

**Rethinking the Labour-Intensive Sector: The Case of Extended Public Works
Programme Employment between 2004 - 2017, in Capricorn District Municipality,
Limpopo Province**

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ABSTRACT

Within the context of the high unemployment and poverty rates in South Africa, this study investigates the best practices of successful Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP) in the Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. The aim of the study was to review three policies on employment and poverty within the context of EPWP. The study's approach to the nature of the enquiry was qualitative with narrative and content analysis to explore the collected data. The research design dealt with the total plan of how the study would be undertaken from beginning to end. Purposive sampling procedure was adopted for the purpose of data sampling wherein EPWP project beneficiaries were purposefully sampled from three (3) infrastructure projects within the Capricorn District, Limpopo Province.

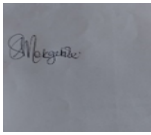
Further, the study sample comprised the total number of respondents who constitute this study; the sample was representative of the whole that was considered in data collection. Data collection methods were in the form of questionnaires designed and sent to the CDM officials coordinating the implementation of EPWP (EPWP Champions) within the respective departments that are currently implementing the EPWP in the Capricorn District, Limpopo Province.

The purpose of the study was to provide understanding of EPWP, help decision makers in policy formulation, filling the gaps in existing literature about EPWP and to make the unemployed more employable through offering beneficiaries temporary employment and training opportunities. In essence, the study will contribute to formulation of policies and implementation of programmes. Therefore, the study sought to find ways and recommend measures that would alleviate the twin scourges of poverty and unemployment, primarily within the Capricorn District.

Keywords: *Poverty, Unemployment, Extended Public Works Programmes, labour intensive work, Development, Extended Public Works Project*

DECLARATION

I, **Suzan Huhutu Mokgehle**, declare that this is my own work. It is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for a PhD African Studies at the University of Venda. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at this or any other University. All reference materials contained herein have been duly and fully acknowledged.



Date: 20 October 2022

SH Mokgehle

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the following persons from whom I draw my strength and inspiration:

- My Mother, Tryphinah Makapane
- My brothers, Thabo Makapane and Pillemon Makapane
- My Husband, Jacob Mokgehle
- My three daughters, Koketso Mokgehle, Basetsana Mokgehle and Gontse Mokgehle.

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- My brothers, Thabo and Phillemon Makapane who inspired me to believe that education is important.
- My mother Tryphina Makapane who showed interest and encouraged me towards completion of this study.
- My deepest sincere and appreciation goes to my husband for his support, encouragement and belief in my capabilities to successfully conduct this study.
- Gratitude to my daughters, Koketso, Basetsana and Gontse who inspired me to complete this study.

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

ACRONYMS	EXPLICATION
ABET	Adult Basic Education Training
AGs	Auditor General
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
CBPWP	Community Based Public Works Programme
CDM-	Capricorn District Municipality
CETA	Construction Education and Training Authority
CLO	Community Laison Officer
COGTA	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
DAC	Department of Arts and Culture
DEAT	Department of Environment affairs and Tourism
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
DOE	Department of Education
DOL	Department of Labour
DORA	Division of Revenue Act
DPW	Department of Public Works
DWAF	Department of Water Affairs and forestry
EPWP	Extended Public Works
ECA	Economic Cooperation Administration.
ECDP	Early Childhood Development Programme.
EIIP	Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programme

FET	Further Education Training
HCBC	Home Community Based Care
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HOD	Head of Department
HRSC	Human Research Science Council
ILO	International Labour Organisation.
KZN	Kwa Zulu Natal
LBWT	Labour –Intensive Works Technology
LIW	Labour Intensive Technology.
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation.
MIG	Municipal Infrastructure Grant
NQF	National Qualification Framework
NPWP	National Public Works Programme
NSF	National Skill Fund
NGP.	New Growth Path.
PPP	Public Private Partnership
PWP	Public Works Programmes
SMMEA	South African Monitoring and Evaluation Association
SMME	Small Medium Macro Enterprise.
SAQA	South African Qualification Authority
RDP	Reconstruction and development Program
UN	United Nations
IDC	Industrial Development Cooperation
NSF	National Skill Fund
SPWP	Special Public Works Programme

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Like any other municipality in South Africa, Capricorn District Municipality (CDM) is mandated to create work opportunities for its occupants. This extends to temporary employment in collaboration with other government between structures and private organisations. The government and its sub-sectors such as municipality often engage in various programmes which are devised with the intent to provide skills and short-term employment to the citizens of South Africa. One of these programmes is Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) and the Community Based Work Programme (CBWP), which are at the temperament of this study.

In February 2003, during the State of Nation Address (SONA) the then South African President Thabo Mbeki introduced the concept of EPWP (Du Toit, 2005). Former President Thabo Mbeki paved way for the launching of expanded public works programme (2003). Still in 2003, toward the end of November, the cabinet approved the programme (Du Toit, 2005). According to Du Toit (ibid), in 2004, Thabo Mbeki officialised the programme by launching it at Sekhunyani Village, Giyani in Limpopo Province.

It is vital to note that EPWP emanates from prior programmes such as “Community Based Public Works Programme” (CBPWP). Similarly, to EPWP, CBPWP was devised by the Department of Public Works between 1998 and 2003, and it was skewed towards the reduction of unemployment in South Africa. Despite its intended aim, CBPWP yielded limited results since not much on sustainable jobs was done.

This study submits that EPWP expanded from the “National Public Works Programme” (NPWP). To add emphasis, McCord (2005:23) explicates NPWP as “an instrument for asset and employment creation by promoting community based public works programmes and

increasing the labour-intensity of infrastructure programmes across all government departments”.

The current researcher observed that EPWP originate from Growth and Development Summit (GDS) of 2003. This summit comprises four themes, which are adopted by EPWP, some of these include “more jobs better jobs”, “decent work for all”. GDS is of the view that public works programmes “can provide poverty and income relief through temporary work for the unemployed to carry out socially useful activities” (GDS, 2003:34).

The programme is “a key government initiative, which contributes to Governments Policy Priorities in terms of decent work and sustainable livelihood, education, health, rural development, food security, land reform and fight against crime and corruption” (GDS, 2003:44). EPWP contributes to fourth theme, which states “decent employment through inclusive economic growth” (DSG, 2003:45).

Drawing from the above-said, this study reiterates that EPWP was officially launched in 2004 and it continued beyond 2017, and it is presently in implementation. It is a nationwide programme covering all spheres of government and state-owned enterprises. According to Du Toit (2005:33), the programme “provides an important avenue for labour absorption and income transfer to poor households in short to medium terms”.

“It is also a deliberate attempt by the public sector bodies to use expenditure on goods and services to create work opportunities for the unemployed” (Du Toit, 2005:33). EPWP has projects that hires employees on a temporary basis through contractors and external stakeholders of the government.

This was done with adherence to Ministerial Conditions of Employment for the EPWP or leadership employment conditions. The Programme is being implemented in a series of phases. EPWP’s commencement goal was to alleviate unemployment by creating at least 1 million work opportunities, of which 40% of beneficiaries would be women, 30% youth and 2% people with disabilities (Department of Public Works, 2005).

There are four factors through which EPWP creates employment opportunities, these are infrastructure, non-state, environment, culture and social, through:

- Increasing the labour intensity of governmental funded infrastructure projects under the infrastructure sector.
- Creating work opportunities through the Non-Profit Organisation programme (NPO) and Community Work Programme (CWP) under the Non-State sector.
- Creating work opportunities in public social programmes under the social sector and creating work opportunities in the public environment and culture programmes under the environment and culture.

South Africa is investing a lot of money in EPWP with the aim of alleviating poverty and unemployment. In 2004, the budget for the EPWP was R370 million and in 2017 it was R26 million, there was an increase due to increasing demands in economy. Given this context, it is important to look at the challenges in tackling poverty and unemployment.

The South Africa government initiated the EPWP to address the problems of unemployment, poverty and their challenges. Poverty remains amongst issues impacting South African society. Years of colonialism and apartheid have largely contributed to the prevailing state of affairs. Policies adopted in the past have created a legacy of underdevelopment in a number of localities that formed part of the reserves or homelands.

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF EPWP PROGRAMME

The Department of Public Works provides objectives pertinent to EPWP. The first of this is to “create temporary employment and income opportunities for at least one million unemployed South Africans” (Department of Public Works, 2005:22). A five-year period

was placed for the department to attain this objective. According to the Department of Public Works (2005:43), EPWP's four sectors were mandated to create approximately one million employments in their first phase of implementation.

“Labour intensive public goods and services” are entailed on the second objective (Department of Public Works, 2005). However, this can only be realised through assistance of public and private sector. Infrastructure sector is the most funded in EPWP, hence, it remains its most focused. The National Treasury is responsible for the funding of EPWP. According to the Department of Public Works (2005:38), Provincial and Municipal Infrastructure Grants (MIG) are granted under conditions of the Division of Revenue Act (DORA). The DORA states that all activities under the EPWP should be conducted through labour intensive methods.

The last objective is centered on the exit strategy of the EPWP. The programme seeks to ensure that at least 14% of the participants get permanent employment after leaving the programme (Department of Public Works, 2005). A provision of this is made through “equipping participants with work experience, skills training and information with regard to work opportunities in their areas” (Department of Public Works, 2005:34). Additionally, participants of the programme are afforded the option to further their education and training skills, which in turn will help earn them permanent jobs after exiting the programme (Department of Public Works, 2005).

1.3 THE EPWP COMPONENTS, FUNCTIONS AND PLANNED ACTIVITIES

EPWP has four sectors, which include infrastructure, environmental, social and economic sectors. All these sectors have functions and aligned activities to attain goals, discussed below in detail:

1.3.1 The infrastructure sector

Infrastructure sector requires labour intensive activities which includes “spreading, shaping, building low volume roads, storm water drains, chamber formation, loading, ditching, trenching, sloping, graveling and finishing and sidewalks” (Department of Public works, 2005:34). As alluded in the above section, the infrastructure sector forms the largest section of EPWP.

According to the Department of Public works (2005:35) it is envisaged that approximately 750 000 jobs would be created over the next five years, “it was planned that 37000km of roads would be built, 31000km of pipelines be laid, 1500km of storm water drains and 150km of sidewalks be constructed. The average duration of these project will be a period of four months which will result in the employment of 250 000 employees per year”.

The participants of EPWP receives skills accredited training funded by the Department of Labour (DOL) (Department of Public works, 2005). These trainings were NQF level accredited courses focused on labour intensive construction. The different sectors in the programme all have their own members of staff and leadership. Five hundred (500) consulting engineers were to be trained with the intention of implementing the “Infrastructure Projects Act” (Government Gazette, 2004). Additionally, 250 000 contractors were to be placed under “Construction Education Training Authority” (CETA) registered learner-ships to build the infrastructure by applying labour intensive methods as conditioned by the Division of Revenue Act (Government Gazette, 2004).

These training through learnerships “cover technical concerns related to labour intensive construction and maintenance of municipal infrastructure” (Department of Public Works, 2004:55). Additionally, they provide “training in business management, financial management and tendering”. After completing the learnerships, contractors and supervisors receive a NQF registered qualification, which makes them successfully tender for on-going or newly started labour-intensive projects under the EPWP or other initiatives. The

Department of Public Works (2005) prepared certain guidelines to be adhered to regarding the types of projects to be conducted as well as tender and design guidelines to help provinces and municipalities implement the proper completion of the projects.

These guidelines also entail “contractual agreements for the consultants and contractors who were designing and managing these projects” (Department of Public Works, 2004:56). This is embedded within the human resources required to execute activities under the infrastructure sector of the EPWP. The monetary resource for this sector includes R15 billion of the provincial and municipal infrastructure grants for the first five years (Heradien 2013). This represents one third of the national budget distributed to provinces and municipalities over the five-year period (Department of Public Works, 2004).

1.3.2 The environmental sector

The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism “has been tasked with coordinating and implementing the programme in the environmental sector” (Watermeyer, 2004:112). This is achieved through “subordinate programmes such as the Working for Water Programme, the Land Care Programme, the Coastal Care Programme and the Waste Management Programme” (Watermeyer, 2004).

The environmental sector of the EPWP intended to create 200 000 employment opportunities through the following programmes: the Department of Agriculture’s land care programme; the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism’s People and Parks, Coastal Care, Sustainable Land-based Livelihoods, cleaning up SA, and Growing a Tourism Economy Programmes”.

Department of Environmental affairs and Tourism Working for Water, Wetlands, and Fire Programmes Department of Public Works (2004). The activities in these sectors have a triple effect since they create employment, cares for the environment and thus contributing to a sustainable development as expected by the Millennium Development goals.

Millennium Development goals number one which is to eradicate poverty and extreme hunger hence EPWP (World health organisation, 2015).

The activities under this sector of the programme should result in 720 000 hectares of alien plant species being treated, 40 rehabilitated wetlands, 20 fire protection associations, 700 km of the coast cleaned and assisted with infrastructure, 10 000 hectares of rehabilitated land, 32 waste management programmes and 150 historical as well as community tourism projects (Department of Public Works, 2004). To realise these projects, government has “allocated R4 billion for the first five years of the programme (Department of Public Works, 2004).

1.3.3 The social sector in EPWP

The social sector of the EPWP has basically two initiatives, to attain its goals, the Home Community Based Care (HCBC) and Early Childhood Development Programme (ECDP). The Home/Community Based Care is the provision of health and social services by formal and informal caregivers in the home DOL, DOE and DOH (Department of Public Works, 2004).

The service offered by this initiative includes patient care and support related to HIV/AIDS and other chronic illnesses, identifying families and children in need, addresses the needs of child headed households, income generating projects, family counselling and social service advice such as DOL, DOE and DOH (Department of Public Works, 2004). In 2003, it was noted that there were 892 HCBC sites in the country.

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services by formal and informal caregivers in the home DOL, DOE and DOH (Department of Public Works, 2004).

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In 2003, it is noted that there were 892 HCBC sites in the country (Department of Public works, 2004). The funding for these sites comes predominantly from government and the rest from international donors or businesses. Each of the 892 sites serves approximately 1453 clients (Department of Public works, 2004).

The proposed number of personnel needed to attend to these sites is 31565 members (Department of Public works, 2004). Due to the financial constraints in this sector, more than half of the personnel are volunteers and do not receive remuneration. The plan is to involve 20 000 already trained HCBC who would receive additional accredited training and work opportunity on a full-time bases (Department of Public Works, 2005). Volunteers are also provided with skills- and learnership programmes.

They will gain work experience and receive a stipend. They will be able to exit the programme with an NQF level qualification and subsequently be in a position to find permanent employment with longer term income prospects (Department of Public Works, 2005). The programme is intended to result in 2.9 million people able to access qualified Home-Based Care services (Department of Public works, 2004). In addition, the Early Childhood Development sites and trained practitioners should service an amount of 400 000 children (Department of Public works, 2004).

1.3.4 The economic sector in EPWP

The Department of Trade and Industry is responsible for coordination and implementation of the EPWP in the economic sector (Watermeyer, 2004). The programmes related to this

sector include projects for small to medium sized businesses; entrepreneurship as well as community-based projects for new business owners (Watermeyer, 2004). The focus of this sector is more on creating own businesses and consequently creating jobs for others. The learnership ventures offered in this sector could possibly result in long term success for participants.

The activities in the economic sector include a micro-enterprise venture learnership project. This learnership entails selecting participants from the unemployed pool and placing them in a full-time learner-ship to teach and support them to eventually develop their own SMME's (Department of Public Works, 2003).

The participants will graduate from these learner-ships with the ability to manage and sustain their own businesses. In addition, they will have the knowledge and guidance to tender for public sector projects as well as an NQF accredited qualification with a credit record. The target for this sector has been set at 3000 venture learnerships of the first phase of the programme (Department of Public Works, 2003).

1.5 CLARIFYING THE LOGIC LINKING PROGRAMME OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

The EPWP has certain objectives to realise the ideals of reducing unemployment and poverty in South Africa. Structures and activities were envisioned to operationalise the objectives. This section discusses how the objectives of the EPWP were envisioned to be attained. The broader objectives of the EPWP will form the themes in this section in order to show how the components of the theory fit together. Participants are recruited to form part of a temporary EPWP project integrated into the infrastructure sector, economic sector, social sector and environmental sector of the programme.

EPWP created other employment opportunities such as the rehabilitation of wetlands. This ensures the delivery of water purification which forms an important part of the basic living

conditions of all South Africans, especially those in rural areas. Another initiative under the environmental sector of the EPWP is the waste management programme which encourages the collection of waste in return for food parcels. This renders a service to those living in dire poverty, providing immediate nutrition. In addition, it also ensures for a cleaner environment which means healthier living. It also solves the problems of backlogs with regard to the collection of waste by the municipality.

Other EPWP activities also related to the environment includes treating alien plant life and the cleaning of coast lines. Treating alien plant life consists of removing alien tree species which are considered to be one of the largest threats of the eco system. The EPWP has transformed this activity into an opportunity of employment and protecting the environment. The wood from the trees removed is proposed for use in woodwork projects and could be a business opportunity for SMME's EPWP.

The Department of Public Works, (2004). The entire process is labour intensive from the removal of the alien species to the building and selling of the wood works. In addition, the coast cleaning projects also provides employment services while ensuring cleaner shorelines and oceans which has positive effects on the environment and surrounding areas and their inhabitants.

1.6. TEND TO THE BASIC NEEDS OF THE COMMUNITY

The EPWP is a multi-faceted programme with a range of subsections from different government departments and projects. It stretches over almost every sphere of society from infrastructure to social, economic and even environmental protection and preservation. It therefore addresses a range of concerns.

It aims to address the state of infrastructure in the country while improving service delivery through public works improving infrastructure in rural areas in the country. It projects to deliver social services to children and those affected by HIV and AIDS through ECD and

HBC projects. In addition, the EPWP intended to create and develop SMME's as an initiative to invest in economic growth in the country. Improved economic growth would mean more work opportunities for the unemployed.

The programme offered participants a stipend which will allow them to meet their basic needs and relieve the impoverished conditions of one million participants by March 2009. It thus reduced unemployment by offering work opportunity to the unemployed and an income to those living in poverty.

Participants longer form part of the percentage of people living in dire poverty with no income. The programmes' strategy poses the challenge of finding work opportunities with a permanent and improved income base. The cleavages between wage earners becomes smaller, for those who have never had an income of any sort before the opportunity enables them to earn a better income (Department of Public Works, 2003).

The programme thus holds the potential to break the cycle of poverty in many households, but only temporarily. However, on a much larger scale, the programme contains the capacity to reduce income inequality in the longer term if exit strategies prove to be successful. It will initially bring those who have not earned an income before on a platform with wage earners in the country.

By so doing, it gives participants the platform to empower the lives of their children with education opportunities mentioned. It also enables the next generation from these households to gain a higher standard of life and earn a higher income, putting them on equal standing with those in a higher economic and social standing.

The EPWP also rendered services to the children and those infected with HIV and AIDS. The HBC and ECD programmes provide these members of society with services of care and attention to improve their living conditions. It provides employment to participants and volunteers equipping them with an NQF level qualification. The sector focuses predominantly on women and the youth and thus forms part of governments' objective of creating a more interactive and equal economy.

The objective of offering people the skills to establish a sustainable living is a daunting task. The EPWP aims to accomplish the basic needs of participants by providing an income that was absent prior to their involvement with the programme. In the larger scheme of things, this goal falls under the objective of alleviating poverty and it allows households to meet their basic needs, save money and create a better life for their children by providing them with the opportunity to attend school and possibly enter a higher level of education.

1.7 SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC GROWTH THROUGH SKILLS DEVELOPMENT AND IMPROVED INFRASTRUCTURE

The economic sector was to produce a certain number of learnerships by the end of the first phase (Department Public Works, 2003). This brought the planned estimate to one million participants in total between 2004 and 2009 (Department Public Works, 2003). Each division within the EPWP offer a certain set of skills and experience to be obtained to improve participants' potential of further employment and eventually create a sustainable living.

Many of the environmental projects provide the opportunity for permanent employment and there will always be a demand for waste management and nature conservation. The sector that will always be in demand for individuals who can put efforts of caring for the environment whilst creating employment. However, it delivers some of the most basic services to South Africans.

Human resources, the labour-intensive sections were managed by a consultant with an NQF level 7 (Department Public Works, 2004). The staff member working under these consultants must be qualified with an NQF level 5 (Department Public Works, 2005). In addition, NQF level training is provided by the EPWP. Sectors in the programme have their own members of staff and leadership. (Department Public Works, 2005).

An individual is trained in labour intensive methods of the construction industry and be in a position to become a contractor and NQF level two and supervisors at NQF level four (Department Public Works, 2005). Much of the output expected from the EPWP is dependent on the training and skill development provided by the programme and most importantly the exit strategy. The programme aims to prepare participants in such a manner that they are able to enter the economy and make a sustainable living.

Molise (2008) states that inadequate infrastructure is a limiting factor to economic growth. In support, Molise (2008) affirms that infrastructure sector has been identified as one of the drivers for addressing the unemployment problem in South Africa. This could be attributed to the fact that it is an industry that can absorb a large labour force. The large investment choice from the EPWP into this sector is thus evident.

However, the concern lies with the weight placed on this sector in relation to the other sectors in the EPWP. The infrastructure division, both financially and by amount of intake of participants should make up the largest portion of the programme. In the interest of economic growth in South Africa, the significance of these other sectors in the EPWP is worth exploring as they might play an equally important role in economic growth.

1.8 DECREASING BACKLOGS IN SERVICE DELIVERY THROUGH IMPROVED INFRASTRUCTURE

The infrastructure sector is presented to be the largest employer within the programme, and it is expected to create work opportunity for unemployed individuals over a period of five years (Department of Public Works, 2005). The sector of the programme receives the most funding due to the scale of the initiative and is perceived as addressing two concerns with one action because it creates unemployment while lessening the backlogs in service delivery.

Infrastructure development plays pivotal role in using construction for job creation and delivering of services. The services to be provided by the infrastructure sector of the EPWP include tarred roads, sidewalks and it is assumed that it will result in increased business activity due to improved access to rural areas. The EPWP also consist of activities such as trenching for pipelines and building storm water drains. The improved infrastructure means better quality of sanitary services and prevent extreme flooding during winter months especially.

The EPWP has three main objectives which are, creating one million short term employment opportunities, improving service delivery and producing participants who will form a permanent part of the active economy. These may be achieved through the activities describe in each sector.

The EPWP is a policy programme which addresses unemployment in South Africa through providing jobs for unemployed South Africans. Jobs are executed through four sectors of the programme being infrastructure, economic, social and environmental. Each sector provides skills training, equipping the participant for the workplace and increasing their chances of finding permanent employment. The participants are provided with a stipend to tend to their basic needs and the work that they do in each sector benefit the community as a whole through improved infrastructure and service delivery.

1.9 MOTIVATION OF THE STUDY

According to the “National Planning Commission”, poverty, unemployment and inequality remains as key challenges that South Africa need to triumph. Further, the presidency (2014:23) highlights that in “August 2013, the official unemployment rate rose to 25.6%, while the broader rate of unemployment rose to 36.8%”. Furthermore, the median rate of unemployment for a municipality ranked 90th out of 179 is 42% for people aged 15 to 34. For the worst quarter of municipalities, youth unemployment is 52% or higher (Daily Maverick, 2013:18).

As highlighted in the introductory part of this study, EPWP is amongst strategies devised to curb poverty, reduce unemployment and contribute towards the development of South Africa as a country. The implementation of EPWP within Capricorn District Municipality commenced in 2009. However, the CDM has been unable to meet its annual targets especially in relation to indigents, and people with disabilities. This led to the CDM creating less than desired EPWP work opportunities thereby being unable to make a dent in the creation of new temporary work opportunities for the unskilled citizenry.

Although some studies, for example, the study by Moyo (2013) on EPWP exit opportunities; and a study by Mothapo (2011) on the impact of the EPWP in alleviating poverty for participants in the Mpumalanga province have been conducted, they mainly deal with gaps in the programme; accelerating its overall impact; and strategies on how to enhance employability of participants. These studies do not provide a considerable focus on how entities such as municipalities can at their level better and effectively implement the EPWP.

1.10 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Poverty and unemployment form part of South Africa's social ills. Some of these are manifesting themselves in alcohol abuse, drug trafficking, malnutrition, rape incidents, and high crime rate. Largely people who are poor, illiterate and unemployed constitute the area of study. Rural poverty has been a serious problem in the country and Limpopo Province in particular. The province has become an exporter of labour to richer provinces such as Gauteng.

Through the Extended Public Works Programmes, the government attempts to address the twin scourge of poverty and unemployment. This initiative is meant to give the unemployed short employment opportunities and provide skills that would be needed in future.

1.11 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The goal of the study was to review policies of unemployment and poverty in the context of EPWP and its impact in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province, South Africa.

This study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

- To assess the sustainability of the EPWP in the area of the study
- To identify the EPWP gaps, loopholes and obstacles in achieving its goals
- To analyse poverty alleviation and unemployment policies in South Africa
- To reduce unemployment by increasing growth by means of improving skills level through education and training.
- To provide guidance regarding strategies that will help to reduce unemployment in the CDM.

1.12 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

- To what extent are the EPWP sustainable in the Capricorn District Municipality?
- Is EPWP having an impact in terms of poverty, unemployment and job creation in the Capricorn District Municipality?
- What policies are relevant in terms of poverty alleviation and unemployment in South Africa?
- What measures should be in place to reduce unemployment, poverty and to improve skills level through education and training?

1.13 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

There are many reasons why this study is significant. Firstly, there is a need to understand the importance of EPWP in providing experiential skills and training to participants so that they can secure formal jobs in the labour market. Secondly, there is a need to justify for

spending on such programmes, as other programmes compete for budgets and alternative policy options are suggested.

It is important to continue to build a corpus of data that explores ways in which public works can be improved or amended to address South Africa's pressing challenges of joblessness and poverty. This study does not only contextualise EPWP implementation at the municipal level, but also contribute towards assisting municipalities on how to improve their systems currently in place for effective implementation, thereby contributing positively towards national efforts of creating jobs for the unskilled.

In short, the study broadly contributes toward literature as far as EPWP and job creation are concerned. In particular, the study is important, as it will:

- Highlight key challenges encountered by the CDM in the implementation of EPWP in South Africa.
- Assist the CDM and other metropolitan municipalities by recommending an effective EPWP implementation approach.
- Recommend an implementation approach that will ultimately benefit EPWP beneficiaries, as municipalities will take note of the socio-economic impact of EPWP on beneficiaries, and the importance of sustaining EPWP projects.

1.14 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

Theories are mental constructs, expressed and presented in a graphical form. Theory is concerned with describing the nature of things. According to the Oxford advanced dictionary of current English (2003), its general meaning is “viewing or looking at”. Thus, “to develop a theory is to develop a view, a description or a way of looking at it. It is about models and creations of models, a graphic representation of processes and relation of its parts”. Any research is operational through the clarification of concepts that are core to its

thematic position. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the following are concepts that need clarification and operationalisation in relation to the study context.

1.14.1 Labour intensive works

EPWP a body of “generalisations and principles developed through research, in association with the practice in the engineering field and thus relates to the infrastructural projects within the CDM in Limpopo Province forming its content as an intellectual discipline” (Thwala, 2010:1165). The South African labour market problem of high employment may be characterised by a chronic labour market crisis. “After rising for three decades, unemployment reached a plateau in 2003 at extremely high levels, standing at 31% (5.3 million) 2003, by the narrow definition, and 42% 8.4 million by the broad definition, with unemployment concentrated in African population, for whom the narrow employment rate was 37%, and the broad rate 49%” (Thwala, 2010:1168).

According to Kingdom and Knight (2000), it was a highly catastrophic era. These elevated levels of unemployment were the consequences of the major shifts in the South African economy, arising from shifts in labour intensity and decline primary activities, which had a major impact on both total employment levels and the composition of labour demand. According to McCord and Borhat (2003:232), there was “a significant decline in the demand for unskilled labour”.

1.14.2 EPWP

EPWP is seen as entailing cross-cutting programmes to be implemented by all spheres of government and other state entities. Phillip (2004:54) indicates that it is defined as “a nation-wide programmes which will draw significant numbers of the unemployed into productive work, so that workers gain skills while they work, and increase their capacity to earn income”. The objective of the EPWP involves utilising public sector budgets to alleviate unemployment by creating temporary productive employment opportunities coupled with training.

It is one of the government's short-to-medium term programmes which aim to alleviate poverty. It is a set of nationwide programmes which covers all spheres of government and state-owned enterprises (Song and Nell, 2006; EPWP Guidelines, 2005). In the case of Capricorn District Municipality (CDM), the EPWP provides training and skills development in the communities, alleviate poverty and unemployment through job creation.

1.14.3 Poverty

In 1995, the United Nations adopted two definitions of poverty namely: Absolute and overall poverty. Absolute poverty was defined as a condition characterise by severe deprivation of basic needs, including food, safe water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income, but also on access to services.

The concept of absolute poverty is not concerned with the broader quality of life. In this study, the researcher will employ the term of relative poverty because it occurs everywhere in the Capricorn District and may never be eradicated but can be alleviated by EPWP through job creation and skills development.

1.14.4 Unemployment

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines unemployment as characterised by all persons over a specific age who during the reference period were:

- a) Without work - were not in paid employment or self-employed.
- b) Currently available for work - were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period.
- c) Seeking work - had taken specific steps in a specified reference period to seek paid employment or self-employment (International Labour Organisation, 1982).

In South Africa, there are two main definitions of unemployment, this is narrow and broad definitions. According to Brynard (2011), the narrow definition counts as unemployed all jobless persons who want work and searched for work in the recent past (typically, in the

four weeks prior to the household survey visit). These people are typically referred to as the 'searching unemployed'.

The broad definition drops the search criterion and counts as unemployed all jobless persons who report that they want work even if they did not search in the reference period. In other words, the broad definition includes both the searching and the non-searching unemployed. The official Statistical Agency Statistics South Africa (1998) adopted the narrow concept as its official definition of unemployment.

The Human Science Research Council (CHSRC) (1985) indicates that most definitions of unemployment require that a person not only wants to work, but also actively looks for it. The HSRC argues that this ignores the discouraged work seekers who may want to work at the going wage but has given up looking because she/he perceives the possibility of getting it to be very slim. Mafiri (2002) notes that there are four different types of unemployment. i.e., Cyclical, Frictional, Seasonal, and Structural unemployment. He argues that in South Africa, the unemployment is structural as it is not sensitive to changes in aggregate demand. Hence, structural unemployment exists when the economy is at full employment.

Chadha (1994) also supports this view and indicated that even during periods of high economic growth rates, job creation does not increase enough to absorb those already unemployed or those looking to enter the job market. Also, this might be an indication of a skills mismatch between the skills of those seeking work and the skills required by potential employers.

Chadha (1994) further asserts that rapid growth of the labour force, the use of capital or skill intensive technology and an inflexible labour market are some of the reasons contributing towards the high unemployment rate in South Africa. Banerjee *et al* (2008) emphasises that due to the structural nature of unemployment it is unlikely to improve in the future without policy interventions. The EPWP is one of the policy interventions introduced to contribute positively towards government endeavours of reducing the levels of unemployment.

The rationale for the theory is a framework for understanding and often formally modelling social and economic behaviour. The basic premise of rational theory is that aggregate social behaviour results from the behaviour of individual actors. The theory therefore focuses on the determinants of the individual decisions. Further, the concept of rationality is mostly used in rational theory and is different from the colloquial. Colloquial is a philosophical term which means rational, predictable or sensible behaviour. Rational theory uses a narrower definition of rationality. At the basic level, behaviour is rational if it is goal oriented.

The rationale of the theory is to bring together different views on programme theory and theory of change in relation to the implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in CDM. A programme theory explains how the intervention of a project, a programme, policy, or strategy contributes to a results chain that produces the intended impacts. The programme theory includes positive impacts, which are beneficial, and negative impacts, which are detrimental.

The programme theory was used to provide a conceptual framework for monitoring and evaluation. A theory of change is used for a single evaluation, for planning cluster evaluations of different projects funded under a single programme, or to bring together evidence from multiple evaluations and research. Subsequently, it provides clarification where there are areas of agreement and disagreement about the programme, and where there are gaps in the evidence.

1.14.5 Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP) and related programmes

The EPWP is one of many socio-economic policy interventions that the government of South Africa has introduced to employ the unemployed and largely unskilled individuals. However, the EPWP has precursors and is not the only development programme of its kind. Other development programmes aimed at absorbing the unemployed individuals and enabling cash transfers to the poor include the Reconstruction and Development

Programme (RDP) which was in operation between 1994 and 1999, and the Special Poverty Relief Allocation which commenced from 1999 and ended in 2004 (Lieuw-Kie-Song, 2009).

The start-up scale is 1,000 participants per site Philip, (2009). Although the CWP is rooted in communities, it is part of the EPWP and complements the other components. The CWP aims to supplement existing livelihood strategies such as the EPWP without disrupting or displacing them (Phillip, 2009). As a result of initial performance during the 2007 pilot phase, the CWP was accepted in 2008 as a new element within the second phase of the EPWP, and provisionally located within its new ‘non state’ sector (Department of Cooperative Governance, 2009).

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Another government programme which provides an employment safety net is the Community Work Programme (CWP). The CWP was started in late 2007 as a pilot project. The CWP is an area-based programme intended to be ongoing and this allows it to target the poorest areas where market-based jobs are unlikely to come any time soon. Work is decided in ward committees or local development fora; the CWP is multi-sectoral and contributes to public/community goods and services. The start-up scale is 1,000 participants per site (Philip, 2009).

The following are key lessons learnt from the first phase of the EPWP are as follows:

a) It was difficult to merge work creation and training for exit strategies, especially at a large scale.

- b) It was difficult to have technical support and building capacity.
- c) Struggling to strike a balance between formal public sector and as the programme increases as a programme gets bigger.
- d) Performance was varied.
- e) Self-targeting (low wages) generally works in reaching target groups (Lieuw-Kie-Song).

1.15 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher ensured that participant's participation remain voluntary. No participant was forced to take part in the study, only those who were willing to partake, and they could withdraw from the study at any time. Participants were assured that their names will not be disclosed, and their responses will remain confidential.

1.16 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1: Introduction and Background to the research

In this chapter, the researcher introduced the problem statement of the research, objectives and the main purpose of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review & Theoretical Framework

This chapter outlines the basic arguments in the scholarly work with regards to labour casualisation, and the impact of EPWP employment to enhance the employability of participants after they exit this programme.

Chapter 3: Research design and methodology

This chapter outlines the methods employed in the study to address the main research questions regarding the efficiency of EPWP employment in enhancing the subsequent employability of participant once they exit these programmes.

Chapter 4: Data presentation and analysis

This chapter critically outlines and examines the study findings in line with the main research questions and objectives. It comprises interviews with a senior manager for a perspective of the EPWP from the CDM management, experiences of the EPWP champions on the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM; and data on the profile and experiences of the participants working in the CDM EPWP projects.

Chapter 5: Summary, conclusion recommendations

In this chapter, the summary of the study is provided and based on the findings extracted from the gathered data, the study concludes and provides suggestions for further research and implementation.

1.17 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the introduction of the study including the aim and objectives. The problem statement and significance of the study are also included. The necessary concepts are also defined.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The current study is a case study of “rethinking the labour-intensive sector in the Expanded Public Works Programme Employment (EPWP), 2004-2017, in Capricorn District Municipality, Limpopo Province. In this section, literature pertaining to the phenomenon under study is scrutinised. The study reports on literature derived from scholarly articles, thesis, case studies, and related publications.

Literature review is “a critical analysis or systematic evaluation of a particular subject, issue, topic or theory, and analyses the body of existing scientific knowledge and provides holistic views” (Wisconsin, 2007:14). Further, Kennedy (2007) explicates literature review as the gathering and analysis of existing information from different authors, pertaining to the problem of the study.

2.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF LITERATURE REVIEW IN RESEARCH

Literature review is of significance because it enables the researcher to compare, contrasts and merge existing information with pertinence to the problem being addressed in the study. (Wisconsin, 2020). Literature review is is very important when conducting research because it guides the researcher in terms of what has been done so far with regards to the topic being explored, it also enables the researcher to identify the gaps. Literature review is of importance because it uncovers theories and models that have been applied before in relation to the research and what the current researcher can utilise in his or her studies, when exploring a similar topic (Kennedy, 2007). In the context of this study, the reviewed literature plays a major role in addressing the objectives and research questions of the study.

Literature review provides a scope to cover for the researcher. Upon approval of the research topic, the current researcher gathered literature, and the information gathered is reviewed and presented in this chapter. The researcher presents a deep review of information pertaining to the topic of the study, with relevant sources. The literature on EPWP assists in tapping into the current research problem. This study presents literature from EPWP projects, books, journal articles and memos in a coherence and cohesive manner, which outlines the importance of various programmes.

According to Boote and Beile (2005:34), literature review is “an evaluative report of studies found in the literature related to a selected area. The review should describe, summarise, evaluate and clarify gathered information pertaining to the research problem”. According to these scholars, literature review should provide theoretical points of departure for the research and further determine the nature of the inquiry.

Additionally, Boote and Beile (2005) provide the following functions of a literature review:

- Contextualising the study.
- Justification of the study.
- Situating the study within the current literature.
- Providing the researcher with theoretical point of departure
- Showing how the subject has been attempted
- Highlighting loopholes in previous studies
- Determining the study gap
- Help refine, refocus or even change the topic.

In the context of this study, the literature reviewed does not only contextualise the research, but it shows how the topic has been studied previously. With this in mind, the researcher ensures that the current study is not a replica of past studies on a relevant topic.

The literature review covers key thematic areas in experience of EPWP in South Africa with pertinence to “role, value and contribution of EPWP in national wealth creation,

growth and development”, which is a subject for dialogue and debate. “While a number of schools of thoughts seem established, the differences lie much more in tone and timing of the intervention approach rather than in arguing about the principles and values enshrined in the EPWP concept or approach” (Thwala, 2010:23).

According to Rudestam and Newtown (2001:45), literature review is “a coherent argument that leads to the description of a proposed study”. Contrastingly, Hart (1998:65) views it “as an examination of the research that has been conducted in a particular field of study, which implies the selection of the available document (both published and unpublished) or the topic, which contains information, ideas, data and evidence”.

The literature review in this study includes textbooks, journals, newspapers articles, selected items from the internet, government annuals reports and government legislation. According to Heart (1998:66) literature review “is written from a particular standpoint to fulfill certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and how it is to be investigated”. The current study focuses on poverty and unemployment within the context of Extended Public Works Programme in the Capricorn District, therefore, the literature reviewed is centred around the EPWP.

It is a recent initiated programme by the government that is why it needs to be researched. Poverty in South Africa is a multidisciplinary problem on how poverty among Africans in South Africa was created. A book titled “*Uprooting poverty, the South African Challenges*” by Wilson and Ramphele (1989) goes back more than fifty years when binaries and capitalisation made the black to be deprived of land and were left with nothing to show for it. Also, ill-equipped for modern industrial society faced with this problem, but unwilling to consider the wider ramification of poverty, particularly with the blacks.

The first edition of this book examines patterns of deprivation in South Africa. The second part seeks to deepen understanding of why the patterns of poverty uncovered in the previous part should be shaped as it is. This has impact on the life expectancy and infant mortality rates. It is vital to highlight that African people in rural areas were not required to register

births and deaths under the 1923 *Births, Marriage and Death Registration Act*, and many municipalities were exempted from general requirement that statistics be collected in urban areas, basic demographic data have been estimated (including by race) from 1930s or 1940s.

Around 1940s and 1950s, life expectancy for men and women rose drastically but became flat again after that. After second world war, infant mortality rate also improved for the better. A drop and increase in these figures reflect the persistence of poverty, more precisely in rural areas. Most importantly, although there was an improvement in child nutrition, it is vital to note that “one in three African, coloureds and Indian children were underweighting and experienced stunted growth” (Heart, 1998: 45). In 1993, the first detailed analysis of countrywide poverty survey was conducted, it allowed the government to determine where South Africa is, in terms of poverty demographics.

The “incoming post-apartheid government’s analysis of the data shows that more than half of the population is living in poverty” (Heart, 1998:64). This is important in the context of this study because it explains the patterns of poverty and its origins in Southern Africa, which in this case is Limpopo Province, particularly within the Capricorn District Municipality. According to Wilson and Ramphela (1989), up-roots of poverty lays emphasis on black rural areas previously neglected in formal history books. It moves towards a continental perspective by cutting across colonial boundaries. The book emphasised that every effort should be made to create new opportunities for rural population to expand their productive activities and improve their living conditions. It ties well with the EPWP, an opportunity to those who are not employed and living in poverty.

“Our country was a place in which squalor, the stench of poverty, the open sewers, the decaying rot, the milling crowds of wretchedness, the unending images of a landscape strewn with carelessly abandoned refuse, assumed an aspect that seemed necessary to enhance the beauty of another world of tidy street, and wooded lanes, and flowers blossoms offsetting the green and singing grass, and birds and houses fit for kings and queens, and lyrical music, and love” (Mbeki, 2004:11). According to the State of Nation address 2004-

2005, Chapter nineteen advocates “A better life for all” “Service delivery” and “poverty alleviation”.

In South Africa, issues of service delivery are centered around political dispensation and achievements of government’s evaluation. Presidential speeches are mostly focused on improving service delivery as a critical point of focus in terms of human development and effective government measures. The ruling party and opposition see these as a key indicator determining whether the country is moving ahead and whether the prospect of a better future will be realised.

Urgings concerning service delivery in parliamentary debates track “to exchange over broken pipes and failed systems, but there is also a wider and certainly more heated, debate between social movements in the poorest urban centers over water cut-offs and levels of service privatisation” (Wilson & Ramphela, 1989:334). Service delivery, in short, brings together administrative, political and social aspects in a combustible combination. In many ways, the political element is to the fore. Black South Africans were denied their birthrights, starting with secure residence, decent houses, water, electricity and other services, during apartheid. One of the causes of unemployment and inequality was the destruction of the African peasantry.

This is rooted in the legal dispossession of most by the white settlers, in both the British colonies and the Boer republics in the nineteenth century. Despite brief periods of buoyant production for markets and sustained struggles to retain access to the land, the combination of racist legislation on land ownership (notably the 1913 Natives’ Land Act) and the rise of capitalism in agriculture had marginalised the African peasantry in most but not all of South Africa by the 1940s.

Yet the final destruction of the peasantry was completed only under apartheid. Sharecroppers continued to find niches in poorer corners of white South Africa. At the time of Union, South Africa was a sparsely populated, predominantly arid country. Although it was a largely agrarian society, it possessed crucially important pockets of extraordinary

industrial activity in Johannesburg and the Witwatersrand, and to a lesser extent Cape Town, appeared to be booming. But the entire Witwatersrand had a population of half a million people in 1921; three quarters of the country's almost 6 million people lived in the countryside.

Although deep poverty was probably generally limited to episodes of draught or diseases, rural prosperity was limited to specific areas producing lucrative export markets which constituted a substantial minority of rural white population agricultural export, including especially wool, ostrich feathers and maize, as well as sugar cane from the 1920s, resulted in pockets of rural affluence, but agriculture was unable to transform the South African economy. That was the historical task of gold mining.

In 1910, agriculture accounted for 22 percent of the South African national income, but this was already less than the 27 percent accounted for by mining, barely more than the gold mining alone. The gold mines of the Witwatersrand spread out in a crescent across the southern Transvaal. Both the dollar price of gold and exchange rates were fixed, which meant that the rand price of gold remained stable even while other commodity prices fluctuated erratically.

In 1911, South Africa produced a third of the world's gold output, which rose to more than half in 1930. Fewer workers were employed in mines than on farms, but the mines served to stimulate growth in many other sectors, notably coal, timber, food and transport, and gold accounted for more than half, by value, of all export from the Union. The gold mines, producing a product for which demand was unlimited at its fixed price, were the powerhouse of economic development (Union of South Africa, 1934).

The high wage paid to white workers reflected the influence of British wage rates which were the highest in the world as well as local politics. Unsurprisingly, the mines sought to employ cheaper workers, provoking industrial protest, violent rebellion and political intervention.

Given their fiscal and general economic dependence on gold mining, successive governments were wary of rising production costs on the mines and looked to other sectors to employ increased number of white workers at appropriately high wages; but the state did not allow the mining industry to change significantly its cost structure by employing African workers in more skilled positions.

The distinctive economics of gold mining encouraged the emergence of large mining-finance houses that could raise the massive capital necessary for opening mines as well as for operating them thereafter. Farmers declared African families to be “surplus to their needs, and state officials removed the new surplus population of the Africans to the reserves. More than one million people (i.e., one third of the resident African population) were removed from white people’s farms to the reserves, and the proportion of the total population living in rural areas outside the reserves fell from around 35 percent in the 1950s to about 25 in the 1970s”.

That said, many Africans continued to live and work on the farms. Indeed, the absolute number of Africans on white owned farms actually rose slightly in the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s: it was the surplus population caused by natural demographic growth that was removed (Thwala, 2010: 332). The African households that remained on the white farms were still dependent on agriculture but were fully and entirely dependent on wages from their employer and with little opportunity to keep the cattle that had been so central to social and cultural life.

The process of de-agrarianisation was most evident in the reserves, home to a rapidly growing proportion of the population. Forced farm removals combined with natural population growth and tightened controls on emigration to the cities, with the results that average population density in the reserves almost doubled between 1955 and 1969 (Thwala, 2010: 332).

“The total value of agriculture production remained steady, but the value per capita fell rapidly. By 1967, agricultural production accounted for only one quarter of the reserve

population's food requirements and one-sixth of total subsistence requirements. The proportion of household cattle owners declined, just as it did on white-owned farms lacking oxen and without the means to hire tractors, even families with access to land had a serious problem of unemployment" (Heart, 1998:231).

Poverty comes in various forms such as "lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased mortality from illness; homelessness and adequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion" (Thwala, 2010: 332). It is further characterised by "lack of participation in decision making in civil, social and cultural life" (Thwala, *ibid*).

Poverty occurs in all countries: as mass poverty in many developing countries, pockets of poverty amid wealth in developed countries, loss of livelihood as a result of economic recession, sudden poverty as a result of disaster or conflict, the poverty of low-wage workers, and utter destitution of people who fail outside family support system, social institutions and safety nets. These are relative definitions of poverty, which see poverty in "terms of minimum acceptable standards of living within the society in which a particular person lives" (United Nations, 1995: 121).

According to the business dictionary, poverty is a condition where people's basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter are not being met. Poverty is generally of two types: Absolute poverty is synonymous with destitution and occurs when people cannot obtain adequate resources (measured in terms of calories or nutrition) to support a minimum level of physical health. Absolute poverty means the same everywhere and can be eradicated as demonstrated by other countries. Relative poverty occurs when people do not enjoy a certain minimum level of living standards as determined by the government (and enjoyed by the bulk of the population) that vary from country to country, sometimes within the same country.

2.3 UNEMPLOYMENT

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines unemployment as characterised by all persons over a specific age who during the reference period are:

- a) “Without work – were not in paid employment or self-employed”
- b) “Currently available for work – were available for paid employment or self-employment during the reference period”
- c) “Seeking work had taken specific steps in a specified reference period to seek paid employment or self-employment” (International Labour Organization, 1982).

Two definitions of unemployment are recognised within the South African context, i.e., narrow and broad. According to Brynard (2010:35), “the narrow definition counts as unemployed all jobless persons who want work and searched for work in the recent past (typically, in the four weeks prior to the household survey visit)”. These people are typically referred to as the “searching unemployed”.

“The broad definition drops the search criterion and counts as unemployed all jobless persons who report that they want work even if they did not search in the reference period” (Brynard, 2010:36). This simply means that the broad definition encapsulates both the searching and non-searching unemployed. The official statistical agency (Statistics South Africa) adopted the narrow concept as its official definition of unemployment in 1998.

According to the Human Science Research Council (1985), unemployment requires a person looking for work regardless of their employment status. The Human Sciences Research Council (2005:45) further argues that “this ignores the discouraged work seekers who may want to work at the going wage but has given up looking because she/he perceives the possibility of getting it to be very slim”.

Mafiri (2002:67) notes that there are “four different types of unemployment i.e., Cyclical, Frictional, Seasonal, and Structural unemployment”. Mafiri (ibid) further argues that South

African unemployment is structural “it is not sensitive to changes in aggregate demand”. Otherwise, the existence of structural unemployment even when the economy is at full employment.

In concurrence, Chadha (1994:11156) supports that “even during periods of high economic growth rates, job creation does not increase enough to absorb those already unemployed or those looking to enter the job market”. Also, this might be an indication of a skills mismatch between the skills of those seeking work and the skills required by potential employers. Chadha (1994: *ibid*) further asserts that “rapid growth of the labour force, the use of capital or skill intensive technology and an inflexible labour market are some of the reasons contributing towards the high unemployment rate in South Africa”.

Banerjee et al. (2008) state that there can be improvement in the future with adjusting policies, due to the structural nature of unemployment. Hence, the implementation of EPWP as one of the policy interventions introduced to contribute positively towards government endeavours of reducing the levels of unemployment. “Unemployment occurs when a person who is actively searching for employment is unable to find work. Unemployment is often used as a measure of health of the economy” (www.investopedia.com).

For the South African Reserve Bank, unemployment is simply when an individual is unemployed and busy looking for an employment. The employment rate is then determined following the total number of those who are not employed but desires to work (www.r2.resbank.co.za).

2.4 DIFFERENT TYPES OF UNEMPLOYMENT

As alluded to earlier on, unemployment is when an individual within an economy seeks employment without succeeding. Unemployment is broken down into various categories, and this section explores some of these categories. Categorising various types of

unemployment, might help share light on the occurrence of unemployment and suggestions to overcome such.

2.4.1 Voluntary versus involuntary unemployment

At basic level, there is voluntary and involuntary unemployment category. Voluntary unemployment occurs when individual jilts their current employers to look for a new employer, while involuntary unemployment happens when individual gets jilted by their employer, for instance, retrenchment. This study is skewed towards the latter (involuntary) in the Capricorn District.

2.4.2 Frictional unemployment.

Frictional unemployment is another type of unemployment which results when employees take time to move from one company to another. It is a good thing to find a new employment while you are still attached to a current employer, however, most employers leave or loses their employment prior to finding a new employment. In this case, a worker should “look around for a job that is a good and fit for her and these processes take time. During this time, the individual is considered to be unemployed, but unemployed due to frictional unemployment and is usually thought to last only short periods of time and not be specifically problem from an economic point” (www.economic.about.com).

2.4.3 Cyclical unemployment

This is an unemployment associated with “business cycles occurring in the economy”. “Cyclical unemployment occurs during recessions because, when demand for goods and services in an economy falls, some companies respond by cutting production and laying off workers rather than reducing prices” (www.economic.about.com). This results in number of employees who are available in the market and who remains unemployed, ultimately increasing the unemployment rate.

When an economy recovers from a recession, “cyclical unemployment tends to disappear. As a result, economists usually focus on addressing the root of the economic downturns

themselves rather than think directly about how to correct cyclical unemployment in and itself” (www.economic.about.com).

2.4.4 Structural unemployment

Structural unemployment occurs at two levels. For a starter, when the labour market has more workers than jobs that are available, with salaries not being updated as per the market and ultimately not reaching equilibrium. Secondly, structural unemployment occurs when employees have skills that are not demand in the labour force rather than having skills that are in demand. In other words, structural unemployment results when there is a mismatch with workers’ skills and employers’ needs. Structural unemployment is thought to be a significant problem, mainly because it turns to be largely of the long-term variety and retaining workers is not cheap or easy task.

2.4.5 Seasonal unemployment

Seasonal unemployment is to somewhat a form of structural unemployment, mostly because it transpires when the skills of an employee are not in demand at that particular labour markets for at least some part of the year. Bearing this in mind, “seasonal unemployment was viewed as less problematic than regular structural unemployment, mainly because the demand for seasonal skills have not gone away forever and resurfaces in a predictable pattern” (NPCDR, 2011:34).

Having defined unemployment and the different types of unemployment, in this study, the researcher employs the first definition of unemployment, which is the situation whereby an individual is looking for a job and cannot find one.

2.5 CONTEXT OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to the National Planning Commissions Diagnostic Review report (2011), the South African high unemployment rate is a results of high dropout rates of students from school and adults who are not employable due to lack of proper skills in the workplace.

Another cause is that those who earn few bucks still have to support large number of dependents, at a high cost of living. This is a “central contributor to widespread poverty, and inactivity of broad sections of society reduces our potential for economic expansion” (NPCDR, 2011).

Table 2.1: Unemployment rate¹ by age, percentage 2002–2010 (NPC Diagnostic Review Report, 2011)

Age cohort	2002	2004	2006	2008	2010
15 – 24	55.9 %	51.8 %	50.2 %	46.6 %	51.3 %
25 – 34	34.1 %	29.8 %	28.5 %	26.2%	29.1 %
35 – 44	21.0 %	18.2 %	18.2 %	16.6 %	17.8%
45 – 54	16.1 %	11.9 %	12.4 %	9.3 %	12.4 %
55 – 65	10.0 %	7.2 %	6.9 %	6.5 %	7.3 %
Total	30.4 %	26.2 %	25.5 %	23.2%	25.4 %

Source: NPC Diagnostic Review Report (2011).

Drawing from the above table, 25.2% was reported as the unemployment rate of South Africa, in the first quarter. Between 2002 until 2008, South Africa’s unemployment rate averaged 26.38%. In the year (2003), South African unemployment rate attained a historical high of 31.20%, and “a record low of 23% in September of 2007” (Statistics South Africa, 2012:112).

Statistics South Africa (2013:223) quarterly labour force survey (quarter 2) indicates that “the highest levels of unemployment (14, 0 million) were experienced in quarter 4 of 2008. Stats SA further notes that during the post-recession phase employment was observed at its lowest level in quarter 3 of 2010 where the number of employed persons declined to 12, 9 million”.

Also, between quarter 3 of the year 2010 and quarter 2 of 2013 total employment increased by 746 000. In addition, in quarter 2 of 2013 13, 7 million persons were employed; a 100 000-job increase compared to quarter 1 of 2013, and an increase of 274 000 persons compared to the same period last year (Statistics South Africa, 2013:114).

With all these, it is of significance to note that South Africa has been able to create some jobs since the 2008 global economic recession. Be that as it may, the effect of unemployment on black South Africans remains high when compared to white South Africans. In the year 2012, 29% of black South Africans were not employed (Cronje, 2013). This reveals that it was approximately five times less likely for black to be employed when compared to whites. Further, Cronje (2013:56) highlights the following facts when comparing whites and black South Africans seeking employment:

- a) “The proportion of white South Africans living in poverty declined from approximately 2% in 1994 to less than 1% in 2012”.
- b) “The poverty figures for black South Africans were significantly higher, having declined from about 50% in 1994 to 45% by 2012”.
- c) “Whites have seen their education profile improve rapidly since apartheid ended and are today four times more likely to be in higher education than their black compatriots, who receive an appallingly poor standard of schooling”.
- d) Employment equity and empowerment policies have not driven whites into unemployment or poverty on a significant scale. Whites’ resident in South Africa are more likely to be employed than residents of the world’s leading economies.

“High unemployment is a sign of domestic industries’ inability to compete with either the high-tech or the low-wage countries. Another is trade and technologies: new technologies and globalisation can explain the massive restructuring of South African industries and consequent job losses. Other debates point to the skills mismatch, to insufficient aggregate demand or to the overly generous social policies that negatively affect employment” (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2013:44).

In dealing with the relatively high unemployment rates and the inequalities, the NPCDR notes that achieving full employment is a multi-faceted and complex objective. South Africa would have to achieve several objectives, simultaneously. South Africa would have to grow low-skilled employment, mainly because the bulk of the unemployed are poorly skilled. The public sector can play an important role in creating such jobs, but the big and necessary adjustment lies in changing the economic incentives in the private sector to use more labour.

“We have to upgrade our economic and industrial infrastructure to support the needs of the existing economy, promote growth in newer, more labour-absorbing and knowledge intensive sectors and improve the resource efficiency of our economy. Thirdly, we have to raise productivity through better education and training, better and less onerous regulation, more competitive pricing and an improved logistics system” (NPCDR, 2011:45).

2.6 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON PWPS

It is possible to use PWP as one of the weapons against the high unemployment rate in the country such as South Africa. McCord (2007) states that PWPs are contextualised prior to implementation, and this may be categorised into two broad labour market contexts, which are i) acute- “short term falls in labour demand or livelihoods disruption (resulting from for example drought, flood, financial crisis, or recession)”, and (ii) “chronic high levels of under- or un-employment and poverty”. PWP have differing institutional implications, while sharing common ground in terms of the provision of employment with some form of social protection objective (McCord, 2007:45).

Internationally, there are four types of PWPs frequently, but with each adhering to a differing concept of public works, whilst grounded in the same conventions and standards in terms of the provision of employment with some form of social protection objective. The following are the four types of PWPs as noted by (McCord, 2007:47):

- a) “PWPs offering short-term employment”
- b) “Those promoting labour intensification of government infrastructure spending”

- c) “Large scale government employment programmes which tend offer some form of employment guarantee”
- d) “Programmes which enhance employability”.

PWPs offering short-term employment are applied primarily in the infrastructure sector as a response to labour market disruption. “Their intention is to increase, temporarily, aggregate employment, while providing a basic income for consumption smoothing during the period of labour market disruption. These programmes tend to offer basic ‘risk coping’ or ‘protective’ social protection. Indonesia’s *Padat Karya* programme is an example of this approach” (Department of Public works, 2005:34).

“Programmes which promote the labour intensification of infrastructure expenditure attempt to promote aggregate employment and tend to focus less on the social protection impact of the additional employment offered, which is assumed to accrue to workers as a direct outcome of employment provided and indirectly as a result of the productive value of assets created” (Department of Public works, 2005: 34). In these programmes social protection objectives are secondary to the creation of additional employment during the creation of assets.

“These programmes are almost exclusively initiated in the infrastructure sector and would be exemplified by the ILO’s international Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programme (EIIP). These programmes also confer basic short term ‘risk coping’ or ‘protective’ social protection benefits, which terminates at the point of programme completion” (Department of Public works, 2005:34).

“Large-scale government employment programmes are a response to chronic or sustained levels of elevated unemployment and entail large increases in government expenditure on direct employment programmes, with the objective of promoting aggregate employment on a sustained basis” (Department of Public works, 2005:34). “Employment may be created

in any sector, and may be provided either directly by government, or indirectly through private sector employers or civil society.

The US New Deal programmes of the 1930s typify this approach; and there is a *PWP* approach that focuses on promoting the ‘employability’ of workers, through the provision of skills formation and workplace experience. The programmes are implemented when the key constraint to employment is lack of skills rather than lack of employment opportunities per se (Department of Public works, 2005:34). These programmes have primarily been adopted in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), at times of frictional unemployment, i.e., when the fundamental problem has been skills shortages in the labour pool.

This type of programme assumes that “sufficient numbers of jobs are available for the unemployed if they are adequately retrained and supported and is associated with a political concern to encourage the unemployed to take up available work opportunities rather than to provide them with unemployment benefits” (Department of Public works, 2005:34). This approach is typified by “the US set of ‘Workfare’ programmes, and the Irish Community Employment Programme” (McCord, 2007:36).

The Business Trust (2011:12) reports that “conceptually, public works programmes are designed to generate longer-term supplementary income for vulnerable people whose other incomes are very low and volatile, often by offering them work opportunities in periods of cyclical unemployment”, for instance, during the slack agricultural season.

The purpose of programmes in these cases is to relieve income poverty and to smooth intra-seasonal consumption, by providing insurance against the effects of job insecurity and temporary livelihood impairment (McCord, 2017). The best-known programme of this kind is the Employment Guarantee Scheme in the Indian State of Maharashtra, which has been in continuous operation since the 1970s.

The Business Trust (2011: 38) further reports that “there is no simple basis for assessing the success of public works programmes because of the multiplicity of their objectives”.

They are anticipated to:

- a) “Bring effective assistance to their target populations, with little leakage to unintended beneficiaries”.
- b) “Complete necessary projects of real and lasting value to the local economy and community”.
- c) “Be cost-effective in creating and maintaining assets and/or as channels for distributing targeted welfare benefits”.

Assistance is either targeted through self-selection (when the individual decides to apply for work through a public works programme by registering or applying for work on a project), administrative selection (when an administrative process is used to select participants e.g., a local government council chooses who the beneficiaries will be from a community) or rationing where all unemployed individuals are allocated a number of days of work per year (ESAU, 2004). However, McCord (2007) states different countries acquire employment benefits through EPWPs as exhibited below:

Table 2.2: A Comparative assessment of the scale of the PWPs

	Total number of PWP jobs/annum	Total number of person annum	Total Labour Force	Jobs as % labour force	Person years as % labour force	Program me cost as % GDP
INDONESIA: PK (1998/99)	1,481,481	181,818	92,000,000	1.6%	0.20%	0.20 %
INDIA: NREGP** (2006/7)	21,200,000	4,109,091	427,000,000	5.0%	0.96%	0.30 %
INDIA: NREGP*** (2008/9 estimate)				15%	3%	1.0%
IRELAND: CEP (90s)	41,000	n/a	1,400,000	2.9%	n/a	0.18 %
ETHIOPIA: PSNP (2006/7)	1,500,000	n/a	31,000,000	4.8%	n/a	2.00 %
SENEGAL: AGETIP (2004)	21,000	n/a	4,500,000	0.5%	n/a	0.80 %
USA: NEW DEAL PROGRAMME S (1933-1940 average)	n/a	n/a	53,000,000	3.4-8.9%	n/a	3.9 %

JEFES: ARGENTINA* ** *(2003)	2,210,000	n/a	17,000,000	13.0%	n/a	0.90%
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Source: Adopted from McCord (2007).

Additionally, Kostzer (2008) and Tcherneva and Wray (2005) mention speeding phase and being cost-effective as some of the benefits associated with EPWPs. Argentina's experience with the Jefes programme in 2001 showed that national employment that are federally funded can be implemented within a short space of time and administered at the local level with the participation of Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs).

Tcherneva and Wray (2005) further point out that unemployment is typically associated with the depreciation of skills, motivation and work habits. By employing those who might not have been employed and by offering training and education, PWP's can help to maintain or even appreciate human capital. The Jefes programme included an option for participants to work or participate in education or training activities for 4-6 hours a day (no less than 20 hours a week) in exchange for the payment (Del Ninno et al., 2009).

Generally, PWP's may include training as a core component in addition to the income transfer, to encourage workers to acquire more permanent employment or become self-employed. The additional requirements attached to the workers may include saving some of their wage earnings, learning technical skills and eventually obtaining a credit at the going rate of interest, and begin an activity. However, cross-country experience is rather limited on this component (Del Ninno et al., 2009).

A few programmes have training components to direct women towards self-employment. In Bangladesh, the Rural Maintenance Program (RPM) requires the women participating in the programme to attend income generating and skills programme. In addition, they must save part of their wage on a regular basis. The strategy is to create new micro entrepreneurs with adequate skills training and seed capital from the forced savings.

A similar programme was started in 1999 in the central region of Malawi, the Central Region Infrastructure Maintenance Program (CRIMP), and a Department of International Development-Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (DFID-CARE) programme which employed 1600 poor women in the maintenance of roads (Del Ninno et al., 2009:125).

In Africa, PWPs have been implemented since the 1960s in parts of North Africa. Tunisia, Morocco and Algeria experimented with such programmes. In Tunisia, the Tunisian works programme, known as Worksites, to Combat Underdevelopment was carried out with 80 per cent of the cost being borne by Tunisian authorities and the remaining 20 per cent in the form of food aid from the United States. The “employment created was equivalent to an annual average of 20.7 days per head of Tunisia’s labour force” (Thwala, 2001:34).

Morocco implemented a programme known as the National Promotion in 1961, with the main aim being to enhance opportunities for the rural unemployed in productive work; and slowing down the rural exodus and associated problems with rural populations in the development process. The importance of this programme was confirmed by its mention in the constitution of 7 December, and subsequently by the creation in 1975 of the High Council of National Promotion Plan. According to one estimate, the programme provided employment for 85 000 workers per month during the peak season and increased the Growth National Product (GNP) by 3, 6 percent (Jara, 1971).

In Algeria, the publicly sponsored works programme, known as Worksites for Full Employment (Chantiers de Plein Emploi (CPE)) began operating in 1962 as a relief operation. It soon acquired a strong development orientation to maximise employment in a project of economic interest, namely reforestation work to fight the severe erosion problem (Jara, 1971).

In 1965, the Peoples Worksites Reforestation Chantiers Populaires de Reboisement (CPR) was created as a statutory body attached to the Forestry Division of the Ministry of

Agriculture and Agrarian Reform. Since then, the World Food Programme has provided assistance and the scope of projects have been increased to include land reclamation and other infrastructural works.

In terms of evaluation, despite their valuable contribution to employment-generation, many of these earlier experiments in employment-intensive public works in Africa suffered from one or more of the shortcomings noted below (Barker, 1986; Abedian and Standish, 1986; United Nations (UNDP) & ILO, 1987; Ligthelm and Van Niekerk, 1990, McCutcheon, 1990, 1994, 2001; McCutcheon & Taylor-Parkins, 2003; Thwala, 2001):

- a) The ad-hoc nature of schemes, lacking spatial focus and often without any links to national rural development and infrastructural planning systems.
- b) Makeshift administrative arrangements and failure to inject sufficient managerial and engineering skills and technical competence into project selection and execution, as well as choice of technology, resulting in poor project planning, programming and manpower management.
- c) Lack of balance between centralisation and effective involvement of local administrations and popular bodies in crucial programme decisions, planning and implementation.
- d) Failure to adjust programme operation and intensity to seasonal labour demand for agricultural operations.
- e) Lack of precision about target groups and programming on the basis of inadequate information about beneficiary groups.
- f) Lack of adequate and sustained political commitment and allocation of public funds for the programmes.
- g) Inadequate post-project maintenance arrangements; and inadequate emphasis on, and arrangements for, reporting cost-benefit studies and general performance evaluation.

2.6.1 New Deal

The new deal was a series of economic Programme enacted in the United State between 1933 and 193” (McCord, 2007: 67). McCord (ibid) further states that new deal “involved “presidential executive orders or laws passed by the United States Congress during the first term of President Franklin D.D Roosevelt”. The Programme were in response to the great depression and focused on what historians call the 3 Rs, Relief, Recovery and Reform. That is relief for the employed and poor, recovery of economy to the normal levels, and reform of the financial system to prevent a repeat of the depression. Hence the Extended Public Works which was modeled on the New Deal.

The South African government has a long history of establishing safety nets to assist disadvantaged groups. The uniqueness of these nets however has been in the early years in which these were established to assist the white population. The safety nets were aimed at uplifting poor whites out of poverty while simultaneously maintaining the living standard of the prosperous whites.

In the early stages of the mining industry, the mining companies helped to support poor whites by providing supplementary income of full employment hence public works Programme. Those who were employed in the gold fields were given food and other material needs. During the building of the railways in the Witwatersrand between 1892 and 1895, most poor whites were employed and provided with supplementary income. Most of the poor whites were employed as Policemen, Soldiers, and forming out of railways Public Works.

The Carnegie Commission was initiated to investigate poverty in white areas. It conducted 100 interviews with poor whites and after hearing their problems being experienced asked the following questions: “Well, what in your opinion is the solution of your problems? And in almost every case the respondent replied that government must do this or that” hence Public Works Programme.

According to Sparks (2003:112), the core problem is that “South Africa has a double-decker economy-its first- world sector and third-world sector, and that what is working for those on the upper deck is not working for those on the lower deck”. Consequently, unemployment increases which in turn increases wealth gap between the rich and the poor. Makweya (2004:34) contends that post-apartheid era 1994, “took over a national economy that had been stagnant for many years”.

2.6.2 The European Recovery Programme

“Europe was devastated by years of conflict during the Second World War where millions of people were killed or wounded” (Department of Public works, 2005:34). Industrial and residential centres in England, France, Germany, Italy, Poland, and Belgium and elsewhere lay in ruins. Much was on the brink of famine as Agricultural production had been disrupted by the war. Transportation of infrastructure was in shambles (Sparks, 2003: 113). The only major power in the world that was not damaged significantly was the United States.

Sixteen nations, including Germany became part of the programme and shaped the assistance they required, state by state, with administrative and technical assistance provided through the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) of the United States. European nations received aid, which initially resulted in shipment of food, fuel and machinery from the United States and later resulted in investment in industrial capacity development in Europe through the Marshall Plan funding which ended in 1952.

Through the Marshall Plan, nations were assisted greatly in their economic recovery from 1948 through 1952 and Europe grew at an unprecedented rate. Trade relations led to the formation of the Atlantic Alliance. Prosperity led by coal and steel industries helped to shape what we know now as the European Union and the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) in South Africa. It was modelled from the Marshall plan and there after Extended Public Works Programme.

According to Merriam (2002), qualitative research can further be defined as the method of enquiry that seeks to understand the phenomena within the context of the participants’

perspective and experience. In this case, the experiences of the Capricorn District Municipality beneficiaries on challenges of poverty and unemployment with regard to EPWP are necessary. Realities such as poverty facing the government, enabled the government to develop strategies of dealing with such.

According to Kepe (2002), there is a broad framework that could be seen as a strategy to reduce poverty, and these were the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), and the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy.

RDP is a policy outlined in a white paper on the “Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994)” to address development issues. The RDP was devised with the intent to “integrate growth, development, and reconstruction in order to provide access to basic services to the poor people of South Africa” (Department of Public works, 2005:34). It can be argued that many of the current programme were seeking to uplift poor people who were previously disadvantaged.

The Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy is a macro-economic framework that was introduced in 1996, two years after the implementation of the RDP. One of the guiding principles of GEAR is that poverty reduction over long-term is not possible without sustainable growth. It saw private sector as key to economic growth. Critics of GEAR blamed it for abandoning the poor.

Ironically, these are the people that the project was intended for. According to Adelzadeh (1996:23), “GEAR was criticised for being too concerned with boosting investor confidence than embracing the main goals of the RDP, which included economic growth, employment and distribution”. The government formulated a ten-year plan, the Integrated Sustainable Rural and Development Strategy (ISRDS) and the Accelerated Shared Growth initiative in South Africa (ASGISA, 2006), which intended to address the problem of the poor of the poorest areas. It is the intention of this programme to look at the existing

departmental initiatives and programme in these poorest areas and to play a coordinating function.

The government released the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) second quarter figures, which show that it was on track to achieve set targets. According to the latest verified figures tabled, the government has thus far created a total of 223 568 work opportunities through its Expanded Public Works Programme from the period 01 April to 31 August 2009 (Statistics South Africa, 2009).

The Minister of Public Works said the number of Public Works figures were a solid foundation towards the creation of 4.5 million work opportunities for poor and unemployed people in South Africa by 2014, as announced by President Jacob Zuma in his State of the Nation Address in June (Doige, 2009). Zuma promised that the government would not only create 500 000 job opportunities by December 2009, but a further four million by 2014.

“There are other Programme such as the Food for Waste that were launched in the Greater Kokstad Municipality where 100 community members were trained in waste collection and management in exchange for food parcels ... so we are making progress” (Doidge, 2006). Doidge (2006) however, acknowledges that they were experiencing some challenges due to the unavailability of accredited training providers.

To address this, the department together with other departments like Health and Education were identifying service providers. Doidge (2006) indicates that despite difficulties, the government would not relax its targets. “It is useful to have a target. It is a learning curve for us to be able to advise and support the other two spheres” (Doidge, 2006:78). The government would meet its deadline.

The government initiated the second phase of the EPWP after observing its successes and limitations from the first phase. drawing on the successes and lessons of this programme; R4 billion was added to this programme to incentivise the creation of longer term, more stable employment in provinces, municipalities and non-governmental organisations. “It

was anticipated that this programme would be phased up to grow the number of full-time equivalent jobs from about 145 000 at present to over 300 000 a year” (MTBS, 2009:65).

Public bodies from all spheres of government in terms of their normal mandates and budgets and the non-state sector supported by government incentives, are expected to deliberately optimise the creation of work opportunities for unemployed and poor people in South Africa through the delivery of public and community services. Training and enterprise development was expected to be implemented in sector specific programme to enhance service delivery and beneficiary well-being.

The key challenges in most of Limpopo Province is to improve the sustainability of projects implemented under the “mother” called Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), as well as to increase the number of projects implemented using EPWP principles under municipalities. Even in the world there were some programmes that were implemented, some are mentioned hereunder.

2.7 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVE ON EPWP

To construct the theory behind a programme like the EPWP, one needs to consider the policies that informs it. These policies include economic growth, education and training as well as employment equity. The initiatives of the EPWP are directed to create employment and address poverty, constituting a high return investment translating into economic growth (Edigheji, 2007). The EPWP has similar characteristics to foregoing programmes such as the RDP and GEAR with the aim of creating mass employment and service delivery for the people of South Africa.

EPWP is viewed as one of the major initiatives to reach policy goals. However, the EPWP is differentiated by the fact that it is the only initiative which aimed to create employment to improve living conditions. The other projects such as social grants, job search support and skills training also form part of governments aim to address poverty and

unemployment. The EPWP however, is the largest policy programme aimed at these concerns and therefore it is important for a study on rethinking.

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

With regard to skills development, the EPWP provides opportunities beyond the skills acquired on the job to prepare participants for longer-term employment, self-employments or further education and training. For example, youth employed as manual labourers in a labour-intensive road project, may be offered training in unrelated building skill such as bricklaying, if there is a demand for such skills in the labour market. The number of average training days varies from 10 days in the environmental sector to 30 days for those participating in the social activities. As far as possible, all training should result in some type of accreditation certificate (Del Ninno, 2009).

However, McCord et al (2007) argues that the skills transferred during participants' brief period of EPWP employment are not consistent with the skills required in the economy, since the limited period of training included in most EPWP. Bentall et al (1999), defines labour intensive as an approach where labour is the dominant resource for carrying out works, and where the share of the total project cost spent on labour is high (typically 25 – 60%).

Labour intensification in the construction sector offers an opportunity to generate employment without additional demands on the fiscus, by 'fundamentally changing the way

in which publicly funded infrastructure is built so that employment and skills transfer are maximised for the unemployed' (McCutcheon, 1995).

Employment opportunities prohibits the acquisition of the artisanal and other skills in short supply. For these reasons, the employment impact of the EPWP training component is likely to be limited, resulting primarily in substitution rather than significant increases in aggregate employment. Hemson (2008) argues that based on his analysis, it is clear that the EPWP succeeded in phase 1 by:

- Reaching the target of 1 million work opportunities.
- The targeted proportion of work opportunities for women and youth (although not for the disabled) has been reached; and
- In getting departments to take EPWP seriously by allocating funding to Public Works.

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

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

Betcherman et al. (2004) argue that in evaluating the impact of the EPWP the major difficulty facing the analyst is that of attempting to determine the counterfactual i.e., to answer the question of what would have happened if the participant had not taken part in a programme (to the participant and in the economy more generally). The central point of this argument is that real net effects of programmes cannot be established by tracking participants' post-programme experience.

Contrary to Betcherman et al. (2004), McCord (2004) reports that there is a real measurable impact on the participants of two EPWP programmes undertaken in both KwaZulu-Natal (Zibambele), and Limpopo (Gundo Lashu programme). The main findings in her comparative study between the two EPWP programmes are that:

Use of Income

- 65% of KZN households reported that their material assets had improved (e.g., clothing, cooking utensils, furniture), compared to 27% in Limpopo; and
- 64% of KZN households reported an improved financial situation since starting to work on PWP, compared to 26% in Limpopo.

Nutritional Impact

KwaZulu-Natal households frequently reducing the size of children's meals due to lack of money fell from 53% to 1%.

- The figures for Limpopo are 14% and 7% respectively.
- The KZN programme had significant positive impact on the nutritional status of participating households.
- The impact of the Limpopo programme was marginal, starting from a much lower base (lower levels of nutritional poverty).

Educational Impact

- Regular school participation of children in KZN households rose from 66% to 86%.
- The main reason children were out of school previously was hunger and lack of money to pay school fees.
- Regular school participation of children in Gundo Lashu households rose from 83% to 92%; and
- The impact of the Limpopo programme was marginal, starting from a much higher base.

Psychosocial Impact

Participation in community activities without shame.

- Clothing, feeding children; and
- Performance of burial rites.

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

The Bushbuckridge municipality's EPWP study reveals that there was economic and social impact on the participants. From the economic perspective, the EPWP enables the participants to earn an income and being able to fulfil the basic needs such as food, shelter and school fees for the kids. In addition, the researcher also observed that the income earned enable participants to buy televisions and radios.

Further, the level of social capital in the communities where the EPWP projects are located had improved. Social networks, norms and mutual trust among the community members had improved because of the pro EPWP project beneficiaries, who were receiving wages which enabled them to join community investment clubs (stokvels) and burial clubs to help one another pay for funerals of the dead (Mothapo, 2011).

In the eThekweni municipality's Vukuphile EPWP contractor learnership programme, Mayombe (2009) reports that of those who were unemployed (47%) and expecting to get jobs after the eThekweni Vukuphile 1 learnership programme, 17.6% (3 out of 17) of them owned construction companies able to tender. Another 11.8% (2 out of 17) were immediately employed; one 5.9% was employed after 3 months and another one (5.9%) was employed after 5 months. The remaining 5.9% (one out of 17) was finally employed

after a year. In general, in this learnership programme, 87.5% of the respondents previously unemployed found employment after 6 months.

Within the Zululand District Municipality, it is reported that the beneficiaries in one (Phongola) of the five local municipalities i.e., Dumbe, Ulundi, Abaqulusi, Nongoma, and Phongola in the district, had sustainable EPWP employment (1 year or longer). This represented only 9.42% of the total beneficiaries initially employed in the EPWP projects. 90.58% of the beneficiaries had worked on the EPWP projects for an average period of 6 months, which meant that they were temporary jobs and not sustainable. With regard to training of beneficiaries and skills gained, only 46.97% respondents received training and 53.04% did not receive training.

This low rate of training amongst respondents may have the effect that the jobs created were not sustainable and they were unable to have an exit strategy from the Expanded Public Works Programme. One of the possible exit strategies would be for the workers to use the skills gained during training to get permanent employment or open their own businesses (Khanyile, 2008).

Magebula study of the Madibeng (2006) local municipality's water reticulation EPWP projects (installation of pipes, site clearance and earthworks), revealed that women labourers displayed more interest in the work than the men. They expressed a lot of excitement over the opportunity to work and they were intrigued by performing work that is traditionally reserved for men.

With regard to the effectiveness of the EPWPs in enhancing employability, once exiting the programme, Moyo (2013) conducted a study in the North-West Province (Modimola Village) which revealed that:

- Once the participants exited the EPWP projects they were employed on, the employment opportunities in implementation areas disappeared. However, this finding should be viewed within the nature and design of the EPWP projects.i.e.,

EPWPs are an emergency and a poverty-alleviation programme not meant to provide long-term employment opportunities to the unskilled poor; and

- While the training provided in the Modimola Integrated EPWPs was useful to beneficiaries, it did not enhance their employability once they exited the projects.

In general, McCord (2004) proposes the following key design features for EPWP to have the desired outcomes:

- Consider maintenance, or employment on multiple construction programmes for increased impact.
- Target poorest if the programme wants impact on poverty.
- Target youth if the programme wants impact on labour market performance – if training is linked with employment potential.
- Coordinate with other developmental initiatives to promote savings, microenterprise and informal employment; and
- Longer-term PWP employment offers greater chance of sustained poverty reduction.

The notion of EPWP is an initiative of the current democratic government which seeks to address the triple challenges of poverty, inequality and a high rate of unemployment. This programme aims to ensure that the unskilled labour force and unemployment do enjoy the benefits of economic development. In the post-apartheid era,

The South African government has put considerable effort into restructuring its economy and integrating it within the global financial system. This means that the government has had to develop sound economic policies which will sustain the country's economic growth. The government has, however, realised that the triple challenges (poverty, inequality and

unemployment) facing South Africa have some dire consequences and pose a potential threat to its sustainable economy and political stability.

The mid-term review of the expanded public works programme Phase 2 for 2009-2012 stated that the EPWP in South Africa aims at confronting structural unemployment and poverty in the short and medium term; hence the programme puts special emphasis and significance of learning across all programmes within sectors.

The South African government have realised the importance of an effective implementation framework and also identified weak M&E systems as one reason for most of the failures of government programmes. In 2009, the Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation was established in the presidency with a focus on developing strong M&E systems.

This department also commenced monitoring and evaluation of all organs of state in relation to service delivery and reports to the presidency regularly. The objective of the Department of Performance Monitoring & Evaluation is to collaborate with other government partners in obtaining the desired outcomes and thereby indirectly improving the performance of government entities (www.thepresidency-dpme.gov.za).

According to the South African Monitoring and Evaluation Association (SAMEA), in 2002, Professor Michael Quinn realised that there was a strong need for developing, providing training and capacitating working professionals in South Africa to indirectly contribute towards the development of the country.

An effective implementation framework has become an essential part of any activity in the country to achieve intended results, whereas weak systems have been the cause of failures of many projects and programmes in South Africa. SAMEA is striving towards the improvement of the systems in the country, bringing M&E professionals together and providing knowledge and advocating with regard to strengthening of M&E frameworks (www.samea.org).

The South African economy is mostly stabilised, have survived a recession and remains steady while other economies are encountering economic uncertainties. Foreign investors have exhibited confidence and believe South Africa is a good investment destination, due to its reasonable and largely strong economic policies, solid fundamentals, and effective financial systems (SA Economy, global surveys).

However, economic growth is imperative for the development of the country. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the total value of goods and a service produced in a specific time period in a country and is a good indicator of the country's economic growth. Gross Domestic Product was at 0.6 % in 1999, grew to 3% then declined to 1.9% in 2003, increasing to 5.1% in 2007. It then stabilised around 3.0% in 2012 (Indexmundi).

In the years between 2000 and 2004, there was little change in the unemployment rate, which in fact saw a moderate increase from 23.3 % in 2000 to 26.7% in 2004 amongst males, and from 20.4% in 2000 to 22.6% in 2004 amongst females. The unemployment rate increased from 26.5% in 2000 to 31.7% in 2004 (Statistics-South Africa, 2020).

In the case of Limpopo Province, the survey revealed that the employment rate during Quarters 1 and 2 of 2013 declined only in Gauteng, whilst there was notable 9 employment increases in other provinces such as Mpumalanga, North-West, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2013). Yu (2013) argues that youth unemployment has been of concern for some time and is considered by many to be the most challenging socio-economic problem in South Africa. The youth encounter problems such as lack of information, limited networks, few job opportunities and poor financial resources.

The characteristics of unemployed youth include lack of education, many school dropouts for various reasons, and lack of societal support. The effect is that youth are unable to cope with labour competition, since they are unskilled, inexperienced and do not have any formal training to grasp job opportunities. Smith (2011) suggests that South Africa has a larger proportion of youth due to demographic dividend and it should be viewed as a benefit to

the country. However, it will only contribute towards economic development if all the youth are actively working, otherwise it will have an adverse effect on the economic growth path.

It is against this background that the possible solution to address inequalities and escalating poverty and unemployment is to equip the youth with the necessary resources such as skills, work training, and information to help them adapt to the labour market.

Rankin, Roberts, Schoer and Shepherd (2012) explain that young people are least attracted to and encounter rigid competition in the labour market, and as a result lack work experience or exposure. This contributes to the employers not being able to absorb them into the labour market without some kind of formal training, skills and experience. It is further suggested that, even if these young people do get jobs, they still need to be placed in temporary, short-term jobs.

The effect is that whenever the country experiences economic challenges, or even recession, young people with 10 limited work experience are the first to be dismissed or overlooked in the hiring process. These factors contribute negatively towards economic growth. Youth unemployment between the ages of 15 and 24 is around 50% among males and around 60% among females.

The uses of labour-intensive methods have always been considered as a better model in the implementation of infrastructure projects and public works in order to create jobs and provide income to address poverty and unemployment. From the theoretical perspective, the implementation of the EPWP through the use of intensive labour, have been implemented in other countries as a method to alleviate poverty and reduce the challenges caused by high unemployment.

Doidge (2009) in the five-year review report of the EPWP Phase 1, notes that it has achieved its target of providing one million work opportunities for unemployed people, and that almost 40% of working age people were unemployed at the beginning of 2003. Mangaung Municipality (2010) states in their implementation plan that the EPWP have

been implemented in collaboration with the New Growth Path (NGP), and subsequently outlined necessary job drives such as more labour-absorbing activities in the main economic sectors to create job opportunities in construction and maintenance.

It further states that high youth unemployment means people are not obtaining the skills and experience which are vital for economic growth. The proposed job opportunities are linked to NGP job drives which ultimately provide Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) opportunities.

2.7.1 South Africa as a developmental state

Padayachee as cited in Mapungubwe (2011:44) argues that in “South Africa, precisely because of the pedestrian nature of our economic growth, and the sluggish progress in reducing poverty and inequality, that the concept of a developmental state has captured the imagination of decision makers across the various sectors of society”.

Consequently, in its 52nd National Conference in Polokwane, the African National Congress (ANC, 2007) pledged to build the developmental state that will play a central and strategic role by ‘directly investing in underdeveloped areas and directing private sector investment’ and will play a critical role in addressing the problems of ‘high unemployment, poverty and inequality’ ANC, as well as ‘accelerate economic growth’ and address the ‘skewed patterns of ownership and production.

The ANC’s conference resolutions link the imperatives for economic growth with addressing the social challenges. Accordingly, the resolutions state that “whilst acting effectively to promote growth, efficiency and productivity it (the developmental state) must be equally effective in addressing the social conditions of the masses of our people and realising economic progress for the poor” (ANC, 2007:66), including through the creation for decent work. The resolutions recognise that a democratic developmental state in South Africa has to be undergirded by the principles of democratic governance (Edigheji, 2010).

In achieving the ideals of a developmental state, Gumede (2009:22) argues that the 'East Asian developmental states shared some common approaches. Gumede further states that they have "major preoccupation to ensure sustained economic growth and development on the back of high rates of accumulation, industrialisation and structural change". The development state directly and actively influenced the direction, pace and goals of development, rather than leaving it to uncoordinated market forces or an 'invisible hand' to allocate resources in the economy.

Gumede (2011:12) further argues that South Africa is currently not a developmental state, but a developmental state in the making. He indicates that South Africa has not been a very effective state, owing to its technical and implementation state capacity. Also, the state has only recently adopted long term development planning, whereas its various planning instruments had in the past focused on medium term planning.

In achieving the ideals of a developmental state, Gumede (2009:34) argues that the 'East Asian developmental states shared some common approaches. These states he points out that they have 'major preoccupation to ensure sustained economic growth and development on the back of high rates of accumulation, industrialisation and structural change'. The development state directly and actively influenced the direction, pace and goals of development, rather than leaving it to uncoordinated market forces or an 'invisible hand' to allocate resources in the economy.

Van Dijk and Croucamp (2007) point out that perhaps the greatest impediment to the implementation of a developmental state in South Africa, is the robust societal urge (also embodied in legislation and entrenched in the Constitution, 1996) of South Africa's local communities to participate and determine policy and policy outcomes.

This was a reflection on the social as well as institutional memory (the connective tissue of the continued resistance), which, perhaps, somewhat ironically, was conceived in the liberationist political realm. The South African Catholics Bishops (2007) observe that South Africa already has certain characteristics of the developmental state, but these needed

to be broadened: government needs to expand the provision of social grants to those who are unable to support themselves and their dependents; it should work in collaboration with the private sector to create jobs; there is a need to expand further the public works programme, and to provide free basic education, free under-five healthcare, free water and a universal basic electricity supply. This view is further supported by Gumede (2011) in his assertion that for South Africa to be a fully-fledged developmental state it has to have the capacities and systems that will ensure that human development is further improved.

2.7.2 EPWP and indigent policy

Section 27 of the South African Constitution Act, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) indicates:

Everyone has a right to access to:

- Sufficient food and water; and
- Social security, including if they are unable to support themselves and their dependents, appropriate social assistance.

The state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of these rights (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

The Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs' (COGTA) National Framework for Municipal Indigent Policies broadly defines Indigent as anyone who does not have access to the following services:

- Sufficient water.
- Basic sanitation.
- Refuse removal in denser settlements.
- Environmental health.

- Basic energy.
- Health care.
- Housing; and
- Food and clothing (COGTA, 2012).

From the municipal perspective COGTA's National Framework for Municipal Indigent Policies defines the municipal role in providing for indigents as follows:

Table 2.3: COGTA's National Framework for Municipal Indigent Policies

Goods or service	Role of local government
Sufficient water	Local government responsibility
Basic sanitation	Local government responsibility
Refuse removal	This is a local government responsibility and becomes increasingly important as settlement densities increase
Environmental health	This falls under the function 'municipal health' which is a local government responsibility but the importance of environmental health from the point of view of indigents has been considerably watered down through the definitions applied by the National Department of Health which imply that Environmental health is primarily a regulatory function.
Basic energy	The Constitution does not deal with energy explicitly, but electricity reticulation is identified as a municipal function
Health care	This is now a provincial responsibility as the definition of municipal health has been taken to exclude primary health care

Housing	Housing is a provincial responsibility. However, local government has a role to play in planning, land development and implementing projects. From an indigent point of view, access to land for housing, with secure tenure, is a critically important matter. Further, essential services such as water supply and sanitation are often delivered as part of a housing package. Therefore, considerable attention is placed on housing and land in this policy
Food & clothing	Not the responsibility of local government. As noted above this is dealt with through welfare grants distributed at national scale

Source: COGTA (2012)

The CDM defines an Indigent Household ‘as any household of which the members are South African citizens/permanent resident and municipal tenants as defined in the policy that due to a number of economic and social factors are unable to pay for municipal services’ (CDM, 2012).

The CDM EPWP policy states that the EPWP beneficiaries must be:

- South African citizens with a valid bar-coded Identity Document.
- Residents of designated area where project is being implemented.
- Persons from indigent households; and
- Households with no income and priority given to one individual per household (CDM, 2012).

By implication persons from indigent households are beneficiaries of the EPWP. It should be noted that the CDM Indigent Policy places emphasis on registered households, as it states its purpose as ‘to ensure that registered indigent households have access to a basic of municipal services’. The policy further indicates that for households to be registered as indigents they should meet all of the following criteria:

- a) The gross monthly income of all the members of the household does not exceed the joint amount of two state old age pensions excluding child support grant and foster care grant.
- b) The applicant as well as any other members of the household does not own other fixed property than the one in which they reside.
- c) The person/applicant applying on behalf of a household must be eighteen (18) years or older, except if the child is appointed executorship by a court of law.
- d) The person/applicant applying on behalf of a household must reside at that property except when a guardian applies on behalf of a child headed household.
- e) The person/applicant should be the registered owner, municipal tenant or an occupant of the North-West Housing Corporation or CDM property as defined in this policy except when a guardian applies on behalf of a child headed household.
- f) The person/applicant must be a South African citizen.
- g) A child from a child headed household who is eighteen (18) years and older may apply to have the household registered as indigent; and
- h) The person/applicant applying must have a services account with the City of Polokwane (CDM, 2012).

The above-mentioned criteria operate within the policy directive of the CDM, which indicates that at least 50% of all the participants in the EPWP programme should be drawn from the indigent register. Unfortunately, as indicated earlier the CDM has been unable to meet this mandate in previous years of implementing the programme.

In the financial year 2009/10, 4 000 EPWP job opportunities were created, and less than 1900 indigents were participants. Further, in the financial year 2010/11 9 000 EPWP job opportunities were created of which 604 opportunities were for persons drawn from the indigent register (CDM, 2011).

Even further, there are several issues that complicate the attainment of the 50% directive based on the above-mentioned indigent register criteria and other factors:

- a) The Indigent Policy Management (IPM) division of the CDM indicated that in recruiting the indigents for the EPWP Vat Alles (environmental cleaning programme) there were challenges as some target areas such as Dendron, Leboakgomo, Ga-Mmadikane as ‘these areas have few or no registered indigents.’ This fact implies that persons who qualify to be indigents may not be registered in the CDM indigent register (CDM, 2012).
- b) The CDM water and sanitation department indicated the location in which the projects take place as one of the challenges i.e. ‘Most of our capital projects are located in the northern parts of Blouberg which most of it is not formalised and these people do not have utility accounts which is a requirement to register as an indigent.
- c) In actual fact, the people that are employed in these projects are indigents and are not in the indigent register. If you consider that a project located in the Makgato, Sekonye and Portion 9 area would primarily have a labour force from the areas mentioned and ward councillors together with the appointed Community Liaison Officer (CLO) would be involved in the provision of lists with beneficiaries that are indigents and these people would then be considered for employment’ (CDM,2011).
- d) Community Unrest: There were cases where Community Liaison Officers were threatened with violence because communities feel that everyone must be given the same opportunities of employment in the projects. These threats are not only directed to the CLO and also people would often come to site and threaten to stop projects (CDM, 2012).
- e) The CDM roads and transport department asserts that within a family, ‘only the homeowner is registered as an indigent which exclude the rest of the family members’ (CDM, 2012).

The CDM housing department indicates that people appointed are from the relevant informal settlement where services are rendered, therefore they cannot use the indigent list as the community does not allow people to come from the outside (CDM, 2011).

Evaluation: Clearly, the CDM has been unable to adhere to the directive that indicates that 50% of all EPWP beneficiaries recruited should be sourced from the indigent register. As

indicated above, one of the main inhibiting factors relates to the lack of the CDM capacity to register all persons qualifying as indigents especially those residing in informal areas. On the other hand, the community members also have a responsibility to come forward and be registered.

In this regard, CDM has to ensure that there is information dissemination to areas hardest hit with high unemployment rates. The fact that a person to be registered as an indigent should be a homeowner also excludes other members of the family who may qualify as indigents albeit policies have limited objectives.

Generally, the criteria contained in this indigent policy does not facilitate the employment and registration of indigents, rather it places several unnecessary limitations that may discourage adherence by councillors, and contractors in employing potential EPWP participants. These then ‘allows’ councillors, and contractors to seek other ways of employing individuals into the EPWP projects.

For instance, councillors may propose lists of community members who are indigents but do not qualify to be registered as per the indigent registration policy’s stringent criteria. Contractors may bring their own labourers from other areas to work in their projects, of which may conflict with the employment of community members in which the projects take place.

Some of the immediate solutions indicated by the CDM in meeting the 50% directive include the recruitment from neighboring areas (within each of the seven Regions) where indigent households reside. In addition, the ward councilor and the local community may provide lists of unemployed residents from the affected areas (CDM, 2012).

2.8 IMPLEMENTATION OF PUBLIC WORKS PROJECTS THROUGH LABOUR-INTENSIVE METHOD IN SOUTH AFRICA: EXPERIENCES, PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

The government of national unity initiated the National Public Works Programme (NPWP) after 1994 elections. The NPWP consists of labour-intensification and increased training and capacity building in the provision of infrastructure. The NPWP is a key component of the Government's Reconstruction and Development Programme

According to McCutcheon (1995), the NPWP has been shifted towards a Community Based Public Workers Programme (CBPWP), which places more emphasis upon smaller companies and regulatory bodies than a national programme. Prior to the NPWP another initiative was the set-up of a framework agreement, this was later incorporated into NPWP.

The framework agreement is a social compact between government, labour, the construction industry and the civics (McCutcheon, 1999). The main item in the Agreement is first, where industry commits itself, to maximise the use of labour-intensive systems of construction within public works programme, due regards to economics. The seminar was very useful in the sense that it provided a good background to the subject. This was based on Abedian and Standish 's report for the Human Sciences Research Council (Abedian and Standish, 1986).

Trade Union Research Project reported that the most prevalent causes of failure of public works Programme that there were: 1) seldom scaled to the magnitude of national manpower needs; 2) often introduced in a fragmented and unsystematic way; 3) implemented using inappropriate technology; 4) introduced on an ad hoc basis and were not linked to an overall development policy; 5) dependent upon the government 's commitment to the Programme: if there was a lack of commitment this would be reflected in a lack of funding.

The findings of the study reveals that in South Africa Public Works Programme with similar objectives have not been properly implemented and managed. Over the past 15 years,

billions of rands have been spent on projects and so-called programme with stated objectives of both creating employment and providing physical infrastructure such as roads, water supply and sanitation (Thwala, 2001). To these objectives, community participation and entrepreneurial development have been added.

Based on both the international and local experiences, the problems of public works development projects can be attributed to the following factors, which must be avoided in order for large scale projects to be successful in South Africa:

- 1) There has been a lack of clear objectives linking the short and long-term visions of the programme.
- 2) There were no pilot projects with extensive training Programme or lead –in time to allow for proper planning at a national scale. This should have allowed sufficient time to develop the necessary technology,
- 3) Establish training programme and develop both the institutional and the individual Capacities.
- 4) The programme has seldom been scaled to the magnitude of national work force needs. Very often, they have been introduced in an unsystematic and fragmentary style. This often led to technical hastiness, which was compounded by incompetence and inappropriate technology selection.
- 5) There have been organisational infirmities and appropriate administrative arrangements;
- 6) There has been lack of political and government commitment to the projects and programmes.
- 7) There has been an imbalance between centralisation for higher level co-ordination and decentralisation for local decision-making and execution of works.
- 8) Inadequate post-project maintenance arrangements often undermined the efficacy of the projects. This was largely attributed to the failure to ensure there would be an authority with a sufficient stake in the projects and in their continuing effectiveness (that was lack of community participation and ineffective local government).

- 9) The projects and Programme have been over ambitious. This was a result of lack of appreciation of the time it takes to build the necessary individual and institutional capacities at various levels,
- (10) There has been a lack of clearly defined and executed training. Programme that links medium to a long-term development plan.
- 11) There was no long-term development planning.
- 11) Most of these projects and Programme were highly politicised.
- 12) The budget allocation was arbitrary and very little sustainable employment was created.

Regardless of the problems and challenges encountered in previous Public Works Programme in South Africa. The Government currently had embarked on a national Public Works Programme known as the expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP), which aims to draw a significant number of the unemployed, while ensuring that workers gain skills and training on the job, and so increase their capacity to earn an income in the future.

The Programme is one of arrays of government's initiatives to try to bridge the gap between the growing economy and the large numbers of unskilled and unemployed people who have not yet enjoyed the benefits of economic development.

The fundamental strategies to increase employment opportunities in the economy are aimed at increasing economic growth so that the number of net new jobs being created starts to exceed the number of new entrants into the labour market. They also focused on improving the education system an access to training in a way that better equips that workforce to take up the largely skilled work opportunities which economic growth will generate.

Therefore, in the meantime, there is a need to put in a place short to medium-term strategies that seek to reduce the vulnerability of the unskilled and marginalised. The EPWP from one of these government measures aimed at creating additional job opportunities through providing a combination of work opportunities and skills development and training for a minimum of one million people by the year 2009.

The emphasis of the EPWP is to expand the use of labour-intensive method in government funded service delivery projects to create more works opportunities and stimulate entrepreneur activity. Many public sector organisations in the country are already implementing the public works type of projects and programme and one key objective of the.

EPWP is the expansion and the replication of existing best-practice Programmes, under the Code of Good Practice for Special Public Works Programme (SPWP), or learnership employment conditions. EPWP projects and programme is the built-in attempt by the public sector body to define and facilitate exit strategies for workers when they leave the programme, as a way of helping to build bridges between the first and second economy.

The new initiative by the South African is reinforced by a study done by World Bank (1992) which reports that infrastructure can deliver major benefits in economic growth, poverty alleviation, and environmental sustainability, but only when it provides services that respond to effective demand and does so efficiently. The literature that had been reviewed in the paper clearly demonstrate that Public Works Programmes still play a major role in providing employment opportunities to many people in the Developing countries.

It is clear from the literature that there are many problems and challenges, which are encountered when implementing this programmes. In order to better implement and manage this programme in South Africa, lessons need to be learnt from countries like Kenya, Botswana who had implemented this Programme successfully.

National Public Works Infrastructure Programme has the potential to redress this problem of disproportionately high unemployment levels and also to correct the skills deficits in disadvantaged communities. Among other things, these may be achieved through an efficient institutional set up, effective community participation, and construction technology that is programmatic and innovative in nature.

In the early phases of the Expanded Public Works Programmes, the emphasis was upon the creation of employment opportunities for unskilled labour. In order to use labour productively it is necessary to train a skilled supervisor who is technically and organisationally competent and thus able to direct and motivate the workers under his or her control.

For a successful national programmes, it is necessary to educate engineers about creation and train them in the specific skills required in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of large labour –intensive programme. In time, an experienced technician or technologist should be able to do this level of work releasing the engineer for engineering and planning.

2.9 GUNDO LASHU LABOUR INTENSIVE RURAL ROADS PROGRAMME IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE

Launched in 1991 by the Road Agency in Limpopo (RAL), Gundo Lashu aimed to improve roads in poor and disadvantaged rural areas in order to increase access to basic services such as health and education and to markets and economic activities. It involved the construction of drainage structures and reshaping, gravelling and low-cost sealing of rural roads with the primary objective of providing good quality, cost-effective rural roads using labour-intensive work methods.



Figure 4.2. A group of participants during Implementation of Gundu-Lashu in Dzumeri 2002, Limpopo Province (Adopted from www.roadandtransport.com)

The programme was implemented in partnership with the British Department for International Development (DFID) – which provided seed funding for technical assistance and training during the first five years, and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) – which provided technical assistance. The contractors employed local people as the work force on a project-by-project basis. Each contractor was responsible for the construction of between 4 and 15 km of roads on a contract basis. Gundo Lashu was the first long-term labour-intensive road works programme in South Africa where emerging contractors were

given extensive formal training and a series of practical on-site training projects in labour-intensive road works over 21 months.

The programme trained 24 emerging contractors to undertake road construction works with a strong emphasis on training the contractors' supervisory staff, to ensure that they had sufficient capacity to efficiently manage works applying labour-intensive methods. The training also sought to strengthen the capacity of technical staff in RAL and private consultants. Seventeen technicians and six engineering consultants from six firms and 10 RAL staff were trained in the management and supervision of labour-based road works. In total, more than 18,000 training days were provided.

Assurance of continuous funding and workload during the developmental stage was a key element in ensuring effective contractor capacity development. Funding for road construction works was therefore provided over time, thereby securing long-term market prospects for the contractors. A total of R 293 million was spent on road works projects during the period from 2002 to 2009 of which nearly 42 million was spent on wages. Over the total duration of the programme, expenditure on wages constituted 18 percent of the construction costs. When including the costs of consultants, the wage component amounted to 14 percent.

The programme improved more than 370 km of rural roads up to RAL standards (207 km of sealed roads and 170 km of gravel roads). It generated 1.3 million workdays of employment (5,600 FTEs) of which 47% were provided to women and 44% to youth. An independent review of the programme found that it constructed roads to required quality standards at no extra cost compared to conventional machine-intensive roads projects. "Road network South Africa's Road infrastructure can be divided into two parts. In the urban areas and on high volume roads and highways the road, network is similar to what is found in first world" (Thwala, 2010:342).

Roads Agency Limpopo (RAL), an agency of the Limpopo Province Provincial Government launched Gundo Lashu in to improve transport infrastructure in poor and

previous disadvantaged rural areas. Limpopo province 's road network consists of 22 000 km of which 6000 km have been paved. By improving this ratio, Gundo Lashu wishes to increase the accessibility of communities to services such as health, education and therefore include people in economic activities. The primary objective of Gundo Lashu is to provide good quality, cost–effective rural roads using labour intensive instruction methods.

The programme in particular aims to achieve the following: (1) Develop and train at least 24 local contractors using labour intensive methods and thereby bring 300km of rural roads up to RAL standards. (2) Engage rural communities and generate 1 million workdays of employment (40 %male, 60 % female) that will lead to improved livelihoods for communities linked to the Programme. (3) Strength the capacity of the RAL to manage, monitor and evaluate the implementation of Gundo Lashu in accordance governance best practice.

Gundo Lashu Programme Category Achievements Effectiveness During 2003, 363,000 person-days of employment were created. Of this total, 188,760 person-days of employment were provided to women; In 2004, twenty-four (24) emerging contractors (52% female and 37% youth) were equipped with the necessary skills and assisted in building their resource base; Twenty-four (24) supervisors were trained to manage the execution of the work (12 were women and almost all were youth) and nine consulting firms and six engineering consultants were trained in labour-based road rehabilitation; Workers were provided with training to participate in local economic development;

The skills and competence of local entrepreneurs that would continue to partner with the government were raised and the working environment was improved to ensure their growth in a competitive environment; roads were rehabilitated to acceptable standards, resulting in improved mobility for communities in and out of their area; and the project has helped address misconceptions within the construction industry that labour-based methods are neither viable nor effective delivery mechanisms. Impact on poverty households without breadwinners were targeted first to ensure that a wider net of families benefitted. To educate workers about financial management and to avoid them falling victim to loan sharks, the

programme managers liaised with the Department of Social Development to establish financial saving schemes in the project areas. Sustainability A unit (within the responsible government agency) was established and staffed to plan, execute and manage works using employment-intensive approaches.

The University of the Witwatersrand, as well as institutions in 149 Lesotho and Kenya, offered thorough, well-structured training to staff from the implementing agency and the business sector on planning, implementing, and managing works utilizing employment-intensive methodologies. The effective capacity development of emerging contractors depended on consistent funding and workloads during the formative periods. Over a three-year period, R96 million in funding was obtained for road reconstruction.

Replication as road and transport infrastructure are important elements of a modern economy and the development of the rural roads system is important to relieve the burden on national roads, it was imperative to find cost-effective methods while providing employment to achieve this need. Expansion of the project to all Districts in Limpopo resulted in the creation of 5,000 monthly jobs for rural dwellers. Partnerships UK Department of International Development (DFID), International Labour Organisation (ILO) · Department of Rural Roads, Lesotho-Civil Engineering Department, WITS University-Department of Labour, Department of Public Works, Labour Intensive Training and Engineering (LITE) and ABSA Bank Source (Impumelelo, 2005)

2.9.1 Innovation in EPWP

Gundo Lashu is the first long-term labour-intensive public works road sector Programme in South Africa, where emerging contractors are given extensive formal training and a series of practical on-site training project in labour-based road works over 21 months. Gundo Lashu aims to establish “labour intensive” as a technically sound and cost-effective alternative to conventional “machine intensive” methods.

The programme makes out of limited government funds, by achieving a number of goals simultaneously. Gundo Lashu results in poverty alleviation, economic empowerment and capacity building in addition to improved roads in rural communities. The cost and quality of road works by labour-based methods are competitive if compared with conventional machine-based methods and increases labour content from less than 5% of project cost to 40%.

2.9.2 Effectiveness in EPWP

In terms of training, 24 contractors and 6 engineering consultants have been trained in labour-based road rehabilitation, 10 RAL staff trained in management of labour-based road works and 13 000 training days have been provided in terms of employment. 2 400 people who had no income are now receiving a month salary through the creation of 320 000 work away that have been created.

2.9.3 Poverty impact of EPWP

Accessibility to market and services in the project areas have been improved as well as the injection of R10 million into rural communities. As part of recruitment, household without breadwinners are targeted first to ensure a wider net of families' gain the positive effects of the campaign. In an effort to educate workers with the Department of Social Development to establish financial saving schemes in the project areas.

2.9.4 Sustainability of EPWP

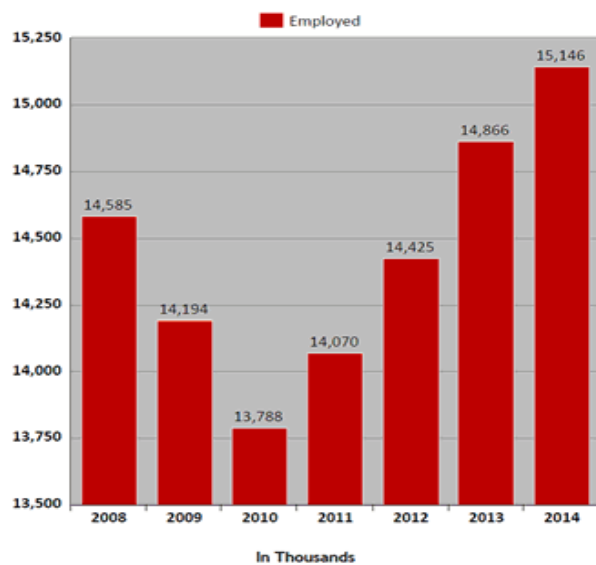
Extensive and well-structured training of staff of both implementing agency and the private sector, assurance of continuous funding and workload during the development stage are some of the important fundamentals in ensuring effective emerging contractor capacity development.

Funding was secured over the next three years to the tune of R96 million for road rehabilitation, demonstrating the high priority given to the Gundo Lashu project. Road and

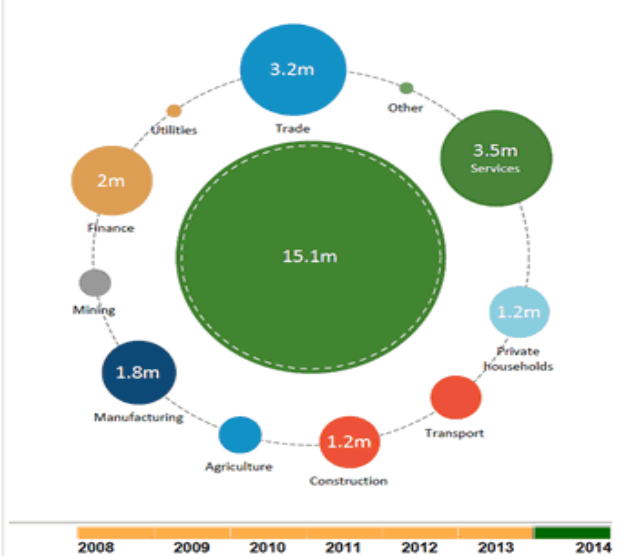
Transport infrastructure are important elements in a modern economy and the development of rural roads system is important to relieve the burden on other national Roads. It is imperative to find cost-effective methods while at the same time providing employment to achieve this need. If the project is expanded to all Districts in Limpopo, 5 000 jobs per month will be provided to rural dwellers and likewise for any other province with similar socio-economic problems.

Labour Market Dynamics 2014

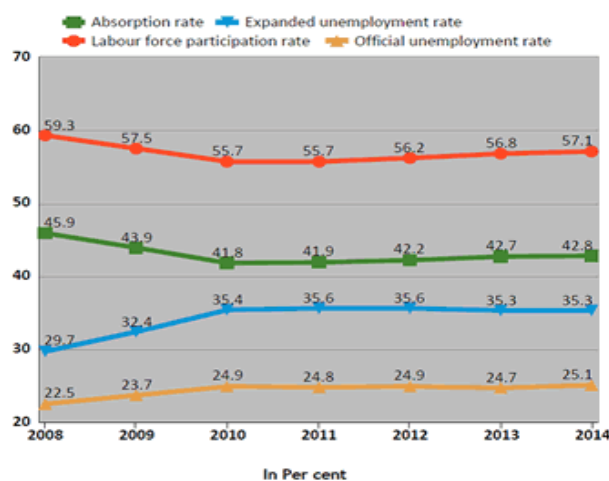
Total employment, 2008-2014



Employment by industry, 2014



Labour market rates 2008-2014



Unemployment rate by age, 2014

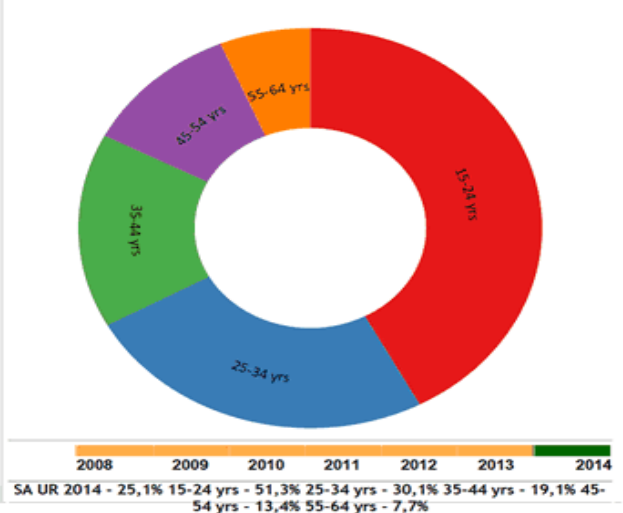


Figure 2.1: Graphs indicating Labour Market dynamics 2008-2014

2.9.5 Highlights

The effects of the 2008–2009 global financial crisis on the South African economy continued to linger in 2014. This, combined with factors such as constrained electricity supply and labour unrest, has negatively impacted on the performance of the economy. Slowing growth rates over the period 2010–2013 (averaging 2,7%), continued into 2014 owing to a protracted strike in the mining industry in the first half of the year. While employment levels increased by 1, 1 million since 2011, the unemployment rate continues to rise, while the absorption rate has not yet recovered to pre-recessionary levels.

2.9.6 The South African labour market

Between 2008 and 2014, the number of employed persons increased from 14, 6 million to 15, 1 million; however, the number of unemployed persons increased from 4, 3 million to 5, 1 million, resulting in an increase in the unemployment rate from 22, 5% in 2008 to 25, and 1% in 2014. In addition, the absorption rate in 2014 at 42, 8% was still 3, 1 percentage points below the peak reached in 2008.

Labour market rates vary by province; with the exception of Limpopo, unemployment rates increased in all provinces, most notably by 10,5 percentage points in Free State and 7,1 percentage points in Northern Cape. The unemployment rate in Limpopo declined by 13, 2 percentage points to 16, 5% in 2014 due to a shift into discouragement.

The absorption rate also declined in all provinces although it increased in Limpopo, which had the second lowest rate in both 2008 and 2014. Reflecting the changes in employment and unemployment over the period 2008–2014, the labour force participation rate declined in five provinces, with Limpopo reflecting the lowest rate in both years.

Compared to adults, young people have higher rates of unemployment and lower rates of absorption. In addition, the jobless rate for young people between the ages of 18 and 24 rose the most among all age groups, rising from 45,6% in 2008 to 51,3% in 2014. Nearly three times as many people without a postsecondary degree are unemployed as those with

a matriculation, and their unemployment rate climbed by the biggest proportion from 2008 to 2014 as well (3,3 percentage points).

2.9.7 Employment patterns and trends

Employment gains between 2008 and 2014 by industry highlight that the largest gains were observed in Community and social services (717 000), Finance (248 000) and Transport (108 000). The Community and Social Services industry (23, 1%) was the biggest employer in seven of the nine provinces, while the Trade industry (21,1%) remained the second largest contributor to employment in all provinces. However, in the Western Cape and Mpumalanga, Trade was the biggest employer, while the Mining (2, 8%) and Utilities (0,8%) industries remained the smallest employers.

When comparing 2008 and 2014, the gain in employment by occupational categories was mainly due to a rise in Sales (468 000), manager (234 000) and clerical (110 000) occupations. Over the period 2008 to 2014, employment levels in the formal sector increased by 739 000 to 10, 8 million in 2014, while in the informal sector, employment was virtually unchanged at 2, 4 million (up 13 000 jobs since 2008).

Between 2008 and 2014, the average weekly hours worked declined from 45 to 43 hours. Average hours worked by men were consistently higher compared to those of women. The number of underemployed persons declined from 651 000 in 2008 to 602 000 in 2014 as the number of employed increased by 504 000 to 15, 1 million in 2014. This resulted in a decline in the underemployment rate of 0, 5 of a percentage point, from 4, 5% in 2008 to 4, 0% in 2014.

While the share of employees working excessive hours declined, men were more likely to work excessive hours than women. The proportion of employees who were members of a trade union declined over the period 2008 to 2014, most notably in the Community and Social Services industry, while the proportion of unionised employees increased in the Mining and Utilities.

When it comes to receiving benefits, there are still gender differences. Despite increasing for both sexes, a greater percentage of male employees were qualified for paid sick time. From 45,5% in 2008 to 48,9% in 2014, more employees had access to pension/retirement fund contributions made by their company, and access was more prevalent among male employees than female employees. In 2014, more than 50% of workers said that the employer was the sole one to negotiate their wage increase; this was the only group to show an increase between 2011 and 2014.

Employees' median monthly salaries climbed from R2 900 in 2010 to R3 033 in 2014, however the amount remained constant from the previous year. While there are still gender differences, there has been a rise in intra-gender inequality, particularly between the top and bottom of the income distribution. There are clear disparities in pay between racial and ethnic groups; in 2014, a white employee made almost four times as much as a black African employee did in median pay.

Between 2010 and 2014, earnings levels increased in all industries, with the exception of Community and personals services (down R1 000). The largest increase in earnings was observed in mining (R2 000), utilities (R1 000) and agriculture (R858). Earnings growth over the period was robust in skilled occupations, in particular, managers (R5 000) and professionals (R4 400). At provincial level, median earnings in 2014 was highest in Gauteng and the Western Cape while earnings increased the most over the period 2010–2014 in Gauteng (R833), Free State (R500) and the Western Cape (R423).

Between 2010 and 2014, the number of persons engaged in own-use activities as a percentage of the working-age population declined from 16,1% to 14,3%, as the number of persons engaged in subsistence agriculture declined. Between 2011 and 2014, fetching of water or collecting wood/dung was the main own-use activity undertaken by South Africans aged 15–64 years. This type of activity is not counted as employment in South Africa and is predominately undertaken by women, black Africans, those who have never

married, young people between the ages of 15 and 34 years, the less educated, and persons residing in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo.

2.9.8 Labour market dynamics

Between 2010 and 2014, panel data constructed from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) over the two quarters (Q3 to Q4) indicate that the employed are more likely to remain employed. In 2010, 93, 9% remained in employment while in 2014, the percentage was 93, 0%.

Provincial variation in employment retention rates is evident. In 2014, employment retention rates ranged from a high of 95, 4% in Western Cape to 88, 2% in Eastern Cape. Over the period 2010–2014, retention rates declined in all provinces with the exception of Western Cape (1, 5 percentage points) and Limpopo (1, 2 percentage points), where rates increased. In 2010, only 10, 3% of the unemployed found employment between Q3 and Q4; however, by 2014, this increased to 13,0%.

The informal sector serves as a point of entry to the formal sector; however, provincial disparities are evident. Between Q3 and Q4: 2014, 19,9% of individuals who worked in the informal sector in Western Cape found a job in the formal sector, in contrast to only 9,0% of informal sector workers in Limpopo who found a formal sector job.

The informal sector does not provide for stable employment. Nationally, 15,1% of informal sector workers moved out of employment, while in Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga, more than one in five of those employed in the informal sector moved out of employment in the subsequent quarter.

The analysis identifies that certain factors hinder the transition into employment for those without jobs; in particular, lack of experience, being female, and being a young person. While young people are less likely to transition into employment compared to adults, in

2014, these transition rates were highest in provinces such as Western Cape (6,9%), Mpumalanga (6,4%) and Gauteng (6,1%).

Experience and education levels are key factors in enhancing employment prospects. At the provincial level, the Western Cape, Northern Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal have extremely little possibility of hiring unemployed people without prior work experience. In 2014, compared to those without a job and less than matric, people without a job but with university education had nearly twice the chance of finding employment on a quarterly basis.

2.9.9 Unemployment patterns and trends.

Unemployment in South Africa exhibits certain demographic characteristics, in particular, unemployment is concentrated amongst black Africans, the less educated, the youth, women and those without prior work experience. In 2014, individuals with less than a matric qualification accounted for 59, 2% of the unemployed, down from 64,0% in 2008.

Over the period 2008–2014, more than half of the unemployed indicated that they had a job prior to becoming unemployed. Search methods most utilised by the unemployed included enquiring at workplaces, with close to three out of five unemployed persons using this method. Between 2008 and 2014, the largest increase in a search method used was observed amongst

Between 2008 and 2014, the number of long-term unemployed persons increased, with more than half of the unemployed looking for a job for more than a year. In 2014, those with a below-matric qualification accounted for 59, 3% of the unemployed. The incidence of long-term unemployment was highest for those aged 45–54 years in both 2008 and 2014; however, the incidence increased most over the period for youth aged 15–24 years.

A larger proportion of women compared to men were unemployed for a year or longer, while the black African population had the highest incidence of long-term unemployment

among all population groups. The incidence of long-term unemployment for those without prior work experience was nearly double that of the unemployed who had worked before. In addition, between 2008 and 2011, the incidence of long-term unemployment increased from 74, 5% to 81, 8% for those with no prior work experience.

2.9.10 Government job creation programmes

Awareness about the Expanded Public Works Programme and other government job creation programmes increased from 42, 8% to 52, 0% in 2014. Women are more likely to participate in these programmes, with the share of women among those who participated increasing from 59, 3% in 2011 to 63, and 1% in 2014.

In 2011, a larger proportion of youth participated (51, 1%), but by 2014 this had reversed in favour of adults (54,4%). In both 2011 and 2014, participation in the Expanded Public Works Programme was dominated by persons with an educational qualification lower than matric (65, 6% and 69,9%).

In 2014, Eastern Cape accounted for 22, 7% of those who participated in these programmes, followed by Gauteng (17,0%) and KwaZulu-Natal (14, 9%).

In 2014, seven out of ten of those who participated in the EPWP, and other government job creation programmes were employed, up from 56, 9% in 2014. Between 2011 and 2014, the proportion of those who participated in these programmes and who were employed in Tertiary industries increased from 58, 1% to 75,1%. The proportion of those persons employed in low-skilled occupations also increased from 51,1% to 72,4% over the period. Four out of every five participants who were employed had a formal sector job – a trend that has been continuing since 2011.

2.9.11 Youth in the labour market

The number of young people in the working-age population increased from 18,3 million in 2008 to 19,5 million in 2014. Over this period, the number of employed youths declined by 467 000 to 6,0 million, while the number of unemployed increased by 319 000 to 3,4 million.

Over the period 2008–2014, the education profile of young people improved; the share of young people with jobs who possessed a below-matric level of education declined by 5,3 percentage points, while those with a matric and tertiary-level education increased by 1,8 and 3,6 percentage points respectively. Despite this improvement, one in every two unemployed youth had an educational qualification below matric.

Young women in the labour force are better educated than young men. Amongst employed young women, 22, 4% had a tertiary qualification and 42,3% had matric, compared to 15,8% and 35,7% respectively among employed men aged 15–34 years. The unemployment rate for youth with a tertiary qualification is more than half that of a young person with a qualification lower than matric.

Amongst unemployed youth, nationally 48,3% had previous work experience; however, this percentage varied substantially by province. In Western Cape, 60, 8% of young people had worked before while in Limpopo, only 41,2% had previous work experience. Combined with high unemployment rates, the elevated levels of discouragement highlight the vulnerability of youth in the labour market. In addition, the vast majority of youth had less than a matric qualification. The percentage of the working-age youth who were discouraged increased from 4,2% in 2008 to 8,1% in 2014. In 2014, discouragement among youth was highest in Limpopo (12,3%), followed by Eastern Cape (11,8%) and Northwest (11,6%).

The NEET rate increases with age, with more than 50% of young people above the age of 22 years not in employment, education or training. The NEET rate of black Africans is more than twice that of a young white person, while at provincial level, the NEET rate is

highest amongst youth in Northern Cape (36,4%), North-West (35,1%), and Eastern Cape (33,5%).

In 2014, young women (33, 9%) were more likely to be NEET compared to young men (28,8%). In South Africa, the NEET rate for youth who completed secondary and tertiary-level education was among the highest, suggesting that even the better educated youth in this country may be vulnerable in the labour market. As many as 43,1% of youth who hold a matric qualification and more than three in ten youth aged 18–24 years with tertiary qualifications were not in education, employment or training in 2014.

2.9.12 The use of human labour as investment

The use of human labour as a factor of production was gradually put to test as advances were recorded in technology in the last two centuries. The invention of machines in the 19th century, the introduction of labour-saving devices and the development of high-capacity production equipment had a revolutionary effect in all production industries. Robotice technology and computerisation have forced the problem of unemployment even more prominently into the forefront (Dunkerly, 1996).

Conventional civil construction method also became increasingly capital-intensive in the last century. The proposition of expenditure on fuel-powered equipment increased substantially during that period while of labour decreased. As a consequence, the increase in investment expenditure in construction generally resulted in the generation of less employment opportunities per unit of expenditure that was the case previously.

The increase in capital-intensive nature of the industry also resulted in a system of construction that is oriented around the use of fuel-powered equipment in construction projects (McCutcheon, 2003). The capital-intensive nature of the civil engineering construction industry means that in order to generate more employment per expenditure unit, the scope of operation has to be expanded, and expenditure increased at the same level of employment cost.

On the other hand, labour-intensive methods offer an opportunity to increase employment significantly without increasing expenditure, at the same level of efficiency and effectiveness. Since expenditure on infrastructure accounts for 3%-5% of the GDP and about 40%-60% of GDFI in developing countries (ibid), the use of labour-intensive methods in such an essential component of the economy could generate significant employment and directly contribute to poverty alleviation (ibid).

The theoretical basis of the use of labour as an investment in countries with a large surplus; labour was put forward by R. Nurkse and W.A Lewis in 1953 and 1954 respectively (CoGta et al., 1977). It was argued during this time that labour-intensive schemes are not only aimed at a short or medium-term employment of those who have no jobs, but they are designed to alleviate the shortage of capital and to build up part of the infrastructure that is necessary for development. Such debate meant that manpower should primarily be set to work on productive activities rather than on social investments.

Although arguments and counter arguments on the theories advanced by Nurkse and Lewis focused more on the supply and mobilisation of labour and the organisational of employment intensive works, it was concluded that the efficiency and effectiveness of such schemes was dependent on the integration into national development programmes and the step-by-step technical training of the mobilised unskilled workers employed in the scheme. These important conclusions are still relevant today and are necessary for success on large-scale employment intensive programmes.

2.9.13 Economic efficiency of labour-intensive works technology

Following the establishment of the technical feasibility of labour-intensive technology by the study in the Philippines, McCleary et al. (1976) carried out a cost-benefit analysis using the shadow prices for alternative technologies of gravel roads construction in Thailand. The aim of the study was to determine the economic feasibility of labour-intensive gravel road construction in Thailand. Shadow prices were calculated for the various inputs for economic analysis. The study concludes that labour-intensive methods could be

competitive with machine-based method at shadow prices and that labour-intensive methods could be cheaper if labour productivity was improved.

The Social desirability of adopting labour-intensive methods in labour surplus countries was also investigated. Irvin et al. (1975), cited in (McCutcheon (2003), in their work on a proposed labour-intensive road construction in Iran, writes that labour-intensive methods were in most cases profitable at both shadow and market prices, but social profitability was always greater than the market profitability. It was concluded that the economic viability of labour-intensive road construction depended in part on the importance by the government to reduce inequalities in the distribution of income (ibid).

Plant and labour are two of the main cost elements in road construction in both conventional and labour-intensive construction methods. The question is whether, given technological alternative, it is socially desirable to adopt more labour-intensive technique. During phase two and three of the World Bank studies, it was gradually realised that productivity and cost comparisons made used of data that was highly biased in favour of equipment (McCutcheon, 2003).

There were really two sides to the coin. The basis for comparison of benefits was highly efficient equipment, and the level of equipment efficiency paraded was not even tenable in industrialized countries, let alone in developing ones. It was a fact that the average productivities for a bulldozer for example, were 25 per cent of manufacturer's maxima (Loader: 65 per cent) in developed countries and the utilisation rates for equipment were also lower than anticipated. In developing countries, even on very large projects, the average productivities were of the order of 70% of manufacturer's rated productivities, i.e. the average productivity for dozers and loaders would be 17% and 45% respectively of the maxima shown in the manufactures' handbooks.

Additionally, equipment utilisation rates were lower than the low rates obtained in industrialized countries (ibid). In smaller and more dispersed work operations, much lower productivities were observed.

A complex of factors severely limited the sustained long-term productivity of equipment in developing countries. Foreign exchange, fuel, spares, mechanics, workshops, trained operators, management systems etc. were all a problem.

The technological and system requirement of equipment were not matched by local technological and institutional capacities. In addition to low equipment productivities, the extent of the difficulties with equipment-based systems in developing countries may be illustrated by the road maintenance crisis of the 1980s in sub-Saharan Africa. This crisis is well documented (Heggie, 1987). In the long run, the use of this type of equipment had certainly not revealed the orders of magnitude of improvement expected by analogy with manufacturing.

Although the later phases of the World Bank study did take some of the lower equipment productivities in developing countries, the main focus was with the improvements that could be achieved by the use of improved labour-intensive methods over the inefficient traditional ones. Hence, it placed more emphasis upon the need to improve the productivity of equipment. Drawing from one of the major conclusions of phase three studies with superior tools, high incentives and good management, labour productivity could be improved to the point that labour-intensive methods could be fully competitive with equipment-based methods at certain wages rates.

The World Bank concludes that where wages rates were less than US\$2 per day (in 1982 prices), labor-intensive methods could be distinctly competitive. The conclusion is as follows; "... wherever the basic wage actually paid...less than About US\$4 per day in 1982 prices, and labour is available in adequate quantities, the alternative of using labor-intensive techniques should be seriously considered" (World Bank, 1987 cited in McCutcheon, 2003).

While the breakeven point is now probably higher than the US\$4 per day in 1982 prices due to the differences in rates of increases of the price of equipment and wages of unskilled

labour, it is also true that over 40% per cent of sub-Sahara Africans have an income of less than US\$1 per day.

To conclude, the World Bank study made three main conclusions. First, depending on the wage rate, improved labor-intensive techniques could be financially competitive with machine-based methods for certain construction activities. Secondly, strong and sustained government support is required for a successful labour-intensive construction programme. Thirdly, there is a need for a learning period prior to full-scale implementation. A period of at least three years should be allowed for, and suitable training programme for managerial and supervisory staff established.

In other studies, the economic efficiency of labour-intensive techniques for certain road construction tasks was successfully demonstrated in the Philippines by Deepak Lal (1978). Using a full set of market and shadow prices for evaluation of gravel roads build by using labour-intensive methods, for an average gravel road, the social evaluation showed that labour-intensive methods were cheaper than capital-intensive methods. The study also showed that it was possible to substantially increase the labour cost in the conventional road building from about 10% to more than 50%. In his analysis, Deepak (1978) gives three possibilities for reducing capital-intensive bias in technology choice in developing countries.

The first was to implement intermediate technologies, researching into appropriate employment-intensive techniques. The second is to increase the substitution of labour for equipment in projects. Increasing the overall labour to capital ratio, and hence increase opportunities for employment. The third possibility is to increase the labour-intensive component of the activities and processing where capital has been substituted, without compromising the quality of the product or increase costs. In this study, it is concluded that it is not possible to transpose data from one country to another, and a detailed techno-economic evaluation would be required on a case –to-case basis.

To summarise, the motivation for investigating the potential of labour-intensive construction approach was as follows (McCutcheon, 2003)

- Unemployment and underemployment are serious problems in developing countries.
- Employment needs to be generated within the existing economy.
- The reverse substitution of labour for equipment is worth of consideration under certain circumstances related to the product and its process of construction.
- Labour-intensive methods are technically feasible for a wide range of construction activities and can generally produce the same quality of product as equipment-based methods.
- Under certain circumstances labour-intensive methods may be economically efficient and cost competitive by comparison with conventional methods.
- The construction industry has traditionally provided the poor and unskilled access to the formal moneyed economy.
- The need for technical feasibility and the economic efficiency provided the impetus for the investigation of labour-intensive methods.

2.9.14 Economic Infrastructure and labour-intensive works in poverty alleviation

This section of the study covers literature pertaining to infrastructure and labour works in poverty alleviation.

2.9.14.1 The role of infrastructure in EPWP

Economic infrastructure includes services from public utilities (power, water, supply, telecommunication, sanitation etc.), public works (roads, dams, irrigation systems etc.) and other forms of transport systems (airports, railways, ports etc.). Social infrastructure includes facilities for education; health care etc. infrastructure provides wheels of economic activities. Good infrastructure increases the productivity in the economy and lowers costs.

Infrastructures represent about 20% of the total national investment and about 40%-60% of the public-sector investments.

The exact nature and magnitude of the linkage between infrastructure and development is a subject of continuing debate. It is known however that the growth in infrastructure stocks is proportional to the growth in the economy. Various studies conclude that the role of infrastructure on growth is substantial and is greater than that of investment in other forms of capital. In addition, infrastructure is important for ensuring that growth is consistent with poverty alleviation. Access to infrastructure services is one of the essential criteria for defining the level of welfare.

To a greater extent the poor can be identified as those who have no access to economic and social infrastructure within a certain minimum radius or mobility time (World Development Report, 1990). Apart from physical infrastructure, labour-intensive works can also create valuable social infrastructure such as schools and health centres. A growing recognition worldwide is that investment in human capital (education and health) is a pre-requisite for the poor to escape poverty. In other words, social infrastructure also generates economic returns. The direct benefits are term, with a poverty reduction potential.

2.6.14.2 The potential of labour-intensive works on poverty alleviation

The creation of employment and the improvement of incomes are generally the best measure to overcome poverty (Demery and Adison, 1987). The alleviation of poverty depends on two processes. These are attainment of sustainable development indicated by the increase in GDP per capita and the equitable distribution of wealth.

The potential of labour-intensive works scheme in the alleviation of poverty is inherent in its immediate and long-term effects. Employment in the process of construction or improvement provides an immediate and direct source of income. Over a period of time, the effects, if sustained, produce more lasting and structural changes or impacts. The impacts require that the new or improved infrastructure is sufficiently sustainable to induce

positive changes to the community. Poverty is alleviated if the positive impacts of sufficient magnitude on the poor are long term and sustained.

The longer-term or indirect effects are not just apparent in the physical investment in and of itself, but also in the degree to which accompanying changes happen or do not happen. One example is the training's unintended consequences. A labour-intensive programme cannot be successful without training. If the trainees are chosen from low-income homes, this will have a long-term impact on reducing poverty (McCutcheon, 2003).

Where there is a formal training recognition system and the training given is applicable to the industry at large, trained person is more likely to obtain work elsewhere in the economy. At the same time, as far as enabling jobs can be created rapidly, labour-intensive schemes are a means of redistributing income in favour of the neediest areas and groups of population which have somewhat been neglected or by-passed by the development process.

Although targeted to the very poor, the existence of employment-intensive programme in a rural setting increases the value of other employees in the area, for example agricultural workers, and elevates their bargaining position in the labour market, provided that the wage offered in the labour-intensive scheme is comparable to the wage paid in other employments of similar skill levels. As an instrument of job redistribution, labour-intensive schemes are preferable to programmes aimed at securing a transfer of incomes through the payment of unemployment benefits or grants to the very poor (DBSA, 1998).

Additionally, the role of labour-intensive schemes as a way of combating poverty is clearly evident when natural disaster occurs. Relief works can be organised in the shortest possible time, in parallel with disaster alleviation activities to the affected population, while at the same time expediting reconstruction and rehabilitation work.

Based on the review of different stakeholders, views and opinions about long term impacts of LBW programmes differ. A complicating factor is the multiple objectives of these programmes which include employment creation, income distribution and creation of

assets. Different and even conflicting conclusion occur depending on whether the Programme has been reviewed by promoters, sponsors or by an independent party.

An important conclusion reflecting the view of the most expert is that made by the ILO. A special issue of the *International Labour Review* published in 1992 concluded that “labour-intensive investment policies have already proved to be successful employment creation instruction, particular when compared with the efforts and resources needed to design and implement alternative policies with similar impact on the poor.”

2.10 LABOUR-INTENSIVE WORKS TECHNOLOGY

This section of the literature review discusses the theoretical on which labour-intensive works technology (LBWT) is premised and previous studies that have been conducted on the subject. It examines the various definition and theories advanced by experts on LBWT and analyses its employment creation potential. The purpose of this review is to document and analyses findings of research and arguments supporting labour-intensive works as a poverty alleviation strategy and aspect of implementation and institutionalisation.

There is nothing new about the use of labour-intensive methods. The great building feats of all centuries prior to the present ones were largely built by hand labour. History tells us that the Great Pyramid of Egypt was built in about 2500 BC with either 300 000 men, according to Deodorus Siculus, or 100, 000 men, according to Herodotus, in about 20 years.

The labour in the building of the pyramid is estimated to be equivalent of lifting 136 million cubic metres of stone one-metre-high (Taylor, 1998). Whether labour was paid or voluntary appears to be unknown (Hancock, 1992 cited in Howe and Bantje, 1995). Another world monument that was built in about 20 year’s period is the Great Wall of China. This is another example of massive engineering undertaking carried out by labour -intensive methods. The 2,250km long wall was built around 200BC and is estimated to have occupied

500,000 workers. The wall is 8 metres and 6 metres wide, and the total volume is about 100 million cubic metres (Taylor, 1998).

The building of water canals in Europe from late eighteenth century was the beginning of an era of large-scale public works construction by labour-intensive methods. Initially, companies formed for construction and operation of various canals recruited labour directly. Recruited labour was engaged in terms that bound them to work for the required period. Labourers were paid on a “days worked” basis and companies relied on overseers to achieve high production by diligent supervision and the enforcement of long working hours.

These introduced incentives to motivate high production from labourers. There were many forms of incentives used, but the widespread and most successful incentive was the use of “piecework”; payment based on output. In the building of Suez Canal in about 1864, the greater part of the excavation was done by piecework, with excellent performance results (Pudney, 1968 cited in Taylor, 1998).

In the 1930s, public workers were used in the United States, United Kingdom, Germany and the rest of Europe to revive the economies and accelerate recovery from the economic crisis of the time (Taylor, 1998). Secondary objectives were the creation of employment and income redistribution.

Thus, labour-intensive works have been used in many countries for years using labels such as public works, safety nets, community works, food-for-work and social funds. The objectives of each type were different, and a wide range of practice were pursued. Some of these programmes were actually labour-intensive. Similar programmes implemented using labour-intensive methods, in organised attempts to cope with the consequences of famine, disasters and poverty are known for centuries.

2.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented and discussed the existing intellectual basis of labour-intensive works technology. The existing knowledge on the subject has a direct bearing and relevance to the initiative in Namibia for the development of LBWT. In short, there was no need to reinvent the wheel. It has been shown that labour-intensive methods were used many years ago in the construction of great historical structures like the great pyramid of Egypt, the Great Wall of China, water canals and railways in Europe and America. The shift to machines in developed countries was catalysed by the rising costs of labour. The challenge to human labour by machines in the 19th century brought the unemployment problem prominent forward, as work in industries, agriculture, mines, infrastructure development etc.

The theoretical framework of labour-intensive methods was presented and discussed in this chapter. Research work done by the ILO and the World Bank on labour-intensive works on poverty alleviation and the role of infrastructure services in this regard have been argued and the impact of rural roads in poverty reduction has been evaluated. Existing knowledge shows that there is good evidence in support of labour-intensive methods in general and continued demonstration is no longer necessary.

In modern times, the technical feasibility and economic viability of labour-intensive methods have proven by the World Bank, ILO and ascertained by many scholars in different parts of the world. The social desirability of labour-intensive works methods is premised on its potential for employment creation and poverty reduction.

While sustaining or increasing employment in capital intensive undertakings requires significant increase in expenditure, opportunities are abundant in developing countries (where labour is relatively cheap, unemployment and poverty levels are high and the need for infrastructure services are pressing) for the use of unemployment labour to speed up development and create many jobs opportunities without a corresponding increase in expenditure.

This argument is more valid in infrastructure services, which account for 3%-5% of GDP and 40%-60% of GDF in developing countries. The complex of problem that severely limit the equipment productivity in poor countries lends credence to increased use of labour-intensive approaches. Based on the review above, it is clear that the literature does not contain sufficient information on how the EPWP has been implemented ‘effectively’ in the municipalities.

However, there are several cases of the EPWP implementation in district and local municipalities. This limitation or gap in the literature gives an opportunity for this study to investigate how the EPWP is implemented in a local municipality and contribute towards literature by proposing an effective implementation approach. This also provides an opportunity to contribute towards more understanding on the subject, particularly in relation to district municipalities.

Furthermore, it is clear from the literature that the EPWP projects do have socioeconomic impact on the beneficiaries. However, in most cases the impact is short-term and it compromises sustained accumulation of surplus of investment in income earning activity. Gender is also key in the EPWP projects.

Women tend to show more enthusiasm at the opportunity of being employed in traditionally male dominated labour intensive EPWP projects. Therefore, the EPWP programme needs to be designed in a way that places sustainability at the core of its operations and at the same time targeting mainly youth and women beneficiaries for impact purpose.

In addition, for South Africa, it is prudent that given the chronic unemployment and inequality we learn how other countries such as the East Asian countries have used the developmental state model in dealing with their socio-economic challenges. The developmental state debate is of importance as this study seeks to propose a model that will assist in dealing effectively with chronic unemployment through the EPWP, within an organ of state i.e., CDM in Limpopo Province

According to Heradien (2013), findings confirm that the context and labour market is not appropriate for the EPWP. It also confirms that sectors other than the infrastructure industry need to receive more funding as it has the potential to contribute significantly to economic growth.

From the reviewed literature this study argues that the implementation of EPWP has been sound with regard to the logic that links EPWP objectives to EPWP activities and resources. However, it was also found that the EPWP is not necessarily designed to make a significant impact or reduction on the unemployment rate as seen in the Capricorn District Municipality.

The EPWP policy is accurate at aiming to address the specific target market as an objective to create a more equal society, but the operationalisation of this objective does not correlate with the focus of the programme on the infrastructure industry. In addition, it is affirmed that infrastructure development forms an important part of any growing economy.

It is also crucial to look at other elements which could reach this objective such as the service, economic and social sectors that EPWP provides. The importance of the review of alternative ways of creating employment in South Africa has been practiced by middle income countries especially with the focus on developing SMEs.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the literature review from scholarly journals, books and websites. In this current chapter, the study presents philosophical foundations grounding the study, this includes description of the study area, key definitions and variables. Additionally, concepts pertaining to measurement, sample size and design, sampling methods, data collection methods, data capturing, and editing, ethical considerations, shortcomings and errors are also discussed. Further, the study discusses data analysis methods that the researcher used are discussed in detail.

3.2 RESEARCH APPROACH AND DESIGN

The study used qualitative and quantitative approaches to obtain maximum results. Thus, the researcher used both words and numbers in the study for an example the implementation of EPWP and the number of participants in the projects. According to Mouton and Marais as cited in Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2004), the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research project in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised.

With regard to the selection of a case study, Johansson (2003:223) indicates that “the case might be given and studied with an intrinsic interest in the case. In such a case, the researcher has no interest in generalising his or her findings”. The current study focuses on understanding the case. If the findings are generalised, it is done by audiences through ‘naturalistic generalisation’.

Although the case study design is undertaken, elements of both quantitative and qualitative study design were used. According to Yin (1994:34), the case study design should have

five components: “the research question(s), its propositions, its unit(s) of analysis, a determination of how the data are linked to the propositions and criteria to interpret the findings”. Yin (ibid) concludes that “operationally defining the unit of analysis assists with replication and efforts at case comparison”.

A case study research methodology was adopted in this study. The CDM was the single case studied. Yin (2003:56) asserts that “it is important to be clear that the purpose of the single case study is to expand and generate theory or ‘analytical generalisations’ as opposed to proving a theory or ‘statistical generalisations’”. This assertion maintains the role of case study research as an exploratory tool. If a collective model of case studies is used then the scope for generalisation increases (Stake, 1995, 2003; Yin, 2003).

Halonen (2009) argues that a case study approach is often a good choice when theory and understanding are not well developed. This fits well with this study’s chosen methodology as upon review of literature, there was an indication that only related studies on EPWP and job creation have been undertaken particularly in district and local municipalities, and not widely in metropolitan municipalities especially on the effective implementation of EPWP. This provides an opportunity to contribute to the theory and more understanding on the subject, particularly in relation to metropolitan municipalities.

Halonen (2009:22) further indicates that “generally a case can be an organization, a person, incident, series of incidents, process, physical unit or an occasion”. Benbasat et al. (1987) introduced 11 characteristics that define case studies. They include:

- “Phenomenon is examined in a natural setting”
- “One or few entities are examined”
- “No experimental controls or manipulation are involved;”
- “The researcher may not indicate the set of dependent and independent variables upfront”
- “The complexity of the unit is studied intensively- “

Eisenhardt (1989:112) understands a case study as “a research strategy focusing on understanding the dynamics present within a single setting”. He writes that case studies combine data collection methods such as archives, interviews, questionnaires and observations.

3.3 Description of the study area

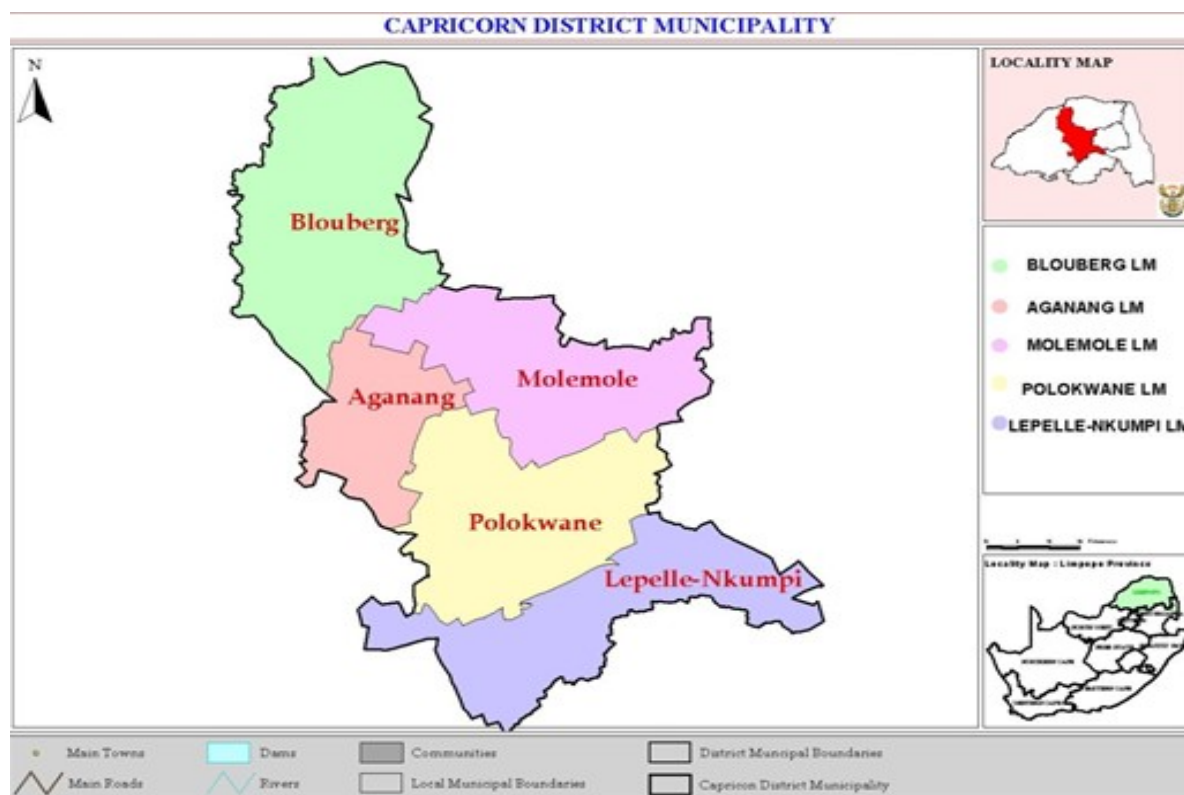


Figure 3.3.1 Local Municipalities in Capricorn District Municipality (CDM Spatial Development Framework, (2007).

The case study of Capricorn District Municipality in Limpopo Province was used as an area of research. Capricorn District Municipality is made of five local municipalities i.e., Lepelle Nkumpi, Aganang, Blouberg, Modimolle and Polokwane. The Capricorn DM is situated in the centre of the Limpopo Province, with 1 372 355 million people representing about 23% of the total population in the province and 2.3% of the population in South Africa, sharing its borders with the Mopani DM to the east, Sekhukhune DM to the south, Vhembe DM to

the north and Waterberg DM to the west. “The district is situated at the core of economic development in the Limpopo Province and includes the capital of the province, that is, the City of Polokwane. The Capricorn DM comprises five Local Municipalities, including Aganang, Blouberg, Polokwane, Molemole and Lepelle Nkumpi. CDM covers an area of 185 222.27 hectares which constitutes 12% of the total surface area of the Limpopo Province” (www.google.com).

3.3.1 The characteristics of Local Municipalities within Capricorn District Municipality:

3.3.1.1 Aganang Local Municipality

It is located on the north-western side of Polokwane and has the potential for agricultural and tourism development. The municipality is closer to Polokwane on its south-eastern border. This aspect, linked with the economic integration of the municipality with Polokwane Municipality, suggests that Aganang may have to grow in a south-eastern direction. Aganang Municipality does not have a viable revenue base.

Aganang Local Municipality is experiencing environmental problems i.e., land degradation, pollution, desertification, deforestation and veldt fires that affect development in the area. The municipality does not have planning systems and tools to guide development such as the By-laws, and Town Planning scheme. Although the Land Use Management Scheme has been developed, it still has to be promulgated and implemented. Invariably, the transport system is poorly developed and an inward sharper focus on local travel and transport requirements missing.

3.3.1.2 Blouberg Local Municipality

It is located at the far northern part of CDM, approximately 95 km from Polokwane. Blouberg Local Municipality is composed of one district growth point, Alldays and two municipal growth points, namely, Senwabarwana, and Eldorado. The Provincial Spatial

Development Rationale's description of growth point is used in identifying these growth points.

Blouberg municipal area is located at the far northern part of the Capricorn District Municipal Area. Aganang borders Blouberg on the south, Molemole on the southwest, Makhado on the northeast, Lephalale on the northwest, Mogalakwena on the southwest and Musina on the north. Six Growth Points are identified in the Blouberg local municipal area, i.e., Senwabarwana, Alldays, Eldorado, Buffelshoek, Harriswich and My-Darling.

The central locality of the municipal area in relation to the rest of the country ensures that a number of important regional routes transverse the area, of which the R521 (Polokwane-Alldays) and D1200 (Dendron-Bochum-GaMankgodi) routes links the municipal area with the rest of the country. Other routes, which are also of a regional and sub-regional importance, are the D1589 which links Blouberg with the Waterberg district municipal area and Botswana and the D1468 (Vivo-Indermark), which should be prioritised due to its economic importance.

3.3.1.3 Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality

It is the second largest municipality within the district and is located in the southern area of the district. Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality comprises two urban nodes: Lebowakgomo district growth point and Magatle municipality growth point, including a surrounding rural area that comprises of both commercial and communal mixed-farming activities.

The municipality is located in the centre of the country providing it with the advantage of important links with the rest of the country through national and regional routes that transverse through it including the N1 and other local municipality roads. Lepelle-Nkumpi municipal area is the second largest municipality within the district and is located in the southern area of Capricorn. The occurrence of unsettled land claims in the area is hindering spatial development in the municipal area.

The municipal area comprises 2 urban nodes, namely the Lebowakgomo District Growth Point and the Magatle Municipality Growth Point, and a surrounding rural area that accommodates both commercial and communal mixed-farming practices. The central locality of the municipal area in relation to the rest of the country ensures that a number of important national and regional routes transverse the area, of which the R37 (Polokwane-Burgersfort) is the most important.

3.3.1.4 Molemole Local Municipality

The spatial characteristics of the municipality consist of farms, plantations, small scale mining, housing (low cost, informal, middle income), and transportation networks (road and rail), and agricultural areas (commercial and subsistence), recreational and community facilities. The municipality has potential for tourism development, which needs to be improved and marketed to attract and create the economic base. In addition, municipality has agricultural development potential for both livestock and crop farming and privately owned farms and properties dominate, which has impact on future development. Also, there has been a lack of private investment in certain areas within the municipal area leading to deterioration of these areas and an under-utilisation of existing infrastructure in some areas.

This municipality is located on the north-eastern side of the district. The N1 crosses through the municipal area linking the Molemole with Zimbabwe to the north. It comprises farms, plantations, small-scale mining, housing (low cost, informal, middle income), transportation networks (road and rail), agricultural areas (commercial and subsistence), and recreational and community facilities. It has a potential for tourism development, which needs to be improved and marketed to attract and create an economic base.

3.3.1.5 Polokwane Local Municipality

Polokwane City is the capital of the Limpopo Province and is located on the N1 highway, running from Gauteng to Zimbabwe and the rest of Africa. The municipality contributes 55% towards the GDP of CDM and 13.3% towards the total GDP of Limpopo Province. The spatial pattern of the municipality reflects that of the historic apartheid city model.

Polokwane is the main centre with other nodes such as Seshego and Mankweng located 10km northeast and 30km north of the city centre. Further away are extremely impoverished rural settlements scattered in the peripheral areas of the municipality (ww.google.com).

“By 1996, the town was considered one of the fastest growing cities in South Africa. The node lies on the N1 axis, which is the main gateway to the rest of Africa. The capacity of this axis is constantly improved, and it can be expected that the axis will become even more important for the transport of goods by road to and from Africa” (ww.google.com). This status is further supported by the Polokwane International Airport located on the outskirts of Polokwane.

The Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) also identified the node as a so-called Industrial Development Zone (IDZ). This supports earlier suggestions that the node be developed as an Export Processing Zone (EPZ). To the northwest of the Polokwane or Seshego node lies Senwabarwana and Thabamoopo, which are districts of the former Lebowa. The five local municipalities within the district have developed the Land Use Management Scheme to guide development but they do not have other tools such as by-laws.

CDM has approximately 547 settlements that are distributed as follows:

- Aganang LM: 96
- Blouberg LM: 138
- Lepelle-Nkumpi LM: 109
- Molemole LM: 37
- Polokwane LM: 167

Out of the 457 settlements that make the CDM, approximate 30.53% are located within Polokwane Municipality. 20% of all the larger settlements with a population of 5000 and

more are also located within Polokwane. The district is characterised by a large number of small villages with less than 1000 people, spread across all five local municipalities.

Approximately 75% of all settlements in the district are small (2050 people per settlement in average) and scattered throughout the western, southern, northern and eastern areas of the CDM. Low population densities (averaged 71.10) in the district have severe implications for service provision to communities as the cost for service delivery and infrastructure becomes very high. This in turn has unintended negative economic consequences.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A population is the full set of cases from which a sample is taken (Mitchel et al, 2007). A sample is a small group of research participants from which data is collected. The degree to which the sample has the same characteristics as the general population of interest determines its representativeness quality (Lapan et al, 2009). Sampling is designed so that the sample is likely to be sufficiently representative of the population in order that the results obtained from the tests, via statistical inference, have sufficient external validity to be applied to the population at a given and stated level of confidence (Fellows, 2008). Sampling error is an imprecision in measurement of the dependent variable (Lapan et al, 2009).

The objective of sampling is to provide a practical means enabling the data collection and processing components of research to be carried out whilst ensuring that the sample provides a good representation of the population (Fellows, 2008). Important to note that, the response rate is the term used to identify the number of individuals who have provided data, proportional to the total number of individuals in the sampling frame (Lapan et al, 2009). Sampling is broadly categorised into probability and non-probability sampling designs.

Probability sampling (random sampling) is the act of obtaining a smaller group more convenient to study, but a group that accurately represents the larger population from which

it is sampled (Lapan et al, 2009). Walliman (2004) notes that probability (random) sampling consists of

- Simple random sampling
- Systematic sampling
- Stratified sampling
- Cluster sampling

On the other hand, Fellows (2009) states that non-probability (random) sampling consists of.

- Haphazard, accidental, or convenience Sampling
- Purposive or Judgemental Sampling
- Snowball Sampling
- Quota

The following is a typology of sampling techniques.

Simple random sampling

Simple random sampling is used when the population is uniform or has similar characteristics in all cases usually in a large population (Walliman, 2004). There are two steps necessary to draw a random sample. Firstly, we should identify all the units of analysis in the sampling frame and give them consecutive numbers (Mitchel et al, 2007). Secondly the mechanism we use to choose the units of analysis should ensure that each number has an equal chance of being selected (Mitchel et al, 2007). This can be done by means of a table of random numbers (Fellows, 2009).

Judgmental sampling/purposive sampling

Judgemental sampling is a useful method of getting information from a sample of the population that one thinks knows most about a subject (Walliman, 2004). To achieve this, the researcher will clearly define the characteristics that depict the persons, settings, times, independent variables, and dependent variables for which the researcher wants to generalize

and pick a sample from this (Lapan et al, 2009). To emphasize how judgmental sampling works, researcher relies on their experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings to deliberately obtain units if analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population (Mitchel et al, 2007).

Systematic sampling

Systematic random sampling is a used to make obtaining stratified samples more efficient. Lapan et al (2009) continues by providing three key points to remember when generating a systematic random sample.

- When drawing samples from a list, first determine the exact number of entries on the list and the number of elements from the list that are to be selected.
- Start point is designated by choosing a random number that falls within the sampling interval. This random start creates chance selection.
- By using random start-point (any random number such as forty-five), the researcher then chooses every forty-fifth person from that start-point.

Systematic sampling has an element of randomness because having determined the sample size, every member of the population is sampled, where x is the interval between them and is kept constant (Fellows, 2009).

4. Stratified sampling

Stratified sampling is used when the cases in a population fall into distinctly different categories of a known proportion of that population (Walliman, 2004). Stratified sampling is appropriate where the population occurs in distinct groups or strata (Fellows, 2008). This sampling method can be used to alter the size of the comparison groups in this case (Lapan et al, 2009). For example, if the population contains more females than males, but the researcher's goal is to have an even number of each gender, the stratified random sampling allows for an over or under sampling of a subgroup (Lapan et al, 2009).

If the goal is to replicate the exact subgroup distributions present in the population, samples can be stratified on certain characteristics to obtain a sample that is an exact match from

which the group was selected (Lapan et al, 2009). Ideally, the differences within each group or stratum should be small relative to differences between strata from the perspective of the research project (Fellows, 2008). Suppose the population is composed of various clearly, recognizable subpopulations that differ from one another in terms of a specific variable (Mitchel et al, 2007). Each subpopulation is a stratum (Mitchel et al, 2007).

Cluster sampling

Cluster sampling is appropriate where a population is divided into groups such that it is likely that inter-group differences are believed to be small, whilst intra-group differences are believed to be large (Fellows, 2008). The population is divided into groups called clusters, the clusters are selected randomly, and the total members of the clusters provide the total sample (Fellows, 2008). In cluster sampling, we make use of the natural segment (cluster) as the sampling unit (Crano et al, 2002). The sampling frame is identified and from this population, specific clusters are chosen either through simple or stratified random sampling (Crano et al, 2002).

Once a cluster is chosen for inclusion in the sample, all members of the cluster are surveyed (Crano et al, 2002). In multistage sampling, a cluster is sampled from a sampling frame and then the cluster is sampled as well (Crano et al, 2002). Multistage sampling is particularly useful when the population to be studied is spread over a large geographic area (Crano et al, 2002). In simple random sampling, the frame must be a listing of all the individual population units, whereas in cluster or multistage sampling, the initial listing is of the clusters that contain all the population units, and the subsequent listings are required only for the clusters selected at the first stage (Crano et al, 2002).

Two types of sampling frames are most employed. The first of these consists of a listing of all the names of a specified population (Crano et al, 2002). Such lists are convenient and can prove extremely useful for sample selection (Crano et al, 2002). A second form of commonly used sampling frame consists of a detailed map of a specific physical environment (Crano et al, 2002). Cluster or multistage sampling is used with sampling frames of this type (Crano et al, 2002). Cluster sampling is used where the cases in the

population form clusters by sharing one or some characteristics but are otherwise as heterogeneous as possible (Walliman, 2004) Systematic sampling is used when the population is very large and of no known characteristics (Walliman, 2004).

Convenience sampling/haphazard sampling

Convenience sampling involves using what is immediately available (Walliman, 2004). Although this form of sampling is widely used, it is prone to bias and influences that are beyond our control since the cases appear in the sample because they were easy to obtain (Mitchel et al, 2007). The sample selection (convenient) is continued until the required sample size is reached (Mitchel et al, 2007).

Convenience sampling is non-scientific sampling method in that the results gathered from such a sample are not reliable, for instance any person walking down the street could just be asked questions (Lapan et al, 2009). It may be used where the nature of the research question and the population do not indicate any form of sample and so the researcher collects data from a sample which can be accessed readily (Fellows, 2008).

Snowball sampling

Snowball sampling is used to target a certain group that might be difficult to include in the sample with convenience or purposeful sampling (Lapan et al, 2009). For example, if the goal is to survey men and women who have had plastic surgery, not all would disclose such information if you stopped them on the street to ask them (Lapan et al, 2009). The best way to get this kind of non-random sample is to gather a few respondents you might know as acquaintances and ask them to pass the survey along to others they know who have had the same kind of procedure (Lapan et al, 2009). The sample snowball would be drawn from there. Snowball sampling involves data which are difficult to access, perhaps because the individual sources of data cannot be identified readily (Fellows, 2008). In such situations, the researcher may identify a very small number of sources and after collecting data from each one, requests that source to identify further sources thereby progressively building a sufficient sample (Fellows, 2008).

Quota sampling

Quota sampling is used regularly by reporters interviewing on the streets to balance the sample interviewed by selecting responses from equal numbers of different respondents (Walliman, 2004). Quota sampling builds on accidental sampling, adding the goal of creating a sample that represents comparison groups equally (Lapan et al, 2009). To this study, a purposive sampling method was preferred as suggested by Berndt (2020:224-226) who describes purposive sampling as a sample that has been handpicked to suite a specific purpose. In concurrence, Ames, Glenton and Lewin (2019:1-9) state that purposive sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristic, representative, or typical attributes of the population. According to Berndt (2020:224-226), sampling is the process of selecting a few from a bigger group to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of unknown piece of information, situation, or outcome.

In the context of this study, the study ensured that there was consistency in the questionnaires sent to both the EPWP departmental champions and beneficiaries. Respondents were sent questionnaires that were proofread and edited for consistent and reliable results. The researcher piloted the research instrument with 2 EPWP champions and 5 beneficiaries. The interview schedule was also sent to the CDM senior manager for his inputs and advises prior to its finalisation.

Although, there were no major changes in the design and content of the questionnaires and the interview schedule, the importance of piloting the research instruments cannot be over-emphasised in ensuring reliable measurement. Piloting ensured that the internal validity of the study is also improved, i.e., discarded all unnecessary and ambiguous questions, assessed whether each question gives an adequate range of responses, checked that all questions were answered, asked the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions, administered the questionnaire to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study (Gilbert, 2001).

Miller (2012) indicates that reliability is defined as the extent in which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials. In

short, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters. Saunders et al. (2009) agree but goes on further to indicate that reliability is the extent to which data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings.

In this study, the researcher developed questionnaires based on the reviewed theoretical framework and the need to make additional findings on the subject matter. The data collected by the researcher confirmed the main theoretical aspects of the research, but also found additional new information in relation to the CDM EPWP implementation. The additional findings are consistent with the research design as the CDM was the only case study and this is what the researcher expected as the study seeks to explain the EPWP implementation challenges within the CDM.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) asserted that the reliability of the data/findings can be assessed by posing the following three questions:

- Will the measures yield the same results on other occasions?
- Will similar observations be reached by other observers?
- Is there transparency in how sense was made from the raw data?

With regard to the reliability in relation to the interview schedule, Robson (2002) asserts that introducing a high level of structure to the interview schedule lessens threats to reliability. He indicates that there are four threats that may affect reliability of the interview schedule i.e., subject or participant error, subject or participant bias, observer error, and observer bias. In this study, the interview schedule was highly structured, and piloted upon prior to finalisation and data collection.

Miller (2012) defines validity as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. There are many different types of validity, including: content validity, face validity, criterion-related validity (or predictive validity), construct validity, factorial validity, concurrent validity, convergent validity and divergent (or discriminant validity).

Gibbert and Ruigrok (2010) indicate that there are several methods that can be in place to increase internal validity:

- First, case study researchers should formulate a clear research framework, which demonstrates that variable x leads to outcome y , and that y was not caused spuriously by a third variable. Practically, according to Yin, one way to ensure internal validity is to assess whether the research framework for a given case study was explicitly derived from the literature: the issue here is whether authors provide diagrams or verbal descriptions of the relationships between variables and outcomes.
- Second, through pattern matching, researchers should compare empirically observed patterns with either predicted ones or patterns established in previous studies and in different contexts. Here, authors are encouraged to compare and discuss relationships between their own data and previous research; and
- As a third method, theory triangulation enables a researcher to verify findings by adopting multiple perspectives (Yin, 1994). In this case, authors are encouraged to report different theoretical lenses and bodies of literature used, either as research frameworks to guide data gathering and analysis, or as means to interpret findings (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010).

In this study, the main method followed to increase internal validity was triangulation. Data were triangulated amongst three sources, which are document review, theoretical data and participant observation. Questionnaires and the interview schedule were used to gather and measure what was intended to i.e., the views of project participants, EPWP champions and the senior manager in relation to the challenges inhibiting effective implementation of the EPWP and what measures should be put in place to improve the status quo.

Data collection for evaluation research is only limited by the imagination of the evaluator (Weiss, 1972). Thus, the data to be collected for the evaluation process can come from various sources and can be collected by different research techniques. The most popular

among evaluators include interviews, questionnaires, programme records, government records and government statistical series (Weiss, 1972). Government agencies and departments keep documents on individuals and programmes that would be ideal for programme implementation if made accessible (Weiss, 1972).

These would include policy documents, white and green papers and departmental records. Government documents played an important role in this study specifically as the programme is to be implemented as initiated by the ruling political party African National Congress (ANC) and the stakeholders are various government bodies such as the National Treasury, the Department of Public Works and local municipalities where the programme has been implemented (Heradien, 2013).

The programme that this study is based on was introduced by the ruling party (ANC) of South Africa through the Department of Public Works. According to parliamentary protocol when a government department submits a white paper, which is a statement of its proposed programme or policy; it is to be debated in parliament (Department of Public Works, 1997). Other policy papers were also reviewed because it was found vital for the construction of the theory behind the EPWP.

These policy papers included the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997), the public works vision towards the 21st century (Department of Public Works, 1997b) as well as the business and economic policy of South Africa (The South Africa Foundation, 2002; South African Developmental Policy Edigheji, 2010). These policies include policies on economic growth, education and training as well as employment equity.

The programme documents which were a more direct source of information for the construction and evaluation of the EPWP theory consisted mostly out of EPWP strategy plans for each sector Department of Public Works, 2006; Department of Public Works, 2006; DoS, DoE, DoH (2006), EPWP ,Department of Public Works (2003), Departmental annual reports (Department of Public Works, 1996; Department of Public Works, 1997a

and 1997b) dating from 1996 due to the fact that the foundation of the programme is imbedded in similar programmes at that time (Heradien, 2013).

Existing records often provide insights about a group of people or programme that cannot be observed or recorded in any other way Lincoln and Guba (1985). This information is presented in document form. The best source of information with regard to programme objectives, activities, resources and the logic linking it all is to be found in programme strategic plans, departmental records and policy documents.

Document review considers the context in which they were created (Wilkins *et. al.*, 2007). The researcher therefore learns about a specific programme at particular time and place which offer information regarding a certain topic (Wilkins *et. al.*, 2007). In this study, the insight is given into the EPWP during its design phase with the aim of addressing unemployment through labour intensive projects focused on skills development in South Africa.

A questionnaire was designed and sent to the CDM officials coordinating the implementation of EPWP (EPWP Champions) within the respective departments that are currently implementing the EPWP. Currently, there are 10 departments implementing EPWP across the CDM. They are Corporate and Shared Services, Agriculture and Environmental Management, Economic Development, Roads and Transport, Electricity, Water and Sanitation, Health and Social Development, Housing & Human Settlements, Sports Recreation Arts and Culture, and Office of the Executive Mayor and City Manager (CDM, 2012).

The questionnaires for both the EPWP project beneficiaries and departmental champions were self-administered. In each of the three projects, the beneficiaries were congregated in each of the project site and briefed on the study, its intentions, expectations, and completion of the questionnaire. The researcher randomly handed out the questionnaires to each of the beneficiaries. Each questionnaire contained a unique number for tracking purposes. After

the voluntary completion of the questionnaires, the researcher collected all the finalised questionnaires.

For departmental champions, the researcher physically hand delivered the questionnaires to all the identified respondents. Thereafter, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires. The questionnaires also contained a unique tracking number for retrieval purposes. In addition, the questionnaires for both the EPWP champions (*refer to Appendix B*) and beneficiaries (*refer to Annexure C*) contained both closed and open-ended questions. Closed ended questions were particularly used to confirm what is contained in the literature. The open-ended questions assisted in gathering the perspectives of the respondents that would add to or confirm what literature review asserts about the subject matter.

A face-to-face interview was also conducted with a senior manager responsible for coordinating EPWP within CDM. An interview schedule (*refer to Appendix A*) was used as a primary method of collecting data from the CDM senior manager. The said senior manager has been coordinating EPWP within the CDM from its inception 4 years ago.

Mouton (2002) states that there are numerous examples where researchers combine techniques that are usually accepted as quantitative and qualitative. For instance, one may find the researcher who uses probability-sampling techniques in conjunction with in-depth interviewing or basic descriptive statistics in analysing qualitative data. Many researchers would argue that the use of multiple methods and techniques is actually one of the best ways to improve the quality of research. Stake (1998) points out that crucial to case study research are not the methods of investigation, but that the object of study is a case: “As a form of research, case study is defined by interest in individual cases, not by the methods of inquiry used”.

Although, there were no major changes in the design and content of the questionnaires as well as the interview schedule, the importance of piloting the research instruments cannot be over-emphasised in ensuring reliable measurement. Piloting ensured that the internal

validity of the study is also improved. For instance, discarding all unnecessary and ambiguous questions, assessed whether each question gives an adequate range of responses, checked that all questions were answered, asked the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions, administered the questionnaire to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study (Gilbert, 2001).

Miller (2012) indicates that reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure yield the same results on repeated trials. In short, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters. Saunders et al. (2009) agrees but goes on further to indicate that reliability is the extent to which data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings.

In this study, the researcher developed questionnaires based on the reviewed theoretical framework and the need to make additional findings on the subject matter. The data collected by the researcher confirmed the main theoretical aspects of the research, but also found additional new information in relation to the CDM EPWP implementation. The additional findings are consistent with the research design as the CDM was the only case study and this is what the researcher expected as the study seeks to explain the EPWP implementation challenges within the CDM.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) assert that the reliability of the data/findings can be assessed by posing the following three questions:

- Will the measures yield the same results on other occasions?
- Will similar observations be reached by other observers?
- Is there transparency in how sense was made from the raw data?

With regard to the reliability in relation to the interview schedule, Chari (2016) asserts that introducing a high level of structure to the interview schedule will lessen threats to reliability. He indicates that there are four threats that may affect reliability of the interview

schedule i.e., subject or participant error, subject or participant bias, observer error, and observer bias. In this study, the interview schedule was highly structured, and piloted upon prior to finalization and data collection.

Miller (2012) defines validity as the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. There are different types of validity, including: content validity, face validity, criterion-related validity (or predictive validity), construct validity, factorial validity, concurrent validity, convergent validity and divergent (or discriminant validity). Gibbert and Ruigrok (2010) indicate that there are several methods that can be in place to increase internal validity:

- First, case study researchers should formulate a clear research framework, which demonstrates that variable x leads to outcome y , and that y was not caused spuriously by a third variable z . Practically speaking, according to Creswell (2009:46), one way to ensure internal validity is to assess whether the research framework for a given case study was explicitly derived from the literature: the issue here is whether authors provide diagrams or verbal descriptions of the relationships between variables and outcomes;
- Second, through pattern matching, researchers should compare empirically observed patterns with either predicted ones or patterns established in previous studies and in different contexts. Here, authors are encouraged to compare and discuss relationships between their own data and previous research; and
- As a third method, theory triangulation enables a researcher to verify findings by adopting multiple perspectives (Creswell, 2009). In this case, authors are encouraged to report different theoretical lenses and bodies of literature used, either as research frameworks to guide data gathering and analysis, or as means to interpret findings (Gibbert & Ruigrok, 2010).

In this study, the main method followed to increase internal validity was triangulation. Data were triangulated amongst three sources i.e., document review, theoretical data and

participant observation. Questionnaires and the interview schedule were used to gather and measure what was intended, i.e., the views of project participants, EPWP champions and the senior manager in relation to the challenges inhibiting effective implementation of the EPWP and what measures should be put in place to improve the status quo.

The sample design followed in this study is purposive sampling which is a form of non-probability. EPWP project beneficiaries were purposefully chosen from 3 infrastructure projects. The projects had a mixture of beneficiaries who had been on the projects for a period of between 1-8 months. Project 1 had 13 beneficiaries, project 2 (11 beneficiaries), and project 3 (14 beneficiaries). Lists containing the profiles of the project beneficiaries were obtained from the contractors in each project.

The researcher needed to purposefully ensure the selection of males, females, youths, and persons with disabilities from each project. The age of beneficiaries was also used as a selection criterion, to ensure where possible a balanced age distribution. The number of beneficiaries selected as per the mentioned categories amounted to 27. However, it became clear that given the labour-intensive nature of infrastructure projects, the number of male beneficiaries exceeded those in other gender categories.

The sample size of beneficiaries from the three infrastructure projects combined was 27. There was no need to employ any sampling tool as all the 27 beneficiaries formed the complete sample size. The researcher was satisfied with the mixture of individuals (age, gender) who formed the sample.

With regard to the selection of EPWP champions, no sampling methods and tools were required as there are currently 10 departments, each with 1 EPWP champion. All of the 10 champions formed the complete sample size and were the only respondents in their respective departments. The same applies to the CDM senior manager who was the only respondent interviewed. The senior manager had been in the forefront of implementing the EPWP since 2009.

Currently, the final CDM 2012/13 Incentive Agreement project list shows that 123 projects have been earmarked to create 28 583 across all the EPWP sectors in the financial year 2012/13. Of these, the infrastructure sector accounts for 18 096 of the opportunities earmarked. On average, the EPWP projects within the CDM run for the duration of 8 months any given financial year, particularly EPWP infrastructure projects (CDM, 2012).

Bryman (2012:33) states that if the population is relatively homogeneous, a smaller sample may be sufficient. Brynard and Hanekom (1997) cited in Babbie (2012) argue that sample size does not only depend on heterogeneity or the larger the sample required to obtain a high level of validity. Also, Blumberg (2005) mentions the following principles that influences sample size.

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

Further, sampling is based on two premises. One is that there is enough similarity among the elements in a population and that a few of these elements will adequately represent the characteristics of the total population. The second premise is that while some elements in a sample underestimate a population value, others overestimate this value.

The process of purposefully sampling beneficiaries assisted in establishing the challenges they currently face working in EPWP projects from the beneficiary perspective, and what

solutions do they propose moving forward. Their inputs in this research are important as the effective implementation approach should address current issues faced by stakeholders in the value chain i.e., implementers (municipal officials), and beneficiaries (women, youth, men, indigents and people with disabilities).

3.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Data collection for evaluation research is only limited by the imagination of the evaluator (Sithole, 2013: 30). Thus, the data to be collected for the evaluation process can come from various sources and can be collected by different research techniques. The most popular among evaluators include interviews, questionnaires, programme records, government records and government statistical series (Bellamy, 2012:60; Blumberg et al., 2011:18). Government agencies and departments keep documents on individuals and programmes that would be ideal for programme implementation if made accessible (Sithole, 2013:31).

These would include policy documents, white and green papers and departmental records. Government documents play an important role in this study specifically as the programme is to be implemented as initiated by the ruling political party African National Congress (ANC) and the stakeholders are various government bodies such as the National Treasury, the Department of Public Works and local municipalities where the programme has been implemented (Heradien, 2013).

The programme that this study is based on was introduced by the ruling party (ANC) of South Africa through the Department of Public Works. According to parliamentary protocol when a government department submits a white paper, which is a statement of its proposed programme or policy; it is to be debated in parliament (Department of Public Works, 1997). Other policy papers were also reviewed because it was found vital for the construction of the theory behind the EPWP.

These policy papers included the White Paper on Social Welfare (1997), the public works vision towards the 21st century (Department of Public Works, 1997b) as well as the business

and economic policy of South Africa (The South Africa Foundation, 2002; South African Developmental Policy Edigheji, 2010). These policies include policies on economic growth, education and training as well as employment equity.

Existing records often provide insights about a group of people or programme that cannot be observed or recorded in any other way (Bryman, 2012: 33). This information is presented in document form. The best source of information with regard to programme objectives, activities, resources and the logic linking it all is to be found in programme's strategic plans, departmental records and policy documents.

Document review considers the context in which they were created (Wilkins *et. al.*, 2007). The researcher therefore learns about a specific programme at particular time and place which offer information regarding a certain topic (Wilkins *et. al.*, 2007). In this study, the insight is given into the EPWP during its design phase with the aim of addressing unemployment through labour intensive projects focused on skills development in South Africa.

The questionnaires for both the EPWP project beneficiaries and departmental champions were self-administered. In each of the three projects, the beneficiaries were congregated in each of the project site and briefed on the study, its intentions, expectations, and completion of the questionnaire. The researcher randomly handed out the questionnaires to each of the beneficiaries. Each questionnaire contained a unique number for tracking purposes. After the voluntary completion of the questionnaires, the researcher collected all the finalised questionnaires.

For departmental champions, the researcher physically hand delivered the questionnaires to all the identified respondents. Thereafter, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires. The questionnaires also contained a unique tracking number for retrieval purposes. In addition, the questionnaires for both the EPWP champions (*refer to Appendix B*) and beneficiaries (*refer to Annexure C*) contained both closed and open-ended questions.

Closed ended questions were particularly used to confirm what is contained in the literature. The open-ended questions assisted in gathering the perspectives of the respondents that would add to or confirm what literature review asserts about the subject matter.

A face-to-face interview was also conducted with a Senior Manager responsible for coordinating EPWP within CDM. An interview schedule (*refer to Appendix A*) was used as a primary method of collecting data from the CDM senior manager. The said senior manager has been coordinating EPWP within the CDM from its inception 4 years ago.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003: 112) states that there are numerous examples where researchers combine techniques that are usually accepted as quantitative and qualitative. For instance, one may find the researcher who uses probability-sampling techniques in conjunction within depth interviewing or basic descriptive statistics in analysing qualitative data. Many researchers would argue that the use of multiple methods and techniques is actually one of the best ways to improve the quality of research. Maree (2015: 39) points out that crucial to case study research are not the methods of investigation, but that the object of study is a case: As a form of research, case study is defined by interest in individual cases, not by the methods of inquiry used.

3.6 CONCEPTUALISATION, DEFINITIONS, KEY VARIABLES

Although the case study design was used, elements of both quantitative and qualitative study design were followed. According to Yin (1994:34) the case study design should have five components: “the research question(s), its propositions, its unit(s) of analysis, a determination of how the data are linked to the propositions and criteria to interpret the findings”. Yin (*ibid*) concludes that “operationally defining the unit of analysis assists with replication and efforts at case comparison”.

Mouton and Marais as cited in Terre Blanche and Durrheim, (2004) state that the aim of a research design is to plan, and structure a given research project in such a manner that the

eventual validity of the research findings is maximised. Johansson (2003: 223) indicates that “the case might be given and studied with an intrinsic interest in the case. In such a case, the researcher has no interest in generalising his or her findings”. In this study, the current researcher focused on understanding the case. If the findings are generalised, it is done by readers through “naturalistic generalisation”.

A case study research design was adopted for the purpose of carrying out this study. The CDM was the single case studied. Yin (2003: 56) cited in Chari (2016: 34) asserts that “it is important to be clear that the purpose of the single case study is to expand and generate theory or ‘analytical generalisations’ as opposed to proving a theory or ‘statistical generalisations’”. This assertion maintains the role of a case study research as an exploratory tool. If a collective model of case studies is used, then the scope for generalisation increases (Merkl-Davis et al., 2014: 1).

Halonen (2009) writes that a case study approach is often a good choice when theory and understanding are not well developed. This fits well with this study’s chosen methodology as upon review of literature, there was an indication that only related studies on EPWP and job creation have been undertaken particularly in district and local municipalities, and not widely in metropolitan municipalities, especially on the effective implementation of EPWP. This provides the current researcher an opportunity to contribute to the theory and more understanding on the subject, particularly in relation to metropolitan municipalities.

Halonen (2009:22) further indicates that “generally a case can be an organisation, a person, incident, series of incidents, process, physical unit or an occasion”. Benbasat et al. (1987) cited in (Gray 2009, 180) introduced 11 characteristics that define case studies, as highlighted below.

- “Phenomenon is examined in a natural setting”
- “One or few entities are examined”
- “No experimental controls or manipulation are involved;”

- “The researcher may not indicate the set of dependent and independent variables upfront”
- “The complexity of the unit is studied intensively”.

Merkel-Davis et al., (2014, 1) understands a case study as “a research strategy focusing on understanding the dynamics present within a single setting”. These scholars report that case studies combine data collection methods such as archives, interviews, questionnaires and observations.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

In this study, participants’ questionnaires, interview schedule, and documentation review were used as primary methods of data collection. Data was gathered during the process of reviewing EPWP documentation from the CDM EPWP. In addition, 1 CDM senior manager was interviewed whereas CDM EPWP champions, and beneficiaries were sent questionnaires.

The questionnaire and interview schedule in particular were used to assist the researcher to gain insight into the experiences of respondents in relation to EPWP implementation within the CDM and inform decision on the future EPWP approach that will enable the CDM to meet its job creation targets. Yin (1994) indicates that in case studies, data collection should be treated as a design issue that will enhance the construct and internal validity of the study, as well as the external validity and reliability.

In relation to data triangulation in case study research, Babbie (2007: 107) identifies four types of triangulation: Data source triangulation, when the researcher looks for the data to remain the same in different contexts; Investigator triangulation, when several investigators examine the same phenomenon; Theory triangulation, when investigators with different viewpoints interpret the same results; and methodological triangulation, when one approach is followed by another, to increase confidence in the interpretation.

In this study, data source triangulation was followed. The importance of the reliability of the data gathered, particularly in this instance where the researcher is also a staff member at the CDM, is of utmost importance. To this end, the researcher ensured that evidence provided is corroborated by at least 3 sources (for example participant questionnaires, theoretical data and documentary evidence) which provides validity to the research in terms of triangulation (Trochim, 2002; Welman & Kruger, 2001; Winegardner, date unknown).

With regard to the analysis of data collected, Miles and Huberman (1994) cited in Babbie (2007: 34) propose one set of comprehensive analytic manipulations as follows:

- Putting information into different arrays.
- Making a matrix of categories and placing the evidence within such categories.
- Creating data displays - flowcharts and other graphics - for examining the data.
- Tabulating the frequency of different events.
- Examining the complexity of such tabulations and their relationships by calculating
- Second- order numbers such as means and variances; and
- Putting information in chronological order or using some other temporal scheme.

In this study, data were analysed thematically or as per the main categories from questions contained in the questionnaire. The method utilised for analysing data gathered during the current study was predominantly interpretational. The researcher considered the information presented and organised it thematically. The themes or categories, which the researcher used to analyse data, are a combination of established categories often utilised in discussing EPWP/PWP.

3.7.1 Data capturing and editing

The interview schedule was used to collect data. During the process, a recorder was used to capture the information. Thereafter, a transcript of the recording was written. In ensuring that the transcript data is consistent with the recorded data, the researcher frequently rewinded the tape-recorder for data consistency with the information captured on every

page of the transcript. The transcript was proofread and edited while listening to the tape-recorded information.

With regard to questionnaires, after data were collected, the information was captured in a tabular format using themes, for instance, a broad understanding of the EPWP, beneficiary profile. The different responses were captured as they appeared on the questionnaires. Each questionnaire had a number attached. The questionnaire numbers represented each beneficiary. This corresponded with the allocated number from 1-27 (27 beneficiaries completed the questionnaires).

The researcher had to compare data captured in a tabular with each of the questionnaire corresponding to each of the numbers. There were minimal data errors in the questionnaires. This was because during the data collection phase, the res indicated on each section or question contained in the questionnaire.

3.8 EPWP IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS

3.8.1 EPWP policy/guideline/plan

During the 2nd EPWP municipal summit, several resolutions were made by the provincial government and municipalities, led by the DPW. The summit resolved that:

- a) Progress has been made in the development of municipal EPWP policy endorsed by Councils at local, district and metro level – and resolved that all municipalities will develop and endorse policy on EPWP by June 2012.
- b) Municipalities will ensure that their Integrated Development Plans (IDP) prioritise the EPWP approach and methodology in their projects in order to optimize the creation of work opportunities.
- c) Municipalities will optimise their budgets to deliver on the EPWP across all sectors and will use labour intensive methods in the delivery of projects in order to promote the creation of work opportunities.

- d) The summit noted the progress made by three provinces in establishing District forums and encouraged all other provinces to establish District Forums.
- e) From the side of the Department of Public Works, the summit resolved that we should provide intensified, focused technical support across all EPWP sectors to optimise the implementation of EPWP.
- f) The summit supported the review of the integrated incentive models. This is clear: we do not want to put roadblocks and speed humps in the way of job creation. There needs to be strengthened relationships between, Non-Profit Organisations (NPOs) and municipalities to enhance implementation of the Non-State Sector.
- g) Municipalities undertook to intensify reporting on work opportunities created on projects implemented. This is important because it makes public bodies accountable, it helps us to monitor and evaluate what is going on – and ultimately to improve delivery; and at a very practical level, the DPW will continue to develop and make available implementation manuals on EPWP (DPW, 2011).

All of the above-mentioned resolutions are necessary to ensure synergy, coordination, and a seamless approach in the implementation of the EPWP in municipalities. However, key to the adherence of the indicated resolutions is a need to develop an EPWP policy that would guide municipalities in the execution of this important mandate.

Fox and Meyer (1995:123) define policy as “authoritative statements made by legitimate public institutions about the way in which they propose to deal with policy problems”. Of importance is the fact that policy can never be static. It should always relate to current issues in society, for example, the continuous process of change, transformation and globalisation which are taking place in South Africa since 1994. It should constantly be adapted to match the impact of environmental variables and influencing factors.

At the national level, the DPW has developed the EPWP municipal policy and implementation framework. The main objective of the policy framework is to guide municipalities in the implementation of the EPWP. The policy further goes on to recognise specific challenges that are similar across public bodies implementing the EPWP. These

include commitment of political and administrative leadership; capacity in terms of designing projects labour-intensively; capacity in terms of reporting; dedicated coordination capacity within the municipality; low incentive drawdown; and achievement of longer duration of work opportunities and FTE targets (DPW, 2012).

The CDM states that for the 'EPWP to be effective, the programme needs to be incorporated in all activities of the municipality. This will require that every project as per the IDP will promote EPWP principles and re-structure project activities to facilitate and create greater employment opportunities per unit of expenditure, where possible (CDM, 2012).

The EPWP policy is therefore prepared for the entire CDM with the intention to close the identified gaps and challenges on the implementation of EPWP, strengthen the existing interventions and introduce new ones. These challenges include:

- Capacity in terms of designing projects labour-intensively.
- Institutionalization of EPWP within CDM.
- Capacity in terms of reporting.
- Dedicated coordination capacity within the Municipality; and
- Achievement of longer duration of work opportunities targets (CDM, 2012).

In dealing with the above-identified challenges, the CDM EPWP policy states its objectives as to address three main elements:

1) Mainstreaming the implementation of the EPWP by:

- Adopting the EPWP as an approved delivery strategy for project implementation by including EPWP guidelines and principles.
- Implementing the Programme in all EPWP sectors; ○ Addressing under reporting on the EPWP; ○ Developing skills within communities through the provision of training, with the emphasis on accredited programmes.
- Entrenching the EPWP methodology to all IDP projects, where applicable; and
- Re-engineering the planning, designing and implementing of projects in line with EPWP (CDM, 2012).

2) Institutionalising the programme by:

- Guiding on the EPWP Governance Structures within the Municipality; Clarifying the role of each Department in terms of EPWP; Informing all Departments within CDM on how their functions should contribute towards achieving the EPWP objectives; and
- Securing ownership from all Departments to lead on the implementation of the EPWP, with the support from the Department of Economic Development within the Municipality.

3) Guiding the implementation of the programme by:

- Providing guidance on employment conditions, skills development and enterprise development.
- Promoting the adaptation of supply chain and procurement policies in line with EPWP.
- Maximising the percentage of the annual total budget spent and retained within local communities through employing and capacitating local labour and small businesses; and
- Defining key performance indicators to monitor evaluate and report all EPWP initiatives (CDM, 2012).

Amongst other important elements, the CDM EPWP policy indicates that the municipality will adhere to the phase 2 targets, for instance, 55% women, 30% youth and 2% of persons with disability (CDM, 2012). This policy intention by the municipality should be encouraged. In ensuring that these plans become a reality, the CDM aims to use sound social facilitation process, and ensure that the municipality beneficiaries' recruitment is supported by the Provincial Coordinating Department and/or Sector Lead Department in the Province (CDM, 2012).

Most importantly, with regard to the training of beneficiaries, the CDM indicates that training of beneficiaries will be provided through the project budget or through the National Skills Fund (NSF) from the Department of Higher Education and Training in partnership with the National (Department of Public Works, 2011). Workers are paid a daily allowance

or stipend by the contractor (included in the project cost) whilst attending training. However, without a training plan accompanied by budget commitments from departments within the CDM, the municipality may not sufficiently achieve their set training objective (CDM, 2012).

The EPWP training manual warns that without training the impact of the programme on the lives of beneficiaries will be limited, as will the long-term contribution to meeting the country's skills shortages. All EPWP projects must therefore include training of beneficiaries, as required by the Code of Good Practice for Employment under SPWP.

Most of the activities in the EPWP are done on a project basis and the training for beneficiaries is therefore directly related to the skills needs of the projects on which people are employed. However, it is also intended that workers exiting from EPWP work opportunities are more marketable in the labour market than when they entered the work opportunity.

Evaluation: The CDM EPWP policy has all the elements of an effective policy. i.e., it is not static (reviewed annually), has set objectives, and aims to socially and economically influence beneficiaries. However, the effectiveness of the policy will ultimately be determined by meeting the DPW quotas for targeted beneficiaries (55% women, 40% youth, and 2% persons with disabilities). In the previous year (2011/12), the CDM has fairly been adhering to the DPW phase 1 target with regard to women and youth, with the exception of persons with disabilities.

The DPW required that 2% of persons with disabilities should form part of the total EPWP opportunities created in phase 1. The CDM created a total of 19 001 opportunities of which only 7 went to persons with disabilities. This accounts for 0,03%. One of the obvious difficulties is given the labour-intensive nature of most of the EPWP projects (such as digging of a trench) these tasks require able-bodied individuals, as they are physically demanding. This, therefore, requires the CDM to be creative in ensuring that certain tasks within EPWP projects are prioritised for persons with disabilities. EPWP projects funded

from operational budget such as the administration of housing allocations is one example of a project that is not necessarily physically demanding.

Lastly, the effectiveness of the EPWP CDM policy will also be determined against the objectives that the EPWP has to fulfil .i.e. draw significant numbers of the unemployed into productive work to enable them to earn an income; provide unemployed people with education and skills; Make an effort to assist beneficiaries of the EPWP to either set up their own business or service or become employed once they exit the programme; utilise public sector budgets to alleviate unemployment; and to create social and economic infrastructure and provide social services as a means of meeting basic needs.

3.9 SHORTCOMINGS AND ERRORS

During the review of literature on EPWP, it is clear that studies that were conducted on the subject matter were in the main around EPWP's ability to create jobs, EPWP role in local economic development, and EPWP in district and local municipalities, and EPWP evaluation. There was insufficient literature specifically on research conducted on how municipalities are effectively implementing EPWP and challenges they face. Rather some studies on EPWP tend to focus on one element/sector of the EPWP in relation to municipalities e.g., working for water programme in the Capricorn District Municipalities.

In addition, the researcher struggled with finding journal articles, or specific books on the topic. Most EPWP journal articles did not focus on the effective implementation of EPWP in local municipalities. This, therefore, limited the researcher to using other sources of information, mainly the internet as a primary research tool, and other written documentation. However, this limitation presented the researcher with an opportunity to contribute to the topic from a particular angle which has not been sufficiently written about, and thus contribute significantly to potential future research on the topic.

Researchers often make the case that external validity or generalisability in a single case study is a limitation. Saunders et al. (2009) assert that 'a concern the researcher may have

in the design of research is the extent to which the research results are generalisable: that is, whether your findings may be equally applicable to other research settings, such as other organisations. This may be a particular worry if you are conducting case study research in one organisation, or a small number of organisations. It may also be important if the organisation is markedly ‘different’ in some way.

In such cases, the purpose of the research will not be to produce a theory that is generalisable to all populations but simply to try to explain what is going on in a particular research setting. It may be to test the robustness of conclusions drawn by exposing them to other research settings in a follow-up study. In short, as long as the researcher do not claim that the results, conclusions or theory can be generalised, there is no problem’.

McLeod (2008) concurs and indicates that because a case study deals with only one person/event/group one can never be sure whether conclusions drawn from this particular case apply elsewhere. The results of the study are not generalisable because one can never know whether the case, investigated is representative of the wider body of similar instances.

In this study, the intention was not to generalise the findings to all municipalities implementing EPWP in South Africa, but to highlight challenges they face in particular using the CDM as a case study. Therefore, the findings of this study are for the CDM and only applicable to the municipality. However, data generated by the study will shed light on how to effectively implement the EPWP in metropolitan municipalities with similar settings, for example, institutional arrangement, capacity to implement the EPWP, existence of capital projects etc.

Another limitation as pointed out by McMillan and Schumacher (2006) is that data collection by means of questionnaires also poses a number of possible limitations, namely, that there could be biased or ambiguous items, the rate of response by the participants may be slow, it could prove difficult to score open-ended items and there may be the inability to probe and clarify any responses that were recorded.

In this study, the researcher was able to pilot test the questionnaires. This assisted in eliminating potential errors and limitations. It provided the researcher with the opportunity to ensure clarity, prior to their use in the main study, and to shorten questions, eliminate unnecessary ambiguities as well as to be in control of response timeframes.

In relation to errors, Sica (2005) indicates that there are two broad types of error that affect scientific investigations and distort measurements: random and systematic error. Since it is not feasible to study an entire population, a sample of the population is chosen. The study sample, however, may not accurately reflect the full spectrum of characteristics found in the target population. Random sampling error can then result and reflects variability or chance variation that may occur from sample to sample. Bias is a form of systematic error, and there are innumerable causes.

The causes of bias can be related to the manner in which study subjects are chosen, the method in which study variables are collected or measured, the attitudes or preferences of an investigator, and the lack of control of confounding variables (a distortion of observed associations by additional, sometimes not readily apparent, variables). An unbiased study is considered to be valid that is, the study results are, on average, correct.

In this study, issues of biasness were taken into account throughout the different stages. In particular, the research design was designed taking into account the possibilities of bias and efforts were made to minimize it. Pannucci et al. (2010) indicate that selection biasness may occur during the identification of the study population. The ideal study population is clearly defined, accessible, reliable, and at increased risk to develop the outcome of interest.

When a study population is identified, selection biasness occurs when the criteria used to recruit and enroll subjects into separate study cohorts are inherently different. This can be a particular problem with case-control and retrospective cohort studies where exposure and outcome have already occurred at the time individuals are selected for study inclusion. The following factors assisted the researcher to minimise selection biasness:

- a) At the initial stages of the research, the researcher was not aware of the specific projects, project sites, and project beneficiaries to be visited. Therefore, there was no prior exposure or contact to beneficiaries, projects and the sites visited during data collection phase. Minimal contact with 2 EPWP champions, and 5 project beneficiaries took place only during the questionnaire piloting stage.
- b) No specific criterion was used to select beneficiaries, and sites except that projects should be infrastructure projects that have been running for a specific period of time, and that beneficiaries should be EPWP participants currently working in those projects. As a result, no gender or age specific criterion was used.

Another type of error that can influence the outcome of the research is the interviewer bias. Pannucci et al. (2010) assert that interviewer bias refers to a systematic difference between how information is solicited, recorded, or interpreted. Interviewer biasness is more likely when outcome is known to interviewer. He further suggests that interviewer bias can be minimized or eliminated if the interviewer is blinded to the outcome of interest or if the outcome of interest has not yet occurred.

In this study, the researcher was not aware or pre-disposed to the data and information that the CDM senior manager was going to disclose. The only knowledge that the researcher knew prior to the interview was that the CDM senior manager had knowledge of the EPWP that the researcher does not have and would not have access to without conducting an interview.

It should be highlighted that the said senior manager started the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM prior to the researcher being employed within the CDM. The lack of knowledge on the outcome of the interview and the interview data assisted in minimizing interviewer bias.

Measurement error is another type of error generated by the measurement process itself and represents the difference between the information generated and the information wanted by

the researcher. Trochim (2006) highlights 5 measures that a researcher could employ to reduce measurement errors:

- a) Pilots test your instruments, getting feedback from your respondents regarding how easy or hard the measure was and information about how the testing environment affected their performance.
- b) Second, if you are gathering measures using people to collect the data (as interviewers or observers) you should make sure you train them thoroughly so that they aren't inadvertently introducing error.
- c) Third, when you collect the data for your study you should double-check the data thoroughly. All data entry for computer analysis should be "double-punched" and verified. This means that you enter the data twice, the second time having your data entry machine check that you are typing the exact same data you did the first time.
- d) Fourth, you can use statistical procedures to adjust for measurement error. These range from rather simple formulas you can apply directly to your data to very complex modelling procedures for modelling the error and its effects; and
- e) Finally, one of the best things you can do to deal with measurement errors, especially systematic errors, is to use multiple measures of the same construct. Especially if the different measures do not share the same systematic errors, you will be able to triangulate across the multiple measures and get a more accurate sense of what is going on.

In reducing the measurement errors, the researcher pilot tested the research instruments. i.e., the questionnaire for both the beneficiaries and EPWP champions, and the interview schedule was consulted upon prior to finalization. As indicated in the data capturing section, data collected was double-checked thoroughly per questionnaire. The transcript written from the recorded interview was also thoroughly checked. Triangulation of data amongst various sources i.e., document review, theoretical data, and participant observation was also undertaken.

3.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this study, the following ethical considerations were taken into account by the researcher:

- The participation of respondents in the study was voluntary. The decision to take part in a study remained the prerogative of the respondents. In addition, the respondents were given the option to withdraw from the study at any time.
- Respondents were given the assurance that their responses will remain anonymous and that the information they provided will be treated as confidential at all times.

3.11 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, elements of the research design and methodology were addressed. They include key variables, issues of measurement, sample design and sampling methods, data collection methods, data capturing and editing, data analysis and shortcomings and errors. Most importantly, the chapter highlighted the fact that a case study design methodology was adopted using both qualitative and quantitative data gathering research instruments. The next chapter discusses the results and key findings in detail.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines three primary objectives which seek to understand the research problem with the view to interpreting the findings of this study. These broad objectives assisted in making the determination and interpretation of the research findings. The conceptual framework which helps to identify and discuss some of the theory of change and programme theory in relation to the re-thinking of the labour intensive sector in the Capricorn District within the premise of the Expanded Public Works Programme, as well as providing the roadmap within which EPWP is implemented in Capricorn District Municipality, its milestones achievements and challenges during its implementation phase period. The chapter examines, presents and discusses the results gathered. The chapter will also profile the respondents including the interviewee. The profiling of respondents put into context the characteristics of the sample giving credibility to the results gathered.

4.2 SAMPLE PROFILES

The CDM senior manager - started the process of implementing the EPWP within the CDM in 2009. Amongst other duties, the senior manager was tasked with coordinating the implementation of the EPWP within CDM departments, especially service delivery departments i.e., Water and Sanitation; Roads and Transport, and Electricity. The process included setting and finalising targets for all departments implementing EPWP, in line with the CDM annual target and the Executive Mayors' term target.

The senior manager was also tasked with dealing with challenges faced by departments in meeting targets. In this regard, the senior manager was also responsible for tabling recovery plans for the CDM on how targets were to be met by departments. Most importantly, the senior manager was responsible for monthly, quarterly and annual reporting on the progress

made on the implementation of the EPWP. The reports were compiled for the Mayoral Committee (MAYCO) to deliberate on and make recommendations.

Departmental EPWP Champions – The champions are representatives of EPWP for their respective departments. They also serve as project managers of various projects which fall within the EPWP. They coordinate the overall implementation of the EPWP in different projects within their departments. They are responsible for the compilation of monthly, quarterly and annual reports on behalf of their departments.

Besides reporting, the champions are also involved in the process of finalizing targets for their departments. They are also proactive in raising challenges or in cases wherein targets that were planned may not be met. They serve on the CDM EPWP steering committee. In addition, based on the data collected, 4 out of 7 departmental EPWP champions have been representing departments for a period of between 3-4 years or older. Three of the EPWP champions have been representing their departments for a period of less than 3 years.

EPWP Projects beneficiaries – The respondents were sampled from 3 different infrastructure projects, in different locations in the location i.e., Molemole, and Blouberg of the CDM. Data gathered from 27 respondents reveals the following profile of participants sampled:

The research reveals the following characteristics about the sample profile of EPWP project beneficiaries:

- a) The majority (20) of the respondents are between the ages of 21-45 years of age.
- b) There are 20 male respondents as compared to 7 females.
- c) All (27) respondents have no disability; and
- d) Most (14) of the respondents did not have matric (less than matric qualification).

4.3 RESULTS

The study results are presented in three sections. The first sub-section focuses on the interview conducted with the senior manager within the CDM. The intention of the interview was to gather data that would shed the light on the history of the EPWP in the CDM, the political and administrative support of the EPWP within the CDM, and the comparison between when the EPWP was firstly introduced in the CDM compared to now. Therefore, the researcher sought to obtain information that would indicate how is the EPWP viewed by the management of the CDM. The interview schedule consists of 23 close-ended questions.

The second sub-section presents the data gathered from the CDM EPWP champions. Seven of the 10 departments responded. Despite the researcher's efforts to ensure that all departments responded to the questionnaire, it should be noted that the process was voluntary. Additionally, the questionnaire was designed in such a way that it fully gathers data on the experiences of the respondents in the implementation of the EPWP.

The questionnaire has a total of 15 questions ranging from their broad understanding of the EPWP, challenges with the current implementation approach, concerns raised by participants in their EPWP projects, and suggested interventions to deal with the current challenges. Six of the 15 questions in the questionnaire were open-ended.

The intention was to give the respondents an opportunity to express themselves based on their experiences without unnecessary limitations. The last sub-section profiles and presents data on the experiences of the participants in 3 of the CDM EPWP projects. The researcher designed 13 close-ended questions based on the literature review and theoretical framework. This approach enabled the researcher to confirm data found in the theoretical framework but also to discover additional data.

4.4 ANALYSIS OF CDM SENIOR MANAGER

The data from the interview was captured exactly as it was without distortion of the facts. The main aim of conducting the interview was to capture the views of the senior manager on the EPWP, as part of the CDM management. Although the views of the senior manager are not representative of all of the CDM management, the senior manager was part of decisions taken by the CDM management on the EPWP and had direct access to additional information and varying perspectives.

The interpretation of data was based on quoted and actual responses from the Senior Manager rather than the researcher rewriting the responses in her own words and presenting that information as actual responses. This is based on the view that the writing of the responses in the researcher's words will do injustice to the valuable factual information that could get lost during the rewriting process. The researcher would only analyse the actual responses against the theoretical framework and the objectives of this research study.

4.4.1 General understanding of EPWP

- **Description of EPWP objectives**

“Basically, EPWP is intended to absorb the unemployed individuals into temporary formal work, and also to provide skills to the participants for them to have exit opportunities later when the project ends”.

- **Meeting of objectives by the EPWP Programme at the national level**

“Yes, because we are already in phase 2 of the programme, even though it may need some structural or policy refinements in certain instances of its design, the fact is that the programme achieved the targets set in phase 1 of the programme. So, yes in that sense the programme is meeting its objectives”.

- **Interventions that can improve the EPWP programme at the national level**

“Obviously we would like the programme to absorb more individuals than it is the case now, but government operates within certain budgetary constraints, hence we have targets. The government can do more to minimise obstacles which might prevent entities to meet their targets. The interventions may be policy related interventions that can make the programme to function better”.

4.4.2 Initial EPWP implementation within the CDM

- **Introduction of the EPWP within the CDM**

“Around 2009 that’s when we started the process of implementing the EPWP within the city”.

- **Buy-in by CDM departments when EPWP was first introduced**

“Yes, there was, but it was at a slow pace. We should remember that the programme was being introduced for the first time within the city so many individual departments were unsure as the programme was never tested before in the city, it had to be implemented at a fast pace. And you can imagine having to implement something that you are still learning about, it’s very difficult because you don’t have the base to start from”.

- **Departments which embraced the EPWP when it was initially introduced within the CDM**

“Service delivery departments such as Roads and Transport department were amongst the first to want to deal with this new programme. You should remember that early when the programme started the focus was mainly on infrastructure projects, which usually have the labour intensive element within them. Fortunately, service delivery departments are usually

better placed to create more opportunities than other sectors as they have capital projects within them”.

- **EPWP buy-in from the CDM political leadership.**

“Yes, there was because remember mayors’ scorecards have job creation element within them. And the EPWP had the status of being a government wide presidential programme. Therefore, every political leader was aware and those in public entities such as our municipality had to champion the programme and report on it”.

- **Decisions on the setting of targets.**

“Well, the political leaders would propose targets, but the presidency through the public works department set targets for public entities. Political leaders had a task of ensuring that the targets were met or exceeded. However, internally departments did not have measurable targets”.

- **Realistic nature of targets allocated to departments.**

“Yes, they were realistic because they were allocated to the city, and one would assume that the allocation took into account the capacity of our city. So, from that point of view they were”.

- **Challenges and lessons learnt from implementing the EPWP within the CDM**

“Like I indicated earlier when the programme was introduced in the city, there was a little element of uncertainty as to what the programme was all about, so the lack of experience of the city on the programme was in itself a major challenge. Well with regard to the lessons learnt, I guess the city learned that in programmes of this nature there is no opportunity to pilot at a small scale. Targets are allocated and have to be met regardless of internal challenges or unpreparedness”.

4.4.3 Current implementation of the EPWP within the CDM

- **Current implementation approach entails**

“Well, the mayor is the political champion, the City Manager is the administrative champion who should ensure that the targets pronounced upon by the mayor become a reality. Luckily there is currently an EPWP division with a sole mandate of ensuring that departments and regions do their fair share in terms of achieving their targets”.

The division is also involved with departments in a collective effort of setting up targets. Beneficiaries are the responsibility of the individual departments at the project level, and ultimately the city. Departments manage beneficiaries in accordance with the DPW stipulations and EPWP ministerial determinations.

- **Comparison between the current implementation approach and when EPWP was introduced within the CDM**

“Initially you could not even say that there was an implementation approach as the programme was still new and processes on how the programme was to be implemented were still initiated internally. So, there is no comparison as the city was finding its footing then. The current approach is more clearly compared to the initial approach”.

- **CDM departments participating in the EPWP**

There are ten departments that are participating in EPWP.

- **Support of the EPWP by the CDM leadership**

“Yes of course, there is no choice on the matter. Job creation is a priority for our government, so any programme seeking to create jobs is supported, prioritised and encouraged”.

- **Decision on the EPWP annual and term targets**

“The executive mayor as the political head and leader for the city pronounces on term targets”.

- **Potential of EPWP departments to perform and meet their current target**

“Yes, of course we would welcome that”.

- **Realistic nature of current EPWP targets**

“Yes, they are realistic simply because the departments are consulted in the process of setting targets. So, the targets are not imposed but proposed (based on their annual projects and approved budgets), negotiated, and finalized. So, in that sense they are realistic”.

4.4.4 Proposed interventions for the CDM to Perform Better on EPWP

- **CDM leadership intervention to enable departments to perform above average with regard to EPWP targets**

“The EPWP division should firstly identify the general challenges that prevent departments from meeting targets. The leadership should only intervene when issues raised are beyond the capacity or mandate of the EPWP division such as when there is a need to introduce adjustment to the EPWP policy or guidelines or deal with departments that are not cooperating”.

- **Individual departments’ efforts in performing above average.**

“Firstly, they should strive to achieve targets negotiated with them, then we can think of surpassing targets. Departments also have to be proactive in finding ways of surpassing their targets rather than wait for the EPWP division to guide them. As long as they *do so*

within the city's EPWP policy framework, departments should be encouraged to be innovative to maximize opportunities”.

- **CDM performance in comparison with other district Municipalities**

“I think we are getting there, once we achieve our annual targets then we can look forward to surpassing and then excelling. I know that CDM surpassed their phase 1 target, districts are still struggling with achieving their moderate targets. Like us they started at a low base so it may take time for them to be where they want to be. This include surpassing annual targets, and not setting moderate targets that can be easily achieved. Look, as districts we should be all surpassing our targets given the capacity, budget and projects we have”.

- **Lessons to be learnt from other District Municipalities implementing EPWP**

“From CDM we can learn that targets can be surpassed if everyone is supportive of the programme and look for opportunities in every project whether capital or operational”.

From this excerpt, is clear that at a general level, the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM has improved from when it was initially introduced. Most importantly, an implementation approach does exist. Some of the information indicated above (on the implementation of the EPWP) was confirmed in Chapter 4. However, the optimism on the prospects of the CDM meeting its annual EPWP is clear. There is also factual acknowledgement of the fact that the CDM is not performing at the same level as the CDM and should be doing more.

Also, notable, the interview cites the lack of pro-activeness by CDM departments as one of the main elements that limit departments from achieving their targets. However, departments will need strategic and hands-on support from the EPWP division, and from each other. Clearly, the political and administrative leadership has been there from the initial stages of implementing the Programme to date. Departmental support also means that various departments from within the CDM would share their experiences with a view

to assist each other in dealing with various obstacles towards efficiently implementing the EPWP.

4.5 ANALYSIS OF CDM DEPARTMENTAL EPWP CHAMPIONS

4.5.1 Broad understanding of the EPWP and its benefits

All of the 7 respondents indicated that they understand the EPWP as a government programme to create work opportunities. In addition, the 7 respondents also listed the key general benefits of the EPWP as creation of employment, skilling of the unskilled and earning of an income by the poor.

4.5.2 Understanding how the EPWP is implemented in the CDM

The results show that all of the 7 EPWP champions viewed the individual departments as playing a key role in the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM, and only two of the 7 respondents additionally indicated the ‘EPWP division’s role in determining targets for departments’ as a key feature in the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM.

4.5.3 Challenges in the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM

The respondents were requested to respond to this question in an open-ended format. This approach was meant to enable individual EPWP departmental champions to raise issues they perceived as challenges in the efficient implementation of the EPWP. As a result, each respondent raised the following challenges individually:

Respondent 1

“The EPWP office does not communicate with the organizational performance office, therefore there is an element of reporting the same information to various stakeholders”.

Respondent 2

“The approach in terms of targeting is based on the project budget which does not necessarily give a correct indication of how many work opportunities can be created. Targets should be based on the number of labour intensive activities within the contract”.

Respondent 3

“Awareness, branding city and their depots, criteria of employment involving other political parties, youth agencies and disadvantaged people; and training on all projects”.

Respondent 4

“Appointed contractor does not have buy in in the Programme; EPWP is a small part of your daily functions; and no budget for uniforms/identifications”.

Respondent 5

“Standard EPWP conditions contained in tender documents are not sufficient to enforce proper EPWP principles in order to create the required number of jobs and specially to ensure maximum sub-contracting”.

Respondent 6

“Departments are running the Programme on an individual approach”.

Respondent 7

“There is a need for improved coordination of the EPWP within municipalities encourage better results”.

From the above responses on the challenges faced by the EPWP champions in the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM, was clear that the common identified challenge is around the approach that the CDM took the implementation of the EPWP. In essence, EPWP champions within the CDM are dissatisfied with the current implementation approach. All of the identified challenges clearly call for a need to totally

overhaul the current implementation approach or improve it into an effective and efficient approach.

However, as a researcher one should ask as to whether there is currently a platform for all EPWP stakeholders including EPWP champions to voice their concerns without judgement but with a view to improve the current system. It should be noted that it is only in 2012 that the new EPWP division was formed within the CDM.

It should also be borne in mind that the CDM 2012 EPWP is still in its draft format and has not been approved. Without an approved and clear policy guideline, the CDM cannot address the current challenges as the policy is a roadmap and a blueprint towards efficient implementation.

4.5.4 Proposed EPWP implementation approach in contrast with the current approach

Respondent 1

“EPWP unit providing more support, coordination and guidance; Spin-off or incentive derived from the programme being beneficial to the contributing departments in order to encourage and reward participation in the programme”.

Respondent 2

“All EPWP processes to be standardized for all Polokwane projects; Logistical support from the Polokwane EPWP will also assist. For example, data capturing, creation of standardized templates and IT systems”.

Respondent 3

“Tender must stipulate the rules of EPWP”.

Respondent 4

“The programme needs to be advertised not only to external stakeholders but within the CDM departments, each department together with its projects should be branded, there should be transparency with the incentive grant to encourage stakeholders involved in the EPWP, addition of projects with longer periods not only 3 months but from 3 months to 2 or 3 years, and the wage paid should not be minimum but close to maximum”.

Respondent 5

“Better consultation and technical support by the EPWP division, and targets that are better aligned to the identified labour intensive activities within contracts”.

Respondent 6

“Better communication between the lead departments implementing EPWP”.

Respondent 7

“Realistic targets and better support”.

In 2009 CDM received logistical support from the Independent Development Trust (IDT). The IDT avails data capturers that are currently deployed in major departments implementing the EPWP within the CDM. These departments include Environmental Management, Water & Sanitation, Roads & Transport, Electricity and Housing. The data capturers’ main function is to capture information on the performance of a department on the EPWP. The information of different EPWP projects and their respective beneficiaries is updated every month on the Management Information System (MIS).

Therefore, there was logistical support, although not in all departments implementing EPWP within the CDM. In addition, monthly and quarterly reporting templates are currently standardized for all departments implementing EPWP within the CDM.

With regard to the proposed intervention that the *‘tender must stipulate the rules of EPWP’*. The CDM had plans to include the EPWP compliance or element as part of the

specifications in the tendering process. Clearly, once the CDM tenders stipulate the rules of the EPWP this will guide contractors as to what the expectations are with regard to ensuring that the EPWP objectives are met through the projects that they have been awarded.

However, the mere fact that the EPWP policy is still in its draft format, may be the cause of the lack of rules of EPWP in the tenders advertised. The EPWP policy is supposed to consider all stakeholders in the value chain and guide each of these, including contractors.

On the issue of the incentive grant, the CDM, like other municipalities, receives 40% of their allocated incentive grant upfront; thereafter the remaining (60%) is paid after the municipality meets its FTE targets. The allocation of the incentive grant was made to the CDM the municipality internally invited proposals from departments on how they intended spending the grant once received.

Thereafter, projects with the strong element of labour intensive activity were prioritised, shortlisted and final decision was taken. Therefore, the process is transparent even though there is a need for improvement with regard to involving departments when the final decision is taken, although the discretion rests with the EPWP division.

Training Programme for EPWP Participants

Four of the seven respondents indicated that their departments had a training programme for beneficiaries. The respondents indicated that the training programme in their specific departments entailed training of students in artisanship from N3-N6 for 12 months, maintenance of buildings, and that contracts required the contractor to give the accredited training to participants in labour intensive systems and techniques. Three of the 7 respondents indicated that they do not have a training programme in their respective departments due to the following reasons:

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

4.5.5 General benefits for participants in a departments' EPWP project

Respondent 1

“Provides temporary income for unemployed community members; some individuals are permanently employed by main contractors; and there are limited skills transfer and employment experience”.

Respondent 2

“Employment brings back the dignity of participants”.

Respondent 3

“Accredited training, life skills training, and entrance to the formal labour sector”.

Respondent 4

“Job opportunities and income for longer periods”.

Respondent 5

“Artisan students may become qualified technicians and may be absorbed permanently by the CDM”.

Respondent 6

“Participants have an opportunity to earn a living”.

Respondent 7

“Better standards of living”.

Most notably from the above responses is the opportunity for participants in the EPWP projects within the CDM to be absorbed once they complete their artisan training. This highlighted the fact that the importance of training in EPWP projects cannot be underestimated in ensuring that participants exit EPWP projects and gain permanent employment. Also, the psychosocial benefit. This employment brought back dignity to the participants, correlates with the theoretical findings in this research which indicated that there was psychosocial impact on some of the participants in the EPWP projects of KZN.

Lastly, as indicated on the responses above, one of the main objectives of the EPWP is to enable participants to gain employment, experience and skills to permanently enter the formal labour market.

4.5.6 Challenges Raised by Participants in EPWP Projects

Respondent 1

“Lack of long- term job creation; limited skills transfer due to short construction periods; and limited income period”.

Respondent 2

“Stipend too little to cover their needs; no one to take care of their children while they are at work; and participants expect permanent positions”.

Respondent 3

“Late payment by contractors; and work interruptions to work due to community unrest”.

Respondent 4

“Departments within the CDM pay different daily wage rates which are not standardized or consistent across all departments”.

Respondent 5

“Late payment”.

Respondent 6

“Unhappy with the labour rotation in the skills development programme”.

Respondent 7

“Need two pairs of protective working clothing rather than one, for changing purposes”.

Some of the above challenges have been confirmed by the data collected directly from the beneficiaries in this research, this being the late payment of wages, and lack of long-term job creation. In addition, it is factual that the daily wage rates for the CDM in the year 2011/2012 were not standard across all departments implementing EPWP.

For instance, the SRAC department within the CDM paid beneficiaries non- standardized daily rates per project e.g., Ga-Makgato project number 710692 daily wage rate (R101.75 per day/July 2012); Polokwane Library project number 710104 daily wage rate (R80-165 per day). The electricity division paid beneficiaries a daily wage rate of between R100 to R399 in different projects (CDM, 2012).

Although, the non-standardisation of wages in one municipality may seem unfair it is not an illegal thing to do. The DPW Expanded Public Works Programme II Progress Report to Parliament points out that that ‘R60 was the minimum, and that the EPWP allowed beneficiaries to be paid from R60 to R150 daily’.

It was important for the entities involved to engage with communities to establish an appropriate wage for the particular work involved, and for this reason, there would be variances’ (DPW, 2001). Generally, within the CDM infrastructure departments such as Water & Sanitation and Electricity tend to pay more daily wage rate compared to social and environmental sector departments.

The fact that some beneficiaries raised concerns about the care of their children while they are at work should not be taken lightly. Given that the EPWP projects are temporary, this may discourage participants from sending their children to day care centers within their communities. This is one of the negative social impacts of not having permanent or long-term employment.

In addition, the suggestion that beneficiaries need to have at least two pairs of protective clothing cannot be underestimated. Given that participants wear their protective attire every day of the week during working hours, it is important to have another pair for obvious hygienic reasons. Having two pairs of working attire will also prevent participants from wearing their own attire which may not have EPWP branding. Participants within the CDM.



Figure 4.1: Participants at work in one of the Roads and Transport projects in Blouberg (Adopted from the Dept of R&T)

EPWP projects are allocated working boots, overalls, and helmets for infrastructure related projects. However, in Environmental cleaning projects additional items such as cleaning equipment are allocated. The following pictures below shows some of the EPWP participants at work and wearing protective attire.

4.6.3 Departmental debriefings with contractors on EPWP, and the frequency of monitoring (field visits) EPWP projects by departments.

It was indicated by 4 of the 7 departments that they do meet with contractors and discuss EPWP related issues. Only 3 of the 7 departments are not currently engaged in this process. With regard to the frequency of monitoring EPWP projects, all 7 departments indicated that they conduct field visits and monitor projects every month. However, participants surveyed in this research indicated that they have not seen anyone from the CDM or the DPW visiting their projects. They further indicated that the researcher was in fact the only person from the CDM or the DPW to have visited their projects.

The participants also indicated that although there were structures within their projects such as the CLO, they felt that there are cases wherein the CLOs are not helpful in resolving the issues they have with the contractor. In this case, they would have wished that the CDM officials and project managers could be visible and accessible.

4.6.4 Main challenges that you are currently experiencing in your EPWP projects

The respondents indicated the following as key challenges they currently are experiencing in their EPWP projects:

- Training.
- Lack of EPWP branded attire; and
- Late Payment of wages.

4.6.5 Suggested interventions to deal with the current challenges

It was indicated by 4 of the 7 respondents that key interventions that can be introduced by the CDM as:

- Focused, targeted and relevant training; and
- Amendment of the current implementation approach.

Only 3 of the 7 respondents regarded ‘improved and visible monitoring of projects’, as key to ensuring that the CDM deals with the current challenges. Additional interventions raised include:

- Streamlining of supply chain management processes; and
- Management of interdependencies, and implementation could maximize EPWP benefits within the CDM.

4.7 ANALYSIS OF THE EPWP PROJECT BENEFICIARIES

All of the 3 EPWP projects from which beneficiaries were sampled from were infrastructure projects. The three projects were from the roads and transport department of the CDM. One project was a road maintenance project, whereas the other two were storm-water pipe fitting projects. 100% of the respondents sampled in each of the three projects responded to the questionnaires. There was no withdrawal from the completion of the questionnaire by any of the respondents.

4.7.1 Employment history

The results show that in terms of whether the beneficiaries have been employed before they worked on their respective EPWP projects or not, 23 respondents indicated that they have worked before compared to 4 who did not. The respondents who worked before joining the EPWP projects account for 89% of the total. This finding is important as it sheds the light on the caliber of participants joining EPWP projects. The finding also indicates that:

- Contractors may prefer individuals who have practical experience and a certain level of skill.

Although contractors bring along a core group of skilled individuals to work on a particular infrastructure project, they are encouraged to work with and mentor EPWP participants to enable the transfer of skills between them. Having practical experience is vital to the project as it may imply that the participants have certain knowledge on how for example to make pipe fitment. And this is also important to contractors as it means that the project timeframes may be met as participants would not need to be trained first before they can start working. However, these important points do not exempt contractors from employing individuals who have not worked before.

It should be remembered that the main aim of the EPWP is to provide poverty and income relief through temporary work for the unemployed to carry out socially useful activities at the EPWP. The main aim of the EPWP implies that contractors should not necessarily prefer individuals who have worked before and are currently unemployed.

However, at a practical level any project with timeframes may prefer the unemployed individuals who have certain levels of skill or practical experience to avoid lengthier timeframes which would escalate costs. This may also be to the disadvantage of those who are unemployed and have no practical experience or reasonable level of skill.

The mere fact that those who have never worked before account for 11% of the total shows that the contractors of the EPWP projects sampled may be preferring participants with a certain level of skill or practical experience compared to those who have never entered the labour market before and have no skills.

This trend may also point to the fact that the same people performing activities requiring lower level of skills (e.g., digging a trench) within the sectors such as construction are employed over and over again to the detriment of those without the lower-level skills or construction sector experience.

- Contractors may prefer individuals who worked within the construction sector before joining the EPWP projects.

Practically it would make sense for contractors to prefer individuals who have relevant construction sector skills. As indicated above, training individuals who have no skill compared to those who have, may interfere with project timeframes and project budget.

However, it is the duty of all stakeholders involved within the value chain, especially the CDM as the custodian of projects to ensure that every person (provided they meet EPWP criteria to participate) seeking employment is accommodated within the EPWP projects and invest in certified sector- related training for participants.

4.7.2 Employment status prior to joining EPWP projects

The data gathered from questionnaires indicates that 22 (82%) respondents were in temporary employment prior to their participation in the current EPWP projects. 5 (18%) of the respondents were in permanent employment. This finding is important as it links to the structural nature of unemployment in South Africa.

It is argued that during high economic growth rates the economy may not be able to absorb all of the unemployed. This may also indicate a skills mismatch between what the labour market demands and the skills the unemployed have to offer Chadha, (1994). The temporary employment of participants prior to them joining EPWP may indicate the following:

- Were involved in temporary work requiring minimal/lower-level skills.
- They do not have the necessary skills to sell for permanent work. The labour market may not be currently requiring their level of skill for permanent employment.
- As a result, the EPWP projects serve as ‘employer of last resort’.

Also, the 18% of the respondents who indicated that they were in permanent employment prior to them joining the EPWP projects may indicate the following:

- Their skills are no longer relevant to enable them to work permanently.
- They may have had lower-level skills which can be sold in retail sector, construction, and manufacturing sector.

4.7.3 EPWP beneficiaries' participation prior to the current project

The results collected through the questionnaire show that for the majority of the respondents (21) the EPWP project that they are currently participating in, it was their first EPWP project to be involved in. This result is significant as it shows that most participants in the sampled projects have never participated in other EPWP projects before. New entrants into EPWP projects are an indication that additional individuals who have previously not had an opportunity to be employed and earn an income can now benefit.

The data also show that for 4 of the respondents, the current EPWP project was their second one to participate in. In addition, only 2 respondents indicated that they have previously worked on two other EPWP projects.

4.7.4 Duration on current EPWP project

The majority of the respondents (17) have been on the current EPWP project for a period of 1-3 months. This accounts for 63% of the respondents. The 1-3 months projects are new projects which commenced with the CDM financial year which began in July 2013. Five participants (5%) of the respondents indicated that they have been on the current projects for 3-6 months. An additional 18% (5) of the respondents have been on their current projects for a period of 6-8 months.

4.7.5 Skills gained by participants on the current EPWP projects

Most (10) of the respondents indicated that they have gained both technical skills and generic skills in their current projects. This entails specific technical skills that can be easily gained such as pipe fitting and plumbing. Generic skills related to mandatory health and safety training, and communication skills. However, 33% (9) of the respondents indicate that they have gained only technical skills since joining their projects. The remaining 29 % (8) of the respondents gained only generic skills.

The importance of training and skills development on EPWP projects is one of the key elements which forms part of the country's broader skills development strategy. The DPWP (2008) acknowledges that the issue of training and skills development has its own challenges.

One notable challenge is that many EPWP projects are by their nature short term or too small to enable effective integration of training and work for all beneficiaries. However, training of beneficiaries should take place as it is intended to equip workers so that they exit from the EPWP work opportunity with skills which assist them to be more employable in the labour market.

4.7.6 Impact of EPWP projects on the lives of EPWP participants.

All the 27 respondents indicated that their participation in EPWP projects has improved their lives.

- Use of income (buying food, clothes, furniture) – 23 (86%) of the respondents indicated that their participation in the EPWP projects has had an impact on their lives as they currently earn an income. The respondents use their income to buy food, clothing for themselves and their school going children and can afford to buy furniture during the duration of the project. It should be noted that besides earning an income, assets (material assets) accumulation such as furniture is regarded as one of the main elements in the fight against poverty.

- Nutritional (eating food that could not be afforded before) – 18 (67%) of the respondents considered the fact that they can now afford to buy food that they could not before, as the main impact that the project has had on their lives. This finding is of high importance and cannot be underestimated. Nutrition has a direct link with poverty.
- Malnutrition is an impediment to productivity, economic growth and poverty eradication. It is estimated that 32% of the global burden of disease would be removed by eliminating malnutrition, including micronutrient deficiency (DBSA, 2008). In addition, studies have also shown that poor nutrition affects the ability of children to learn: Studies have shown that stunted children (children who are short for their age) are less likely to enroll in schools, and if they enroll, are more likely to drop out (UNESCO EFA, 2006).
- Educational (children attending school than previously) – More than half (14) of the respondents indicated that education is the foremost benefit that their participation in the project has enabled. Poverty and education are interrelated. Poor people are often unable to obtain access to an adequate education, and without an adequate education people are often constrained to a life of poverty (Van der Berg, 2008). The work of Sen (1992, 2001) also indicates that inadequate education could be considered as a form of poverty in many societies.

Psychosocial (clothing, feeding children and participating in community activities) – 55% of the respondents indicated that they have experienced psychosocial impact since participating in the EPWP projects. Sen (1992, 2001) indicates that poverty is not merely a lack of financial resources but also a limitation of choices. Accordingly, poverty, in its wider view, should be seen as a range of constraints on the freedom to fully participate in society.

4.7.7 Challenges experienced by beneficiaries in their projects training

About 23 (86%) of the respondents indicated that the lack of accredited training was the main challenge that they face in their specific projects. The main concern they had is that without accredited training no employer will recognize their skills even though they have practical experience.

Another point that should be considered from the contractors' perspective is that uniform training of beneficiaries in a project may be difficult as participants do not necessarily have the same level of qualification, skills and experience. However, the training of project participants is in most cases within the CDM part of the tender conditions for potential contractors. Therefore, contractors have prior knowledge and can therefore plan for training accordingly.

The absence of accredited training limits the potential of EPWP participants to access other exit opportunities within the labour market, once they leave the programme. The DPW (2013) asserts that training is essential for a project as skilled labourers will ensure efficient and effective implementation of a project. In addition, training is also important as an exit strategy as beneficiaries will be able to make explicit choices about the occupation/ trade that they wish to enter and the nature of education and training that they will require. Moreover, further learning and training enables beneficiaries to attain recognized qualifications.

Working conditions

Generally, the data shows that most of the respondents (59.6%) were satisfied with their working conditions. Only 39.4% (11) of the respondents were dissatisfied with the working conditions they find themselves in. In general, respondents indicated that contractors generally ensured that they adhered to basic conditions of employment. The Ministerial Determinations on Special Public Works Programmes indicate that 'employers must take all reasonable steps to ensure that the working environment is healthy and safe' (Department of Labour, 2002).

Lack of EPWP branded working attire

About 5 (18%) of the respondents were dissatisfied with their working attire. However, 22 (82%) of the respondents were satisfied with their working attire. The DPW requires public bodies such as the CDM to ensure that EPWP project participant wear branded clothing for safety, visibility and consistency. Moreover, the branding of EPWP projects, and working attire such as overalls and helmets ensures that the community is made aware of the EPWP Programme.

Late payment of wages

The majority (66%) of the beneficiaries did not regard late payment as an issue. They were satisfied with the frequency of payment of their wages. The beneficiaries indicated that they were paid per fortnight and their wages were calculated on an hourly rate per day. The remaining 34% were dissatisfied with the payment of wages. In this regard, the beneficiaries raised several issues related to the payment of wages.

Some beneficiaries indicated that they were not paid for overtime. They had worked for 9 hours but only received wages for 8 hours. The Department of Labour (2002) Ministerial Determination on SPWP states that ‘An employer may not set tasks or hours of work that require a worker to work for more than 8 hours on any day’.

The Ministerial Determination on SPWP further goes on to state that ‘the provisions of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act do not apply to public works programmes’. i.e., overtime rate. However, the policy further goes on to state that ‘An employer and worker may agree that a worker will work four days per week.

The worker may then work up to ten hours per day’. The policy also states that ‘A task-rated worker may not work more than a total of 55 hours in any week to complete the tasks allocated (based on a 40-hour week) to that worker’.

From this policy the researcher can safely conclude that the workers could have worked for 9 hours provided there was an agreement with the employer. Based on the policy, it is also

not illegal for employees to work for more than 8 hours but the main issue is the communication of payment arrangements to employees prior to them working for additional hours. It is therefore the responsibility of the employers, in this case the contractors to clearly detail the working arrangement to their employees so that there is no doubt and suspicion by the other party, that wages for additional hours are not factored into the total pay.

Wages paid to some beneficiaries were inconsistent and fluctuated. The beneficiaries alleged that their wages fluctuated even if all their fellow workers worked for the same number of hours and days. The official explanation from the contractor was that the beneficiaries were paid the equivalent of 3 days wages upfront hence in some cases the wages fluctuated or were inconsistent.

4.7.8 Other general concerns raised by beneficiaries

The following are the general concerns raised by EPWP beneficiaries:

- Some respondents indicated that they would prefer that their pay-slips be given prior to them receiving their wages.
- Generally, respondents alleged that the DPW and the CDM do not do monitoring or site visits in projects that they are currently working in. In fact, they indicated that the researcher was the first person from the CDM that they have interacted with.
- Some beneficiaries signed a 20-month contract but have been informed by the contractor that the contract started in May and will end in December 2013, the duration of which according to them does not amount to the 20 months that they signed for.
- One Community Liaison Officer² (CLO) complained that he did not have a copy of the tender for the current project. The CLO indicated that this impedes on his ability to challenge the contractor on several issues that affect the community and project

beneficiaries. Amongst other things the tender copy indicates the project time frames, and budget for the project, and other commitments.

- In one of the projects, the CLO indicated that the EPWP consultant for the project was not helpful in escalating complaints raised by the beneficiaries and the CLO.

4.8 The impact of rural roads on poverty alleviation

The 1960's and 1970's saw a rapid investment on roads infrastructure in newly independent African countries, using capital-intensive technology. These projects were supply-driven as opposed to demand-driven. New roads were viewed as an economic opportunity in both qualitative and quantitative terms. It was assumed that they would have a catalytic development role that induced socio-economic changes in the population traversed by and using the new facilities.

It was believed that the poor population would respond to the economic opportunity by developing and adopting attitudes towards economic change. Contrary to the beliefs of politicians and their development expects, these investments have mostly negative effects on the poor (Howe, 1998).

Roads in rural areas are considered key to the attainment of sustainable development required to spur economic growth and improvement of the living standards of the people. Ironically the experimentation and subsequent large-scale implementation of the LBW works technology in many countries was done mostly on rural roads. It is therefore appropriate that a meaningful enquiry into the impact of the LBW on poverty alleviation should be directed to the rural roads sub sector.

However, a review of empirical research finding provides little support for the view that convectional investments in rural roads have a significant effect on poverty alleviation other than short-term employment opportunities during project implementation. The direct

connection between the road infrastructure and poverty alleviation, has not been sufficiently proven. Roads are believed to encourage economic interaction, diversification and specialization, by lowering the costs of production and consumption. This has a positive, but indirect impact in poverty alleviation.

Many studies on the impact of labour-intensive roadwork have concentrated on social impacts, improved access to commercial, economic, social and service centres, and the shortening of travel distance and travel times. A study of the impact of the LBW Programme in Lesotho revealed only social benefits in terms of savings in travel times to commercial services (Howe, 1998). Given the high level of unemployment in Lesotho, the savings in time is unlikely to be significant.

Nevertheless, existence of a road is viewed as a critical pre-condition to poverty alleviation; without a road, no poverty alleviation measures would be possible in many areas. Regarding cost effects, it has been shown that labour-intensive methods may be 25 to 30% cheaper than equipment-based methods for comparative output and have significant other benefits to the poor (ibid). Cost savings in US\$/km ranges from 4-12% in Nigeria to 41-58% in Lesotho (ibid).

There are further contradictions in the findings of empirical research on the development stimulus and impact on poverty brought about by new roads. Wilson (1996), cited in Howe (1998), argue that a quick exploitation of an economic opportunity requires a dynamism that is not a characteristic of the population in which poverty is prevalent.

In their review of the impact of the expansion of rural road networks in developing countries, USAID, cited in Howe (1998), report some positive, but mainly negative socio-economic changes on the poor, largely confirming Wilson's conclusions. In respect of distributional effects reflecting the likely effects of the investment on the poor, the findings were negative because poverty alleviation of road projects (ibid).

As new roads were often linked to the exploitation of major cash crops like coffee, tea, sugar, cotton etc.; in developing countries, an area's potential contribution to agricultural output was the main factor in the progress of road selection.

This can be expected to reinforce existing social and economic structures and hence promote stratification, mainly because it would help the wealthier and the better-informed producers to expand faster than others would. Other findings by Hirschman (1958), cited in Howe (1998) are that roads transport only plays supporting or lagging roles in development and poverty alleviation.

However, a major study on rural roads in Bangladesh in 1982, affirmed that rural roads are a development catalyst (Ahmad and Hossain, 1990). These findings confirmed the long-held view of the World Bank that investments in rural roads do indeed lead to a reduction in poverty (World Bank, 1990).

These findings were widely publicized by World Bank (1990); Ahmed (1990); and Creightney (1993). The study was considered to hold important lessons for Africa World Bank, (1991), cited in Howe (1998). The lack of consensus of empirical researchers is an indication of the failure or economic change and the resultant effects, rough by investment on rural infrastructure, on those living in poverty.

Employment in the process of construction or improving of rural road provides an immediate and direct source of income. If suitably targeted, large numbers of the poor can benefit more directly through earning. The maximization of these benefits depends on whether the activities are employment or capital-intensive, located in areas containing significant numbers of the poor and managed in a way that the poorest are targeted efficiently.

Assuming that the developmental effects will be sustainable to produce long and lasting structural changes necessary to expedite poverty reduction, the challenge is to maximize immediate effect by employing large number of poor people.

Despite the lack of consensus by scholars, the initiation of the labour-intensive road works in the 1980s in developing countries strengthened the poverty reduction orientation of the sub sector. The effects however are not significant yet as many sectorial investments remains capital-intensive and many labour-intensive activities are located in the potentially more productive and wealthy locations.

- While the example was on road construction and service given the catalytic role improved access and mobility secures, it is important to realise that other sectors like Agriculture, soil conservation and water harvesting should be considered.

4.9 RESPONSES FROM PROJECT EMPLOYERS (CONTRACTORS)

- Generally, the project employers were welcoming and friendly to the researcher and indicated that the study will assist in elevating some of the issues experienced mainly by project beneficiaries.
- Upon interacting with the project employers on some of the issues raised by project beneficiaries, the following were the responses that were generally highlighted:
 - With regard to inconsistent and fluctuating wages, the project employers indicated that the beneficiaries were paid the equivalent of 3 days wages upfront hence in some cases the wages fluctuated or were inconsistent.
 - On training and development for beneficiaries, the project employers indicated that they are not in a position to offer additional training to beneficiaries beyond the practical skills gained through beneficiaries' participation in the project.

- The project employers acknowledged that there is no monitoring of the projects from an EPWP perspective by both the CDM and the DPW. However, the project employers indicated there was an EPWP consultant in each of the project who served as a link between the CDM and the projects on all EPWP issues.
- With regard to the duration of the contract signed with EPWP beneficiaries, the project employers indicated that project timeframes might change based on the earlier completion of various tasks and activities.

4.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, information was presented based on findings from the research done on the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM. The research was mainly in the form of documentary evidence, interviews, questionnaires and literature review; a section on the interview with the Senior Manager within the CDM was covered with a view to get a perspective of the EPWP from the CDM management.

This was followed by a section on the experiences of the EPWP champions on the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM. This was based on themes that emerged from the research. Finally, a section containing data on the profile and experiences of the participants working in the CDM EPWP projects was presented. These three sections highlighted important data, which will assist in recommending an effective implementation approach for the CDM

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter draws conclusions based on the research results and the theoretical framework. The research investigated the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM. Most importantly, based on the findings from the investigation, this chapter also makes recommendations on the effective implementation of the EPWP within the CDM.

This study reviewed literature on labour intensive methods and its implementation in the Capricorn District. A mixed method employing qualitative and quantitative case study design was adopted. This allowed for the use of various methods of data gathering. Twenty-seven beneficiaries from 3 EPWP projects within the CDM were sampled. Seven of the 10 EPWP champions within the CDM responded to the questionnaire. One senior manager within the CDM was interviewed in this study.

Although, the CDM started from a low base in terms of the targets set at the initial stages of the EPWP implementation, the city is still currently unable to meet its internal EPWP targets. Some of the key challenges raised by the CDM EPWP champions include lack of a targeted and focused EPWP training programme, and late payment of wages.

EPWP project participants within the CDM raised issues such as lack of monitoring (project site visits) by the CDM and DPW officials, fluctuation of wages, and training as some of the challenges encountered.

5.2 REFLECTIONS ON THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The CDM has had challenges in the implementation of the EPWP. Since 2009, the municipality has been unable to meet its annual EPWP targets. Moreover, not only has the

CDM failed to meet its annual target, but also targets set for persons with disabilities and indigents.

This study investigated the nature of these challenges by focusing on how the CDM implements its EPWP. Some of the issues that contributed towards the presence of the challenges experienced by the CDM can be internally addressed.

The departments highlighted their individual challenges such as community unrests, and the influence of councillors on the compilation of lists and the processes concerned with the recruitment of EPWP participants in communities as some of the reasons for not meeting indigent targets

The failure to meet EPWP targets particularly in relation to persons with disabilities and indigents implies that the CDM is unable to include vulnerable groups in the economic participation processes.

5.2.1 Reflections on the objectives of the study

In determining whether this study met its objectives, this section provides a brief discussion. The objectives of the study have been articulated in the following manner:

Objective 1

Provides an outline of the Capricorn dealing with factors such as its origin, the social context of unemployment, inequality, poverty etc. Chapter 3 detailed the CDM economic and social background. The chapter further outlined in detail the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM.

Objective 2

Investigates the challenges inhibiting the achievement of EPWP targets within the CDM. Chapters 3 listed the challenges experienced by the CDM in achieving the EPWP targets. Some of the challenges revolved around the criteria used in the CDM indigent policy to

define individuals as indigent. The lack of clearly defined measurable targets, and participation by few departments in phase 1 of the EPWP in the CDM were some of the challenges which inhibited the municipality from meeting EPWP targets.

The unapproved draft EPWP policy also serves as a challenge for the CDM. This implies that departments and stakeholders do not currently have an ‘approved’ blueprint, which can be used as a credible guideline in implementing the EPWP.

Objective 3

Proposes an effective approach in the implementation of the EPWP within the CDM, taking into account the institutional arrangement currently in place. Chapter 5 provides recommendations with a view of assisting the CDM in effectively implementing the EPWP.

Objective 4

Highlights key challenges encountered by the municipalities in the implementation of the EPWP in South Africa. Chapter 1 highlighted some of the challenges faced by public bodies including metropolitan municipalities. They include the in-equalisation of the incentive grant, and the fact that some of the capital projects are highly technical and require advanced technical skills thereby implying that only minimal labour can be used to the detriment of employing additional poor unemployed individuals.

5.3 INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS IN TERMS OF LITERATURE OR THEORY

The study reveals key findings which can be interpreted in terms of literature or theory:

5.3.1 Impact of EPWP projects on participants

This study reveals that there is an impact on the participants in the CDM EPWP projects. All of the 27 participants sampled in this study indicated that there is an impact in their lives. Twenty-three out of 27 (86%) respondents indicated that the use of income (buying food, clothes, furniture) was the impact they experienced. Eighteen of the 27 (67%)

respondents indicated that there was Nutritional (eating food that could not be afforded before).

Impact in their lives. Fourteen out of 27 (51.8%) of the respondents indicated that they experienced educational (children attending school than previously) impact; and 55% of the respondents indicated that there was psychosocial (clothing, feeding children and participating in community activities) impact in their lives.

McCord (2004) reports that there was a real measurable impact on the participants of two EPWP programmes undertaken in both KwaZulu-Natal (Zibambele), and Limpopo (Gundo Lashu Programme). The above findings are in line with the results of a study conducted by McCord (2003), in which there was a real measurable impact on the participants of two EPWP programmes undertaken in both KwaZulu-Natal (Zibambele), and Limpopo (Gundo Lashu Programme).

The impact was in terms of the ability of participants to have buying power that they did not have before. Participants were able to earn and use an income, they could afford food they could not previously afford, they could take their children to school and pay for their fees, and they were also able to participate in activities within their communities (psychosocial) than previously.

One of the key additional findings in relation to the impact on EPWP projects in this research is that most beneficiaries experienced impact within 1-3 months of participating in the programme. Sixty-three percent of the participants sampled in this research experienced impact within the first three months of participating in the EPWP projects. The remaining 37% of the participants only experienced impact during 3-8 months in the projects.

This finding was significant as it indicated that most EPWP projects are criticised for not being sustainable, impact on the majority of participants is immediate from the time they earn an income they could not previously earn. This finding will contribute significantly to

enhancing theory or literature, especially in relation to the impact on participants of EPWP projects.

5.3.2 Training and skills in enhancing employability of participants

With regard to human resources, the labour intensive sections are managed by a consultant with an NQF level 7 (Department Public Works, 2004). The staff member working under these consultants should be qualified with an NQF level 5 (Department Public Works, 2005). In addition, NQF level training is provided by the EPWP.

The different sectors in the programme, all have their own members of staff and leadership. For instance, the infrastructure sector requires a staff qualified with NQF levels 2, 4, 5 and 7 (Department Public Works, 2005). An individual is trained in labour intensive methods of the construction industry and should be in a position to become a contractor and NQF level two and supervisors at NQF level four (Department Public Works, 2005).

Much of the output expected from the EPWP is dependent on the training and skill development provided by the programme and more importantly the exit strategy. The programme aims to prepare participants in such a manner that they are able to enter the economy and make a sustainable living.

It has been stated that inadequate infrastructure is a limiting factor to economic growth (Molise, 2008). The infrastructure sector has been identified as one of the drivers for addressing the unemployment problem in South Africa (Molise, 2008). This could be attributed to the fact that it is an industry that can absorb a large labour force.

The large investment choice from the EPWP into this sector is thus evident. However, the concern lies with the weight placed on this sector in relation to the other sectors in the EPWP. The infrastructure division, both financially and by amount of intake of participants should make up the largest portion of the programme.

In the interest of economic growth in South Africa, the significance of these other sectors in the EPWP is worth exploring as they might play an equally important role in economic growth. This study reveals that most of the respondents (10) indicated that they have gained both technical skills and generic skills in their current projects. Thirty-three percent of the respondents (9) indicated that they have gained only technical skills since joining their projects. The remaining 29 % of the respondents (8) gained only generic skills.

Reviewed literature reveal that the skills transferred during participants' brief period of EPWP employment are not consistent with the skills required in the economy, since the limited period of training included in most EPWP employment opportunities, prohibits the acquisition of the artisanal and other skills in short supply. For these reasons, the employment impact of the EPWP training component is likely to be limited, resulting primarily in substitution rather than significant increases in aggregate employment (McCord et al., 2007).

The researcher concurs that training offered to participants in the EPWP projects of the CDM might not assist participants when looking for exit opportunities after brief employment in these projects. This is the case, especially given that the skills acquired by most of the respondents (10) were basic technical and general skills that are not specialised.

The current South African economy requires specialised skills such as artisanship and those in short supply rather than general skills gained in EPWP projects. Therefore, there is a need for imparting EPWP participants with specialised skills that are aligned with the demands in the labour market to enhance their employability.

5.3.3 Lack of sustainability in EPWP projects.

One of the key findings in this study was the lack of sustainability or long- term prospects of EPWP projects within the CDM. This concern is indicated by EPWP participants to one of the EPWP champions who responded to the questionnaire in this study.

Literature indicates that by design EPWP projects are meant to temporarily provide relief for the unemployed. McCord (2004) indicates that the short-term nature of the EPWP does not permit the accumulation of surplus for investment in income earning activity. In general, impacts are less significant in Limpopo and are not expected to have a sustained impact. Like the EPWP the Indonesian PWP programme, i.e., Padat Karya is a clear example of this approach.

The Padat Karya's intention is to temporarily increase aggregate employment, while providing a basic income for consumption smoothing during the period of labour market disruption. These programmes also tend to offer basic 'risk coping' or 'protective' social protection.

The criticism of the EPWP projects in terms of their sustainability is justified, although that's the nature of PWPs such as the EPWP. From the participant point of view, the short-term nature of EPWP projects affects their ability to have long term plans as their income is short term. This also affects their ability to accumulate assets and to make investments.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The main intention of the study was to rethink the labour-intensive methods and the challenges that the CDM experiences when implementing the EPWP and recommend an effective implementation approach.

The recommendations are based on key findings with regard to the following:

- Results from the data gathered from the CDM Senior manager.
- EPWP champions, and CDM EPWP project participants.
- Positive elements within the CDM EPWP implementation model.
- Challenges that the CDM is experiencing in implementing the EPWP.
- Experiences of the CDM in implementing the EPWP; and

- Theory on experiences in the implementation of PWPs internationally and in the African continent.

5.4.1 Recommendation 1: Approval of the draft EPWP Policy by the CDM.

This research reveals that the CDM has a draft EPWP policy that was initiated in 2012. The research also reveals that the CDM already had an approved EPWP policy/framework by 2004. The delay in the approval of the EPWP policy by the CDM may be a sign of complacency and lack of urgency on such an important milestone in the implementation of the EPWP.

The EPWP policy is meant to guide all stakeholders involved in the value chain in implementing the EPWP. Stakeholders from senior management, departmental project managers, beneficiaries and external organisations associated with the EPWP need guidance in implementing the programme.

The CDM is experiencing the benefits of meeting and even surpassing their targets. One of the key reasons is the fact that their EPWP policy was approved immediately when government started with the implementation of the EPWP in 2004. This afforded the municipality with an opportunity to refine their policy over the years to the point whereby every stakeholder has a buy in the Programme.

Therefore, the delays and inability of the CDM to approve the EPWP policy will pose challenges as buy-in may not be secured from both internal and external stakeholders. Securing buy-in from all stakeholders involved means that everyone is committed to their responsibilities, thereby improving efficiency in the process.

5.4.2 Recommendation 2: Monitoring of EPWP projects

The EPWP participants sampled in this study reveals that they have never seen or interacted with officials from the CDM. This includes projects managers from the CDM or DPW. This fact concerned the participants as to them it appeared as if the contractor has all the power to control all processes even though they are fully aware that the CDM is the

custodian of the project. Moreover, participants also felt that there are no mechanisms and proper channels for them to raise their genuine concerns relating to the late payments, and queries related to wages.

Although the CDM has an EPWP consultant on the projects, the participants indicated that they have never even had contact with the consultant. The CLO also pointed out that the grievances and concerns which the participants had raised were not addressed by the contractor or the EPWP consultant.

According to participants, there seems to be a distance between them, and individuals tasked with ensuring that their grievances are addressed. This is not helpful to the CDM efforts of efficiently implementing the EPWP as the main stakeholder i.e., participants feel aggrieved and that mechanisms to address their issues are not clarified.

It should be noted that this research also reveals that all of the 7 EPWP champions indicate that their departments conduct monitoring of projects on a monthly basis. The idea is theoretically acceptable, however from a participant point of view, visibility of CDM officials in some of the EPWP projects is key in giving credibility to the EPWP process.

Therefore, the CDM departments may theoretically plan to monitor EPWP projects but in reality, from the participants point of view it is not taking place. It is, therefore, recommended that the CDM make effort to improve their monitoring processes by adhering to their monthly visits of EPWP projects, especially given that this gives credibility to the EPWP projects as far as participants are concerned.

5.4.3 Recommendation 3: Coordination of EPWP

Although the CDM has established a stand-alone EPWP division tasked with coordinating the implementation of the EPWP city wide, there is a need to improve on the process. In the CDM, there are steering committees that oversee and assist departments with the coordination of the EPWP projects. These steering committees are as per the four EPWP sectors. Theoretically, the CDM has plans to emulate the same process as the CDM as

indicated within the draft EPWP policy of 2012. However, the CDM currently does not have steering committees that are functioning and effectively assist departments in the EPWP coordinating process.

The effective coordination of the EPWP is crucial as it enabled entities such as the CDM to be aware of the role each stakeholder plays in the value chain. Some of the EPWP champions indicated that they regard the coordination of the EPWP within the CDM as a key challenge faced in the implementation process. The coordinating role also implies that the CDM EPWP division should be highly proactive in leading, guiding and addressing key concerns raised by departments.

Some of the key steps that the CDM should take in ensuring that there is proper coordination of the EPWP include:

- Addressing support issues within the CDM especially in relation to the reporting process;
- Ensuring the functioning of the EPWP steering committees in four sectors;
- Allowing for a forum in which departments raise their concerns, and sharing of best practices;
- Awareness of the role each stakeholder plays in the value chain including the contractor and EPWP consultant;
- Improving on the monitoring of EPWP projects (field visits);
- Encouraging departments implementing the EPWP to be innovative on how they can increase their targets within the limits of the EPWP policy framework.

5.4.4 Recommendation 4: Ensure that all projects within the CDM are EPWP

Currently, the bulk of the EPWP opportunities from within the CDM are created from the capital budget. One of the key elements within the CDM is the fact that they look for the creation of opportunities in any of the projects they finance from the operational and capital budget. Therefore, there is a need to shift the mind-set within the CDM if EPWP targets are to be met and surpassed.

Departments should seek to involve unemployed individuals especially in operational projects that have to do with the maintenance of buildings, stadiums, libraries, and other amenities. By so doing, the CDM would not only increase their targets but also enable participants to acquire specialised skills that can be used later in the labour market, after exiting the programme.

5.4.5 Recommendation 5: Review of the Indigent Criteria

As indicated earlier in this study, the CDM Indigent policy requires departments to at least allocate 50% of all the opportunities created in a financial year to indigents. The CDM has to date been unable to meet the target. Besides all the other reasons given by departments, one of the main limitations is the criteria used in categorising individuals as indigents.

Although it is a given that every policy should have limitations as policies operate within budget constraints, the CDM Indigent policy criteria should be revised to be inclusive and reach more vulnerable individuals.

The fact that the Indigent policy criteria only allows for one person within the household, who has a service account to be registered as an indigent disadvantage all the other members in a household. Although in most cases the person who has the service account is the owner of the house and a bread winner, there is no guarantee that the individual will take care of the other household members once registered as an indigent or earn an income from participating in the EPWP projects.

Therefore, it is recommended that the CDM find ways of accommodating all the other household members in registering as indigents to safeguard against excluding genuine members of a household who qualify as indigents.

The above limitation of the Indigent policy criteria also leads to other challenges. For instance, other family members qualifying as indigents but cannot be registered as indigents due to the above criteria may genuinely be frustrated and cause community unrest that may delay the implementation of EPWP projects. This is clearly reported as one of the main

challenges by the water and sanitation department in their pursuit to ensuring that they meet the 50% indigent target in their projects.

5.4.6 Recommendation 6: Encourage creativity in including persons with disabilities in EPWP.

As indicated in this study, the CDM has not been able to meet the 2% target set by the DPW, of including persons with disabilities in their EPWP projects. Although the CDM has not articulated reasons in this regard, there are several factors that may lead to this occurrence. Firstly, the nature of infrastructure projects is such that they require manual labour to complete tasks. As a result, departments within the CDM may be struggling with how they should involve persons with disabilities in infrastructure projects.

It is recommended that the CDM find ways and be creative in including persons with disabilities in projects that do not require manual labour but are operational and EPWP. For instance, housing administration and allocation projects within the housing department may be suitable as they require minimal labour and are not highly labour intensive. All departments should be innovative and find creative ways of involving persons with disabilities especially in activities funded from the operational budget. It is rightfully said that society is judged by how it treats its weak and vulnerable citizens.

5.4.7 Recommendation 7: Creation of exit opportunities.

Although by their design EPWP projects are short-term and temporary, the CDM should create exit opportunities for participants who exit EPWP projects. One of the main findings in this research is that beneficiaries are unhappy with the short-term nature of the EPWP projects within the CDM. This may indicate that the participants lack information on the policy design of the EPWP projects. Therefore, the CDM should share information on the EPWP policy design issues to educate the participants on the nature of EPWP projects.

Most importantly, the CDM should create exit opportunities for EPWP participants exiting the programme. This can be done in several ways. Firstly, the municipality can link the

training offered to participants within the EPWP projects, with current or future job opportunities which the CDM has or plans to create.

Secondly, the CDM can enter into an understanding with external companies requiring individuals who have received certified training in fields such as plumbing, pipe fitting, bricklaying and other general construction industry specialties. This will ensure that participants exiting the CDM EPWP projects are at least connected to medium to long-term jobs which will enable them to earn an income, and they can also accumulate assets which are important in the fight against poverty.

5.4.8 Major recommendations

In the view of the foregoing, the following recommendations have been generated:

- Assets created under EPWP contribute directly or indirectly to growth and poverty reduction at either local or national levels. However, for greater impact and contribution towards rural development the assets created or maintained through EPWP need to be strategically selected for their benefits to the poor or the wider economy, and their construction should simultaneously be given adequate technical management to ensure they are acceptable and sustainable quality roads?
- The performance of EPWP in terms of various social and economic objectives is highly contingent on the institutional context in which the project is executed including the social development process in which they are embedded. Inadequate institutional and social development frameworks compromise the capability of EPWP Programmes to meet desired and much more inclusive outcomes.
- EPWP should include childcare and foster facilities including mobile toilets on sites for use by beneficiaries as part of a wider gender mainstreaming strategy.
- EPWP should be structured in such a way that appropriate local level assets skill transfer is adequately provided. This should serve to provide a platform for empowering previously

assets-less communities with the right mix of assets to act as a foundation for building and developing prosperous rural areas.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Different policies and programmes have been developed to address the problems of poverty and unemployment in South Africa. These policies and programmes are reflective of the needs the country reflected at that time. For instance, the development of the RDP in 1994 was focused on eradicating the last remnants of apartheid and building a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist society (ANC, 1994).

The RDP was short lived and in 1996 the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy was introduced (Deegan, 2001). With GEAR the focus was economic growth and redistribution, through exports and investment, and employment outside of agriculture (Deegan, 2001). Further, GEAR was intended to pull the country out of its recessionary slump but failed to enhance significant economic growth. GEAR was expected to create 1.35 million jobs from 1996 to 2000 (Weeks, 1999 and DOF, 1996 in Mbuli, 2008), but 1.3 million new jobs did not materialise as planned and over a million formal sector jobs were lost.

Enhancing economic growth was apparently not the best way to address the problems of poverty and unemployment as the lack of success by the RDP and GEAR demonstrated. The focus thus shifted, and the next strategy entailed skills enhancing education and training. This transition saw three acts introduced between 1998 and 2000 (Mbuli, 2008).

The first act was the Further Education and Training Act of 1998 which projected to ensure that learners and out of school youth acquire education relevant to the workplace (Mbuli, 2008). South Africa is highly affected by poverty and unemployment. The rate is very high, and it is affecting the economy.

The South African government has formulated policies such as the Extended Public Works Programme as an intervention mechanism to deal with the high rate of poverty and unemployment. The EPWP is a model drawn from the United States of America after the Second World War called the “New Deal” in that unemployed people were exposed to labour intensive job creation schemes.

In South Africa, this scheme is meant to give people temporary relief and while working it is expected that people would acquire skills which would be used when opportunities present themselves. However, the economy has been erratic to the point that it is unable to absorb scores of unemployed people. The economic industry has been affected by a number of factors which contribute towards unemployment such as mechanisation and the government’s pro-labour policies.

The second challenge facing the government is the poverty aspect which has historic roots in the country’s racially oriented policies and programmes. Dispossession of indigenous communities, social engineering schemes such as reserves, or homelands have all contributed to pockets of poverty in some parts of the country.

The South African government should copy the best practices from other countries which have successfully implemented the Public Works Programmes and have improved their economy. This study submits that PWP and EPWP play a significant role in economic development of the entire country, especially where structural unemployment and poverty are prevalent. However, PWP and EPWP can only be successful if their design elements and implementation are appropriate for responding to unemployment and poverty on a larger scale.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXTURE A: EDITING CERTIFICATE

COPY-EDITING ENDORSEMENT

To whom it may concern,

This certifies that the doctoral thesis (excluding appendices) whose title appears below, has been edited for proper English language grammar, punctuation, spelling, and overall style. The researcher must take heed of all suggestions made by the editor.

TITLE

Rethinking the Labour-Intensive Sector: The Case of Extended Public Works Programme Employment between 2004-2017, in Capricorn District Municipality, Limpopo Province


RESEARCHER

Suzan Mokgehle

DATE EDITED

16 October 2022

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Editing certificate

Editing certificate

ANNEXTURE B1

EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER

32016/2017 CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)

REPORT: OVERALL NATIONAL CONSOLIDATED PER SECTOR

Sector	Number of projects	2016/2017 Allocated project budget (including professional Fees)	Expenditure (including professional fees) 01 APR 2016 to 31 Dec 2016	Person-years of works including Training (FTE) (01 APR 2016 to 31 Dec 2016)	Person – years of training (01 APR 2016 to 31 Dec 2016)	Gross Number of work Opportunities created (01 APR 2016 to 31 DEC 2016)	%youth	%women	%people with disability
National totals	10,353	98,033,875,455	9,842,771,001	142,723	1,203	497,624	44.73%	67.22%	1.71%
Infrastructure sector	3,690	81,982,981,809	5,245,721,094	44,979	83	199,196	39.13%	60.48%	0.69%
Environment and culture sector	2,576	7,975,992,824	1,927,644,211	36,297	848	126,183	58.64%	58.24%	3.08%
Social	3,503	5,280,656,471	1,201,054,455	42,343	257	97,852	42.09%	83.33%	0.79%
Non-state sector Non-Profit Organisation	381	543,780,560	271,128,929	13,488	4	50,814	51.09%	76.26%	4.54%
Non-state sector	203	2,250,463,791	1,197,222,312	5,616	11	23,579	14.96%	85.90%	0.77%

community Programme									
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1. The EPWP report is based on information received from reporting bodies across identifies EPWP Sector Departments for the period of the above and should be read in conjunction with the narrative section of the relevant EPWP Quarterly Report.
2. This consolidated report has been generated from a per project dataset; data received from national and provincial governments, as well as municipalities.
3. Project budgets are based on reports received; some of these budgets might run over multiple financial years. Infrastructure Sector budgets are not only based on PIG and MIG funding, but also on provincial Equitable Shares.
4. Expenditure in some cases is actual expenditure and in other cases transferred funds to provinces and implementing bodies.
5. Zero's or blank field imply that reporting bodies did not respond on requested information.
6. A work opportunity is opportunity is paid work created for any period of time. The same individual can be employed on different projects and each period of employment will be counted as a work opportunity.
7. A work opportunity in the infrastructure Sector has an average duration of four (4) months and in the Environment & Culture Sector an average duration of six (6) moths.
8. The "Gross Number of work Opportunities" is the overall number of work opportunities that the reporting body has reported on
9. One person-year of Work is equal to 230 paid working days including paid training days. The calculated wages paid out to employees on EPWP projects have been calculated by multiplying the minimum wage rate with the person-days of work.
10. Planned projects or projects that have not started as yet, have been filtered out of this consolidated report.

ANNEXTURE B2
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017
(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
REPORT: NON-STATE SECTOR PER PROVINCE

Sector	Number of Projects	2016/2017 Allocated Project Budget (including Professional Fees)	Expenditure (Including Professional Fees) 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016	Person-years of Training (FTE) (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Person-years of Training (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Gross Number of Work Opportunities Created (01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)	% Youth	% Women	% People with Disabilities
Sub Totals	10,353	98,033,875,455	9,842,771,001	142,723	1,203	497,624	44.73%	67.22%	1.17%
Eastern Cape	470	17,790,646,301	1,564,388,809	24,905	35	98,015	36.73%	64.51%	1.85%
Free State	814	4,026,687,102	450,077,823	10,032	78	28,107	48.60%	66.89%	1.57%
Gauteng	1,503	25,756,251,474	1,186,400,700	18,800	382	56,878	58.66%	54.88%	1.26%
Kwazulu-Natal	838	19,000,952,979	1,812,928,679	29,825	109	123,674	35.48%	76.54%	1.14%
Limpopo	2,474	6,843,510,223	1,105,111,009	12,877	119	48,379	45.15%	70.90%	2.42%

Mpumalanga	2,474	13,021,097,381	649,015,533	16,410	114	41,695	47.60 %	71.69 %	1.85%
North West	61	47,962,051	17,444,579	556	0	1,549	57.26 %	66.62 %	1.10%
North West	2	938,000	413,610	20	0	126	65.08 %	55.55 %	0.00%
North West Province	701	2,707,559,380	410,504,598	9,108	7	24,015	45.64 %	71.39 %	1.83%
Northern Cape	433	1,825,628,849	452,104,005	5,328	21	18,275	50.92 %	62.57 %	1.92%
Western Cape	1,763	6,839,969,544	2,178,869,484	14,675 8	338	56,008	57.50 %	57.68 %	2.47%
	32	172,672,171	15,512,170	204	0	903	62.68 %	46.95 %	1.22%

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10. Planned projects or projects that have not started yet, have been filtered out of this consolidated report.

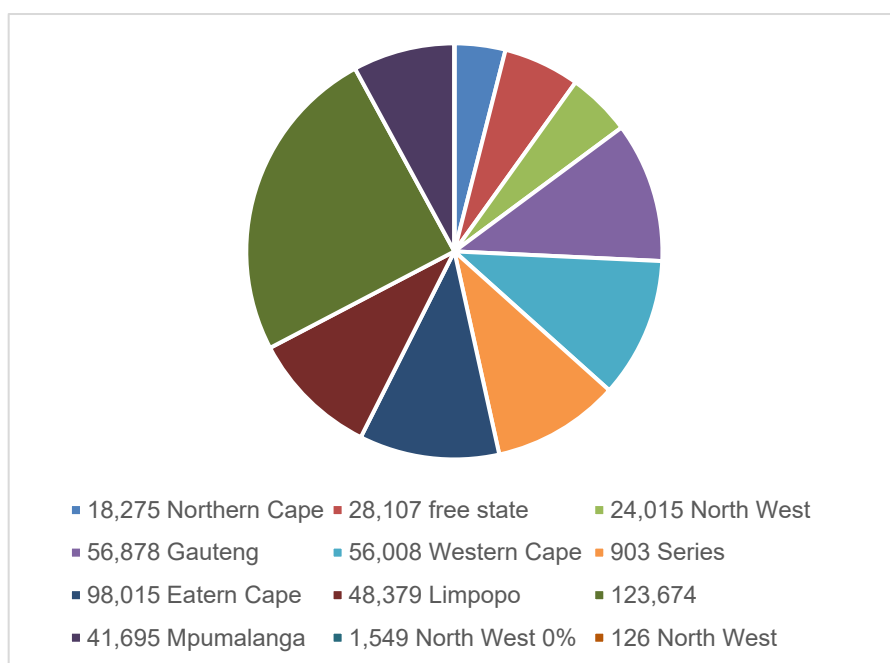


Figure 1: EPWP Non-State Sector Per Province

ANNEXTURE B3:

**EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3
2016/2017(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APRIL 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)**

**REPORT: OVERALL NATIONAL TOTAL: WORK OPPORTUNITIES
CREATED PER PROVINCE**

Total Work Opportunities created 497,624

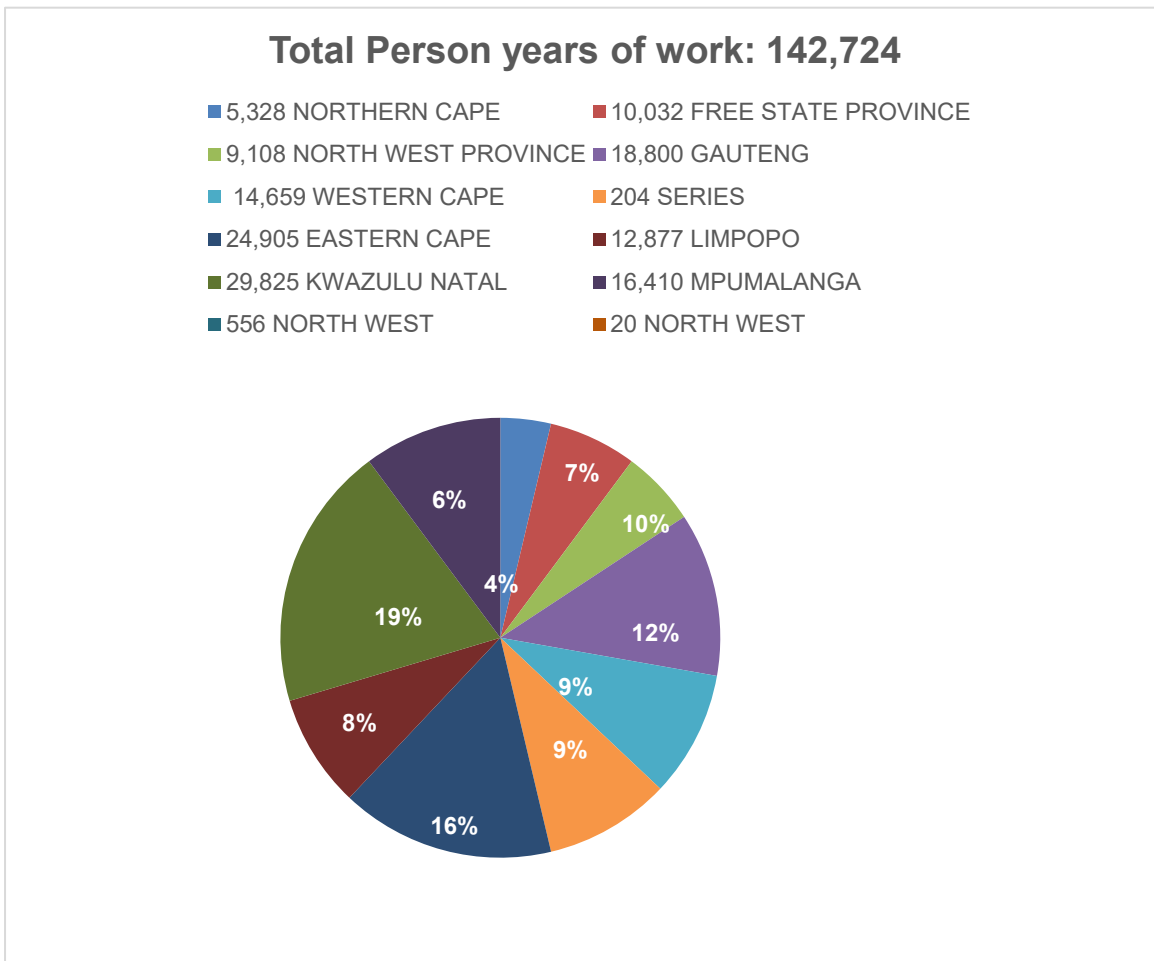


Figure 2: Total person years of work

ANNEXURE B4:

**EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017
(CUMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)**

**OVERALL NATIONAL TOTAL: PERSON-YEARS OF TRAINING CREATED
PER PROVINCE**

Total Person Years of Training: 1,203

ANNEXTURE C1

**EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 4 2016/2017
(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)**

REPORT: NATIONAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

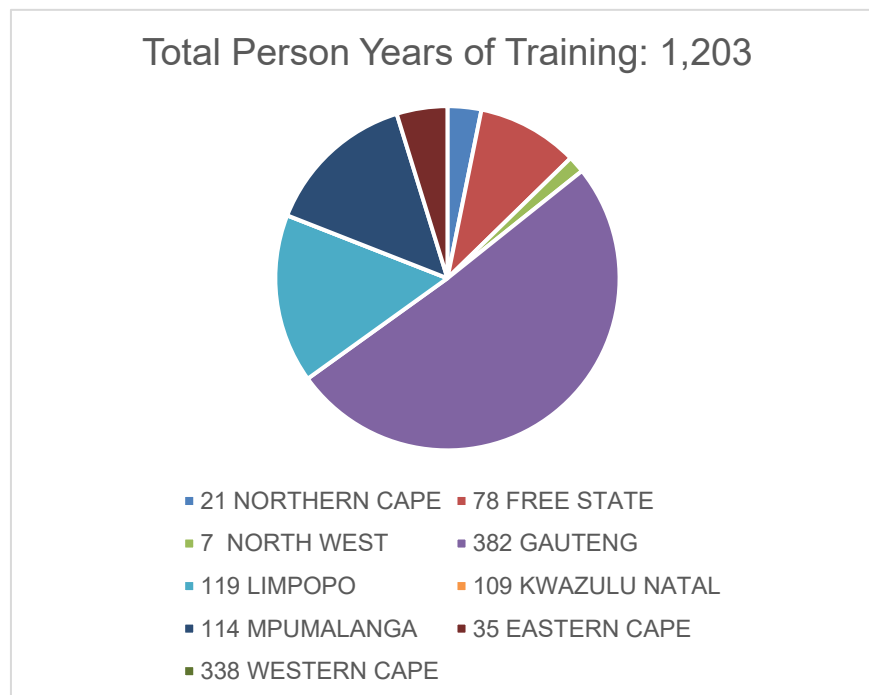


Figure 3: Total person years of training

Sector	Number of Projects	2016/2017 Allocated Project Budget (including Professional Fees)	Expenditure (Including Professional Fees) 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016	Person-years of Training (FTE) (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Person-years of Training (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Gross Number of Work Opportunities Created (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	%Youth	%women	%people of Disabilities
Sub Totals	1,751	14,766,486,228	3,051,897,195	39,176	816	141,131	52.52%	67.20%	4.06%
Environment and culture Sector	982	5,234,409,136	1,340,442,165	18,942	767	62,601	66.49%	54.74%	5.01%
NAT-Agriculture, forestry and fishers	8	45,882,552	19,058,010	183	0	555	56.76%	57.48%	1.98%
NAT-Environmental Affairs	800	4,334,686,121	1,200,498,095	17,325	109	57,112	65.48%	53.82%	5.40%
NAT-Mineral Resources	4	11,200,000	17,325	12	0	45	64.44%	44.44%	0.00%
NAT-Tourism	29	272,200,353	93,895,118	959	658	3,643	89.02%	66.81%	1.12%
NAT-Dept. of public Works	141	570,440,109	17,970,817	463	0	1,246	51.68%	60.43%	0.48%
Infrastructure Sector	182	6,735,151,139	242,665,997	1,113	33	3,913	73.96%	35.01%	2.40%

NAT-Dept. of public Works	182	6,735,151,139	242,665,997	1,113	33	3,913	73.96%	35.01%	2.40%
Non-State Sector Community Work	203	2,250,463,791	1,197,222,312	5,616	11	23,579	14.96%	85.90%	0.77%
NAT-CoGTA	203	2,250,463,791	1,197,222,312	5,616	11	23,579	14.96%	85.90%	0.77%
Non-State Sector Non-Profit	376	541,484,608	270,771,529	13,471	4	50,746	51.12%	76.31%	4.55%
Nat Dept. of Public Work	376	541,484,608	270,771,529	13,471	4	50,746	51.12%	76.31%	4.55%
Social Sector	8	4,977,553	855,192	34	0	292	44.52%	78.08%	1.03%
Nat Dept. of Public Works	8	4,977,553	855,192	34	0	292	44.52%	78.08%	1.03%

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10. Planned projects or projects that have not started as yet, have been filtered out of this consolidated report.

Sector	Number of Projects	2016/2017 Allocated Project Budget (including Professional Fees)	Expenditure (Including Professional Fees) 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016	Personnel years of Training (FTE) (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Persons of Training (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Gross Number of Work Opportunities Created (01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)	% Youth	% Women	% People of Disabilities	Average Manual Work Rate (01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
Sub Totals	5,248	49,161,711,570	4,378,897,816	71,915	351	242,708	37.00%	73.99%	0.73%	98.21
Environment and culture Sector	638	737,683,034	189,390,320	6,308	54	21,137	49.73%	61.16%	1.49%	105.19
EC-Co-op Governance and Traditional	2	1,000,000	282,131	14	0	99	27.27%	64.65%	0.00%	84.05
EC-Economic Development and Environmental Affairs	5	10,112,808	3,334,951	78	0	257	56.03%	59.92%	1.17%	90.26
EC-Roads and public Works	9	30,632,187	11,878,342	458	0	2,506	31.56%	68.51%	0.44%	89.48
EC-Rural Development and Agrarian	12	10,796,354	2,610,190	91	0	238	31.93%	48.32%	0.00%	92.48
FS-Agriculture and Rural development	17	22,903,749	1,99,380	78	0	484	54.13%	67.15%	0.62%	103.56
FS-Public Works and Infrastructure	22	31,749,898	15,307,048	696	0	1,866	45.87%	71.86%	1.93%	90.92

FS-Small business, Tourism and Environmental Affairs	4	2,865,590	184,308	6	0	75	48.00 %	53.33%	0.00 %	106.31
FS-Sport, Arts, Culture and Recreation	1	2,404,000	206,800	9	0	94	76.59 %	30.85%	0.00 %	100.00
GP-Agriculture and Rural Development	10	15,942,280	6,920,012	100	0	370	39,19 %	57,03%	4.32 %	102.71
GP-Co-operative and Rural Development	3	1,610,229	729,160	32	0	85	40.00 %	67.06%	1.18 %	97.16
GP-Sports, Arts, Culture and Recreation	6	1,919,060	5444,592	27	0	57	70.17 %	63.16%	12.28 %	84.55
KZN-Agriculture and Rural Development	65	49,266,773	28,419,567	1,129	0	2,758	46.84 %	62.76%	0.36 %	98.27
KZN-Arts, culture and Tourism	3	2,919,060	375,855	12	0	48	56,25 %	47.92%	0.00 %	104.60
KZN-Co-operative Governance and Tradition Affairs	11	17,447,140	5,548,162	201	0	861	48.90 %	81.65%	0.23 %	80.00
KZN-Economic Development, Tourism and Environmental Affairs	57	25,727,738	10,543,965	177	28	1,805	59.28 %	59.50%	1.83 %	106.93
KZN-Public Works	4	7,174,400	2,729,650	138	0	427	51,05 %	73.07%	1.17 %	82.55
LP-Agriculture	44	37,355,327	14,218,915	428	0	1,959	35.48 %	65.19%	2.09 %	121.13

LP-Economic Dev., Evn and Tourism	27	15,981,208	8,733,411	270	0	511	69.47 %	46.57%	5.28 %	132.54
LP-Education	1	2,000,000	1,045,000	41	0	101	54.45 %	52.47%	0.99 %	110.00
LP-Sports, Arts and Culture	1	3,790,000	3,790,000	63	0	100	42.00 %	60.00%	0.00 %	110.02
MP-Agriculture, Rural Development, and Environment Affairs	39	27,864,802	8,926,277	274	13	668	53.74 %	45.51%	2.54 %	116.37
MP-Culture, Sports and Recreation	1	1,992,000	903,420	34	0	73	84.93 %	57.53%	2.74 %	98.32
MP-Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs	3	3,204,900	1,755,636	89	0	122	84.43 %	63.93%	0.82 %	85.00
MP-Economic Development and Tourism	31	13,084,385	5,259,902	204	0	446	51.34 %	64.57%	1.57 %	109.46
MP-Social Development	1	399,168	206,976	11	0	14	85.71 %	28.57%	0.00 %	84.00%
NC-Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development	4	5,716,000	2,222,048	39	0	118	44,07 %	45.76%	1.69 %	121.04
NC-Economic Development and Tourism	5	2,799,390	695,765	24	0	192	51.04 %	55.21%	1.56 %	105.86
NC-Environment and Nature C0nversation	8	2,707,992	1,833,312	64	0	339	66.37 %	56.93%	1.47 %	122.46

NC-Roads and Public Works	3	25,209,800	5,496,480	266	0	1,052	53,99 %	66.16%	0.09 %	85.46
NC_-Sport, Arts and Culture	2	2,000,000	1,943,000	64	0	82	63.41 %	58.54%	1.22 %	120.00
NW-Local Government and Human Settlement	2	2,000,000	1,446,470	70	0	190	83.68 %	62.63%	3.26 %	82.00
NW-Public works and Roads	1	750,000	43,095	2	0	39	30.77 %	58.97%	0.00 %	85.00
NW-Rural, Environment and Agricultural Development	51	311,193,64	13,361,480	42	0	889	50.62 %	48.26%	1.24 %	128.15
NW-Social Development	2	756,440	386,180	9	0	17	82.35 %	52.94%	0.00 %	98.89
WC-Agriculture	30	8,328,364	3,981,528	99	0	1,107	55.92 %	38.03%	3.61 %	124.12
WC-Cultural Affairs and Sport	105	15,734,266	8,682,355	251	0	347	93.66 %	54.18%	0.00 %	134.13
WC-Environment Affairs and Development Planning	47	20,343,813	12,844,956	331	12	741	69.36 %	49.39%	3.10 %	122.45
Infrastructure Sector	1,719	44,105,401,371	3,209,193,401	29,209	40	141,408	34.32 %	68.04%	0.57 %	108,47
EC-CO-op governance and Traditional Affairs	2	1,000,000	334,380	14	0	92	32.61 %	48.91%	0.00 %	82.54
EC-Education	9	198,693,359	65,997,512	115	0	272	70.22 %	42.65%	0.37 %	132.98

EC-Health	7	230,091,992	15,986,188	49	0	113	74.34%	46.90%	3.54%	181.66
EC-Human Settlement	45	1,126,594,834	40,123,639	200	0	969	62.54%	17.75%	0.00%	128.10
EC-Roads and Public Works	89	10,467,321,144	245,010,499	9,060	1	41,729	24.70%	67.20%	1.02%	92.73
EC-Social Development	1	194,113	72,960	3	0	66.67%	100.00%	0.00%	100.00%	100.00
EC-Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture	7	19,117,956	1,644,771	27	0	71	76.06%	60.56%	1.41%	96.48
EC-Transport	12	349,925,771	20,590,864	320	0	748	37.03%	43.58%	0.67%	135.05
FS-Education	6	114,584,322	1,448,777	27	0	183	43.71%	31.69%	0.00%	116.77
FS-Health	1	35,000,000	98339	4	0	44	52.27%	11.36%	0.00%	101.80
FS-Human Settlement	7	189,224,626	1,453,952	50	0	318	52.83			
FS-Police, Roads and Transport	26	1,274,929,061	36,031,244	696	0	2,762	64.08%	46.31%	0.32%	123.20
FS-Public Works and infrastructure	34	276,043,958	4,318,926	197	0	825	58.06%	43.39%	0.36%	93.32
FS-Sports, Arts, Culture and Recreation	4	26,453,720	403,192	10	0	114	71.05%	22.81%	0.88%	160.67
GP-Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs	3	26,453,720	403,192	10	0	19	68.42%	21.05%	0.00%	98.42
GP-Department Infrastructure (DID)	4	268,633,851	58,117,071	2,241	0	4,177	61.48%	66.00%	1.48%	103.63

GP-Education	14	1,040,219,273	2,889,548	69	0	210	59.52 %	43.31%	4.28 %	144.18
GP-Health	5	356,044,158	1,712,985	41	0	127	51.97 %	43.31%	0.00 %	114.24
GP-Human Settlement	62	3,411,570,754	193,118,754	1,073	0	4,146	51.30 %	20.33%	0.48 %	153.35
GP-Roads and Transport	26	26,390,106	26,390,106	716	1	1,924	58.37 %	49.38%	0.67 %	128.86
GP-Sports, Arts, Culture and Recreations	2	154,243,287	324,336	2	0	12	50.00 %	41.67%	0.00 %	160.62
KZN-Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs	13	136,596,700	25,484,644	33	0	110	62.73 %	24.54%	4.54 %	127.31
KZN-Education	5	3,290,000	1,021,942	32	0	192	76.56 %	81.77%	1.04 %	107.20
KZN-Health	307	75,606,804	33,015,803	985	0	2,826	58.81 %	56.79%	0.74 %	82.95%
KZN-Human Settlement	73	5,422,078,161	256,600,345	1,492	0	5,272	66.58 %	23.90%	0.62 %	101.40
KZN-Public Works	36	431,898,763	49,222,830	857	0	4,208	85.46 %	65.71%	0.00 %	125.94
KZN-Sports and Recreation	10	18,761,008	7,670,240	19	0	107	57.01 %	25.23%	0.04 %	79.49
KZN-Transport	57	3,453,610,189	83,952,873	4,360	0	43,451	12.66 %	92.68%	0.69 %	254.90
LP- Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs	4	92,144,818	877,779	14	0	144	61.11 %	16.67%	0.82 %	119.94

LP- public Works, Roads and Infrastructure	73	1,480,584,944	351,962,721	688	0	5,230	53.61%	63.73%	0.70%	97.03
MP-Dept. of Public Works, Roads and Transport	316	8,032,809,184	50,827,906	2,231	13	7,309	37.84%	81.47%	0.66%	140.46
MP-Education	45	227,126,184	6,842,099	199	0	606	60.23%	32.51%	0.66%	140.46
MP-Health	7	181,920,733	2,364,429	67	0	135	51.11%	28.15%	0.00%	132.44
NC-Co-operative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs	4	17,985,000	1,807,917	9	0	97	88.66%	32.99%	0.00%	109.39
NC-Education	2	18,000,000	16,031,949	89	0	218	54.59%	54.13%	4.59%	118.03
NC-Health	4	303,386,914	33,166,508	55	0	403	52.36%	6.95%	0.74%	145.21
NC-Roads and Public works	86	491,465,687	87,753,532	406	7	2,054	60.32%	47.03%	0.15%	100.97
NC-Sports, Arts and Culture	2	159,120	100,880	4	0	13	38.46%	15.38%	0.00%	117.71
NC-Transport, Safety and Liaison	1	1,300,000	30,250	0	0	3	100.00%	33.33%	0.00%	175.00
NW-Education and sports Development	5	2,000,000	977,400	28	0	49	97.96%	51.02%	0.00%	143.50
NW-Public Works and Roads	31	41,833,000	9,255,350	354	0	2,939	63.90%	61.99%	0.51%	111.04

NW-Rural, Environment and Agriculture Development	4	2,509,747	121,500	3	0	14	50.00 %	21,43%	0.00 %	150.00
WC-Agriculture	1	400,000	97,302	1	0	11	63.64 %	0.00%	0.00 %	115.39
WC-Transport and Public Works	205	2,409,527,464	1,1114,220,685	2,023	4	5,655	58.99 %	33.35%	0.41 %	155.88
WC-Western Cape Education Department	4	11,888,476	422,773	14	0	173	39.31 %	68.79%	4.05 %	87.40
WC-Human Settlements	21	712,890,038	353,850,618	272	13	992	52.72 %	22.78%	0.20 %	203.84
WC-Health	37	673,182,025	5,403,940	51	0	336	55.65 %	17.56%	2.98 %	183.54
Non-State Sector Non-Profit	1	1,323,301	37,800	1	0	3	66.67 %	0.00%	0.00 %	150.00
NW-Rural Environment and Agricultural Development	1	1,323,301	37,800	1	0	3	66.67 %	0.00%	0.00 %	150.00
Social Sector	2,890	4,317,303,863	980,276,295	36,396	256	80,160	38.37 %	87.86%	0.81 %	88.77
EC-Education	10	205,956,068	55,530,048	1,918	2	6,540	32.81 %	92.77%	0.76 %	122.48
EC-Health	8	156,983,744	42,834,000	856	0	1,673	24.03 %	88.04%	0.18 %	100.00
EC-Social and Liaison	1	1,800,000	853,206	30	0	67	28.36 %	44.78%	1.49 %	78.97

EC-Social Development	96	68,087,080	7,790,014	232	0	697	27.98 %	93.40%	1.86 %	82.59
EC-Sports, Recreation Arts and culture	4	2,415,368	760,712	28	0	72	72.22 %	41.67%	0.00 %	84.73
EC-Transport	1	3,399,136	1,017,600	49	0	141	44.68 %	87.94%	0.71 %	80.00
FS-Education	1	3,000,000	271,440	12	0	70	95.71 %	78.57%	1.43 %	78.00
FS-Health	10	50,438,328	27,047,183	1,307	2	1,672	45.99 %	84.99%	0.36 %	88.12
FS-Public Works and Infrastructure	1	675,000	322,500	5	0	29	89.65 %	58.62%	0.00 %	250.00
FS-Social Development	91	132,838,582	63,043,654	3,265	1	4,919	34.23 %	89.10%	0.22 %	80.52
FS-Sports, Arts, culture and Recreation	1	1,800,000	634,046	9	0	19	52.63 %	36.84%	0.00 %	81.80
GP-Community Safety	1	1,800,000	1,142,626	48	0	72	69.44 %	56.94%	0.00	90.00
GP-Education	15	75,193,588	23,894,727	952	1	3,182	60.65 %	67.32%	0.88 %	80.95
GP-Health	14	99,869,164	28,439,230	1,037	0	2,259	66.31 %	73.31%	1.06 %	105.41
GP-Social Development	218	118,318,714	44,622,372	1,869	1	4,325	70.57 %	76.74%	0.79 %	81.09
GP-Sports, Arts, Culture and Recreation	1	2,200,000	566,244	29	0	93	86.02 %	56.99%	0.00 %	84.00

KZN-Education	4	1,417,915,961	54,164,220	2,457	0	6,674	21.44%	98.77%	0.06%	92.99
KZN-Health	2	245,250,000	29,051,380	1,214	0	3,770	27.08%	95.33%	0.08%	83.73
KZN-Human Settlement	1	730,899	240,000	1	0	6	100.00%	66.67%	0.00%	500.00
KZN-Social Development	13	290,841,857	91,953,314	1,874	0	5,345	34.87%	92.57%	0.24%	68.12
LP-Education	40	52,865,467	7,015,969	326	0	1,125	18.84%	98.22%	0.80%	87.66
LP-Health	92	271,610,958	52,133,009	2,325	0	8,774	20.63%	93.22%	0.69%	83.00
LP-Social Development	37	25240,732	5,309,697	283	0	1,101	25.52%	92.10%	0.00%	78.90
MP-Community Safety, Security and Liaison	38	9,804,907	5,979,217	174	0	326	70.55%	75.77%	0.00%	142.26
MP-Culture, Sports and Recreation	1	4,935,000	586,056	22	0	34	85.29%	61.76%	0.00%	92.09
MP-Dept. of Public Works, Roads and Transport	4	1,200,000	660,976	12	0	18	83.33%	50.00%	0.00%	231.40
MP-Education	331	14,125,972	6,141,213	293	0	754	20.69%	85.14%	1.06%	87.95
MP-Health	120	54,637,762	30,170,932	1,358	0	2,039	38.01%	89.55%	0.88%	87.05
MP-Social Development	1,074	167,831,267	68,352,750	3,586	0	4,875	41.35%	88.41%	0.45%	77.72

NC-Education	5	46,900,000	9,281,628	294	0	580	40.52 %	89.65%	1.38 %	83.91
NC-Health	28	119,526,361	33,188,190	708	0	1,152	26.13 %	92.36%	3.04 %	99.97
NC-Social development	80	143,909,860	22,734,682	812	0	1,217	38.95 %	88.91%	0.45 %	82.50
NC-Sport, Arts and Culture	1	2,200,000	2,197,800	75	0	98	54.08 %	52.04%	0.00 %	124.19
NC-transport, Safety and Liaison	1	2,900,000	1,553,094	67	0	134	86.57 %	68.66%	0.75 %	91.95
NW-Education and Sports Development	13	51,923,947	26,379,508	1,318	4	1,939	36.35 %	98.35%	3.20 %	66.33
NW-Health		107,191,000	59,349,583	2,371	0	3,770	33.77 %	88.96%	0.50 %	99.00
NW-Social Development		49,567,807	32,713,130	842	0	1,284	65.03 %	72.97%	1.63 %	96.28
WC-Cultural Affairs and Sport	13	46,990,753	9,896,716	207	0	458	69.65 %	37.77%	1.09 %	136.39
WC-Western cape Education Department	238	158,842,692	78,077,762	2,320	196	4,934	34.15 %	93.21%	0.85 %	88.66
WC-Community Safety	97	21,852,999	13,009,947	615	47	1,542	77.43 %	46.30%	1.56 %	88.17
WC-Health	19	44,638,208	17,688,328	380	0	932	69.63 %	75.96%	0.96 %	122.88
WC-Social Development	69	38,094,681	23,676,593	812	1	1,449	71.01 %	83.57%	6.56 %	105.34

ANNEXTURE C2

EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017

(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)

REPORT: PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS PER SECTOR

1. This EPWP report is based on information received from reporting bodies across identifies EPWP Sector Departments for the period of period above and should be read in conjunction with the narrative section of the relevant EPWP Quarterly Report.
2. This consolidated report has been generated from a per project dataset data received from national and provincial governments, as well as municipalities
3. Project budgets are based on reports received; some of these budgets might run over multiple financial years. Infrastructure Sector budgets are not only based on PIG and MIG funding, but also on provincial Equitable Shares.
4. Expenditure in some cases is actual expenditure and in other cases transferred funds to provinces and implementing bodies.
5. Zero's or blank field imply that reporting bodies did not respond on requested information.
6. A work opportunity is opportunity is paid work created for any period of time. The same individual can be employed on different projects and each period of employment will be counted as a work opportunity.
7. A work opportunity in the infrastructure Sector has an average duration of four (4) months and in the Environment & Culture Sector an average duration of six (6) moths.
8. The "Gross Number of work Opportunities" is the overall number of work opportunities that the reporting body has reported on
9. One person-year of Work is equal to 230 paid working days including paid training days. The calculated wages paid out to employees on EPWP projects have been calculated by multiplying the minimum wage rate with the person-days of work.
10. Planned projects or projects that have not started yet, have been filtered out of this consolidated report.

ANNEXTURE D3
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017
(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
REPORT: NON-STATE SECTOR PER PROVINCE

Sector	Number of Projects	2016/2017 Allocated Project Budget (including Professional Fees)	Expenditure (Including Professional Fees) 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016	Person-years of Training (FTE) (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Persons of Training (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Gross Number of Work Opportunities Created (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	%Youth	%women	%people of Disabilities
Sub Totals	381	543,780,560	271,128,929,	13,488	4	50,814	51.09%	76.26%	4.54%
Eastern Cape	60	82,668,705	38,567,694	1,970	0	7,495	39.48%	75.49%	5.32%
Free State	20	48,631,054	23,326,122	1,170	0	4,684	51.62%	75.06%	3.07%
Gauteng	36	33,527,308	11,026,068	578	0	3,305	62.54%	72.68%	4.39%
Kwazulu-Natal	90	95,012,483	30,500,898	1,401	0	8,106	55.91%	76.74%	6.39%
Limpopo	45	96,841,680	74,938,013	3,771	1	9,379	54.77%	82.51%	5.46%

Mpumalanga	39	55,545,963	28,231,19 1	1,353	0	5,056	47.80%	80.38 %	4.05%
North West	2	3,133,305	2,197,970	116	0	299	53.18%	69.56 %	4.01%
North West Province	31	57,809,228	25,802,81 7	1,307	0	5,330	47.86%	72.36 %	2.74%
Northern Cape	21	28,577,902	17,243,20 3	859	0	2,945	56.16%	70.29 %	2.58%
Western Cape	35	41,168,569	19,027,51 1	946	3	4,129	48.39%	71.74 %	3.66%
	2	864,360	267,440	14	0	86	65.12%	65.12 %	2.32%

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8. The "Gross Number of work Opportunities" is the overall number of work opportunities that the reporting body has reported on

9. One person-year of Work is equal to 230 paid working days including paid training days.
The calculated wages paid out to employees on EPWP projects have been calculated by multiplying the minimum wage rate with the person-days of work.
10. Planned projects or projects that have not started as yet, have been filtered out of this consolidated report.

ANNEXTURE E1

EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017

(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)

REPORT: NATIONAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT PROGRAMMES PER SECTOR

Sector	Number of Projects	2016/2017 Allocated Project Budget (including Professional Fees)	Expenditure (Including Professional Fees) 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016	Person-years of Training (FTE) (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Person-years of Training (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Gross Number of Work Opportunities Created (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	% Youth	% women	% people of Disabilities	Average Manual Wage Rate (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Average Manual Worker's Minimum Daily Wage Rate	Calculated Wages paid out to employees on EPWP Projects (01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
Infrastructure	182	6,725,151,139	242,665,997	1,113	33	3,913	73.96%	35.01%	2.40%	130.91	120.70	33,580,510
Large Projects (exceeding R30 mil)	13	654,137,834	84,119,981	159	0	784	70.02%	42.98%	2.17%	147.09	94.84	5,369,232

National Department and SOE	71	578,498,960	28,573,009	410	0	982	62.52%	18.94%	4.89%	148.00	162.45	13,969,688
National Youth Service (NYS)	97	5,497,514,346	129,968,562	543	33	2,141	80.62%	39.47%	1.35%	113.30	93.82	14,165,190
Provincial infrastructure (NON-ROADS)	1	5,000,000	4,444	0	0	6	83.33%	33.33%	0.00%	100.00	100.00	4,400
Non-State Sector Non-Profit	376	541,484,608	270,711,529	13,471	4	50,746	51.12%	76.31%	4.55%	80.47	80.00	249,334,125
NPO Programme	376	541,484,608	270,711,529	13,471	4	50,746	51.12%	76.31%	4.55%	80.47	80.00	249,334,125
Environment and Culture Sector	982	5,234,409,136	1,340,442,165	18,942	767	62,601	66.49%	54.74%	5.01%	118.25	102.57	515,206,604
Coastal Management	32	182,319,401	53,733,406	844	23	2,686	62.28%	62.43%	4.06%	114.69	101.97	22,265,882

Parks and Beautification	53	891,168,552	167,353,870	2,600	30	5,976	64.37%	52.99%	1.69%	114.72	104.44	68,610,997
Sustainable Land Based Livelihoods	791	3,299,715,644	798,218,733	10,981	30	42,805	63.73%	51.91%	6.44%	119.42	101.80	301,612,175
Tourism and Create Industries	30	272,449,413	93,954,254	961	658	3,646	89.00%	66.81%	1.12%	107.03	103.37	23,662,593
Waste Management	76	588,756,125	227,181,901	3,555	25	7,488	74.52%	63.65%	1.74%	121.13	109.23	99,054,957
Social Sector	8	4,977,553	855,192	34	0	292	44.52%	78.08%	1.03%	105.93	119.05	836,032
Community Safety Programme	7	2,276,428	438,552	12	0	46	36.96%	39.13%	2.17%	154.40	124.63	424,752
Home Community Based Care Programme	1	2,701,125	416,640	22	0	246	45.93%	85.36%	0.81%	80.00	80.00	411,280

Non-State Sector Community Work	203	2,250,463,7 91	1,197,222, 312	5,616	11	23,579	14.96%	85.90%	0.77%	84.28	80.66	108,863,64 6
Community Work Programme	203	2,250,463,7 91	1,197,222, 312	5,616	11	23,579	14.96%	85.90%	0.77%	84.28	80.66	108,863,64 3

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ANNEXTURE E2
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017
(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
REPORT: PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT PROGRAMME: INFRASTRUCTURE
SECTOR

Sector	Number of Projects	2016/2017 Allocated Project Budget (including Professional Fees)	Expenditure (Including Professional Fees) 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016	Person-years of Training (FTE) (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Person-years of Training (01 APR TO 31 DEC 2016)	Gross Number of Work Opportunities Created (01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)	% Youth	% women
Infrastructure Sector	1.719	44,105,401,371	3,209,193,401	29,209	40	141,408	34.32%	68.04%
Contractor Development	37	773,885,713	57,794,327	897	3	2,444	62.15%	45.99%
Large Projects (exceeding R30mil)	12	739,427,708	91,233,155	0	0	8,030	19.20%	65.03%
Municipality	18	147,039,431	25,227,068	0	0	416	42.31%	58.65%
National Youth Service (NYS)	67	269,047,033	21,183,326	7	7	2,120	87.45%	57.55%
Provincial Infrastructure (NON-ROADS)	955	16,427,321,415	1,269,716,609	24	24	49,096	47.77%	53.07%

Provincial Roads	630	25,748,680, 071	1,744,038, 915	6	6	79,302	25.21%	78.63%
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ANNEXTURE E3
EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017
(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
**REPORT: PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT PROGRAMMES: SOCIAL,
ENVIRONMENT & CULTURE SECTORS**

Environmental and Culture Sector	638	737,683,034	189,390,320	6,308	54	21,137	49.73%	61.16%	1.49%	105.19
Parks and Beautification	45	44,422,683	17,542,394	647	0	2,932	36.32%	65.24%	0.68%	95.00
Sustainable Energy	1	327,880	48,360	2	0	6	33.33%	16.67%	0.00%	130.00
Sustainable Land Based Livelihoods	387	333,810,637	119,009,940	3,630	54	12,273	50.79%	57.39%	1.86%	110.89
Tourism and Creative Industries	126	35,039,865	16,977,749	496	0	1,103	64.73%	60.29%	0.91%	116.22
Waste management	79	324,081,969	35,811,877	1,533	0	4,823	51.75%	68.52%	1.18%	92.42
Social Sector	2,890	4,317,303,863	980,276,295	36,396	256	80,160	38.37%	87.86%	0.81%	88.77
Community Safety programme	82	91,822,201	32,402,671	1,360	48	3,235	63.92%	56.57%	1.08%	92.25
Early Childhood Development (ECD)	1,052	676,354,641	243,831,915	8,831	200	15,021	41.75%	94.56%	0.36%	80.37

Expansion (NEW) Programme	404	357,822,201	133,007,394	4,508	3	9,513	64.03%	71.13%	1.88%	105.21
Home Community Based Care Programme (HCBC)	1,081	1,452,290,600	418,638,936	15,630	5	34,580	35.54%	89.58%	0.74%	85.40
Mass Literacy Programme	1	250,00	19,000	0	0	3	0.00%	66.67%	0.00%	71.33
Mass Participation Programme	25	54,810,545	13,978,663	343	0	733	68.89%	39.84%	0.68%	125.36
National Nutrition Programme	2	1,683,953,741	138,397,716	5,723	0	17,075	20.71%	95.80%	0.73%	94.93

**EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017
(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)
REPORT: NATIONAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS PER PROVINCE
(INFRASTRUCTURE, ENVIRONMENT & SOCIAL, COMMUNITY WORKS
SECTORS)**

Sub Totals	1,751	14,766,486, 228	3,051,897,1 95	39,176	816	141,131	47.56%	67.20%	4.06%
Eastern Cape	303	1,425,624,1 19	595,197,97 3	6,722	30	24,495	50.72%	66.38%	4.87%
Free State	137	624,151,337	268,202,94 9	3,035	74	10,421	54.96%	67.30%	3.33%
Gauteng	136	5,781,983,3 81	214,374,13 0	2,804	373	10,975	56.60%	66.04%	3.06%
Kwazulu-Natal	264	1,501,951,4 11	472,691,45 5	5,571	74	20,979	54.35%	66.54%	5.31%
Limpopo	217	1,416,948,3 54	396,231,41 1	6,637	119	19,466	50.60%	71.58%	4.42%
Mpumalanga	213	1,540,378,3 91	352,734,07 2	5,244	71	17,034	52.82%	69.92%	2.80%
North West	8	4,598,237	2,579,370	128	0	337	42.37%	66.17%	3.56%
North West Province	152	846,609,259	231,736,31 6	2,914	1	10,105	51.50%	71.67%	2.23%
Northern Cape	99	356,906,319	148,723,08 6	1,792	13	7,838	59.70%	66.14%	3.07%
Western Cape	218	1,260,628,0 60	363,730,24 3	4,245	61	19,191	60.95%	60.95%	4.78%

1. This EPWP report is based on information received from reporting bodies across identifies EPWP Sector Departments for the period of period above and should be read in conjunction with the narrative section of the relevant EPWP Quarterly Report.
2. This consolidated report has been generated from a per project dataset; data received from national and provincial governments, as well as municipalities
3. Project budgets are based on reports received; some of these budgets might run over multiple financial years. Infrastructure Sector budgets are not only based on PIG and MIG funding, but also on provincial Equitable Shares.
4. Expenditure in some cases is actual expenditure and in other cases transferred funds to provinces and implementing bodies.
5. Zero's or blank field imply that reporting bodies did not respond on requested information.
6. A work opportunity is opportunity is paid work created for any period of time. The same individual can be employed on different projects and each period of employment will be counted as a work opportunity.
7. A work opportunity in the infrastructure Sector has an average duration of four (4) months and in the Environment & Culture Sector an average duration of six (6) moths.
8. The "Gross Number of work Opportunities" is the overall number of work opportunities that the reporting body has reported on
9. One person-year of Work is equal to 230 paid working days including paid training days. The calculated wages paid out to employees on EPWP projects have been calculated by multiplying the minimum wage rate with the person-days of work.
10. Planned projects or projects that have not started as yet, have been filtered out of this consolidated report

PER PROVINCE

ANNEXTURE D1

EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMME (EPWP) QUARTER 3 2016/2017

(CUMMULATIVE: 01 APR 2016 TO 31 DEC 2016)

REPORT: PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Sub Totals	5,248	49,161,711,570	4,378,897,816	71,915	351	242,708	37.00%	73.99%	0.73%	98.21
Easter n Cape	320	12,884,121,914	516,652,007	13,543	4	56,290	27.48%	69.69%	0.92%	99.19
Free State	226	2,164,910,833	152,770,787	6,372	3	13,474	47.37%	69.87%	0.52%	89.35
Gaute ng	372	5,708,666,890	380,969,526	8,149	3	20,609	61.03%	58.31%	0.02%	104.50
Kwazu lu-Natal	661	11,599,105,693	679,994,790	14,984	29	77,860	28.12%	83.60%	0.20%	93.59
Limpo po	319	1,981,573,454	445,086,502	4,441	0	19,045	33.30%	80.55%	1.01%	96.70
Mpum alanga	2,011	8,740,936,921	188,978,790	8,554	26	17,419	41.25%	80.15%	0.75%	90.21
North West	26	24,860,221	10,354,454	373	0	928	61.53%	72.84%	0.32%	100.23
North West Province	418	546,188,696	133717041	5,053	4	10,205	47.19%	77.92%	1.28%	93.28
Northe rn Cape	236	1,186,166,124	220,037,035	2,978	7	7,752	49.50%	65.18%	1.11%	95.56

Western Cape	647	4,162,713781	1,641,853,504	7,378	273	18,677	55.98%	57.13%	1.50%	120.44
	12	162,467,042	8,483,379	89	0	449	62.36%	37.42%	0.89%	145.90

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Interview Schedule for CDM Senior Manager EPWP Implementation within the CDM

I. Opening

- A. Establish Rapport
- B. Purpose
- C. Motivation
- D. Timeline

II. Body

- A. (Topic) General Background on EPWP (National Level) 1. What is your understanding of EPWP?
 - a. Please describe what EPWP is intended to achieve
 - b. Do you think that EPWP is currently meeting its intended goals?
 - c. If not, please elaborate
 - d. What should be the interventions for making EPWP work

- 2. How was EPWP initially implemented within the Capricorn District (CDM)
 - a. When was EPWP introduced within the CDM?
 - b. Was there buy in from CDM departments? If not please elaborate
 - c. Which departments embraced the implementation of EPWP?
 - d. Was there political buy in from the CDM's political leadership?
If not please elaborate
 - e. Who decided on the setting of targets?
 - f. Were the targets realistic? If not please elaborate
 - g. What were the challenges and lessons learned?

- 3. How is EPWP implemented within the Capricorn District Municipality
- 4. (CDM)
 - a. What does the current implementation approach entail?

- b. How is the current approach different from when EPWP started within the CDM?
 - c. How many departments participate in the programme?
 - d. Is the CDM's leadership supportive of the programme?
 - e. Who decides on the annual and term targets of the EPWP within the CDM?
 - f. Do you think departments could do more to achieve their targets?
 - g. Are the current targets realistic for departments to achieve?
 - B. (Topic) Proposed Interventions for EPWP within the CDM
5. What is required to enable the CDM to surpass their targets?
- a. How should the CDM leadership intervene to enable departments to perform above average with regard to EPWP targets?
 - b. What can individual departments do in the immediate to perform above average?
 - c. How do you think the CDM is performing in comparison with other metros?
 - d. What lessons should be learned from other metros implementing EPWP?
 - e. In general, what other interventions/approaches do you propose for the CDM to surpass its EPWP targets?

III. Closing

- A. Summary
- B. (Maintain Rapport) I appreciate the time you took for this interview. Is there anything else you think would be helpful for me to know that I can include in my study?
- C. (Action to be taken) I should have all the information I need. Would it be alright to call you at your office if I have any more questions? Thanks again.

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire for CDM EPWP Champions

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE EXPERIENCES OF DEPARTMENTAL CHAMPIONS

IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EPWP PROJECTS WITHIN THE CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

Respond to the following questions by putting an X on the relevant box in the right-hand column that corresponds with your experiences (More than one category can be selected). In cases wherein you are requested to fill in the information in sentence format, kindly do so.

1. BROAD UNDERSTANDING OF EPWP

Government Programme to create work opportunities	
Skills Programme	
Programme for the poor	
Safety Net Programme	
If Other, please state:	

2. PERCEIVED GENERAL EPWP BENEFITS FOR DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY AND SOUTH AFRICA

Creation of employment	
Skilling of the unskilled	
Earning of income by the poor	
Gaining of work experience by youth, woman, the disabled	
If Other, please state:	

3. HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN THE CHAMPION FOR YOU?
DEPARTMENT

Less than 3 yrs	
3-4 years	

4. YOUR UNDERSTANDING OF HOW THE PROGRAMME IS IMPLEMENTED IN
CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

Individual Departments play a key role	
EPWP division determines targets for departments	
Office of the executive mayor determines term target	

5. LIST ANY CHALLENGES IN THE DISTRICT IMPLEMENTATION APPROACH
(In sentence format)

6. HOW WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE EPWP BEING IMPLEMENTED IN THE?
CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY (in sentence format)

7. DOES YOUR DEPARTMENT HAVE A TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR?
EPWP PARTICIPANTS?

Yes	
No	

8. If yes, kindly indicate what it entails.

9. If No, kindly indicate what in your opinion prevents this.

10. LIST BENEFITS FOR PARTICIPANTS IN YOUR DEPARTMENT'S EPWP PROJECTS

11. ARE THERE ANY CHALLENGES REPORTED BY PARTICIPANTS IN YOUR EPWP PROJECTS? If yes, kindly list below.

12. DOES YOUR DEPARTMENT DO DEBRIEFINGS WITH CONTRACTORS (THOSE WORKING ON PROJECTS HAVING EPWP BENEFICIARIES) ON EPWP?

YES	
NO	

13. PLEASE INDICATE THE FREQUENCY OF MONITORING (FIELD VISITS) EPWP PROJECTS BY YOUR DEPARTMENT

Weekly	
--------	--

Monthly	
None	

14. WHICH IS THE MAIN CHALLENGE THAT YOU ARE CURRENTLY EXPERIENCING IN YOUR EPWP PROJECTS?

Training	
Working conditions	
Lack of EPWP branded working attire	
Non-payment of wages on time	
Any other? Please state:	

15. SUGGESTED INTERVENTION TO DEAL WITH CHALLENGES

Focused, targeted & relevant training	
Amend the current implementation approach	
Creation of related sustainable projects	
Improvement/increase on daily wage	
Improved and visible monitoring of projects	
Any other? Please state:	

GENERAL COMMENTS:

APPENDIX C: Questionnaire for CDM EPWP Participants

QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE PROFILE AND EXPERIENCES OF BENEFICIARIES PARTICIPATING IN THE CAPRICORN DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY PROGRAMMES

Respond to the following questions by putting an X on the relevant box in the right-hand column that corresponds with your particulars.

1. QUALIFICATIONS

No formal qualifications	
Matric	
Less than matric	
FET and higher	

2. AGE

Less than 20 yrs	
21-25 yrs	
26-30 yrs	
31-35 yrs	
36-40 yrs	
41-45 yrs	
46-50 yrs	
51-56 yrs	
57 yrs and above	

3. GENDER

Male	
Female	

4. DISABILITY

Disabled	
No disability	

5. HAVE YOU BEEN EMPLOYED BEFORE?

Yes	
No	

6. WAS THE EMPLOYMENT TEMPORARY OR PERMANENT?

Temporary	
Permanent	

7. EPWP PROJECTS PARTICIPATED IN

1 project	
2 projects	
3 or more projects	

8. DURATION ON CURRENT EPWP PROJECT

1-3 Months	
3-6 Months	
6-8 Months	

9. SKILLS GAINED ON EPWP PROJECT/S

Technical skills (e.g., pipe fitting, plumbing)	
Generic skills (e.g., communication, health & safety)	
None	

10. HAS YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THE PROJECT IMPROVED YOUR LIFE?

YES	
NO	

11. IN WHICH WAYS HAS YOUR PARTICIPATION ON THE PROJECT IMPROVED YOUR LIFE? (You can choose more than one option)

Use of income (buying clothes, furniture)	
Nutritional (eating food that could not be afforded before)	
Educational (children attending school than previously)	
Psychosocial (clothing, feeding children, participating in community activities)	

12. WHAT CHALLENGES ARE YOU CURRENTLY EXPERIENCING IN THE?
PROJECT?

Training	
Working conditions	
Lack of EPWP branded working attire	
Non-payment of wages on time	
Any other? Please state:	

13. SUGGESTED INTERVENTION TO DEAL WITH CHALLENGES

Focused, targeted & relevant training	
Creation of related sustainable projects	
Improvement/increase on daily wage	
Improved and visible monitoring of projects	
Any other? Please state:	

COMMENTS: