COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AS A STRATEGY TO ALLEVIATE POVERTY

BY

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DATE SUBMITTED 2015
DECLARATION

I, Liobah Helen Sholiphi Maphumulo, declare that the dissertation for the degree of Master of Arts in Community Development at the University of Zululand has never been submitted by me for the degree at this or any other university. All material contained herein has been duly acknowledged by means of reference.

Liobah Helen Sholiphi Maphumulo

Signature : ____________________________

Date : ____________________________
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to all the Nardini sisters, especially those in the Nkandla Convent and to Sizanani Outreach Programme, for their contribution in community development in the community of Nkandla and for their support in many ways.
I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to the following people for their unforgettable assistance and contributions:

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- Prof N.H. Ntombela, my supervisor at the Department of Social Work.
- Prof. T.A.P. Gumbi, the former Head of the Department of Social Work.
- Mrs Ndlovu for being my co-supervisor since 2012.
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Abstract

This study paper examined community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty in Nkandla by examining the community development programmes in place and their effectiveness in alleviating poverty.

According to the 1996 population census, some 135 000 people live in the Nkandla District. Out of these, 57% are females and 61% of households are headed by women. Over 14% of the population is under the age of five, and 46% of the population is aged 14 years and under. An evaluative study was undertaken to research the effectiveness (which is the outcome, importance, meaning and efficiency), the relationship between the “input” and “output”, and the two considerations being utilised in poverty alleviation programmes, as part of community development strategy to alleviate poverty in the area.

According to the Millennium Goals Report (2005:6), overcoming poverty and hunger is possible because the causes of poverty have been analyzed intensively by the World Bank and by other organisations but poverty still persists. The poverty programmes to determine the nature and the extent of poverty in Nkandla, the copying mechanisms of the locals, the eradication processes which are implemented, and the level of participation by community members, the effectiveness of community poverty in Nkandla were all evaluated in this study.

The sample for this research consisted of 50 respondents who were either direct or indirect beneficiaries of community development programmes in the Nkandla Municipality. Data were gathered via face to face interviews and the semi-structured questionnaires were administered to respondents.
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CHAPTER ONE

1. Orientation to the study

1.1. Introduction
South Africa is a nation with a variety of classes where rich and poor reside side by side. It is a place that has rich cultural diversity, an enviable climate with an abundance of natural resources. However, despite its resource endowment, economic disparities and a highly imbalanced income distribution still prevail. The majority of people who live in rural areas are poor. There have been several attempts to give a crude estimate of the extent of poverty in South Africa which have yielded results that are at variance with each other. Available estimates with regard to the prevalence of poverty in South Africa range from 45% to 57%, depending on the poverty line that has been used (StatsSA, 2000; UNDP, 2003; May, 2000; Woolard & Leibbrandt, 2001; Taylor Committee, 2002; HSRC & Whiteford, 2004) as cited in (Mbuli, 2008: 16).

The literature on poverty is vast and cannot be covered in its entirety in any study. For instance, HIV/AIDS has changed the dynamics within the household and the community at large and there are many inferences that could be made about the impact of HIV/Aids which are also central to the developmental challenges in the country. Although fully aware of its possible impact, this thesis does not elaborate on the impact of HIV/AIDS in the community or on the children left destitute owing to the death of parents (UNAIDS, 2004).

This thesis takes a positive analysis that evaluates what government has already been doing in terms of enacting anti-poverty policy in making use of community development strategy to alleviate poverty, particularly at Nkandla. The African National Congress (1994:5) in (Mbuli, 2008:1) maintains that political democracy cannot flourish if the majority remain in poverty, without land, without their basic needs being met and without tangible prospects for a better life. Attacking poverty and deprivation was, therefore, be first priority of the democratic Government.
1.2. Statement of the problem

In 2003, South Africa’s gross domestic product (GDP) was equivalent to nearly one-third of sub-Saharan African GDP on a purchasing power parity (PPP) basis, and to 38% of sub-Saharan African nominal GDP at market exchange rates (Arora & Vamvakidis, 2005: (Mbuli, 2008: 21). These findings indicate a slow growth in South African economy; it could also be attributed to the fact that lesser people are actively involved in the labour market whilst more remains in the poverty stricken communities.

Therefore South African government has an obligation to ensure that programmes to alleviate poverty are implemented in a sustainable manner. Although government has introduced several policies to mitigate the effect of poverty such as Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) and a community development strategy, but poverty persists (Taylor and Francis, 2006). Consequently poverty is increasing becoming a normal reality and poor implementation strategies of poverty alleviation is a crisis for the government, especially in the absence of poverty alleviation guidelines.

Given the abovementioned situation, community development strategies employed by the current government to alleviate poverty were reviewed with specific reference to poverty alleviation at Nkandla. Based on the findings of the foregoing exercise, this study outlines the things to be done in order to correct the inherited socio-economic vestiges of the system of racial exclusivity at the desired rate thereby alleviating poverty with the aim of eradicating it completely.

1.3. Motivation for the study

The researcher has been employed by the Social Work Services of the Department of Health since the year 2000 and was appointed by the Nkandla District Hospital to represent the institution in local community matters affecting community development and poverty alleviation programmes. Since her appointment, the researcher has been working in partnership with other government departments and non-governmental
organisations, community members, Nkandla Municipality personnel, traditional leaders and other community leaders. These collaborative efforts have made the researcher aware that “poverty is the single greatest burden of South Africans, and may be attributed to many factors. Poverty continues to affect thousands of people, the majority of whom live in the rural areas, like Nkandla” (African National Congress, 1994: 14), as it is characterised by features of under development, typified by illiteracy, unskilled practices and poverty.

The researcher’s field of practice and study is directly applicable to the work she is currently engaged in. The child, family and community, together with various stakeholders and governments, specifically the local government, face the challenge of implementing and integrating community development with poverty alleviation programmes in the Nkandla community. Many discussions, meetings and workshops with various disciplines and government departments have helped the researcher to understand development policy aimed at community development.

In Nkandla, the work in the community must be informed by the expressed values, wants and needs of the people on the ground in order for it to be successful. This is especially true when policies aimed at the facilitation of youth development in Nkandla are huge. The frustrations experienced by unemployed and unoccupied youth, compounded by the absence of clear guidelines from provincial offices and lack of supervision, monitoring and evaluations of programmes, and prompted the researcher to explore how these factors may prevent progress in terms of poverty reduction. The researcher noticed challenges of progressive development. In spite of a number of good programmes which prevented poverty reduction, the particular attention being put on community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty did not succeed.

1.4. The value of the research

Poverty affects the life of any community, since it distorts its development. Hence, this study seeks to provide stakeholders, community leaders and development representatives
with information regarding the extent to which poverty has affected the communities at Nkandla. This would in turn improve their understanding of the effectiveness of community development programmes in the Nkandla Municipality and thereby address poverty and its serious effects. The study also addressed the need for geographic integration and the co-ordination of services to avoid duplication in some areas while no services are provided in others.

Moreover the study would be of assistance during the planning and implementation of policy programmes and projects that should engage all sectors within the community. If this process is done appropriately, hopefully it could contribute comprehensively towards shared economic growth, poverty eradication and sustainable development that would lead to improved quality of life. It is from this study that the policy-makers and development planners could assess whether poverty alleviation programmes that are currently in place are successful in eradicating poverty or not.

1.5. Aim and objectives of the study

1.5.1. Aim

The aim of this study is to establish the challenges that hamper the municipality community development strategy to alleviate poverty in Nkandla.

1.5.2. Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are:

a) To determine the nature and extent of poverty in Nkandla.

b) To examine the coping mechanisms and challenges experienced by community members.

c) To assess the participation of community members in the community development projects.

d) To assess the effectiveness of community development aimed at alleviating poverty in Nkandla.
To identify challenges faced by community members in the poverty eradication process.

1.5.3. The key questions for the study

The study is guided by the following questions:

a) What is the nature and extent of poverty in Nkandla?

b) What coping mechanisms does the community in Nkandla have to deal with challenges posed by poverty?

c) To what extent does the community in Nkandla participate in community development projects?

d) How effective has community development been in alleviating poverty in Nkandla?

e) What challenges are faced by the community members during the poverty alleviation process?

1.6. Research methodology and design

According to Fouché (2002: 104-105) there are essentially two types of research that can be selected, namely; quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative approach seeks to measure the social world objectively, test hypotheses, and to predict and control human behaviour. In contrast, the qualitative approach obtains data through more subjective means including observations, interviews, and other contact with the subjects of the research.

Fouché (2002:105) further states that users of the qualitative approach are likely to obtain “first-hand” and holistic understanding of the phenomenon at hand. As indicated by Van de Merwe (1996: 291-292), qualitative methodology also includes direct observation as well as a summary of different documents and artifacts, participatory observation and unstructured interviewing.
The researcher used both quantitative and qualitative approaches of research. By combining both approaches in the same study, the restrictions of one tool are often the strength of the other. In the study, qualitative design that is explorative and descriptive was used to share participant’s knowledge on the municipality–community development strategy to alleviate poverty. This was done to determine whether community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty is effective in the Nkandla Municipality. In order to gather the data about the challenges that hamper community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty, structured and semi-structured surveys were used.

1.6.1. Population and sample
A sample is a selected group that essentially represents the large group. It should maximise the effectiveness of the research and should also, by its nature, be representative of the population. The research population was comprised of 50 Nkandla community members who are either direct or indirect beneficiaries of community development programmes in the municipality. Marshall and Rossman (1999:68) contend that researchers cannot possibly capture all relevant circumstances, happenings or people in an in-depth or intensive manner during the course of a research project. A representative sample needs to be selected on this account. “A sample is part of the target population, carefully selected to represent that population.” The basic idea of sampling is that by selecting some of the elements in a population, one may draw conclusions about the entire population. The rationale for sampling the population is: lower costs, greater accuracy of results, and greater speed of data collection and availability of population elements.

The researcher thus utilised the evaluative research design as it examines a programme from a number of different perspectives and looks for casual linkages between activities and outcomes. Thus, the researcher was able to assess the effectiveness, importance, meaning and efficiency of community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty and how these programmes may benefit the community in its efforts to eradicate poverty.
1.6.2 Data collection method

On account of the qualitative approach, data were gathered via face to face interviews and the semi-structured questionnaires were administered. The afore-mentioned questionnaire was used as a guideline in that open and closed questions are used to elicit respondents’ own, unique observations and perceptions with minimal limitations. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:105) are of the opinion that rich data can be captured in this manner in that the respondents have scope to answer in the manner that they wish, without the researcher confronting them with leading questions. The semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to follow up, build on and clarify certain subjects as mentioned by the respondents. In this study the researcher used the structured interviews to direct the observation of respondents. To assist the researcher, an appropriate guideline questionnaire was prepared to ensure the uniformity and relevance of questions asked.

1.6.3 Data analysis and interpretations

According to Marshall & Rossman (1995:111) cited by As de Vos (2002: 339), data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. It is a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative and fascinating process. Owing to the nature of data that were collected, two modes of analysis were used, namely; content analysis and statistical methods. In content analysis, themes were extracted through coding of data, elaborating on the data, and interpreting the data by looking for specific words for which themes could be identified.

1.7 Ethical considerations

The researcher notified individuals from whom data were obtained that their identity would be kept confidential. Furthermore, the researcher ensured that at the conclusion of the study, any information regarding the identity of individual participants in the research was be destroyed. No information revealing the identity of any individual would be included in the final report or in any other communication prepared in the course of the study.
1.8. Definition of terms

1.8.1 Community development

Community development can be defined as always: “…to connote the process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of government authorities to improve the economic social and cultural condition, to integrate those communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to the national progress” (United Nations, 1963). Emphasis of this definition in this study was be on the participation of the community members who are the beneficiaries of the community development programmes aimed at alleviating poverty. The main focus was on the effectiveness of these programmes and the impact they make in improving the people’s lives.

According to Lombard (1991:118), community development is a process, method, a programme, a movement aimed at enabling and encouraging communities to become involved, with the necessary support from the private and non-governmental sectors, in improving and managing their own living conditions in all areas of development.

1.8.2 Poverty

Poverty means “… lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihood; hunger and malnutrition; ill-health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterised by lack of participation and decision-making in civil, social and cultural life (UN Summit on social development, 1995).

Poverty can also be defined as that condition in which a person, because of either inadequate income or unwise expenditure, does not maintain the scale of living high enough to provide for his physical and mental efficiency and to enable him and his natural dependence to function usefully, according to the standard of the society in which he or she is a member. Anyone living in that condition is below the poverty line.
According to O’Connor (1991:21-22), **poverty in South Africa** may mean going to bed hungry night after night. The concept of ‘bed’ in this case actually means no more than a mat on the floor. In many rural areas, poverty means walking a 10km round trip to fetch water each day that is, even then, far from pure. In most cities poverty means living as a family in one small room and fearing eviction from there when you cannot scrape together the rent.

### 1.8.3 Strategy

Lombard (1991: 126) defines strategy as a predetermined comprehensive course to be implemented in action, to attain a specific aim.

### 1.9. Summary

This chapter has extensively highlighted the background that motivated the initiation of this study. The chapter further highlighted the research procedures proposed for the conducting of this study.

### 1.10. Organisation of the study

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CHAPTER TWO

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the detailed literature review of this study. White (2005:7) notes that an important aim of the literature study is to shape the researcher’s frame of reference and should not be left until later in the research process. In this chapter, there is an outline for the following key concepts of the study: the global perspective of poverty, history of poverty, poverty in South Africa, poverty in Nkandla, causes of poverty in South Africa, theories of poverty, elements of poverty, and effects of poverty on individuals, antipoverty strategies and proper strategies to deal with poverty. Specific strategies to deal with poverty at a local level in Nkandla; progress made by the government since 1994 in South Africa and conclusions are also examined.

According to Kingdon and Knight (2004), empirical research by economists on poverty in developing countries has generally been concerned with measurement in terms of income and consumption. Behind this metric lies the concept of the utility or welfare which people are assumed from income derived and consumption. This approach therefore entails dimensions of poverty that are easily and objectively measurable. Hence, this approach still dominates the field of poverty measurement. Poverty normally results from a one-time decline in living standards, from which a household gradually emerges.

This view is further supported by Woolard & Leibbrandt, (2001) that people trapped in poverty, for example seasonal variations in food security may result in some households periodically falling in and out of poverty, sometimes quite regularly, over time. Against this background, it is clear that this notion of deprivation goes well beyond the lack of private income, and instead includes basic needs that have to be provided by states or communities in order to prevent people from becoming poor. In addition, it also
recognises the need for employment opportunities. Poverty alleviation programmes therefore can hardly succeed in eradicating poverty, without integrating them with the government’s national, provincial and local development policy initiatives. These make the programmes viable by establishing local committees for community development in each community or group. Community development should be understood by the local people as the lack of income and financial resources, but also as encompassing the notion of vulnerability and such factors as no access to adequate food supplies, education and health, natural resources and drinking water, land, employment and credit facilities, information and political involvement, services and infrastructure. Unless the local people understand the goals of community development, positive results cannot be achieved.

People need to understand that poverty is widespread, not only in Africa but in all developing countries. Although major gains in its eradication were made during the closing decade of the last century, particularly in East and South-East Asia, the magnitude and intensity of poverty remains high.

2.2. Global perspective of poverty

As has already been indicated above, a good understanding of the factors that cause or perpetuate poverty can be of great help in terms of devising strategies that would effectively deal with this phenomenon. Unfortunately, at times, even strategies that are informed by such an understanding may still not be enough to arrest this phenomenon. This is mainly attributed to the fact that, due to globalisation, some of the factors responsible for poverty emanate from issues or developments that occur in the global arena.

These are usually exogenous in nature, meaning that they are beyond the control of the various national governments. In essence, therefore, due to the fact that they have limited effects in the global context, good national (poverty reduction) policies are bound to be insufficient, unless they are complemented by a supportive international environment.
Against this background, it would thus be useful to illuminate some of these (negative) exogenous factors that are engendered by globalisation, with the view to ascertaining how these may exacerbate the plight of the poor in developing countries such as South Africa.

The greater inclusion of the poor in global knowledge networks, including digital networks, as suppliers thus significantly increase their capabilities to benefit from, and participate in, the global dissemination of knowledge. According to May (1998: 05) international experience of poverty alleviation programmes suggests that poverty is not a static condition among individuals, households or communities. Rather, it is recognised that, although some individuals or households are permanently poor, others move into and out of poverty. This may be a result of life-cycle changes, specific events such as the illness of a main income earner, or deterioration in external economic conditions.

According to the Millennium Development Goals Report (2005:6), overcoming poverty and hunger is possible because the causes of poverty have been analysed intensively by the World Bank and by other organisations but poverty still persists. At the Centre of the causes of African poverty are underperforming economies, but the causes are many and varied and in order to understand poverty, one needs to understand its history as something that has been with people for a number of years.

2.3. The effects of globalisation on poverty

There are several recent surveys that have attempted to review the evidence on the relationship between globalisation and poverty (see for example Winters et al, 2004; Goldberg & Pavcnik, 2004; and Ravallion, 2004). However, the authors of these surveys acknowledge that they can only review the indirect evidence regarding the relationship between globalisation and poverty. This is due to the fact that the studies, which test for the direct connections between the two, are very sparse. The few studies which do examine the links between globalisation and poverty typically use computable general equilibrium models to disentangle the relationship between trade reform and poverty.
However, it has not been properly managed to provide balanced benefits to all the affected people. Globalisation has tended to be skewed in favour of the developed countries at the expense of the developing and at least developed countries. In South Africa, it is perceived in some quarters to have exacerbated the erosion of self-sufficient economic infrastructures that persisted all through the days of apartheid. The effects thereof have been identified with the increasing numbers of welfare dependents and the increasing lack of self-sufficiency of a large proportion of citizenry, as indicated to some degree by the recent released Human Development Index showing South Africa slipping negatively, relative to her previous positions.

This is confirmed by the increasing uptake recipients of social security grants, although, a contrary argument could be advanced that previously, many deserving people had been left off the safety net. On the other hand, some quarters of South Africa have argued that this social security problem to a greater extent is an indicator of failing public policy management, public sector lack of capacity to deliver services to the citizenry, and employment of dysfunctional socio-economic development delivery strategies. Poverty and economic exclusion are interlinked. For example, in South Africa, people were excluded from the formal economy through various mechanisms.

These included the institutionalisation of a number of requirements, such as permits, that served as barriers aimed at limiting the participation of Blacks in the formal economy. Some of these requirements included trading with neighbouring states via a visa system, which was not easy to obtain. Most Blacks could not access credit from financial institutions because they could not meet the forced requirements to obtain a loan, due to a lack of securities that are only recognised in the formal economy, for example property, bonds, shares, etc. Most Blacks owned cattle, goats and chickens, which were all perceived to be risky assets. Due to these oppressive mechanisms, the economic development of a significant number of Blacks was severely compromised, which meant that they were vulnerable to poverty. This will be discussed in greater detail in chapter three.
2.4. History of poverty

Poverty is largely a rural phenomenon. Of the 1 billion absolute poor in the world, 85% live in rural areas (United Nations: 2005). In South Africa 75% of the poor live in rural Reconstruction Development Programme (1995:9) houses. These are the people in the deprivation trap: poor, weak, isolated, powerless and vulnerable. Some manage to escape by migrating to the cities, which are viewed as places of opportunities. The result of their migration is the densification of urban poverty. Although income (or access to money) is not the only measure of poverty, in a world that has (by and large) moved away from a subsistence and barter economy to a market one, it is certainly among the salient determinants of poverty status. This is attributed to the fact that a household’s access to most measures of well-being (e.g. nutrition, health, education and so on) is usually a function of income.

This correlation, in part, reflects the power of money to provide goods and services. In this context, it follows then that the World Bank (2000/2001) espouses that the basic rational understanding of the roots of poverty should be built on the ability to access productive assets and the return on these assets. According to the World Bank (2000/2001), individuals and communities have access to assets in different forms and ways. It is the returns to individuals, households and communities that are generated using these assets that are the ultimate determinants of individual and collective well-being. Where such assets are absent or deficient or where low returns are achieved, extreme poverty is the result.

This view is further supported by Sinclair (2001:2) that poverty is heavily informed by intersecting disadvantage flowing from race, gender and socioeconomic status resulting from racially discriminatory education. Sinclair further maintains that Black people constitute roughly 80% of the population and in 2010 earned 41.2% of the total income while Whites, who constitute only 9.2% of the population, earned 45.3% of the total income. Furthermore, 93.2% of the income of the lowest docile was earned by Blacks and only 3% by Whites.
Therefore, in light of this view, it would be useful to understand the nature of poverty in South Africa from an historic point of view, since, as it will be illustrated in the following sub-section, the asset base of the majority of Blacks was, by and large, eroded during the colonial/apartheid era. It has to be noted, however, that this sub-section does not purport to review the full economic history of South Africa.

2.5. Poverty in South Africa

Like the rest of the global South, South Africa is faced with high levels of poverty. It is evident from the policy utterances of the ruling African National Congress (ANC) party that tackling poverty has been a top of the agenda item since its assumption of power in 1994. This is explicit in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) where the new regime identifies the fight against poverty and deprivation as the first priority of the (ANC, 1994). The misery of poverty is in a way an infringement of the citizens’ constitutional right to a dignified life.

At the 2004 Freedom day celebrations, the then President Thabo Mbeki alluded to this observation emphasising that the endemic poverty continues to disfigure the face of the nation “it will always be impossible for us to say that we have fully restored the dignity of all our people as long as this situation persists. For this reason, the struggle to eradicate poverty has been, and will continue to be, a central part of the national effort to build the new South Africa” (President Thabo Mbeki, 2004). The effort by the ANC government and other development partners to deal with the challenge of poverty is expressed in a number of policies and strategies, however, the question that stands out is whether these efforts have been effective in tackling the root causes of poverty or much effort has been applied in eradicating symptoms. Much has been done to eradicate absolute poverty with little success.

One of the most salient facts about the poor in most developing countries is that they are disproportionately located in rural areas and, according to Ravallion (2002) this trend is likely to prevail for protracted periods of time. The World Bank (1990), for example,
reported that, on average, in Africa and Asia, about 80% of all target poverty groups are located in rural areas, and for Latin America the estimated percentage was about 50%.

In light of these alarming averages, it is thus not surprising to find that data from individual country studies also reveal a similar trend. For example, according to the World Bank (1990), during the 1980’s, rural poverty was six times that of urban poverty in Kenya, while in Mexico, it was 30% higher during the same period. Around 1980, a staggering 98% of China’s poor lived in rural areas (Ravallion & Chen, 2004).

Aliber (2002) considers that the particular configuration of poverty in South Africa is a fairly straightforward outcome of colonial apartheid engineering. The most salient elements of this engineering were large-scale land dispossession, the establishment of increasingly overcrowded and poorly resourced homelands for the majority Black population, and the migratory labour system that formed the backbone of the country’s mining and industrial sectors. The geographical, racial and gender dimensions of the contemporary poverty are in large measure the legacy of this historical experience.

The main point of departure dates back to 1994, the year in which the first racially-inclusive democratic elections took place, and the African National Congress-led government took power. According to Aliber (2002:2), “this is precisely because this year represented a watershed not just in terms of power relations, but also coincided with the introduction of new approaches to development and poverty alleviation”. The geographical, racial and gender dimensions of the contemporary poverty are in large measure the legacy of this historical experience (Aliber, 2002).

Of the poor in South Africa, 75% live in rural areas, mainly in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and the Northern Province (RDP, 1995:5). Poverty is predominantly among Africans (65% are poor), while 33% of Coloureds and 2.5% and 0.7% respectively, of Indians and Whites are poor (RDP, 1995:12). There is a close relationship between poverty and the size of the household: larger households, with many dependants,
are much poorer. Homes with females at their heads have an almost 70% poverty rate, compared to 43% for those which have a male at the head (RDP, 1995:12-13). One can conclude that poverty in South Africa has a strong rural, race and gender bias: rural African women bear the brunt of poverty in South Africa. Most rural communities live in poverty.

Poverty is not a modern social phenomenon and has progressively become a problem in most societies. It is often associated with the process of industrialisation and is prevalent mostly in underdeveloped and developing countries. To an extent poverty is characteristic of First World countries, where it is associated with urban renewal or expansion programmes. Defining poverty often leads to a debate on the question concerning when a person is to be considered poor. Some use economic indicators as an evaluation measure, whereas others take subjective indicators into consideration. According to Coleman & Cressay (1990:162-163), poverty can be defined using the absolute or relative approach: the absolute approach is an objective approach, which categorises society into poor and not poor. Although other factors may be used, the objective approach specifically links poverty to income.

In South Africa, various absolute measures have been used. These are the poverty datum line, the minimum living level, the supplementary living level, household subsistence level and the household effective level. Relative poverty is an expression of poverty of the entity in relation to another entity. The concept “relative poverty” refers to people whose basic needs are met, but who, in terms of their social environment, still experience some disadvantages. In other words, while managing to survive, some people are materially disadvantaged compared to others living in the same community or society. About 20% (1000 million or 1 billion) of people in the world live in absolute poverty, of whom 85% live in rural areas, predominantly of the Third World (Durning, 1990).

Apart from physical assets such as land, there are other non-physical assets such as education, health and skills development for employment. People living in poverty spend
the whole day struggling to survive, so that working for their self-development through education, health and skills development for employment is out of the question. The condition of poverty in which the poor exist deprives them of exercising their legal right to education, health services, housing and employment, which is provided for all citizens in legislative documents in almost every country.

Poverty therefore remains a condition from which people have to be liberated before they can make use of the opportunities for development legally provided for the citizens by their governments (Zalewska, 1993:23). Rural areas are mostly the ones in which state services are most often inadequate, compared to urban areas where there is less or no poverty, and where the services are not as much needed as in rural areas but nevertheless are available. The poor standard of living in developing countries is usually manifested by the presence of those earning a low income, who tend to be in poor health, with little or no education, and characterised by a general sense of hopelessness (Motloung & Mears 2002:531).

Some of the factors which have entrenched themselves in the lives of the rural communities, and which will need more than a restructured education and financial assistance to schools, are: poverty, the continuous absence of many parents due to migrant labour, the inavailability of employment opportunities, illiteracy, the low value placed on education, the attitude of teachers and administrators towards rural children and their parents, the efforts made by the chiefs to facilitate educational development and, finally, the economic and political powerless of rural communities to develop and improve their own services.

If major progress is to be made in rural education, these factors and their effects on the pupil have to be addressed (Graaf, 1987:10). Poverty differs from one person to another and to the extent to which it affects local people. We must therefore look at Nkandla poverty and how it is viewed by its community.
2.6. Context of poverty in South Africa

Currently, the state and government agencies’ socio-economic poverty alleviation programmes are not sustainable, on a long-term basis. In the future, this may render the government to concentrate a lot more than now, on the future security grants to the target groups. However, sustainable comprehensive social security management strategies, within the available resources, ensure that in the long term, the target groups, wherever possible, should contribute to the national treasury.

To avert a social security catastrophe in South Africa, the mission and vision of all stakeholders require to be realised soonest. The current land grabs in Zimbabwe are a microscopic picture of what may happen if nothing is done urgently, to reverse the socio-economic degradation and stagnation that may be taking place in the poverty stricken places. When poverty grips the nation, the land becomes the last factor, for which individuals are willing to die for.

In South Africa, the government is under extreme and increasing pressure to deliver, just like in the entire poor countries world over, as attested to the recent publicised attempted land grabs in some parts of the country. In virtually all the countries that are regarded as very poor, the starting economic and social base is negative relative to the developed and many developing countries. In South Africa this phenomenon is identified with areas and regions. These affect the socio-economic strength of the communities that must be considered when judging the socio-economic developments and the political milestones achieved.

While the ills of apartheid regime cannot be undone in a short time as highlighted in the National Development Plan, the failure of the government to deliver on some of its reform promises gives an impression that the ruling ANC has drifted from its original RDP focus. The failure of the government to meet its 30% agricultural land redistribution to Black people by 2014 despite the challenges associated with it tends to cement such a view. For Bond (2000) there is an increasing concern in the progressive literature on
South Africa about the government’s deviation from the liberation movement mandate. It may be critical to look at some of the efforts made to try and address perpetual inequality in the country.

2.7. Poverty in Nkandla

The region is beset by hunger, Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and tuberculosis (TB). The situation is far grimmer than is described in official documents. It requires a much better understanding of its severity, dynamics and solutions if the crisis is to be resolved. The locals, some hungry, thin and ill, speak with eloquence, dignity and clarity about their predicament. They are impoverished, but they claim to be capable and resourceful. Though struggling to survive at present, they are not dispirited, but determined to improve their situation. They know how they can get back to high ground.

There are thousands of schoolchildren: many of whom are orphans. They walk long distances to school. Hundreds go hungry and there is a lack of feeding programmes. Many will drop out of school. Others will not further their studies, because of lack of finance. Food output is falling. Very few farms use fertilisers. People have only smallholdings and small plots to utilise. Soils are exhausted, with resultant poor yields. Households go hungry. If there is a drought, households face the risk of death, because of severe malnutrition. Chronic under-nutrition of children persists.

TB and Human Immune Virus (HIV) are pervasive and not decreasing. Multi drug Resistance (MDR) TB is on the increase. AIDS is ravaging the communities. There is limited access to ARVs. The number of orphans is on the increase. Remittances from family members in cities are decreasing. “The only things that come back from the cities are half dead individuals along with their small children in the same transport”.

Health services are wanting. There is no tap water. The cost of doing business is high on account of poor coverage of key infrastructure such as power, water, roads, transport and long distances to markets and suppliers. There is no incentive in place to attract
investment into the areas. Various barriers impinge on the cost of production. There is not sufficient investment in human capital through programmes of nutrition, public health, disease control and literacy. Budget votes on key infrastructure projects are being rolled over. Delays of such proportion only serve to entrench the poverty in the area and extend the suffering of the people. The demonstrable lack of a sense of urgency on the part of some government departments is a contradiction to the pronouncements that emanate from our political leaders. Finding new ways to direct emergency help to the poorest of the poor is absolutely essential (MBO, 2006:7).

The HIV/AIDS pandemic is no longer only a symptom of poverty, but it has also emerged as one of the most obvious causes of poverty in recent times, particularly in developing countries such as South Africa. Substantively, many studies in South and Southern Africa have clearly demonstrated that HIV/AIDS contributes to a rise in poverty (see, for example, Loewenson & Whiteside, 2001). This is largely attributed to the fact that this phenomenon is a major cause of ill-health (Tumwesigye, 2003). Moreover, it is costly because many of the opportunistic infections associated with AIDS (TB, pneumonia, and others) are expensive to treat.

As such, it has not only caused many people in the developing world to be unable to contribute productively to their households’ livelihoods, but many of the infected have become a drain on their families’ financial resources. Moreover, thousands have died as a result of this phenomenon, thereby imposing crushing shocks and stresses on the livelihoods of those remaining behind. In fact, many households have ceased to exist because of AIDS deaths (Turner, 2005). Those affected households that struggle on, often headed by old people or orphans, typically suffer poverty because they are usually epitomised by insufficient capacity to generate meaningful income.

Duraisamy et al’s (2003) study is one of the best cases in point that can be utilised to buttress the foregoing analogy. They found that medical treatment expenditures
constituted a significant economic burden for a sample of affected households in south India, with roughly 40-70% of AIDS-related expenditures being financed by borrowing. Similarly, studies of AIDS-affected households (most of them near-poor or already poor) in African countries such as South Africa and Zambia show that their monthly income fell by 66%-80% because of coping with AIDS-related illness (UNAIDS, 2004). In a recent study of 700 South African households affected by HIV/AIDS, more than half of the affected families did not have enough food to stave off starvation. Two-thirds of the households reported a loss of income as a result of the disease and larger proportions of household income being spent on healthcare and funerals.

According to the Operation MBO Memorandum (2006), there is also a strong geographical dimension to the incidence of poverty. Based on the same data set, 72% of all poor people (those below the poverty datum line) reside in rural areas and 71% of all rural people are poor. By most measures, the poorest provinces are those encompassing the most populous former areas, namely KwaZulu-Natal, where Nkandla Municipality is located, Northern Province and the Eastern Cape. This view is also held by Zulu & Mzimela (2006) in the Nkandla profile of the local Municipality, where they indicate that the employment status of Nkandla is 93%, which means no income, and the dependency figure is 65%.

This means that high economic dependency predisposes Nkandla residents to poverty and hence inability to meet basic needs. Formerly part of the KwaZulu homelands, the Nkandla area is characterised by the demographics typical of an area with its history, high levels of poverty and dependency, a skewed gender profile, low levels of education, and a lack of infrastructure and resources. HIV/AIDS and political violence have impacted significantly on the area.

Furthermore, the Operation MBO Memorandum (2006) reveals that in the 1996 population census, some 135 000 people live in the Nkandla district. Of these, 57% are females and 61% of the households are headed by women, probably as a result of
migrancy of males to urban areas. Over 14% of the population is under the age of five, and 46% of the population is aged 14 years and younger. Nearly 6% of the population is 65 years or older; but 26% of all households are headed by someone in this age group. Four hundred and four households (2%) are headed by youths under the age of 20 (123 of these by youths under the age of 15). A total of 67% of the adult population (15 years or older) are functionally illiterate (i.e. have less than seven years of schooling), whilst nearly 40% of the adult population have no schooling at all. Less than 1% of the adult population has some form of tertiary education.

The economically active population (aged 15-65) constitutes 47% of the population. Of this group, only 6% are employed; 20% of the economically active population is actively looking for work; 23% of the population classified as “employed” work in elementary occupations. Given this situation, it is not surprising that income is extremely low; 74% of all households earn less than R1 000 a month, with 21.5% of all households deriving no income at all. The vast majority of households (91%) live in traditional dwellings of wattle and mud. There is appalling lack of basic services in the area. Only slightly over 1% of all households have access to electricity; 79% are reliant on candles for lighting, whilst 18% use paraffin.

Less than 4% of the total population has access to piped water; 8% receive their water from boreholes, wells or rainwater tanks, whilst 82% are reliant on a river, stream or spring. Similarly, fewer than 3% of households have access to a flush or chemical toilet, with the vast majority of the population using either a pit latrine (50%), or no formal latrine at all (46%); 51% of all households have no access to a telephone, whilst fewer than 0.5% have access to a telephone in their homes (including cellular phones). In addition to poverty, low levels of education, and few resources, Nkandla has inherited a number of development constraints, including a culture of dependency and apathy; gender discrimination; and marked social schisms. In terms of administration, Nkandla is made up of a number of tribal authority areas. This means that in many areas of life, people are subject to the authority of the local inkosi, including the accessing of land.
Many participatory poverty assessments have found that a lack of particular types of infrastructure is considered to be a core dimension of poverty such as indicated above in Nkandla. Without adequate access to services such as water and energy, human health deteriorates and long periods are spent in non-productive activities such as the collection of water and fuel wood. The opportunity costs associated with poor infrastructure can include access to health services and income-generating projects.

The view above is supported by the Nkandla LED (2004: 27). There are very few local opportunities for employment and age/gender demographics indicate that many men have migrated out of the area in search of work in the coastal areas of the province. As in other parts of the country, this migration has resulted in a complex set of linkages between the rural and urban areas, and many households experience a sense of “double-rootedness”, as their members migrate to and from urban areas. This migration occurs in response to strong rural push (unemployment and poverty) and urban pull (employment opportunities, social services) factors.

2.8 Causes of poverty in South Africa

The Native Act of 1913 which prevented the sale of land to Africans after their forceful removal was one of the clear signs pointing to the ill of poverty. The unjust laws of the government of apartheid where Whites were able to control every aspect of the economy including business and farming, are the main contributors of poverty in our society today.

According to Spicker (1993:11), poverty became visible through the severe lack of security such as unsafe water, which resulted in many deaths. The government did not care about African people, who lacked welfare values like accessibility to good quality education; there was a stigmatising form of financial dependency and Africans lacked skills to help themselves. White incomes far exceeded those of Blacks and consequently lay to the right, with Coloureds and Indians taking intermediate positions. There is limited overlap between White and Black incomes. The government was not concerned;
all that the government cared about was the welfare of White people, as if they were the only people in existence. Africa cannot start working towards the elimination of poverty unless she fully understands her causes.

The researcher believes that these theories, combined, are responsible for the cause of poverty. How will the Rural Strategy be implemented in a way that ensures that the concerns of the groups are brought into the decision-making process? The council should employ community development facilitators who are trained in mediation, facilitation, participatory methods, project management, bookkeeping and gender issues. Their particular objective must be to assist the poorest groups to get their needs considered during local negotiations around service delivery and infrastructure development. Theories help us understand the root of poverty in individuals, families and communities’ deficiencies and those that lay the cause on broader social phenomenon. The following theories will therefore be discussed with a view to help us to understand the possible causes of poverty.

2.9 Theories on poverty

There are a number of theories that attempt to explain poverty. It is difficult, however to select just one or a few that can be made responsible for causing poverty, as well as potential strategies that can be addressed in response to poverty. How those strategies can be implemented is another story. Despite the one-sided view often taken by theorists, these theories do not add to the broader understanding of poverty in society. According to Bezuidenhout (1998:167-168), the four theories on poverty are explained as follows:

2.9.1. Deficiency theory

Community development strategies/programmes are designed, selected and implemented in response to different theories about the cause of poverty that justify community development. This theory has its roots in Social Darwinism. Spencer, an advocate of Social Darwinism, was often of the ‘opinion that the poor are poor because it is nature’s way of eliminating those who are “not fit” to make room for those who are, and who are therefore entitled to the rewards of wealth. Later this concept was adopted by Jensen
(1969) and Hernstein (1971), who suggested that the poor are impoverished because they do not possess the same intellectual endowment as the more affluent members of society. According to Jensen, the difference between the poor and the non-poor can be attributed to genetic and environmental factors. Individuals who are intellectually more tenacious are less likely to be poor.

Hernstein maintains that social stratification can be attributed to inborn differences based on mental ability and the ability of an individual to use his inherited mental capability to acquire a prestigious job, enabling him to earn sufficient finances and thus preventing impoverishment. Although mental ability may be a contributing factor as to why some individuals are poor, this explanation is biased and does not take other concomitant factors such as economic, social, environmental, political and other factors into account. There are a number of theories that attempt to explain poverty. Despite the one-sided view often taken by theorists, these theories do add to the broader understanding of poverty in a society.

### 2.9.2. Cultural theory

The second theory of poverty has its root causes, which is the culture of poverty. In order to adapt to their impoverished condition, the poor develop a lifestyle that is transmitted from one generation to the next. Through socialisation, the poor develop a subculture of their own and are characterised, for example, by the way in which they raise their children, regard their future prospects, spend their money and view formal education.

This means that the theory suggests that poverty is created by transmission, over generations, of a set of beliefs, values, and skills that are socially generated, but individually held, and yet no one seems to dispute that poor people have subcultures or that the subcultures of the poor are peculiar, but the concern is over what causes and constitutes the subculture of poverty. This theory reasons that the poor differ in values and lifestyle from the non-poor.
2.9.3 Structural theories

These theories take the view that society, in its attempt to organise its social environment, economic and political spheres, created poverty, or made certain kinds of people more vulnerable to it. From this point of view it would mean that certain groups in society, such as racial minorities, may become impoverished because they are deprived of equal opportunities for education, jobs and income or women because they generally receive less pay and fewer chances for advancement, or individuals who cannot afford specialized training, and therefore cannot advance in their jobs, and thereby acquire better earning and living standards.

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 strategy within community development for changing the system involves creating and developing alternative institutions which have access, openness, innovations 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 business, housing, schooling and programmes. In addition, business strategies such as employee ownership or networks of minority or women’s business also work. Community-owned businesses such as community banks also provide alternative structures.

2.9.4 Conflict theory

The basic premise of conflict theory is that poverty is caused by opposition between various groups in society. There are those who hold, and want to maintain their wealth, power, privileges and other social rewards, at all costs. Individuals or groups of individuals become impoverished because they are prevented by those who own such desirables from acquiring the same. While some sociologists contend that social class differences are central to the understanding of poverty, there are some who hold the view, for example, that male dominance is responsible for the high poverty among women, and that attitudes towards the disabled are the reason for the high poverty rate such as members of society. According to Brink (1996:84), the review of the literature should be
comprehensive, relevant, up-to-date and honest or objective. It is most important that the review should present a thoughtful analysis of the field, not just a collection of quotations and summaries. It should include all published points of view, not just those that support the view of the authors. The literature review must be submitted to the same standards of critical analysis and ethical concern as other parts of the research process.

2.10. Elements of poverty

Poverty is featured by various phenomena, which demonstrate that the community, family or individual is in poverty. The circumstances that are likely to occur in individual/society experiencing poverty are, firstly, the severe lack of physical comfort, which can be observed through shelter that does not provide adequate protection. For instance, a house with lots of ventilation or holes being over-crowded, such that the family members lack privacy and health conditions appropriate for human beings. People nowadays get sick very easily, they either catch pneumonia or a cough. This is considered poverty as long as it is not their choice to live so. We know that there are people in religious houses called convents or monasteries. These people even take a vow of poverty as their means of atoning for whatever they think they have done wrong.

Secondly, poverty becomes visible through a severe lack of security, such as unsafe air and water, which may result in many deaths. Poor people usually lack health services and such circumstances lead to chronic or frequent illness. Thirdly, a community can be depicted as being poor if it lacks welfare values such as accessibility to good-quality education, if it has a stigmatizing form of financial dependency and if it experiences problems like family instability and if it lacks skills to help itself (Spicker 1993: 11). Many methods are used to measure the extent of poverty. One method that is usually used is the poverty datum line, which is the estimate of the income needed by all individual household if it is to attain a defined minimum level of health and decency. If a household is still unable to get food, housing, transportation, clothing, electricity and water, it will mean the members experience poverty. Every individual is a psychosocial somatic being
and therefore when extreme poverty is experienced it affects the individual at all levels and in all spheres.

2.11. Effects of poverty

According to Bezuidenhout (1998:165-174), the nine main effects of poverty are:

2.11.1. Inferior education

According to the Millennium Development Goal Report (2005: 10), education gives people choices regarding the kind of lives they wish to lead. It enables them to express themselves with confidence in their personal relationships, in the community and at work. But for more than 115 million children of primary school age who are out of school, this human right is being denied. When this right is not exercised their future is compromised. Individuals may be forced to discontinue their formal education at a young age to help supplement the family’s income. In some instances, children leave their homes to earn a living on the street. When on the street, they do not attend school and in later years they have difficulty competing with their peers on the open labour market. Nkandla educational profile reveals that 50% of its community members have no schooling, 17% have some primary education, 4% completed primary school, 17% have some secondary schooling and 10% completed matric, while only 3% have higher education.

There is a very strong correlation between the level of education and the standard of living in South Africa. According to Woolard (2002), 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.

Despite apartheid-era policies, a dramatic expansion of education took place long before the political transition. This led to a remarkable narrowing of the gap in years of education attained. In an international context, the progress of successive Black cohorts
in attaining more years of education completed was spectacular, as the comparison in the figure with data for three other developing countries shows. Lam (1999) also illustrates this in a comparison of educational attainment in South Africa and Brazil. But education levels below matriculation level contribute relatively little to improving labour market outcomes. Some two-thirds of the White matric-aged cohort completes matric, versus just over one-quarter of the Black cohort. Especially among the young, many not completing high school are effectively excluded from the economic mainstream, given the way the labour market interprets educational attainment. If educational quality is considered, differences are even larger, as access to quality education remains highly skewed.

2.11.2. Living conditions

Individuals and families who have become impoverished find it difficult to create a safe and healthy living environment for them. Often they are evicted from their residences because they are unable to pay the rent. They may have to move to a cheaper home in a low social class environment, or to live on the street, or settle in a squarer camp. A low-class environment would imply learning a new set of norms and values which they may find difficult to cope with. This, in turn, may cause stress and family conflict. Street life or settlement in a squatter camp may lead to ill-health and disease, such as TB. New housing projects should be located within the primary, secondary or tertiary nodes to make effective use of existing services and economic opportunities.

The Nkandla Municipality feels that the rural housing projects should target existing residential development in and around secondary and tertiary nodes and densely settled rural areas. Household food security programmes should be linked to existing settlements, particularly in underdeveloped areas and dispersed settlements should be encouraged through the provision of basic needs to existing settlements. Poverty and unemployment are also closely related in South Africa. According to Woolard (2002), 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. Among other things, Woolard (2002) found that, in 1999, 75% of the non-poor had electricity, compared to 27% of the poor; 73% of the non-poor had access to adequate sanitation (flush, chemical or VIP toilet), compared to 38% of the poor; 77% of the non-poor had piped water, compared to 47% of the poor.

2.11.3. Malnourishment

Little or irregular income may cause ill-health and a high mortality rate among the poor. Without adequate financial means or social support, the poor cannot purchase or acquire the nutritional foodstuff necessary to maintain their health. Those who may have the opportunity to work find that their energy levels cannot cope with their workload. This not only affects their productivity, but may also lead to dismissal from their jobs. Furthermore, it is a known fact that children need sufficient nourishment to cope with the demands of formal education. Malnourished children may experience problems with their self-esteem because they do not acquire higher grades, or are unable to complete their school year successfully, or are unable to compete with their peers. Some 75% of income is from pensions (50%) and remittances (25%). After increasing significantly in the early 1990s, with moves to bring racial equity, the real value of pensions is now declining. This seems likely to continue, as the government conforms to global trends to reduce welfare payments.

Meanwhile, over the decade, remittance income has become less dependable and less in absolute terms. This seems likely to continue, as any growth in the economy is likely to involve the substitution of low-skilled jobs with fewer, more highly skilled jobs less suited to migrants from Nkandla. HIV/AIDS will also disproportionally affect people in the economically active age group.
2.11.4 Infant mortality

According to the Millennium Development Goals Report (2005:18), the death of a child is a loss. Yet every year almost 11 million children die, that is 30 000 children a day, before their fifth birthday. Malnutrition contributes to over half of these deaths. Child mortality is closely linked to poverty: advances in infant and child survival have come more slowly to people in poor countries and to the poorest people in wealthier countries. Research indicates that infant mortality is high when living conditions are poor. Infant mortality is also linked to an absence, or lack of, adequate antenatal care, to substance abuse, to malnourishment and to inadequate postnatal care of the newly born.

2.11.5 Inadequate housing

Poverty is associated with high population density and over-crowding. Due to a lack of finance, individuals or families tend to share housing facilities. This leads to overcrowding and many young children in such households take to the street to earn a living. Some of them become child prostitutes, drug dealers, or enter into juvenile gang life. They participate in criminal activities in order to procure much-needed money for themselves or their families.

2.11.6 Death by suicide and other criminal related incidents

While some individuals commit suicide because they can no longer tolerate the despair poverty causes in their lives, others participate in criminal related activities, such as robbery, and they may be killed when confronted by police or people who safeguard their property or the property of others.

2.11.7 Psychological consequences

An individual who finds it difficult to make ends meet, especially if he or she is the breadwinner, may have a low self-esteem. In some instances, such persons feel rejected or experience rejection by members of their families for being unable to secure a job or to provide for the needs of their families.
While many impoverished families may live together in the same community, they may experience social isolation from the rest of society. Such isolation may be intensified when the more affluent members of society label the poor as social outcasts, because they believe that they are responsible for their own situation. The poor may also experience powerlessness. Their lack of means to compete with the more affluent in society emphasises their powerlessness. Individuals who find themselves impoverished, and especially those who may have families to care for, may experience episodes of depression. Without adequate treatment, such persons may resort to suicide or even family murder.

2.11.8 Criminal activities

Some criminal activities are related to poverty. The poor may participate in criminal activities such as drug peddling, shoplifting, burglary or gang-related activities, and the selling of children in order to acquire the financial means to sustain a minimum living standard.

2.11.9 Wasted workforce

Poverty and unemployment are related. This is especially noticeable in Third World countries and in countries undergoing social, economic and political change. Those individuals who can work, but who are unable to do so because there are not enough jobs, seemingly enhance the notion of a wasted workforce. Causative factors are poor education and training.

2.11.10 Teenage pregnancy

De Beer (1997:5) postulates that, when a teenager becomes pregnant, this not only affects the physical, emotional and social well-being of the mother-to-be, but the situation has consequences for the father of the unborn child, the families of the father and the mother, the prospective baby and the community in which the father and the mother of the unborn child find themselves. A teenager from a poor family, during puberty, seeks to build self-esteem and a self-image. It is through interaction with significant others that a self-image is created. Teenagers who constantly have to prove their worth or endure continuous
ridicule may experience an identity crisis later on in life. Many seek attention outside the home. Such attention-seeking behaviour often ends in illicit sexual unions, through which the teenager tries to prove his or her worthiness.

2.11.11 Diseases of poverty

Wilson Gordon, cited by Allen Tim (1990:34-35), mentions the diseases of poverty as the following:

1. In one of the most comprehensive surveys ever undertaken into childhood mortality, the organisation revealed that four million children die from diarrhea every year.

2. In what Dr. Nakajima, cited by Allen (1990:34), describes as ‘the silent genocide’, the report reveals that three million children die every year from six infectious diseases, namely, polio, tetanus, measles, diphtheria, whooping cough and tuberculosis.

3. In a catalogue of suffering and handicap, the report reveals that four million children die every year due to acute respiratory diseases, mostly pneumonia. Tim mentions that political scientists claim that poverty can create hostility against the political system. The poor often blame the government for their predicament. Especially bitter persons may turn to radical political ideas or movements that threaten the existing political system. “Poverty breeds Poverty” according to many sociologists and anthropologists. Children of the poor, they claim, have a good chance of remaining poor all their lives. Poor parents cannot afford good food, housing or medical care, illness comes more often and stays longer. Many poor adults become discouraged. Unable to get and hold good jobs, they lose all sense of dignity and self-respect. With loss of hope, some become resigned to poverty. In time, many children of the poor acquire the same feelings of helplessness and hopelessness. Public health experts consider poverty a major cause of malnutrition. Prolonged hunger reduces the body’s resistance to diseases. Poorly nourished people catch more diseases, become more seriously ill and are more likely to die at an early age than well-fed people. Malnutrition itself causes diseases, including beriberi, pellagra and rickets. Malnutrition is most dangerous for children. Lack of food retards and may
permanently stunt a child’s growth. Childhood malnutrition, particularly during the first years of life, may cause permanent damage to the brain.

According to Holman (1978:28), poverty leaves parents with little choice in the methods they adopt to raise children. Overcrowded and materially stressful conditions are particularly significant in reducing the amount of affection and the warmth mothers can show their children. Parents’ child-rearing methods can be limited by a host of extraneous circumstances which undermine the time and resources at the disposal of the parent. For example, the relative material poverty of the parent makes it difficult or impossible to provide certain kinds of support for the children’s demands. Socialisation experiences of the children do not equip them with the characteristics which lead to success at school and work.

Wilson, cited by Allen Tim (1990: 34), explains that children’s language is less likely to be developed when they have to spend much time out of their parents’ company, because of the constraints of over-crowding and time spent on the struggle to survive. The lack of toys, the absence of constructive play experiences and the non-availability of books, can retard the development of social and intellectual skills which are prerequisites for success at school. It is not that children are innately less intelligent than others, but rather that they lack the cues and stances which outside institutions will interpret as meaning the possession of ability. Consequently, the children have little prospect of breaking away from the life of poverty in which they are raised.

Wilson adds that his concern is mainly about the way young children are treated at home. According to him, it is now timely to consider what happens in a school. Educational success is often regarded as the escape route from poverty. Yet the children of the poor do not generally do well at school. In the past, these failures have often been attributed solely to the lack of parental stimulation and interest, as though they deliberately withheld their support. Poverty leads to child-rearing methods which place children at a disadvantage at school, when compared with those from more affluent backgrounds.
Children may have difficulties in completing homework in overcrowded and noisy homes. There is evidence that parents, although interested in education, may keep their children at home, if they cannot afford clothing or bus-fares. In these ways, the existence of poverty becomes a barrier to educational advancement. The children’s performances can be regarded-sometimes wrongly – by teachers as meaning a lack of ability and interest. In turn, the children underestimate themselves and behave accordingly. Children and parents become progressively disillusioned with education.

The result could be that not only did the family become regarded as unstable and fickle, but its members themselves could accept the judgment as valid. The insecure and unsettled pattern of life is mostly identified amongst families who generally stayed together. More extreme instability is sometimes reflected in marital break-ups. Of course, family separations sometimes result from psychological interactions which have nothing to do with marital circumstances.

2.11.12 Poverty and race

As it has been illustrated in the 2003 Human Development Report, in 2002, the percentage of Blacks, Coloureds, Asians and Whites who were poor was 56.3%, 36.1%, 14.7% and 6.9% respectively. Poverty is a dynamic force in causing various problems such as ill-health, broken families, illegitimacy, domestic violence, crime and HIV/Aids. It can also be an end result of various individual problems such as an unhappy marriage, work shyness, lack of or no education, disability or ill-health. It therefore has both characteristics of being cause and symptoms. It is, however, not confined to a specific racial group, but it concentrates amongst the Blacks particularly Africans. Sixty-one percent (61%) of Africans, 38% of Coloureds, 5% of Indians and 1% of Whites are regarded as poor (Water & Goodman, 1990:136).

Actions that need to be taken in a situation of poverty are conflict prevention and crisis management, made necessary by the serious implications of poverty and its effects. One
question that needs to be asked is what methods are required to ensure more effective and efficient co-operation. Proper anti-poverty strategies are necessary.

2.12. Government’s strategies to fight against poverty

Poverty remains of critical concern not only in South Africa but across the developing countries in Asia, Africa and the America’s. The country’s anti-poverty strategy, the latest in a string of state sponsored interventions is intended to generate a set of programmes that should make a major attack on the roots of poverty. Poverty remains one of the worst human calamities in the world, especially in Africa. Despite her status as Africa’s biggest economy, South Africa battles with high levels of poverty like her poorer neighbours.

This study argues that despite the recorded economic growth in the post-Apartheid years the disparities between the poor and the rich have widened. This study unpacks the dynamics of poverty and its manifestations and the complexities in tackling it. Moving from a premise that only proper diagnosis will lead to an effective prescription, this study endeavours to discuss the forms of poverty and the underlying causes. Subsequently, the various strategies employed by the South African government in the fight against poverty are examined. The efficacy of these strategies is brought into scrutiny while opportunities for greater impact are explored through literature review. In the main, the article seeks to stimulate more debate on the efficacy of poverty alleviation strategies in the country, in the process exploring possible alternatives of tackling poverty.

2.12.1. Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

Just prior to the first racially inclusive democratic elections in 1994, the ANC published a policy document for the RDP, in which it identified the vast number of areas it would seek to transform in South Africa. The central theme of the RDP was reducing the poverty of the majority of South Africans, thereby addressing the inequality and injustices of colonialism and apartheid. Access to water, jobs, land, education and health care were among the priorities highlighted. Significantly, the RDP policy framework
hinted at the multiple connections that exist between poverty and environmental degradation. The RDP failed to address the policy document it was meant to address, leading to its office being closed down in 1996. The closure of the RDP office appeared to have been a consequence of the introduction by the government in that year of the framework for GEAR.

2.12.2. Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy (GEAR)

GEAR is a conventional neo-liberal macroeconomic recipe for economic growth. This strategy, too, failed to stimulate economic growth and diminish poverty. The founding document of GEAR placed emphasis on the cumulative number of new jobs in the economy at 1.3 million, but it failed to meet expectations and did not produce the number of jobs stated in the document.

Four observations are made of GEAR: First, GEAR does not appear to embrace sustainable development ethics, even implicitly. Second, GEAR appears to lack sophistication in the complex area of poverty alleviation. Third, GEAR effectively replaced the RDP, which did embrace an ethic of poverty alleviation through sustainable development. Fourth, the adoption of GEAR spelt the demise of the institutionalised inter-departmental policy development forum that the NGDS promised to provide, and which, we maintain, was conducive to the pursuit of sustainable development. The fact that GEAR simply has not worked out as planned, in the sense that its macroeconomic projections have failed to come to fruition, compounds this negative assessment. All this does not go without saying that the first elected government of 1994 inherited a serious and worsening unemployment problem, which GEAR adopted two years later, but which had presumably been in the works since sometime earlier, and it has not been capable of reversing.

In part because of this, in 1998 the government introduced the Special Allocation for Poverty Relief, Infrastructure Investment and Job Summit Projects, or simply the Poverty Alleviation Fund. It initially took over the remaining RDP funds, but in 1998/1999 was
capitalised by the central government with an additional R598 million, or 0.35 percent of the total non-interest government budget for that year. The way in which the Fund worked is that national government departments are invited to submit proposals (Business Plans) to the National Treasury, which evaluates the submissions and make recommendations to the Cabinet. This means poverty alleviation funding goes to departmental projects through departmental budgets.

Some of the departments to which resources from the fund have been allocated have had significant accomplishments, such as the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry and the Department of Public Works, which together accounted for more than half of the fund for 1999/2000. However, one of the initial problems with the Poverty Alleviation Fund was the inability of its subscribing departments to spend the money allocated to them. Most conspicuous in this regard was the Department of Welfare, whose allocation of R204 million in 1998/1999 went almost unspent (IDASA 2000). The Department of Social Development has sought to compensate for lack of its management capacity by outsourcing some of this work to a parastatal, the Independent Development Trust (IDT).

One reason that the Department of Welfare failed to spend this allocation, as well as a significant portion of its own budget, was that it was venturing into difficult new territory. In 1997 the Department released the White Paper for Social Welfare, which signaled *inter alia*, a shift in direction towards “developmental welfare”, meaning assisting people to help themselves out of poverty. Thus the renamed Department of Social Development sought to move beyond its traditional mandate of distributing social security grants and providing social welfare services, to assisting low-income groups develop income-generating projects. It was laudable, but its staff lacked the management capacity and skills to do this (Everatt, Khumalo & Zulu, 2001, in Aliber 2001, 18), and seemingly the poverty relieving achievements to date have been modest.

The problem of lack of capacity has been exacerbated by the common approach whereby assistance for income-generating projects is only available to people who have formed
themselves into groups. For this reason, it is doubtful whether GEAR has been instrumental in re-directing government departments towards poverty alleviation. While existing literature in South Africa has been essentially critical of the Anti-Poverty strategy (APS), the concept of reverse empowerment has not been applied before in assessing the impact potential of any government programme and or strategy. Empowerment is generally understood to refer to actions, policies, strategies, programmes or projects that positively enable communities to take control of their destiny. Empowerment is positive because it increases the cumulative capabilities of communities in playing a direct and active role in their own development. Reverse empowerment, as a concept, is used to refer to a set of conditions triggered by policy interventions where the outcomes are contrary to the stated objectives of such interventions.

In this study, it is used in a narrow sense to focus on the plight of the masses of the poor caught in a scenario where a specific antipoverty is in theory implemented to enable such people to escape from poverty.

**2.13 Proper strategies to deal with poverty**

Given the multi-faces and dimensions of poverty, there is neither a single entity nor approach that can fully address the South African poverty challenge. At the core of the strategy of fighting poverty should be mechanisms that will undo the structural walls, perpetuating Black poverty and inequalities. Such a strategy should spell out how disadvantaged groups will be able to take full use of opportunities those policies like Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) seek to afford. Answers to how women and the youth can be equal participators in the country’s economy need to be strategically answered. In order for poverty to be tackled effectively the challenge of poverty should be understood from the poor themselves and be addressed with them and not for them.
2.13.1. Community development

As the title indicates, the emphasis in this section falls on the development of the inhabitants of a local community. The community is usually thought of as being rural in nature. Community development is also practiced in urban areas and in this context it is usually referred to as neighborhood development or organisation. Much stress is laid on the broad participation of a wide range of people at the local level (preferably 100%). Democratic decision-making is emphasised in that the members are responsible for determining the goal of the project, as well as strategies to achieve those goals. The approach is one of working directly with the people and is concerned with their total needs. Working with power structures and decision-makers in the community is not excluded, since community development all too often requires help from outside the community in order to foster development. This approach has self-help at its Centre; the aim being to foster self-reliance among the participants so that poverty will be reduced and with it a lesson will be learnt of dependency on outside resources such as migratory labour and social security.

Consensus as the means of achieving the aim is considered important (McKendrick, 1990: 110). According to McKendrick (1990: 111), the wide variety of approaches to community development can be seen in the strategies which can be employed to promote change, self-help and technical assistance and reduce conflict.

Self-help is an educational and empowering process in which people, in partnership with each other and with those able to assist them, identify problems and needs, mobilise resources and assume responsibility themselves to plan, manage, control and assess the individual and collective actions that they themselves decide upon. This strategy most clearly typifies community development. It focuses on people and is process-oriented. The assumption is that by working together people can improve their situation. The self-help theme assists other people in learning how to handle their problems. The achievement of goals is largely incidental to the long-range implication of teaching people to improve their situation. The process is seen to strengthen the community’s

Technical assistance, which is a long-held realisation in community development, is that without external aid self-help efforts all too often can amount to no more than a therapeutic exercise that falls short of raising the standard of living of the community. A disadvantage of the strategy of technical assistance is that community workers can find themselves working for, rather than with, people. A motivation for this strategy is that if people will not, or cannot, help them, and then technical assistance can do it. This strategy is closely related to a planning orientation and has been associated with success insofar as community development relates to task goals. Christenson, cited by Mckendrick (1990: 113), states that technical assistance may have had a more lasting impact than either the self-help or conflict strategies combined (Christenson and Robertson; 1980: 45), cited by Mckendrick. To be sure, in projects such as bridge-building, stimulating economic development, establishing health centers and creating jobs, the impact on the community can be significant.

Participation helps to mobilise people to participate in development efforts or projects. Therefore it is important that we have a clear view of what participation really means. We cannot mobilise people for a limited time or prescribed time. Participation should not be about involving people because that would mean that they were allowed in under certain conditions, but if they participate they must do so fully, in all aspects of the projects. That would mean they become part of the implementation of the whole project and on its evaluation.

If necessary, they must be a part in such a way that they can even take decisions regarding the future of the project. The people living in poverty are the ones who have knowledge about the community, the resources available and the community dynamics as a whole, which outsiders do not know. This is why it is so important that they are part of the local projects. If the local people are not made part of the projects then the project is
in danger of failing. It must not be forgotten that it is their democratic right to participate, especially because the poor often do not benefit from the fruits of their hard labour.

According to the IMFO Conference on Poverty Alleviation by Local Government: are we doing enough? (2009: 29) (Paper delivered by Krish Kumar –Deputy City Manager: Treasury, EThekwini Municipality) municipalities should promote labour-intensive industries, where artisan’s skills are required. (For example, when we attract industries, such as motor industries, we must ensure that there is at least one assembly line in our cities to ensure job creation.

However, in the current economic conditions, this will be difficult to achieve. Furthermore, the primary responsibilities of municipalities are to create a conducive environment for business to grow and create more jobs. With globalisation, we have to ensure that our companies are globally competitive. We need to provide them with a competitive advantage, by keeping their costs of doing business in cities to a minimum. Ultimately it is these companies that will provide people with jobs and help take them out of poverty, but we have a very important role to play.

2.14 Nkandla Municipal strategies to alleviate poverty

The following multi-sectoral strategies have been highlighted by Nkandla Municipality Local Economic Development document as essential in addressing challenges in relation to poverty, with the key issues identified through consultation with the community and relevant stakeholders. These strategies will provide a tool for urban management and set a framework for the transformation of the Nkandla municipal area. The development strategies are as practical and as simple as possible, to allow for innovation and creative solutions. Based upon these strategies, detailed action plans and projects can be formulated.

Strategy 1: Manage the natural environment and preserve ecosystems

The area is richly endowed with natural assets, including open space, natural water bodies and natural vegetation. It needs to be ensured that opportunities for tourism development
are created through the preservation of ecosystems. An environmental management plan will be required for the preservation of ecosystems and to preserve ecologically valuable areas and restore degraded areas and to motivate for funding for this cause.

**Objectives:**

- Identify special focus areas for conservation, such as the Nkandla Forest Reserve, Nsuze River Gorge, Qudeni Forest and the Tugela River and areas in need of rehabilitation, including over-utilised grazing areas.
- Proper management of open space areas within Nkandla town, which involves clearing litter to enhance the aesthetic image of the town, thereby attracting economic investment.
- Education of local communities in the type of natural resources that should be harvested for firewood, building materials and medical purposes.
- Identify an open space corridor that serves to link ecologically valuable areas, such as the aforementioned special focus areas.
- Inform people on the appropriate utilisation of water resources, particularly rivers, which are increasingly plagued by pollution.

**Strategy 2: Promote economic development**

There is a need to explore the latent economic potential in the Nkandla municipal area, concentrating on local economic development, so that communities may benefit from opportunities which are generated. This potential lies in the development of the business sector and the development of agriculture and tourism. This strategy involves supporting existing economic development, despite its limited nature, and promoting economic diversification. One of the objectives of this strategy is to address the high levels of poverty and unemployment in the area; employment intensive activities need to be promoted. This could be achieved through the promotion of manufacturing and light industry.

**Strategy 3: Provide basic infrastructure and services**

The important aim is to provide a basic level of services (such as water and electricity) to all the settlements in the area, in support of future economic development. Therefore,
there is a need to extend infrastructure and service provision, not only to those areas of greatest need (particularly rural areas), but also to those areas where economic potential will be promoted (e.g. Nkandla town). The provision of social and physical infrastructure has to be both financially affordable and technically sound.

**Objectives:**

- The provision of potable water to meet RDP requirements, which stipulate that less dense settlements, should have access to a minimum of 10 liters of water per person per day. Moderately dense settlements should have a minimum of 25 liters of water per person per day, which is to be provided by small reticulation systems.
- Upgrading of existing boreholes and searching for alternative locations for further boreholes.
- Water and electricity supply to Nkandla town needs to be upgraded and extended to provide for both present and future development needs.
- The construction of dams to facilitate irrigation in rural areas needs to be addressed.
- The open drain storm-water system needs to be upgraded, in order to control flooding and erosion.
- The possibility of a water-borne sewerage system being introduced into the town requires investigation.
- The need for recreational and sporting facilities needs to be assessed.

**Strategy 4: The establishment of an efficient transport system**

This strategy is necessary to improve permeability, facilitate access to amenities and contribute to the economic development of the area. Currently, road access to Nkandla is limited and this hampers economic development.
Objectives

- Rural and urban mobility and accessibility needs to be enhanced by the upgrading of the main road between Nkandla and Kranskop on the Nsuze River and between the Nkandla Forest and Fort Louis.
- The bridge on the road between Nkandla and Kranskop on the Nsuze River requires upgrading.
- The construction of interior secondary roads needs to be investigated, to reduce the remoteness of rural areas and to enhance the community’s access to services provided by the primary node in the area, Nkandla town.

Strategy 5: Provide sufficient healthcare and educational facilities

The provision of total living environments entails adequately providing for the educational and healthcare needs of residents. Current capital projects and their location need to be considered before new projects are proposed.

Objectives:

- Provide tertiary training facilities in the area, particularly in Nkandla town.
- Construct educational classrooms to increase capacity at existing schools before new schools are constructed.
- Provide adequate infrastructure at schools, e.g. water, electricity and sanitation.
- Investigate the provision of clinics (both mobile and stationary).
- Provide sufficient infrastructure, e.g. shelter for mobile clinic stopping points.

Strategy 6: Deal with the HIV/AIDS epidemic in the area

As HIV/AIDS is a pertinent social issue with economic, social and planning implications for the Nkandla municipal areas, appropriate measures need to be taken to combat the disease and care for infected people.
Objectives:

- Community and social facilities need to be located within reasonable proximity of infected communities.
- The layout of future housing developments needs to be reconsidered, to promote micro-communities.
- Recognise the need for home-based income-earning opportunities.
- An HIV/AIDS counseling centre should be established (possibly in conjunction with existing clinics and/or hospitals in the area), to better inform communities about this disease and thereby facilitate prevention.

Strategy 7: Provide adequate land and housing

Objectives:

- New housing projects should be located within the primary, secondary or tertiary nodes to make effective use of existing services and economic opportunities.
- Rural housing projects should target existing residential development in and around secondary and tertiary nodes and densely settled rural areas.
- Upgrading of land tenure rights projects should be focused on existing and emerging settlements, where the communities require security of tenure for development purposes.
- Emerging farmers should be encouraged to make use of the Land Distribution for Agricultural Development (ILRAD) Programme of the Department of Land Affairs. Areas with high agricultural potential and with access to markets should be prioritized for ILRAD projects as with high agricultural potential and with access to markets should be prioritised for Integrated Land Rural Agricultural Development projects.
- Household food security programmes should be linked to existing settlements, particularly in underdeveloped areas.
- Dispersed settlements should be encouraged, although the provision of basic needs to existing settlements should be met.
• The various land reform programmes offered by the Department of Land Affairs have wide applicability and should be used to meet the land needs of the communities throughout Nkandla.

The sustainable development perspective is that there continues to be a conspicuous absence of an overarching poverty reduction strategy, in particular one that marries content with a practicable implementation plan.

2.15. Progress since 1994 in terms of community development initiatives

If one takes cognisance of the fact that the current government inherited an apartheid state machinery, which had been set up, on the one hand, to provide quality services for a privileged minority of the population, and on the other, to ensure deliberate, systematic underdevelopment of the majority of South Africans (Pillay, 2000), general wisdom would suggest that fulfilling these promises was, and is still, never going to be an easy task.

However, as has been alluded to in the above quote, a deeper understanding of the underlying roots and causes of poverty, as well as circumstances that aggravate this phenomenon within and outside the South African economy, can be of great help in this regard. Such an understanding can go a long way in assisting the policy authorities, by providing them with a point of departure for the design of effective policy programmes aimed at enhancing the lives of the poor. In this context, this chapter therefore seeks to discuss the theoretical and empirical determinants of poverty that are of particular relevance to South Africa.

According to INFO Conference (2009:26), significant progress has been made in transforming our economy and society since 1994:

• South Africa had the longest economic growth and expansion period recorded in South African history. From 1994 to 2003 the economy grew at an average of 3% to 5% per annum. The country’s investment as a share of GDP (Gross
Domestic Product) rose from 15% in 2002 to more than 22% by 2008. However, the current global economy meltdown has led to negative growth, but this affected the whole world and not South Africa alone.

- Unemployment has decreased from 31% in 2003 to 23% in 2007. It was 23.6% in 2009, using the official narrow definition. This was translated into 500 000 new jobs being created annually since 2004. However, unemployment remains unacceptably high, not only in South Africa, but globally.
- Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) coverage has been expanded to include nearly a million domestic workers and farm workers. Access to social grants has massively increased, from three million people in 1997 to 12.5 million in 2008, eight million of whom are children under 14 years of age.
- 3.1 million subsidised houses were built, including 2.7 million houses, giving shelter to an additional 14 million people. In 2007, over 70% of South Africans lived in formal houses.
- Eighteen point seven million (18.7 million) people have access to clean water and 10.9 million are provided with sanitation. The number of households with the bucket system decreased from 605 675 in 2004 to 113 085 in 2007.
- The expansion of electricity has reached 80% of the population.
- In health, progress has been recorded through the expansion of free primary health care. The Anti-Retroviral (ARV) treatment programme was rolled out, with more than 480 000 people enrolled in 2007.
- Although education is not a local government function, it is closely linked to the issue of employment and poverty. In this regard, access to primary and secondary schooling has reached near-universal enrolment, with the participation of girls being the highest in the world.

A total of 98% of children aged from seven to 15 years are enrolled in schools; 88% for six-year-olds; and participation rate for children in early childhood development aged four and five (grade R), has now reached 70%. The mass literacy campaign is now
covering more than 500,000 of people who could not read or write. We are well within our target to ensure South Africa is free of illiteracy by 2014.

In order for the government to make possible these achievements (which no doubt still need improvement) there are various strategies that the government has to adopt. Three out of five types of government initiatives (programmes), which were supposed to have a direct bearing on poverty and sustainable development, will be discussed here: Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy (GEAR) and the Public Works Programme.

**2.16. The consequences of poverty alleviation approach in the provincial Department of Social Development**

2.16.1. The community individuals lack commitment to endeavours, due to their lack of direct interest in the ownership thereof, to ensure accrual of direct benefits thereto, within the community.

2.16.2. The endeavors are facilitated from the service providers’ perspective and not from that of the community.

2.16.3. The projects’ and programmes’ impact on the target population, are not properly monitored and evaluated.

2.16.4 The services to the projects are fragmented and duplicated, and do not enable them to holistically succeed.

**2.17 Summary**

It is clear from the above discussion that poverty is a very wide concept, with far-reaching effects on the individual, community and society as a whole. It is not a new issue, but originates from the policies and legislation of the past government and cannot be dealt with over-night. Therefore poverty is both a cause and a symptom and its effects are serious.
Therefore, in eradicating poverty, and in response to community development efforts, the government should adopt a developmental strategy in which disadvantaged people will be equipped with some skills, empowering them through self-help projects, helping them to account for their lives, not to depend on external aid and to inculcate a sense of responsibility over resources in order to be self-reliant. There should be more structures in place to deal with corruption at all levels. To sum up, it is suggested that attitudinal and behavioural change is essential to both the consumer group and the service provider, because they are responsible for the poverty experienced by the poor.

The researcher applauds the government for taking the initiative in formulating policies that encourage equality in the redistribution of resources, but working together in eradicating poverty is the responsibility of all. More importantly, it is hoped that the socio-economic challenges which are highlighted here in this study will be taken seriously by policy makers and used as valued contribution not only to policy making but that they may be implemented as well. Poverty remains a challenge in South Africa and it takes a racial, gender, spatial and demographic interpretations. The majority Blacks remain in the poor category, with women and youth being the worst affected.

The fight against poverty since the drawing of the RDP has failed to address the enduring legacies of apartheid. The efforts to undo the past ills has only seen a handful Blacks aiding the minority White Capital maintain their economic dominance and privileges. The neo-liberal policies have not helped dent the status quo with the developmental elements achieving no satisfactory results. The poor’s move out of poverty is made difficult by the poor kind of education they can access which traps them perpetually in the zone of lack and vulnerability.

The study has noted with concern the articulation of intents in most policies which never turn into practical strategies that can lead to the realisation of such intents. Improving the quality of education should not just end in talks but practical steps need to be taken to
ascertain that all South Africans have access to relevant education and training. It is not enough to acknowledge the effects of apartheid but action is required.

The study argues for a genuine commitment to address the structural legacies that have served to maintain high levels of inequality. This will take effectiveness on the part of government to prioritise both redistribution and growth and partner the poor in their efforts to construct a people-led development. The government should not prioritise the interest of business at the expense of the poor. Instead, a healthy balance has to be stricken which upholds inclusive development.
CHAPTER THREE

3. Community Profile

3.1. Introduction
The Nkandla Municipality profile as presented in this chapter reflects some of the major characteristics of the municipality. The municipality profile discusses the municipality demographics; this includes the population, infrastructure, the socioeconomic status of the municipality and general municipal services available to the community of Nkandla.

3.2. An overview of Nkandla Municipality Profile
Nkandla Municipality forms the most western local municipality (KZ286) of the UThungulu District Municipality (DC28). It is situated close to the country’s two largest ports, lying about 130 kilometers inland from Richards Bay and 250 km north of Durban. Nkandla Town, classified as a Rural Service Centre (RSC) and a Provincial Rural Administrative Centre (PRAC), is the only formalised urban area located within Nkandla, situated approximately 55 kilometers south-west of Melmoth and 60 kilometres from Eshowe. It is isolated from the major economic development corridors: access is via a main tarred road from Melmoth, and tar/gravel roads from Eshowe, Kranskop and Nqutu.

3.3. Population
Nkandla has a population of 127,451 as per the Statistics SA 2007 figures, which indicates a decrease from 133,602 in 2001 census. The households are calculated at 22,387. The gender numbers indicate that 57% of the population are females and 43% being males.

Nkandla is the sixth local municipality with UThungulu District Municipality (KZ286) in the North-Eastern part of the KZN Province. The District extends from the Tugela River in the north along the coast to the Mozambique border and extends inland to the Eshowe and Nkandla districts.
3.4. Poverty in Nkandla

The topography of Nkandla is characterised by slopes and hills which pose a challenge in accessibility and speedy delivery of basic services because of the settlement patterns. The main rivers running across Nkandla are the UThukela River which runs from the north-west to the south of the municipal area, the Mhlathuze River which runs in the eastern part of the municipality and the Nsuze River which runs from the north towards the south of the municipal boundary.

The municipal area is accessible via P16 linking Nkandla with Kranskop, Greystown and Pietermaritzburg, P50 linking Nkandla with Eshowe, Nquthu and Vryheid and P15 linking Nkandla with Melmoth and Ulundi.

3.4.1. The Economy

The economy of Nkandla seems to be controlled from outside as most of the people work outside the area and those earning income within spend it outside the area. The income sources are as follows:

- Subsistence Agriculture: 16%
- Informal Sector: 13%
- Local Wages: 0.5%
- Migrant Remittances: 20%
- Government Remittances: 50%

Unemployment is very high as it is estimated at about 90%. Although there has been a decline in the unemployment figures over the past three to five years but 90% is still high. During 1996, it was estimated that UThungulu region contributed about 8% of the goods and services produced in KZN each year. However, the average growth rate for the region was 3.77% per annum between 1985 and 1995. During the same period, Nkandla was estimated to grow by 12, 3% per annum. Despite Nkandla growing at such high rate, it remained one of the very poor regions within UThungulu. This can be attributed to a very low starting point from which Nkandla’s economy started. It can also be attributed to the
Nkandla economy being by and large dependent and controlled from outside. This then means that there is no circulation of the rand within the Nkandla local people. However, based on the available information it can be concluded that the economy is steadily picking up, particularly in the last five to three years.

3.5. Characteristics of the area

The region is beset by hunger, Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and tuberculosis (TB). The situation is far grimmer than is described in official documents. It requires a much better understanding of its severity, dynamics and solutions if the crisis is to be resolved. The locals, some hungry, thin and ill, speak with eloquence, dignity and clarity about their predicament. They are impoverished, but they claim to be capable and resourceful. Though struggling to survive at present, they are not dispirited, but they are determined to improve their situation. They know how they can get back to high ground. There are thousands of school children many of whom are orphans. They walk long distances to school. Hundreds go hungry and there is a lack of feeding programmes. Many will drop out of school. Others will not further their studies, because of lack of finance.

Food output is falling. Very few farms use fertilisers. People have only smallholdings and small plots to utilise. Soils are exhausted, with resultant poor yields. Households go hungry. If there is a drought, households face the risk of death, because of severe malnutrition. Chronic under-nutrition of children persists. TB and Human Immune Virus (HIV) are pervasive and not decreasing. Multi Drug Resistance (MDR) TB is on the increase. AIDS is ravaging the communities. There is limited access to ARVs. The number of orphans is on the increase. Remittances from family members in cities are decreasing. “The only thing that come back from the cities are half dead individuals along with their small children in the same transport.

The estimated numbers of people living with HIV/AIDS at Nkandla now exceeds 15,000 with almost 2,000 of those being children under the age of 14 years. All programmes and
projects should be sensitive to the impact on households and communities, which are struggling to adapt to the social and economic implications of this pandemic.

Health services are wanting. There is no tap water. The cost of doing business is high on account of poor coverage of key infrastructure such as power, water, roads, transport and long distances to markets and suppliers. There is no incentive in place to attract investment into the areas. Various barriers impinge on the cost of production. There is not sufficient investment in human capital through programmes of nutrition, public health, disease control and literacy. Budget votes on key infrastructure projects are being rolled over. Delays of such proportion only serve to entrench the poverty in the area and extend the suffering of the people.

The demonstrable lack of a sense of urgency on the part of some government departments is a contradiction to the pronouncements that emanate from our political leaders. Finding new ways to direct emergency help to the poorest of the poor is absolutely essential (MBO, 2006: 7)
3.6. Institutional challenges identified by Operation MBO

Despite the very high level involvement of the Office of the Premier, Operation MBO faced serious challenges in meeting the objectives laid out in August last year. Challenges that were recorded by the MBO Team were:

- Poor representation of some departments on the steering committee. Some departments that are central to development are not playing an active role on the task team.

- Difficulty in obtaining adequate, authentic and timely information and progress reports on projects.

- Lack of champions in departments.

- Poor intra and inter departmental (both in provincial and local government) communication and co-ordination. A deep-rooted culture of working in silos and in competition which slows and hampers progress in integration and co-ordination. Programmes do not complement each other to achieve expected outcomes but operate as standalone projects.

- Lack of clarity about the role and processes of the Department of Works as a provincial implementing agent to other client departments.

- Backlog of projects awaiting implementation by the Department of Works. This is aggravating the plight of the poor and retards the development process. Millions of Rands are unspent.

- Inadequate inclusion of local municipalities in district and provincial planning and resource allocation and sharing.

- Lack of community consultation at all levels of the project cycle.
There is also a strong geographical dimension to the incidence of poverty. Based on the same data set, 72% of all poor people (those below the poverty datum line) reside in rural areas and 71% of all rural people are poor. By most measures, the poorest provinces are those encompassing the most populous former areas, namely KwaZulu-Natal, where Nkandla Municipality is located, Northern Province and the Eastern Cape. This view is also held by Zulu & Mimili (2006) in the Nkandla profile of the local Municipality, where they indicate that the unemployment status of Nkandla is 93%, which means no income, and the dependency figure is 65%.

This means that high economic dependency predisposes Nkandla residents to poverty and hence inability to meet basic needs. Formerly part of the KwaZulu government, the Nkandla area is characterised by the demographics typical of an area with its history, high levels of poverty and dependency, a skewed gender profile, low levels of education, and a lack of infrastructure and resources. HIV/AIDS and political violence have impacted significantly on the area.

According to the 1996 population census, some 135 000 people live in the Nkandla district. Out of these, 57% are females and 61% of households are headed by women, probably as a result of migration of males to urban areas. Over 14% of the population is under the age of five, and 46% of the population is aged 14 years and younger. Nearly 6% of the population is 65 years or older; but 26% of all households are headed by someone in this age group. Four hundred and four households (2%) are headed by youths under the age of 20 (123 of these by youths under the age of 15). A total of 67% of the adult population (15 years or older) are functionally illiterate (i.e. have less than seven years of schooling), whilst nearly 40% of the adult population have no schooling at all. Less than 1% of the adult population have some form of tertiary education.

The economically active population (aged 15-65) constitutes 47% of the population. Of this group, only 6% are employed; 20% of the economically active population is actively looking for work; 23% of the population classified as “employed” work in elementary occupations. Given this situation, it is not surprising that income is extremely low; 74%
of all households earn less than R1 000 a month, with 21.5% of all households deriving no income at all. The vast majority of households (91%) live in traditional dwellings of wattle and mud.

There is appalling lack of basic services in the area. Only slightly over 1% of all households have access to electricity; 79% are reliant on candles for lighting, whilst 18% use paraffin. Less than 4% of the total population have access to piped water; 8% receive their water from boreholes, wells or rainwater tanks, whilst 82% are reliant on a river, stream or spring. Similarly, fewer than 3% of households have access to a flush or chemical toilet, with the vast majority of the population using either a pit latrine (50%), or no formal latrine at all (46%); 51% of all households have no access to a telephone, whilst fewer than 0.5% have access to a telephone in their homes (including cellular phones).

In addition to poverty, low levels of education, and few resources, Nkandla has inherited a number of development constraints, including a culture of dependency and apathy; gender discrimination; and marked social schisms. In terms of administration, Nkandla is made up of a number of tribal authority areas. This means that in many areas of life, people are subjected to the authority of the local inkosi, including the accessing of land.

Many participatory poverty assessments have found that a lack of particular types of infrastructure is considered to be a core dimension of poverty such as indicated above in Nkandla. Without adequate access to services such as water and energy, human health deteriorates and long periods are spent on non-productive activities such as the collection of water and firewood. The opportunity costs associated with poor infrastructure can include access to health services and income-generating projects.

The view above is supported by the Nkandla LED (2004: 27). There are very few local opportunities for employment and age/gender demographics indicate that many men have migrated out of the area in search of work in the coastal areas of the province. As in other parts of the country, this migration has resulted in a complex set of linkages between the
rural and urban areas, and many households experience a sense of “double-rootedness”, as their members migrate to and from urban areas. This migration occurs in response to strong rural push (unemployment and poverty) and urban pull.

The figures that were released by Global Insight in November 2002 put unemployment countrywide at 41.5%. According to their figures, the district with the highest unemployment rate in the country is Nkandla at 99.9%. This figure was estimated at 90.35% in 1996. These figures are talking only about the economically active members of the society. The following table represents the employment and unemployment figures per ward as per 1996 and 2001 census respectively. Included also is the percentage change from 1996 and 2001. Subsistence agriculture (maize, beans and vegetables, and sale of small livestock) generates about 16% of all household income in the area. The informal sector accounts for 13%, and local wages only 0.5%. The balance of household income is generated outside Nkandla either as migrant’s remittances (20%) or government grants (pensions and social welfare) (50%).

Agricultural projects include a large number of community vegetable gardens (DoA), a maize booster programme whereby 2500 hectares of land was ploughed in the Izigqoza, Mpungose, Mahlayizeni, Zondi and Ekukhanyeni areas (DoA), the Ntingwe Tea Estate (Ithala Bank), and the Nkandla Essential Oils Project (Ikusasaletlu Trust and IOTC).

Nkandla has two natural forests, namely Nkandla and Qhudeni which are of both historical and natural significance. There are two commercial plantations (Qhudeni and Nkonisa) which were formerly under the auspices of the KwaZulu Department of Forestry. The Qhudeni plantation services a nearby sawmill but Nkonisa has not yet been harvested. These plantations were taken over by the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF) in 1995. They are classified as B-Class, and are meant to be disposed of to community-business partnerships under the policy framework set up to privatise state assets. There are three ARRUP roads under construction at Nkandla, and the Vukuzakhe and the Zibambele Road Maintenance Contract System are both active at Nkandla (DoT).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Implication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cross-cutting socio-economic issues</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While KZN is the 4th poorest province in South Africa, rural municipalities like Nkandla suffer from further income inequality. There are very few local opportunities for employment. Women outnumber men, who have migrated out of the area in search of work in Richards Bay and Durban. The Gini coefficient of 0.58 is amongst the highest in the country, and the HDI (3) is extremely low. The average income earned by Nkandla workers is R400-R800 per month compared with R800-R1600 per month earned by employed people across the province.</td>
<td>Weighted deployment of UThungulu District resources to the marginalised local municipalities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The skills level at Nkandla is relatively low. The proportion of people over the age of 20 years with no schooling is double the provincial average. The proportion of people with secondary levels, matric and tertiary education is about half those achieved in the province. This also indicates that there is substantial shortage of people with managerial, business and technical skills to the cities.</td>
<td>An effective skills development programme is needed to create an enabling environment for LED.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a result of the low skills base, Nkandla has a particularly high proportion of people seeking work in comparison to those who are actually employed. There is a sense of hopelessness about obtaining work - the number of people in the 15-64 year age group who are not actively seeking employment is very high in comparison with the provincial and national figures. Unemployment will impact on crime levels, creating unfavorable conditions for further business investments in the area.</td>
<td>Partnerships with provincial and national government programmes must be pursued aggressively—notably the DOT broad-based employment schemes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The end result of these inequalities is reflected in household incomes. The average annual household income is R4800 to R9600 at Nkandla compared with R19200 to R38400 in the EThekwini Metro. More than 80% of households at Nkandla are living below the poverty datum line compared with a national average of about 50%. Households survive through adopting a key strategy – that is to obtain income from a diversification of sources. A traditional sectorial analysis of the economy will not be helpful. The LM must build household capital (this approach has been adopted by Operation MBO).

There are internal inequalities within Nkandla with indications of extreme poverty in certain areas (e.g. the southern regions). These areas are also poorly serviced in terms of protected water. However, health and education facilities appear to be fairly evenly spread - although, the available. Tensions between T/As exist as a result. The Municipality should identify the poorest and most isolated areas and deploy special up-liftment programmes in these wards.

### 3.6.1. Employment

The figures that were released by Global Insight in November 2002 put unemployment countrywide at 41.5%. According to their figures, the district with the highest unemployment rate in the country is Nkandla at 99.9%. This figure was estimated at 90.35% in 1996. These figures are talking only about the economically active members of the society. The following table represents the employment and unemployment figures per ward as per 1996 to 2001 census respectively. Included also is the percentage change from 1996 and 2001. Subsistence agriculture (maize, beans and vegetables, and sale of small livestock) generates about 16% of all household income in the area. The informal sector accounts for 13%, and local wages only 0.5%. The balance of household income is generated outside Nkandla either as migrant’s remittances (20%) or government grants (pensions and social welfare) (50%).

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There are three ARRUP roads under construction at Nkandla, and the Vukuzakhe and the Zibambele Road Maintenance Contract System are both active at Nkandla (DoT).

### 3.6.2. Infrastructure & Basic Services

Nkandla Municipality has an Integrated Infrastructure Investment Plan that guides the municipality in terms of infrastructural priorities. However, some of the infrastructure allocated to Nkandla is decided by the responsible departments. Funding for infrastructural development has been sourced from the Municipal Infrastructural Grant for the next three years as per the Municipal Financial Framework.

### 3.6.3. Roads

The state of roads in Nkandla is getting worse every year. This is despite the attempts by the municipality and the department concerned to improve the roads condition. These roads include the key roads in terms of access to critical services and stimulation of the local economy. The critical roads are:

- **P90 Ntingwe and Qhudeni LED node (26.9 km).** This would complete the linkage with the town of Kranskop and open access to Ekhombe Hospital and Qhudeni Secondary node.

- **P16-3 Ntingwe and Qhudeni LED node (44.2).** This will improve access to Qhudeni Secondary Node to other Northern Regions of Nkandla.
• P707 EKHOMBE Hospital and Qhudeni LED Node (25.9km). This will give access to many citizens of Nkandla to the Northern Region of Nkandla

• D1642 Amatshenezimpisi Guest House (8.3km) giving access to the Lodge and improve tourism

The African Renaissance Road Upgrading Programme (ARRUP) seems to be making a difference in Nkandla. However, the pace in which it is being implemented is very slow. This programme is currently busy with P and P50 that link Nkandla with the other service/ economic hubs.

3.6.4. Basic Services

There is a need to improve service delivery to Nkandla as a whole with regard to roads, electricity, and sanitation, refuse removal and water. Slight improvement is noted. However, there is an outcry in the community regarding these services. This was informed by community inputs during the community participation process for preparation of this IDP.

3.6.5. Water

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nkandla</th>
<th>37 596 Households</th>
<th>22 558 Households with water</th>
<th>15 038 Households without water</th>
<th>40 backlog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3.6.6. Electricity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nkandla</th>
<th>24 907 Households</th>
<th>1 732 Households with electricity</th>
<th>26 639 Households without electricity</th>
<th>97 backlog</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
3.6.7. Refuse Removal/ Waste Management

Service Provided to 1900 Households in town

The municipality has a waste management that was adopted by the council in 2006/2007.

3.6.8. Sanitation

Backlog = 72% as at 2009/2010 Financial Year

3.6.9. Housing

Nkandla is still behind in terms of housing, the only part that has benefited is the primary node (Ward 5, Nkandla Town). However, there are two projects (Qhudeni and Goodie) that are close to the implementation.

3.6.10. Education

Although the levels and quality of basic education are not up to standard due to a number of reasons, including the nature of the area, i.e. deep rural, a huge investment has been made in terms of the facilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LEVEL</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Schooling</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some Primary</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.6.11 Conclusion

The population of Nkandla is characterised by 57% being female and 43% being youth (younger than 20 years of age), extreme poverty with low average annual household income which is very evident in the living style of the local community members, high
literacy rate (50% of adults with no schooling), and high HIV/AIDS infection rate, highly dependent on government grants). Nkandla profile reveals that Nkandla is still behind in terms of housing, the only part that has benefitted is the primary node (ward 5, Nkandla town). In spite of Nkandla growing at such a fast rate, it still remains one of the very poor regions within the UThungulu District Municipality.

My point of view is that this can be attributed to a very low starting point from which Nkandla’s economy started. It can further be attributed to the Nkandla economy being, by and large, dependent and controlled from outside. This means that there is not circulation of the rand within the Nkandla local people as town development is very slow, forcing people to go out to the nearby town.

Another point of concern with regard to Nkandla profile is the Expandent Public Work Programme (EPWP) which seems to need special attention as it is obvious that this programme incorporates certain key Local Economic Development interventions at Nkandla.

The EPWP as a national programme should seek to draw significant numbers of unemployed local people into the sector of the economy, for them to gain not only income but skills while they work and increase their capacity to earn income.
CHAPTER FOUR

4. Research methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on research design, population, purpose of sampling, data collection method, data analysis, reliability and validity of the study, presentations of findings, ethical consideration and summary. The purpose of this study was also to evaluate three broad aspects in community development as a strategy for alleviating poverty in Nkandla, that is, the effectiveness of programmes that are in place, their efficiency in terms of community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty. Evidence is produced for funders of programmes to see if their money is being well utilised to meet the needs of the community in terms of poverty alleviation.

It was important for the researcher to know who the users of services are, so that the evaluation plan to be presented to the authorities after the completion of this study, can address the problem. In order to gain all this information, the main focus had to be on the research designs used, the sampling procedure tools for data collection and the method of data analysis.

4.2. Methodology

According to Mitchell (1997:129), methodology refers to the techniques of a particular discipline used to manipulate data and acquire knowledge. McKendrick (1990: 249) states that methodology is a formal application of systematic and logical procedures to guide an investigation.

4.2.1. Research design

In this study the researcher used the evaluative design, because the study was aimed at ascertaining community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty. A research design is a logical strategy to gather evidence about desired knowledge. It must be efficient, which means it must actually yield the knowledge sought; it should be the simplest,
cheapest way of getting the knowledge; it should be acceptable to the parties involved (including clients); and it should be as methodologically “tight” as possible.

According to Neumann (1997:30), “quantitative data method refers to the collection of data using numbers, counts and measurements of things and qualitative research basically involves the use of words, pictures, description and narratives”. The qualitative method should help the researcher to access the clients’ attitudes, values, beliefs and their perception towards poverty alleviation programmes and also to help the researcher to gain more insight and understanding into the problems experienced by community members living in a poverty trap.

The researcher believes that this method will help to get closer to respondents’ understanding and perspectives of the different issues of interest when it comes to poverty alleviation programmes. This method should provide an ideal forum for capturing and analysing information concerning community resources and practices, especially in the face of crises such as poverty. In-depth individual interviews were used to explore community members’ perceptions relating to the introduction of community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty.

According to DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree (2006) in-depth interviews are usually used by healthcare researchers with participants to give meaning to the events and to explore perceptions and experiences related to health and healthcare. The researcher believed that this technique could assist her, in particular, to gain the information that she may not easily have received without going into depth, especially because the community in which the study was conducted is still very traditional and illiterate. Quantitative methods should also help the researcher to use figures to easily present the data collected.

4.2.2. Population

The research population comprised Nkandla community members who are direct or indirect beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programmes. The population was selected not only to meet the requirements of this study but also for the service-givers (funders of the
programme) to provide a better service to the community that is overburdened by poverty. The community itself needs the results of this study. The population is the receiver of services. This population, which was chosen to be involved in the work to be evaluated, should be involved in deliberating on what is to be measured (the effectiveness and efficiency of community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty), why they must be a part and how and to what extent they must be involved. They will also need to know the end as well as the end result and how it will benefit them as a community.

4.2.3 Purpose of sampling

The general purpose of sampling is to obtain information on a small number of individuals. This information can then be generalised to the larger aggregate (population) from which the sample comes. According to Cooper and Schindler (2001:77), “A sample is a part of the target population, carefully selected to represent that population.” The basic idea of sampling is that by selecting some of the elements in a population, one may draw conclusions about the entire population. Cooper and Schindler (2001: 163) add that sampling is good for the following reasons:

- Lower costs
- Greater accuracy of results
- Greater speed of data collection and
- Availability of population elements.

The present study employed a non-probability technique, where some members were included and some were not. The chances of selection were unknown. This was achieved through purposive sampling. The population of Nkandla comprises different poverty alleviation programmes. The researcher selected a few members from a few projects, who are either direct or indirect beneficiaries of community development programmes aimed at alleviating poverty in the community. The results of this study were generalised to the whole population. The researcher did not use all the population that interested her, because it is impossible to conduct research on all of them. For the purpose of this study, the sampling frame consisted of 50 members of the Nkandla community who are involved in the poverty alleviation programmes.
4.2.4. Data collection methods

The type of measuring instrument used in this study for collection of data was the interview schedule. Legotlo (1996b) cited by Mokgosi (1999: 46) indicates that individual interviewing is the most common instrument for collecting data. The interview is a driver method of obtaining information in a face-to-face situation (van Dalen, 1979). The researcher is aware of the advantages and disadvantages of the interview. The researcher’s reasons for employing this tool in the present study are the following advantages, as described by Borg & Gall, (1989) and McMillan & Schumacher (1993):

- It involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals;
- It is flexible and adaptable, as it can be used in different problems and types of persons;
- It has control over the environment; there is assurance that the researcher and respondents will be able to interact privately;
- It helps build a positive relationship between the interviewer and the respondent;
- It affords the interviewer control over the order in which the questions are considered;
- The interviewer can record or take notes of spontaneous answers; and
- Questions can be repeated or their meaning explained in cases where the respondent does not understand them.

Like other strategies or techniques for data collection, an interview has some disadvantages such as:

- Its potential for subjectivity and bias; the respondent may be eager to please the interviewer;
- No standard wording; each respondent is not exposed to exactly the same wording
- Its higher cost and time-consuming nature;
- The respondent may be uncomfortable in the interview and unwilling to report feelings; and
- It has less assurance of anonymity.
The researcher chose the structured interview because:

- The structured interview is characterised by open-ended questions. This means that there are no restrictions on either the content or the manner of the interviewee’s reply.
- The structured interview allows the researcher to probe and go into more depth to clear up any misunderstandings.
- Co-operation and mutual understanding is possible between the researcher and the respondent (Cohen and Manion, 1989).

The interview schedule would be constructed in English and then translated into isiZulu and administered in the isiZulu language, as all the respondents had a low educational level. An interview schedule was used to probe both the verbal and non-verbal cues of the respondents and in order to give clarity where the need arose. The researcher used an interview schedule which consisted of both open and closed questions. Face-to-face interviews were conducted through semi-structured questionnaires to ensure flexibility. At the same time the researcher was able to observe and use her own clarification where it was needed.

The researcher consulted experts in community development programmes, and read documents and reports on community development programmes. This information helped the researcher to gain insight into the programmes that are made available for the community to alleviate poverty. Different departments such as the Department of Social Development, the Department of Agriculture, the Nkandla Municipality, Non-Government Organisations and others were used as key informants for this study.

4.2.5 Data analysis

Taking findings at face value can be misleading and even dangerous. Therefore, when analysing the findings and working out what they mean, objectivity and lateral thinking are required. The information gathered during the collection of data was analyzed in the form of statistics, tables, graphs and coding of data. Quantitative data contained in the questionnaire were analysed by making use of spreadsheets. Qualitative data gathered by
the structured interviews and face-to-face interviews were analyzed through a process of coding and categorising.

Content analysis has both mechanical and interpretative components. The mechanical aspects involve physical organising and subdividing the data into categories, while the interpretative component involves determining which categories are meaningful in terms of the questions being asked. Qualitative emphasis is on meaning rather than quantification (Milward, 1995; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Mechanical and interpretative content analysis, which involves physically organising the data into categories, while deciding on the meaningfulness of each category in relation to the question asked was done on the data that were collected from the structured interviews. From these categories meaningful codes were developed.

The data were collected, coded and arranged in a manner than could be easily understood by the reader which provided an interpretative dimension of explanation in the social sciences. Although the eventual interpretation presents an indication of the manner in which the events may be understood, as a process of resolution it is relatively easily accomplished when an existing theory is used as a form of a reference (Mouton and Marais1990; 103-104). Code classification was done using the research questions as a guide. Additional conceptual codes might arise from closer examination of the whole data set. This process allowed for the coding of material into analytic districts segments that were examined for interpretation and when drawing conclusions (Ritchie & Spencer, 1992).

4.2.6 Reliability and validity

The researcher’s main concern was whether or not the study would measure the validity that it was intended to measure. A major concern would be whether or not the measuring device measured the concept as it was theoretically defined. To ensure that the findings were accurate, the reliability and validity of the study needed to be taken into consideration.
To ensure the validity and reliability of the findings, the researcher used the experts in community development issues and those with relevant experience. The informants are believed to be reliable because they have experience in working with poverty alleviation projects.

4.3. Presentation of findings

Part of the findings of this study were presented in the form of descriptive statistics. Qualitative findings will be discussed. Conclusions and recommendations for further research or social intervention will be based on the results of the study. A report will be compiled for presentation to the public. A copy will be forwarded to the local government offices to make it available for the general public, especially those community members who participated in the project. The findings will spell out what procedure of data collection was used; and give clear answers to the problem under investigation. The presentation of findings will be based on quantitative and qualitative methods of social research.

4.4. Ethical consideration

During the interviews that were conducted, the South African Medical Research Council ethics guidelines for research on human beings were followed. Since it is the researcher’s responsibility to protect the rights and welfare of the respondents, the researcher informed all the respondents that participation in the research was voluntary. There was no intentional physical or psychological damage to any of the respondents. The researcher informed her respondents in writing that confidentiality was ensured and that there was no invasion of personal life. Even though the researcher had planned to discuss fully the issue of consent verbally with the respondents, informed consent letters were given to each respondent to sign.

4.4.1 Voluntary participation

All participants were informed about the value of the investigation, the procedure that would be followed and the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers that the research would involve. Respondents were able to make informed decisions regarding
their participation or non-participation. Their participation was voluntary. It was possible for them to withdraw from the research at any stage, if they wished to.

The researcher was aware of the aforementioned issues and informed the prospective respondents of their rights and position in the research during a preceding interview. To guarantee the scientific nature and integrity of the process, their voluntary participation was verified in writing and their participation or possible early withdrawal would be respected. A comprehensive consent form was developed and presented to each potential respondent before his or her involvement in the interviews.

4.4.2 Privacy/anonymity/confidentiality

All participants were informed that the researcher had an ethical responsibility to protect their privacy and identity. Privacy refers to personal privacy, while confidentiality refers to the handling of the information as private and confidential. Because there is such a high premium placed on confidentiality, the researcher had a written undertaking to treat the respondent’s contributions as confidential and grounded in the research.

4.6. Summary

Chapter 4 focused on the research methodology used in the study. The sampling method was discussed. The procedures adopted to collect and analyse data were presented and explained. The purposive or snowball method was used to gather data, which were collected over a period of two weeks. The chapter discusses the analysis and interprets data. The questionnaire used is the structured interview, which has an advantage for respondents who are illiterate. The research methodology used the research design, the procedures, and the data gathering techniques and the sampling procedure were discussed in detail. The researcher took notes on their feelings, observations and interpretations. The researcher believes that the present research will help to identify the gaps and make good recommendations for policy-makers, the community and those who implement community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty in Nkandla.
CHAPTER FIVE

5. Presentation of data and discussion of findings

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter extensively discussed the processes that were followed during data collection from the Nkandla Municipality. Hence, in this chapter the raw data collected are presented in details in a manner that will provide answers to the research questions in terms of frequencies, graphs and pie charts for the quantitative data. Qualitative data will be presented in the form of coded themes displayed in a table format and data elaborations.

Brink (1996: 178) states that data collected by a descriptive or qualitative research design, or from unstructured questions in other designs, often produce extensive qualitative data of considerable depth. The narrative strategy would be the strategy of choice for analysing the data. Data were analysed using quantitative and qualitative instruments.

5.2 Quantitative data presentation

The quantitative data presented below provide a clear picture of the Nkandla Municipality demographics as respondents provided their age, gender, educational levels, source of income, and the total number of dependents living in their households and wards they live in.

Quantitative data have one section which contains respondent’s biographic information. Qualitative data have four sections - section B, C, D & E. Section B contains respondents’ understanding of community development projects; C contains respondents’ knowledge of available resources in the community, section D contains respondents’ involvement and participation in the community projects, while section E contains respondents’ knowledge and understanding of the economic background of Nkandla Municipality.
5.2.1. Section A: Biographical information

A1: Age Distribution

Figure: 5.1.

![Age Distribution Chart]

According to the above Figure 5.1, the majority of respondents were between the ages of 20 and 30 years, as they constituted fifty percent (50%) of the total number of respondents. The table and the graph also indicate that this age group must have been more involved in community development initiatives and was part of poverty alleviation programmes. This indicates that the Municipality has more young people than middle and old ones. The next age group (31 and 40 years) was forty percent (40%), which was the next active population group involved in careers and in production. The last group, which constitutes only ten percent (10%), was the group between 41 and 50 years of age. It is interesting to see that both table 5.1 and the graph do not show that respondents above 50 years took part in the study.

The significance of age in this study was in order to establish whether poverty affects a certain age group of people, more than the other. These tally very well with the statistics shown earlier, that most of the Nkandla population consists of young people above 20 years of age with more young people than old one. Age was considered a key factor because it showed which age groups consisted of the study participants. In addition, age
somewhat revealed the general age group distribution that made up the majority of the population that development initiatives could be directed to.

What is also evident from the literature is that, due to their reliance on adults for provision of basic needs, the impact of poverty is greatest on the youth and adolescents. These results concur with the study by Whiteford and van Seventer (1999) who found that, in 1996, approximately 67% of the children in the age groups 0-5 years and 6-15 years were living in households that earn less than the Minimum Living Level (MLL). Similarly, Woolard (2002), whose analysis was based on the 1999 October Household Survey, found that almost 10 million (or 58%) of the children are poor (using a relative poverty line, which defines the poorest 40% of households as poor).

A2: Distribution by gender

Figure: 5.2.

![Gender Distribution](image)

The above Figure (5.2) shows that 70% of the respondents were females, while 30% of the respondents were males. This variation indicates that the municipality has more females affected by poverty than males. According to Local Economic Development (Sept 2004), 56% of the people in Nkandla are females, as opposed to 44% males. Many
researchers had found that poverty affects more females than males. This is the case in the present scenario. The area of Nkandla has homesteads that are widely dispersed and far apart.

In addition, the high level of unemployment causing many men to migrate to urban areas in pursuit of better life in order to provide for their families and the presence of many homes headed by females (some in the absence of their husbands) resulted in most of the available participants for the research being women the majority of who are young. In Nkandla there was a large migration of young men (mostly) and men in general migrated to urban areas to seek employment opportunities. Thus, there were a large percentage of females who are housewives in Nkandla. Rural people and rural women in particular, bear the largest burden of poverty in South Africa. The South African government has stated that if we change the inequalities and inefficiencies of the past, rural areas can become productive and sustainable. This, according to government, is possible by building local government in rural areas (Republic of South Africa, 1995).

Poverty in South Africa also has a strong gender dimension. Evidence shows that the poverty rate among females tends to be considerably higher than that among males. For instance, the 2003 Human Development Report shows that, in 2002, about 50.9% of the poor were females, compared to 45.9% who were males. Moreover, what does emerge clearly from the South African household surveys is that households headed by women are more likely to be poor. For example, 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) 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.
The above Figure (5.3) shows the level of education among research participants of this study. The majority of the respondents are 30%. This shows that this group lacks professional knowledge and skills necessary for better employment opportunities leading to better future. Only 20% of the respondents completed high school, and only 10% completed tertiary education, another 10% is in the process of completing their tertiary education, 16% has primary education, and another 10% had never been to school, while 4% never completed even primary education.

This indicates that almost half of the respondents work in menial jobs or as unskilled labourers, which points to low paying jobs and makes it difficult for their families to rise above poverty—related problems such as hunger and malnutrition. According to the operation MBO (MBO: 5) half of the population (50%) has no education at all and this pattern cuts across gender lines.

Approximately eighty eight percent (88%) of the total population is functionally illiterate since their level of education is less than matriculation. As a result, a tenth (13%) of the total population could be considered literate i.e. those having matriculation and above. It
could be deduced that a high illiterate rate could limit academic and career options for Nkandla residents where matriculation is required as a minimum entry level for training and employment opportunities. These findings are in line with those of Woolard (2002) who found out that 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. It is unfortunate that the phenomenon of illiteracy among poverty stricken communities still prevails.

A4: Source of income Distribution

Source of income

![Figure: 5.4](image.png)

The above Figure (5.4) depicts that most of the respondents were employed but not in professional work. This is revealed by the findings of the preceding table on educational level of respondents as it indicated the low level of education among the respondents. There are only a few that managed to attain high school education or tertiary education, meaning that they are not trained on any specific skills hence they are employed as general workers and community workers which do not require any tertiary training or skill. Only a small percentage of respondents are trained as professional workers, which
is a worrying factor and implies that in order to address poverty at Nkandla focus should be more on training people in different professional skills.

A combination of people who have never been to school, never completed primary education or below are standard eight and those who are not economically active bring the percentage of people with no income to over sixty percent (60%). This picture is confirmed by the IDP of UThungulu District Municipality 2005/6 that employment status of the Nkandla residents’ reveals that 93% is unemployed, and thus have no income, only 7% are employed-wage earners and 65% dependency ratio which means that high economic dependency predisposes Nkandla residents to poverty, hence inability to meet basic needs.

Apart from physical assets such as land, there are other non-physical assets such as education, health and skills development for employment. People living in poverty spend the whole day struggling to survive, so that working for their self-development through education, health and skills development for employment is out of the question. The condition of poverty in which the poor exist deprives them of exercising their legal right to education, health services, housing and employment, which are provided for all citizens in legislative documents in almost every country. Poverty, therefore, remains a condition from which people have to be liberated before they can make use of the opportunities for development, legally provided for the citizens by their governments (Zalewska, 1993).

According to May (1998), international experience of poverty alleviation programmes suggests that poverty is not a static condition among individuals, households or communities. Rather, it is recognised that, although some individuals or households are permanently poor, others move into and out of poverty. This may be a result of life-cycle changes, specific events such as the illness of a main income earner, or deterioration in external economic conditions.
These findings are further supported by Woolard (2002) that 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 in 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.

A5. Number of people living in a household

People living in a household

The above Figure (5.5) indicates that 82% of respondents are responsible for more than five dependents. This causes a great concern as it was previously indicated that most respondents are either generating their income from farming, self-employment or from government grants. The increased number of dependents can also be attributed to many factors, including death of biological parents due to HIV/AIDS and other causes leaving the care of their children to the respondents who are themselves earning very low.

In the traditional families the care of orphans automatically falls to the members of the extended families who often have no say on the placement of children. This implies that
respondents are carrying a very heavy burden as they are responsible for satisfying all the dependents. Foster parents who care for orphans and children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS are increasing. Most of these foster parents are grandmothers or aunts who fill the role of the primary role model for these children.

This is confirmed by the findings of Bradshaw et al, (2002) that traditional coping mechanisms of households are increasingly extended, as surviving family members attempt to perform tasks and decision making functions of which they have little or no experience. The study done by the World Bank in 1995, entitled “Key Indicators of Poverty in South Africa”, further supports this view that large households with many dependants are much more likely to be poor in South Africa. Significantly, this study found that the average household size among the poor is 5.9, compared to only 3.5 among the non-poor. Moreover, the dependency ratio (the number of children below 16 and those aged above 64 combined, divided by the number of people aged 16-64) is more than twice as high among the poor when compared to the non-poor (1.1 among the poor, compared to 0.5 among the non-poor).

**A6: Ward distribution under Nkandla Municipality**

**Table: 5.1. Ward distribution**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ward distribution of respondents</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward 1 – Gosweni</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 2- Ohlelo</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 3- Sdumuka</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 4- Ngwegweni</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 5- idolobha</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 6-Mahlayezeni</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 7- Nhlababo</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 8-Qhudeni</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 9- Mfongosi</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 10- Vuleka</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 11- Dlabe</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 12- Kombe</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 13-Tulwane</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward 14- Halambu</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.1 shows that the majority of respondents resided in wards 5 which is the town ward, next in line is ward 1-closest to town, followed by wards 6 and 10 because of boarding school facilities and the old age home near the place, ward 11, and ward 9 also due to boarding school facility, ward 12 because of the Ekombe Hospital where there are job opportunities, followed by wards 2, 4, 14 which are the farthest wards to Nkandla town.

Most respondents interviewed were employed as either caregivers in the community or childcare workers in a Child and Youth Care Centre by a local NGO. This meant that people who were employed stayed within or around Nkandla town or were simply job seekers. They could easily access jobs offered by the organisations surrounding town. However, it may have meant that they were not local people, but came to Nkandla for employment purposes. But, again, table 5.6 and pie chart may have indicated that people who resided in distant wards were not represented.

This may have meant that they do not feature in the job seeking competition or none are employed in the above mentioned sectors due to a number of reasons. One of the most salient facts about the poor in most developing countries is that they are disproportionately located in rural areas and according to Ravallion (2002) this trend is likely to prevail for protracted periods of time. The World Bank (1990), for example, also reported that, on average, in Africa and Asia, about 80% of all target poverty groups are located in rural areas.

Rural areas are mostly the ones in which state services are most often inadequate, compared to urban areas where there is less or no poverty, and where the services are not
as much needed as in rural areas but nevertheless are available. The poor standard of living in developing countries is usually manifested by the presence of those earning a low income, who tend to be in poor health, with little or no education, and characterised by a general sense of hopelessness (Motloung & Mears 2002).

5.3. Qualitative data presentation

This section contains qualitative questions that were aimed at soliciting the respondent’s perception of community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty in the Nkandla Municipality. The qualitative section was further divided into B, C, D and E. These questions are discussed in sequential form, and each section has a set number of questions. Section B has six questions, section C has two questions, and section D has three questions while section E has seven questions.

5.3.1 Section B: Community Development

B1: Perceived implementation of poverty eradication programmes in Nkandla.

Respondents expressed different views regarding the implementation of poverty eradication programmes in Nkandla. Many respondents expressed that the Municipality must first and foremost structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes in order to give priority to the basic needs of the community and to promote the social and economic development of the community. Respondents further expressed that this tendency amongst municipality personnel, to say they cannot implement certain programmes because of lack of funds while they do not learn to budget and plan properly in order to work with those limited funds, was unacceptable.

Some respondents believe that in order for community development strategy to be effective, there is a need for sectoral collaboration among stakeholders and to expose women more to different training workshops, where they can learn different skills, such as financial management, project management and capacity building in many ways. A comprehensive skills-development programme was recommended to ensure that local residents were equipped with water maintenance skills, farming skills, electricity and
plumbing skills, management skills, business management, block-making bricklaying, tourism management and marketing skills.

Respondents further said, apart from targeting the unemployed in general, priority should be given to the youth and to unemployed graduates, in order to create employment and business opportunities for them as emerging entrepreneurs, to provide services at the right time, thus reducing dependency on external service providers. The success of multi-skills development would require joint efforts of the state, private sector and civic society sectors, to avoid unnecessary duplication in capacity building endeavours. This would address the shortage of skills in areas where there is a backlog in service delivery.

This view is further supported by the Operation MBO Memorandum (2006) which reveals that in the 1996 population census, some 135 000 people live in the Nkandla district. This provides a clear indication that poverty eradication programmes are not that much effective in eradicating or alleviation.

**B 2: Perceived effectiveness of community development strategy for poverty alleviation**

Respondents expressed mixed feelings about the effectiveness of community development strategy for poverty alleviation. Some respondents expressed that community development strategies for poverty alleviation was not effective in the Nkandla Municipality because even though much emphasis is put on the participation by local community, but people are lazy and do not want to participate unless there is an incentive for it. Some felt that it did not work because decisions about community projects are taken by a few, very often by those in leadership, without listening to the view of the majority. They further expressed that the goal of the projects as well as strategies to achieve those goals and the beneficiaries are determined by the community leaders and Municipality personnel who want to take charge and make decision for the community.
Some respondents expressed that the approach of working directly with the people and with their total needs is often ignored. However, some respondents felt that working with power structures and decision-makers in the community is often not welcome by the community themselves due to political issues involved. They further expressed that for community development to be effective technical assistance is required as local community members especially in the rural areas, do not have skills and knowledge necessary for projects alleviations to be effective. They felt the strategy works but political barriers need to be addressed.

Mckendrick (1990) argues that participation helps to mobilise people to participate in development efforts or projects. Therefore it is important that there should be a clear view of what participation really means. Participation should not be about involving people because that would mean that they were allowed in under certain conditions, but if they participate they must do so fully, in all aspects of the projects. That would mean they become part of the implementation of the whole project and at its evaluation.

If necessary, they must be a part such that they can even take decisions regarding the future of the project. The people living in poverty are the ones who have knowledge about the community, the resources available and the community dynamics as a whole, which outsiders do not know. This is why it is so important that they are part of the local projects. If the local people are not made part of the projects then the project is in danger of failing. It must not be forgotten that it is their democratic right to participate, especially because the poor often do not benefit from the fruits of their hard labour.

**B3: Lessons to combat poverty in the community**

Some respondents expressed that many of the community members lack commitment to endeavors, due to their lack of direct interest in the ownership of projects. Others felt that if there could be monitoring and evaluation of projects and programmes by appointed stakeholders, including some of the community members, there might be some commitment initiatives. Other respondents felt that people lack commitment because endeavors are facilitated from the service providers’ perspective and not from that of the
community. Therefore, there should be a change of roles because community members, including their community leaders, often assume that whatever that did not come through them, is politically oriented. Some of the respondents felt that services to the projects are fragmented and duplicated, and do not enable them to holistically succeed. Therefore, projects and programmes by community developers from the community and outside should be coordinated.

**B4: The involvement of professional community development experts to help in developing the community**

Some respondents expressed that they had not seen community development experts come on board for professional help in terms of developing the community for more than two years. The feeling of some of the respondents was that this was due to the increasing number of identified welfare dependents which community development experts are failing to cope with in their offices. Some respondents had not seen community developers for many months, which is said to be due to the lack of self-sufficiency of a large proportion of citizenry, which demands resources on the part of experts if they come to meet the hungry community empty handed. Some respondents expressed that they had not seen community development experts for many weeks due to the increasing uptake of social security grants recipients waiting to be attended to.

They further expressed that this is due to community members who are not interested in meeting community development experts outside social security offices they rather spend their time waiting at social security and welfare offices for the approval of their social grants. Some respondents expressed that community development experts do not come to their areas due to lack of capacity to deliver services to the community they serve. Some respondents felt that they had not seen community development experts coming to their areas at all because people are no longer interested in the developing of their communities but are more concerned about the handouts. Therefore mental shift from welfare to developmental is necessary.
B5: Challenges that hamper the effectiveness of community development

Some respondents expressed that community development is hampered by dependency on government grants, orphans, involvement in high risk behaviour, drug abuse, emotional disturbance (if needs are not met), absenteeism from school (due to poor infrastructure in other areas), political intolerance among community members affecting community development and non-availability of training institutions all lead to family disorganisations and insecurity due to high crime rates, which hamper individual, group and community initiatives. Some respondents expressed that poor production from garden projects, caused by laziness or malnutrition and disease, can also result from the listed factors.

The lack of work opportunities and lack of financial means to further education was indicated by the majority of respondents as the challenges hampering community development. Some respondents expressed that people who were supposed to be active in production have to care for other family members who were sick. This was time-consuming and affects the amount of time the healthy family members could spend in the fields and it has negative psychological results on the already overburdened family members.

Some respondents felt high illiteracy level, lack of skills, illness and lack of infrastructure were some of the major challenges hampering community development. In other words this means that poverty is rife at Nkandla, as defined by the HIV/AIDS and STI’s Africa, (2007 -2011: 32) to encompass all these factors.

This suggests therefore that strategies to address poverty should focus first and foremost on the above factors. The common finding in the literature is that in South Africa, the majority of people living in rural areas are poor and the majority of the poor live in rural areas. Substantively, about 70% of people living in rural areas are living in poverty, compared to about 30% of people in urban areas (May, 2000).
B 6: Efforts by community members to overcome community development challenges

Some respondents expressed that in their communities, some of the community members have been empowered enough to do things themselves, especially with regards to inner power dimension and they do not wait for the experts to come and give directions as to what needs to be done and how. Some respondents expressed that whatever projects that exist in their area, they are understood as meant to revitalise poverty reduction programmes efforts. Some respondents expressed that in order for the community to deal with the challenges in their local communities; they come together and start small projects like funeral insurances or investing money with the Ithala Bank.

Some respondents expressed that for them they support any government programmes meant to develop resources. Some expressed that their communities were too poor to start and maintain any projects on their own, so they have decided to partner with sectors like government or non-government sectors. Some respondents believed that planning was the key to whatever they do successful. According to Mckendrick (1990), the wide variety of approaches to community development can be seen in the strategies which can be employed to promote change, self-help and technical assistance and reduce conflict.

Self-help is an educational and empowering process in which people, in partnership with each other and with those able to assist them, identify problems and needs, mobilise resources and assume responsibility themselves to plan, manage, control and assess the individual and collective actions that they themselves decide upon. This strategy most clearly typifies community development.

5.3.2 SECTION C: LAND DEVELOPMENT IN TERMS OF AGRICULTURAL FARMING

C1: The type of resources available to the community for an effective community development

Respondents expressed that they were aware of resources available in the community such as clinics, community halls, shops, cooperatives and human resource such as local
traditional leaders and councilors. Some respondents said they knew about roads, schools, community gardens and water. Some expressed that they had known crèches, electricity, halls, tribal courts, cattle deep. Some mentioned soccer fields, churches, and NGO’s, fields and skills development centres. Some mentioned community service centres, tractors, shopping centres, drop in centres, tarred roads, multipurpose centres and computer schools. They expressed a need to know efficient utilisation of external and internal resources.

C2: The institutions that are perceived to be responsible for poverty eradication in the community
Some respondents expressed that community development was their responsibility and they felt ownership of it. Some respondents felt that the government shared equal responsibility, as well as the Municipality and the traditional leaders.

5.3.3. SECTION D. Participation and involvement of community members in the community projects
D1: Participation in the identification of projects for community development
Some respondents said they were very highly involved in the initiation stages of community development initiative of their communities by being involved in the problem identification and need assessment of projects in their communities because they believed that assessment of projects relevance can help in organising local self-help schemes in their community where they come together and discuss problems which they may experience in project management. Some respondents expressed that they believe in escalating information to the community in time and to work together with the community leaders to bring development. Some respondents expressed a strong need to be hands-on, but they were not sure if they had been capacitated enough to drive any process without some government officials and the issue of sustainability remains critical. Some respondents felt that it is the right time for them to lead the process and take ownership of projects.
They further expressed that if people are involved voluntarily in certain projects where they have interest they can do well. Some respondents expressed strong beliefs that the need for long term strategy based on social inclusion and addressing capacity deprivation of the poor to make a significant impact on poverty extremely needed. Some respondents felt that the lack of formal financial service and institutional support from the local government and business communities were particularly seen as impediments to increasing rural enterprise development mainly for the poor.

**D2: Involvement in the implementation of community development projects**

Some respondents felt that they were hungry; the processes of projects implementation are often a waste of time since they took long and do not produce good results. Some respondents expressed that community leaders exert pressure on them to attend meetings but once projects are completed there is preferential treatment by giving tenders to the authorities’ selected ones. Some respondents expressed the need for more structures in place to deal with corruption before they can be part. Some respondents felt that they work hard to get projects going, but once the produce has been sold, the surplus is unfairly distributed to the working members.

**D3: Perceived benefits from community development programmes**

Some respondents expressed that the very poor people do not benefit because they are often shy to talk about their situation and expose their poverty. Some respondents expressed that the living conditions of the very poor have not changed; the substandard houses provided to the poor by the government do not change the lives of the poor. Some felt that there is a shift of mentality which wants to be on the receiving end, instead of (welfare) doing things themselves (developmental). Some expressed that the poor benefit a lot in many developmental programmes even by being motivated and having right aspiration but very often the poor are frustrated and disappointed in many ways when the authorities do not stand by their promises and deliver services and in this way they are easily compelled to give up.
5.3.4 SECTION E: Economic Background

E1: Description of the economic background of the Nkandla community
The majority of respondents saw Nkandla as a low socio economic background. According to INFO Conference (2009), significant progress has been made in transforming our economy and society since 1994: South Africa had the longest economic growth and expansion period recorded in South African history. From 1994 to 2003 the economy grew at an average of 3% to 5% per annum. The country’s investment as a share of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) rose from 15% in 2002 to more than 22% by 2008. However, the current global economic meltdown has led to negative growth, but this affected the whole world, and not South Africa alone.

E2: Challenges faced by community members in the poverty eradication processes
Some respondents expressed that people who are breadwinners and are poor are now infected with HIV/AIDS and are sick and are unable to provide for their families. They further said some of the family members are so sick that they can’t be involved in the self-help projects and they need to be cared for by others. Some respondents expressed that because of little or no education and lack of employment facilities the financial circumstances of the family members is unsatisfactory. Some respondents felt that the circumstances of some people are now beyond the individual capacity. Some respondents expressed that their community is faced with crime, alcoholism, unemployment, high illiteracy level, lack of skills, illness and lack of infrastructure.

These findings agree with those of May (1998) who states that international experience of poverty alleviation programmes suggests that poverty is not a static condition among individuals, households or communities. Rather, it is recognised that, although some individuals or households are permanently poor, others move into and out of poverty.

E3: Coping mechanisms used by community members who are experiencing poverty
Some respondents expressed that the coping mechanisms of households are increasingly extended, as surviving family members attempt to perform tasks and decision making functions of which they have little or no experience at all. Some respondents expressed
that many of the community members indulge in alcohol and other forms of substance abuse as a way of trying to cope with the day to day experiences of poverty in their own lives. They further said some opt for risk behaviours, such as child neglect and prostitution in an attempt to cope with the demands and need for food. The HIV positive patients do not comply so as to get their CD4 counts down in order to qualify for a disability grant.

**E4: The nature and extent of poverty in Nkandla as perceived by respondents**

Some respondents expressed that the nature and the extent of poverty in Nkandla is so extreme that there are thousands of schoolchildren many of whom are orphans without visible means of support. They further said that hundreds go hungry and there is lack of monitoring for feeding programmes by the government at the schools and at the end of the day the programmes do not benefit the intended in this case, the children but the suppliers and caterers.

According to the respondents, this leads to many children dropping out of school. Some respondents expressed that food output is falling and as a result, many people, including women and children and the youth suffer thus. Some respondents felt that if the economy of Nkandla wasn’t controlled from outside, as most of the people work outside the area, and those earning income within are spending outside the area, poverty wouldn’t be that bad. Some felt that Nkandla is still one of the poorest provinces, even though the president is from the area, with many people suffering from extreme poverty and other unacceptable living conditions. Moreover, thousands have died as a result of this phenomenon, thereby imposing crushing shocks and stresses on the livelihoods of those remaining behind. In fact, many households have ceased to exist because of AIDS-related deaths (Turner, 2005). Those affected households that struggle on, often headed by old people or orphans, typically suffer poverty because they are usually epitomised by insufficient capacity to generate meaningful income.
E5: The types of development community members would like to see in the community

Many respondents expressed that the type of development they would like to see in their community is to have infrastructure that could be used to deal with the problem of extreme poverty in Nkandla. Some respondents expressed that they would like to be able to access basic services, such as water and energy, since long periods are spent in non-productive activities such as the collection of water and fuel wood. Some expressed that they would like to see services such as income-generating projects in the area benefitting as many as possible of the community members.

Some respondents expressed that due to high level of crime in the area, they would like to see South Africans visible so that their income generating projects can be successful. Some expressed that Nkandla is an area of full wealth if the government can develop those areas within Nkandla with potential raw materials by allowing companies and firms to the area and strong policies regulating the Municipality to help people start businesses by supporting with material and non-material support.

E6: Improving the standard of living in the Nkandla Community

Some respondents expressed that the standard of living for the Nkandla community can be uplifted if people are educated about health issues. They further said that the youth need to be encouraged to go for virginity testing, so that there can be fewer sexual disease infections leading to HIV/AIDS new infections. Some respondents said that the standard of living for the Nkandla community can be uplifted if there could be a high level of commitment for both government and non-government workers. The ANC led government also inherited a country that was characterised by vast inequalities in the quality of education, healthcare and basic infrastructure, such as access to safe drinking water, sanitation and housing. For instance, while only a quarter of all Blacks had access to piped water in their houses, Asians and Whites had universal access in 1995 (Hoogeveen & Özler, 2004).
E7: Urgent support needed for the community of Nkandla as a matter of priority
Some respondents expressed that there is need to close the gap of unemployment between women and the youth by creating job opportunities by teaching people about organic gardening and to eat healthy vegetables, as well as to assist people to start small businesses by training people so that they acquire skills. Some respondents felt that there is need to educate people to take good care of the infrastructure and resources available to them. Some respondents felt that men need to be educated to discuss financial issues with their families as this results in poor planning if it is not done.

Some respondents expressed the importance of empowering and building capacity for people to do things themselves as the two are the pre requisite for people’s development being sustainable as one of the key outcomes of development. Some expressed the need to encourage people to attend informative meetings, talk to municipal managers to send tractors with seeds to come and plough, involve them in the co-ops, educate people on the use of soil, teacher on the importance of gardening, run workshops and encourage them to sell their produce as well, take care of the existing and new infrastructure.

5.4. Summary
Poverty remains a challenge in South Africa and it takes a racial, gender and demographic interpretations. The majority of Blacks remain in the poor category, with women and youth being the worst affected. The fight against poverty since the drawing of the RDP has failed to address the enduring legacies of apartheid. The efforts to undo the past ills have only seen a handful of Blacks aiding the minority White Capital maintain their economic dominance and privileges. The neo-liberal policies have not helped dent the status quo with the developmental elements achieving no satisfactory results. The poor’s move out of poverty is made difficult by the poor kind of education they can access, which traps them perpetually in the zone of lack and vulnerability.

Improving education quality should not just end in talks but practical steps need to be taken to ascertain that all South Africans have access to relevant education and training. It is not enough to acknowledge the effects of apartheid, but action is required. The study
has argued for a genuine commitment to address the structural legacies that have served to maintain high levels of inequality. This will take effect on the part of government to prioritise both redistribution and growth and partner with the poor in their efforts to construct a people led development.

The government should not prioritise the interest of business at the expense of the poor, instead, a healthy balance has to be stricken which upholds inclusive development. In a world where there is rapid technological advancement where production, communication and the whole array of other things have become better than ever before, poverty has raised its ugly head and created a gulf between the ‘haves and the have-nots’. There is a need for a re-think on the poverty reduction strategies and efforts given the poor performance of poverty alleviation programmes, despite domestic and global efforts to reduce poverty in the continent. Despite her status as Africa’s biggest economy, South Africa battles with high levels of poverty like her poorer neighbours. The dynamics of poverty and its manifestations as well as the complexities in tackling, are a mystery to be told to the generations to come.

The obvious expressions of poverty in terms of geographic location, like Nkandla and race unravelling the structural challenges of poverty to underpinning them are the main challenges for the whole humanity if poverty is to be eradicated. While the ills of the apartheid regime cannot be undone in a short time as highlighted in the National Development Plan, the failure of the government to deliver on some of its reform promises to give an impression that the ruling ANC has drifted from its original RDP focus. The failure of the government to meet its 30% agricultural land redistribution to Black people by 2014, despite the challenges associated with it, tends to cement such a view.
CHAPTER SIX

6. Conclusion and recommendations

6.1. Introduction

This chapter gives the conclusions of the study. The objectives and research questions are presented. Thereafter, recommendations are discussed. Nonetheless, the respondents are local residents in the area who knew the community very well even in terms of political issues. The data obtained were useful and did contribute to the researcher’s efforts to achieve her objectives. The findings of the study are considered, in the light of the research problem and the literature reviewed.

The researcher believed that the Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity provided a more sustainable framework for poverty alleviation in Nkandla Municipality by employing community development strategies. In the absence of a framework that guides the process itself, it does enable the Nkandla community, stakeholders and government departments to work in a more integrated manner to reduce poverty in the community. The researcher was objective about the research, as she knew they would value community development strategies aimed at alleviating poverty in the community.

6.2 Research Objectives

This study had six research objectives. Each objective is discussed separately below.

6.2.1. Objective one was to determine the nature and extent of poverty in Nkandla

The study achieved this objective and discovered that respondents were aware of the nature and the extent of poverty in Nkandla that it was so extreme that hundreds of its community members go hungry, including schoolchildren, and that there was dependency of government grants by the large population of its community.
Quantitative results indicate that only a few of Nkandla community members that managed to attain high school education or tertiary education meaning that they are not trained on any specific skills, hence those that are employed, are employed on jobs where no precise skills are required which is a worrying factor.

Consequently, an analysis of the answers from the respondents is that the Nkandla Municipality, in order to address poverty, should focus itself on training people in different professional skills. Respondents further suggested that if the economy of Nkandla wasn’t controlled from outside as most of the people work outside the area and those earning income within are spending it outside the area, poverty wouldn’t be as severe as it is. The quantitative results indicate that Nkandla is still one of the poorest provinces even though the president is from the area with many people suffering from extreme poverty and other unacceptable living conditions.

6.2.2. Objective two was to examine the coping mechanisms in challenges experienced by community members

The study achieved this objective because it has come out through respondents that the coping mechanisms of the community members in facing the hardships and challenges in their lives is increasingly extended, as surviving family members attempt to perform tasks and decision making functions of which they have little or no experience at all. Respondents expressed that many of the community members indulge in alcohol and other forms of substance abuse as a way of trying to cope with the day to day experiences of poverty in their own lives. Some opt for risk behaviours such as child neglect, prostitution in an attempt to cope with the demands and need for food. The HIV positive patients do not comply so as to get their CD4 counts down in order that they can qualify for government disability grants.

6.2.3 Objective three was to examine how poverty eradication processes are implemented in Nkandla

The study achieved the objective and discovered that respondents expressed different views regarding the implementation processes of poverty eradication programmes in
Nkandla. Respondents feel that the municipality needed first and foremost to structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes in order to give priority to the basic needs of the community and to promote the social and economic development of the community. Respondents agreed unanimously that policies and structures are present but coordination in terms of implementation is not there. The study further revealed through the respondents that structures work separately or in isolation in terms of sectoral collaboration among stakeholders and the exposition of women to different training workshops, where they can learn different skills, such as financial management, project management and capacity building in many ways. Therefore, the none existence or poor coordination leads to complications and duplication of services.

Thus respondents recommended that in targeting the unemployed in general, priority should be given to the youth and to unemployed graduates, in order to create employment and business opportunities for them as emerging entrepreneurs, to provide services at the right time, thus, reducing dependency on external service providers.

6.2.4. **Objective four was to assess the participation of community members in the community development projects**

The study achieved the objective because respondents were able to express their view regarding the level of participation by community members. Respondents said they were very highly involved in the initiation stages of community development initiatives of their communities by being involved in the problem identification and need assessment of projects in their communities because they believed that assessment of projects relevance can help in organising local self-help schemes in their community where they come together and discuss problems which they may experience in a project management.

Some respondents felt that they were not involved due to the lack of formal financial service and institutional support from the local government and business communities which were particularly seen as impediments to increasing rural enterprise development mainly for the poor, de-motivating them from participating.
6.2.5. Objective five was to assess the effectiveness of community development as a strategy in alleviating poverty in Nkandla

The study achieved this objective in that respondents expressed mixed feelings about the effectiveness of community development strategy for poverty alleviation. Some respondents expressed that community development strategies for poverty alleviation was not effective in the Nkandla Municipality because even though much emphasis is put on the participation by local community but people are lazy and do not want to participate unless there is an incentive for it. Therefore, as long as there is no incentive attached to a project, it does not seem to carry the same weight as projects with incentives attached to them. However, some respondents of the study felt that the none effectiveness of community development as a strategy in alleviating poverty is compromised by poor decision making of those in leadership positions by not listening to the views of the majority.

The recommendation made by respondents is that, for them, in order for community development to be effective poverty eradication should be the highest priority of the government’s efforts to build a better life for all with the aim of assisting communities in a range of developmental projects in order to eradicate poverty. They further recommended that for community development to be effective technical assistance is required for the local community, especially in the rural areas as they do not have skills and knowledge necessary for projects alleviation programmes to be effective. The study, therefore, suggests that community development as the strategy works but political barriers need to be addressed.

6.2.6. Objective six was to identify challenges faced by community members in the poverty eradication process

The study discovered that community development is hampered by dependency on government grants, orphans, involvement in high risk behaviour, drug abuse, emotional disturbance (if needs are not met), absenteeism from school (due to poor infrastructure in other areas), political intolerance among community members affecting community development and non-availability of training institutions, which all lead to family...
disorganisations and insecurity due to high crime rates which hamper individual, group and community initiatives.

Poor production from garden projects, caused by laziness or malnutrition and disease, are some of the listed factors. The lack of work opportunities and lack of financial means to further education were strongly mentioned by respondents as some of the main challenges hampering community development. Social ills and other related factors were mentioned as some of the hampering factors as some people who were supposed to be active in production have to care for other family members who were sick.

This according to the results of the study, was time-consuming and affects the amount of time the healthy family members could spend in the fields and it has negative psychological impact on the already overburdened family members. The study further revealed that poor infrastructure such as road maintenance (as better roads would bring job opportunities to their communities as well as crime), alcoholism, unemployment; high illiteracy level, lack of skills, and illness are some of the major challenges hampering community development. The study suggests that poverty is rife at Nkandla as defined by the HIV/AIDs and STI’s Africa, (2007 -2011: 32). To encompass all these factors, therefore strategies to address poverty should focus first and foremost on the above factors.

6.3. Summary of the study

Poverty Alleviation programmes referred to will find guidance as shown in this research. The researcher was successful in achieving the said objectives which gave new sight into the collaboration of different government departments and non- governmental organisations. The link between the stake holders and government in their respective roles was also established and uncovered through collaboration.

The situational analysis was done which was reported on in Chapter Three. The next objective was addressed in that the guideline was established for further collaboration between the stakeholders. The researcher is proud to report that the objectives of the
study were obtained through this research. All respondents spoke freely and gave a long list of suggestions that were reported on and proposed as recommendation by the researcher.

The above mentioned programmes should have been in place if the government of National Unity wanted to put proper implementations structures. It should be mentioned that the government did not do enough as it would have entailed certain change, the perspective of welfare as opposed to development does not work for people. It is the researcher’s contribution that the nature and value of programmes in South Africa are too overwhelming at the moment.

6.4. Conclusion

Looking at the population of Nkandla, compared to available resources, which are clearly shown in the social indicators, such as demography, it is seen that 60% of the population is above 20 years of age. Eighty seven percent of the populations are illiterate and the level of HIV/AIDS appears to be very high. It looks like HIV/AIDS took the community by surprise as many young people suddenly became sick and died. The real problem is that nothing prepared the community for the devastation and intense suffering triggered by the pandemic. Like the rest of the society, poor knowledge and exaggerated fear of the unknown hindered proper education response and generated conflicting reactions and contradictory messages to the community. Pressing needs drive community members into adopting incorrect coping mechanisms in order to face and deal with their challenges, in spite of all the poverty eradication processes being implemented in the area.

I believe that the community development strategies used are effective in themselves, but the main challenge is still to try to change the mindset of the local community and to change the attitude and behaviour of many people in order for them to move from the welfare to the developmental approach, if the strategies are to be effective. My conclusion is therefore that the government cannot do it alone. The main responsibility still lies in the absence of a framework which will guide the process itself by enabling the
Nkandla community, stakeholders and government departments to work in a more integrated manner in order to reduce poverty in the community.

6.5. Recommendations

It must be emphasised that proper guidelines should be put in place to ensure that household food security is the most urgent need to be addressed if poverty is to be reduced. Clear policies pointing in this direction should be well monitored and periodically evaluated. The establishment of Further Education and Training (FET) colleges in the area would help reduce the high rate of illiteracy. More skilled individuals and groups would be able to work to earn an income. Community members should be assisted with the running of their small businesses and be taught how to wisely use and save their money.

Given the findings of the study the following recommendations are made:

a) The study established that young people, especially the unemployed, are frustrated by the absence of clear guidelines to enable them with proper skills. This recommends that the community, as well as the municipality should engage on establishing a skills centre where young people would receive proper skills for uplifting themselves from poverty.

b) It was also discovered by the study that more services are being duplicated at Nkandla mainly due to lack of coordination. Even NGOs of the similar nature would operate within one communal area and that is unnecessary in a poverty stricken area like Nkandla. Therefore, community leaders, namely, political councilors, traditional leaders and church leaders must work together to ensure that such services are distributed evenly for all communities to benefit.

c) The study also discovered that more of the government initiatives are not supervised and monitored, even after implementation. This hampers progress in the community development process and the community suffers from insufficient services. Therefore, it is also imperative that community leaders work closely with their constituencies to ensure that community services initiated by
government are monitored by the community, given that government falls short of such policies.

6.5.1. Recommendation for future study

- In the rural Nkandla there is a dire need for a research on food security. As the nearby community will benefit from the education on how to preserve their home grown food. Small scale farmers will also benefit enormously from that initiative and the communities will understand the concept of sustainable development for future and growing generation.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Mbeki, T. 2004. *Address by the President of South Africa, Mr Thabo Mbeki, on the Occasion of his Inauguration and the 10th Anniversary of Freedom*. Pretoria, 27 April.


Appendix 1: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

PLEASE TICK THE RELEVANT BOX

5.1. Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Ticks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>4</td>
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5.2. Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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</table>

5.3. Educational Level

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Level</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never attended school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Standard 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below Standard 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completed High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete tertiary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete tertiary Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4. Source of income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Income</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government grants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self employed</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
5. 5. Total number of people living in your household

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<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 or less</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3, 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 or more</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

5. 6. Under which Ward of Nkandla Municipality do you live?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ward</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ward 1</td>
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<td>Ward 2</td>
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<td>Ward 3</td>
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<td>Ward 4</td>
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<td>Ward 5</td>
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<td>Ward 6</td>
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<td>Ward 11</td>
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<td>Ward 12</td>
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<td>Ward 13</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ward 14</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

SECTION B: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

5. 7. How do you think poverty eradication programmes are implemented in Nkandla?

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5.8. Could you say that a community development strategy for poverty alleviating is effective?
If yes, how and which are those effective strategies?

If no, what do you think are the reasons for them not being effective?

5.9. What do you think can be done to lessen/combat poverty in the community?

5.10. When did community development experts come on board for professional help items of developing the community?

5.11. There are a number of challenges in your community which can hamper the effectiveness of community development.

List all those
5.12. How do community members do with regard to these challenges? (Any special efforts or action taken)

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SECTION C: RESOURCES AVAILABLE IN THE COMMUNITY

5.13. What resources are available in your community for an effective community development? Please mention any five (5)

1) ------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

2) ------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

3) ------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

4) ------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

5) ------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

5.14. Who should be responsible for poverty eradication in your community?

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Municipality</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional leaders</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Each community member together with other structures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the above</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION D:
PARTICIPATION & INVOLVEMENT OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS IN THE COMMUNITY PROJECTS

5.15. Do you participate in the identification of projects for community development in your community?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

If yes, which are those?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

If not, why not?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

5.16. Are the members of your community involved in the implementation of community development projects?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

If not why do you think is the reason for the non-involvement?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
5.17. Do you think poor people benefit from the community development programmes? If yes, to what extent do you think they benefit, and the reasons for saying that?

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SECTION E: ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Please tick a box

5.18. How would you describe the economic background of the Nkandla community?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low socio-economic</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
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5.19. What challenges are faced by community members in the poverty eradication process?

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5.20. What coping mechanisms do you think are used by community members who are experiencing poverty?

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5.21. What do you think is the nature and the extent of poverty in Nkandla?
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5.22. What development would you like to see happen in your community?
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5.23. What do you think can be done to uplift the standard of living for the Nkandla community?
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5.24. What urgent support do you think is needed for the community of Nkandla? Please put in the order of priority?
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APPENDIX 2: INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

I Liobah Helen Sholiphi Maphumulo I am a student at the University of Zululand studying towards the Masters of Arts Degree (in Community Work). A requirement of this degree is a dissertation and I have chosen the following topic. Community Development as a Strategy to Alleviate Poverty. Please note that this investigation is being conducted as part of my studies and does not reflect any plans to harm the reputation of any individual or business. My contact details are as follows:
(Home) 039 727 3502, Mobile: 079 3177 190
Email address: sr.mhedwig@gmail.com

My academic supervisor is Prof. N.H Ntombela, and her contact details are as follows: 035 902 6658 or co-supervisor Mrs Ndlovu at the following contact details: 035 902 6657.

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of community development as a strategy to alleviate poverty. The researcher of this study has an expectation that the findings of the study would give an insight into the impact made to poverty alleviation processes as a result of adopting community development as a strategy and inform recommendations to be made to Nkandla Municipality as a local government, as well as to other stakeholders as they are in the process of alleviating poverty in the area using community development strategies. The study examines the effectiveness and positive impact it has on programmes and projects in place which are aimed at alleviating poverty at grassroots level in Nkandla.

Your anonymity and confidentiality is of utmost importance and will be maintained throughout the study. Your participation in answering the questionnaire is completely voluntary and you have a right to withdraw at any time during the study. I appreciate the time and effort it would take you to participate in this study.
Please complete the session below:

I ____________________________________________ (full names of the participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and that my participation is voluntary.

Signature of the participant ________________________________
Date _________________________________________
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Mbeki, T. 2004. *Address by the President of South Africa, Mr Thabo Mbeki, on the Occasion of his Inauguration and the 10th Anniversary of Freedom*. Pretoria, 27 April.


