related to qualitative than to quantitative research. Wessels (1999:408) contends that qualitative methods are flexible as compared to quantitative methods. They can be used in a wider range of situations and for a wider range of purposes. They can also be more easily modified as the study progresses. In this thesis during analysis both quantitative and qualitative data were taken into consideration. Creswell (2008) asserts that when both quantitative and qualitative data are used, they provide a better understanding of your research problem than either type by itself. Punch (2005) insisted that there is more to the issue of combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. He asserts that there is a possibility of adding one approach to the other, interweaving the two approaches, integrating the two approaches and linking the two approaches. This different meaning leads to different models for combining the above mentioned two approaches. It is a bit complex, however, it means combining findings denotes that the qualitative and quantitative data and methods are not combined, only the results from the two sorts of enquiry. Further, combining data might mean that the two types of data are brought together during the analysis and contribute to the findings.

The EPWP phases 1 and 2 targets plus performances were reflected quantitatively and qualitatively in this thesis. Creswell (2008) emphasised that mixed methods designs are used when one type of research (qualitative or quantitative) is not enough to address the research problem or answer the research questions. Creswell (2009) and Amaratunga *et al* (2002) both agree that a mixed research design approach will

enable the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research to be realised rather than using just one of the methodologies.

The scientific examination of participants who responded to questionnaires was restricted to things that can attentively be assessed and analysed without bias. This has been avowed by Welman *et al* (2005:6) that the positivist approach inspires the natural-scientific method in human behavioural research and maintains that scientific examination must be restricted to things we can attentively watch and assess without bias, which means objects that survive autonomously of the beliefs and attitudes of persons. Punch (2005:238 - 239) argued that quantitative approach has well developed and codified methods for data analysis. He further asserts that the quantitative approach conceptualizes reality in terms of variables and relationship between them. The researcher described the roles of stakeholders in the implementation of the EPWP. She also asked officials to describe their roles through a questionnaire.

Procedures for the analysis of the quantitative data, being well developed and codified, bring objectivity to the research in the sense that they increase the chances that the results of the analysis do not depend on the researcher doing the analysis. Therefore, the quantitative approach means that certain types of important questions can be systematically answered, opening the way to the development of useful knowledge (Punch, 2005:238). The quantitative research paradigm is also applied meaningfully in this thesis using performance and statistical figures from the EPWP public domains. Statistical analysis was carried out on such numbers in a meaningful way. Amaratunga *et al* (2002) state that quantitative research is strong in measuring variables but its weaknesses lie mainly in the failure to ascertain deeper meanings and explanations. This approach is commonly referred to as “mainstream” social research, and is accepted by perhaps the majority of social scientists as the framework within which to work. Observation of a research object must have as its outcome exact measured quantities on which generalisations can be based (Wessels 1999b:386 - 387).

Punch (2005) contends that studies which combine methods, data and findings can be described as full multi-dimensional studies. In dealing with the methodological dimensions of social research, Mouton (1996:36 - 37) refers to “methodological paradigms” which are quantitative, qualitative and the participatory action paradigms. In his view, paradigms in the research context are not merely collections of methods

and techniques, but also include assumptions and values regarding their use under specific circumstances or, in other words, the philosophies underlying the use of certain methods and techniques. Mouton raises the so-called conflict between the quantitative and qualitative paradigms (suggesting that participative action can be subsumed under the latter) and argues in favour of the compatibility of the two major paradigms, indicating that the choice between their utilisation in a particular research project is to be determined by the nature of the research problem (Mouton 1996:38 - 40). Case studies and survey on PWP and EPWP were highlighted in chapter 3. Survey research became much more exciting when it began including meaningful dimensions in the study design. Punch (2005:119) argues that quantitative and qualitative approaches to research have imperative dissimilarities. In spite of these differences, the two approaches share several similarities. The major differences between the two approaches lie in the character of their information, and in ways of gathering and analysing information. In a single approach design (SAD) also called a "monomethod design" only one analytic interest is pursued. In a mixed or multiple approach design (MAD), two or more analytic interests are pursued. It should be noted that a multiple approach design may include entirely quantitative approaches such as combining a survey and an experiment; or entirely "qualitative" approaches such as combining an ethnographic and a phenomenological inquiry, and a mixed approach design includes a mixture of the above (e.g., a mixture of quantitative and qualitative data, methods, methodologies, and/or paradigms). Creswell (2009:8 - 9) states that; qualitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. Bryman (2008) concurs and adds that it is a deductive approach which tests theory and that it is objectivist.

4.10 Reliability and validity

The primary data collected for the research is considered valid and reliable because it was from sources that are directly involved in EPWP. The researcher also made use of secondary data derived from recognised institutions for instance the Department of Public Works in SA and credible sources such as academic literatures, journals and dissertations.

The collecting of data (measurement) and doing research always raises the issues of reliability and validity. In this study the questionnaire was used as an instrument to accurately measure what has been intended to measure in order to achieve the objectives of the research. Cook & Campbell (1979:37) accentuated that reliability attempts to answer all concerns about the consistency of the information collected, while validity focuses on accuracy. They further emphasise that validity act as the

strength of the conclusions, inferences or propositions. On the other hand Miller (2012:1) indicates that reliability is the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials. Saunders *et al* (2009:156) agree, but go on further to denote that reliability is the extent to which data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings. In this thesis, the researcher developed questionnaires based on the reviewed theoretical framework and the need to make additional findings on the subject matter. Prospective respondents were sent questionnaires that were proofread and edited for consistent and better results. Though participants were from different provinces but majority's responses were the same. This has shown commonalities, validity and reliability of the data received. Gilbert (2002:2) emphasised that piloting ensures that the internal validity of the study is also improved, .i.e., it discards all unnecessary and ambiguous questions, assesses whether each question gives an adequate range of responses, checks that all questions were answered, asks the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions, administers the questionnaire to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study.

4.11 Data analysis

In this study participants' (coordinators, implementers and data managers) questionnaires and documentation review were used as primary methods of data collection. The collected data is considered reliable because it came from primary sources. All respondents were directly involved in the EPWP.

The collected data was grouped into four (4) provinces and roles (coordination, implementation and data management). Quantitative and qualitative data were analysed manually using text analysis as per the main categories from questions contained in the questionnaire and against the literature review. The method applied was predominantly interpretational. Information obtained from best practices and secondary data derived from credible sources such as academic journals and documents from the NDPW and national coordinators of EPWP were taken into consideration.

Most of the data from the respondents were captured exactly with a view to not distort the facts. The interpretation of collected data is based on actual responses from respondents. Thereafter, it was clustered and analysed by the researcher in her own words. The data was analysed qualitatively through text analysis. According to Creswell (1994:147) and Clark (2006:97), text analysis is categorised into constant

comparative, narrative enquiry and content analysis. Clark (2006) elucidates that content analysis provides a detailed examination of the content of the data. Constant comparative was pertinent in the assessment of the EPWP where the best practices in chapter 3 in the anti-poverty strategies, unemployment ameliorate and skills shortage were compared to the collated primary and secondary data of the EPWP. Clark (2006:97) encourages this method to be used after the narrative analysis.

4.12 Limitations and strengths of the research

In this research, the following research limitations were highlighted:

- Non-response and response errors

Non-response error will result when any of the prospective respondents decline to partake. Response errors result when respondents do not mean what they responded (Lewis and Saunders, 2012). To mitigate the errors, questionnaires were sent to more than the targeted number of officials per province in order to play safe in case some did not want to partake.

- Delay in response

This will result when respondents receive the questionnaire but do not respond on time. Respective respondents were provided with a cut-off date. Follow-ups were conducted by the researcher and some questionnaires were personally collected.

This research is exploratory and it examined several factors related to PWP. Yin (2009:31) notes that every research study is limited by the restrictions placed upon the researcher, and this research is no exception. The fundamental ethical principle of social research is that participation ought to be voluntary hence permission was requested from the prospective respondents. Expectations, hazards exposure and intention of the questionnaire were provided to prospective respondents so that they are able to take an informed decision on whether to proceed or not. Each prospective respondent is informed on the purpose of the survey and permission requested. The decision to take part in a study remains the choice of the respondents. The respondents were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time. None of the participants withdrew from the study. The respondents contributed positively during the process and were willing to participate as they were satisfied that their data will remain confidential. De Vos *et al* (2005:61) contend that participants must be comprehensively told in advance about the possible effects of the study. In this study, no harm or medico legal hazard was encountered.

The researcher made every effort to overcome these limitations to ensure that this study is conducted smoothly, but it was not possible to control all the factors that were

likely to affect its quality such as time frame on responses. No obstacles were encountered in the use of the questionnaire method. However, a response rate of 85.4% (41 out of 48) is considered representative for this type of research. The process of distribution, completion and collection of the filled-out forms ran smooth, even though several follow-ups were made to prospective respondents.

Another limitation as pointed out by McMillan and Schumacher (2006:211, 321 and 401) is that data collection by means of questionnaires also poses a number of possible limitations namely that there could be biased or ambiguous items and the rate of response by the participants may be slow. In this study, the researcher was able to pilot the questionnaire. This assisted in eliminating potential errors and limitations such as the misinterpretation of questions. The question on “how was your performance measured by your supervisor?” was misinterpreted by some respondents during the pilot and the researcher observed and clarified it prior distributing to all prospective respondents. This provided the researcher with the opportunity to and shorten questions, eliminate unnecessary ambiguities, and be in slight control of response timeframes. The advantage of this study was that most respondents were experienced in the EPWP. Responses were from across all spheres in the identified four (4) provinces.

4.13 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research methodology and research paradigms that are appropriate for this study and limitations of the research. The qualitative and quantitative approaches were also elaborated. The following chapter will focus on the questionnaire responses and how it was analysed, presentation of research findings and discussion.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION, DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF EMPIRICAL KEY FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results gathered. The chapter also profiles the respondents. The questionnaires are structured to elicit information that will answer the main research questions listed in chapter 2 of the thesis. Although the researcher made efforts to ensure that key officials respond to the questionnaire, it should be noted that the process was voluntary. The questionnaire was design in such a way that it fully gathers data on the experiences of the respondents in the implementation of the EPWP. The questionnaire is categorised into three sections. Coordinators and Data managers responded to 11 questions each and while Implementers were given 18 questions. The content of the questionnaire ranged from their broad understanding of the EPWP, challenges faced with the current implementation approach, the impact of the EPWP on participants and possible recommendations and interventions to deal with challenges. Most questions in the questionnaire were open-ended. The intention was to give the respondents an opportunity to express themselves based on their experiences without unnecessary limitations.

5.2 Research results

The respondents were sampled from Mpumalanga, North West, Limpopo and Gauteng provinces. The results of the research provided insight into the implementation of the EPWP for the purpose of creating more WOs and FTEs from 2004 - 2014 as highlighted in chapter 3 of the thesis. The EPWP positively impacted the unemployment and poverty rates in SA.

Forty-eight (48) research questionnaires were disseminated equally to the above four mentioned provinces. The research revealed the following characteristics about the sample profile of EPWP coordinators, implementers and data managers across four provinces:

- Forty-one (41) (85.4%) of respondents participated in the study, 15 coordinators, 17 implementers and 9 data managers. The majority of the respondents (20) were between 36-45 years of age. There were 22 female respondents as compared to 19 males, 15 of which were youth between the ages of 26-35. All 41 respondents had no disabilities. Out of 41 respondents, 27 held university degrees and 14 had diplomas. Table 1 below is a summary description of respondents:

Table1: Summary description of respondents

Provinces	Coordinator	Implementer	Data Manager	Total
Gauteng	4	5	3	12
Limpopo	4	6	2	12
Mpumalanga	4	3	2	9
North West	3	3	2	8
TOTAL	15	17	9	41

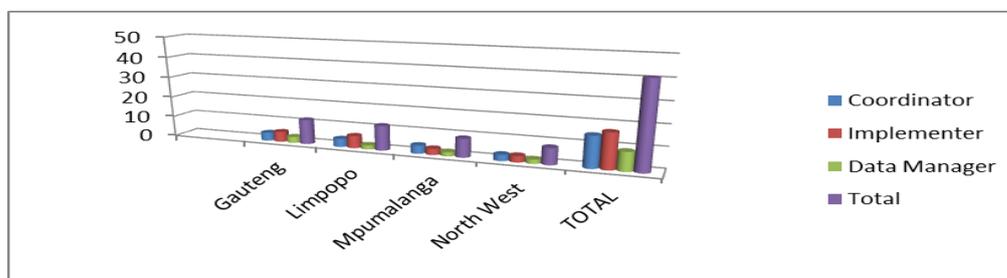


Table 2 below reflects the gender, age and education levels of respondents:

Table2: Summary of the respondents' gender, age and education levels

PROVINCE	GENDER		AGE	LEVEL
	Male	Female		
Gauteng	2	2	36-45	Degree
	1	1	46-60	Diploma
	2	1	46-60	Degree
	0	1	25-35	Diploma
	1	1	25-35	Degree
Subtotal	6	6		
Limpopo	1	1	25-35	Diploma
	1	3	25-35	Degree
	1	1	36-45	Diploma
	2	2	36-45	Degree
Subtotal	5	7		
Mpumalanga	1	1	25-35	Degree
	1	2	36-45	Degree
	1	2	36-45	Diploma
	0	1	60^	Degree
Subtotal	4	5		
North West	1	1	25-35	Degree
	1	1	36-45	Diploma
	1	1	36-45	Degree
	1	1	46-60	Degree
Subtotal	4	4		
TOTAL	19	22		
Overall	41			

In EPWP there are sector coordinators and provincial coordinators. As highlighted in chapter 4 of the thesis, coordination within the four sectors namely the social sector, environment and culture sector, infrastructure sector and non-state sector is conducted by sector coordinators. The EPWP is managed and coordinated by provincial coordinators (PCs) supported by programme managers (PMs) in each Department of Public Works (DPW) per province. The data gathered from questionnaires indicates that the performance of tasks by EPWP Coordinators, Implementers and Data Managers is unique and not uniform. The data below highlights responses to the questionnaire across the four identified provinces:

5.3 Responses from Coordinators

The EPWP is coordinated by the NDPW in the national departments and the DPW across provinces. There are different stakeholders involved in the EPWP as highlighted in Chapter 3. Each sector in EPWP is coordinated by a sector coordinator. The sector coordinators deal with sector issues such as coordination of sector meetings, project implementation and performance reporting, participants' participation and training within the sector. Programme coordinators focus on coordinating the programme in terms of community awareness, business plans, meetings, political and administration buy-in etc. The following are questions and responses as specified in Annexure A of the thesis:

Question 1: List the tasks that you performed as a Coordinator/ Implementer / Data Manager?

The purpose of this question is to ascertain whether Coordinators, Implementers and Data Managers were performing their duties to support the EPWP as expected. It has been stated in chapter 3 of the thesis that Agrawal and Gibson (1999:88), Ashby, Knapp and Ravnborg (1998:57), and Caldecott and Lutz (1998:72) contend that the impact of participatory arrangements can be enhanced when outside agencies provide specialist advice. Therefore, clear roles and responsibilities should be specified. The researcher observed that tasks listed by respondents were not the same. There was a difference between tasks of those who coordinated the programme (EPWP) in the province and those who coordinated projects within their sector in the province.

Most departments and municipalities are in need of technical support, hence 26.6% (that is 4 out of 15 respondents) mentioned that there is need for technical support to

be provided to municipalities and government entities to assist municipalities to draw EPWP policies and draft business plans for the implementation of the EPWP. What the researcher observed is that some respondents had more than one responsibility. Technical support to develop or design new projects for the purpose of expansion was a bit lacking especially in municipalities. None of the respondents mentioned that they participate during the integrated development plan (IDP) processes for the purpose of guiding and coaching new EPWP project design. The following are tasks mentioned by respondents per province:

❖ **Gauteng Province**

One (1) respondent (25%) from the social sector cited that she was coordinating meetings, preparing reports, attending sector meetings, monitoring and verifying data, ensuring transfers are effected by NPOs and attending to other adhoc duties that the programme requires. 100% (4) respondents highlighted personal development of participants. 75% which is 3 respondents out of 4 cited that they established partnerships and linkages with relevant government departments, municipalities and community structures in support of EPWP. Three (3) respondents cited that they mobilised communities to ensure targeted people meet the criteria. 25% (1) respondent mentioned that she created awareness about the programme and ensured that public bodies report on the WOs created on projects. 25% (1) respondent mentioned they were responsible for developing site visit plans and requesting for capacity building on the EPWP system reporting.

One (1) respondent listed “shortlisting, interview and appointment of administration assistants (AAS). The same respondent mentioned the management of the unit’s special projects (USP) and Extra School Support Programme (ESSP) and its staff, compilation, coordination and management of the Ekurhuleni South district ESSP management plan and annual calendar, convening and conducting ESSP monthly cluster meetings, resolving queries on recruitment, selecting and appointing of participants, as part of his duties. They also oversee and manage capturing of and uploading data on IRS and presentation of the EPWP ESSP district report to both provincial GDE office as well as EPWP national office (Pretoria).

100% (4) respondents highlighted the fact that community mobilisation and briefing sessions are held to ensure that the communities are aware of the projects that will be implemented in their areas. 50% (2) respondents mentioned that they coordinated

training for EPWP participants. 50% (2) respondents stated that they played a role in the coordination of municipalities and provincial departments.

❖ **Limpopo Province**

75% (3) respondents mentioned that they assisted implementing bodies with projects identification. One (1) respondent highlighted they were secretariat of infrastructure and E&C sector. Branding of EPWP projects is important. Four (4) respondents (100%) cited that they assisted in project alignment and branding. The EPWP is implemented across spheres and four (4) respondents stated that they played a role in the coordination of district municipalities. 75% respondents (3) emphasised that they assisted project managers and project teams in coordinating sector issues in the EPWP programme and ensuring that there is understanding among all stakeholders.

25% (1) respondent listed the following as his tasks; “facilitating planning, implementation and reporting of EPWP at local government sphere; providing technical advice on environment and culture sector programmes in line with both provincial and local government functions; supporting the provincial sector department with the development of sector plan providing advice to EPWP implementing bodies on EPWP policy framework that relates to conditions of work and benefits of EPWP participants or participants as stipulated in the code of good practice and ministerial determination for expanded public works programme. He further mentioned that he is developing projects implementation plans; facilitating the signing of incentive grant by implementing bodies; and monitoring the implementation and reporting of EPWP”.

❖ **North West Province**

All 3 respondents listed the following tasks which are stakeholder engagement and management, compiling provincial sector plans, supporting implementation in line with the sector plan, aligning national targets with provincial targets and performance monitoring:

- 3 (100%) respondents mentioned that they coordinated the implementation of the EPWP.
- 33.3% (1) respondent convened of workshops with all stakeholders to disseminate project information.
- 3 (100%) respondents mentioned performance monitoring against provincial targets.
- 2 (66.6%) respondents stated that they played a role in the coordination of

municipalities.

- 33.3% (1) respondent highlighted the following:
 - ✓ Facilitating the signing of the incentive agreements and protocols
 - ✓ Ensuring provision of technical support by the respective sector managers
 - ✓ Engaging with implementing bodies through the existing provincial structures
 - ✓ Ensure that district Steering committees are formed and operational
 - ✓ Attend and respond to audit queries
 - ✓ Coordinate and monitor the creation of work opportunities especially reporting on the M&E system.

❖ **Mpumalanga Province**

Respondents identified their tasks as follows:

- One (1) respondent (25%) mentioned that they were responsible for coordination of both infrastructure and non-state sector meetings and identification of non-profit making organisations for the non-state sector.
- Three (3) respondents emphasised that they coordinated sector issues.
- Four (4) respondents (100%) highlighted that they ensured that stakeholders were reporting EPWP projects.
- Three (3) respondents said they were responsible for performance monitoring against provincial targets.
- 2 respondents (50%) stated that they built relationships with stakeholders to establish needs, threats and weaknesses.
- Out of 4, 25% which is 1 respondent convened workshops with all stakeholders to disseminate project information.

Question 2: Who were the key Stakeholders that you interacted with?

The study found out that different stakeholders (municipalities, government departments, non-profit organisations) are involved in EPWP. Their roles and working time frames had to be cleared during the planning phase. In the case studies that have been discussed in previous chapters, (China, Uganda and Vietnam) it was emphasised that for strategies to be effective there is need for stakeholder to actively participate in the PWP. Stakeholders play different roles in various stages of the EPWP project cycles. This has been confirmed by Nattrass (1998:10) when he argued that business acts collectively for a variety of different reasons. Respondents identified their stakeholders most of whom showed the existence of public, and private partnership involving municipalities, provincial departments, contractors, communities, independent development trusts (IDT), Training providers and SETA.

The non-state sector mainly worked with government departments and non-governmental organisations. Respondents from the social sector cited the Department of Social Development (DSD), the Department of Education (DOE), the Department of Health (DOH), and the Department of Arts, Sports and Culture (DASC) as their partners. The Departments of Public works (DPW) both provincially and nationally were amongst the key stakeholders in each and every sector. One (1) respondent from Mpumalanga Province mentioned they were in partnership with two provincial government business enterprises, provincial radio stations and community radio stations. Two (2) respondents from Gauteng Province stated provincial departments, provincial and municipal Coordinators, Mayors and Municipal Managers as key stakeholders they interacted with. One (1) respondent from Gauteng Province stated the NPOs, Department of Health (DoH), Department of Labour (DoL), Department of Public Works (DPW), Department of Education (DoE), the City of Johannesburg (CoJ), Health and Welfare seta (HWSETA), and ETDP seta, Department of Infrastructure Development (DID) and EPWP participants were their stakeholders.

Two (2) respondents from Limpopo Province named national and provincial departments³⁰ municipalities, Tribal authorities, and community members as key Stakeholders. One (1) respondent from North West Province identified Municipal Managers, Mayors, Municipal Administrative staff, EPWP Champions, MEC- DPWR, HODs, Technical Directors, Chief Directors (different departments) Premier's Office Task Team; EPWP participants as key stakeholders. One (1) respondent from Gauteng Province confirmed that he interacted with ES District EPWP ESSP Transversal team, school principals and deputies, school governing bodies, participants, GDE head office officials as well as officials from other government departments including EPWP national officials".

Question 3: *How was your performance measured by your supervisor?*

There are provincial, national and sector coordinators in the EPWP. The study found that Coordinators are assessed differently by their supervisors based tasks to be performed. Sector coordinators are assessed on task and activities performed within their sectors. The Environment and Culture (E&C) implementers and coordinators from Mpumalanga Province responded that they were measured on the number of jobs created, number of outputs/products produced, number of EPWP participants trained, number of contractors/SMMEs supported, and number of stakeholder

engagement workshops hosted. One (1) respondent from Gauteng Province revealed that their performance was measured against the set EPWP WO targets for Municipalities and the Gauteng Province.

One (1) social sector coordinator reflected that performance was measured through participating in monthly Extended Steering Committee meetings. Moreover, they were expected to facilitate the development and implementation of Business / Sector Plans, attend provincial and national meetings, summits and conferences, facilitate submission of monthly, quarterly and annual financial reports, monitor and support EPWP implementing projects, facilitate, monitor and support EPWP training, facilitate monthly, quarterly and annual financial expenditure reports, facilitate data collection and capture of EPWP participant data, facilitate Kamoso awards both provincial and national. 1 coordinator for infrastructure in the E&C and economic sector stated that his performance was measured on the number of implementing bodies that implemented their projects using LIC, the number of WOs that they created and the reports he made to the department of Public works. Three (3) respondents revealed that their performance was measured by the training they provided within the sector and the number of participants who received training. In case of drop-outs, performance was measured in terms of the number of drop outs and the reason for the drop outs. Two (2) respondents cited that they were measured by the number of site visits they conducted and the number of challenges they addressed. Four (4) respondents mentioned that they were measured on the basis of their ability to monitor record keeping and provide proof of participants who worked and the stipends they received.

Two (2) respondents from Limpopo and North West Provinces stated that their performance was measured based on the “number of work opportunities and full time equivalents reported within the sector, number of bodies implementing and reporting on EPWP, number of implementing bodies accessing incentive grants and reporting. Two (2) respondents mentioned that they were measured on the basis of technical support they provided to municipalities and departments, and sector plans they developed for provinces. One (1) respondent from the North West Province revealed that; “he was measured by group and individual assessment – which measured performance against the business plans, and core management criterion respectively”. One (1) respondent from Gauteng stated that they were assessed for “compilation and implementation of the ESSP Ekurhuleni south (ES) district, management and operational plans, effective and efficient ESSP (EPWP). They were

also expected to conduct monthly district transversal team meetings and school-based monthly cluster meetings, compile and present ESSP ES district reports at various levels (schools, district/cluster, provincial and national), conduct schools visits and interact with various stakeholders, capture and report successful implementation of ESSP at all participating schools.

Question 4: *What training did you receive prior to and during your participation in the EPWP that helped you to perform your duties?*

Most respondents indicated that they had received training either prior to and/or during their participation in EPWP. Some said they had received training more than once. Table 3 below shows the training received by respondents prior to and during the EPWP that helped them perform their duties:

Table 3: Training received by respondents prior to and during the EPWP

Training received prior participation in EPWP	Number of Respondents	Training received during the participation in EPWP	Number of Respondents
3 day induction and orientation	4	Web based system (WBS) training	10
Master's degree	3	Management information system (MIS) training	9
Degree in social science (Social Work)	1	Integrated reporting system (IRS) training	14
Advance programme and project management	2	NQF level 5&7 on labour intensive methods of construction	2
B Tech in Human resource management (HRM) and Human resource development (HRD)	1	Basic HIV/AIDS course	6
Senior teachers' diploma	1	Financial Management for non-financial managers	1
Honours degree in Educational Management, Certificate in Training practices, and Employment Intensive Investment for sustainable development	1	Advanced project management	1
SPSS	1	Human resource development and management	1
Project management	1	Project management	4
Diversity management	1	Monitoring and Evaluation	4

Financial management	1	Advance management development programme (AMDP).	3
Environmental law and education	1	Policy formulation and development	1
		Risk management	1
		Advance Excel training	1
Total	16	Total	58

60% (9) respondents stated that the EPWP national workshops assisted them perform their duties.

Question 5: *What skills did you acquire during your participation in the EPWP that will be or (are being) used in a different role / capacity?*

Thirteen (13) respondents mentioned that they had acquired coordination skills. Five (5) respondents stated that they had developed presentation skills. Eleven (11) respondents highlighted that they acquired project management skills and monitoring skills. Eight (8) respondents cited computer skills and report writing skills. Interaction skills and problem solving skills were stated by fifteen (15) respondents. Ten (10) respondents cited M&E skills. Three (3) respondents mentioned stakeholder management. The development of concept documents and skills to identify strategies to improve EPWP performance was highlighted by two (2) respondents. Fourteen (14) respondents mentioned that they had learnt organising skills. One (1) respondent mentioned that they had learnt numerical analysis. Seven (7) respondents acquired data capturing, report and research writing. Five (5) respondents acquired stakeholder engagement and negotiation skills. Six (6) respondents revealed that they acquired development of detailed business plan, project and financial management. One (1) respondent received problem solving and analysis skills, people management and empowerment. One (1) respondent mentioned that he received networking, communication and interpersonal skills.

Question 6: *What were the programme successes?*

It was reflected by two (2) respondents from Gauteng Province that the EPWP had created more than 5 million work opportunities. One (1) respondent further mentioned that “the EPWP had trained more than 1 million participants as social auxiliary workers, and child and youth care workers had exited the EPWP programme and were employed by Gauteng Department of Social Development (DSD) and were receiving permanent salaries of between R6500 - R8000. EPWP participants received social work scholarships and bursaries from DSD. EPWP participants were also

selected for learnerships and internship at DSD. EPWP participants were able to start their own NPOs and cooperatives". The alleviation of poverty and employment creation for the poorest of the poor was highlighted by fourteen (14) respondents. Income provision was stated by seven (7) respondents. Four (4) respondents highlighted the creation of WOs since the inception of the programme; three (3) respondents mentioned the introduction of the Municipal summit helped all departments and municipalities to advocate and promote the programme. Four (4) respondents stated that the training of caregivers was one of the successes in the social sector. One (1) respondent from Mpumalanga province mentioned the national launch of EPWP Phase II in the province, four provincial Kamoso Awards, first provincial municipal summit held in the province, winning awards from the national Kamoso awards as achievements of the programme apart from the impact it had on participants and their families. One (1) respondent from Gauteng Province highlighted that all 12 Municipalities achieved their set target of WOs.

One (1) respondent from North West Province mentioned that work opportunities targets in the phase one and two were achieved and the national goal of job creation was also met. The programme also made a difference in people's lives by providing sustainable income to the poor and unemployed. One (1) respondent from Limpopo highlighted that "most municipalities in Limpopo were able to contribute towards job creation while at the same time delivering on waste management and collection services within their communities. Most municipalities were able to maintain parks, open spaces and cemeteries through the application of EPWP principles. Most municipalities were able to extend waste collection service to un-serviced villages and townships. The ecosystem was restored through the control of alien invasive species within catchments. Degraded environments were restored and land degradation minimised. All 30 municipalities and 8 departments in the province were able to access additional funding in the form of the EPWP incentive grant and that assisted in the delivery of assets and services in line with their function". One (1) respondent from Gauteng cited that various government awards provided to best implementing departments and projects promoted healthy competition within and/or amongst projects and departments.

Question 7: *What were the programme's challenges?*

Nine (9) respondents cited lack of buy-in from the political heads of departments and municipalities. They felt that politicians did not take the programme seriously resulting in minimum participation. Budgetary constraints led to the decrease in appointments

and training of participants. It also led to paying of stipends below the ministerial determination. Two (2) respondents from the social sector mentioned that the allocation of low stipends due to insufficient budget and late budget allocation also affected the programme. One (1) respondent from Gauteng asserted that there was poor planning and lack of understanding in the programme (EPWP). Five (5) respondents from Limpopo, North West and Gauteng Provinces declared that there was misunderstanding on the design of the programme by public bodies.

When the EPWP commenced in 2004 not all institutions reported projects to the EPWP. The introduction of EPWP to NGOs was at first seen as a challenge by four (4) respondents. Currently, most programmes implemented by social sector such as ECD and HCBC are the same as in the NGOs. Three (3) respondents highlighted that there was confusion in the implementation of the EPWP project at first. Under-reporting and non-reporting by some stakeholders were identified as challenges by nine (9) respondents. Five (5) respondents cited lack of data quality management. The lack of incentive grants due to failure to report on expenditure and poor project profiling were revealed by seven (7) respondents. One (1) respondent from Mpumalanga mentioned the lack of EPWP marketing in the province, and skilled human resource for coordination purposes. Eight (8) respondents cited lack of training and nine (9) mentioned insufficient accredited training was provided. Two (2) respondents stated that training courses were too short and had little impact on learners as they were unable to accumulate credits to gain full qualifications. This has contributed to some EPWP participants being recycled within EPWP projects and programmes. One (1) respondent revealed that the staff turn-over by main stakeholders is a challenge. Five (5) respondents disclosed that staff turn-over on municipal EPWP champions' affected progress on the implementation of projects. One (1) respondent highlighted the lack of collaboration between government departments implementing EPWP as a challenge which may lead to waste of resources and duplication of services. Six (6) respondents mentioned that there was lack of an exit strategy for the EPWP participants after the closure of the project. One (1) respondent from the North West Province stated that "political and administrative support from implementing bodies towards EPWP projects still posed a serious challenge. Poor reporting of jobs created and incentive grant expenditure" was also highlighted.

One (1) respondent from Limpopo Province highlighted “late reporting on EPWP and expenditure that relates to EPWP. Un-reliable or unstable system of EPWP reporting resulted in some work opportunities not being reported in some quarters. Un-availability of user friendly IT support at local government level resulted in most of the data getting lost when sent to provincial and/or national data center. Inadequate funding due to reduction of budget by treasury from one financial year to the other resulted in failure to meet phase 2 national targets. A number of audit queries were unresolved due to improper record keeping by EPWP implementing bodies.

Question 8: *What are your recommendations to improve your programme?*

Three (3) respondents recommended that the programme should be included with high rating in the work plans of HOD’s and Municipal managers. Two (2) respondents suggested that political committees on EPWP should be established and chaired by Premiers. Ten (10) respondents asked for sufficient budget in order to cater for required stipends and training. Three (3) respondents recommended that budget should be allocated on time for proper planning and reporting. The EPWP beneficiary training plays a pivotal role in the lives of the participants. Three (3) respondents cited the need for proper coordination of beneficiary training. Strengthening of provincial coordination was elucidated by 6 respondents across all four provinces. Two (2) respondents mentioned proper marketing of EPWP in provinces so as to get sponsors for EPWP awards. One (1) respondent from Mpumalanga recommended increase of EPWP events and activities in the province such as the EPWP Participants Summit. Two (2) respondents suggested the need for proper and clear processes of participants’ recruitment. Four (4) respondents emphasised that they ensure that all job creating stakeholders in the provinces should be involved in EPWP. One (1) respondent registered profiling of all reporting projects. The EPWP projects were reported centrally by the NDPW, thus the effective functioning of the reporting system is crucial. However, Six (6) respondents cited the need for improvement of the EPWP reporting system.

Five (5) respondents recommended the need for an advocacy programme for all Politicians and Heads of Departments. Three (3) respondents advocated that EPWP stipends should start at R2, 500. Two (2) respondents suggested that EPWP beneficiary trainings should be conducted where learners can accumulate credits towards a full qualification such as an information technology certificate or diploma.

Three (3) respondents from Limpopo Province recommended an “increase in the

Incentive grant for provincial and local government. They also proposed provision of technical support across the sectors and not only to one sector. Furthermore, they saw the need to ensure that reliable and stable IT is procured to support the implementation and reporting of EPWP. The respondents also noted the need to use one system for EPWP reporting. The DPW only coordinate the EPWP and the Auditor general should be advised to audit the programme at implementing body level and not at coordination level to ensure accountability of what was reported and also to avoid unnecessary audit queries. The EPWP reporting system should be able to quantify reported services and or assets created". One (1) respondent from the North West Province recommended continued interaction between and support of implementing bodies. Two (2) respondents noted that collaboration between government departments, municipalities, SETAs and the national youth development agency (NYDA) needs to improve when it comes to EPWP training and creation of employment for youths by establishing cooperatives.

Question 9: *What were the services delivered and/or assets created by the programme in your province?*

This question sought to establish whether the EPWP was effective or not. EPWPs are described as every action that involves the imbursement of a wage by the State in return for the provision of labour in order to increase employment and create an asset with the general aim of supporting social security (McCord 2006:88). As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, in PWP's assets are crucial. McCord (2003:97) mentions a disjuncture between the aspiration of a project and the quality, appropriateness and strategic value of the assets created. Mashiri & Mahapa (2002:32) and McCord (2003) emphasised that PWP's assets and infrastructure should be strategically selected in order to realise real value in the assets created. The created assets and services should be recorded and reported. The data received from respondents showed that different assets were created, maintained, and rehabilitated. The social sector provided services such as early childhood development (ECD), home community based care (HCBC), and the national school nutrition programme (NSNP). In the Gauteng province's social sector, the extra school support programme (ESSP) provided homework assistance; sports, arts and culture assistance; safety and security across all none fee paying schools in Gauteng. In the infrastructure sector, the following assets and services were maintained, rehabilitated and delivered: road and paving construction, installation of storm water drainages, water reticulation, construction of houses and schools and maintenance of roads. It has been observed from the respondents that environmental services e.g. cleaner, alien plants clearing,

restoring ecosystem and biodiversity, restoration of wetlands, production of furniture and household bakets, accredited training in chainsaw and woodwork in furniture making, restoration of forestry plantation were rendered under the E&C sector. In Limpopo Province, one (1) respondent responsible for infrastructure, E&C and economic sector mentioned that libraries, schools, taxi ranks, were built and villages electrified and supplied with water. Three (3) respondents from the North West mentioned that cooked meals were provided to vulnerable children.

Two (2) respondents from Mpumalanga Province mentioned that the following services rendered: cleaning of provincial roads, cleaning of municipal cemeteries, tourism security, cleaning of Nelspruit town, construction of roads, bridges, construction of RDP Houses, construction of community halls, clinics, hospitals, recreation areas, cleaning of community structures, that is clinics, halls, municipal offices and paving of township roads. The programme also provided assistance to sick elders and individuals at homes, fed learners in schools, trained the youth, created cooperatives for the youth, maintained government structures, cleaned and mended tourist areas of attraction in the province, ensured learners crossed roads safely, trained participants, provided services such as learnership opportunities, water supply services, working on fire services, and car parking security services through the incentive grant.

One (1) respondent from North West Province highlighted the maintenance of Montshioa Stadium, manufacturing of interlocking paving bricks for road construction in Mafikeng; litter picking, cleaning of parks and maintenance of community facilities, water meter reading and landscaping of the old parliament complex. One (1) respondent from the Gauteng Province cited “the provision of food parcels and cooked meals, psychosocial support to the orphans and other vulnerable children. The province also benefited from HIV & Aids awareness and preventive programmes, and educational assistance that were given to school children in form of help with school homework. Other services such as stationery, printers and computers were provided through the relevant stakeholders.

Question 10: *What do you think was the impact on the EPWP participants in your province?*

❖ **Gauteng Province**

Three (3) of the 4 respondents indicated that their departments had a training programme for participants that s trained students on maintenance of buildings. The contract required the contractor to give accredited training to participants in labour intensive systems and techniques. 1 respondent cited that the programme had expanded in their province and had encouraged EPWP participants to refocus on improving their future career plans. 100% (4) respondents mentioned the personal development of participants who participated in the programme was observed. One (1) respondent from Gauteng Province cited that, “some participants could also be able to afford food for their families and open bank accounts.” One (1) of the 4 respondents indicated that they did not have a training programme in their respective departments due to the following reasons:

- The structuring of the tenders could not enable and support the training of participants by service providers.
- Duration of some projects on average lasted for a period of 6 months. This duration of the project was too short for proper training of skills to take place.
- Lack of capacity within departments.

❖ **Limpopo Province**

Two (2) respondents intimated that the provision of income, skills and training also assisted some participants to enter into the formal economy. The income transferred through EPWP also assisted to redress poverty. Three (3) respondents highlighted that the EPWP participants’ impact was positive because families were taken care of. Two (2) respondents cited that the EPWP participants were able to take their studies further through the learnership programmes.

❖ **North West Province**

100% (3) respondents noted that the programme empowered participants through providing them with skills 33.3% (1) respondent mentioned that; “job opportunities were created for the unemployed and skills were developed received by some participants.”

❖ Mpumalanga Province

The EPWP participants improved their living conditions and their homes. Some were able to pay fees for their kids at schools while others were able to pay for their own clothing and food.

Question 11: *Please share any other comment related to your participation in EPWP*

Three (3) respondents highlighted that the EPWP is a good programme. One (1) respondent cited gaining a lot of skills and exposure through EPWP workshops. They also gained the ability to develop a concept document for any programme that has to be implemented.

One (1) respondent from Limpopo Province stated that “most accounting officers did not have EPWP targets in their work plans or job descriptions and it was high time that government ensured all accounting officers had EPWP targets in their work plan”. The thumb print verification to curb ID and stipend payment fraud was suggested by one (1) respondent from Gauteng Province. He further suggested that NPOs should pay their EPWP participants stipends through the bank to prevent corruption.

One (1) respondent from North West Province said he had “an opportunity to participate in changing the lives of the poor and ordinary people of our country; the programme enabled him to contribute towards job creation and poverty alleviation.” One (1) respondent from Gauteng Province mention that, “this programme is an eye opener to me in terms of how it can change the lives of the individuals and teach management to do things with limited resources”.

5.4 Responses from Implementers

The EPWP is implemented in all three spheres of government namely national, provincial and municipal cross the nine provinces. Whoever implements the EPWP project(s) irrespective of sphere of government is called the Implementer. Implementers are guided by the EPWP guidelines, Code of Good Practice and Ministerial Determination etc as indicated in chapter 3 of the thesis. Implementers have tasks to perform during the implementation of the EPWP projects. The questions and responses below are further elucidated in Annexure 1:

Question 1: *List the tasks that you performed as an Implementer*

Some of the Implementers were also Coordinators within the EPWP; therefore tasks listed under Coordinators could also be conducted by EPWP Implementers. Three (3) respondents listed project identification, registering projects in the EPWP reporting system and appointment of EPWP participants. Six (6) respondents cited appointment of EPWP participants and signing of contracts, project visits, monitoring of daily attendance registers and project capturing. Six (6) respondents mentioned the hiring of participants and signing of contracts. Five (5) respondents listed their tasks as submission of work days to be recorded on the payroll, and ensuring that payroll accommodates COIDA and UIF in wage payments. Two (2) respondents stated attending monthly sector meetings and monitoring of WOs created on projects against set targets. Two (2) respondents listed project identification, project alignment, branding, and monitoring of budget and expenditure.

Question 2: *Types of projects that were implemented?*

Three (3) E&C respondents mentioned waste management, land care, sustainable livelihoods, cemetery maintenance, people and parks and working on water. 4 social sector respondents identified ECD, HCBC, ESSP, NSNP, school safety patrol, HIV counselling and testing, Drop- in centres. Six (6) infrastructure sector respondents' listed road construction and rehabilitation, road maintenance, municipal and provincial infrastructure.

Question 3: *Who were the key Stakeholders that you interacted with and what were their roles in the projects?*

One (1) respondent from Limpopo Province listed Rayane Table Grape, Mamadi nursery, Mokgotho Atchaar factory, Department of Agriculture (DOA) and DPW. Three (3) respondents cited DPW, NDPW, provincial departments and municipalities, community and identified EPWP participants. One (1) respondent from Limpopo Province mentioned Thengwe tribal authority, members of Mufulwi recycling project and members of Mutale rivers, fountains and trees protection project. Three (3) Gauteng Province social respondents specified "school governing bodies which were ensuring implementation in schools, principals assisting in managing the implementation of participants, Department of Labour which had to agree on conditions of services for participants and Training providers". Six (6) respondents from Limpopo, North West, Mpumalanga and Gauteng Provinces revealed that they interacted with national, municipal and provincial officials, and parastatals such as

Independent Development Trust (IDT), Mpumalanga Regional Training Trust (MRTT) and non-profit organisations (NPOs).

Question 4: *What criteria and processes were used for selection of project participants?*

Three (3) respondents mentioned consultation with ward councillors, project owners and traditional leaders. Six (6) respondents across four provinces cited women, youth and people with disabilities with matric, closer to implementing sites and above 18 years of age. Four (4) mentioned that participants must be unemployed and above 16 years of age. Two (2) respondents from Limpopo revealed that they used Sekhukhune indigenous list, consultations with traditional leaders, ward counsellors and project owners. Three (3) respondents from North West highlighted that they advertised locally where the project was going to take place and involved ward counsellors and tribal authorities. Selection priorities focused on unemployed locals, women, youth and people with disability.

Question 5: *As an Implementer, how was your performance measured by your supervisor?*

Four (4) respondents mentioned that they are measured by the number of WOs created and compliant projects reported in the EPWP NDPW reporting system. Three (3) respondents reflected that they were measured by ensuring that the WOs created in their sector were compliant and reported in the EPWP reporting systems. Five (5) respondents stated that they were measured by the number of functional project sites they oversaw and performance on projects, WOs created against set targets, payment of participants and POEs submitted. Four (4) respondents mentioned the number of sites visited and progress on projects. Six (6) revealed that they are measured on the number of compliant projects reported and the monitoring that did on participants' participation. Three (3) stated that they were measured on the performance of their active project sites, site visits and reporting to the NDPW system.

Question 6: *What project indicators did you report to EPWP?*

The EPWP project indicators were discussed in chapter 2 of the thesis. Five (5) respondents cited "UIF and COIDA compliance, PPEs and signage, number of projects, number of EPWP participants, number of youths, women and people with disabilities, project budget and expenditure, wage rate, number of people living with disabilities and project outputs." Three (3) respondents mentioned participants'

personal details and training received, project description and location, budget and expenditure. Five (5) respondents stated participants' work and training received, project output, assets created, project location and description, budget and expenditure.

Question 7: *What were the validation rules that excluded projects and participants?*

One (1) respondent from Limpopo province E&C sector mentioned the following as validation rules that excluded projects and participants: Beneficiary's ID number, beneficiary not compliant with COIDA and UIF, signage on project locations, beneficiary protective clothing. However, these are actually not the validation rules that excluded projects and participants. Six (6) respondents across four provinces mentioned the validation rules as lack of budget, expenditure, work days and participants. Five (5) respondents cited projects without project names and number, projects without budget and expenditure, and project outputs. Three (3) respondents mentioned invalid ID numbers of participants and duplicated projects. Four (4) respondents highlighted that if the expenditure of the project exceeded the budget by more than 20% it would be excluded.

Question 8: *For the reports that were excluded from the final EPWP quarterly report, what were the cited reasons?*

Seven (7) respondents across four provinces revealed that they were all affected by the calculated wages of the project that was more than the expenditure. This was caused by capturing or uploading beneficiary data without updating the expenditure of the project. Five (5) respondents mentioned that their projects were excluded due to expenditure which was not updated that resulted in it being more than the budget. Two (2) respondents highlighted participants who were under 16 years. This was due to the date of birth which was captured and ID not verified. Three (3) respondents mentioned that their budget was lower than the expenditure. This might be due to the fact that the project might have had added funds but the capturers did not update the budget prior capturing the expenditure figures. Two (2) respondents mentioned that their reports were submitted but not captured at the data center. Two (2) respondents cited capturing of wrong funders of the project. Unfortunately, this one did not exclude the project but gave credit to the wrong captured funder. This is important because even incentives are paid to the funder and not the Implementer.

Question 9: *What training did you receive prior to and during your participation in the EPWP that helped you to perform your duties?*

17.6% (3) respondents revealed they had received no training so far. Six (6) respondents cited that induction, people management, computer literacy and coordination had been provided as short courses. The EPWP reporting is centralised and project performance was reported using the Excel spreadsheet from 2004 - 2007 and then moved to the web based system (WBS). Presently EPWP deliverables across spheres and provinces is reported using either the integrated reporting system (IRS) or the management information system (MIS). 58.8% (10) out of seventeen (17) respondents the received web based system (WBS), 88.5% (16) integrated reporting system (IRS) and 82.3% (14) received management information system (MIS) training. Only 5.8% (1) respondent revealed that she was trained on SPSS. The homework assistance course, mentoring and coaching, sports, arts and culture courses were received by 23.5%/4 respondents from the social sector. Human resource development (HRD) and management training was received by three (3) respondents. Two (2) respondents received people management courses and computer literacy during participation in the EPWP. One (1) respondent received general management, advanced projects and programme management, management of business (MBA) prior participation in the EPWP. Four (4) out of seventeen (17) respondents received senior teachers' diplomas (STD) prior participation in the EPWP.

Question 10: *What skills did you acquire during your participation in the EPWP that will be or (are being) used in a different role / capacity?*

Ten out of seventeen (17) respondents mentioned people management and empowerment; programme management; project management; problem solving skills as skills they acquired in the programme. 52.9% respondents cited that the learnt presentation and communication skills. Seven (7) out of 17 respondents stated that they gained analytic and facilitation skills. A psychosocial support skill was reported by 17.6% (3) respondents. 32.5% (6) respondents mentioned that they acquired planning and reporting skills. Five (5) out of seventeen (17) respondents mentioned that they received computer and conflict management skills. Two (2) respondents indicated that they learnt drafting of business plans and project monitoring. Eight (8) respondents elucidated that they were empowered with data capturing and interpersonal skills.

Question 11: *For the projects you implemented that were most successful, what were the main reasons?*

32.5% (6) respondents identified clear roles and active participation of stakeholders, communication, budget availability, appropriate beneficiary training and collaboration of all levels of government as factors that contributed to success of projects. 17.6% (3) respondents cited that participants were motivated to work because officials appreciated and rewarded their performance. Four (4) respondents declared that projects benefited from good interpersonal relationships that promoted team cohesiveness. Five (5) respondents asserted projects also thrived through monitoring and evaluation management support.

Question 12: *For the projects you implemented that were least successful, what were the main reasons?*

29.4% (5) respondents highlighted insufficient participants' trainings as contributing to poor performance of projects. 11.7% (2) respondents mentioned lack of shared vision of managers and implementers and lack of training and induction of participants. 17.6% (3) respondents alluded to shortage of resources and absenteeism. 23.5% (4) respondents highlighted insufficient budget allocation. 11.7% (2) respondents cited unclear roles and responsibilities of stakeholders. 17.6% (3) respondents identified inability to implement programme and projects through an integrated approach. The delay in the implementation of projects and political interference was confirmed by 17.6% (3) respondents. 17.6% (3) respondents cited poor site project monitoring on EPWP projects.

Question 13: *What were the programme challenges?*

88.2% (15) respondents indicated that political interference caused delays in the implementation and completion of projects. All respondents highlighted insufficient funds allocation for the implementation of the EPWP projects and accredited training. The main concern they had was that without accredited training no employer will recognise their skills even though they had practical experience. Eight of the seventeen (17) respondents mentioned low payment of stipends. Poor communication was identified by nine (9) out of seventeen (17) respondents. 29.4% (5) respondents affirmed late payment of stipends as a challenge. 32.5% (6) respondents mentioned delay in the municipal and departmental supply chain processes that lead to projects starting late. Insufficient sports, arts and culture

resources were revealed by 23.5% (4) respondents. Two (2) respondents indicated lack of commitment by some participants as well as lack of buy in by top managers and politicians. One (1) respondent raised the issue of time tabling in schools as a challenge. Three (3) respondents indicated lack of beneficiary trainings which negatively affected the exit strategy. Three (3) respondents admitted that there was a lack of proper coordination on projects.

Question 14: *What are your recommendations to improve your programme?*

23.5% (4) respondents indicated that key interventions that are focused, targeted and relevant can be introduced to improve the EPWP. They also recommended amendment of the current implementation approach. 17.6% (3) respondents cited speeding up of the payroll system registration and supply chain management.

Only five (5) of the seventeen (17) respondents regarded improved and visible monitoring of projects as key to ensure that project managers deal with the current challenges. Additional interventions included the streamlining of supply chain management processes. One (1) respondent recommended partnership with the private sector. Two (2) respondents suggested ample resources for the implementation of the EPWP projects, and managers' shared vision. Three (3) respondents averred that budget allocation should be done and disseminated to capturers on time. 17.6% (3) respondents suggested close monitoring of project sites and beneficiary participation.

Question 15: *What were the services delivered and/or assets created by the programme in your province?*

The three (3) respondents received from Limpopo Province under E&C sector indicated projects such as the growing of 10 hectares for grapes, 8 hectares for mango and mokgotho Atchaar factory, dam cleaning and nursery. Four (4) respondents from the infrastructure sector identified construction of taxi ranks, clinics, schools, storm water drainage and houses. Three (3) respondents cited ECD, HCBC and school feeding scheme projects, HIV and Aids counseling and testing, homework assistance and school safety. Two (2) respondents mentioned construction of municipal and provincial roads. Two (2) respondents mentioned projects in people and parks, alien plants clearing, waste and cemetery management. Four (4) respondents stated renovation and maintenance of buildings. 17.6% (3) respondents singled out paving, road construction and maintenance.

Question 16: *What do you think was the impact on the EPWP participants in your province?*

Five (5) respondents from Limpopo mentioned the minimising of the number of unemployed, more family support and improvement of life style in the province. Six (6) respondents mentioned that employment brings back the dignity of participants. Seven (7) respondents stated that the EPWP provided temporary income for unemployed community members, and there was limited skills transfer and employment experience.

Most notably some participants in the EPWP projects within the Government Department of Education (GDE) under extra school support programme (ESSP) and the Department of Social development (DSD) were absorbed once they had completed their training. This emphasises the importance of training in EPWP projects to ensure that participants exit EPWP projects and gain permanent employment. In simple terms it provides evidence that work opportunities lead to job opportunities. Moreover, the psychosocial benefit .i.e. employment brings back dignity to the participants, correlates with the theoretical findings in this research which indicated that there was psychosocial impact on some of the participants in the EPWP projects of Limpopo and KZN Provinces. Lastly, as indicated in the responses above one of the main objectives of the EPWP was to enable participants to gain employment experience and skills to permanently enter the formal labour market.

Question 17: *Please share any other comments related to your participation in EPWP.*

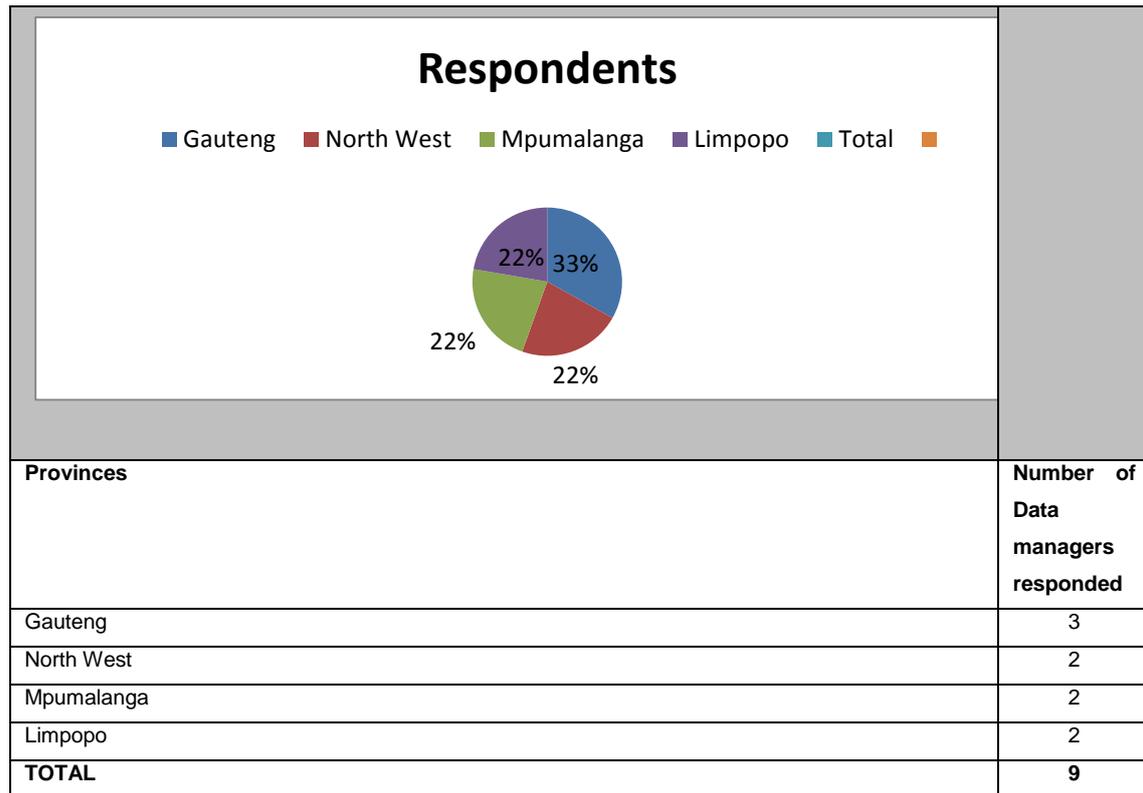
It was highlighted by three (3) respondents that the EPWP made them more involved in community projects. Four (4) respondents cited that their M&E was enhanced. Two (2) respondents commented that the 1 year project duration was too short and should be revised. One (1) respondent mentioned that the EPWP is an eye opener on projects driven through public, private partnership (PPP).

5.5 Responses from Data managers

The EPWP performance data was collected, collated, validated and reported on a monthly basis. Therefore, data management in the process is crucial. Data should be managed from project site, prior capturing, during capturing, after validation, prior and post reporting system cut-off date. To maintain data integrity, management of data should be enhanced.

The collected questionnaire reflected that nine (9) data managers responded. Out of the 9 respondents, three were from Gauteng and the other three provinces were represented by two each. Most provinces managed their data due for reporting centrally. Table 4 below indicates their spread across Gauteng, Mpumalanga, North West and Limpopo Provinces:

Table 4: The spread of respondents across Mpumalanga, North West, Limpopo and Gauteng provinces:



The following were the questions posed and responses received from managers of data as exhibited in Annexure 1:

Question1: *What were your roles / function in EPWP data management?*

Data collection, verification and capturing are very important in EPWP data management and reporting. The success or failure of the EPWP is measured through reported performance. Table 5 below illustrates the roles/functions of data managers in EPWP data management:

Table 5: The roles / functions in EPWP data management

Roles / Functions	Number of respondents
Checking of data on the system to ensure that is correctly captured on a frequent basis	9
Monitor data collection tools and verify collected data	2
Manage and monitor the capturing of EPWP data	8
Site visits and verification	2
Signing-off of all projects reported	3
Interact with public bodies on projects that are reported	7
Assist public bodies to report projects correctly	6
Hold meetings with stakeholders after the release of raw data reports.	5
Identify and consolidate trainees list for EPWP reporting system training.	2
Data manager from E&C sector declared he manages the data centre operations	1
Data manager from non-state sector elucidated on below roles /functions that was performed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Receiving data from Non Profit Organisations (NPOs) and lead agents • Compiling data reports and submit to relevant people • Conduct training for NPO admin staff on the reporting template • Report quarterly on the progress of data management at the national non state sector (NSS) meeting 	1

It is evident from Table 5 above that, nine (9) data managers responded to the questionnaire. Out of nine (9) respondents, eight (8) managed and monitored the capturing of EPWP data. Seven (7) respondents interacted with public bodies on captured data. It was analysed and observed that only two (2) data managers from the nine (9) respondents conducted site visits and verification, monitored data collection tools and verified collected data. Therefore, one has to be concerned as to how the four (4) respondents from the six (6) assisted public bodies to report projects correctly if primary data received was not verified first? Currently, the EPWP primary data is collected for the integrated reporting system (IRS) and the management information system (MIS). Collected data is expected to be verified, monitored and managed prior capturing into the system.

Question 2: *As a Data manager, how was your performance measured by your supervisor?*

One (1) respondent revealed that a Data manager does not have a background of the very system that she is supposed to monitor; therefore she does not have insight and only monitors work opportunities created. One (1) respondent mentioned that his performance was measured when he assisted in capturing data received and supported the reporting tool (system). Two (2) respondents stated that they were

measured based on the number of projects captured. It is clear from the above that Data managers are not measured effectively by their supervisors. None of the respondents specified performance measurement on both quantity and quality.

Question 3: *List the Stakeholders that you were supporting and what was your role on each during the execution of your duties?*

Table 6 below displays the stakeholders that were supported and the roles that each played during the execution of duties:

Table 6: Supported stakeholders and the role of each during the execution of duties

Supported stakeholders	Role on each during the execution of duties
Gauteng Department of Education (GDE)	Provision of data capturing support and coordination
Infrastructure and E&C sector	Provision of data capturing and system support role.
Non state sector and Non-government organisation	Provision of data capturing and system support role.
Community works programme (CWP's), Lead agents and NDPW	Role not specified
Participants	Creation of work opportunities. Creation and provision of stipend
Municipalities in Mpumalanga Province (21) and all Government departments	Role not specified
Community	Role not specified

The table above reveals that there are different stakeholders involved in EPWP but their roles are not clear hence some roles were not specified by respondents.

Question 4: *What training did you receive prior to and during your participation in the EPWP that helped you to perform your duties?*

Data managers are expected to manage the EPWP data outside and in the reporting system(s). Four (4) respondents received bachelor degrees but didn't specify on what exactly. All nine (9) respondents were capacitated on data capturing and data viewing in both EPWP reporting systems that is IRS and MIS. Once data was captured in the EPWP system (s), it was consolidated and validated by the EPWP M&E unit. Prior finalisation and issuing of the EPWP quarterly final report, the Reporting bodies would sign-off their data per province. Out of 9 respondents 55.5% (5) capacitated on data

sign-off.

Question 5: *List the type of data that you reported in the EPWP reporting systems?*

100% (9) respondents indicated the following type of reported EPWP data:

- Beneficiary data> name; surname; ID number; age; gender; age group; number of days worked, number of days attended training; date of birth; amount paid; training attended; type of training/ (Credited / Non-accredited);
- Project data> name of project; project description; location of project; budget and expenditure; source of funds and spheres.

77.7% (7) respondents mentioned community, sector, sphere, programme and subprogramme of the project. 66.6% (6) respondents listed implementing body, funding body, beneficiary and project managers' contact details. From the above received data, it shows that respondents were aware of the type of data to be reported in EPWP projects.

Question 6: *What were the validation rules that excluded projects and participants?*

The validation rules were presented during the EPWP M&E capacity building by the NDPW EPWP Capacity building unit manager (who currently is the researcher). They were also communicated to all EPWP stakeholders by the NDPW EPWP Monitoring unit senior manager. These validation rules can be downloaded from the EPWP training manual in the live and training EPWP reporting system. 77.7% (7) respondents mentioned that projects were excluded if the project data had no budget, expenditure, work days and participants. 66.6% (6) respondents highlighted that if the expenditure of the project exceeded the budget by more than 20%, it would be excluded. 44.4% (4) respondents cited that if calculated wages of the project were more than the expenditure of the project it would be excluded. 77.7% (7) respondents revealed that if there was a duplicate project it would be excluded. During EPWP phase 1 and first part of phase 2, SA identity numbers were not compulsory when reporting beneficiary participation in EPWP projects. Hence, the date of birth was used in the MIS. In the middle of EPWP phase 2 until now, EPWP beneficiary without valid form of identification was excluded. Only 77.7% (7) respondents cited beneficiary without valid identification as ineligible. 88.8% (8) respondents indicated that project data that had no daily wage and projects that exceeded 23 days were also excluded. As alluded to in chapter 2 the current total maximum employment period, as determined by the Ministerial Determination is 23 days. 66.6% (6) mentioned that a beneficiary under sixteen years of age was excluded as this is

perceived as child labour in SA. During capacity building, participants were advised to refer child headed families to the Department of Social development so that grants could be awarded to the older child. The results collected through the questionnaire showed that managers of data had knowledge and insight on what excluded projects and participants from the EPWP reporting. This has been discussed in chapter 2.

Question 7: *For the reports that were excluded from the final EPWP quarterly report, what were the cited reasons?*

The EPWP reporting is guided by the validation rules. These validation rules are embedded in the reporting system(s). Data validation takes place during data capturing. The following are reasons that excluded projects from the final EPWP quarterly report:

- The expenditure is exceeding the budget;
- Project has no budget
- Project has no expenditure
- Incorrectly captured financial year budget
- Calculated wages are more than the expenditure
- Uploaded participants without proper ID numbers.

This reveals that data management should be enhanced in order to minimise exclusion reports and maximise compliant reporting.

Question 8: *What were the sources of the data that you reported on the EPWP reporting system?*

The EPWP projects were implemented across three spheres of government in all four sectors. It is important for Data managers to identify correct sources of data. Data collectors should be informed on where, how and when data should be collected. Here are some sources of data used to report on the EPWP reporting system as articulated by respondents:

- Three (3) respondents mentioned public bodies that were not capacitated in terms of capturing or that lacked facilities to capture.
- Four (4) respondents cited attendance registers and sometimes simplified forms from the CLO's on site.
- Three (3) respondents stated Contractors where possible.
- Two (2) respondents indicated that they received data from the Project manager

and Finance unit

- Six (6) respondents mentioned that they reported from the primary source of data which were the data collection from project sites.
- Three (3) respondents cited that they were allocated data by their supervisors.
- Four (4) respondents mentioned that they received their data from NPOs.
- Four (4) respondents clarified that data was collected from project sites during the EPWP implementation and from sector coordinators and programme managers.

This reveals that data in some projects was scattered for EPWP reporting for example budget and expenditure data was not with the project manager but with the Finance unit etc. Projects are unique, therefore, it is imperative for Data managers and Collectors to plan and identify data collection points, techniques, processes and tools.

Question 9: *What challenges did you face in executing your task?*

Respondents highlighted the following challenges which they faced in executing their tasks:

- The data was not delivered on the expected days for beneficiary bulk uploading
- Late submission of project data
- Incomplete data
- Late response or no response at all in data correction correspondence resulting in some of the projects not being reported or being non-compliant.
- Reporting system not working or too slow.

Question 10: *What recommendations would you propose to improve the data integrity (e.g. collection and capturing etc?)*

The following are the recommendations from respondents to improve the data integrity:

- A new system be developed that would automatically plot the information in the required field automatically for ease of use for the data manager.
- The implementers of EPWP projects and the stakeholders should be contractually obligated on the deliverables.
- Induction on the project aims and objectives of the programme.
- Automated participants attendance to avoid fraud in the actual attendance within the projects.
- The reporting system should be linked to a payment system.
- An effective and consistent working system.

- Capacitating of public bodies and officials about the programme more especially the Data collectors.

Question 11: *Please share any other comment related to your participation in EPWP.*

Respondents highlighted that municipalities and departments should establish sub-directorates that will dedicate all their focus and resources to collating and storing data in their units. The attendance registers and primary source documents were not properly kept within the departments and municipalities. This resulted in the negative audit findings from the Auditor Generals' office. The exit strategy is developed as an integral part of the programme and not as an optional extra.

It was further suggested that the EPWP must be prioritised by the political office bearers deployed within the various spheres of government and as such it must be driven aggressively with the political will that it deserves. Lastly, one (1) respondent recommended capacitation of provincial technical teams in terms of system support in order to effectively and efficiently improve reporting.

Some also suggested that the method of analysis should be driven by both theoretical assumptions and research questions. Research questions are formulated to investigate topics in all their complexity (Bogdan and Knopp 1992:2).

The above responses from Data managers also reflected the following research questions stated in chapter 1:

- *How is the programme reported?*

Respondents mentioned on how the projects in the EPWP are reported including validation. This is also reflected in detail in chapter 2 and 3.

5.6 Research findings

Below summarises the findings from the qualitative research obtained from the respondents of the questionnaire. The objective of the questionnaire is to profoundly expand understanding on how the Government of South Africa addressed the triple challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequality that are facing the economy and challenges encountered. The questionnaire was structured in such a way that it elicits information that would answer three main research questions listed in chapter 1.

The research questions are reaffirmed below for ease reference:

Research Question 1: *How has the Government of South Africa addressed the triple challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequality that are facing the economy?*

Research Question 2: *What are the factors that necessitated the implementation of the EPWP?*

Research Question 3: *What challenges have been encountered by the two phases of the EPWP and how have these challenges been addressed?*

Research Question 4: *To what extent has the EPWP been successful in meeting its set objectives and targets?*

The participants responded in the questionnaire placed as annexure A in this thesis. The responses gathered are analysed and some themes were identified for confab. In order to reconnoiter the research question fully, the researcher instigated by exploring.

In response to Research Question 1: The Government of SA implemented the EPWP as one of the PWP's intervention strategies to alleviate poverty, ameliorate unemployment and equate inequality. Section B6 focuses on the EPWP successes and section C11 expounds on most successful implemented EPWP projects in order to ensure that it achieves a significant reduction in the unemployment, poverty and inequality. This revealed that the Government of SA managed to create assets, WOs and FTEs and services rendered in order to ensure that it achieves a significant reduction in the unemployment, poverty and inequality. It further revealed that the target group was identified demographically to fight against inequality.

In response to Research Question 2: Section B4 focuses on participants and the role and responsibilities of stakeholders in EPWP. EPWP project indicators reported were explored in section B6. The final part of each section (B, C and D) explores the views of the respondents on improvements on the implementation of the EPWP. This has shown that the design elements of the EPWP are not appropriate for making the unemployed more employable and sustainable especially in terms of training, skills, and exit policy. Improvements on the EPWP were recommended by Coordinators, Implementers and Data managers.

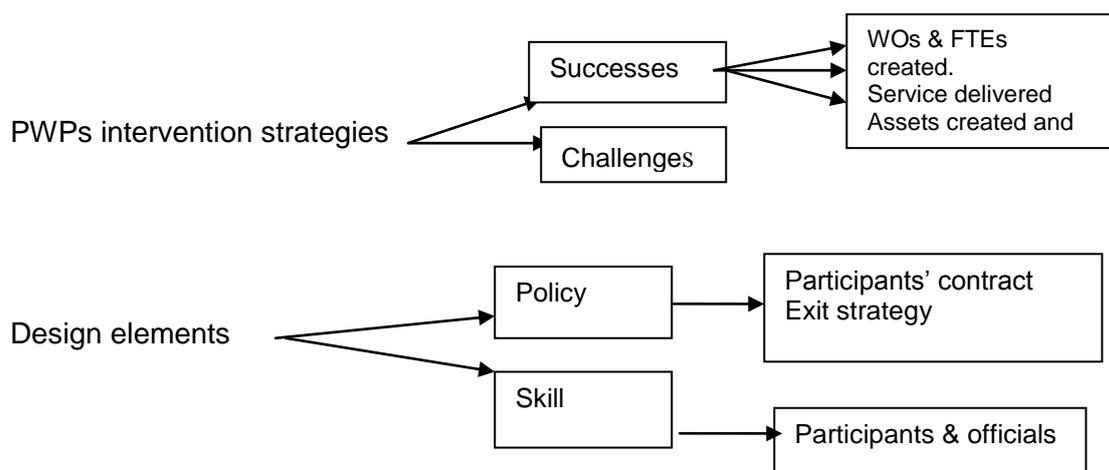
In response to Research Question 3: Section B7 and section C13 elaborated on challenges encountered by Coordinators and Implementers in EPWP; and section D9 dealt with challenges facing data managers in executing their task in the EPWP. Challenges with planning, funds and politics were raised by respondents. On how these challenges will be addressed is tabulated in section B8, C14 and D8. Respondents revealed that there are many challenges in the implementation of the EPWP which are not proper for making the unemployed more employable especially with regard to planning, coordination and data management, funding, monitoring and evaluation, and politics.

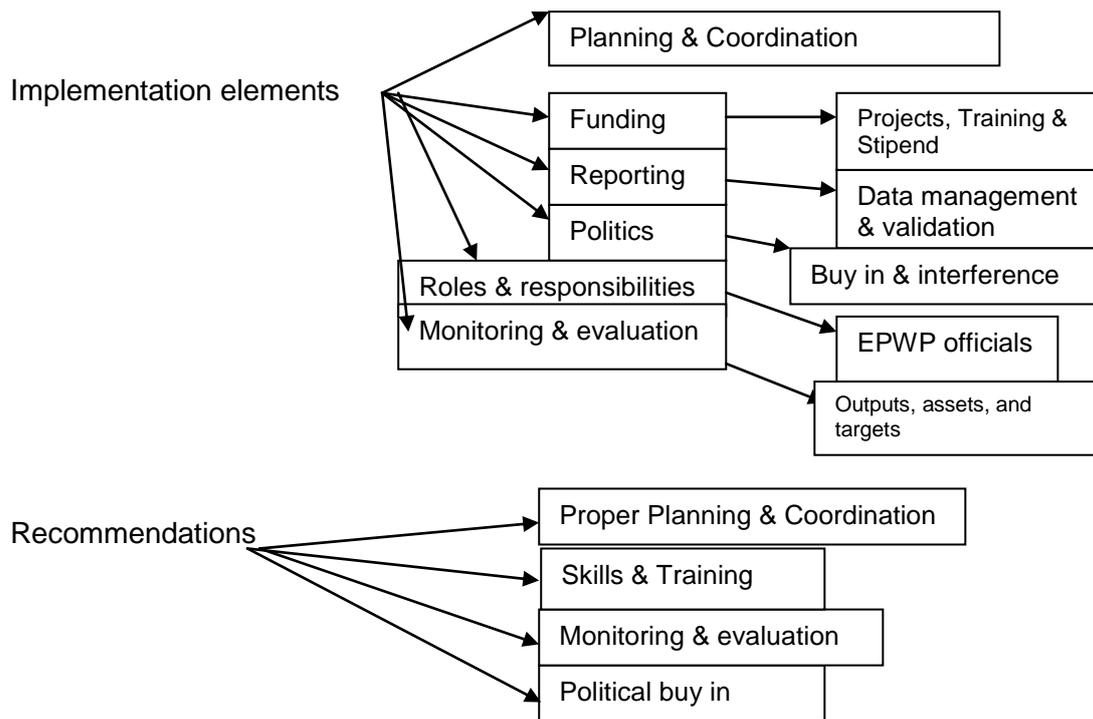
In response to Research Question 4: Section D4 explores on criteria and processes used for the selection of project participants. Section B10, 15 and 16 focuses on skills acquired during the participation in the EPWP, services rendered and assets created, and impacts on EPWP participants in the provinces. Respondents revealed that some targets and objectives of the EPWP were met such as creation of assets and services rendered. Some participants realise their impacts and officials acquired skills during their participation.

5.7 Structure of findings

The structure of this chapter is diagrammatically presented in Table 7. This structure is preferred to ease reading and analysis whilst following the order of research questions.

Table 7: Diagrammatic structure of findings





(Researchers initiative)

5.8 Conclusion

The findings from the research has been presented and discussed above. These findings were informed by responses from the EPWP project Coordinators, Implementers, and Data managers. Most of these respondents were experienced and had knowledge and insight on EPWP projects. Challenges and recommendations were raised across four identified provinces. The diagrammatic structure of findings used has been reflected. Out of the 48 targeted officials, only 7 did not respond and 85.4% (41) participated voluntarily. In this thesis, the EPWP guidelines, Ministerial determination and Code of Good Practice were followed. The international best practices were used in conjunction with the theoretical framework for improvements and innovations. The summary of responses to the research questions is highlighted. The findings will be analysed and compared to the strategy developed in chapter 2 in the literature review. This will be coupled with the recommendations and conclusion tabled in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses the key findings from the literature review, presents qualitative and quantitative analyses and compares and contrasts the results. It further brings together evidence from the questionnaires in order to investigate the implementation of the EPWP. Cross referencing the findings and relating them to previous research conducted will be executed in this chapter. This chapter also summarises the study and draws conclusions based on the research results and the theoretical framework. Despite the best intentions of the EPWP, unemployment and poverty rates in SA remain high. Most importantly, based on the findings from the investigation this chapter also makes recommendations for the effective implementation of the EPWP in SA.

6.2 Summary of the study

This study sought to investigate the implementation of the EPWP and highlight challenges faced in its implementation across provinces. A qualitative/quantitative case study design was followed. This was perfect as questionnaires were used to gather data. 48 officials across 4 provinces were sampled. 41 out of 48 officials responded to the questionnaire.

Without hesitating, the eradication of poverty has been the focal point of government strategies and programmes ever since 1994. The study has shown in chapter 3 that from 2004 – 2014 the set WO targets were achieved. Reviewed literature indicated that the skills transferred during participants' brief period of EPWP employment were not consistent with the skills required in the economy, since the limited period of training in most EPWP employment opportunities prohibited the acquisition of artisanal and other skills in short supply. For these reasons, the employment impact of the EPWP training component is likely to be limited, resulting primarily in substitution rather than significant increases in aggregate employment (McCord *et al.*, 2007:5). Based on the literature reviewed, there is evidence from the international case studies that suggests that PWP can curb unemployment and poverty within a country. It has been stated in chapter 3 that, in some countries, such as India, Vietman, Uganda and Bangladesh, PWPs have been successful. They managed to significantly reduce poverty and ameliorate unemployment.

It was further mentioned that some PWPs have a strong training component that allows participants to gain the relevant skills needed for them to gain permanent

employment. Amongst the key challenges facing EPWP coordinators, implementers and data managers are lack of an exit strategy, inability to meet the 2% disability target, capacity in terms of reporting, dedicated coordination capacity especially in some municipalities, incomplete and late submission of data visa vi data centres receiving data late thus causing some of the data not to be reported at all or captured incompletely. Other challenges include either late responses or no response at all in data correction, reporting systems that do not work or are too slow, public bodies that lack facilities to capture, as well as capturing data incorrectly. The study revealed that the EPWP Training unit did not have a training management information system (TMIS) which can efficiently and effectively manage all the EPWP training processes, from the planning of training, actual implementation and certification of trained EPWP Participants. At the moment the EPWP Integrated Reporting System (IRS) cannot handle all the required processes of the EPWP training unit.

Some of the key challenges raised include lack of political buy-in, lack of a targeted and focused EPWP training programme, low and late payment of wages, lack of monitoring (project site visits) by implementers and DPW officials, non-compliance on some projects, poor project monitoring, insufficient human capacity, lack of exit strategy, lack of data management etc.

Stakeholders' roles and time frame were to be cleared during planning phase. The respondents listed their stakeholders and some didn't mention their roles. It was clear that some of the stakeholder's time frame and roles were unclear. As highlighted in chapter 5 stakeholders' active participation is critical if strategies are to be effective.

6.3 Recommendations

The recommendations presented below are based on discussions and key findings with regard to the following:

- Results from the data gathered from the respondents;
- Challenges facing implementing bodies and reporting bodies in the implementation of the EPWP;
- Experiences of the coordinators, implementers and data managers in implementing the EPWP;
- Positive elements raised by EPWP coordinators, implementers and data managers;
- Theory on experiences in the implementation of PWPs internationally and on the African continent.

6.3.1 EPWP Coordination

6.3.1.1 Political buy-in

The EPWP is a politically driven programme hence political buy-in is necessary in order to improve efficiency. The study revealed that there is lack of political buy-in from heads of departments and municipalities in the EPWP. It is reflected that some politicians did not take the programme seriously which resulted in minimum participation. The political leadership should only intervene when issues raised are beyond the capacity of the EPWP division such as when there is a need to introduce adjustment to the EPWP policy or guidelines, or when there is need to deal with departments that do not cooperate. With regards to governance, corruption and accountability, responses revealed that there are major challenges at the local level where actual implementation is carried out.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- The EPWP should be prioritised by political office bearers deployed within the various spheres of government and must be driven aggressively with the political will that it deserves.
- The EPWP unit should be established in each department or municipality and elevated to report directly to the head of the institution
- There should be no political interference on administrative issues.
- The EPWP should be a standing item in all departments and municipal EXCO meetings.
- EPWP Coordinators should be capacitated on EPWP policy, guidelines and implementation strategies.

6.3.1.2 Management, coordination and administration

The study disclosed that the EPWP is managed by the Deputy Director General (DDG). The infrastructure sector is managed, coordinated and administered by the DPW. The social sector is managed, coordinated and administered by the DSD. The environment and culture sector is managed, coordinated and administered by the DEA. The non-state sector is managed, coordinated and administered by the IDT. EPWP is a national programme but it is implemented by provinces and municipalities. Therefore, the EPWP is dependent on the capacity of government and municipal institutions to manage and implement programmes and subprogrammes. McCord (2003) reflected that the employment creation performance of PWP in SA has been

limited due to lack of project management capacity in both public and private sectors. Respondents revealed that there were structures in place to manage, coordinate and administer across provinces and in all sectors. However, the ability to implement was directly affected by /human resource constraints especially in municipalities. As discussed in chapter 3, the EPWP creates WOs within the framework of provincial infrastructural grants (PIGs) and municipal infrastructural grants (MIGs). Benchmarking and information sharing sessions are minimal. The conditions placed on the PIGs and MIGs via the 2004 division of revenue act (DORA) require that provinces and municipalities execute public works using labour intensive methods in accordance with the guidelines produced by the DPW and approved by the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and Treasury.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- Government should establish a stand-alone EPWP division in each department and municipality tasked with coordinating the implementation of the EPWP but supported by national coordinators.
- The EPWP champions should be appointed and capacitated on roles and responsibilities across all departments and municipalities.
- They should beef-up current coordination units with clear roles and responsibilities for proper coordination in the EPWP.
- Government should ensure the functioning of the EPWP steering committees across four sectors
- The NDPW should make efforts to improve the monitoring processes by adhering to monthly *in loco* visits of EPWP projects.
- The Department should establish an effective forum in which departments raise their concerns and sharing of best practises.
- The Department should create awareness on the role each stakeholder plays in the value chain including the service provider, training provider and EPWP consultant.
- The NDPW should encourage departments implementing the EPWP to be innovative on how they can increase their targets within the limits of the EPWP policy framework.

6.3.2 EPWP Implementation

6.3.2.1 EPWP project design

McCord (2003) reflected that the employment creation performance of PWP in SA has been limited due to institutional constraints relating to programme conceptualisation and design. The study revealed that there is misunderstanding on the design of labour intensive projects and programmes which lead to poor planning by EPWP implementers. Most EPWP projects are implemented by departments or within municipal demarcations therefore their pro activeness will be highly appreciated. All reported projects should be EPWP compliant. Municipalities are guided by the Local Government legislation: the Municipal Systems Act (MSA) and Municipal Financial Management Act (MFMA) which emphasise efficient, effective and cost economic operations in municipalities including integrated development plans (IDPs). The NDPW has appointed officials and service providers as technical support for the infrastructure sector in EPWP who are supposed to be involved in planning processes. The other sectors do not have external technical support teams. The study further reflected on the lack of understanding of the EPWP mandate by key stakeholders resulting in expectations that are not in line with EPWP deliverables. It also revealed that some respondents mentioned high targets set and not achieved. The study further revealed that coordinators and implementers are guided by the EPWP policy objectives and other relevant documents such as infrastructure technical guideline and social sector operational guidelines, EPWP logical framework, Ministerial Determination except for the EPWP policy itself which is outstanding. The policy will close the gap in enhancing standardisation.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- The EPWP policy document should be developed
- Responsible departments should continuously market and communicate EPWP goals and objectives.
- The department should review the appointment of technical support across spheres and in all four sectors.
- Departmental officials should be trained to coach and guide EPWP technically for effective use of resources and adequate implementation of the labour intensive strategy
- The department should clarify and monitor technical support roles and responsibilities
- Responsible stakeholders should provide consultation and technical support from

- the planning phase such as the IDP process in municipalities etc
- Departments should set realistic targets and offer better support
 - Tenders should stipulate the rules of EPWP that include the EPWP compliance or element as part of the specifications in the tendering process. This will guide contractors or service providers on the envisaged expectations with regard to ensuring that the EPWP objectives are met during the preparation and implementation of awarded projects.

6.3.2.2 Insufficient project funds

In the NDPW Strategic Plan document (2012 – 2016) it was mentioned that the EPWP is operating on a budget of R257 million and an increase of more than 40% in that current baseline allocation is required to ensure the optimal creation of WOs and to increase the number of WOs created by DPW (NDPW,2012 - 2016). As per the discussion in chapter 3, the NDPW does not have a separate fund for EPWP projects. The emphasis of the EPWP is to expand the use of labour-intensive methods in government funded service delivery projects to generate employment. Most government departments supported the EPWP by allocating funds to public works projects, thus making a major contribution towards alleviating poverty and unemployment in the country s. McCord (2003) intimated that the employment creation performance of PWP in SA has been limited due to the scale of budgetary allocations which is less than one percent of the annual social security and welfare budget. The study has shown that there are insufficient funds to carry out EPWP's full mandate, especially in the social and non-state sector. It has also been reflected that there is a budgetary constraint which leads to the decrease in the number participants appointed and trained and payment of stipend below the ministerial determination especially in the social sector. From the literature review, the international best practices show that the wage rate paid should be set at a sufficiently low rate to ensure self-targeting the poor. This is to reduce the chances of the less poor participating in the PWP and thus providing wider coverage for the most vulnerable groups. The EPWP Guidelines adhere to this practice of paying the minimum wage rate which is currently set at R75.10 per day.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- Government should provide additional funding for fiscal incentives in all sectors to further accelerate job creation.
- Incentive grants should be performance based.

- Encourage public private partnership (PPP) where more funds can be sourced.
- Project budgets should be allocated and disseminated on time to project managers and capturers.
- All EPWP implementers across sectors should adhere to the Ministerial determination when paying daily wage rates to participants.
- The Ministers of NDPW and DoL should review the minimum daily wage versus cost of living as it might not be sustainable taking into consideration beneficiary transport costs where projects are not within a walking distance, meals for the EPWP participants, food for children or families, human and social capital needs, payment of essential services such as school fees, municipal bills etc.
- The national funds allocated by Treasury for incentive grants should be reviewed with a view to increase it annually and not vice versa.

6.3.2.3 EPWP Beneficiary training and exit strategies

SA is in a skills revolution. In chapter 3, it was highlighted that in the absence of beneficiary training in most projects; there will be no exit strategy. Consequently, most participating participants will revert to poverty and unemployment after the completion of projects. According to the EPWP Guidelines, one of the objectives of beneficiary training is to help identify possible career paths available to workers who exit the PWP project. In EPWP phase 1, training was compulsory but in phase 2 it was no longer compulsory as no budget was allocated for it. Reviewed literature indicates that the skills transfer during participants' brief period of EPWP employment was not consistent with the skills required in the economy. The researcher concurs with respondents that non-accredited training will not assist EPWP participants when searching for exit opportunities. The NDPW is managing beneficiary training funded by the National Skills Fund (NSF). The international best practices state that exit strategies are crucial to the success of any PWP. Most importantly, the project implementers should create exit opportunities for EPWP participants exiting the programme. This would allow EPWP participants to effectively become more employable and self-reliant once they exit the programme. It has been revealed in the study that there is lack of exit strategy which leads to some participants recycling in the EPWP projects.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- More funding should be sourced so that adequate training can be provided to EPWP participants

- EPWP participants should be provided with specialised skills that are aligned with the demands in the labour market to enhance their employability
- Project implementers or funders should plan and link the training offered to participants within the EPWP projects with current or future work or job opportunities that are planned to be created.
- A memorandum of understanding (MoU) and or memorandum of agreement (MoA) can be entered into with external (PPP) companies requiring individuals who have received training in fields such as working on fire, alien plant clearing, paving, plumbing, pipe fitting, bricklaying and other general industry specialities. This will ensure that participants exiting the EPWP projects are at least connected to medium to long-term jobs which will enable them to earn an income, and accumulate assets which are important in the fight against poverty.
- Sectors should develop an exit strategy as an integral part of the programme and not as an optional extra.

6.3.2.4 Payment of participants

The study revealed that some participants received stipends that were too low due to insufficient budget. It further showed that participants were paid late due to municipal and departmental supply chain processes. It has also been found that some participants were paid through the Persal System.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- The municipal and departmental supply chain processes should be reviewed.
- More funds should be sourced internally and externally in order to meet the minimum payment requirements as stipulated in the Ministerial determination.
- Payment of participants' stipend should be within 30 days.

6.3.2.5 Lack of sustainability in EPWP projects

One of the key findings that were raised by respondents in this study was the lack of sustainability of EPWP projects. Literature indicates that by design EPWP projects are meant to temporarily relieve poverty and unemployment. McCord (2004:61) indicates that the short term nature of the EPWP does not permit the accumulation of surplus for investment in income earning activity. In general, impacts were less significant across provinces and were not expected to be sustainable. In Uganda, government encouraged the use of public resources, and private sector development

in order to stir the Economic Recovery Programme (ERP). The Bank for the Poor, now renamed the Bank for Social Policies was established in 1995 to encourage the economic development of the poor. In 1993, the Ministry of Labour Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) promulgated the national poverty line to guide the identification process of poor households, who were targets of poverty reduction policies and projects (Vu, 2005).

Indonesia's PWP project such as Padat Karya is a clear example of the above mentioned approach. The Padat Karya's intention was to temporarily increase aggregate employment while providing a basic income for consumption smoothing during the period of labour market disruption. These programmes also tended to offer basic 'risk coping' or 'protective' social protection.

The National Targeted Program for Hunger Eradication and Poverty Reduction for the period 1998 - 2000 were approved in July 1998. A job creation component was included during the period 2001 - 2005 and was named the National Targeted Program for Hunger Eradication, Poverty Reduction and Job Creation (HEPR in short, or Programme 143). Another programme, the Programme for Socio-Economic Development in Communes faced with Extreme Difficulties (PDCED, also known as Programme 135), which (like China) focused on poverty reduction in the poorest regions, was also promulgated in 1998 (Vu, 2005).

The criticism of the EPWP's lack of sustainability is justified, although that's the nature. It is understandable that the EPWP project affect participants' ability to have long term plans as their income is (contractual) short term. This also affects their ability to accumulate assets and to make investments. Literature and cases in chapter 3 further indicated that poverty is mainly concentrated in rural areas that have poor infrastructure and poor agricultural land etc. White and Killick (2001) suggested double-blessed policies, i.e. policies that promote both economic growth and a more broad-based distribution of benefits. These are comprehensive policies which are aimed at:

- Augmenting the poor people's assets and poverty reduction.
- Providing access to markets for the poor.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- There is a need to allocate infrastructural, environmental and cultural projects in rural areas. This has been practiced in Vietnam, China and Uganda.
- Government should consider implementing double-blessed policies. These are policies which promote both economic growth and a more broad-based distribution of benefits aiming to alleviate poverty, augment the assets of the poor, and providing them with access to the markets.
- More focus should be put on the development of poor people's possession of (or access to) assets.

6.3.2.6 Project Start date

All projects should be planned and approved on time prior implementation. This will avoid unauthorised expenditures as per the Public Financial Management Act (PFMA) and Municipal Financial management Act (MFMA). All stakeholders must be involved during project planning as highlighted in chapter 4.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- Project owners should plan, allocate budget and approve projects on time to avoid delaying the start date of projects.
- The technical support team should advice municipalities accordingly during their IDPs.
- The municipal and departmental supply chain processes should be reviewed.

6.3.2.7 Persons with disabilities

The study indicated that the target for 2% people with disabilities was not met.

Recommendations

It is recommended that institutions should be encouraged to be innovative to find ways of actively involving people with disabilities in EPWP projects.

6.4 EPWP data management

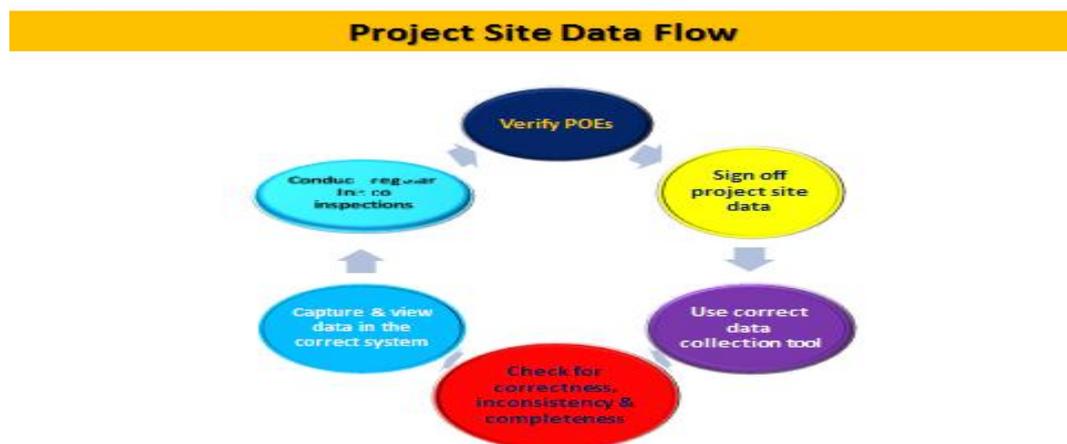
Data management is very crucial in EPWP to avoid excluded projects that will increase non-compliant reports. The NDPW EPWP M&E developed the EPWP data management process which provides clarity on the roles and responsibilities of

stakeholders towards the finalisation of the EPWP quarterly reports. The EPWP reporting is centralised in the NDPW M&E unit. Currently, system support and help desk are also centralised. The following has been highlighted by respondents as key challenges: lack of data quality management, some of the EPWP trained participants are not reported, lack of municipalities and departments sub-directorates that will dedicate all their focus and resources on collating and storing data in their units, lack of provincial system support, implementing bodies do not keep attendance registers and source documents properly. This results in negative audit findings from the Auditor Generals' office.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- The municipalities and departments should establish sub-directorates that will dedicate all their focus and resources in collating and storing of data in their units.
- The Provincial Coordinators office should disseminate the EPWP M&E data management process to all stakeholders.
- Provincial data management should be enhanced from data collection, prior, during and after capturing data onto the reporting system. This will minimise non-compliant reporting and all trained EPWP participants will be reported.
- The data managers together with project implementers should establish and monitor adherence to the project site data flow:



(Researcher's initiative)

- Implementers should develop a template that is used for project verification purposes which is populated every time during *in loco* inspections. The data on the template should reflect portfolio of evidence (POEs) verification (beneficiary attendance and payment registers) and as to whether the project is running or not.
- Implementers should develop monthly data sign-off template from the project site

that include the following:

- ✓ How many people worked/trained?
- ✓ How many days worked/trained?
- ✓ How much are they being paid?
- ✓ Are they still paying them same stipend?
- ✓ What is the overall project budget?
- ✓ What is the current expenditure?
- Development of proper project and beneficiary record keeping that include attendance registers, payment certificates and certified ID copies.
- Project managers and Provincial Coordinators should verify validity of EPWP beneficiary ID numbers using the Department of Home Affairs (DoHA) website or any form of verification on whether the captured ID number does not belong to a deceased person or “ghost” participant. This will also minimise Auditor General (AG) queries.

6.5 Monitoring and evaluation of EPWP projects

The DPW is the overall EPWP coordinating department responsible for monitoring and evaluation; of progress reports to Cabinet; promoting linkages across spheres and sectors; planning exit strategies and training frameworks. This research revealed that there are insufficient human resources which effects project monitoring especially in municipalities. Proper monitoring and evaluation of EPWP projects especially at site level is essential.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- Appointment of EPWP champions, project managers and beefing up of provincial M&E teams will improve their monitoring processes by adhering to the monthly *in/oco* inspections of EPWP projects.
- Provincial M&E team to meet with EPWP participants once in three months and provide portfolio of evidence such as attendance registers and minutes. This will promote two-way communication and transparency on EPWP issues.

6.6 EPWP reporting system

All EPWP reporting system users are identified by provincial coordinators to be capacitated on reporting systems. Both IRS and MIS are in use for capturing the EPWP reporting data. Challenges on both systems identified in this study are

instability and slowness. It was also recommended that help desk and system support should be decentralised. This study further highlighted that the EPWP Training unit is unable to manage all the EPWP training processes and should be used as a day-to-day operational management system to ensure quality training with main focus on the 3 various EPWP training programmes which are Artisan Development programmes, Skills programmes and Learnerships.

Recommendations

It is recommended that;

- Provincial Coordinators should make sure that within their province, DPW IT officials are also capacitated on EPWP reporting systems for system support.
- A new or upgraded system with more effective and consistent validations should be developed by responsible service providers.
- The EPWP reporting system should be linked to beneficiary payment systems to avoid corruption.
- The EPWP Training unit needs a fully functional training management information system (TMIS) which will manage all the EPWP training processes and can be used as a day to day operational management system to ensure quality training with main focus on the 3 various EPWP training programmes i.e. Artisan Development Programmes, Skills Programmes and Learnerships as per the National Skills Development Strategy (NSDSIII) prescripts; and fully aligned to the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), Sector Education Training Authorities (SETA's) and the Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO) principles. This will also assist the unit to effectively and efficiently manage the reporting of trained EPWP participants.

6.7 Conclusion

Institutions should be encouraged to channel their goods and services budget to the creation of EPWP WOs. Evidence from these cases suggests that a potentially successful poverty reduction strategy should encompass the following three complementary elements:

- Creation of economic opportunities for the poor
- Good governance, i.e. sound macro-economic management that engenders macro-economic stability
- Social programmes (i.e. social safety nets) that are targeted at the poor

The lesson learnt is therefore clear that countries should pursue policies that foster a

macroeconomic environment which is conducive to attaining rapid, pro-poor and sustainable economic growth. In all cases discussed in this study, consistency with regard to poverty reduction strategies is apparent. Post 1994, much has been done on the PWPs in SA and as Mirjam van Donk, Director of Isanda Institute confirmed, chronic systematic poverty is clearly a reality for many South Africans today. As highlighted on this thesis South Africa is a developmental State, therefore, rapid and sustainable economic growth is the most powerful weapon which plays a momentous role for reducing poverty and improving the quality of life in developing countries. The recommendations above will augment the implementation of EPWP and speed up poverty alleviation, equity and unemployment reduction in SA.

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Annexure A: Questionnaire

167 Hoffman Road
Danville xt 5
DANVILLE
0183

Dear Prospective participant,

I, Evelyn Nomvula Mapule Mkhathshwa-Ngwenya am conducting research under the supervision of Dr P Khumalo, a Senior Lecturer and co-supervision of Professor EJ Nealer in the Department of Public Administration and Management, towards a DPA degree at the University of South Africa (UNISA). I am cordially inviting you to participate in a study “The implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in South Africa (2004-2014).”The purpose of the study is solely for my study.

By completing this survey, you agree that the information you provide may be used for research purposes. You have been selected to participate in this survey because you were an Implementer or Coordinator and or Data Manager during the implementation of EPWP in between 2004 - 2014. You are, however, under no obligation to complete the survey and can withdraw from the study at any time prior to submitting the survey. Also note that the survey is developed to be anonymous and we as researcher(s) will have no way of connecting the information you provide to you personally. You will not be able to withdraw from the study once you have clicked the send button based on the anonymous nature of the survey. If you choose to participate in this survey it will take up no more than 30 minutes of your time. We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences by completing this questionnaire. The researcher undertake to keep any individual information provided herein confidential, not to let it out of our possession, and to analyse the feedback received only on group level. The records will be kept for three years for publication purposes where after it will be permanently destroyed (hard copies will be shredded and electronic versions will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer). It is hoped that the information we gain from this survey will help us in describing on how EPWP was implemented, reported, improve service delivery in South Africa and recommend improvements from challenges encountered inorder to realise more work opportunities (WOs), Full time equivalents (FTEs) that will lead to job opportunities or proper exit out of the EPWP. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey. Should you require any further information, want feedback on the study or need to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact Mapule Mkhathshwa-Ngwenya (researcher) at 082 4789961 or 087 3572225; mapule.ngwenya@dpw.gov.za / lamkhatshwa@gmail.com and at 086 5389961 (fax). All your answers will be strictly confidential. May I continue? **Fill in the correct answer using an X where applicable. If no, close the questionnaire and send it back.**

Yes		No	
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Date:

SECTION A: INTRODUCTION AND SCREENING QUESTIONS

NB: Fill in the correct answer using an X where applicable

1. Have you ever heard of the expanded public works programme or EPWP? If your answer is no, do not proceed.

Yes		No	
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2. Were you involved in the implementation or coordination of the EPWP in between 2004 – 2014 March? If your answer is no, do not proceed.

Yes		No	
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3. In which province(s) were you based?

4. What is the name of the institution you were working for? _____

5. When answering the following question, take into consideration of both phases 1 & 2 (2004-2014).

NB: Others were involved in more than one roles and sectors. Below consist of different roles. Specify role(s) under the second column and sector(s) appropriately using an X and thereafter proceed to the relevant section(s).

What was your role (s)?	Specify by using an X next to the correct role	EPWP Sectors (use an X where applicable)						Answer questions under relevant section(s)
		Social sector	Infrastructure sector	Environment & culture sector	Economic sector	Non State sector	All	
	Role(s)							Section(s)
Coordinator								B
Implementer								C
Data Manager								D

6. What is your gender?

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Male		Female	
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7. What is your age range?

Age ranges	Use an X where applicable
16 - 24	
25 - 35	
36 - 45	
46 - 60	
Over 60	

8. What is your highest level of education?

Education Level	Use an X where applicable
Some high school	
Matric	
Diploma	
University degree	
Other (Specify)	

SECTION B: EPWP COORDINATION

Below questions are to be answered by a Coordinator:

1. List the tasks that you performed as a Coordinator (separate by comas)

2. Who were the key Stakeholders that you interacted with? (Separate by comas)

3. As a Coordinator, how was your performance measured by your supervisor?

4. What training did you receive prior to and during your participation in the EPWP that helped you to perform your duties?

5. What skills did you acquire during your participation in the EPWP that will be or (are being) used in a different role / capacity?

6. What were the programme successes?

7. What were the programme challenges?

8. What are your recommendations to improve your programme?

9. What were the services delivered and/or assets created by the programme in your province?

10. What do you think was the impact on the EPWP participants in your province?

11. Please share any other comment related to your participation in EPWP.

SECTION C: EPWP PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Below questions are to be answered by an Implementer:

1. List the tasks that you performed as an Implementer (separate by comas)

2. List the types of projects that you implemented (separate by comas)

3. Who were the key Stakeholders that you interacted with and what were their roles in the projects? (Separate by comas)

4. What criteria and processes were used for selection of project beneficiaries?

5. As an Implementer, how was your performance measured by your supervisor?

6. What project indicators did you report to EPWP?

7. What were the validation rules that excluded projects and beneficiaries?

8. For the reports that were excluded from the final EPWP quarterly report, what were the cited reasons?

9. What training did you receive prior to and during your participation in the EPWP that helped you to perform your duties?

10. What skills did you acquire during your participation in the EPWP that will be or (are being) used in a different role / capacity?

11. For the projects you implemented that were most successful, what were the main reasons?

12. For the projects you implemented that were least successful, what were the main reasons?

13. What were the programme challenges?

14. What are your recommendations to improve your programme?

15. What were the services delivered and/or assets created by the programme in your province?

16. What do you think was the impact on the EPWP participants in your province?

17. Please share any other comment related to your participation in EPWP.

SECTION D: DATA MANAGERS

1. What were your role/ function in EPWP data management?

2. As a Data manager, how was your performance measured by your supervisor?

3. List the Stakeholders that you were supporting and what was your role on each during the execution of your duties? (You can separate by comas)

4. What training did you receive prior to and during your participation in the EPWP that helped you to perform your duties?

5. List the type of data that you reported in the EPWP reporting systems?

6. What were the validation rules that excluded projects and beneficiaries?

7. For the reports that were excluded from the final EPWP quarterly report, what were the cited reasons?

8. What were the sources of the data that you reported on the EPWP reporting system?

9. What challenges did you faced in executing your task?

10. What recommendations would you propose to improve the data integrity (e.g. collection and capturing etc?)

11. Please share any other comment related to your participation in EPWP.

Thank you for your Time and Effort!