

**Experiences of Unemployed Indigenous people Living with
Disabilities in Soshanguve
Township, South Africa - An Exploratory Study**

By

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the experiences of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities (PWD) in post-apartheid South Africa. The promise of a better life for all made by the government of national unity in 1994 remains a pipe dream as most South Africans are still living on the margins of the economy where unemployment and poverty are rampant. This study examines the experiences of PWD in Soshanguve Township, Tshwane, South Africa. It employs the symbolic interactionist (SI) theory as a lens for gaining insights into the experiences of black women and men living with disabilities in their quest to access employment opportunities. The study is exploratory and uses a case study design approach. Data was collected from 15 purposively sampled black men and women living with disabilities in Soshanguve Township, with whom in-depth interviews were held. A focus group discussion was conducted with four purposively selected respondents who met the selection criteria. Findings revealed that PWD are the worst affected group in terms of unemployment as their poverty levels remain high. Despite the implementation of the Employment Equity Act (EEA) Number 55 of 1988, employment opportunities for black PWD are scarce in South Africa. This is due to, among other reasons, the fact that employers are reluctant to employ PWD. PWD were missing employment opportunities in Soshanguve Township due to employers who refused to employ them. However, the study also established that there are a few opportunities available for PWD. These include opportunities for training, social assistance support, disability grants and social protection, access to social services and cash transfer programmes. The study expands knowledge on the experiences of black men and women who live with disabilities, thereby contributing toward the design of policies and other social security interventions that alleviate the plight of marginalised communities living with disabilities.

KEYWORDS: disabilities, unemployment, experiences, insights, narratives, socio-economic factors.

DECLARATION

I, Nomna Linda Jobodwana, declare that this thesis, titled “*Experiences of unemployed black PWD in Soshanguve Township South Africa: An exploratory study*”, is my original unique work and has not been submitted for any degree at any other university or institution. The thesis does not contain any other people’s writings, unless specifically acknowledged and referenced accordingly.

Signed: Student *Nomna Jobodwana*

Date: 13 May 2023

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ACRONYMS

GEAR	Growth Employment and Redistribution
GBV	Gender-Based Violence and Femicide
GNU	Government of National Unit
HEARDS	Health Economics and HIV/AIDS Research
HR	Human Resources
HRD	Human Resource Development
ICCD	Integrated National Disability
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDS	Institute of Developmental Studies
IFSICCD	Inter-departmental Coordinating Committee on Disabilities
ILO	International Labour Organization
IFS	Labour Force Survey
INDA	Integrated National Disability Authority
INDS	Integrated National Disability Strategy
LMICs	Low and Middle-Income Country
LOT	Life Orientation Test
LRA	Labour Relations Act
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MIC	Middle-income Country
NDASP	National Disability Authority Strategic Plan
NDP	National Department of Public Works
NDSP	National Disability Strategy Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NOAH	National Organisation for Albinism and Hypopigmentation
OHS	October Household Survey
OSDP	Office on the Status of Disabled People
PAFODP	Pan African Federation of Disabled Persons
PEPUDA	Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 2000
PWD	People with disabilities
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme

RPD	Rights of Persons with Disabilities Skills Development Act
SADP	Secretariat of the African Decade of Persons with Disabilities
SAJOT	South African Journal of Occupational Therapy
SALM	South African Labour Market
SAPS	South African Police Service
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
SDGs	South African Social Security Agency
SDL	Skills Development Levy
SEF	Sheltered Employment Factories
SI	SI
SITA	State Information Technology Agency
SOSHAD	Self-Help Association for People with Disabilities
SOS	Socio-economic Status
DTI	South African Department of Trade and Industry
STATS SA	Statistics South Africa
TAG	Technical Assistance Guidelines on the Employment of People with disabilities
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNCRP	United Nations Convention on the Rights of People With Disabilities
UN Enable	United Nations Enable
UNGA	U nited Nations General Assembly
UNCRP	United Nations Convention on the rights of people With disabilities
Un Stats	United Nations Statistics
USA	United States of America
USBL	United States Bureau of Labour Statistics
UJCSDSA	University of Johannesburg's Centre for Social development in Africa
WPCD	Women, Children and People with Disabilities
WPINDS	White Paper on an Integrated National Disability

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	II
DECLARATION	III
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	IV
ACRONYMS	V
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	VII
LIST OF FIGURES.....	XIII
LIST OF TABLES	XIV
CHAPTER ONE: SUMMARY AND OUTLINE OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Summary	1
1.2 Research Sites.....	2
1.2.1 Geo-political background of Soshanguve Township and the creation of townships.	2
1.3 Labour migration.....	4
1.4 Multilingualism in the Township.....	5
1.5 Three Important Arguments in the Study	6
1.5.1 First argument	6
1.5.2 The second argument	9
1.5.3 Third argument: The Development of Legislation and Location of Disability within the South African Government's employment equity legislative framework is important	16
1.5.4 Inclusive disability legislation	19
1.5.5 Problems experienced by organisations due to legislation and policies affecting the employment of PWD	22
1.5 The impact of the new democracy on the nation, including PWD	26
1.6 Statement of the Problem.....	27
1.6.1 Aim of the study	28
1.6.2 Objectives of the study.....	28
1.6.3 Research questions	28
1.6.4 Significance of the study	29
1.6.5 Delimitation of the study.....	29
1.6.6 Motivation of the study	29
1.7 Theoretical and Practical Significance of the Study	30
1.7.1 Introduction	30

1.7.2 Institutions as instruments of the three theoretical and practical gaps found in practice concerning PWD	33
1.8. Definitions of Key Terms	37
1.9 Conclusion	38
1.9.1 Overview of the Study.....	38
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL WORK	40
2.1 Introduction.....	40
2.2 A Brief History of People Living with Disabilities	41
2.2.1 The formation of the Eugenics Movement	42
2.2.2 The historical overview of disability unemployment and employment	45
2.3 Acceptance of Disability in Africa	47
2.4 The Concept of Disability	49
2.4.1 The concept of incapability	50
2.4.2 The concept of socio-economy	52
2.4.3 Statistics on people living with disabilities in the world.	54
2.4.4 The problem with statistical registration.....	56
2.5 Theoretical Framework	60
2.5.1 Introduction	60
2.5.2 Significance of theoretical outline of the study – SI theory	60
2.5.3 Relevance of the theoretical framework to the study.....	61
2.5.4 Symbolic interactionist theory	62
2.6 Interpretivism Theory	64
2.6.1 Overview of interpretivism theory.....	64
2.6.2 Relevance of interpretivism theory to SI the theory	66
2.7 Constructionism Theory.....	67
2.7.1 Overview of interpretivism theory.....	67
2.7.2 Relevance of constructionist theory to SI theory	70
2.8 Conclusion	72
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	73
3.1 Summary	73

3.2 Qualitative Narrative Research Methodology	73
3.3 Qualitative Narrative Research Approach	75
3.3.1 Soshanguve Township as a research site	76
3.3.2 Strengths and weaknesses of the narrative research approach	77
3.3.3 Deductive and inductive research approach.....	78
3.4 Research Design	80
3.4.1 Biographic and Medical Data	83
3.4.2 Preparing respondents for interviews.	85
3.5 Methods of Data Collection	87
3.5.1 Sampling procedures	88
3.5.2 Sampling method	89
3.5.3 Semi-structured in-depth interviews.....	90
3.5.4 Focus group interviews	93
3.5.5 Interviewing process	95
3.6 Narrative Data Analysis	96
3.6.1 Organisational details of the respondents	97
3.6.2 Thematic categorisation	97
3.6.3 Coding and recoding of data	99
3.7. Reflexivity and Positionality	101
3.7.1 Methodology and positionality.....	103
3.7.2 Importance of reflexivity and positionality	103
3.7.2.1 The journey towards a process of learning	104
3.7.1.2 Personal values, beliefs, and experiences of the research	106
3.7.3.3 Individual introspection: Altering and being altered.	106
3.7.1.4 Analytical introspection: Disentangling radical and societal creations in research.....	108
3.7.1.5 Strengths and weaknesses of reflexivity and positionality.....	108
3.8. Limitations of the study	110
3.8.1. Validity and Reliability.....	111
3.8.2. Ethical implications	112
3.9 Conclusion	115
 CHAPTER FOUR: OBJECTIVE 1. OPPORTUNITIES AVAILABLE FOR PWD IN SOSHANGUVE TOWNSHIP	 117
4.1 Introduction	117

4.2 Qualification and training	122
4.2.1 Access to training-learnership programmes	123
4.2.1.1 Criteria for entry to a Learnership programme	124
4.2.1.2 Difficulties experienced by candidates in accessing learnership programmes.	124
4.3 Problems Encountered by Candidates During Uploading of Application	
Forms in the System and the Selection Process.....	127
4.3.1 Preparation for a training programme	129
4.3.2 Problems experienced in getting into the job market after training.....	131
4.4 Access to Social Assistance Support.....	132
4.5 Disability Grant and Social Protection	149
4.6 Access to Social Services and Cash Transfer Programmes	158
4.6.1 Related Cash Transfer Programmes	161
4.6.2 Income and Means of Support.....	164
4.7 Conclusion	165
CHAPTER FIVE: OBJECTIVE 2. CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY PWD	167
5.1. Introduction.....	167
5.1.1 Disability and discrimination in the workplace	167
5.2 Unemployment, depression and attitudes.....	171
5.2.1 Society's attitudes towards PWD	174
5.3 Access to Labour Market and Employers' Corrupt Tendencies Toward Job Seekers	178
5.3.1 Low self-esteem and sexual harassment	180
5.3.2 The disability-related out-of-pocket costs and medication.....	182
5.3.3 Lack of information, education and costs for PWD.....	183
5.4 Poverty and disability	184
5.5 Homelessness	187
5.6 Inadequate Policies	189
5.7 Forms of Economic Marginalisation	191
5.8. Barriers.....	195
5.8 Conclusion.....	203
CHAPTER SIX: OBJECTIVE 3. COPING STRATEGIES OF PWD.....	204
6.1 Introduction.....	204

6.2 Emotion-Oriented Coping.....	206
6.2.2 Coping through religion.....	207
6.2.3 Coping through avoidance	211
6.2.4 Acceptance of the status quo.....	214
6.3 Problem Solving Technique	216
6.3.1 Coping with defeat	217
6.3.2 Coping through optimism and hope.....	219
6.3.4. Coping through dispositional optimism.....	223
6.3.5 Difficulties experienced by PWD in coping.	227
6.4 Critique of Optimism.....	234
6.5 Emotional Benefits of Optimism.....	235
6.6 Benefits of Optimism	236
6.7 Conclusion	238
CHAPTER SEVEN: OBJECTIVE 4: EXPERIENCES OF MEN AND WOMEN WITH DISABILITIES IN POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA: A GENDERED PERSPECTIVE	240
7.1 Introduction.....	240
7.2 The Experiences of Unemployment Among Adults in New Dispensation.....	242
7.2.1 The differences in these experiences between PWD	247
7.2.3 The consequences or outcomes of these experiences and perceptions for PWD.....	251
7.3 Education System	254
7.4 Land System in South Africa Pertaining to Women with Disabilities.....	257
7.5 The Wage Gap	260
7.6 Conclusion	265
CHAPTER EIGHT: RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS, MAIN FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	267
8.1 Outline	267
8.2 Restoration of the Exploration Queries and Aim of the Study	267
8.3 Outline for Each Chapter.....	268
8.4 Sociological Contribution of the Study.....	272
8.5 Areas for Further Research.....	273
8.6 Summary of the Recommendations (For Improving Policy and Practice).....	275
8.7 Conclusion	278

9.0 APPENDICES	279
9.1 APPENDIX A: LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.....	279
9.2 APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT	280
9.3 APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE/MEMO GUIDE	281
9.4 APPENDIX D: CHECKLIST.....	286
REFERENCE LIST	287

List of Figures

FIGURE 1.1: SOSHANGUVE LANGUAGES AND POPULATION GROUPS.	2
FIGURE 1.2: TOPOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF SOSHANGUVE TOWNSHIP	4
FIGURE 1.3: THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEGISLATION AND LOCATION OF DISABILITY WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT	16
FIGURE 1.4: UNEMPLOYED PEOPLE QUEUING FOR WORK.	22
FIGURE 2.1: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.	61
FIGURE 3.1: MEMBERS OF THE SOSHAD CENTRE IN SOSHANGUVE TOWNSHIP, INCLUDING	87
FIGURE 4.1: NUMBER OF SOCIAL GRANTS	154
FIGURE 4.2: NUMBER OF DG BENEFICIARIES	155
FIGURE 4.3: SOCIAL PROTECTION MECHANISMS	156
FIGURE 7.1: COMPARISON OF EMPLOYED PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES (EMPLOYEES, EMPLOYERS AND OWN ACCOUNT WORKERS) WAGES WITH THE MINIMUM WAGE IN PERU IN 2012	250
FIGURE 7.2: DISABILITY GAP	261
FIGURE 7.3: WAGE GAP AMONG DISABLED AND NON-DISABLED PERSONS IN THE THREE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES FROM 2012-2013	263

List of Tables

TABLE 2.1: STATISTICS OF PWD LIVING ON THE POVERTY LINE	59
TABLE 3.1: PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS	83
TABLE 4.1: PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES WHO NEEDED BUT DID NOT RECEIVE WELFARE SERVICES IN NINE COUNTRIES AROUND AFRICA.....	160

Chapter One

Summary and Outline of the study

1.1 Summary

The thesis examines the experiences of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities (PWD), and the study is essentially a qualitative and exploratory approach (Engel & Schutt, 2013: 18-19). As there is limited literature about this study, it adopts a narrative research approach, which depends on an inductive approach that will draw conclusions by developing a theory on interpretation and structural significances obtained after data analysis (Thorne, 2018). The research focuses on unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities (PWD) because they have a prolonged history of socio-economic and political encounters, which they endured during and after the apartheid era. The research examines narratives of unemployed black PWD, focusing on what they perceive to be their challenges, opportunities, gender disparities and ways of coping with the experiences of being black, unemployed, and living with a disability. Narratives attempt to clarify what has occurred and explain why things are the way they are or have become the way they are (Bamberg, 2012), as they were perceived to be creators and receivers of realism (Heikkinen, 2002). This study is guided by the symbolic interactionist theory (SI) as a theoretical lens through which layers of socially constructed meanings can help to explain the subjective world of unemployed PWD (Crossman, 2016).

The symbolic interactionist theory is useful in exploring the experiences of unemployed PWD through individuals' viewpoints instead of notional coordination from a researcher's vantage point (Handberg *et al.*, 2015; Morse, 2012). SI theory guided this study since the researcher did not know how unemployment impacts the lives of unemployed black PWD (Nyumba *et al.*, 2017). The theory emphasises individual relations in society. People with disabilities (PWD) make sense of their social surroundings through the exchange of meaning via language and symbols through conversation (Crossman, 2017). The theory was used as a lens through which unemployed black PWD's stories of living jobless, poor, and physically disabled can be viewed and how narrative methods can play a role in understanding human beings as creators of narratives, which construct their selves. Thus, narratives empowered PWD by supporting them to reconstruct their experiences, thereby empowering themselves (EROL IS, 2015). Through communication, the interchange of meaning over language and symbols can help PWD make sense of their social worlds (Crossman, 2017).

Chapter one discusses the problem statement of the study, the aims of the study, implication, delimitation, motivation, and theoretical and practical-based disability legislation. The study examines the universal legislative developments and the employment of PWD, the problems experienced by the organisations due to legislation and policies affecting the employment of PWD, and an overview of the study (Thomas & Hlahla, 2002).

1.2 Research Sites

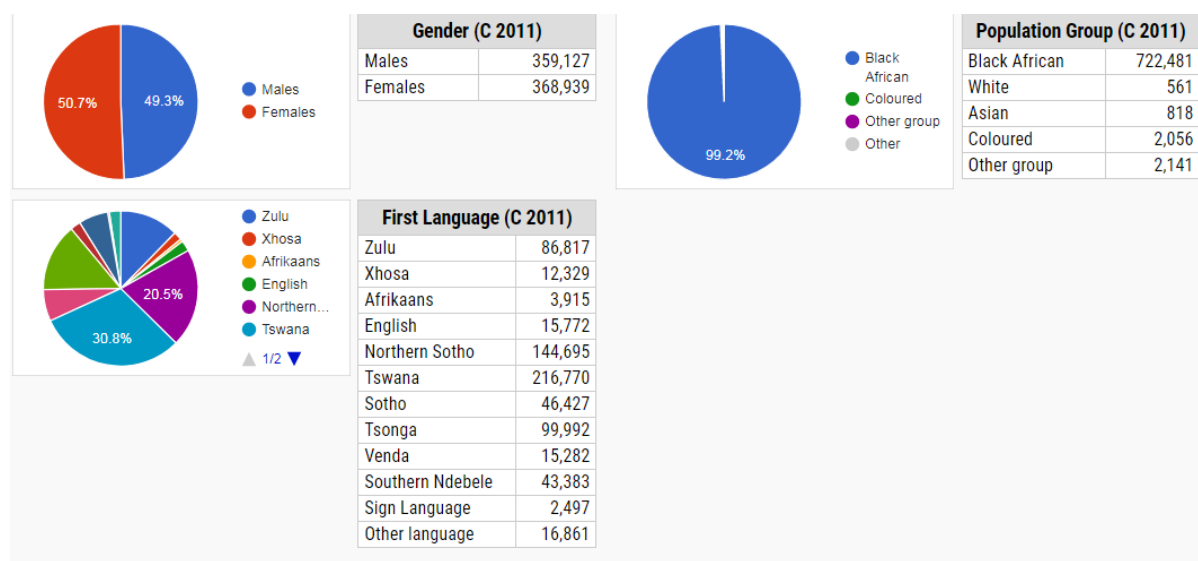
This section discusses the historic political overview and background of Soshanguve Township.

1.2.1 Geo-political background of Soshanguve Township and the creation of townships.

Soshanguve is a black township in the north of Tshwane, 45 km from the city centre in Gauteng Province, South Africa, and falls under the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Soshanguve Township was established in 1974 by the apartheid government. It was established on the land arranged to be merged into a Bantustan (township). According to the Stats SA (2013) report, in the 2011 census, the township had about 403 162 of the 2.9 million people in the metropolitan municipality. Since then, there have been no other statistics available. The population of Soshanguve Township in 2019 was estimated at 841 000, a 1.45% increase from 2018 (Soshanguve population, 1950-2020).

Figure 1.1 depicts the relevant population statistics of the township.

Figure 1.1: Soshanguve languages and population groups.



Source: Statistics South Africa 2016 (by andrianfrith.com)

The word “Township” has an abrasive meaning generally associated with an unfledged, immature nature. The word denotes existing metropolitan zones kept back for Africans since the early 19th century up until the termination of racial segregation. This meaning of this word is best described by Godehart (1979)

In South Africa, under apartheid, the term township (or location), in everyday usage, came to mean a residential development that confined non-whites (Blacks, Coloured, and Indians) living near or working in white-only communities. Soweto (“SOuth-WEstern TOWnships”) and Mdantsane are well-known examples. However, the term township also has a precise legal meaning and is used on land titles in all areas, not only traditionally non-white areas. (Godehart, 1979)

Blakely (2023) noted that, in South Africa, a township refers to the “often underdeveloped racially segregated urban areas that, from the late 19th century until the end of apartheid, were reserved for non-whites, namely Black Africans, Coloureds and Indians”. This system of creating townships was initiated by party-political segregation in 1948 and continued until recently, in the early 1990s. Under this classification, some individuals were not lawfully thought of as white and were not granted consent to settle in cities. Instead, they needed to settle in townships. The situational reality of living in townships was surrealistic as the environment was not conducive for anyone to live under such shocking conditions.

These living conditions are worse for PWD as townships are violent, poor and overcrowded. These spaces were purposely not efficiently funded, and from a safety point of view, the focus was on controlling the inhabitants rather than ensuring their safety and the safety of their property (Blakely, 2023). These urban residential areas were reserved not just for Africans but also for coloured and Indian people if they resided near or were in employment usually reserved for white people. “The segregated living of different population groups enforced by the Group Areas Act during the peak of apartheid caused the emergence of black communities, known as townships” (Mulaudzi & Libenberg, 2013). Gauteng Province has been a hub for poor people from all over the country, Africa and abroad searching for work. These people were placed in townships in each province created for black migrant workers only. The populations, among others, comprised unemployed black PWD whose needs were not considered by the apartheid government. The gaps between the former white cities and the former black townships continue to be evident, including the four-dimensional injustices of apartheid that are persistent (Findley & Ogbu, 2011). The research was carried out in Soshanguve Township on the experiences of black, unemployed physically disabled people.

1.3 Labour migration

This section discusses the labour migration and how it came to be established in Soshanguve Township. Soshanguve is one of the black townships previously designated for migrant workers. Like any province in the country, the townships were constructed strategically not to become sustainable but instead built to act as dwellings that could supply a pool of cheap labour to the nearby city (Mulaudzi & Liebenberg, 2013). The word Soshanguve, is an acronym from an abbreviation of a multi-ethnic population composition comprising Sotho, Shangaan, Nguni and Venda (Soshanguve) ethnic groups. However, recently, there was further justifiable clarification of the word as encompassing Sotho, Shangaan, Nguni, Venda, Afrikaans, and English. This breakdown occurred even though no white people were living in the township. The acronym divided the residents according to their tribes when they were resettled from the Mamelodi and Atteridgeville Townships in 1974. While this acronym was meant to make the administration of the apartheid government ride smoothly, it introduced division in the community and left people suspicious of each other. After 20 years, the remnants of that division are still visible, although the amalgamation of cultures has been moving forward. To this day, Soshanguve Township is regarded as among townships consisting of people depressed from unemployment, discrimination, poverty, and a high crime rate (Municipal Report, 2013, p 2-13). Figure 3.3 depicts the geographical area around Soshanguve.

Figure 1.2: Topographical location of Soshanguve Township



Map of Soshanguve – Source: MapStudio.

www.mapstudio.co.za/locationmap.php?loc=Soshanguve

Soshanguve Township shares borders with Mabopane Township, formerly known as Bophuthatswana, and Rosslyn, an industrial area providing township employment opportunities. Soshanguve Township has a capacity of about 126.77 square km with 106 057 estimated households comprising 838 people per km². The township bears the usual sceneries of townships in the whole of South Africa, with the residential townships surrounding it consisting of Hebron, Atteridgeville, Mamelodi, Mobopane, Westerveld, Saullesville and Ga-Rankuwa. The black community of Soshanguve Township operates in a standardised manner and with constant traditional knowledge systems that include common practices, relationships, social communications and subtleties; hence, it was selected as a suitable site for research (Black Communities Development Act [Section 33], 2013: 2-13).

1.4 Multilingualism in the Township

This section discusses how Soshanguve Township became a multi-lingual township. The people of Soshanguve are multi-lingual. The major languages of South Africa are spoken in Soshanguve. The people of Soshanguve are very multi-lingual and an ethnically diverse population dominated by Africans, with a limited number of expatriates of African origin who are dealers and retailers. The township's ethnic group has been increased by emigrants from neighbouring African countries, which makes it the largest in Pretoria. During recent years, Soshanguve Township was incorporated into the city of the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the capital city of South Africa (Mashigo, 2015). During the apartheid system, non-white people were divided according to race, such as blacks, coloureds and Indians.

These three races were removed from the suburbia and zones selected for white people and transferred unavoidably to isolated bare fields. The PWD were not spared from these evictions because of their disability. The townships surrounding Soshanguve operate homogeneously with uniform traditional knowledge systems, including common practices. Soshanguve Township suffers from a low socio-economic status, like many townships in the country, with limited employment opportunities. The township is poverty-stricken, with mostly poor indigenous people who are unemployed. As such, it is a centre where survivalist enterprises are predominant. Survivalist enterprises are enterprises that function in an easy-going division of the economy that unemployed people mainly assume to offer minimum earnings to their families (Black Communities Development Act of 1984, 2013).

Most survivalists are unemployed women living on the streets as hawkers and vendors. The challenge confronting their creativities is the lack of funding for improving their sustenance (Black Communities Development Act of 1984, 2013: 2-13). The township consists of dynamic forces of the broad black population in South Africa. In addition, Soshanguve Township has formal and informal financial institutions. Formal institutions consist of profitable banks and financiers/loan providers which are controlled by laws and regulations. These institutions have high transaction costs warranted by unsecured credit, thereby hampering access to such credit for survivalist initiatives (The Survivalist 4, 2015). The institutions' target markets are clients possessing proof of regular income, which most people do not have.

Therefore, unemployed people, including PWD, develop survival skills as a way of living by practising informal finance. Informal finance converts to a conceivable solution for survival purposes. It must be considered that while most PWD lived from disability grants, these are ineffectual in protecting them from the vagaries of the economy (Mashigo, 2015). Above all, Soshanguve also faces high crime levels, from drug trafficking to substance abuse. Although the township's safety cannot be guaranteed for tourists, individuals could hire taxis from anywhere in Pretoria city centre to the township (Chabalala, 2019). The township also has popular attractions such as the Eric Lubisi Art Gallery, the Bible College, Matlutla's Albert Museum, the Giant Stadium, where World Cup matches were played in 2010, and the great Twaing Basin, which is a site that claims to be unique as one of only four meteorite cavern galleries worldwide. The township also has the Tshwane University of Technology and Tshwane North College (Black Communities Development Act of 1984, 2013: 2- 3). To this end, it was necessary to focus on the three arguments discussed in this study.

1.5 Three Important Arguments in the Study

- First argument: The majority of PWD remained unemployed from one decade after the next due to discrimination, stigmatisation, marginalisation and exclusion at work, prior and after the period of segregation in the new relaxation of rules and regulations. However, they were labelled as economically inactive, poor and fragile (Naami, 2015).
- **Second argument:** PWD have an elongated history of socio-economic and political encounters that they face and must bear in South Africa even after the apartheid era.
- **Third argument:** The expansion of the legislature and the positioning of disability in the South African Administration rests in the Employment Equity Legislative Framework of South Africa.

1.5.1 First argument

This section addresses the first argument of the study. Most PWD remained unemployed for decades, and exclusion played a big role in their lives as doors for employment were closed to them before and after apartheid. Due to the factors mentioned above, PWD remained poor and inactive, leading to a loss of interest in looking for work, as they knew the chances of

getting employed were slim (Naami, 2015). Unemployment is defined as a situation whereby someone who is still active and searching for employment cannot find work. Those who were employed remained underemployed. “Underemployment can be defined as all dimensions of the wasted ability of the workforce, as they apply to either job holders or the unemployed” (Livingstone, 2004:55). Employers refused to employ PWD due to the suspicion that they were delicate, incapacitated and economically lethargic (The Irish Times, 2019). The South African official definition of an unemployed person is someone who did not work but looked for work and was available to work in the reference period (Statistics South Africa [STATS SA], 2014). Those who were provisional and discharged from work were kept on the waiting list to be reminded later and were also registered in the statistics for the unemployed (United States Bureau for Statistics [USBLS], 2015).

Documentation confirms that the number of unemployed continues to increase in the statistics despite the employment equity legislative framework, known as the Employment Equity Act (EEA), being in place, which is supposed to reduce the increasing numbers. This framework was designed to protect PWD from discrimination and all sorts of injustices in the workplace but has been inadequate in specifically addressing the employment issue of PWD (Watkins, 2016). However, while the Employment Equity Act (EEA) is enshrined in the constitution, it has not been implemented (Wiggett-Barnard & Swartz, 2012). The high percentage of other countries in similar positions like South Africa is caused by employers who assume that PWD are incapable of working and pathetic. PWD are the major disability group existing in the world and are estimated at 10 per cent globally (United Nations Enable [UNE] 2008a). Eighty per cent of these live in economically developing countries globally (Pinilla-Roncancio *et al.*, 2020; World Health Organization & The World Bank, 2011). The International Labour Organisation (ILO) reported in 2015 that an estimated 386 million of the world’s working-age people are afflicted by disability and are unemployed. The ILO also noted that unemployment among PWD increased by 80% in certain countries as managers often put them off from work.

Disability is explained in many ways and has no single definition (World Report, 2011) nor an explicit definition, as the concept of “disability” was found to be derogatory when applied to enslaved Indigenous people by slave traders from the West (Bolster, 2015). The Disabled People of South Africa (DPSA) (2013) define disability as “the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by a society that takes little or no account of people who have impairments and thus excludes them from mainstream activity” (DPSA, 2013)

The literature confirms that disability is currently a matter of concern, and organisations and governments must pay attention to the basic needs of PWD, such as poverty, health,

starvation, acceptance, education, destitution, equality, recognition, and identity (Grech, 2016). Universally, PWD remain marginalised and excluded from the labour market (Majola & Dunphath, 2020). However, evidence reveals that most South Africans with disabilities still face a great challenge of unemployment, and it has been and is a major problem, particularly for black South Africans before and post-apartheid (Keeton, 2014). South Africans with disabilities are worse off as their unemployment rate is increasing (Grech, 2016). Literature shows that the policymakers, service providers, and stakeholders did not have a broad knowledge of disability issues; hence, they could not plan and make good policies appropriate to disability issues (DPSA, 2013).

This study examines the experiences of PWD in South Africa and the exclusion of social and economic constraints that emerged from the obstacles that contributed to the open labour market, which led to various overhauls, revisions and modifications of policies and models of disability without any success. The study also sought to understand how PWD coped with the problem of unemployment. Documents disclosed that the employment rate of PWD is rapidly decreasing while the unemployment rate is increasing (Gresch, 2016). Literature confirms that the demand for new methods to be applied and included in society is mounting, and at least a grasp of the problem has been finally obtained (Jones, 2016; Markel & Barclay, 2009; Thanem, 2008). When PWD' marginalisation by society becomes a reality, it converts to an unacceptable meaning of realism, symbolising their devastating conditions due to low socio-economic status and exclusion.

South Africa and its unchanging laws, the nature of Indigenous people's static political and economic situation, particularly PWD, is a long-lasting project maintained solely to create poverty, unemployment, marginalisation and exclusion among the Black nation, as it continues the legacy of colonial laws. The labour laws are the major contributors in this project as they continued side-lining the Black nation and neglecting PWD through exclusion and silence. The abuse of PWD in all walks of life is extensive and a huge challenge to society as it has to find a balance between protecting them, respecting their autonomy, and correcting all the wrongs of labelling them, for example, being unable to fight for their rights, hence, were not supposed to work (The Irish Times, 2019). They are kept in the margins in every country (Munyi, 2012). Therefore, disability and unemployment were and still are politically affiliated with the present South African government because of crisscrossing structural factors (Jewkes *et al.*, 2009).

During apartheid, PWD were not recognised by the government of the day as living individuals. They were totally excluded from everything and had no perceived benefit to the country's economy. The apartheid government did not recognise the declared 1986 as an alternative for

the National Year of the Disabled in South Africa. For the country to realise the full potential of PWD' contribution, it is essential to create accessible resources that are support-based, such as employment and collective situations that would allow these people to be integrated into the communities (Bilobrova & Tul, 2015).

1.5.2 The second argument

This section addresses the second argument. Currently, the Constitution of the South African Republic (Act no 108 of 1996) is the supreme law of the land, and it pledges equal rights and standing to all population clusters. The Constitution of South Africa is respected worldwide because of its all-inclusive approach in supporting the “three generations” training,” of rights that Karal Vask Kende initially suggested in 2003. The constitution in chapter two clearly states the essential rights of all South Africans, including the right to dignity and equality. It also states when rights may be limited (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1996).

The Constitution states the rights of all citizens as compared to those rights that might be restricted. The Constitution, through Section 9 (3) of the equal opportunity section, suggests fairness and security for everybody. Preparations for this particular purpose were documented and endorsed from 1991 to 1993. Preparations were also accelerated in the discussions among individuals from radical political gatherings that led to the main anti-racial overall selections in 1994. The main group of social and constitutional rights that communicated their legislative and civic privileges were viewed as unprotected privileges. In contrast, the next group of civil rights was seen as part of the country's socioeconomic responsibilities. The third group, which included an extensive debate of “softer” rights, was reproduced as ambitious or having “green rights” (Vasak, 1977). The accessibility of the constitution signalled the first legal and moral principles in confirming commitment to equality through remedying the adversities of the previous historical events by uplifting natives' civil rights of self-respect (Sing, 2012). Above rudimentary benefits, the assembly became persuasive and placed nuts and bolts firmly in place for guidelines and ensuring the rights of PWD to be engaged in services (McGregor, 1999).

The fresh democracy in the country was continuously restructuring itself after 1994. The Directorate from the Ranks in the President was created in 1997 and set in motion, succeeding the cooperative efforts amid the management and PWD' integration into the community. The Office of Disability in the President's Office (OSDP) was to address the problems experienced by PWD pertaining to the recommendations and improvements of the programme. This programme was also part of the Rebuilding and Improvement Programme, which articulates the administration's part in planning an all-inclusive agenda for PWD in society (RSA, 1994).

The office was fully functional by 1999 and enforced that matters on the agenda were inclusive for the preparation and strengthening of PLWD structures in endorsing equality. It also initiated a disability strategy agenda that includes incapacity in dividing legislation and policies (Matsebula, Schneider, & Watermeyer, 2006).

The government endorsed the White Paper on the International Disability Strategy (INDS) in 1997 (RSA, 1997). It guided public service and local governments on the sense of responsibility toward PWD by cultivating them. It further provided platforms on the consciousness of instructional development programmes in ensuring that disabled people's organisations were involved in the process. However, all these efforts were watered down as no organisation seemed keen to include PWD. Due to a lack of dedicated legislation, the rights of PWD were dealt with in a fragmentary fashion, often in incongruent pieces of legislation (Ngwena *et al.*, 2014), while the role of the government in the planning of the holistic agenda was to increase the visibility of PWD in society (RSA, 1994). Research shows that the country is afflicted with discrimination based on race and gender that was shaped by the ferocious suppression of native persons and the seizure of their possessions. The unwarranted laws forced the oppressed, including PWD, to work for less than the normal salary, which made them unable to prosper.

Due to this oppression, these people were characterised by a catastrophic past of segregation and deprivation. South Africans living with disabilities remained an ostracised minority group that has a recurrent, unending history of exclusion with chronic diseases because they could not afford to visit doctors (Coovadia *et al.*, 2009), with no medical aid provided for most of them. PWD suffer from depression and other complicated diseases, with further complications due to chronic illnesses exacerbated by joblessness from one decade to the next. Literature confirms that the root cause was the dysfunctional diseases in South Africa that originated in stages of the country's past to suppression and racial segregation laws but also continued to the post-apartheid era. This history caused South Africa's troubled past to remain in situ and rife with sexual categorisation, migratory work classification, obliteration of families, salary inequalities, and ferocity, with some elements like gender-based violence (GBV) still being practised today. Consistent with this focus on the rights of P0WD, the South African labour law has lately undergone extensive amendments. These adjustments have significantly affected the rights of PWD in the workplace. However, the amendments are as yet untested, with little scrutiny of these provisions and the consequences they may have on PWD.

One of the amendments referred to the existing institutions for vulnerable groups other than PWD is known as Sheltered Employment. Sheltered Employment Factories (SEF) operate as

a false pretext for the Labour Department and seemingly offer vulnerable people (who cannot work because of their ailments) gainful employment in the open labour market (Van der Merwe, 2014). However, structures that supervise employers and give them severe penalties for non-compliance with specific Employment Equity Act 55 provisions of 1998 have not been operative. Many PWD remain openly discriminated against without any secrecy and clandestinely with distinguished and restricted benefits of information, healthcare, culture and constructive communication. These practices are accompanied by negative attitudes, stigmatisation and ostracism. The practices have a great influence on the denigration on the PWD' capabilities and are affecting their existentiality.

Despite the evidence that international and local policies painted of the societal fractures that inclined individuals toward discrimination against women, children, the elderly, the poor, PWD and those with illnesses, the uneducated, and the illiterate, the extension of socially entrenched discrimination further than physical limitations is poorly understood. The maintenance of liabilities and socially rooted discrimination, particularly on health matters concerning disability, was widely publicised by Farmer (1999), who proclaims that medical and allied healthcare suppliers are routinely located on the fringes of the civil-rights-based approach, working against it. The Civil Rights Declaration was universally proclaimed in Article 25 of 1948, which states that:

“Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing, medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age, or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control”.

Economic, social, and cultural rights are vital as human civil liberties as they are centred on this declaration. Nevertheless, the continuance of these truths has been thought-provoking mainly in the economically developing countries, which are withered by shortages, joblessness, racial intolerance, governmental unsteadiness, insufficient amenities, and the spread of diseases, the most recent and worst being COVID-19, all of which dispose individuals and PWD to illness and marginalisation. MacLachlan (2012) concurs with Farmer (1999), who asserts that to endorse equitable healthcare for all and empathy for individuals requires a collective, inspirational, and effective cultural and socioeconomic setting to achieve inclusivity and social integration. Consequently, PWD' welfare cannot be supported without consideration of their values, non-prejudice, independence, contribution, amalgamation, and equality for diversity (Neille & Penn, 2013; Tomlinson *et al.*, 2009).

According to Rivas Verlade (2015), disability was perceived by indigenous consumers of health as an obligatory thought that was often discussed as “Western doctors’ language”, which suggested an acute requirement for negotiations among all shareholders and native healthcare providers. Globally, three research studies have been conducted on indigenous PWD pertaining to healthcare receivers. The study revealed that most of them did not refer to themselves as PWD in the healthcare context, which is perceived as different to the indigenous culture and more aligned with the Western culture. However, their input to outcomes did not differentiate from each grouping in support of their individual denunciation of the term “disabled”. Although there was unwillingness to relate to the notion of disability, they recognised their disfigurements and deficiencies (Rivas Verlade, 2015).

The detachment from healthcare concerning disability was usually seen as an exaggeration and an illustration of contrasts among the native viewpoints on incapacity, which were defined not as destructive or having an impact since they were amenable to hospitable to variety. However, there has been no implementation of legislation protecting PWD from injustices, including all-inclusive programmes of diversity and a liberated labour force (Basson, 2017). This viewpoint was supported by a study on transformation and diversity in the South African Mining Industry, searching beyond the occupational issues. The study revealed that, despite the changes to a diverse and democratic workforce and with implementation in place, the industry participants experienced challenges in their request for transformation. The industry was accused of not taking any responsibility for implementing the transformation agenda, as the government required their support in assisting the existing challenges experienced by the industry (Moraka & Van Rensburg, 2015). All the same, the very changes appeared to be uneven concerning administrative adjustments compared to the statutory necessities (De Wet & Rothmann, 2023; Herman, 2017). The institutionalised strategies of discrimination and separateness remained in the general perceptions and seclusion of African descent in all walks of life economically, politically, and socially (South African Human Rights Commission [SAHRC], 2019).

The White Paper on International Disability in 1997 endorsed strategy adjustments with recommendations on the inclusion of PWD by the public service departments and local government representatives (Office of the President, 1997), to be symbolic of their duties through promoting changes in PWDs’ scholastic and consciousness events and certifying the capabilities through their organisations. The transitory nature of the legislation meant for PWD showed an additional crucial moment in understanding the rights of PWD. The legislation also describes PWD as suffering from long-lasting, persistent bodily and intellectual deficiencies that reduce their life chances from prospects of entering the job market (RSA, 2010). This

description shows the government's lack of knowledge about these differences among PLWD in their disabilities, as not all disabled people are physically disabled or mentally challenged. The EEA acknowledged inequalities in the employment setting, in occupation and in the national labour market that could not be rectified just by revoking biased laws due to the evidence for the requirements for confident PWD (RSA, 1998:10).

The legislation's consideration in formulating equality based on affirmative action was derived mainly from the Canadian legislature. It was based on anti-discrimination and equal opportunities (Bam, 2018; Horwitz & Jain, 2011; Thomas & Jain, 2004). The EEA legislation was meant to endorse diversity and equality instead of discriminatory practices in the workforce that collaborates with other organisations in commissioning support structures for underprivileged communities, including PWD (Thomas, 2002). The EEA embarked upon the occupation procedures from recruiting to services through tackling the legislative requirements and submissions concerning indicators of anti-discrimination and confirmatory achievement supplies, work sketching, strategies and processes, and top performances for accepting PWD (Ngwena, 2006). In addition, the Skills Development Act (SDA) No. 97 of 1988 proposed an outline for the skills advancement of the national workforce. This programme focused on the indigenous and nationwide policies at the workstation that motivated commercial expansion, occupation, and educational prospects for improving societal situations (Steyn, 2004). This programme was established for the first three National Skills Development Strategies, which were implemented from February 2001 to March 2005 and created the Employment of PWD and the Technical Assistance Guidelines (TAG).

Managers were instructed by the Skills Development Levies Act (SDL) in 1999 to contribute financially to the National Skills Fund subsequent to the proclamation of the SDA. These assets were to remain positioned as resources to support the generation of job opportunities and advancing the growing trades for early life, womenfolk and PWD in countryside areas as recipients (Thabo Mbeki Development Trust for PWD, 2006).

Even though there has been a noteworthy improvement in the streamlining and transmuting of the general public and its organisations, universal disparities and prejudicial acts persist in an intense entrainment in societal organisations, employment opportunities and determination, discouraging the ambitions of our statutory egalitarianism (ILO, 2017). On these grounds, the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (Act 4 of 2000) (PEPUNDA) was recommended in parliament, introduced in 2000, and established in 2004. PEPUNDA's mandate was to control any prejudice in the workplace founded on ethnicity, sexual categorisation and incapacity. It focuses on equivalent attainment and satisfaction of all civil

rights and forbids unfair perceptions on numerous grounds, including infirmity. South Africa committed itself voluntarily to an unofficial international law with binding agreements of civil rights that encouraged fairness and forbade judgment. Amongst the responsibilities agreed upon were entities listed in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and the agreement on the abolition of all kinds of ethnicity and prejudice. PEPUNDA delivered a systematic method in implementing employment equity to stakeholders, trade unions and workers. PEPUNDA, while it was eliminating bigotry centred on race, gender and disability in the workplace, it also recommended access to employment opportunities for citizens at large, including PWD (Republic of South Africa, 2002: 8).

The introduction of the Code of Good Practice (CPD) in the parliament in 2002 provided clear guidelines that simplified an institution's assignment, moralities and ideologies, connecting it with the values of qualified conduct by its representatives. The Code of Conduct acts as a guideline and orientation intended for its personnel to support them in the everyday decision-making processes. Therefore, it also defines whether individuals are workers or not to assist in clarifying and certifying the actual worker to affirm the applicability of the Labour Relations Act and further industrial legislation (MDLADLANA, 2006). The code pronounces on the acceptable standards and values for the conduct of the institution's representatives. The intent of the code was also to afford guiding principles on acceptable conduct concerning the requests of the Employment Equity Act. Employers' duties enshrined in the Code of Good Practice required them to oblige to the rights of PWD and demonstrate supportive strategies that lessen disputes (Wiggett-Barnard & Swartz, 2012).

The code guides employers and workforces on the crucial points of reasonable conduct concerning PWD. The code also increased its meaning in the EEA on disability and emphasised acceptable criteria based on three standards, namely, the human, intellectual and the nature of the loss, which is lifelong and eliminates their opportunities for getting into the job market to advance their employment (RSA, 2002:7). The obligation requires the manager to ensure that all workers were conscious of the instructions and realistic principles of conduct predictable from them in the workplace setting. Therefore, corrective codes are required for workers to understand the instructions fully and clearly to confirm that they know what is expected from them. The most important motive for devising a code in an institution was for behavioural purposes and to make a proper substructure of orientations available for standards (Sing & Govender, 2006). The technical assistance guidelines (TAG) were perceived as necessary to be applied to assist in the employment of PWD.

TAG was proposed to supplement the Code publicised in August 2002 to support the everyday execution of phases of the Act concerning the employment of PWD in the workstation. It shaped the code to establish the applied guiding principles and illustrations for managers, personnel, and trade unions on how to encourage fairness, multiplicity and impartiality in services by eradicating prejudicial judgment. TAG aimed to assist employers to be open-minded in opening the doors for educational and employment opportunities for PWD to apply anti-discrimination and positive deeds in respecting PWD at the workstation. In principle, the TAG was to be understood as sharing a larger egalitarian programme for PWD to be worthy of recognition in the labour workforce where their capabilities are not recognised. Hence, the escalation in numbers of redundancy, and over and over again enduring the ranks of low jobs and earning less than average compensation. This is predominantly significant meanwhile incapacity is an accepted actuality shared by humans, and under no circumstance that the rights of individuals be reduced from belonging and contributing to the labour workforce (Mdlalana, 2006). TAG was established in 2004, and it delivered a systematic method to implement equality in employment by employers, stakeholders, workers and trade unions. Its duty was to ensure the Skills Development Levy (SDL) and funding was prioritised. The strategies focused on the goals that comprise targets which were measurable and aimed at cultivating eminence on the amount of training education programmes at a national level. TAG gave leadership to PWD in the workplace to have access to opportunities and the three National Skills Development were the first to be implemented (Dube, 2005).

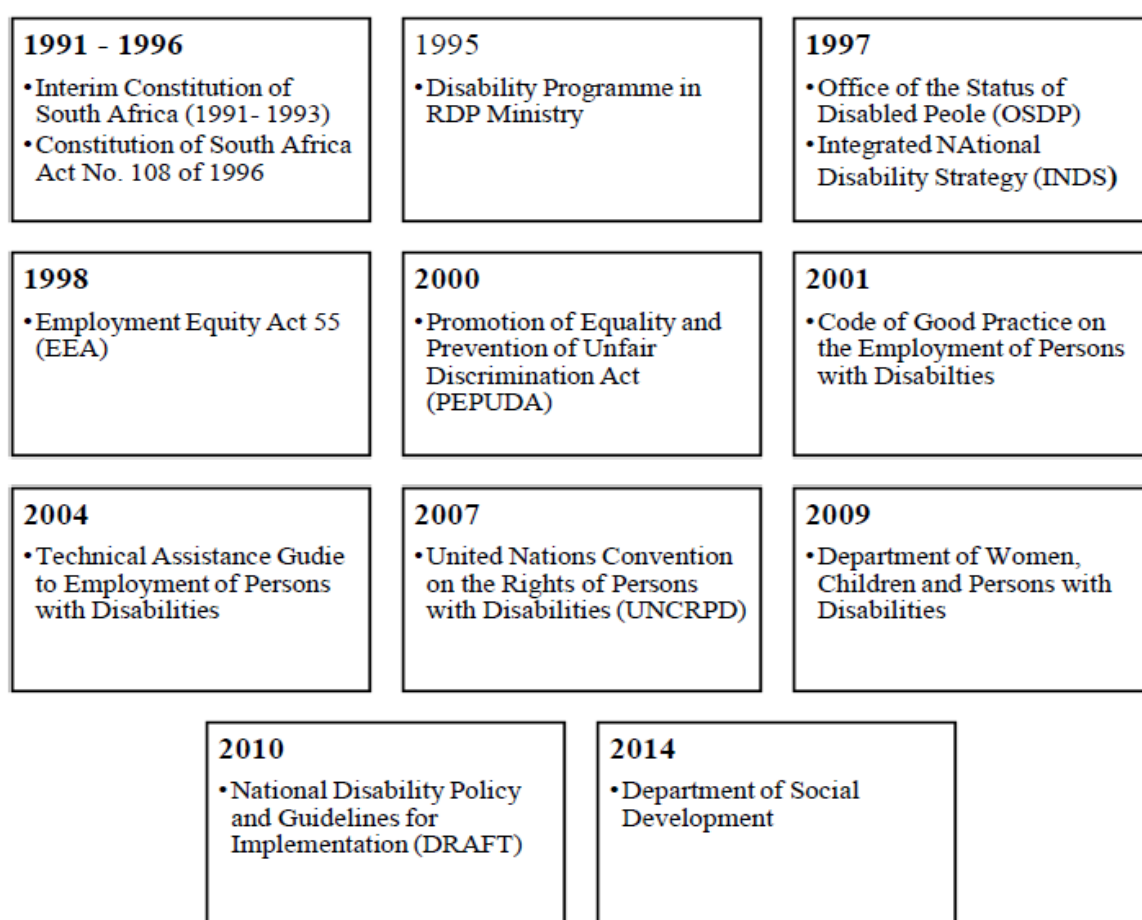
A second skills development approach was introduced by the Department of Labour in 2005 that would be operationalised for five years to save the economic growth and employment construction. This second approach was to bring skills development in line with improved policies and was to be promoted. It was called Broad Based Economic Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) and Employment Equity (EE). It has to observe and measure the delivery and progression of a lifetime knowledge of culture (Department of Labour, 2005). In addition, the legislature was supported by other organisations who took part in supporting and playing pivotal roles in employment prospects for PWD through legislation such as the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act 2000, and the BEE for Agriculture. The approval of the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities CPRD took place in 2007 (Dube, 2005). The outline defines the background of the legislative guidelines and the background that offers opportunities to discover influential organisations. Even though the BEE and affirmative action policies were clearly acknowledged, their execution were intended to be in line with the current regulations. Similarly, it can be claimed that moving the employment of PWD' call for employers to exchange a variety of management enterprises that are further than the legal inactiveness (Watkins, 2016 -2017), the renewal of

negotiations concerning the organisational conduct, has shattered the discussions in the business ethics with revival in qualities and in the institutions.

1.5.3 Third argument: The Development of Legislation and Location of Disability within the South African Government's employment equity legislative framework is important

Figure 1.1 depicts the South African Legislative Road Map and Disability

Figure 1.3: The development of legislation and location of disability within the South African Government



Between 1990 and 1994, the deep-seated struggle for civil rights by PWD pushed the South African government into developing a strategy for integration and inclusion. In comparison to global inclusion laws, the South African government carefully considered the White Paper on an Integrated National Disability Strategy (INDS) of 1997 as a suitable act for the South African government to ensure PWD' full participation in the traditional labour market and public service (RSA, 1997, 2014). (Sing & Govender, 2006). The country has been lacking precise and

competent binding rules and regulations to back up the guidelines distressing PWD (Mitra, 2008).

Consequently, the INDS was cancelled and replaced with the Equality Act in 2010. Relatively speaking, the universal legislation concerning the employment of PWD has been progressive in advancing civil rights programmes and disability occupation strategies, spear-headed by ILO and the UN. Furthermore, strongly endorsed equal prospects for employment and training (“About the ILO”, n.d), and ILO has been influential, particularly in ensuring that adult PWD benefit from these applicable compensation services (ILO, 1925), through improving their working environments and introducing allowances to employees with disabilities (ILO, 1944). The ILO established policies that confirmed the constitutional right to employment of PWD (ILO, 1955), in supporting community members and managers by accommodating disabled employees with prospects for employment (ILO, 1975 a, b, the functioning, c). Accommodation refers to unique preparations and procedures for assisting PWD in the work environment. Recently, the ILO gave direction and coordination to a proper representation and integration of PWD in the workplace, counting the codes of good practice for the supervision of PWD in the work environment (ILO, 2001; 2007). In addition, the United Nations conveyed an important announcement by framing and introducing approved plans for action for conventions, in ensuring inclusive member states as signatories that are obliged to work and applying an effort that ensures equality and human rights to the nations (UN, 1948, 1984, 1993, 2006)

South Africa was amongst the first participants to sign the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). The advancements in policy development of European countries, as well as their failures, had a global impact that was contradictory to the emergence of developing countries in Africa and East Africa that had already designed their own methods toward the employment of PWD following the policies of more dominant regions. The Americans had the Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 developed from the rebellious civil rights movement in the United States of America (USA). It centred on a strong anti-discrimination rule to maintain justice in the open labour market for people with disabilities. In the United States, the chances for increased job rankings for PWD were clear after obstacles were eliminated (Chan & Rumrill, 2016; Schartz, Schartz & Blanck, 2002).

The ADA is now a legal organisation that allows PWD to take legal action against employers if employment discrimination occurs. Nonetheless, the Act's efficacy was called into question as academics, PWD, and activists realised that PLWD employment had deteriorated as a potential concern of the curative landscape of policies that suggest employment protection (Acemoglu & Angrist, 1998; Burkhauser *et al.*, 2012; Cook & Burke, 2002; Houtenville &

Burkhauser, 2004; Schur *et al.*, 2003). Previously, the ADA was widely acknowledged in terms of the medicalisation system in the United States, which deals with a legal judgment for discrimination based on medicalised explanations of impairment (Areheart. 2008; Hall & Hall, 1994).

In the process of tapering with the definition of who qualifies for disability or not, the Federal and USA Supreme Court destabilised the ADA and its self-protective sphere for PWD (Houtenville & Burkhauser, 2004). The effects of medicalised explanations of disability were illuminated by Arehart's Goldilocks Dilemma as constructed on medicalisation initiated on various PWD that were either "too disabled" or adequately incapacitated with a lesser actuality – "disabled just right." (Areheart, 2008: 209). In contrast, the European policies became rigid, with the provision of appointments of PWD, in which well-resourced governments could influence employers to ill-treat PLWD through incentivised intercessions (Thornton & Lunt, 1994, 1997; Torre & Fenger, 2014). Therefore, the employment policies for PWD were approved by the European countries, and Thornton and Lunt, (1997) revised them in 18 countries. They confirmed the main amendments among these countries from the West. On the other hand, Western and European countries captivated employers and convinced them by introducing quotas on PWD and provided them through bypassing access and targeted employment equity.

The United Kingdom created the Disability Discrimination Act (DDA), which was approved in 1995, ending several anti-discrimination struggles that emphasised community or collective designated positions in producing chances of occupation (Barnes, 2012; Finkelstein, 2007). Before the appointment strategy of the employment plan during the 1940s, the emphasis was based on quotas and, over time, with minimal attention given by the government in as much as the payment of PWD was concerned, it was revealed to be less effective. In fact, the system was discontinued and substituted with other labour market policy procedures (Goldstone, 2002). The DDA impacted the social movement of disability activists and intellectuals who advocated improved work prospects and human rights in society. In so much as it followed the social model of disability, the DDA represented impartiality and shrewdness of job discrimination. It also looked at the recruiting, promotion, working conditions, proficiency, and employment regulations (Barnes & Mercer, 2005; Jones, 2016).

As a result, the DDA, according to its assertion, did not impose allowances or quotas like other European nations; instead, it provided modest protection against direct discrimination, placing the burden on individual evaluation of prejudice (Barnes, 2000). However, the efficacy of the social disability model has been questioned due to its lack of direction to the disability

movement in the UK and its lack of relevance in confronting present societal injustices and oppression (Barnes, 2012). The purpose of the protuberant policies of the American ADA, the British DDA, and the Australian Disability Discrimination Act was to enact models and policies that were developed and endorsed to have been called into question because they failed to change the employment experiences of PWD effectively and meaningfully (McMahon & McMahon, 2016; Russell, 2002).

However, the social disability and efficiency model was interrogated for its inadequate supervision in the movement of disability in the UK and for its inefficiency in rectifying the current inequalities and oppression (Barnes, 2012). Of importance to the protuberant strategies of these three organisations in these three countries, the resolution was to endorse models and policies that were developed and questioned since they failed to alter employment experiences that were effective and meaningful for PWD (Barnes, 2012; Batavia & Schriener; Heyman *et al.*, 2016). Criticisms focused on the legislation for adopting an equal employment posture, which assigned consequential low-slung occupation charges (Lysaght, Ouellette-Kuntz, & Lin, 2012; Schmidt & Smith, 2007). For example, legislation emphasised labour's viewpoints (Barnes & Mercer, 2005); Potts, 2007), and the absence of implementation of appropriate action, including application of guidelines (Sloane & Mackay, 1997), and disintegrating campaigns which sparked party-political engagement, which was sanitised by means of compromise (Finkelstein, 1996). It was obvious that the possibility of promoting prospects for employment of PWD was internationally negated owing to societal changing aspects (Anderson *et al.*, 2015; Rosenheck *et al.*, 2006), of commercial profits that were politically excluding and creating undesirable exclusion in the workplace, making it understandable that it was disregarded because of the communal forces and negative attitudes at work, which came from commercial profits that were exclusionary (Anderson *et al.*, 2015; Rosenheck *et al.*, 2006).

1.5.4 Inclusive disability legislation

The government enacted rules to comply without addressing their obligation to their workers, as well as the larger community (Solomon, 1998). Even though laws and regulations have promoted the inclusion of PWD, businesses remain worried about the working conditions of PWD (Hernandez, & McDonald, 2010). The security of PWD is the central point to employment as the investors were anxious of the inadequate growth and the deteriorating statistics in employment of active PWD with the consideration of the posture maintained the government of extensive all-inclusive legislature.

The EEA sought to achieve workplace justice by encouraging equal opportunity and impartial behaviour in the workplace and by prohibiting unjust discrimination. Although South Africa lacks comprehensive disability legislation that addresses all aspects of disability, the Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1988 (EEA) of South Africa is preserved in the constitution's Bill of Rights, which applies to "everyone" and not just PWD. Many people with disabilities continue to experience poverty, unemployment, prejudice, marginalisation, and exclusion. Furthermore, South Africa lacks comprehensive laws addressing disability concerns. At the same time, South Africa has endorsed diverse portions of legislation that affect or treat matters related to disabilities in the legislation.

However, the present legislation (EEA) on disability has not been implemented (Grobbelaar & Grobbelaar, 2013). This issue greatly impacts unemployed PWD as the legislation does not protect them. Hence, the huge unemployment rate among them is accompanied by poverty. Joblessness and poverty among PWD in South Africa are harsh as the rates of redundancy are far greater among PWD than the general population (Yeo & Moore, 2011), even though the whole country is ravaged by unemployment, particularly for indigenous people (Stats SA, 2022). The 2016 statistics revealed that unemployment was 6.1 million, and in 2018, this percentage 2019 rose by 29%. Most South African blacks with disabilities who were still in the working-age category were unemployed (Webster, 2019). Belling, (2020) stated that "Unemployment in South Africa is worse today than before 1994 and it affects the poor and the black working-age group of South Africans that were less employed today than before 1994." Unemployment rates were frequently escalating faster among PWD, despite policies and legislation being in place that envisioned promoting inclusion and participation of PWD in employment (Morwane & Dada, 2018). Under such conditions, inclusivity is impossible as it was created to be unacceptable.

Stats SA (2022) revealed that throughout the fourth quarter of 2020, unemployment increased by 1.7% compared to the preceding quarter to reach a record high of 32.5% (Beling, 2020). The current unemployment estimates indicate that the COVID-19 lockout has made it even more difficult for job searchers to enter the labour market and for struggling enterprises to generate jobs, with the unemployment figure rising to 34.5% in 2021 (Mahlaka, 2021). Unemployment is seen as a long-term tormentor of the labour market, affecting all segments of the population (Lee 2013). It is also a source of pain for people with disabilities that has gone on for a long period with little government action (UN Enable, 2016). Despite minor adjustments in labour legislation toward transformation, the Labour Department has remained a barrier to PWD' entrance into the labour market by opposing open employment possibilities.

In reviewing the focus on the rights of PWD, South African labour law has lately undertaken extensive amendments (Bam, 2018). One of the amendments refers to the existing institutions for other particularly vulnerable groups instead of PWD, known as Sheltered Employment Factories. Sheltered Employment Factories (SEF) operate under the auspice of the Department of Labour and employs vulnerable people who cannot obtain gainful employment in the open labour market because of their ailments (van der Merwe, 2014).

The chronic catastrophic unemployment impinges more on black PWD as employment opportunities bypassed them due to disability discrimination, exclusion, attitudes, alienation, marginalisation and social isolation (disability bias) (Disability in Africa, 2012). However, unemployment for PWD causes anxiety and stress as it continues disturbing them while simultaneously impinging on their life chances, including those of their families (Majola, & Dunphath, 2020).

Weber's 1847 research in the workplace established that workers disclosed some important realities that were appropriate to this thesis. Firstly, Weber's theory on work ethos substantially affected how work was and is understood today. Max Weber's theory states one's life chances are consistent with one's socioeconomic status in the community (Weber, 1991). His opinion was influenced by his mother, who was devoted to religion and Protestantism, although he was detached from religion. He acknowledged the Work Ethic of Protestants and the life force of capitalism in his essays (Giddens, 2014; Weber, 1991). (The Protestant work ethic calls on believers to be diligent and show practicality in God's and man's eyes (Edgell, 2012).

Unemployment is an unchanging life experience for PWD, while employment has a promising outcome which guarantees independence from the humiliation of unemployment, assuring affordability and accessibility of essentials and treats that offer an opportunity to settle down and start a new life, which allows incorporation and contribution in society (Khumalo, 2016). Therefore, research ratifies that the unemployment rates were left for employers to account for PWD who preferred to work but were rejected. Employers play a precarious role in addressing the high unemployment rate experienced by PWD, but research has identified and questioned employers' attitudes towards PWD, which is an important factor in the staggering unemployment rate of PWD (Blank, 1988; King, 1993; Smith, 1992; Unger, 2002).

Figure 1.4: Unemployed people queuing for work.



1.5.5 Problems experienced by organisations due to legislation and policies affecting the employment of PWD

This research was conducted by first reviewing the South African legislative developments in the employment of PWD, labour law, and government structures to understand how the immense unemployment of these people came about. The study also looked at the employers and organisations, including the labour market's willingness to employ and support PWD. Searching for positive signs was in vain (Thomas & Hlahla, 2002). Organisations lawfully required to address inequalities were challenged to preserve moral values and remain competitive globally. Companies and their leaders must ponder soft matters of people and, at the same time, the advancement of the organisation. They have to oblige the EE in constructing HR practices holistically and signifying the importance of diversity and inclusivity situations (Thomas & Jain, 2004:19). A good organisation is appreciated by valuing its members whose values are reflected as qualities that depend on the viewpoint of a return to merits that many scholars have been calling for in the business (Arjoon, 2000; Dobson, 1995; Moore, 2005; Solomon, 2004) Quality organisations eliminate bias, challenges, and stereotypes that cause unrest in the workplace and progress a variety of communitarian objectives (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2013). Therefore, managers are obliged to assist in developing

an organisational culture of inclusivity for PWD (Lee, 2013). The key role of managers is to ensure they excel in “reaching targets as they were measured and compensated for such achievement”, and “dissipate the perception that they were responding only to the legislative requirements with less commitment to the general preparation of employment equity strategies and interrelated employee development practices” (Thomas, 2003:19).

A study of employers' opinions regarding the experience of EE indicated that handicapped workers went unreported in numerous areas at work and were also excluded from EE activities owing to prejudice (Jonges, 2006; Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010; Thomas, 2002). Other research identifies a variety of hurdles in terms of intolerant attitudes against South African PWD. According to research, most intolerant behaviours persist against these individuals, especially in the workplace. Although ethnicity, religion, gender, and age have been recognised, there has been little action on discrimination impacting PWD, particularly in the workplace (Potgieter, Coetzee. & Ximba, 2017).

Evidence confirms that previously, South Africa has been challenged by various bigoted practices, most of which are still current. Even though inclusivity regarding gender, race and religion have been considered, less effort has been engaged in eliminating discrimination concerning disability in the workplace (Potgieter *et al.*, 2017). These days, organisations have been placing race, gender and PLDWs on their agendas; however, the full remuneration question could only be understood if the organisations can change their focus away from legislative and constitutional compliance (Horwitz & Jain, 2011). As previously mentioned, the EEA aimed for justice in the workplace by “(a) promoting equal opportunity in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination in any employment policy, and (b) applying affirmative action measures to achieve employment equity for people from designated groups” (Republic of South Africa, 1998:12).

Despite all these efforts, it was discovered that, the EEA 1955 of 1988 was not implementing the expected measures for PWD. However, it might be argued that since disability is an issue for job fairness, it has been given less weight than other EEA regulations. As a result, it is dominated by a high rate of unemployment among PWD This was confirmed in a lecture titled “*Affirmative Action and the Perpetuation of Racial Identities in Post-Apartheid South Africa*”, ““that as implemented, on a sense of balance, EEA is a policy that mainly benefits the growing black middle class and in effect deepens the inherited class inequality in society” (Alexander, 2006:3). Alexander (2006:3) continued by stating that “The EEA is a policy that mainly benefits the growing black middle class and in effect deepens the inherited class inequality in society.” However, although the internal official policies have merely given additional assistance with

meeting specific employment targets, a commitment to external policies and legislation was crucial (Maja *et al.*, 2011). Due to a lack of this dedication, various disability organisations demonstrated on many occasions for moral equality standards of accountability, inclusion, and acceptance to be recognised for employment when policies were proven for them to comply.

Various disability organisations demanded their rights to be heard. These demands were mostly for the quality of moral standards of accountability and acceptance. However, these organisations have been unsuccessful in demanding commitment to the quality of the moral standards of accountability and acceptance regarding PWD. Employers attempted to employ PWD by establishing policies to comply without considering their accountability towards their employees, including the wider community (Solomon, 1998). A respectable business must have “comprehensive policies and practices in place throughout its business, enabling it to make decisions and conduct its operations in an ethical manner, meeting legislative imperatives, considering the environment, communities, and society” (Fig, 2005: 601).

Even though organisations might take a step forward to conform to elude form-related disciplinary penalties, they might be restrained from changing their employees’ intensely deep-seated beliefs and attitudes about disability (Leonard & Grobler, 2006). Conversely, to overcome some of the encounters the organisations experience, their policies have to embody a disability supporter representing top management, which is accountable for disability fairness in the business, thus building a disability equity forum and capacitating the supporter to achieve their role effectively (Hernandez, 2008). This suggests that the business objective for disability unfolding is to improve the business's financial performance (Kulkarni & Gopakumar, 2014). This aim can be achieved by developing pre-employment approaches and policies to recruit, place and retain PWD (Gröschl, 2007).

This approach, in return, brings an understanding of the disability scenery inside the business and sourcing role models, collaborating on the way forward with all stakeholders (Gilbert, Stead, & Ivancevich, 1999), and, in conclusion, implementing new policies and monitoring the change (Cox & Blake, 1991). It has been recommended that, when considering employment equity, businesses experience strategic and operational challenges that have to be monitored and evaluated to identify where disapprovals emerged and the business leaders who encompassed perceptions that would weaken the international investment and entrepreneurialism.

The resilient costs of guaranteeing the inclusion of PWD through reasonable accommodation have repeatedly been measured as additional costs compared to the short-term penalties

received, reducing the employment of PWD (Lengnick-Hall, Gaunt & Kulkarni, 2008) upon the evaluation of the impact on PWD. The burden of this additional cost and resources implied in the legislation must be made visible. Enforcing the legislation has added financial burdens for the taxpayer or companies, and the cost is incurred in some sectors where blacks have a shortage of skills (Thomas, 2002). The lack of skills would eventually reintroduce the cost burden put on black skills by encouraging investment, highlighting the deficiency in new employment opportunities, which would result in the rearrangement of employees from one employer to the next instead of generating new opportunities.

Thomas & Hlahla (2002) concluded that the EEA has been unproductive and fruitless in discouraging organisations from disciplinary penalties executed when they did not meet the minimum legal requirements. They contended that the EEA and the supportive policies that guide businesses to reflect on a targeted tactic to meet affirmative action appointments were blemished. In conditions without monitoring and evaluation against targets, statistical targeting is observed as generally obstructive. The absence of an integrated disability strategy has directly obstructed the importance of the unemployment experiences of PWD (Gida, Africa, & Ortlepp, 2007). Being unprepared in business to implement the directives would indicate indirect shortcomings that would influence decision-making negatively, impacting all members of designated groups.

Hunt (1966) suggests racial and disability struggles share the same roots without minimising the suffering of racially oppressed people. Conversely speaking, reaction to the discrimination could arise and disturb employee commitment. This push-back could lead to situations where the expectations of those from selected groups would prove impractical and provoke negative emotions within the organisations, creating a culture of entitlement that might increasingly occur where members of designated groups would depend on others and reduce creativity. Basically, employment equity projects require all-inclusive support and procedures to achieve their purpose (Thomas, 2002).

Although numeric goals have been convenient to use, they cannot function without appropriate training and development practices in supervision and proficiency transference (Thomas & Jain, 2004). South Africa needs the reinforcement of the existing employment policies to confirm the appropriateness and the development of services together with the proper social assistance of selected population groups within the South African context to alleviate the high unemployment scourge and poverty. Aljazeera (2020) warned, "South Africa faces a precipitous economic and political collapse by 2030 unless it changes its economic model and implements growth-friendly policies".

It is crucial to look into the South African legislation and policies and how they were formed with regard to the location of disability within the Government. Transformation would allow employers to delegate a Code of Good Practice to employees that they refuse to practice. PWD are in a more critical position than other population groups and worse off in redundancy as they have been unemployed from one generation to the next due to discrimination (Keeton, 2014). Poverty also plays a big role in their lives as it impacts their ability to obtain the elementary provisions of life in the absence of welfare programmes to alleviate poverty in South Africa as defined in terms of income and human development indicators (Stats SA, 2020). PWD suffer from a triple burden because they are seen not only as disabled and unemployable but also as “different” from the rest of society, as “cursed” and as “biological deviants” (National Organisation for Albinism and Hypopigmentation [NOAH], 1999). Employers refuse to employ PWD due to a lack of confidence in their abilities, despite being qualified. There is a dearth of experiences in the world, particularly those connected with employment, due to limited research literature (World Report, 2011). This silence is even visible in Sociology.

1.5 The impact of the new democracy on the nation, including PWD

(a) Van Heerden’s analysis

Van Heerden (2019) captured the root causes of South Africa’s past and present situation and the new “so called democracy”, which he sees as a problem for indigenous people, including PWD. Drawing from his analyses, it seems as if he has responded to both arguments as he narrates the past and present situation of the nature of the new democracy that never works and is continuing the legacy of the apartheid system. Van Heerden (2019) argues that the colonial and apartheid policies in South Africa have not been addressed over the past 300-plus years on issues such as poverty, inequality and unemployment. Hence, they remain an immense contributing factor to the current situation in the country. The current 3-dimensional structure of the government reinforces the old apartheid divisions, as they cannot be taken for granted. This structure aggressively contributes to the poverty, unemployment and inequality groupings in the country, which is practically noticeable in race, class and gender, including PWD.

Lately, there has been a more provocative argument that poverty is by choice and is a man-made phenomenon. Contrary to the 3-dimensional structure, the issue of poverty, inequality and unemployment is not a statistical issue but a human issue. The fact is that inequality in South Africa is a balance between the haves and have-nots. Hence, South Africa is arguably

the most unequal society in the world. This unenviable status has arisen because the South African government has no actual data analysed in this new democracy for quantifying unequal wealth. Hence, it has no concept of inequality or how it impacts people. Therefore, the government cannot tackle it (Van Heerden, 2019). Above all, there is no political will to solve these challenges and to address the structural changes the country requires. In ending poverty, the country needs competent leadership to end the municipal mismanagement, change the economy's structure, and address the past imbalances.

That leadership will have to put issues of gender, race and class high on the agenda (Van Heerden, 2019), and this agenda must include PWD earnestly, as they are a minority that has not been high on any agendas of humanity, not to mention during the days of colonialism and after the apartheid era. As such, PWD suffer the consequences of the old apartheid policies, as they were excluded from society. Even in the new democracy, indigenous people, including PWD, have not been officially included in the country's wealth. The capture of the land and economy will be unable to improve Black South Africans' lives, or that of black PWDs, unless the legacy of colonialism, apartheid and racism is reversed or transformed. Therefore, the Employment Equity Act 1955 of 1988 (EEA), which has not been implemented, failed them and, as such, was unable to protect them (Van Heerden, 2019). The research's problem statement must come next.

1.6 Statement of the Problem

Despite the existence of legal frameworks, the rights of PWD in South Africa, PWD suffer from marginalisation in terms of employment prospects. They are hardly visible in employment spaces as employers perceive them to be incapable of performing their duties at the workplace. PWD are the most affected by unemployment as employment opportunities bypass them due to disability, discrimination, exclusion, attitudes, stigma, alienation, marginalisation and social isolation (disability bias) (Disability in Africa, 2012). Most of those who find work are more likely to be employed under insecure and exploitative conditions (Maja *et al.*, 2011). About 70-80% of young PWD of working age are unemployed (ILO, 2015).

PWD get minimal government assistance to find employment opportunities (UN Enable, 2016). Interventions and policies, such as EEA Number 55 of 1988, appear not to have improved the employment predictions for South Africans living with disabilities (Pitso & Magubane, 2014). Despite this gloomy reality, PWD remained on the margins of both public discourse and intellectual debates. Yet very little scholarship has been devoted to scrutinising the conditions of PWD, particularly their experiences of unemployment in a country with an unemployment rate of 32.1%. South Africa has the highest percentage of PWD in Africa, constituting about 8% of

the population, while PWD accounted for 10.5% of the unemployed, which is more than twice the figure of people with no disabilities at 4% (Stats SA, 2014).

Evidence shows that 2.9 million South Africans are disabled, and eight of every ten PWD are unemployed. It is reported that 68% of adults living with disabilities in the country have never looked for employment, as they assume it is unlikely they will be employed (Stats SA, 2014). Most of those who find work are more likely to be employed under insecure and exploitative conditions (Maja *et al.*, 2011). About 70-80% of young PWD of working age are unemployed (ILO, 2015). PWD get minimal government assistance to find employment opportunities (UN Enable, 2016). Interventions and policies, such as EEA Number 55 of 1988, appear not to have improved the employment predictions for South Africans living with disabilities (Pitso & Magubane, 2014). Despite this gloomy reality, PWD remained on the margins of both public discourse and intellectual debates.

1.6.1 Aim of the study

This study aims to examine the experiences of unemployed black men and women living with disabilities in South Africa. It seeks to broaden existing knowledge on the conditions of marginalised groups and to inform and enhance the design of policy interventions aimed at alleviating the plight of PWD.

1.6.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are:

- To identify challenges experienced by unemployed indigenous people with disabilities.
- To ascertain the opportunities available for unemployed indigenous people with disabilities
- To establish the extent to which the experiences of unemployed people with disabilities are shaped by gender.
- To ascertain how unemployed black PWD cope with their experiences.

1.6.3 Research questions

The following are the research questions addressed in this thesis:

- What are the challenges faced by unemployed indigenous people with disabilities in South Africa?
- What are the existing opportunities for unemployed indigenous people with disabilities in South Africa?
- To what extent are the experiences of unemployed indigenous people with disabilities shaped by gender?
- How do unemployed indigenous people with disabilities cope with their everyday challenges?

1.6.4 Significance of the study

The study is significant because of the exclusion of PWD from all walks of life, particularly employment opportunities. This exclusion has been the main issue of concern for many academic inquiries undertaken within disability studies, rehabilitation studies, feminist studies, psychology and sociology that have an interest in disability studies. This concern remains despite the United Nations' (UN) intervention to stop injustices, as these people are vulnerable in society (Navuri, 2009). This action can be interpreted as a cultural betrayal by the society of PWD. The significance of this fear is obvious and correlates with the conclusions that bring the restricted human rights and limited knowledge about their condition into prominence. Employment is particularly important for PWD for their self-esteem and dignity, particularly for women, since women with disabilities are among the most vulnerable and marginalised in society as unemployment obstructs the diversity that they could bring to workplaces since they are naturally skilled people (Vernies & Vala, 2018).

1.6.5 Delimitation of the study

This study was limited to black physically disabled people and excluded all other racial groups with disabilities for the following reasons: firstly, they have been the most marginalised group for centuries of colonial oppression and apartheid policies, they are black and have been ignored and excluded from human rights, they have been and are still deprived of access to opportunities like employment and receiving of the social grants. Secondly, these people have a long history of socio-economic and political encounters that they must endure in South Africa. During the apartheid era, they were treated as sub-humans by the apartheid regime (Dube, 2005). Thirdly, the respondents were all homogenous, unemployed, and lived in Soshanguve Township. They were culturally deprived, without access to education, housing, health facilities and projects to sustain themselves. Fourthly, physically disabled people were the most ridiculed and dehumanised group in society; they were and are still labelled as incapacitated and inactive, and they are seen as unable to acclimatise to the expected standards of society. Physical disabilities result in various limitations based on the specific area or areas of the body affected and the degree to which the disability limits movement, strength and control. Many of these limitations could be addressed through varied technological or mechanical supports.

1.6.6 Motivation of the study

The researcher grew up in the townships of South Africa and, as a child, grew up playing and going to school with children living with disabilities. The researcher noted that most children came from homes where both parents were not working and living with one or other form of disability, while some came from homes where their siblings were living with a disability. In

most of these homes, unemployment was a problem; as a result, most disabled children in our community came from very poor family backgrounds. Those attending school were not coming to classes frequently, while the majority were not attending school, and some had never been to school. Some would not attend school, particularly at the end of the month, because they had to accompany their parents to collect a disability grant. Although the researcher had never heard the word disability used in the community, she sensed something unusual in the structure of her friends' bodies as she sometimes used to assist them in carrying their bags. The researcher also noted that some community members did not treat these people fairly, and they were always treated as outcasts. The researcher was inspired by the fact that most of these children's parents were unemployed and poor. In some of their homes, one person would work out of six unemployed members of the family. As the researcher grew older, she became inquisitive about living conditions in her neighbourhood and wanted to know how people cope with a disability.

1.7 Theoretical and Practical Significance of the Study

1.7.1 Introduction

This section discusses the relevance of the theoretical knowledge and the practical significance of the study. The theoretical knowledge and practical significance sought to show how the theory used in this study could gain a new understanding of knowledge when applied. This could be achieved by looking at other studies similar to the investigation. According to Coleman-Fountain and McLaughlin (2013), practical knowledge assists in acquiring the specific methods that become the devices of the trade since it deals with the actual day-to-day work, while theoretical knowledge can often lead to a profound understanding of a concept through seeing it in perspective of a larger whole and considering the "why" behind it. This study attempts to expand knowledge on the experience of PWD as an excluded and marginalised group in society using the theoretical and practical significance of the study.

Since literature is limited in this field of study, the study attempted to establish gaps provided in the literature and use them in relation to this study to fill gaps in disability studies. Furthermore, while the theoretical significance deals with how the theory gains new understandings, the theoretical knowledge used in this research was interconnected with the language frequently used in disseminating knowledge found in the library (Oliver, 1998). The practical knowledge could be obtained through what would be learnt only by listening to PWD' experiences, practice, and feedback. However, this study's theoretical and practical knowledge was applied to inform the design of policy interventions that enhance the welfare of PWD.

Consequently, the practical knowledge was used to lead to a philosophical understanding of the ideas of PWD through their actions and behaviours of their personal experiences. From that perception, this study's theoretical and practical significance were used to complement each other. This synergy was achieved by signifying the theoretical and practical foundations of rational intellectuality, symbolising the storage and usage that enhances one's general thinking skills, which are prerequisites to human progression and existence. The literature revealed that the theoretical work on disability studies has achieved trustworthiness in constructing information as an increasing discipline that is politically and logically driven to present it in a recognisable position within explanations of the interrelated social groupings that shape people's lives (Barnes, Barton, & Oliver, 2002; Watson, Roulstone, & Thomas, 2012).

The current debate within critical disability studies is whether the study should include impairment and embodiment within its focus (Coleman-Fountain & McLaughlin, 2013). On the other hand, the knowledge theorists argue that three related knowledge gaps have been framed between theoretical and practical knowledge. The first gap is a knowledge transfer problem; the second gap is where theory and practice represent different kinds of knowledge, while the third gap includes knowledge production problems. Advocates of knowledge production observed that theoretical and practical significance in the dissatisfaction concerning academic researchers is paying little attention to how they transfer the knowledge they produce to practice. This was perceived as leading to the view that there was an existing gap, which was noted as the knowledge production problem.

The knowledge production problem created a gap between theoretical and practical knowledge as this was naturally framed as a knowledge transfer problem (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Lawler *et al.*, 1985). Undoubtedly, the knowledge transfer gap that exists regarding knowledge on disabilities has not adequately been conveyed and produced into practice in a way that could be understood, since the concept of disability could not be explained. For example, the practical knowledge about PWDs' lives has been poorly conveyed as it does not reflect the true image of who PWD are, including their behaviours and reasoning. Hence, there is much confusion relating to disabilities regarding knowledge transfer. Secondly, another contributing factor to poor knowledge transfer was the unavailability of data about these people. That placed disability researchers in a difficult position to continue their research projects.

Thirdly, the models of disability represent a theory and practice that demonstrate different kinds of knowledge to PWD as Africans. This makes disability researchers avoid doing disability research from an African perspective, where their interpretations of disability would bring a different explanation from those of the Global North. An example is theoretical models, which

interpret a disability as an ailment that needs to be cured. In most cases, physically disabled people do not see themselves as sick and needing a cure; instead, they need employment and a healthy lifestyle. The African view on disability also imposes different knowledge on disabilities in Africa as Africans with disabilities do not see themselves as impaired but as having a limitation in some parts of their bodies.

The above examples represent theory and practice that convey different knowledge gaps. This knowledge points to a third gap, which includes a knowledge production problem. The knowledge produced in the literature about disabilities, as Meekosha (2010) has noted, is that “Most African disability literature comes from the Global North and is spread worldwide with distortion that depicts PWD as having an eccentric behaviour and deviant individuals.” Furthermore, the underlying concept that disability deviates from the norm is a questionable value statement. Hence, many PWD prefer to be addressed as persons with a disability rather than disabled persons. Meekosha (2010) warns that African writers should contradict this as the deficiency of data contributes to this confusion.

The advocates for knowledge theory and practice concluded that practitioners failed to implement the findings of the significant practical research evidence in their fields (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Lawler *et al.*, 1985). Hence, the knowledge theorists proposed that a process of engagement in scholarship for addressing the problem of knowledge production should be practised. Also, to be engaged in scholarship not only advances the relevance of research for practice but also contributes expressively to improving the research knowledge in a specified domain. Therefore, understanding the relationship between theory and practice is an obstinate and difficult problem for scholars working in professional schools.

This problem shows in areas such as business, engineering, social work, medicine, agriculture, education, public administration, journalism and law (Beyer & Trice, 1982; Lawler *et al.*, 1985). This link occurs because professional schools naturally shape their *raison d’être* (reason or justification for existence) on the mission of developing knowledge that can be translated into skills which advance the practice of the professions (Kondrat, 1992; Simon, 1976; Tranfield & Starkey, 1998). This link was confirmed by the frequently undesirable gap between theory and practice, an assignment that remained an imprecise epitome. These advocates for knowledge theory and practice recommended that researchers be responsible for specifying how the knowledge they produce should be implemented. They also suggested that professional knowledge workers were criticised for not being aware of the relevant research they were doing and were not making enough efforts to put their theory into practice. As a result, organisations experienced problems learning fast enough to keep up with the

changing times. Hence, Simone (1976) came up with an organisational behaviour theory. Academic research was becoming less beneficial in solving practical problems, creating a gulf between theory and practice in the profession (Van De Ven & Johnson, 2006).

1.7.2 Institutions as instruments of the three theoretical and practical gaps found in practice concerning PWD

This section discusses the involvement of institutions and their influence on the theoretical and practical knowledge of the study. Institutions were perceived to be influential in practising in areas covered by the three related knowledge gaps framed between theoretical and practical knowledge, which were found to exist in disabilities. This information has been unveiled by qualitative data that reveals a high malfunctioning of institutions concerning disability theory and practice. Institutions such as the government, practitioners of labour law, SASSA, and Health and Education failed PWD in improving their health and socio-economic conditions through mismanaged policies. These institutions have a variety of South African policy documents that recognise the social causes of disability and that a rights-centred approach to disability is required.

According to the INDS (RSA, 1997, 2014), the reasons for the low employment rate of PWD are low skills levels due to inadequate education, discriminatory practices by employers, past discriminatory and ineffective labour legislation, inaccessible and unsupportive work environments, inadequate and inaccessible provision for vocational rehabilitation and training, inadequate access to information, and ignorance in society at large. Dube (2005) noted that these institutions consist of piles of documentation (theoretical knowledge) that oppose the acknowledgement of the central role played by the apartheid system in oppressing PWD, stating the conditions of poverty and discrimination they experienced. The practical significance of the unemployment of PWD was the EEA legislation that was not implemented, which was a symbol of rejection.

Theoretically, evidence of documentation in these institutions approved of their existence, while practically, they were non-existent; hence, the legislation was not implemented. According to society, the EEA was practically a symbol of humiliation and dehumanisation of PWD, as their prospects in life were limited due to the mismanagement of policies. For example, the existing labour laws, which were instrumental in the deprivation of PWD from exercising their legal rights regarding job opportunities, were theoretically significant, while in practice, the same laws seemed not to offer protection against exploitation (Barns *et al.*, 2002). In practicality, PWD have not yet been on the agenda of dedicated legislation that was enthusiastic at outlining the content of the rights to which they are entitled. Because of the

inefficiency of committed legislation, the rights of PWD were dealt with in a disorganised manner. Their theoretical and practical knowledge, a statement to the entire population of PLWD capability of narrating their own stories verbally and in writing, was more significant and useful than the legislation, which was never effectively implemented. Their books about exclusion and marginalisation were never published so that society would understand their plight. PWD could be employed as they were skilled labourers in their fields, such as entrepreneurs, writers, researchers and authors of their own stories. Hence, they sought a public sector voice to illustrate their pain of being silenced and demonstrate their skills. This influence was practically significant as it displayed their experiences, which were a call for increasing perseverance in raising their voices to be perceived in all spheres of research (Albrecht, 2001).

Theories and practicality were PWD' daily practice as they would narrate their stories to each other to find out how to live and cope with the situation without financial assistance. Evidence shows that Russia and the USA have the worst employment gaps for PWD. The practical significance gap on PWD was also reflected in the time wasted by being unemployed for years, while the theoretical significance was reflected in their writings that were never published. Also, another obvious significant practical gap was the few PWD that were employed compared to many non-disabled people who were employed, with a sharp contradiction of millions of PWD. These were thorny issues that needed to be addressed sooner rather than later (Quarmby, 2016).

The literature reveals that for the past 20 years, PWD' writings hid many theories that could have been used to understand them, a symbolic landscape and intellectual capacity of which they had been deprived. Despite their creative capability, they were gagged by social restrictions imposed by an insensitive society to silence them (Watermeyer, 2013). Evidence shows that the few writings available have been altered. Currently, the disability subject of their voices is a critical and persistent issue while, at the same time, it is taken for granted. This suppression is a significant call for critical questioning of intercessions by the government to think deeply about the provision of projects for PWD. For example, the theoretical significance of impairment and interaction both play a significant role in informing self-identity and in the broader dynamics of power and inequality (Coleman-Fountain & Janice McLaughlin, 2013).

PWD have been starting to influence scientific research to prove their solid state of mind, which showed a theoretical significance and was a practical stimulus in inflicting problems for positivist researchers in questioning one of its bedrocks: the concept of objectivity. Even though positivist researchers state to the deaf that subjectivity can be studied objectively, they

still resisted compromising subjects due to fear of bias (Oliver, 1998). The development of social policies must be influenced by PWD and holistically planned before they implemented, and secondly, to align with the theoretical framework of disability. The concepts in question, such as disability, incapacitation, capability and economic inactivity, were used in this study. These were discussed and analysed as the four main pillars that played a significant role in marginalising and alienating PWD from accessing the job market and livelihood. The SI theory, which is the theory of choice for this study, assisted in analysing these concepts on how they fit theoretically and practically in PWDs' problems. It was found that by elaborating their stories within and about them, important spaces and narratives of impairment and disability were produced and utilised. Therefore, their interactions and stories were theoretically and practically significant in both how they were shaped by culture, wider social norms, collective stories, and institutional processes and also how, at times, they could provide points of emotion, resistance and challenges to such norms, stories and institutions (Watson *et al.*, 2012). The very fact that they were left in the periphery by the decision-makers (Barnes, 2000), to be powerless and hopeless with no voice, was a practical significance of silencing them for good, a symbol of dehumanising their existence.

Practically, the system barred PWD from meeting their needs, for example, regarding education and employment. It is argued that given a chance, the stigmatic concepts can be rectified and achieved through communication by the disability experts of all races in acquaintance with the strict supervision to guarantee clarity and learning circles towards sustainability of PWD, to ease their plight. The concepts mentioned above, practically and theoretically significant in this study, were influenced by theories that pre-existed to motivate unintentional and unequivocal notions on intercessions desirable for PWD (Oliver, 1998). The problem is that Western theories do not include the perspectives from the Global South.

The concepts of disability, social exclusion, incapacitation, capability and economic inactivity were theoretically significant in their marginalisation and alienation of PWD, as they were practically assessed on how they would work towards them, either positively or negatively. The application of these concepts led to the total exclusion of their very existence. PWDs' exclusion from society meant they were denied access to employment and other areas. Exclusion, therefore, points to the subdivision of a society in which social stratification is closed to outsiders. It does not side-line only the poor but may also systematically deny access to the means to overcome their poverty, as is the case for PWD. Exclusion of PWD meant they typically lacked the capacity for collective action to overcome their exclusion (Sen, 2005). Of significance is that the symbolic interactionist theorists viewed exclusion as disabling as it is caused by how society is organised.

Since there is limited literature about unemployment and disability, there is insufficient knowledge to put this study on the unemployment of PWD in Africa into practice, although the knowledge gained in this perspective is hopefully a significant contribution that can be used for implementation. Thus, the theoretical significance in this research was applied to explain, predict, and understand the occurrences of PWD and, in many cases, to contest and encompass the existing knowledge within the confines of the critical assumptions and practical significance, which explain the mode of the study under consideration (Grant & Onsaloo, 2014).

This study was concerned with the usefulness of the results obtained about the unemployment of PWD in the real world, which implies the existence of a relationship that has been there from time immemorial. Decisions continue to be about them, and without them, as the government is not addressing their plight. Dube (2005) noted that the issue of PWD and employment organisations could not be overcome in this country if the government did not address their entrenched problems, irrespective of the suggestions given above to develop the means for addressing their complex problems in the world. PWD could be given their rights and the method that can be used to provide opportunities to voice out their lived experiences and come up with solutions in the workplace and society to dismantle the hegemony of the powerful people. In doing so, they need powerful organisations to assist them.

Thus, while practical knowledge can frequently lead to a deeper understanding of incapacity, ability, and exclusion inconsistent with PWD human rights, the practical significance of this research deals with the concerns of PWD in Soshanguve Township. At this point in time, their main problem is unemployment and their silent voice in government. Consequently, the practical significance of this study is based on the current discrimination, marginalisation and exclusion in the workplace imposed on PWD by the legislation, labour laws and labour market. Even though work for PWD is the main component in security and integration, the current inclinations in the labour market were symbolic of social oppression, which were practically significant in employers' attitudes towards them.

These symbolic actions that PWD were going through in the workplace, such as working in shelters, appalling work conditions, and being shouted at, were practically significant in that their lives were exposed to dangers at the workplace. This exposure affects their health, which could be fatal at times. It also affects their relationships and behaviours in the changing situations of the real world; hence, it is hard to cope with it. These actions could be changed by contributing the skills they achieved from various training courses with experiences, which

could bring better development solutions to business challenges to the workforce. Also, by building a business reputation and assisting businesses in organising more customers, unemployed PWD would not delay the diversity they bring to work (Naami, 2015).

Employment does not offer income only; it also provides prospects for social contribution and develop psychological safety and expectations, recognition, dignity, and self-esteem of PWD. Employment is crucial for PWD as they are susceptible and ostracised by society. It can be argued that the ability to obtain, maintain and retain employment, is of practical significance for unemployed PWD for inclusion in the socio-economy, as their employability is strongly tied to skills and labour market accommodation. Their exclusion in the country's socio-economy portrays PWD as problematic individuals who are economically inactive and in need of help (ILO, 2015).

1.8. Definitions of Key Terms

Disabilities: This is a catch-all phrase for impairments, activity limits, and participation restrictions (WHO, 2018). Disability is an unavoidable aspect of human life; hence, it is described as "a limitation in a functional domain resulting from the interaction of a person's intrinsic capacity and environmental personal factors" (Carter & Fuller, 2015). Kurtner (2012), on the other hand, defines and considers disability in terms of impairment. Furthermore, as a consequence of society's rejection and marginalization of PWD, they become alienated. These men and women with impairments normally had a low chance of finding work. Kurtner sees disability as a socially defined phenomenon that is widespread and unexplained to those who are afflicted by it. She argues that discriminatory and unenforced legislative policies have accepted these sentiments and strengthened exclusionary barriers (Kurtner, 2012).

These people endure a triple burden as black, unemployed, and disabled and carry on with their lives uninterrupted (Division for Social Policy and Development (DSPD), 2013).

Unemployment: Unemployment is defined as a situation whereby someone who is still active and searching for employment cannot find work (Stats SA, 2014). However, according to the US Bureau of Labour Statistics (2017), unemployment is when someone of working age cannot get a job, but would like to work full-time. In addition, the Bureau further explains that unemployment also adds to people who were temporarily laid off and were waiting to be called back for work.

Experiences: De Poy and Gitlin (2016) say an experience is knowledge that one gains about life and the world by being in different situations where one meets different people while gaining life experience. These experiences are constant dialogic interactions that are mutually

intertwined into a continuous web of events organised into meaningful units as individuals are on their journey through the life in which they live. One such meaningful unit could be a story.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter introduced the study and provided a background on the research problem. It explained the study's aim, research objectives, research questions, the research problem, the significance and delimitation of the study, its theoretical and practical significance, and its contribution to knowledge. To properly contextualise the study, the chapter discussed inclusive legislation on universal legislation of PWD compared to that of South Africa, new developments and the employment of PWD.

1.9.1 Overview of the Study

This thesis is composed of nine (9) chapters:

Chapter 1—Introduction and background

This chapter provides the research topic, introduction and background, problem statement, aim and objectives of the study, the theoretical and practical significance of the study, the context of the research, and the study's delimitations and limitations.

Chapter 2—Literature review and theoretical framework

This chapter discusses the literature review and theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter 3—Research methodology

This chapter provides the research methodology and highlights the methods used in data collection. It provides a detailed explanation of the research approach, type of research, research design, population, sampling, data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations. It also highlights some field experiences.

Chapter 4—Opportunities

This chapter discusses the available opportunities for unemployed people with disabilities.

Chapter 5- Challenges

This chapter discusses the challenges experienced by unemployed people with disabilities.

Chapter 6—Coping strategies

This chapter discusses the coping strategies of unemployed people with disabilities.

Chapter 7 – Experiences of men and women with disabilities: A gendered perspective

This chapter discusses the experiences of unemployed men and women with disabilities in a gendered perspective.

Chapter 8—Conclusion and recommendations

This chapter will focus on the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations arising from the research findings.

Chapter 9 – Appendices

This section contains Appendices A, B, C and D.

The following chapter (Chapter 2) discusses the theoretical framework and methodology.

Chapter Two

Literature Review and Theoretical Work

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on the unemployment experiences of indigenous people living with physical disabilities (PWD) in post-apartheid South Africa. The literature reviewed focuses on the following aspects: A brief history of PWD, Acceptance of disability in Africa, and The historical overview of disability unemployment and employment. The literature review further discusses the following points: 1. A brief history of PWDpeople (PWD); 2. Acceptance of disability in Africa; 3. The historical overview of disability unemployment and employment; 4. The concept of disability; 5. The concept of incapability regarding PWD; 6. Estimated statistics on PWD; 7. The problem with the statistics; 8. The study's theoretical framework. Globally, PWD have been excluded from all spheres of life and still are, primarily in Africa and developing countries. Unemployment remains one of the most extreme challenges to them. Negative attitudes and discrimination towards PWD continue to be prevalent in society (Aiden & McCarthy, 2014). This oppression contributed much to poverty and diseases among PWD as they have been constrained and have no access to the resources for their needs.

The study is guided by SI theory (Crossman, 2015) because of the limited literature in this field. The theory assists in sharing and unveils the history of unheard or silenced voices of those living with a disability and unemployment in the post-apartheid era, which is viewed as a double burden (Naami, 2015). The purpose of the literature review, among other things, is to highlight gaps and shortcomings with the existing work in the field (Turner, 1989:5). It clarifies the inconsistencies, ambiguities, and disagreements that might be found in previous research findings. At the same time, it relates the current research questions, findings, and discussions to the existing literature (Babbie, 2010). It further justifies the study to unearth structure and recommendations from the findings in the field. This approach was followed to contribute towards the scientific debate and determine the knowledge gaps leading to future research questions (Bryman, 2012:9).

The chapter explores the narratives of the experiences of unemployed PWD, sharing the stories of those with similar experiences to allow for a better understanding of the phenomena. Marshall and Rossman (2011) propose that shared experiences allow for the narration of a worldview that those individuals with a similar realisation understand. It was crucial to understand that there was limited literature that specifically addressed the experiences of unemployed PWD. That, on its own, demonstrates the marginalisation of PWD, their

challenging experiences, and the necessities relating to them. Unemployment in South Africa is most acute among black Africans and those with less than a matric, the youth and women (STATS SA, 2015). For PWD to be jobless remains one of the world's most intractable problems seen as a dehumanising tool used against them which is perpetuated by tenacious negative attitudes.

These attitudes led to the exclusion of their very existence and continued without rectification by most governments (Aiden & McCarthy, 2014). In South Africa, PWD faced high unemployment levels and often endured low-status jobs with lower-than-average incomes. PWD were hampered by various barriers that undermined their ability to attain employment and provide effective contributions in the labour market, on an equal basis. Low income was often followed by deep depression that could cause divorce in marriages because employment is a foundation of life for PWD and people in general (Dooley & Prause, 2004). Unemployment is important to PWD as they are often able and willing to work to become financially independent and contribute towards community development and wider society. Despite the importance of working for PWD, this vulnerable group is still generally restricted in their attempts to gain employment. These dynamics are well-documented universally in connotation with the absence of reasonable accommodation and access to infrastructure and information (Uromi & Mazagwa, 2014).

2.2 A Brief History of People Living with Disabilities

This section discusses the historical overview of PWD before and after the 20th century. It is uncommon to find the history of PWD in literature. However, it is also rare to see in the literature that they were the first minority population group to be systematically murdered in Auschwitz gas chambers by the German Fascist Regime in the early 1900s (Watermeyer, 2013). Disability was finally recognised a few decades ago due to disability movements' fight for human rights. Hence, some changes have been noticeable among these people (Meldon, 2017). Around the world, it is estimated that one billion people are living with some form of disability, with approximately 190 million living with severe disabilities; however, this figure varies from country to country (World Health Organization [WHO], 2011).

Although the history of disability started long before the 1400s, this chapter starts with a review of events from the 18th to the 19th century. Disability has always been and is likely to be part of the human condition as PWD are still treated as social problems and a public burden who survive in the margins as outcasts. Globally, the history of disability has been that of being discriminated against by societies, which resulted in segregation, banishment, infanticide and genocide (Boster, 2015). During the 1800s to 1900s, the living conditions for PWD were brutal.

They were objects of scorn, charity, curiosity, protection and enduring nodes of indifference. Children born with disabilities were hidden and sometimes even killed. Feelings of shame and guilt were often associated with giving birth to a child with a disability. Sometimes the disability was blamed on the sins of family members.

2.2.1 The formation of the Eugenics Movement

This section discusses the significance of the formation of the Eugenics Movement in conjunction with PWD. The Germans formed the Eugenics Movement to support a scientific policy of improving a population by controlling its breeding to increase the occurrence of desirable heritable characteristics. This movement was accepted by various Western countries, mainly by Germany and the United States of America (Department of Social Development [DSD], 2015). Eugenics' practices aimed to improve the genetic quality of the human population by excluding certain genetic groups judged to be inferior while promoting other genetic groups that are mediated to be superior. The Eugenics Movement believed that PWD were "inferior", immoral, criminal, a burden to society and a threat to civilisation. Many Germans and Communists welcomed this opinion at the time.

The sterilisation of PWD was made compulsory by the countries agreeing with Germany's view and was further extended to include mass murder (DSD, 2015). Many countries in Europe also agreed with this atrocity, and it was later perceived as the worst euthanasia programme that ever existed. Watermeyer (2013) noted that this task was successfully carried out as they killed 200 000 PWD. He uttered, "Ableism, which is discrimination and social prejudice against PWD, is the ideological machinery which serves to maintain a situation in which PWD remain at the margins of our society". During this era, surviving PWD were enslaved by slaveholders in the US, who forced them to work to their full capacity. The slaveholders later found slaves with disabilities to be a problem, and they were hard to manage because of their "disfigured bodies" (Boster, 2015).

In 1845, an awareness of mental illness was created in the US, and a Mental Asylum was first built in New Jersey that would treat PWD humanely and with dignity. After that, psychiatric and "mental" hospitals spread nationwide by the mid-1800s. These institutions came under scrutiny due to inadequate care and mistreatment. In 1908, the Mental Health Movement began in the US after Clifford Beers published a book about his appalling experiences living in an asylum. Boster (2015) noted that the concepts of disability assisted in shaping slavery, as did the concepts of gender and race. These atrocities were still practised in many countries and, in fact, worldwide against PWD, particularly concerning people with mental illness.

A recent study conducted by The Human Rights and Mental Disability Rights International in their investigation of such cruel actions confirmed that countries like Serbia and Ireland are still sticking to these practices where people with mental illness are subjected to torture, detention, and electrocution, and are confined to cages and made to be guinea pigs in risky experiments without consent (Irish Times News, 2019). The literature revealed that, in countries like America, PWD' skills, unique abilities and hard labour were fully recognised particularly in teaming up with non-disabled workers, and this was evident in satisfying the American industries.

Historically, numerous PWD have been known to have joined, preserved and strengthened the ranks of the United States Labour Force. Literature and archival materials exist where representatives of PWD are acknowledged as productive members of their community's workforce. However, evidence shows that this centrality of truth had not been scientifically gathered. Hence, many untold stories have been left out. PWD, as a minority group, continued to raise the subject matter of their histories, with activists being barred from textbooks with no archives reflecting their careers (Scharrer, 2010). This area needs further research. Documentation confirms some major problems in the Handbook of Disability Studies where selected important information has been omitted.

Visibility of these problems was found to be lacking in the writings about disability history, namely, there is a lack of primary resources. The accessible material is mostly presented from the perspective of the service provider, and the information also does not cover the entire disability spectrum; instead, it is "disability-specific" (Albrecht, 2001). This area clearly needs further research. During the 1900s, maltreatment and perceptions of disability was transformed because most PWD protested and demanded changes like other civil rights movements did before. Various disability groups dating back to the 1800 demonstrated activism. The Disability Rights Movement, reflected in the United States of America in the Disabilities Act (ADA), was also formed in 1990 and had a long history of conducting many events that shaped oppressive laws against PWD.

Currently, the 1990 Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and the subsequent Amendments Act (2008) form the pinnacle of legal achievement regarding PWD in the United States. Awareness of employing PWD was created in the 20th century in the United States. The roots of public awareness originated in the 1900s. In the 1930s, the League of the Physically Handicapped were organised and fought for employment during the Great Depression (Scharrer, 2010). The National Committee for Mental Hygiene was established because of the

horrible conditions in asylums (Meldon, 2017). A National Association for Retarded Citizens was created by President Kennedy in 1970 to de-institutionalise PWD living in institutions.

Charlton (2000) provided powerful criticism of disability oppression, which is entrenched in deprivation, dependency, and powerlessness and which is systematically experienced by five hundred million people worldwide who have physical, sensory, cognitive, or developmental disabilities that demonstrate its resemblance to, and differences from, racism, sexism, and colonialism. The Rehabilitation Act was created in 1973, where funds were pumped in for the creation of wheelchairs. In the 1980s, governments were encouraged to participate in the promotion and support of PWD in mainstream society. Many organisations that fought for their rights were formed in America and, after that, worldwide. People with disabilities still endured oppression despite the Human Rights Laws in place and continued to bear the brunt of a catastrophe with sequels of a never-ending story (Meldon, 2017).

Davies (2016) noted that before industrialisation, PWD were recognised and accepted worldwide differently by society - something which does not happen today. They were also not disqualified by society from contributing economically as they were self-employed and included entrepreneurs such as farmers, weavers, craft workers and steel manufacturers. When industrialisation was established, it brought changes to the lives of PWD. They were no longer seen as needed for the work situation but instead as having abnormal disfigurements. These changes also affected Africa (Oliver & Barnes, 2012). PWD were not only entrepreneurs; most were professional people and shop assistants. These people were no longer needed, so they had to look for employment. This was when their conflict with employers started, as they were not seen as capable.

Today, PWD are bus drivers, teachers, artists, artisans, lawyers, judges, computer technicians and factory workers, but they cannot find jobs due to being stigmatised. If PWD were allowed to show their skills, they could be recognised as productive people who can perform and deliver all the work done by non-disabled people (World Report, 2011). Over a century ago research was initiated and conducted in America on employers' attitudes towards PWD (Unger, 2002). The researchers also extended their research towards employers' attitudes toward mental health patients (Olshanky *et al.*, 1958).

The investigations disclosed that the marginalisation of PWD continued for centuries until World Wars I and II (Scharrer, 2010). The researched literature on employers' attitudes towards employees with disabilities revealed that employers had an attitude towards them worse than towards patients with mental health issues (Olshanky *et al.*, 2016). The research

suggested significant legislative changes concerning topics such as vocational training, rehabilitation and prospective employment for Americans with disabilities. This approach developed a practice of how employers should address employees with disability at the workplace, considering the Civil Rights Movement.

Various societies agreed on moving away from the medical model influences and emphasising a centre-based approach of "fixing" or "curing" PWD based on the current emphasis on competences, high-quality, and workplace provisions in exploiting the work potential of PWD (Unger, 2002).

2.2.2 The historical overview of disability unemployment and employment

This section discusses the historical overview of disability, unemployment and employment. The history of employers and PWD dates back more than half a century to when research on employers towards PWD was initiated in America through studies examining employers' general attitudes (Less *et al.*, 1957). This research extended to their attitudes towards former mental health patients (Olshanky *et al.*, 1991). After details of the research literature on employers' attitudes toward workers with disabilities, details of influences that may affect employers' attitudes towards PWD in the workforce are provided, as well as a description of the methodologies used in the investigations.

The 1900s brought about significant changes in the thinking on legislation regarding the vocational rehabilitation and employment potential of Americans with disabilities, the evolving role of employers in addressing disability in the workplace, and the effect of the civil rights movements. These societal inclinations adopted a shift from a medical model stressing a centre-based approach of "fixing" or "curing" PWD to the present importance of capabilities, choice, and workplace support in maximising the work potential of PWD (Unger, 200).

After World War II, ex-combatants were deployed in various European countries, such as Italy, France, Germany, Britain, the Far East, Japan and China, for vocational and technical training before being engaged in the labour market. China and Italy introduced quotas and offered sheltered employment. Nonetheless, employers and prospective employers, including people with diverse disabilities, were not often keen to use such opportunities. For example, in the UK, the 3% quota was not taken seriously by most employers (Hyde, 1998:201). In 1919, the Australian "Commonwealth's Repatriation Commission" (CRS) also selected ex-combatants with disabilities by sending them for vocational training. Ex-combatants who were disabled military veterans were returned to previous jobs and were re-trained to explore other careers. The trade unions were displeased with such employment decisions, and the United Nations'

intervention was vital in encouraging member states to improve and implement disability employment policies (Macali, 2006: 228). Currently, many employers in the United States perceive PWD as “incapable” (Nelson, n.d.) and believe that a disabling condition renders someone unemployable (University of Pretoria, 2010). The ambiguity in the concept of disability creates much confusion; it is the main reason that PWD are excluded, and why a proper definition of disability is not achieved (ILO, 2015).

The rise in unemployment has been a global phenomenon. Thornton and Lunt (1997) found a steady increase in unemployment in Australia in the late 1980s and early 1990s. Olkin (2002), over a decade later, highlighted a similar situation in the USA, where 66% of the general population of PWD remained unemployed (Olkin, 2002). Russell (2002) suggested that the situation in America persisted for over 40 years as 23 PWD were the last minority grouping to enter the workforce. Social policies in the UK also had a limited impact into the early 2000s. Barnes and Mercer (2005: 533) have explained, “Around 60 per cent of disabled people of working age are not in paid work, with unemployment rates three times higher than for their non-disabled counterparts.”

Unemployment has remained a major concern for PWD as it constrains their ability to afford their assistive devices and technology required to seek and secure employment, which, in turn, creates a continuous and vicious cycle of involuntary exclusion from the workplace (Huang *et al.*, 2016; Olkin, 2002). The value of work for PWD extends beyond financial security. It contributes positively to their social, civic and psychological well-being (Eklund & Sandlund, 2016; Schur, 2002). Being part of a working community gives all people a true sense of purpose and membership in the community (Mintz, 1996; Moore, 2005; Solomon, 1992). The debate about whether unemployment is voluntary or involuntary has been ongoing in South Africa.

What has remained consistent is the need to explain this phenomenon in a developing country like South Africa. While exploring the nature of unemployment in South Africa, Kingdom and Knight (2004) found little support for the notion that unemployed people choose to be unemployed. Their findings suggested that unemployed people are worse off and less satisfied with their quality of life and that the increased rate of unemployment results from various barriers to entering informal employment. This has not been an uncommon phenomenon among other African countries.

2.3 Acceptance of Disability in Africa

This section discusses how disability was interpreted and accepted in Africa. Berghs (2017) noted that in Africa, there is an array of interpretations of “disability” from illustrations found in oral history, music, dance, ritual, (secret) societal performances of various cultural groups, and the colonial and post-colonial histories of medical separation and preventions. These interpretations of disability emerged from differing religions, evangelical and missionary services and their organisations. They were influenced by the dimensions and global standards set by universal organisations such as the WHO as well as how these institutions limit disability to different diseases, illnesses and impairments; the influence of the disability movements that assign various definitions to disability and their support for transnational and national policy agendas linked to human rights, development and now sustainability. Further complications were introduced by the “persons with disabilities” definition sustained by the United Nations (UN) and cherished in legislation in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) and how that becomes interpreted nationally. Lastly, all of these factors have been implicated bureaucratically in the apparatus of the state; the theories and models of disability that international organisations, civil societies and non-governmental organisations are working with; how radio, TV and social media have an impact on disability; and how everyday popular culture, music and the arts define them (Berghs, 2017)

Furthermore, the concept of disability has been examined from various cultural viewpoints across the African continent. In each and every culture, disability is perceived differently, and as such, observations shape the kind of services rendered (Eskay *et al.*, 2012). A study conducted in Nigeria in 2012 on the concept of disability confirmed the European concept of no special education programmes. The authors noted that the idea of special education and schools was a Western phenomenon and a concept in Nigeria. The concept of disability expanded African knowledge and dynamic forces that surround the concept of culture and disability. It came to be realised that individual perceptions and languages show a significant role in the understanding of who Africans are as people and as a culture. Wright stated, “Language is not merely an instrument or voicing ideas, but also plays a role in shaping ideas by guiding the experience of those who use it” (Wright, 1960, as cited in Eskay *et al.*, 2012). Stark (2009) maintains that the concept of disability is culturally constructed based on an “idyllic” or “social norm” that has been created from an assumption. He says these social norms are created by powerful people in society. These powerful people have authority over others and believe that others should be equivalent to their own social self-identity. Disability is seen to differ in meaning compared to the African concept of disability because African cultures’ view of disability focused mainly on educating children about uniqueness.

Children with special needs were educated with regular children in school for long periods. This model expects everybody to fit into their category and have the same identity. These expectations, however, have not considered that human beings are different regarding their perception of the world, biologically, spiritually and physically. Hence, human beings are different from each other (Stark, 2009). Subsequently, it is important to focus on everyone as a self-defining entity whose abilities are derived from examining their own self-worth without any judgment. It is also worth noting that the history of disability is not well documented for society to understand its origins. It is believed that the history of disability creates a problem in defining the term disability in an explicit way; hence, the term is incomprehensible (Disability in Africa, no date). It is stated that the inadequate literature on disability history is a challenge to students of disability in their attempt to trace the development and information of insights towards PWD (Munyi, 2012).

The fact that the Global North dominates the history of disability means that understanding disability is not shared by writers in the Global South (Mekoosha, 2011). Successively, the influence of an assumed dysfunction in disability is in relation to the environment, and disability is viewed as a social concept and not merely a trait of an individual. At the same time, researchers argue that disability is a highly heterogeneous concept, and searching for a homogeneous definition becomes impossible. In addition, it is argued that PWD are not a homogeneous group, therefore, each case should be judged individually and without bias (ILO, 2011). This contradiction was echoed by “The World Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues” in 2013, which stated that indigenous people reject the concept of disability. The Forum also rejects the word “impaired” that comes from the West, and they explain the word towards indigenous people differently. The Forum perceives impairments as natural and unique personal characteristics instead of a limitation on their functioning and/or capabilities (ILO, 2015). This leads to the concept of incapability, which is a stumbling block to PWD from being employed.

Despite many attempts to define disability in general terms, the question remains concerning what renders an individual disabled and who should belong in this category. For example, if a disability is defined as the dysfunctionality of an individual, how do we classify who, despite a serious impairment, is fully functional? Is the blind computer specialist who is gainfully employed and managed to solve their transport problems, with secure adequate housing and a family still disabled? The common confusion is to equate disability with a medical condition that is one of its causes, whereas the term disability is inaccurate because it's confounded with

impairment. The ambiguity in the concept of disability gives rise to confusion that could be the main reason for the exclusion of disability (ILO, 2011; Geiecker & Momm, 2011).

2.4 The Concept of Disability

This section discusses the significance of the concept of disability among PWD. Disability is a condition and not a disease and is described in many ways since it has no direct explanation. Impairment, which is also a condition and not a disease, is associated with disability and is seen by many as a disability. Impairment may be present from birth or occur during a person's lifetime while their mental state is still sound. Impairment is a condition in which a part of the body or mind is damaged and does not work well. This condition may be cognitive, developmental, intellectual, mental, physical, sensory, or a combination of multiple factors, including hearing and memory loss and visual impairment. Impairment makes it more difficult for a person to do certain activities effectively or interact with the world around them, which results in discrimination occurring around these people (Disability in Africa, no date). According to the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990, "physical impairment is any physiological disorder, condition, cosmetic disfigurement, or anatomical loss affecting one or more of the body systems that substantially limits one or more major life functions, and it can be a long-term condition".

The disability theory claims that the current research on disabilities encourages current researchers to utilise a disability interpretive lens in viewing disabilities as a dimensional difference and not as a fault or imperfection (Cresswell, 2012). However, the theory asserts that disability studies can alter the basic supposition about identity, ideology, language, politics, social oppression, and the body since the notions about the capability, limitations, experiences or needs of PWD are socially constructed. They will carry on changing (Siebers, 2008). Equally, disability researchers have to be morally predestined to apply exclusionary measures pertaining to PWD as insight into their lives that benefit everybody. Though disability studies do not directly influence the study of volunteers, it is believed that this type of investigation and understanding build up a society that values human rights (Cresswell, 2012).

Disability, therefore, does not mean inability (Irish Times, 2006) and disability is not a disease but rather a condition (World Report, 2011). It is widely accepted that being inflicted with a disability makes an individual less capable of performing other duties. Disability is explained in many ways since its definition is not universally applied. Therefore, disability is a contested concept with shifting meanings in different communities (Sim, 1998). Every country and practically every administrative body is engaged with various concepts of disability, which makes the term "disability" very complex and inexplicable as it is not understood (DPSA, 2013;

Kurtner, 2012). In fact, the term disability originates from an instruction used to specify a deviance from the norm and a defect of an individual that society should recognise (ILO, 2011).

The term was used in legal parlance to specify an abnormality from the societal standards that had to estimate the inadequacy of an individual. In most dialects, the equivalent terms used to that of disability comprise the ideas of limited value, limited ability, and a state of being restricted, deprived, and deviant. Hence, disability is linked with the concept that the disability is understood and exclusively regarded as a problem to the affected individuals (Geiecker & Momm, 2011). The problems indicated by the presence of a disability are considered to be more or less common situations. Incapacitating conditions in PWD may affect them to variable degrees of their personal lives, including relationships with families, friends and the community.

PWD may experience a disability bias, as they see a negative impact on how life is systematised against them. Nonetheless, the meaning and impression of disability change depend on the environment and the community's attitudes, whether to accommodate a disability or not (Geiecker & Momm, 2011). The common view is that having a disability makes an individual less capable of performing various activities. For example, in one context, the person who uses a wheelchair can be in a state of complete dependency, while in another context, the person could be independent and working as any other person. Hence, the definition of disability remains unclear within the practice that regards disability as a deviation from the norm, without considering all other individuals and societal factors that are composed of and constitute the phenomenon of disability (Geiecker & Momm, 2011).

2.4.1 The concept of incapability

This section discusses the significance of the concept of incapability among PWD. Davies (2016) contends that society tends to focus on the disfigured body rather than on the person as a human being. This focus creates a concept of normalcy that generates the social problem of incapacitation or disablement. "Normality is a 'European concept', which means regularity, and is viewed as a disabling factor which came with industrialisation, where the disfigurement of the body was seen and interpreted differently to that of a so-called 'normal body'. Currently, disability studies are limited in sociology" (Oliver & Barnes, 2012). This becomes evident in South Africa when it comes to disability studies in the sociology discipline (Pitso & Magubane, 2014; Turner *et al.*, 2017), and this needs further research. Despite the depth of this problem, scientific information and awareness regarding disability matters are lacking in the literature in the world (World Report, 2011).

Paid work is a crucial aspect of culture and identity worldwide, with most individuals planning and organising their lives around employment. Employment assists in defining an individual's status in the community. Hence, an individual must be employed to gain dignity and respect (Gottlieb *et al.*, 2010). There are damaging societal insights regarding PWD in society, as society perceives PWD to be sickly, inactive and have less ability. Therefore, they cannot perform a task or do a job independently. As such, it is unthinkable that PWD can do things for themselves. There is little visibility of the view that having a disability does not mean a disabled person is incapacitated to perform a duty (Irish Times, 2006); it only means that an individual with a disability experiences certain limitations or challenges. For example, a person's ability is having the resources to perform a given task well.

Many people do not understand the benefits that ability and disability diversity can bring to a workplace; some are even hostile and rude to those with disabilities (Kozan, 2019). Therefore, classes or workshops should be provided in workplace sensitivity training to help other workers engage with PWD. This training can make employers understand and appreciate the disabilities of others. Some studies have shown that the diversity of employees leads to greater job satisfaction and greater productivity within a workplace. Workplace diversity is defined as understanding, accepting, and valuing differences between people of different races, ethnicities, genders, ages, religions, disabilities, and sexual orientations, as well as differences in personalities, skill sets, experiences, and knowledge bases (Kozan, 2019).

Some employers do not have the insight that all humankind has strengths and weaknesses, including PWD, who must be tested before commencing their duties to avoid labelling. Employers' limitations are based on their inability to understand what disability is all about. Hence, they have no confidence in their abilities even if the person is qualified (Stats SA, 2014). Due to negative perceptions, PWD lose confidence in themselves. Employers' perceptions are also reinforced by the Department of Labour, which requires a person with a disability to develop into a well-adjusted, productive worker in an atmosphere of acceptance, cooperation, and goodwill. It was revealed in the 2011 Census that only about 19% of persons with impairments were employed compared to 35% of PWD.

Consequently, training employers on disability through workshops is crucial (Stats SA, 2014). Davies (2016) notes that before industrialisation, PWD were recognised and accepted worldwide differently by society, which no longer happens nowadays. They were also not disqualified by society from making their contributions economically as they were entrepreneurs, self-employed farmers, weavers, craft workers, and steel manufacturers. When industrialisation was established, it brought changes into their lives as they were no longer

seen as needed for the work situation. These changes also affected Africa (Oliver & Barnes, 2012). Nowadays, most PWD are professional people, shop assistants, bus drivers, teachers, artists, artisans, lawyers, judges, computer technicians, and factory workers, but they cannot find jobs due to stigma. If PWD could be given a chance to show their skills, they could be recognised as productive people who can perform and deliver all the work done by non-disabled people (World Report, 2011).

Historically, PWD and other vulnerable groups have been used for research as participants. They were a convenient group for this purpose, and furthermore, this research was aligned with “medical progress”. Many researchers raised serious questions about this practice as it involves human beings. Ethics in conducting medical research has not been a priority for many years, as ethical concerns focused on treating vulnerable populations without informed consent. More recent advances and improved communication benefits have highlighted previous unjustified hardships when using PWD as “subjects” of research. However, during the 19th and 20th centuries, with better dissemination of information and more communication and technology, particularly in the early 21st century, there has been a new dawn in research, where some concerns were raised that specific ethical practices should be performed when conducting research involving PWD (Bryen, 2016).

2.4.2 The concept of socio-economy

This section discusses the significance of the concept of socio-economy among PWD. Socio-economic factors among PWD are perceived to be creating inequality and poverty remains for decades and finally, have led to the grim estimated statistics. Economic studies have contributed significantly to the understanding of many disability issues. However, no methodical economic investigations have been conducted into the problem disability presents. The absence of data has been the main reason for many problems mentioned earlier and discussed at length (Mitra, 2013). Social statistics were also used to compare data before and after a policy intervention. For example, statistics are needed to measure inequality and poverty before intervention to assess the impact and costs of a policy providing financial support to families living in poverty.

Statistics can also be useful in a study of longstanding unemployment that is grounded around qualitative interviews, as it can be strengthened by a quantitative summary of the patterns and length of unemployment at the local, national and international levels and how these patterns have changed over time (The United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), 2015). Hence, it is important to include some material on the economics of disability to understand the larger context of disability programmes and other problems associated with the disability economy.

The life of an unemployed person with a disability in South Africa is surrounded by inaccessibility to everything that causes expenditures, particularly on health, transport, food, family maintenance and caregivers and many more, in addition to the actual disability. The reasons behind this inaccessibility are presented by public perception of PWD that is suggestive of them as incapable of making a meaningful contribution to society. Hence, PWD are physically excluded from meaningful public spaces (Gavu, Tudzi, & Shani, 2015: 6).

Despite PWD not always having proper accommodation, they have extra costs on medicines and transport and are deprived of assistive devices such as hearing aids, glasses, sticks, wheelchairs, special diets (due to allergies), extra clothing, extra hearing, accompaniment, special beds, guide dogs, readers for the blind, incontinence pads, breathing apparatuses and the like (Hannas-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). PWD must also pay for caregivers and alterations to their homes or personal care, repairing wheelchairs, as well as for items such as individualised cars and freezers, which are otherwise considered a luxury for a non-disabled person. PWD must also pay more for some of the basic items. There are many problems they encounter daily that the government should seriously consider alleviating to assist in their predicament (World Report, 2011).

The history of South Africa has had a pronounced effect on the health of its people and the health policy and services of the present day. Before 1994, political, economic, and land restriction policies structured society according to race, gender, and age-based hierarchies, which greatly influenced the organisation of social life, access to basic resources for health, and health services (Coovadia *et al.*, 2019). These include PWD who do not benefit from anything due to exclusion by society. The origins of the dysfunctional education and health systems and the impact of epidemics of communicable diseases can be traced to the unimplemented policies of South Africa from the periods of the country's infamous history of colonial subjugation and apartheid dispossession to the post-apartheid era (Coovadia *et al.*, 2019). Racial and gender discrimination, the migratory labour system, the destruction of family life, income inequalities and extreme violence, and lately, corruption have all formed part of South Africa's ongoing distressing history that affected the health and health services, education, the blacks and particularly PWD and the poor economically. The health system, after 1994, has been faced with enormous challenges that continue even to date, which greatly affected PWD. The PWD struggled to get medication and assistive devices (Nhlapho, 2020). "Our country requires an economy that can meet the needs of all economic citizens – our people and their enterprises in a sustainable manner. This will only be possible if our economy builds on the full potential of all persons and communities across the length and breadth of this country" (Nhlapho, 2020).

2.4.3 Statistics on people living with disabilities in the world.

This section discusses the importance of data collection before embarking on a study concerning disabilities. The importance of data is crucial to PWD to develop policies and programmes to accomplish global development objectives that have been agreed to for implementing the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD). Therefore, countries need to clearly comprehend the conditions of PWD and the nature of their involvement with the barriers they face. To ensure those policies and programmes are correctly implemented, their outcomes must be efficiently observed and assessed. Such activities need well-timed, high-quality data on PWD, and the environmental barriers faced. Furthermore, the collection and dissemination of data on disability provide information on the operation of the population and the differences in opportunities and existing provisions of services for PWD (United Nations, 2015). Geiecker and Momm (2011) noted that, unlike gender and age, disability is not an easily definable statistical variable, but it is a contextual term open to interpretation. Therefore, disability data can only offer approximations and should be treated carefully. The decision has to be made judiciously regarding who can be counted as disabled or having a disability, which is only possible in a system that applies to specific criteria that clarify who is sufficiently impaired to be counted as disabled. This question's struggle is based on comparing systems or countries that apply different criteria.

Mitra (2013:178) observed that seven years after the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities was approved, disability data collection and monitoring apparatuses had not yet been published in the international development and global health. Therefore, the lack of data collection and monitoring mechanisms for PWD is still impossible to resolve internationally. The inconspicuousness of PWD in the mainstream development narrative increased interventions that inadvertently left out PWD from their target groups (Al Ju'beh, 2015:50; Bruijn *et al.*, 2012:20). This means the absence of data for disabilities may make policymakers and practitioners set disability aside (Groce *et al.*, 2011:1501). Mitra *et al.* (2013:1) maintain that the absence of disability data from their target group has given a false impression that PWD are a tiny group set aside for consideration by rehabilitation professionals and outside the scope of development studies. Disabilities is a very multifaceted issue, which is difficult to measure. Furthermore, no a gold standard measure exists as different methods are utilised for diverse purposes, while the usage of distinct procedures in different countries makes a global comparison of prevalence or outcomes problematic (Madans *et al.*, 2011: 3; Mitra, 2013:178; Wissenbach, 2014:4). Often the concept of data suggests information that has been through processing and having a structure. However, many examples of new types of data have very different and often unstructured formats; for example, millions of tweets or thousands of PDFs

of public documents. Huge quantities of data on people's organisations and social groups are collected worldwide daily. Social statisticians must analyse and make sense of the huge volumes and data sources using hypothesis-driven social research (The United Nations Statistics Division [UNSD], 2015). However, evidence shows that it is not easy to determine or estimate the numbers of PWD in the world, Africa and SADEC countries, including South Africa, mainly because of the absence of awareness about certain types of disabilities – primarily learning disabilities, invisible disabilities, the stigma that is from time to time linked with disability, and the indistinguishable disabilities that exist between chronic illness and disability, mainly concerning the disability grant in South Africa (Kelly, 2019). Moreover, the problem with data in South Africa concerns the families of disabled persons when it comes to investigating the amount of income spent on their families (Stats SA, 2014).

Hence, it is often problematic to find out the statistics for PWD. It has been pointed out that “large differences in disability statistics are currently observed internationally due to a lack of consistency in what is being measured as ‘disability. Nevertheless, estimates suggest that globally between 10% and 12% of the population is currently living with a disability” (Schneider *et al.*, 2009). The United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD). The current evidence shows that internationally, the estimated number of people living with some form of disability is one billion, with approximately 190 million living with severe disabilities (World Health Organization [WHO], 2011). In South Africa, approximately 10% of the population live with a disability (Stats SA, 2011), although there have been variations in the records showing prevalence (Maart *et al.*, 2007; Schneider, 2009; Sing, 2012). Persons with disabilities represent a fair portion of the world population, and they form “a diverse group who share the experience of living with significant limitations in functioning and, as a result, often experience exclusion from full participation in their communities” (Krahn *et al.*, 2015:198).

This social exclusion creates painful experiences that have short- and long-term detrimental effects on the well-being of affected individuals (Delbosc & Currie, 2011; Klompas & Ross, 2004; Krahn *et al.*, 2015; Tobias & Mukhopadhyay, 2017). It is, therefore, helpful to understand the experiences of persons with disabilities in their attempt for inclusion in all spheres of their societies (Hammel *et al.*, 2015). This understanding will align with the World Bank's goal of building partnerships with the world's leading disability groups to advance social and economic inclusion (World Bank, 2016). Most Africans living with disabilities are excluded from schools and are deprived of opportunities for employment. The unemployment rate for PWD in Africa is estimated at 40% (60-80 million), but this estimation could possibly be as high as 20% in poverty-stricken regions (Disability in Africa, no date). Ngwena *et al.* (2014) argue that Africa could have about 300 million PWD.

The UNSD also estimates that 400 million people are living with disabilities in developing countries, of which 80 million live in Africa. Africa's population with a disability includes 10-15% of pre-school children. It is estimated that in developing countries, 80%-90% of working-age PWD are unemployed (The Health Economics and HIV/AIDS Research Division, [HEARD]; 2012). These percentages contradict sharply with the percentages in the industrialised countries, which are between 30% and 70% (ILO, 2015). The unemployment rate of PWD is estimated in most developed countries to be twice that of persons without any disabilities (UN Enable, 2011; (HEARD): Policy Brief, 2012). Research revealed that a huge number of PWD are believed to be living in low- and middle-income countries that also bear the burden of global poverty. Even though PWD constitute 10% globally, this figure tends to vary from country to country.

Although data is a problem worldwide, the percentage of those PWD not working is estimated to be 90%. We must remember that some countries have trouble collecting data for PWD. This makes it difficult for researchers to know exactly the number of those not working (Disability News Africa, 2016). Furthermore, the South African data and other literature propose that people with slight or invisible disabilities are being omitted from disability benefit schemes, and their families are surrendering their own employment and salary prospects because they must care for these members due to a lack of state care and support (Hannas-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). It has been suggested that mainstream and disability-focused research has a key role in describing these opportunities and out-of-pocket costs for this part of the population. Researchers should also develop improved evidence on how to strategise disability-inclusive social protection mechanisms practicable for countries such as South Africa. For South Africa, the future still looks bleak for the adjustment of the present social protection mechanisms to address disability-related economic vulnerability. Data and research that can inform this process are still being developed in the country (Hannas-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017).

2.4.4 The problem with statistical registration

This section highlights the issues that have arisen during the registration of PWD. Because there is no uniform definition of disability, almost every administrative agency in every nation employs a variety of disability ideas. Every statistical effort to evaluate disability must consider that disability is system-dependent and, hence, a relative notion. As a result, most regular statistics only contain information about the recipients of a particular state or public programme incorporating handicap status per the law's aim. As a result, people who feel themselves impaired and manage their impairment alone are seldom included in official statistics. Most PWD avoid statistical registration in nations such as the United Kingdom (UK) and the United

States of America (USA). Their freedom not to be registered as handicapped is consistent with human dignity values (Disability Rights in sub-Saharan Africa [Sida], 2015). Therefore, they are missing from the labour market statistics and are not protected by employment legislation. Even the unemployment percentage may not give a precise rate since not all PWD are actually in search of work (United Nations, 2011). Intermittently, some efforts are undertaken to define the total number of PWD through surveys and censuses. Groce *et al.* (2011) noted that to enquire for statistics concerning incapacity meant the legislature and experts were presumably trying to brush off or repudiate disability. This gives a false impression that PWD are a “very small group, reserved for the specialist attention of health or rehabilitation professionals and beyond the scope of development studies” (Mitra *et al.*, 2013:1).

As previously stated, conflicts within conceptual limitations diminish the comparability of such data between nations, making comparisons almost impossible. Above all, the question of what such surveys are supposed to establish is contentious, since the concept of disability as an objective collection of results that is equally applied and understood in all nations cannot be upheld. As a result, a low number of statistically reported PWD in certain nations may not always represent objective reality. This issue occurs because the nations in question are likely to provide less services and legal laws in favour of people with disabilities.

In contrast, such social protection and rehabilitation systems are likely to house a significant proportion of PWD (Geiecker & Momm, 2011). Because disability measurement depends on a structure or organisation, it is a comparative rather than an absolute concept (ILO, 2015). It is hard to find the number of PWD registered in almost any country from the raw data consisting of individual pieces of information recorded and used for analysis in the form of raw information from which to create statistics. The specific data on PWD’ employment situation is even harder to find. This makes reliable statistics impossible to get for data analysis, interpretation and presentation. Yet, PWD face the same predicament everywhere. This data is often culled from the media and reporters would often provide an unreliable picture of the current situation (Schneider *et al.*, 2009).

Since there is no universal definition of disability, organisations in different countries use different definitions of disability. Every attempt to quantify disability should consider that disability depends on the system and is a comparative concept. However, much of the recorded and consistent statistics only cover material concerning beneficiaries and state provisions that include the status of disability in agreement with the law’s intention. Therefore, individuals who perceive that they can manage their disability unaided refuse to be counted and recorded in statistics. Research confirmed that people who evade statistical registration

are found in the UK and the US. It is within their right not to register as disabled people for statistical purposes and it is also in agreement with the law of human rights dignity (Sida, 2015).

Intermittently, some attempts have been made to define the overall number of PWD using surveys and information gathering(ILO, 2015)..

Groce *et al.* (2011) noted that the challenges with requisitioning data for disability allow practitioners and policymakers to ignore the question of disability and put it away for some time. Mitra *et al.* (2013) noted that this creates the notion that PWD make up a “very small group, reserved for the specialist attention of health or rehabilitation professionals and beyond the scope of development studies”, giving a false impression.(Geiecker & Momm, 2011). The argument brought forward by Geiecker & Momm, (2011) concurs with the statement made by the World Forum for Indigenous Persons with Disabilities that data collected by the World Bank is incomplete as it does not reveal a true reflection of disabilities. The fact is that disability is system-dependent, which means that it is a relative rather than an absolute concept. reports, provide an unreliable picture of the current situation (Schneider *et al.*, 2009).

Table 2.1: Statistics of PWD living on the poverty line

Country	Prevalence (%)	Number	Country	Prevalence (%)	Number
DRC	11%	7.4 million	Somalia	15%	1.5 million
Ethiopia	17.6%	16.5 million	Sudan and South Sudan	5%-15%	1.9-5.7 million 0.6-1.7 million
Kenya	8.6 %	3.8 million	Tanzania	7.8%	3.8 million
Liberia	16%	0.8 million	Uganda	16%	6 million
Mali	8.9% -11.7%	1.4-1.8 million	Zambia	13,3%	1.9 million
Mozambique	6%-15%	1.5-3.8 million	Zimbabwe	11%	1.5 million
Rwanda	5%-15%	0.5-1.7 million	Total		50-58 million

Source: Sida (2015).

The table above shows that one in five people living in the world's poorest countries is a person with a disability. Therefore, every effort applied to measure disability statistically has been considered. The Indigenous World Forum cautions against the "guesstimate" data from the Global North and argues that it may not correctly represent some countries where the prevalence of disability among indigenous people with disability tends to be higher than across the non-indigenous populations. This difference is due to severe poverty, exposure to violence and social economy statistics regarding indigenous people. Indigenous PWD are likely represented incompletely and statistics about them are difficult to find, both domestically and internationally, and inadequately captured in official data such as censuses and governments (Geiecker & Momm, 2011). The occurrence of the statistics estimation in sub-Saharan Africa ranges from 5%-17.6%, with an estimation of 82% for PWD living below the poverty line.

2.5 Theoretical Framework

2.5.1 Introduction

This section discusses the symbolic interactionist (SI) theory underpinning this study and its relevance to the study. The theoretical framework of this research paper creates a blueprint and gives an outline of the research question and its vital rudiments. The framework expands and justifies the study to unearth arrangements of the findings in the field. This approach was followed to enter the scientific debate, defining the knowledge gaps leading to future research questions (Bryman, 2012:9). The theoretical framework of this research is vital because it plans to be a guiding structure for the study and associate with researchers in making decisions. This theory forms a lens with which to structure the study by guiding research writings, including academic deliberations and conclusions. The SI theory is a social psychological theory traced back from Marx Weber's declaration that people's actions are based on their understanding of the connotation of the world around them. The theory originated from various influences in mid-20th century, including the Scottish Moralists and American Pragmatists. The fathers of the SI perspective were Charles Horton Cooley, Charles Sanders Pierce, John Dewey, William James, George Herbert Mead, Erving Goffman, Herbert Blumer and WI Thomas (Crossman, 2015).

Symbolic interactionist (SI) theory shows how researchers define their studies philosophically, epistemologically, methodology and analytically through the guidance of the relevant concept as a basis for suggestions and for making choices for research methods (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Various academics and theoreticians supported the notion of an emblematic interaction concept, making it one of the most used theories, but the main influence came from the American philosophers George Herbert Mead (1934) and Charles Horton Cooley, who invented this concept and stressed its importance. They noted that this theory is about the relationship between self and others. Mead had the profound insight that a person's concept of self comes through engagement with others (social interaction and society), while societies evolve from interaction among selves. He thinks that neither the ego nor society can live apart from one another (Redmond, 2015). The theorist who developed the idea was Mead, but most theoreticians were later inspired by Herbert Blumer (1969) a scholar and Mead's product. Blumer was strongly influenced by John Dewey and he invented the word "into three premises", meaning, language and thought.

2.5.2 Significance of theoretical outline of the study – SI theory

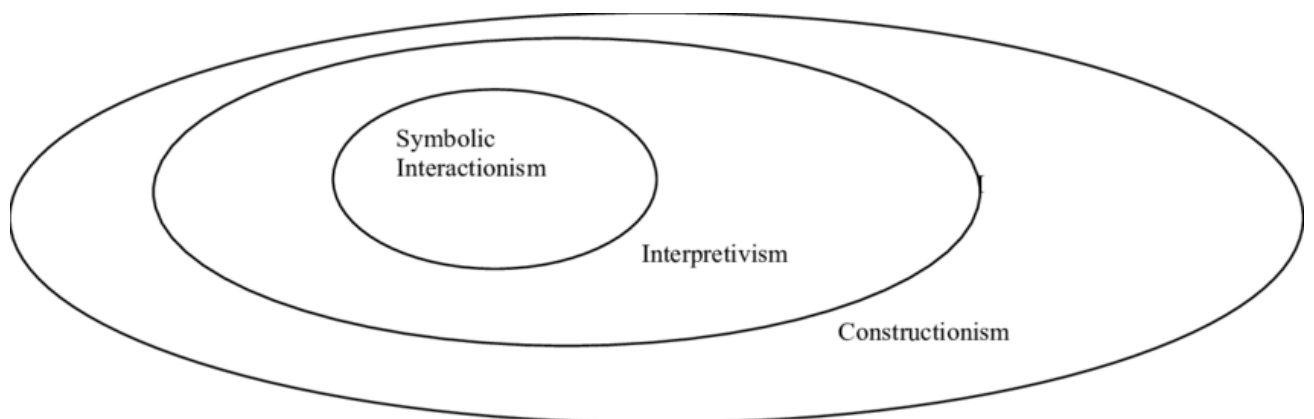
This section addresses the theoretical framework's significance as well as theories related to it, such as interpretivism and constructionism. A theoretical framework enables the reader to

contextualise the research (i.e., the realm of knowledge). As a result, the theoretical framework for this study should include all of the relevant knowledge components that the researcher employs to support the research's objective. As theories explain, predict, and understand phenomena (e.g., connections, occurrences, or behaviour), the theoretical framework plays a significant role in directing the whole course of the research investigation. A theoretical framework enables a researcher to identify the design and assessment of an issue so that the theory may be assessed, evaluated, and expanded to act as a guide for the study's design. An excellent blueprint depicts the subject matter in detail. Similarly, a solid theoretical framework will provide the reader with all the information required to comprehend how the researcher built the study.

The diagram below shows the interrelationships between the three concepts: SI, interpretivism and constructionism.

Figure 2.1 below depicts the theoretical framework scientific diagram and the relationship between SI, interpretivism description methodology and construction.

Figure 2.1: Theoretical framework.



Source: Research Gate 2012

2.5.3 Relevance of the theoretical framework to the study

The theoretical framework connects the researcher to the existing knowledge guided by a relevant theory. For example, the researcher was connected to the existing knowledge of disabilities by SI theory, which was relevant to the study. Frameworks are good in supporting the researcher in finding a research approach, analytical tools, and procedures for the research

inquiry, thus making research findings more meaningful and generalisable (Akintoye, 2015). The framework also identifies the confines of those generalisations that guide a researcher's choice of research design and data analysis plan and further guides the kind of data to be accumulated for the study (Handberg *et al.*, 2015). It provides a structure in showing how a researcher defines their study philosophically, epistemologically, methodology and analytically (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Ravitch and Carl (2015) concur that the theoretical framework assists in positioning and contextualising formal theories into their research as guidance. This framework locates their studies in a scholarly fashion. Furthermore, the theoretical framework focuses the research, and it is connected to the research problem being studied. Therefore, the theoretical framework guides the researcher's choice of research design and a data analysis plan. The framework also directs the kind of data to be gathered for a specific study (Lester, 2005). Consequently, it supports the identification of an appropriate research approach, analytical tools, and procedures for the research inquiry. Imelda (2014) holds that research without the theoretical framework will not benefit from the available, appropriate literature and scholarly discussions of the findings from the research. Systems interactionism is a theory with an impressive track record in investigating the kind of complex social phenomena involved in applied practice problems (Tan & Hall, 2007). For other scholars in the field of inquiry, the theoretical framework proposes a common worldview or lens to support one's thinking about the problem and data analysis (Grant & Oslo, 2014).

2.5.4 Symbolic interactionist theory

The symbolic interactionism (SI) theory is used as the theoretical framework in this thesis. SI theory is a micro-level theoretical and sociological approach that tackles how society is generated and sustained via frequent interactions among people (Carter & Fuller, 2015). Furthermore, the framework corresponds with the qualitative methodology used to gather information about societies, our self-concepts, and our minds (Ravitch & Carl, 2016). The theory was selected because it is a communication theory of human behaviour that focuses on the relationships among individuals within a society. In essence, it is about how the presence of symbols is fundamental to the existence of humanity (Reynolds & Herman-Kinney, 2003). The framework also investigates how people interconnect and interrelate while concentrating on their peripheral natural surroundings with joblessness as a means of collaboration with others. SI is a micro-level theory that emphasises individual relations in society. PWD make sense of their social surroundings through the exchange of meaning via language and symbols through conversation (Crossman, 2017) SI theory in this study was used as a lens through which unemployed black PWD stories of living jobless, poor, and physically disabled can be viewed. This study was informed by the insights existing in this theory on how narrative methods can play a role in understanding human beings as creators

of narratives, which construct their selves. This framework assists in making sense of the ambiguity and complexity of human lives. Narratives empowered PWD by supporting them to reconstruct their experiences, thereby empowering themselves (EROL IS, 2015).

SI is a theory that focuses on individual relationships within a society. Through communication, the interchange of meaning over language and symbols can help PWD make sense of their social worlds (Crossman, 2017).

According to the SI perspective, individuals live together in the ordinary as well as in the emblematic environs. Therefore, SI relations is a procedure that revitalises the shared mutual relations and moralities with the assistance of code awareness. Objects do not have meaning on their own; rather, they get meaning through social actors. As a result, symbolic contact is a "interpretation of the action" process (Aksa *et al.*, 2009).

Using a narrative methodology in this study assisted in gaining insights into how PWD perceived and experienced their lives and how these experiences were shaped by their physical conditions. Within this framework of SI, PWD (including employers) were expected to socially interact and modify their behaviour in response to the actions of each other as they interpret each other's actions. At the same time, they change their own actions and behaviour (Crossman, 2016). Symbolic interactionism theory is based on meaning as the construction of social reality that plays a central role in culture's creation, maintenance, and transformation. Therefore, the theory guides this study in constructing PWD stories into social reality. The concept of meaning suggests that SI is a construction of people's social reality, as it implies that from a realistic point of view, the interpretations being made will not make much difference (Crossman, 2017). Consequently, the theoretical framework delivers an understanding of PWD' behaviours and views where the researcher provides descriptions of processes of human interaction. Meaning is central to human behaviour because humans act toward people and things based on the meaning they have attributed to those people or things. Language gives humans a means by which to negotiate meaning through symbols. The thought implies the interpretations that people have assigned to the symbols. The interactionists describe thinking as an inner conversation. Central to symbolic interactionist thought is the idea that individuals use language and significant symbols in their communication with others.

Thought modifies the interpretation of these symbols, using language in conversations and discussions (Handberg *et al.*, 2015). Hence, Punkett (n.d.) stated, "SI is the way we learn to interpret and [assign] meaning to the world through our interactions with others". Therefore, SI analyses society by the expressed meanings people have given to objects, events and

behaviours. The behavioural pattern of the people is created on these eloquent meanings because people behave according to their expressive beliefs rather than unbiased facts. These descriptive beliefs and meanings are interpretations assumed by the people; thus, the theory suggests that society is based on the interpretations of the people. The people interpret each other's behaviours, and a social bond is thus formed, which is grounded on this interpretation. These explanations are often called "definition of the situation" because they just define the situations. This theory stipulates how humans develop a difficult set of symbols that give meaning to the world from their viewpoint. The connections with society shape the meanings and these interrelations are subjectively interpreted to suit the meaning according to the existing symbols. It can be said that if we need to understand the behavioural patterns of society, we must understand the existing symbols. The interactions that moulded the symbols also create a social structure. The SI also articulates that individuals build a sense of self-identity through these interactions with society.

2.6 Interpretivism Theory

2.6.1 Overview of interpretivism theory

This section discusses the interpretive theory with relevance to SI theory. Interpretive research theory was developed in the 19th century, long before the invention of positivist techniques. It studies human actions by transmission connotation to definite activities. Interpretivism is a sociological mode of exploration in which an occurrence is examined on the basis of the beliefs, norms, and values of the culture of the society where it occurs. It is a qualitative technique utilised to analyse data concerning human activities in sociology. The term "interpretivism" refers to the philosophical study of knowledge theories that reveal how researchers understand the world, which depends on and counts on interpretations and sympathetic meanings committed to PWD and their engagements. The theory is a sociological approach that emphasises the need to understand or interpret social actors' ideas, goals, and reasoning to comprehend social reality (Crossman, 2019). Qualitative data is data that is not articulated by using numerical numbers; instead, it is typically conveyed through words, frequently using skilful vocabulary. In positivist investigations, the researcher's participation is confined to data gathering and objective interpretation (Scouse, 2020).

The interpretivism approach emphasises the social nature of reality and claims that current research on disabilities inspires current researchers to use a disability interpretive lens in viewing disabilities as a dimensional difference rather than a liability or imperfection. However, the theory asserts that disability studies can alter basic assumptions about uniqueness, thought, language, politics, social oppression, and the body because perceptions of PWDs'

capability, limitations, experiences, or needs are socially constructed and constantly changing (Siebers, 2008). Similarly, disability researchers must be ethically obligated to use exclusionary measures for PWD as insight into their life's advantages. Although disability studies have no direct impact on volunteer research, this form of examination and knowledge helps establish a society prioritising human rights (Cresswell, 2012). Max Weber's interpretative sociological method emphasises the relevance of meaning and action while investigating common patterns and issues. This method differs from positivist sociology in that it recognises that people's subjective experiences, opinions, and behaviour are just as relevant to the research as observable, objective facts. Interpretivists, often known as anti-positivists in sociology, contend that people are not just puppets who respond to external social factors, as positivists think. Interpretivists contend that the study of human society must incorporate subjective ideas, opinions, feelings, and values that cannot be directly seen and tallied in addition to factual and ostensibly objective information. As a result, the relationship between symbolic interactionist theory and interpretive description methodology is founded on the connection between symbolic interactionism and interpretivist explanations, which agree in making symbolic interactionism an exceptional theoretical framework for interpretive description studies. Both notions are related to SI theory since they reject the natural sciences method of data collecting, such as interviews and observations, while secondary data research is popular with interpretivism philosophy as well. Both the theory and the practice are so closely related that symbolic interactionism seems to be part of the epistemological underpinnings of interpretative description.

Much of the data on which "scientific sociology" (positivism) is based are socially produced, according to interpretivists. In a nutshell, interpretative methods research is founded on beliefs, ideas, or discourses (Scauso, 2021). Meaning is fundamental to SI theory in the sense that humans behave toward people and things based on the meanings that they have ascribed to those people and things, while interpretivism theory is founded on interpretations or understandings of the meanings that humans and their actions ascribe. These meanings and actions affect actions, institutions, and society, even though meanings under this theory may be understood in a variety of ways.

Therefore, interactions in SI theory, including explanatory narrative methods, are created and linked between SI and interpretivist explanations, blending into a unique exceptional framework of informative and descriptive studies. Both concepts relate to SI theory as they natural sciences' statistical approach for gathering information. For example, interviews and observations, although they are subordinate data, are commonly acknowledged within

interpretivist and SI viewpoints, as they are attuned to each other. Much SI interpretations share of knowledge practicalities of interpretive theory with interpretive explanations.

2.6.2 Relevance of interpretivism theory to SI the theory

Scholars challenging the monopoly of positivist techniques in the social sciences started to advocate interpretative alternatives in the 1980s, sparking conversations about methodological pluralism and permitting a gradual and sometimes resisted dissemination of theoretical variety. Within this setting, the term "interpretivism" came to denote meaning-centred research that challenged positivist concepts like truth correspondence, objectivity, generalization, and the linear process of inquiry (Scause, 2001). Interpretivism theory, as a method of sociology, emphasises a prerequisite to comprehend or be able to construe opinions, causes, and details for societal performers to know societal realism. The public has a perception of not understanding PLDWs beliefs, emotions, and motives. The public's perception of them is that of living below the standards of society. The universal agreement in many nations was to enhance their circumstances to provide a better quality of life, and this viewpoint was accepted and became a sanctioned agenda through laws such as the Discrimination Act, that should be passed to offer PWD equality for all (Van Campen & Ledema, 2007). PWD, as social actors, understand the social reality of their plight through their experiences and narratives during their interaction, namely that their problems are typical of South African township life. The township life provides common experiences such as unemployment, poverty, very large populations and concentrated housing, poor infrastructure, air and water pollution, corrugated roofs, gravel roads/streets, few open spaces and a high rate of crime (Faber-van Zyl, 1961:170).

PWD rejected the option of a low-quality life (LQO) as it is not based on reality more than it is about the denial of employment. However, some answers are needed for interpretive sociology on the assertion of realism, including the understanding that the concept of PWD are culturally constructed. As a result, responses to the interpretivist argument that reality and our knowledge of it are social products incapable of being understood apart from social actors (including academics) who create and make sense of that reality are required (Klein & Meyers 1999). The knowledge of PWD that the law EEA 1955 of 1998 is unimplemented is a social product of realism; as a result, it cannot be grasped independently by PWD and researchers who can conceptualise it to make sense of that reality. An interpretivist approach, like symbolic interactionism, uses qualitative ways to understand people rather than measuring them. Interpretivism seeks to capture reality via interaction as well. It does not, however, exclude quantitative procedures. As a result, qualitative research is a mode of inquiry employed in social science and related areas (Thorne, 2018). Both theories are founded on world

knowledge, which is based on interpreting or comprehending the meanings associated with persons and their activities.

Though meaning is central to SI theory, the interpretivism approach relies on the interpretations or understanding of meanings attached to humans and their actions that shape actions, institutions and society. Meanings in this theory can be understood in different ways as it is connected to the metaphysical location of realism, including a collection of varied methods that incorporate social construction methods. The later approaches oppose the opinion that meaning exists in the world independent from cognisance (Bevir, 2002). Therefore, the interpretivism method is created based on a realistic approach to statistics from consultations and annotations. Subordinate statistical material is commonly used to support philosophical interpretation and clarifications. In this study, connotations usually surfaced on completion of the investigation. The practice that underpins interpretative description encourages researchers to localise the approach within this cross-disciplinary framework. It expands its ability to handle practice (repetitions) and difficulties across applicable fields (Handberg *et al.* 2015).

The primary downsides of interpretivism stem from the approach's subjective character and the researcher's high potential for bias. Because human opinions and beliefs frequently influence data, primary data obtained in interpretivist research cannot be generalised. As a result, data reliability and representativeness are at risk to some level. On the plus side, by embracing interpretivism, qualitative research topics such as cross-cultural variations in organisations, questions of ethics, leadership, and the study of variables influencing leadership, among others, may be investigated in great detail. Primary data obtained via interpretivism research may have a high degree of validity since the data in such studies is trustworthy and honest.

2.7 Constructionism Theory

2.7.1 Overview of interpretivism theory

This section discusses the social constructionism theory of knowledge with relevance to the SI perspective. The founders of this theory were Karl Max Anthony Giddens, Erving Goffman, Charles Cooley, Michael Foucault, George Hebert Mead and many more. Max Scherer had a great influence as he created the sociology of knowledge, which influenced social construction theory. Constructionism theory entered the sociological vocabulary through Pieter Berger and Thomas Blackman (Bunningham & Cooper, 1999). "Social constructionism refers to a theory in the social sciences. This theory describes how individual humans work together to produce

sense through society. It is considered one of the main theories existing” (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). The framework was developed by Vygotsky, a cognitivist, in 1978. The framework is concerned with how knowledge is historically situated and embedded in cultural values and practices. It is a philosophical movement that promotes an alternative philosophical assumption about realism, construction, and knowledge generation (Turner, 1991:22-23).

According to this viewpoint, meanings are socially formed by providing individuals directives in their interactions. The importance of social constructionism is that it focuses on how people and groups construct their perceived social reality. It investigates how people generate, institutionalise, know, and pass along social phenomena. SI, on the other hand, is often identified and linked with social structure. This notion implies that SI is a social reality fabrication. The terms "self" and "self-identity" are examples of social constructs. The literature, for example, demonstrates that PWD are formed by society as a theory of knowing. According to this view of knowing, conceptions are often thought to be unchangeable and exclusively biological. Gender, race, class, and sexuality are creations of human definition and interpretation affected by cultural and historical settings. (Subramaniam, 2010).

As a result, social constructionism emphasises how cultural categories such as "men", "women", "black", and "white" are generated, modified, and reproduced via historical processes within institutions and society. The social constructionist viewpoint concerns the meaning established in cultural settings by defining and categorising groups of people's experiences and reality. Social constructionism is a metaphysical theory that focuses on comprehending and addressing social change in postmodern society in general, especially in organisations (Gergen, 1994; Hosking & McNamee, 2006). Burningham and Cooper (1999) agreed on the distinction between contextual and stringent constructionism. Contextual constructionism acknowledges objective reality and its effect, but relativism holds that there are various realities, all of which are significant. The social constructions that the theory generates might vary depending on society and the events of the moment.

Constructionism, for example, developed cultural categories such as males, women, white, and black, which are conceptions generated and duplicated via historical processes inside institutions and society. It also physiologically classifies humans. Gender, colour, class, ability, and sexuality are a few examples (Sabramaniam, 2010). Today, PWD suffer from gender disparities, exclusion, marginalisation and discrimination due to discrimination and interpretations shaped by cultural bias. For instance, PWD, when looking for jobs, are categorised through their disability and inability, whether they are employable or not, and whether they can finish or manage a task within a limited time. Women were further

categorised by their womanhood and race based on income, while men with disabilities were specifically categorised based on race, gender, and disability (Sabramaniam, 2010). Furthermore, PWD in South Africa were categorised according to social grant system as “disabled” if their functional limitations make them unfit for work. This occurs whether they are on a temporary or permanent social grant service. People living with HIV or other chronic illnesses are not necessarily recognised or identified as disabled. Poverty is severe to most of these people as they are unemployed and are subject to unclear policy directives, and the provision of disability grants that, for some chronically ill people (particularly at the peak of the Aids epidemic in the early 2000s), have blurred these lines (Kelly, 2019).

The foundation of SI theory is that people react to various circumstances according to the situation's meaning for them, from physical things like trees to organisations like the government, which are referred to as symbols. People utilise these instruments to generate meaning by using them as symbols. There are several instances of individuals finding social significance via symbolic engagement, one of which is that many people would not smoke if symbolic interaction did not exist. The diagram of this research refers to the idea of social constructionism as a social psychology notion of SI related to constructionism by Charles Horton Cooley's looking-glass self (1902), which investigates how identity is produced. According to Charles' theory, an individual's identity emerges through interpersonal interactions and the perception of others. As a result, individuals in society form themselves around the viewpoints and opinions of others.

The looking-glass self consists of three major components: first, envisioning how we seem to others; second, imagining how others judge that appearance; and third, forming our identity via these judgements (Rousseau, 2002). For example, due to a lack of socio-economy, a social reality, PWD are seldom visible on the streets engaged in legitimate or large companies. However, some are seen on the streets engaging in minor enterprises such as peddling to generate a little income, especially when combined with the DG. Respondents said that the DG was inadequate to manage their families and that the labour department and SASSA were unavailable for work prospects. The DG was seen as a sign of destitution. Furthermore, these institutions are intended to meet the requirements of PWD to establish stability in society (Crossman, 2016). Time is one of the most fundamental instances of a socially created concept. We collectively define the meaning of time; it has no inherent meaning unless we give it one.

However, as social constructivism introduces alternative theories on the development of human beings, it built itself on social constructs that can differ based on society and the events

surrounding the period. For decades, PWD endured unemployment and lived in poverty. The reason for them being unemployed for decades can be explained better by the time or period constructed by the system which kept them unemployed. The concept of money or currency is another way of structuring society and time since it is universally accepted for its value and made a priority. Money or income is very important in uplifting PWD' lives. Without it, poverty looms, and it can continue from decade to decade. Disability is a strong social construct that relies on the individual's perspective and information, which has not previously existed but is a creation of society (Griffin, 2007). This behaviour is always unsolidified/fluid and dynamic against their will, as it is unsolvable. As a result, it is constantly fluid and dynamic. As a result, it is recognised as a general word that is sometimes used in theories that emphasise the socially constructed character of social existence, since it examines how people's interactions with their society and the environment around them provide meaning to and from the society's reality (Gergen & Gergen, 2012);. Meaning is central to critics as they argue that social constructionism ignores the idea of constructivists and individual thoughts that represent a mirror of reality (Galbin, 2014). Furthermore, the framework corresponds with the qualitative methodology used to gather information about societies, our self-concepts, and our minds.

2.7.2 Relevance of constructionist theory to SI theory

Mead had the significant insight that a person's concept of self comes through engagement with others (social interaction and society), while societies evolve from interaction among selves. He thinks that neither the ego nor society can live apart from one another (Redmond, 2015). Constructionism theory is important to SI theory because it involves a micro-sociological theory that emphasises how meanings and symbols are derived for an individual from interpersonal and social communication in society. Through experiences in social life, the interpretive processes create changes towards symbols held by the meanings and individuals (Blumer, 1969; 1986). Therefore, theories in any research project are important as they deliver networks in the enquiry processes because and they are the foundation that describes appropriate research questions (Asante, 2007:16; Burns, 2008: 5555). This theory is also substantial in the research undertaking since it guides the study and is essential for the research problem. In addition, this theory provides comprehensive reports of various occurrences that are organised by the addition of individual items in the all-encompassing setting (Burns, 2008: 15). At the same time, theories are taken as net casts to catch what we call "the world" (Griffith, 2007). The critics of social constructionism argue that social constructionism ignores the idea of constructivists and individual thoughts that represent a mirror of reality. Furthermore, the framework corresponds with the qualitative methodology used to gather information about societies, our self-concepts, and our minds (Galbin, 2014).

The theory of knowledge highlights the significance of using apparatuses in describing individual progression. The meanings that a person has towards symbols will vary as a result of an interpretive process based on experiences in social life. SI theory on the other hand uses narratives as tools and symbols to explore the experiences of unemployed PWD that give meaning to the world. These symbols are typically aspects of human memory or experience (Bamberg, 2012).

Social constructionism sees language, communication, and speech as central to the interactive process through which the world is understood. Griffin (2012:308) noted, "Communication aimed at maintaining relationships rather than passing along information or saying something new." Wright (1960) stated, "Language is not only an instrument for articulating ideas. It also plays a role in influencing thoughts by giving guidance and experience to those who use it". Griffin (2012:54) illustrated that SI is continuously used for verbal communication and signs in expectation of the reaction from others. However, while this theory is seen as a blend of knowledge and communication, it examines the progress of cooperation created by appreciating the sphere that shapes the shared foundation of assumptions about actuality. Hence, SI is repeatedly connected and associated with the societal arrangement (Turner, 1991:22-23).

According to the social structure notion, symbolic interactionism is a production of people's social reality. Interpersonal communication is defined as the exchange of information between two or more individuals using spoken and nonverbal communication. Symbolic interactionism examines society by conveying the meanings that individuals have assigned to objects, events, and behaviours. Individuals' behavioural patterns are formed based on these eloquent meanings because individuals conduct communication based on their expressive ideas rather than neutral facts. These descriptive views and meanings are people's interpretations. Thus, the idea says that society is built on people's interpretations. According to constructionism theory, meanings are created in collaboration with others rather than independently inside people.

Meaning is fundamental in symbolic interactionism theory, which views language as providing humans with a method to negotiate meanings via symbols, where cognition implies the interpretations, individuals have attributed to the symbols. Symbolic interactionism theory emphasizes making sense of self and social roles, while social constructionism theory focuses on making understanding of the nature and structure of the social world more generally.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the introduction, literature review and theoretical framework underpinning the study. The literature review discussed a short history of PWD, how disability was accepted in Africa, the formation of the Eugenics Movement, the historical summary of disability, unemployment, employment, and the concepts of disability, incapability, and socio-economy. This chapter also explained the estimated statistics on PWD in the world, the stated problem with the statistics, and the need for social services. Finally, the chapter discussed the theoretical framework of the study. The next chapter, Chapter 3, discusses research design and methodology.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.1 Summary

This section discusses detailed qualitative narrative inquiry and research design (Polkinghorne (2014) defines "narrative" as a story relating a sequence of events, either true or false. Wang and Geal (2015:198) noted that "Narrative inquiry is not simply storytelling; it is a method of inquiry that uses storytelling to uncover nuance. Stories heal and soothe the body and spirit, provide hope and courage to explore and grow." Narrative research methodology, including design, guides the study by using data-gathering tools that structure the research (Engel and Schutt, 2013:18-19). As there is limited literature about this study, the qualitative research methodology adopts a qualitative narrative research method as it works with the qualitative research problem (Babbie, 2010:53). Wang and Geal (2015:198) further suggested that narrative researchers are finding other avenues of research in understanding how to present real-life practices using the stories of the research respondents. The narrative approach permits an abundant account of these involvements and investigates connotations that participants descend from their familiarities. Narrative inquiry intensifies opinions that could have continued to be mute (Wang & Geal, 2015). Narrative research consists of various combinations of methods, structures and processes utilised in the research to implement the design by collecting samples and finding solutions to problems. Hence, they are well-defined as the revision of approaches through which information is obtained (Maxwell, 2013).

3.2 Qualitative Narrative Research Methodology

The section discusses qualitative narrative research methodology and its relevance to qualitative research methods. The narrative methodology is a set of rational ideas about the philosophy, methods and data for research procedures and the information of knowledge, and it consists of various combinations of methods, structures and processes utilised in the research to implement the design by collecting samples and data and finding solutions to problems (McCall, 2005). The research methodology adopts a qualitative narrative research method as it works with the qualitative research problem (Babbie, 2010:53). Qualitative research methodology is regarded as the most influential qualitative research device that can uncover mood swings, attitudes, and impulses voiced openly. The methodology represents the technical guidelines for assessing statements and justifying the information collected, while the research design operates as the study plan (Creswell, 2009:153). The methodology offers a framework for validity and reliability of the records across all sights (Creswell, 2013), drawing special attention to the field experiences and challenges faced by PWD and the researcher

during the fieldwork. Hence, methodology rationalises arguments pertaining to the project and practice (Vosloo, 2016).

This qualitative approach can disclose factually substantial matters not chronicled anywhere while unveiling an in-depth life experience. It offers productive etymological data that may enlighten several features of cultural occurrences (Maxwell, 2013). The narrative research methodology and design aimed at acquiring deeper understanding of how PWD organise themselves and derive meaning from events by studying the impact of social structures and how these relate to their identity, intimate relationships, and families (May, 2011:100-101). Hoey (2013) attested that narrative methodologies gather methods used in the study give stimulus to information that could be used to test ideas and theories about social life. They also confirm that the approval from respondents allowed the researcher to successfully report the research problem rationally and unequivocally (Shuttleworth, 2016).

The narrative methodology can also be used jointly with quantitative methods as mixed methods studies. The research methodology is used in combination with other methods as mixed methods. Mixed research methods include qualitative and quantitative methods, and that combination was used in this study to complement each other. Quantitative research methods deal with numbers, statistics and measures, while qualitative research deals with words and meanings. The research methodology responds to specific questions, such as data collection process and analysis, which are instruments development and sampling process (Burns & Grove, 2011:253).

These methodologies assist in discussing their practices and techniques in the current research. Through this open dialogue, respondents will find each other concerning the topic to be achieved, in a deeper depth of information on respondents' experiences of the subject under investigation (Engel & Schutt, 2013:18-19). Consequently, the narrative methodology provides elements and a systematic approach that count on coherent arguments and the assumptions upon which the research will technically be carried out. Through this method, the researcher could communicate effectively with the respondents in a harmonious environment, allowing each to express their views. Some significant components were drawn from narrative methodology and consisted of the research approach, the research design, sampling techniques that include the selection of respondents, the study population, data collection and analysis procedure and ethical considerations (McAlpine, 2016). The chapter assists by giving the reader a general impression of the arrangement of the study through the provision of these detailed explanations (Battercerjee, 2012).

The revision provided elements of the systematic approach that relied on rational arguments and the assumptions upon which the research was scientifically carried out. Substantial elements chosen for this research include research approach and design, sampling techniques, the study area and population, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations. Furthermore, in this chapter, some aspects were considered that consist of data verification issues, and data analysis (Berg, 1989). Aurelius (2009) cited a weakness in this methodology of qualitative researchers as lacking the rigid procedures for precise guidance for evaluation and decision-making to govern their actions. Universities depend on the committees' assessment for the decision-making process on research projects. A description of a qualitative narrative research approach follows next.

3.3 Qualitative Narrative Research Approach

This section discusses the qualitative narrative research approach in social sciences and its relevance to this study. Connelly and Clandinin (1990), the founders of this approach, noted it emerged from the sense that it was a mode of thinking, an expression of cultures and a storehouse of knowledge (Wang & Geal, 2015). Bhattacharjee (2012) defines the narrative approach as “a scientific enquiry of scientific knowledge that employs a scientific method”. In addition, it is an interpretive method in social sciences that includes storytelling methodology. In contrast, a narrative approach in psychology is used as one of the different methodologies that can be implemented for gathering and evaluating figures for recording outcomes. The method refers to concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of things. The narrative research inquiry is important as it is viewed as being able to explain how PWD construct and make sense of reality (McAlpine, 2016).

Connelly and Clandinin (1990), in their reflection on the narrative approach, claimed narrative method is a framework of orientation of reflection in the investigation procedure operating throughout its style of representation of the study revision, since the narrative approach is a combination of occurrence and technique, in which is a postulation of a perplexing overwhelming situation. The qualitative narrative approach pursues the telling of the stories of experiences of unemployed PWD in their own words and their setting, while the qualitative exploratory method seeks to provide insights into disability through the inductive approach to assess how PWD understand the aspects of their social worlds (Chetty, 2016). Therefore, the narrative technique was favoured in this study since it deals with human beings, meanings, and behaviour. However, the method was used to provide an avenue to explore the personal experiences of PWD beyond the boundaries of a questionnaire and by providing insights into decisions that involved living with a disability and unemployment.

This approach guided how the plight of PWD could be developed and provided (DePoy, EGitt & Gitlin, 2015). The qualitative narrative inquiry proved to be a more applicable tool in conducting an exploratory investigation on PWD as its framework presented adequate data to enable respondents to recount their experiences on their susceptibility within their communities. Consequently, it is also relevant to this study, as it explored PWD' circumstances (Engel & Schutt, 2013:18-19) of unemployment and disability. The choice of the narrative process was prepared for the situation wherein the study was directed, as it required respondents' understanding on the subject being studied in their expected background (McAlpine, 2016).

Eventually, these methods and designs enquire into the circumstances of the unemployed PWD and their problems. This approach was also produced in this study to structure the life experiences of PWD specifically and to organise them into meaningful units. During the analysis stage, these stories were broken into meaningful units. To this end, it was necessary to focus on the Soshanguve Township as the research site.

3.3.1 Soshanguve Township as a research site

Soshanguve Township is a research site because of its natural attraction with its rich environment, African craft and Arts. It is also the second largest densely populated township in South Africa. The township is the most multilingual in South Africa, with its second Fabrication Laboratory situated in Block TT, which is managed by a systematised unemployed group of young people; hence, it is identified as the Bright Youth Council. The township is versatile with resources that visitors may be attracted to. The township is also having tourist reaction because of its great Tawing Basin, which is a site that claims to be unique in Africa and in the world, which is a site that claims to be unique as one of only four meteorite cavern galleries worldwide; including the Giant Stadium, where World Cup matches were played in 2010. The township also has the Tshwane University of Technology and Tshwane North College (Black Communities Development Act of 1984, 2013: 2- 3). It is a prosperous township surrounded by an industrial area with many companies. The township is densely populated and became a tourist attraction and research site. Transportation is good to and from the city centre.

PWD expressed their stories every day as a natural way of unfolding their experiences to reach practical solutions to crucial problems to make sense of the behaviour of others, as people were blasted by these stories in the world (Zellermayer, 1997). According to McLean and Syed

(2015:323), some story telling methods theoretically absorbed SI contradiction in exploring the exemplified administrative repetition of narration. The notion used in this study was drawn from SI theory to describe how PWD' identities materialised from “master narratives”. Master narratives are shared stories in a culture that gives “guidance, thoughts, beliefs, values, and behaviours”, a practice that creates a link between self and society. Moen (2006) attested that “how we make sense of ourselves is correlated to both the bodies we have, and also draws on and modifies stories about our bodies that circulate in wider society”. Bruner (1986) attested that researchers noted that the knowledge and understanding of a phenomenon and data on the practice were kept in the narrative and dialogues about the practice, as it was often in a narrative form. Furthermore, storytelling emerged as the main symbol in interactionist sociology to understand some methods of how societal development was arranged. This method was employed to support a topic based on storytelling (Bruner, 1986, 1991). This approach developed through a dynamic relationship between research questions, theory, experience, conversation, and reflection (McAlpine, 2016).

People aim for an in-depth exploration of the meanings. They assigned their experiences and narrative research work with a small sample of respondents to obtain rich, free-ranging discourse. In the research process, new realities were discovered, verified, and analysed to perceive the weaknesses in the existing tools that falsify the path, breaking solutions to scientific and non-scientific problems (Punch, 2014).

3.3.2 Strengths and weaknesses of the narrative research approach

This section discusses the strengths and weaknesses of the narrative research approach. Battercerjee (2012) stated that the narrative research approach acquires scientific knowledge by employing the scientific method. Qualitative narrative research strengths are to make available valuable data to be utilised in the research design during investigation. They offer more comprehensive information for the explanation of multifarious issues. The limitation of qualitative narrative research is that they are difficult to analyse while they are good fits for some typical groups. They use various methods for data collection on elusive topics as data gathering often consumes time while it's costly. The narrative inquiry is a multifaceted and self-motivated methodology. The investigator and the respondent are continually negotiating and trying to make sense of the stories by furnishing confirmation instructions all through the gathering and analysis (Wang & Geal, 2015).

The disadvantage of quantitative methods is that they do not deal with humans. They deal with measurements, statistics, and numbers, while qualitative methods deal with human beings, words, meanings, symbols, and behaviour (Creswell, 2009:153). Quantitative research

delivers data that is easily articulated in numbers. Since the data consists of a numeric form, it can be applied in statistical tests for the creation of statements about the data. The excessive strength of quantitative studies is to provide data that is expressive, that is, data that permits a researcher to take a snapshot of a population study, although there are problems encountered in the process of their interpretation. Critics of narrative research accentuate the confines of the habitation of stories, which they call works of fiction in people's lives, and stationed in the public party-political domain. Sections that can be soothing falsehoods in which individuals express themselves can sidetrack research and be difficult to refute, creating unnecessary anxieties. These include the blurry border between imagination and reality (Wang & Geal, 2015). A description of the deductive and inductive approaches follows next.

3.3.3 Deductive and inductive research approach

The section discusses the difference between the deductive and inductive research methods and their relevance to the study. The research inquiry adopted a narrative research approach that used both inductive and deductive approaches to recount the hypothesis and theories of this chapter. This shows that, rather than starting with the current theory and hypothesis, the researcher endeavoured to present and construct fresh syntheses and interpretations of the story data. (Babbie, 2010:53).

This shows that, rather than starting with the current theory and hypothesis, the researcher endeavored to present and construct fresh syntheses and interpretations of the story data. (Barbie & Mouton, 2001: 273). Deductive and inductive approaches use logical methods that provide an inclusive method to analyse the qualities or characteristics of facts. The procedure includes deeply involving an individual in data interpretation and processing to make sense of the whole data collection and grasp what is going on.

The deductive method involves developing theories based on existing theories and designing research strategy to test the theory. It also means that while existing theory is used to plan and define the study, it is also used in the quantitative research approach to complement the inductive research method used. The latter is known for building a theory, where the researcher begins by collecting data to develop that theory (Chetty, 2016). Therefore, an inductive-cognitive approach was applied to get unknown information about PWD. This approach supported the symbolic interactionist theory for guidance and greater insight into the phenomena (Shuttleworth, 2016). The qualitative narrative approach also required an inductive approach for data analysis. Although this approach is popular and engaging, it is also a very difficult method to use (Andrews *et al.*, 2013). The current study used an inductive approach to allow more explanation of what was going on among PWD.

The inductive approach allows for a rich account of respondents' experiences and the examination of the meanings that they developed from those experiences (Hoey, 2013). Thus, the narrative inquiry intensifies voices that may otherwise endure silence by utilising storytelling to communicate the respondents' realities to a bigger audience. Polkinghorne) (2014) noted that despite all that PWD were going through, their voices were to no avail. It is perceived that the unimplemented EEA Act was the main problem that remained silent as it represented their voices. According to Polkinghorne (2013), a narrative research approach is based on three claims or basic underpinnings or claims. The first claim is that "Human beings organise their experiences of the world into narratives. Hence, people do not exist. Life itself might thus be considered a narrative inside which we find several other stories." This means humans interpret their practices from the realm into stories. Hence, if they are short of those stories, there will be no existentialism. Therefore, our life time is regarded as based on stories within which we live and invent other stories (Polkinghorne, 2014).

Life itself might thus be considered a narrative inside which we find several other stories (Polkinghorne, 2014). Upon reflecting on the post-apartheid misconceptions, misinterpretations and misrepresentations and their continuous atrocious acts towards the black nation in the name of unity (rainbow nation) under the guise of a black-led government, the government falsified a quasi-transformation. People in general, particularly PWD, find several other stories to tell as the structures of the anti-transformation of racism. Gender-based discrimination, economic restrictions, poverty, inequality and unemployment are still intact as they are impacting the entire black nation, in particular, PWD and the poorest of the poor. This social reality is indisputable.

The second claim is based on the storyline with scholars contending that narratives expressed depend on peoples' historical and current practices and standards, whom the stories were addressed to, and where and at what time they were related to them (Polkinghorne, 2014). For instance, the individuals who were in exile or jail and now back, have stories to tell about their past and present experiences during and after the period of seclusion and segregation, and the present times with their values based on the present government. This is the same with PWD; they have a lot to narrate about their history of being discriminated against, marginalised, and excluded during the pre- and post-apartheid era, as they do not see any bright future for trans-formation for them in the new dispensation, in terms of poverty alleviation, implementation of legislation for employment, destitution, and exclusion. They are still living with the hope that something positive will happen in their lives at some stage.

The third claim is meticulously associated with the previous claim since it concerns the multi-voicedness that occurs in the narratives (Polkinghorne, 2014). The voices of PWD were unheard and are still not heard in the present day since they were still missing employment opportunities and having no access to jobs; in fact, they are excluded from everything. They were still experiencing difficulties when it came to human rights in general. The after-effects of the period of seclusion have destroyed the “ANC Batho Pele” Principle (Black voice), which brought expectations for change to the people of South Africa. The research narrative approach is important in this study because it is a plan and a procedure that consists of stages of comprehensive expectations to detailed methods of gathering information for analysis and clarification as it is constructed on the landscape of problem being addressed. Soshanguve has elements of and specimens to study that were engrossed in the experiences of black PWD in one locality.

3.4 Research Design

This section discusses qualitative research design and its aim in the study and concerning research questions. Research design is a system of arrangement and information gathering that the investigator employs to an association or an exploration revision to make certain that the research question is studied methodically (Bhat, 2023). This section also discusses the qualitative research design and its aim in the study concerning research questions. A qualitative research design diverges and depends upon the method used, while it operates as the research blueprint for conducting the study to answer specific questions and to offer a study plan that authorises a correct valuation of reason and product which relates to self-regulating and reliant variables (Bandura, 1997: Burns & Grove, 2011: 253). Because of the nature of the topic under study, which is sensitive, the researcher utilised the qualitative exploratory, narrative research design to obtain in-depth information and appreciation of this multifarious and multifaceted landscape of the respondents (Stephan, 2013). Yin (1994:19) noted that “Every type of empirical research has an implicit, if not explicit, research design”. A good research design is recognised as a real entity where its constituents work harmoniously together to ensure successful functioning rather than representing a rigid plan to follow blindly (Maxwell, 2008).

Bhandura (1997) concurs with Maxwell stating that a well-arranged research design assists and confirms the method used and complements the research aims, utilising the correct type of analysis for data. It offers a study plan that author a correct valuation of reason and end product which relates to self-regulating reliant variables. It can be argued that a research plan is a comprehensive strategy and inclusive arrangement that guides an outline of how the research can be investigated in answering research questions constructed on the above

definitions. However, as an appropriate design displays the investigator's reading to be successful with fruitful exploration readings that offer intuitions that are precise and impartial, the design assisted the researcher in the exactness of the research and the arrangement process (Bhattacharjee, 2012). The researcher's goal was to ensure the research design effectively addressed the research problem as logically and unambiguously as possible. With the research design having been completed, the actual work could be initiated, while the proposal specifies how the plan was to be completed and regulates the study to run smoothly.

Neuman (2006: 14) believes that research design is elaborated in the administrative process of the sample chosen and in the research techniques, gathered, analysed and verified data (Mathe, 2018).

Using a qualitative method helped extract the respondents' narratives to get meaning, feelings, and descriptions of the situation where data could not be graphed. The qualitative research design was concerned with the qualitative phenomenon, which was based on the quality of the study. It was a non-numerical description that applied reasoning and used words to get the meaning, feeling and description of the situation (Rajasekar *et al.*, 2013). The weakness of research designs is they are more challenging to analyse. They do not fit neatly in the standard categories as data collection is frequently time-consuming (Gerard, 2013). Another weakness is that the overall research problem will not be adequately addressed without attending to these design issues beforehand. Any conclusions drawn will run the risk of being weak and unconvincing. Consequently, the study's overall validity will be undermined (De Vaus, 2001).

The researcher employed an investigative, qualitative, and narrative plan to obtain in-depth information and empathy for the deep-seated problems experienced by the respondents. Working closely with the respondents allowed the researcher to listen carefully to their voices, narrating true stories by themselves with compassion. The researcher listened attentively to the stories of the actual people in real circumstances of their specific realities and took note where necessary. The researcher noted that having an opportunity to pay attention by listening to PWD' voices was crucial for a constructivist approach (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). The researcher's voice was defined as a "passionate participant" who is enthusiastically involved in developing listening skills from a reconstruction of her own voice creation and those of the respondents (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:115). The investigation aimed to "rely as much as possible on the respondents' views of the situation studied" (Creswell, 2003:8). It was from the respondents' narrative accounts of their realities, which were distinct, that the researcher could better understand their actions (Robottom & Hart, 1993).

Basic and applied research can be quantitative, qualitative, or even both. A qualitative narrative research design, with a procedural plan, construction and investigation, was applied to obtain responses to questions realistically, objectively and accurately. Therefore, respondents were informed from the start of the interviews that information about particulars of their historical health associated to disability would be required since this was part of the discussion. The statistics were obtained prior the development as the official share of the meeting. On certain occasions, respondents would feel relaxed in sharing their painful experiences with the researcher that changed their lives for good and would share them willingly. The contribution provided by the respondents amplified additional information that was vital to their stories, as shown in their disability silhouette in Table 3.1 below.

3.4.1 Biographic and Medical Data

Table 3.1 below provides a profile of participants interviewed for the study

Table 3.1: Profile of participants

Gender	Race	Qualification	Impairment	Relationship	Cause	Employment	Period unemployed
Nine Males	African	Degree	Type	Status	Cause of deformity	Duration indefinite	Years
Male 1	African	Junior degree	Blind	Married	Unknown	Unemployed	6 years
Male 2	African	Diploma	Cognitive	Married	Hard blows	Unemployed	
Male 3	African	Matric	Cognitive	Single	Stroke	Unemployed	7 years
Male 4	African	Matric	Paraplegia	Single	Gunshots	Unemployed	9 years
Male 5	African	Matric	Paraplegia	Single	MVA	Unemployed	10 years
Male 5	African	Matric	Deformed	Single	Hard blows	Employed	-
Male 6	African	Matric	Paraplegia	Single	MVA	Unemployed	8 years
Male 7	African	Matric	Deformed	Married	Congenital	Unemployed	4 years
Male 8	African	-	Paraplegia	Single	Congenital	Unemployed	Never
Male 9	African	-	Paraplegia	Single	Congenital	Unemployed	Never
Six Females							

Gender	Race	Qualification	Impairment	Relationship	Cause	Employment	Period unemployed
Female 1	African	Matric	Spinal bifida	Married	Congenital	Unemployed	3
Female 2	African	Matric	Spinal bifida	Divorced	Diseases	Unemployed	5
Female 3	African	Matric	Paraplegia	Single	MVA	Unemployed	2
Female 4	African	Matric	Paraplegia	Single	MVA	Unemployed	6
Female 5	African	-	Shunts	Single	Congenital	Unemployed	Never
Female 6	African	Teacher	Shunts	Single	Congenital	Employed	-

3.4.2 Preparing respondents for interviews.

The section discussed the preparation of respondents for interviews. The aim of recruiting the respondents was to collect data. The respondents needed comprehensive preparation prior to collecting data and an instrument to quantify the ethical contentment of the research process. In this regard, approval must be obtained from the Ethics Committee before the research starts. Research Clearance Ethics is critical to evade any problematic errors that may arise in directing the enquiry and publication of research results. Also, standards endorse the objectives and aims of the research, such as knowledge and truth to decrease blunders (Resnik, 2020). The researcher adhered to the research ethics policy of the University of Venda (UNIVEN) concerning ethical clearance. Ethical consideration was employed to form the basis of respect, human dignity, and moral rights (Farrimond, 2013:12-13) of unemployed men and women with disabilities. The ethical clearance was approved after the submission of a research proposal, which defined the purpose and ethical consideration of the proposed study.

The Ethics Committee of UNIVEN approved the researcher to start the research. On arrival in Soshanguve Township for the field research, the researcher was informed she was not allowed to conduct research for PWD without getting permission from the Department of Social Development (DSD), now known as the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA). According to the rules and regulations of SASSA concerning conducting research on PWD, no researcher is allowed to conduct research in any township or even in the rural areas, for that matter, before receiving permission from SASSA. The researcher submitted the letter of approval from UNIVEN to conduct research to SASSA, requesting permission to conduct research in the Soshanguve Township on unemployed, physically disabled people. A meeting was scheduled for the researcher to meet with the Director of the Disability Unit, Mr. Zacharia Hopane, for an interview together with the Disability Directorate members of the Strategic Interest Group for Development. The researcher was informed that the meeting was recorded. Any questions concerning the researchers' visits from these organisations should be referred to the Disability Unit, SASSA Headquarters in Pretoria. The researcher was then permitted by the Disability Directorate to visit any disability organisation, school, or unit and do the research.

The researcher, on embarking on research, searched for places she was referred to by the Disability Unit in Soshanguve Township. People with disabilities were hard to reach. After a long period of searching for organisations, schools, churches and other units for PWD, the researcher was received at the Soshanguve Self-Help Association for People with Disabilities (SOSHAD) Centre. The SOSHAD centre was a centre for skills development for PWD. A meeting was scheduled with the Manager of the organisation, Mr. Kholofelo Dau. On meeting

with Mr. Dau, he introduced the researcher to the staff of the organisation, and in return, the researcher explained her purpose to visit the centre. The researcher was asked to write a formal letter that requested to conduct research in the organisation. Since the researcher did not know the individuals to be interviewed, the Manager organised the selection of respondents for the researcher and granted permission to conduct the research. The Manager also organised the days and weeks for conducting interviews at the centre as he did not come to the centre often, due to meetings he had to attend. Also, the Learners were not living within the premises of the centre, but around Soshanguve Zones.

The researcher asked permission to meet with the potential respondents to participate in interviews before interviews took place, to acclimatise herself with them, and to talk to them individually before data was collected. The intention was to pledge a common trusting relationship through steady contact (Stephan, 2013). Learners were prepared as participants for data gathering. The meeting allowed respondents to respond to questions and clarification on issues of importance at hand, including other matters that could interrupt interviews. This exercise commenced to circumvent certain fabricated imitations regarding the study and to improve the volunteers' participation. In addition, guidance for a follow-up was required regarding the importance of creating a rapport to set the wheels in motion by discussing the study's purpose and confidentiality arrangements with the respondents (Faber, 2009). The researcher made sure the respondents followed the instructions and procedure of interviews. The researcher prepared the potential respondents for data collection processes. On the other hand, she had to continually remind the Manager of SOSHAD of interview dates through telephone calls and emails (Stephan, 2013). Soshanguve Township is situated on the northern side of Tshwane (Pretoria) and has no street names. It is divided into blocks of Zones that are named alphabetically from A to Z. For instance, Zone A is registered as Zone AA, Zone B is Zone BB, and this continues until Zone Z as Zone ZZ. The SOSHAD centre was based at Zone HH at address number 1815 Block HH, Soshanguve).

The organisation employed 44 able-bodied staff and had 1 521 PWD of all types who came for various programmes to the centre: physically disabled, totally sighted, partially sighted, epileptic, intellectual disability, humped backs in a convex position due to abnormal spinal curvature, deaf and mute people. There was craftwork, beadwork, knitting and other activities in the centre. Learners were all involved in the crafted skills in gaining a sense of purpose and self-worth. There was a provision of childcare services for disabled children, which greatly benefited the community. There were no other recreational facilities (Stats SA, 2016:1) around the centre except an old soccer field, which was within the yard of the centre. Opposite the centre was a small cafe, and vendors outside the premises of the school, selling all sorts of

products around the centre. Figure 3.1 below shows some of the PWD who visit and work at the centre.

Figure 3.1 The Soshanguve Self-Help Association Centre for People with Disabilities

Figure 3.1: Members of the SOSHAD centre in Soshanguve Township, including teachers



Soshanguve Self-Help Association Centre for People with Disabilities (SOSHAD).

3.5 Methods of Data Collection

This section discusses the data collection methods in the study. The setting for data collection was determined by the type of population group the researcher targeted. The researcher conducted the interviews with respondents at the SOSHAD centre. According to Creswell (2003), the alternative methods (semi-structured and focus group interviews) are designed to share the same meaning for the information required for addressing research questions. De Vos *et al.* (2011:359) concur with Creswell that the data collection process is basically a gathering of information with an understanding of obtaining answers to research questions.

Trochim (2020) noted that the data collection qualitative method is a bridging strategy for scientific research and local knowledge; qualitative exploratory data collection methods build a convincing and credible answer to research questions, as data collection involves the selection of respondents and gathering data from them. Patel (2013:46, 58) cautions that

precautions should be taken when constructing a questionnaire for the research questions to be relevant. This caution assists in preventing putting the respondents in an uncomfortable position. The researcher used two scientific data collection methods for interviews: semi-structured and focus group interviews. There were two groups to be interviewed. The first group was conducted on different dates and weeks (Curtis & Jonathan, 2013). The first group of interviews was conducted in April 2019. The second group was interviewed in October of the same year due to the unavailability of respondents on set dates.

Kitzinger (1994:199) attested that respondents tend to be agonised by exhaustion from long discussions during interviews. The standard procedure was 1-2 hours, subjected to the difficulty of the topic under study, and the amount of time it took to respond to questions and respondents. This may possibly be different when the respondents were younger in the case of school children (Gibson, 2012; Heary & Hennessy, 2022). Both groups of interviews lasted between 15 Minutes and two hours. Data was collected from 15 unemployed respondents between the ages of 24 and 35 in SOSHAD centre. The dominant languages were SePedi, SeVenda and Setswana in the centre, but the respondents all understood English and agreed to be interviewed in English. An interpreter was provided in case some respondents might not understand English well. It also helped the researcher, who couldn't speak any of the respondents' languages. Interviews were conducted in a conducive environment by the researcher. The questionnaire was constructed in a way relevant to the respondents.

3.5.1 Sampling procedures

This section discusses the sampling methods used in the study. Binu, Mayya, and Dhar (2014) defined sampling as the method of choosing elements, such as persons and institutes from a group of concern to study a model. According to Campbell *et al.* (2020), the researchers would be able to generalise their results somewhat back to the population from which the sample was chosen. The target sample comprised 15 unemployed PWD between the ages of 24 and 35 from Soshanguve Township. The group was homogenous, as the respondents shared the same traits (Neuman, 2014). Trochim (2020) argues that researchers should choose a sampling strategy for their dissertations that aligns with their study design and methodologies while also considering research ethics.

Nevertheless, researchers exercise caution in determining the appropriate sample size for qualitative investigations, since it may be influenced by several variables (Mason, 2010). The distinction between non-probability and probability sampling lies in the absence or presence of random selection. Non-probability sampling does not include random selection, whereas probability sampling does. However, it is important to note that the principles of probability

theory may still influence non-probability samples. Regardless of the specific method of purposive sampling, a notable drawback is the potential for introducing bias in the researcher's findings. It has been shown that the research subject may influence the researcher's judgment, therefore compromising the objectivity of the study (Lund Research, 2012).

3.5.2 Sampling method

Mason (2010) argues that qualitative samples should be sufficiently extensive to guarantee the discovery of the majority, if not all, of the potentially significant impressions. Simultaneously, when the sample size is too big, the data becomes redundant and ultimately superfluous. As Daniel (2011) stated, it is crucial to have a sufficiently high sample size to accurately detect connections between variables or distinguish disparities across groups. In any given study field, respondents may have varying viewpoints. Moreover, it is important to take into account the incorporation of sample standards as criteria that are relevant to the broader community. Due to the difficulty in accessing jobless PWD, the researcher lacked information on the respondents from the workers at the project site. This limitation prevented her from selecting a sub-group that could be assessed (Shuttleworth, 2016). Therefore, a purposive or non-probability sampling method was considered (Neuman, 2014) as it was valuable in qualitative research designs. Also, it contained various phases that could build on previous ones because it offered a wide variety of purposive sampling methods for the investigator to attract (Lund Research, 2012). According to Campbell *et al.* (2020), purposive sampling is described as the sampling (entirely dependent) on both the researcher's decision on whether the designated persons, as research participants, are meaningfully selected based on their appropriateness for pressing forward the purpose of the research.

Purposive sampling is synonymous with judging, selective, or subjective sampling. It is a non-probability sampling strategy that relies on the researcher's judgment to choose units for investigation (Trochim, 2020). The population was drawn from black language groups since disability crosses cultural barriers. The purposive sampling method cannot identify respondents based on selected criteria, so a probability type of sampling method known as the snowball sampling method was used to identify respondents as it was measured as a type of purposive sampling (Burns & Grove, 2011:49). Although the purposive sampling method allowed the researcher to recruit respondents, it could limit the ability of the researcher to produce findings that could represent the whole population (Daniel, 2011). The selective sampling technique was beneficial as it enabled the researcher to conduct the study (May 2011: 100-101) on unemployed PWD.

The sample chosen was relevant to the study as it had sufficient size for statistical analysis. In addition, since the topic of the study was sensitive the sample selected helped the researcher to reach the conclusion (Trochim, 2020). The purposive sampling was most successful when the data revision and analysis were done in combination with data collection (Curry, Nembhard, & Bradley, 2009). In this qualitative research, the purposeful sampling method allowed individuals who were selected to participate in the study based on their first-hand experience of the phenomenon of interest (Burns & Grove, 2011:49). Respondents were selected with a view that they had the attributes that the study needed to achieve its objectives (Daniel, 2011:9). The results of the study were used to develop conclusions that applied to the entire population (Stephan, 2013). A discussion of the in-depth semi-structured interviews follow next.

3.5.3 Semi-structured in-depth interviews

This section discusses the semi-structured in-depth interviews, which are a method of collecting data. The method depends on asking questions in a prearranged, confined setting. In this study, semi-structured in-depth questions were carefully chosen and used to collect data from the respondents. Consequently, the next paragraphs will give transparency within the framework of reference. This method was recognised as the most suitable in obtaining evidence from the respondents. De Vos *et al.* (2005) clarified these types of interviews as interviews in which the number of participants is restricted to two people, the investigator and the respondent. Regarding these interviews, they are directed to PWD to accomplish an understanding of their personal experiences and appreciation of their viewpoints concerning their life challenges, including coping strategies they relate to their survival. In addition, in-depth interviews are used explicitly for their suitability in respondents' individual pasts, perceptions and practices, mainly in such sensitive topics (Maree, 2009).

The logic in selecting these types of interviews is founded in Hancock's (2002:9) declaration that "semi-structured in-depth interviews furnish the researcher with rich data that provides consent to the researcher to expand on a deeper understanding of the phenomena being researched". Equally, these types of interviews can be very tedious and time-consuming.

In-depth interviews are an open-ended, discovery-oriented way to obtain detailed information about a topic from a stakeholder. The main benefit of these types of interviews is to offer further comprehensive material about what is accessible through other gathering methods, like surveys. They may make available a further conducive environment for collecting material. Respondents should feel at ease when engaged in discussions with the researcher and each other about their programme, contrary to filling out questionnaires. However, the researcher

should be cautious about the place to conduct in-depth interviews. The environment where the interviews are conducted should be safe and conducive for both the researcher and the respondents (Boyce, 2006).

Of importance, the researcher should not use utterances that can hurt or offend respondents or patronise them as they are already susceptible to harm. The investigator viewed precautionary measures or skills before interviews as important as they could put the data collection process at risk if not considered. The interviews were prepared in advance before engaging in genuine discussions. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were advantageous because they allow two-way communication, giving respondents enough time to open up about sensitive issues, while the researcher cannot be sure of respondents' honesty (Shuttleworth, 2016). They allowed respondents space to go on narrative or on a tangent that completely express their internal narratives (Riessman, 1993). Semi-structured in-depth interviews also initiated appropriateness that was essential for acquiring evidence from the respondents and which was valuable for learning about the viewpoints of persons, as opposed to, for instance, group standards of a community which focuses on groups that were suitable (Gill *et al.*, 2012).

Interviews consumed a lot of time, but they were flexible and sensitive with fairness and reliability, and they were simple and straightforward to analyse, but needed extensive resources. The researcher was required to have enough respondents to draw conclusions and be able to make comparisons, as these interviews can create space for bias (Indeed Editorial Team, 2023). The researcher acknowledged the principles of conducting semi-structured in-depth interviews having in mind the principles such as being non-judgmental and allowing people to talk (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998), using an interview guide as a data collection method. The questions motivated discussions with the advantage that the interviewer would further discover specific themes or responses (Vosloo, 2016). Tools to conduct interviews were provided, namely, an interview guide, audio recording data collection tool (tape recorder) and all the diaries (field notes) were provided and used to complement audio-taped interviews. Data was gathered to assist in developing a new theory and filling in the gaps. The researcher was patient with the respondents due to their health condition and was careful with the lengthy engagements with the respondents during data collection (Patel, 2013: 46, 58).

Field notes were hand-written in a small notebook. Field notes assisted the researcher in noting and writing about every gesture she observed and commenting upon imitations, environmental circumstances, behaviours, and non-verbal signals that may not have been adequately captured during recording. Field notes also helped the researcher by providing a vital background exploration of audio-tape data that was repeating critical matters throughout

information analysis (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Ethical consideration was applied as the researcher found it appropriate to be open and transparent with the interviews. The researcher explained why she wanted to interview them and how the information would be used. Since the researcher had to use a tape recorder to interview respondents, she applied an ethical guideline by asking for consent. The researcher herself conducted Semi-structured in-depth interviews with 15 respondents at SOSHAD centre in a conducive environment that allowed the commencement of interviews and the collection of data (Boyce, 2006).

Recordings were transcribed verbatim before data analysis began, and diaries were applied for validity check-ups (Patel, 2013). Semi-structured instruments assisted in re-checking for errors (Creswell, 2014). Using an audio tool took the researcher two hours to four 4 hours and 45 minutes to transcribe all the audio-recorded interviews, a process that generates 15-20 pages of written dialogue (Sutton & Austin, 2015). The instrument came up with information that was not previously thought to be as highly influential as the data subsequently confirmed (Jamshed, 2014). Furthermore, the instrument provided respondents with some guidance on what to discuss, which may be helpful (Waters, 2016).

An interview schedule comprised of open-ended questions developed based on the study's purpose and objectives (Saint John's University, 2013). The interview guide was provided on condition that it served the purpose of asking questions to respondents (Babbie, 2010). An interview schedule consisting of open-ended questions was to ensure that questions would be asked in accordance with the objectives of the study (refer to Appendix C) and would be replicating the entire variety of diverse practices, as well as dealing with coping strategies. Open-ended questions were asked to allow for a natural flow of conversation between the researcher and the respondents. Open-ended questions were treated with caution for the researcher not to ask leading questions, thus prompting the respondents' answers to be less reflective but more on what they thought the interviewer wanted to hear. Listening skills were very important, and the interviewer had to acquire them, as it allowed the research to be respondent-oriented, not researcher-oriented.

The interviews could be accomplished by listening attentively to the causal explanation respondents provided for what they have experienced and believed. In addition, the interviews could also be accomplished by penetrating the respondents' influences and interactions, values, and beliefs. The researcher was careful about the time frame for interviews in engaging with the respondents (Patel, 2013:46, 58), as some were on wheelchairs, and some were afflicted with convex spines. Two hours seemed fine according to respondents as they were slow in answering questions and needed time to think before answering a question. The

interviews were appropriate for addressing sensitive topics that people might be reluctant to discuss in a group setting. The interviews were also an opportunity to gain insight into how people interpret and order the world around them (Babbie *et al.*, 2001). When compared to structured interviews, the elasticity of this approach was beneficial for unearthing or expanding the information that was essential to respondents, which may not have been understood as applicable by the researcher (Jamshed, 2014).

3.5.4 Focus group interviews

This section discusses qualitative focus groups and in-depth interviews. Focus groups are in-depth interviews created to discover respondents' capability and experiences (Krueger, 1994). Focus group interviews are sometimes described as premeditated qualitative data collection methods, cautiously arranged to attain rich information with regards to the respondents' perceptions in a conducive environment. These groups enable the respondents to express their experiences and perspectives in their own words without any constraints or interpretive frameworks that may be derived from the researcher's standpoints and technical language (Kitzinger, 1995: 299). Gillis and Jackson (2002) stated that "Focus groups provided another means of acquiring information and might be characterized as a group interview." More often, these groups include explorations such as how and why people behave in particular ways. They often consist of 6-8 individuals and are directed by well experienced mediators after a topic guide. Gills and Jackson (2002) noted that, "Focus groups provide another means of acquiring information and might be characterised as a group of interviews." They continuously follow a semi-structured format and include open discussions of responses among respondents.

Focus groups consist of in-depth interviews, which are useful in generating a rich understanding of respondents' experiences, values and beliefs, as this was what the researcher was looking for (Brink, Van Rensburg & Van der Walt, 2012:175) respondents' estimated that focus group interviews should comprise of 5 - 15 individuals and be appreciated, while Streubert, and Carpenter (2011) proposed that the scope of the target population should be resolute by data permeation, as explained by repetitive information that has previously been confirmed.

Furthermore, these consultations necessitate group players that consist of a capable organiser and an associate who would be a central figure in discussions, be able to manage current relationships and create a hassle-free and comfortable atmosphere for unacquainted respondents (Burrows & Kendall, 1997). Correspondingly, the helper's part was to observe non-verbal communications and the influence of the group dynamics,

including recording the overall content of the conversation, thereby complementing the statistics (Kitzinger, 1994:199). Saunders *et al.* (2018) noted that it data is generally gathered up to the point that based on the data that has been collected or analysed, further data collection or analysis is not necessary as this is repetition.

Moreover, the researcher's adherence to the principles of qualitative research is crucial. Otherwise, the sample size in most qualitative studies should typically adhere to the notion of data saturation collection (Saunders *et al.*, 2018). On the other hand, Nyumba *et al.* (2017) stated that the standard code of theoretical saturation occurs when the focus group discussion sessions have run out until they reach a stage where subsequent groups produce no current information. The group interviews enable respondents to explain their experiences and perspectives in their own expressions, irrespective of the restraints or interpretative agendas resulting from the investigator's viewpoints and practical semantics (Kitzinger, 1995:299) Each focus group deserves the opportunity to define their past and present experiences from the angles on the matters debated.

The methodical analytical approach facilitated a comprehensive comprehension of the situation, resulting in a more efficient and enduring resolution of the researched problem or issue (Stinger, 2014). Also, group dynamics assisted respondents in expressing and clarifying their opinions in ways unlikely to happen in detailed separate meetings (Burns & Grove, 2009: 513). During this phase, the researcher's objective was to analyse and clarify the challenging experiences under investigation and the interpretation derived from the description using conceptual frameworks, definitions, and meanings that facilitate respondents in comprehending their experiences more effectively (Gibson, 2012).

The researcher engaged in focus groups and in-depth interviews with 15 respondents. All the relevant interview tools were provided for data collection as they were valuable qualitative tools for collecting data. The tools were effective in assisting the researcher to learn the social norms of this sub-group and the variety of perceptions that existed that they shared (Dilshad & Latif, 2013: Gibson, 2012). Heary and Hennessy (2002) noted that it is crucial to consider the duration of the meetings and observe the time frame during interviews. Since focus groups were looking to enlighten a group's opinion, the technique used was suitable for this study as it was utilised to grow and quantify services that met the requirements of the populace of unemployed PWD to be studied (Dilshad & Latif, 2013).

The interviews provided scenery for the reasonably standardised cluster to mirror the queries requested by the examiner. Therefore, the interviews provided a more natural environment

than individual interviews because respondents were influenced by each other in a real-life setting. This type of interview was also responsible for producing a rich and detailed set of data about the aspirations of PWD in their own words. The sessions were usually tape-recorded and sometimes videotaped for an in-depth response, to be precise in interpretations (Dilshad & Latif, 2013). The interviewing process will be discussed next.

3.5.5 Interviewing process

This section discusses the interviewing process, purpose, and importance of the research interview. In social research, an interview is a qualitative research method of collecting data that includes two or more people, with the interviewer asking questions and the interviewee answering them, to collect data. The interviewing process allows the researcher as a facilitator to ask open-ended questions orally. In this research, the focus group method is used to collect data to disclose the values, perceptions, involvements and worldviews of the populace under study (Mack *et al.*, 2013: 42). Since the researcher was interviewing respondents who were already not pleased about their lifestyle due to living conditions which did not favour them, the capability to listen was important. A good researcher has to acquire these skills as they allow them to be respondent-orientated and not researcher-orientated Burns & Grove (2011: 49).

Patel (2013: 46, 58) noted that interviews might be acquired by listening considerately to the contributing clarifications that the respondents provided from their experiences and beliefs. In addition, the researcher will be able to apply rewording to the information given as expressed by the respondents. Rewording and elucidating the information put respondents at ease as they could see that the researcher listened attentively and compassionately to their reflections (Mathe, 2018). This skill aims to explore individuals' views, experiences, beliefs, values, and motivations on specific matters to ensure consistency throughout the interviews. The skill is centred on the sensitivity of the topic being examined. Concerning consideration of PWD' involvement in this study due to exclusion from others by society, it is indispensable for the researcher to share their feelings by applying empathetic skills for the duration of the data collection course (Mathe, 2018). Interviews are, therefore, worthwhile for discovering details about penetrating topics like this one, where there is limited literature concerning this study field (unemployed PWD), and where detailed insights are required from individual respondents. The Interviews assisted respondents to pour out about issues they did not want to share with anybody. Interviewees learned about the relevance of asking for information before engaging with the companies they dealt with. They felt they could ask any questions coming to mind about these organisation (Mack *et al.* 2013: 42).

3.6 Narrative Data Analysis

This section discusses the narrative data analysis concerning thematic and data coding. Narrative data analysis is used to understand how research respondents construct their stories and narratives from their own personal experiences. This study utilised a qualitative narrative data analysis to develop an understanding of the respondents who recounted their perspectives on themselves, their surroundings, their lives and their survived experiences through storytelling (Theron, 2015). It was also applied in this study to lighten the voices and experiences of the excluded group among other unemployed individuals with disabilities in society. Data was collected as transcripts of focus groups. Data analysis involved a variety of data to be sorted out, identified, and interpreted according to thematic categorisations (Bryman, 2012).

According to Riessman (1993), qualitative narrative data analysis works similarly to many qualitative methods by obtaining data sets like interviews and decreasing them to abstract findings. The difference between the usual qualitative data methods and qualitative narrative data methods is that several popular qualitative methods aim to decrease interviews to a set of core themes, while qualitative narrative analysis aims to reduce interviews to a set of core narratives. Riessman (2008:53) noted that a core narrative is a generalised narrative encapsulated in the researched respondents' stories without suggesting that all stories in the study would be flawlessly summarised by one core narrative. Therefore, analysis was "keeping a story intact by theorising from the case rather than from component themes across cases".

According to Carey (2013), qualitative data analysis symbolises the interpretive philosophy in exploring the significance of the emblematic meaning of categorical data. Maree and Van der Westhuizen (2009:99) attest that qualitative data analysis attempts to find how respondents created their meanings of unequivocal occurrence and analyse their insights, assertiveness, thoughts, information, morals, spirits, and practices to estimate and structure the occurrence. Gill *et al.* (2011) demonstrated that a focus group's narrative data analysis differed from other qualitative data due to its interactive nature, which was considered during the analysis. The analysis of focus group data considered the group dynamics generated as respondents often challenged each other and justified their remarks in a group setting.

Also, the narrative data analysis also highlights moral materials and forms original theoretic considerations of individual practices. Data was collected as transcripts of focus groups. In personal logical opinion, recordings of data required the examiner's capacity to examine, construe and have a clear meaning of conclusions. The investigator attempted to collect and

categorise material that belonged to groupings similar to them. The procedure needed to be controlled with care and accuracy, while the researcher must study data continually to avoid misconceptions and misinterpretations. Although the primary ideas of the study were derived deductively from existing literature, an inductive method of thematic analysis was used, recognising that topics arose organically from the data rather than being predetermined (Carey, 2013).

Content analysis entailed sharing data being grouped, classified, and patented with codes. Translations and additional comments were written in the borders of the records after reading (Babbie, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Codes were predetermined and created on the concept and inquiry, which was shaped inductively, emergent from the data after being read. This was also recognised as “open coding” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). A variety of data was sorted and interpreted according to thematic categorisation (Bryman, 2012).

3.6.1 Organisational details of the respondents

This section discusses the organisational details for respondents. Authentic details for respondents were organised as data with common factual features that they shared (Gill *et al.*, 2011; Srivthey, Astava & Thomson, 2009:76). Data was appropriately organised through authenticity for analysis, as discussed in this paragraph. Audio and written transcription files were prepared so that they did not get mixed up. They were labelled and matched with a spreadsheet for normalisation and to ensure the researcher was ready for analysis to avoid wasting time on files. Diverging highlights were tagged in the academic research transcripts. Responses from respondents were recorded and note-taking was implemented and written down according to the interview schedule to facilitate the capturing process. Issues of importance were identified as crucial to the study. The researcher allowed participants to make their comments and, in some cases, seek clarity. Each participant was allowed to express their views uninterrupted. Rationality was preserved with the respondents throughout the interview sessions to ensure the recordings went uninterrupted. When the respondents were reluctant to answer questions, maybe over a hurting issue, the researcher applied probing to understand issues that emerged better from the interviews. Each respondent was allowed to express their views freely and uninterrupted.

3.6.2 Thematic categorisation

This section discusses the process of thematic analysis in identifying themes. Themes are features of respondents' interpretations that distinguish certain opinions and/or practices the researcher understands as applicable to the research question. Themes represent collected

codes from one or more copies that present the qualitative research findings understandably and eloquently. They are practical apparatuses that assist researchers in producing their version of the data (Moriarity, 2011). Bryman (2002) further explains that themes are non-concrete, often fuzzy and non-figurative concepts that connect to terminologies identified in the transcript, and vocabularies that are recognised in imageries and substances. They break data into multitudes of meaningful sections and recombine it into groups of concepts and ideas that fit together, putting them into coding (Moriarity, 2011). An emerging pattern is identified in each category and built as themes. Data was organised and reduced into themes that address the research questions. Themes were broken into multitudes of meaningful sections and recombined into groups of concepts and ideas that fit together, putting them into coding (Moriarity, 2014). Themes were expected to develop from the queries and accounts of respondents from interview protocol (Brink, Van der Walt, & Van Rensburg, 2012:177).

Themes were established and coded according to the aims and objectives of the study. A thematic categorisation search was carried out to look for irregularities and contradictions that resulted in decisions concerning the observed outcomes. Similar patterns, relationships and differences were categorised to draw attention to the participants' point of view. As part of this analysis, themes that reappeared during interviews were noted and highlighted (Thorne, 2013). Similar themes were organised, put together and named after the same characteristics they shared. This process was crucial as it enabled the researcher to present possible data from the interviews at its conclusion through quotations from the individual transcripts to demonstrate the source of the researchers' interpretations. Each theme became the heading of a section in the report when the findings were organised for presentation. Beneath each theme were codes, the examples taken from the transcripts, and the researcher's interpretation of what the themes meant.

Inductive analysis was used to reveal the themes, patterns, and meanings that emerged from storytelling. During analysis and interpretation, expressions of respondents' representations were assessed as an accurate execution of the process. Meaningful units were gathered and analysed to develop interaction and logic, as narrative data analysis goes hand in hand with the interpretation (Mack *et al.*, 2013:101). Meanings were interpreted through thematic structures and social and cultural events. The meanings were analysed and interpreted concurrently through a transitional period to the research text (Brink *et al.*, 2012:77). Themes were developed and coded according to the aims and objectives of the study. A thematic categorisation search was carried out to look for irregularities and contradictions resulting in decisions concerning the observed outcomes. Similar patterns, relationships and differences

were categorised to elicit the respondents' viewpoints. As part of this analysis, themes that recurred during interviews were noted and highlighted.

3.6.3 Coding and recoding of data

This section discusses the process of coding and recoding of data. Abbasi (2020) noted that coding is essentially an investigative method by which data is organised and classified so that interpretation could be manageable and comprehensible. Creswell (2015) stated that coding is the “the process of analysing qualitative data by taking them apart to see what they yield before putting them to data back together in a meaningful way.” Sometimes, coding is described as a systematic process in which researchers do groupings to condense massive data sets into smaller units that can easily be analysed and to create categories and concepts obtained from the data (Cresswell, 2015). Coding is described as a qualitative data analysis method of detecting themes in clarifications and assigning labels (codes) to guide them (University of Huddersfield, 2023).

Data denotes a broad variety of realistic versions such as historical records, articles, field notes, focus group transcripts and many more. On the other hand, Charmaz (2006: 46) defines coding as a crucial bond among data gathering and explanation of the meaning of the data. The purpose of coding is to combine data with theory, and the process involves sorting data and collecting it for analysis by transcribing interviews and typing field notes (Charmaz, 2009: 186). To be precise, the coding was conducted in five stages, and was represented in the form of themes, and a data analysis was performed according to the stages described below.

Coding is used by researchers in classifying and attaching concrete tags to the experiential items to be studied, organised and interpreted (Crosley & Jansen, 2020). Smith and Davies (2010:155) contend that coding cannot generate the entirety of data enquiry. However, it is a technique that empowers the data for the original communication to be depicted by the data that may develop flawlessly for the investigator. Engler (2014: 257). Saldaña (2013: 3–4, 8) observed that the perspective from which the research is done, and the type of the study including the personality and the interest of the researcher will impact on which codes the investigator features from the data. Data was presented in the form of themes, and data analysis was performed according to the following stages:

Phase 1: Data preparation

This section discusses the stages of data gathering and analysis. Data was analysed and transcribed from the tape recorder. Meaningful units were gathered and analysed to develop interaction and logic, as narrative data analysis goes hand in hand with interpretation (Mack *et*

al., 2013:101). The researcher prepared the data verbatim during the interviews by listening to the tape recorder. In the writing process, pre-coding was done by highlighting or circling the important statements from each respondent. Different colours of highlighters were used for different significant statements. When finished writing each paper with the information, it was put in an envelope with the respondents' pseudonyms clipped onto it and put aside before listening to the next respondent. Relations were found between similar codes and each combined into a category.

Phase 2: Data coding and recoding

In this second cycle of coding, the data was put together to develop it into categories. By developing open categories, elaborating on additional sub-categories within these original categories (axial coding) was done, which helped the researcher to form a theoretical model. Multiple coding processes were used to find a short phrase that can describe an attribute of the data (Mack *et al.*, 2013). The researcher prepared the data by first coding respondents' behaviours, events, strategies and tactics, present situations, words they would often use in their conversations, meanings, emotions, participation, conditions and constraints, consequences, agreements, locations, and the researcher's own reflections.

The researcher made an effort to include most of the themes through coding and recording processes for analysis and interpretation to provide meaning. Multiple coding analyses resulted in short phrases that can describe an attribute of the data. The researcher used her investigative memorandums that she was continuously writing in coding activities. The researcher conducted the first cycle of coding by placing the precise expressions of respondents. This method is called "in vivo coding" and is used by novice researchers as phrases respondents supplied (Saldana, 2013). This was conducted to separate the data to avoid confusion while the coding process continued.

Phase 3: Member checking

In confirming the eminence of evaluative experiential study, the investigator should assert the credibility of the study. Alternatively, the researcher should make sure that she accurately portrays what the respondents conveyed by using a phrase in its true meaning. Member checking was used for verification to increase credibility. Having finished encoding procedure, the researcher asked respondents for verification of gratification of the detailed data including the outcome of the encoding progress. The investigator is required to address matters specified by respondents (Theron, 2015).

Phase 4: Interpretation of outcomes

The researchers carefully analyse the substance of each group's input to develop viable ideas, interpret the data, and extract meaningful insights. The researchers analyse variations, identify regularities and recurring themes; they might group together similar replies, use metaphors and hunt for instances that deviate from the norm. Osmer, (2008:4) explained that researchers must depend on theories from literature to explain and justify patterns in emerging themes. Data analysis in this study illustrated the experiences of socio-economic circumstances of living with a disability and unemployment. The analysis outcome was a lesson learnt from the narratives that came up from PWD' experiences, perceptions, structural assumptions and perspectives (Mack *et al.*, 2013: 101).

Phase 5: The presentation of data

The data analysis concludes with the presentation of written reports by the researcher where empirical research outcomes provide conclusions. The narrative analysis of exploratory qualitative data was useful for discussing various social descriptions and processes PWD used to create and maintain their social realities in detail. To this end, it was necessary to focus on the reflexivity and positionality of the researcher.

3.7. Reflexivity and Positionality

This section discusses reflexivity and positionality, their importance, and their relevance to the study. Reflexivity is defined in many ways. Generally, it refers to the examination of one's own beliefs, judgments, and experiences during the research process and how these may have influenced the research process. The literature confirms that reflexivity arose as a new gold standard for qualitative researchers who opposed the positivist methodologies and their historical standards of accuracy, reliability and validity (Gabriel, 2018). At the same time, the researcher acknowledges how the investigation of experience affects him or her (Gilgun, 2008). Feminists define reflexivity as the readiness in which the researcher becomes a role player in how a thesis is influenced by the object of the research that empowers the researcher to acknowledge the method that affects both the research processes and outcomes (Alvesson, Hardy & Harley, 2008; Crenshaw, 1989). Weick (2002) noted that reflexivity is often characterised as the procedure by which research acts back upon and takes account of itself. In qualitative research, the word "reflexivity" signifies a new chapter, although it is indescribable and poorly defined. However, most researchers concentrate merely on a wide-range of methods directed at positive qualitative revisions while the importance of reflexivity remains deserted. Reflexivity pertains to the "analytic attention to the researcher's role in qualitative research" (Dowling, 2006). Reflexivity is a notion and a procedure (Dowling, 2006), and as an idea, it mentions positive stages of realisation while it involves self-awareness (Palaganas *et*

al., 2017). Reflection and reflexivity are sometimes used synonymously (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2009: 8).

Positionality

“Positionality” defines a person’s worldview, societal and party-political background and the view they adopt about the duty of investigation (Foote & Bartell, 2011; Rowe, 2014; Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). In research, it implies the influences in the researcher’s social and physical context that could shape the researcher’s individuality with reference to ethnicity, dignity, classicism, masculinity, sexuality, and social position (Holmes, 2020). Savin-Baden and Major (2013) noted that positionality “reflects the position that the researcher has chosen to adopt within a given research” while Rowe (2014) further explains that it is a powerful tool as it directs how the investigation should be piloted since it affects its outcome.

A person’s perspective, or where the investigator hails from, concerns their knowledge expectations about individuals’ opinions, physical reality, and what is identifiable about the social sphere, theory of knowledge, traditions of morality, and action. Also, how individuals interrelate with each other and with the surroundings around them affects their creation of meaning (Marsh *et al.*, 2019; Ormston *et al.*, 2014; Scotland, 2010; Sikes, 2004). Researchers’ objectivity is tainted by the people’s opinions and morals standards that are moulded by their political loyalty, religious faith, masculinity, sensuality, historical and geographical location, ethnicity, classism, rank and skills (Brown, 2006; Marsh *et al.*, 2018; Sikes, 2004). Positionality is generally recognised by discovering the investigator’s context in respect of: (1) the topic investigated and the research respondents, (2) the research background (3) and the research procedure (Sikes, 2004; Marsh *et al.*, 2018). Certain features of positionality are customarily attributed or commonly observed as actually static, for instance, sex, race, skin colour, and nationality. Other factors, such as political views, personal life history, and experiences, are more fluid, subjective, and contextual (Holmes, 2020).

Sikes (2004) and Marsh *et al.* (2018) attested that positionality is not affected only by the researcher’s choice of the position she adopts but also by how other people appoint her. These people encompass the respondents, caretakers and other collaborators in the research. Therefore, PWD were the people positioned against the researcher’s positionality and defined according to her relationship with them. If positionality talks about what the investigators were acquainted with and have hoped, then reflexivity is what researchers do with this knowledge. However, reflexivity and positionality replicate the imaginable influence of the researcher’s worldview, as well as her practical experiences, morals, shared politically awareness and skills and how these could possibly impact the interpretation of the data. Furthermore, reflexivity

balances work during fieldwork, enabling researchers to manage multiple and diverging positional ties. At the same time, positionality in the research directs how the research is carried out and influences the interpretation, beliefs in truthfulness and validity (Rowe, 2014).

3.7.1 Methodology and positionality

This section discusses the relationship between methodology and positionality with relevance to the personal, epistemological, critical, and narrative reflexivity from the researcher's point of view while "exploring experiences of unemployed black PWD in post-apartheid South Africa". Holmes (2020) affirms that positionality is a term frequently formally articulated in literature, master's dissertations, and theses for higher degrees via a positionality statement. Fundamentally, it explains the development of the researcher up to being a fully-fledged scholar. Cohen and Crabtree (2006) refer to reflexivity as defiance in attending methodically to the background understanding of structuring, mainly by affecting the investigator in the steps already taken as part of the research processes, with the acknowledgement that a researcher is part of the environment they study. Lather (2004) attested that procedure normalises the filters which investigators apply and counts the "specific ways in which their own agenda can affect the researcher at all points in the research process". By conducting qualitative research during the fieldwork, many changes happen to a researcher in different ways. From the point of view of reflexivity, the researcher acknowledged the changes brought about in her because of how alterations affected the research process, especially when positionality was tested. The researcher had to accept reflexivity as fundamental research finding. Since the researcher's study was unique, sensitive, and strongly politically involved, and being a novice researcher, her positionality was bound to be affected because of the nature of her study and its involvement in politics. The approach to the enquiry and the techniques mediated were acceptable for this purpose. The conclusions, the framing and communications were considered most appropriate (Malterud, 2001:483-484).

3.7.2 Importance of reflexivity and positionality in the research

This section focused on the significance of reflexivity and positionality in the research. Jootun, McGhee, and Marland (2009:45) emphasised the importance of reflexivity as "to make the relationship between respondents and researcher to ensure the influence of the researcher to the respondents is clear". As reflexivity is a crucial instrument for research, it supports the researcher's engagement in critical self-awareness right through the research procedure. Positionality, on the other hand, not only shapes and influences the researcher's interpretation and understanding but also the researcher's "truthfulness" from reading and exposure to research literature. Therefore, the researcher's positionality does not independently exist in the research process; neither does the researcher have complete control over the latter.

Alternatively, it can be seen as a discourse that challenges the perceptions of both the public and of the investigator. Thus, positionality can enhance the quality of research and conclusions, which become essential in understanding the doctrines of the inquiry process and comprehending the notion of self-reflection.

As reflexivity is involved in numerous challenges, Van Der Riet (2012) qualifies encounter for successfully managing respondents' sentiments by seeing absolute neutrality as unachievable and stating that pursuing it could hamper the research development. Furthermore, she maintains that investigators ought to be aware of negative behaviours while they are mindful of being unfaithful to their research guidelines, as that changes research results to look encouraging, while they may be far from reality (Van Der Riet, 2012:31). Through reflexivity, the researcher become aware of all the inputs in the creation of meaning from actual experiences (for example, of PWD) during the research. The researcher's reflexivity recordings revealed how the researcher discovered the effect of methods in which she conducted the fieldwork (Ackerly & True, 2010; Delgado & Gaitan, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

The fieldwork was extremely personal; as the researcher's positionality in her social world was influenced by socio-economic impact and political awareness that played an important role in the research process. Reflexivity had to be part of the researcher's commitment (Palaganas *et al.*, 2017). In capturing the experiences of the respondents' narratives, the researcher had to develop strategies of aligning and engrossing herself in self-reflection, as the character of inscription and allocation of narratives was crucial. These philosophies comprise methodological consistency in working inductively and being a receptive investigator that requires an adequate and proper sample to attend to the relational ethics (Morse, Barrett, & Olsen, 2002).

3.7.2.1 The journey towards a process of learning

This section discusses the journey of the researcher with relevance to the study. The researcher is a black female from a background of black communities in the townships of South Africa. She also comes from two major academic backgrounds in Health and Social Sciences. In doing this research, the researcher was confined by growing up and living in communities with various groups of marginalised people, including PWD. In addition, as an adult, the researcher became exposed to various marginalised groups, including PWD, in African states and Western countries. The researcher's journey in working with marginalised groups, including PWD, started in the late 1990s in various countries in Africa and Western countries. The researcher became involved in communities with different cultures and languages, doing community development projects on indigenous communities involving PWD' disabilities while

she was a student of Health Sciences at universities in these countries. The researcher's reflexive stance towards completing her PhD research used symbolic interactionist theory. She also worked as a health worker and was involved in community engagements with marginalised groups, including the unemployed PWD. This engagement with the marginalised groups continued in the early 90s while the researcher was a Health Sciences student at these universities.

PWD and people experiencing homelessness came to the clinic frequently for therapy and were sometimes admitted to hospitals. The researcher was very interested in PWD as she knew a little about them. The researcher noted the same behaviour and characteristics with the PWD as those in Africa, and recognised the wealth of experiences she has gained from these cultures. She thought the knowledge she gained could be administered with theories shared with colleagues and students. Bourdieu's (2017) concept of habitus may apply in the researcher's case, where he attested that how persons of a particular background perceive and react to the world around them depends on the position in each social field in which they develop a certain habitus, which is typical of their position. The researcher was a foreigner in these countries, learning the culture and ways of communication.

The researcher was a facilitator in most community groups and sometimes taught Health Promotion and Health Education. This was an uncomfortable position for the researcher as the barrier was foreign language and how she pronounced English words with an accent different from theirs in Africa. Consequently, the researcher's position may partially be shaped by her exposure to African and Western frames of reference as she was trained in African and Western philosophy. There was a sharp conflict on understanding behaviours and relationships, including research methods combined with her African background and life experiences (Davies, 2018:11), for both worlds. When she came back to South Africa, the researcher worked as an academic in the Sociology Department, where she also joined the Disability Unit as a part-time worker.

In South Africa, the researcher's exposure to the realities of disabilities as a part-time worker with PWD in the Disability Unit empowered her to apply critical thinking as she was getting more involved with PWD. The researcher became a devoted supporter of PWD' rights, particularly the rights to employment, health, and education, gaining more knowledge and practice issues concerning indigenous PWD. The experiences of the devastating conditions under which they live, particularly in Africa, with long periods of unemployment, compelled the researcher to be involved in research to investigate more about their quandary. Therefore, who

the researcher is and where she comes from have been influenced by her exposure to PWD and finally did research, and this is where her reflexivity is coming from.

Dowling (2006) verified that reflexivity can take several forms in the research process, such as “epistemological reflexivity,” on countless theoretic expectations and perceptions; and “political position wherever the investigator observes radical and societal creations that update the investigation and the research method”. Introspection also drove the researcher to locate and look at the empirical research. The researcher’s journey for doing a PhD involved a lot of political disturbances in PWD, as disabilities were created on political grounds. Politics caused the researcher to self-examine herself about the study which was emotionally overwhelming.

3.7.1.2 Personal values, beliefs, and experiences of the research

This section discusses the qualitative research interviews relevant to personal values, beliefs and experiences of the research. Qualitative research interviews were conducted based on qualitative, in-depth interviews. Their purpose was the apprehension of how meaning was created by enquiring how respondents can achieve experiences in generating reality (Jootun *et al.*, 2009: 44). Lambert, Jomeen, and McSherry (2010: 321) warn that in ethnographic or interpretative research, investigators restrict themselves in educating each other and their respondents on how to observe the world. Trustworthiness and rationality were the basis for achieving consistency and stability in research (Morse, Barrett, & Olsen, 2002: 15). The researcher contended that “a return to validity is a way for attaining accuracy through using methods of verification” also, a “return of recognising trustworthy strategies within the qualitative analysis that ensure rigor.” The researcher inquired about respondents’ experiences in an attempt to postulate intuitively before disclosing treasured visions which could be understood by bringing them into action. The procedure was not only for respondents, but also for the researcher. Lambert, Jomeen, and McSherry (2010: 321) noted that the experiences of reflexivity in qualitative methods can be a rich source for qualitative study.

3.7.3.3 Individual introspection: Altering and being altered.

This section discusses how reflexivity shaped the researcher's decision-making and accountability and, in return, being shaped. According to Reay (2007: 611), reflexivity is “about giving as full and honest of account of the research as possible, in particular explicating the position of the researcher in relation to the research”. It was crucial to appreciate the positionality of the investigator so that it did not shape her own research or impact clarification, consideration and confidence in “truthfulness” in others who have been exposed to or have read about it. Unprotected and authentic revelation, including discussion with positionality, must indicate the researcher’s belief on how she affected the investigation. The researcher

must be capable of making a well-versed decision regarding her influence on research process and how truthful she felt the research was (Holmes, 2020).

The researcher must acknowledge the power of the research and the constraints it has for transformation and progression. During this process, the researcher often found herself reflecting on hopes and desires while realising that she was met with challenges in skills development and her qualities as a scholar. Research is all about the “interpretation of the respondents’ behaviour and collected data that was influenced by the values, beliefs, experiences and interest of the researcher” Jootun, (2009: 45). Interpretative research is predisposed to gradation of bias from the time when the “interpretation of the respondents’ behaviour and collected data was influenced by the values, beliefs, experiences and interest of the researcher.”

Introspection contributes to constructing exploration, development and exposure to transparency, providing consciousness of the mutual effect to respondents and investigator/s on the progression. Though the development of coding and discarding data to reach findings was time-consuming and tedious, it benefitted from the researcher’s briefness and accuracy in classifying groups of figures. However, one had to be careful in separating an individual’s explanation in phases of statistics dispensation. Also, it taught the researcher the selection of important statistics as essential data because of crucial information delivered by respondents. Likewise, the researcher paid attention to the respondents’ emotional accounts, including their opinions about unemployment, exclusion, economic deprivation, poverty, and homelessness. The researcher respected respondents’ definition of disability in their own terms, and not in association with resources, health and incapacity, which they described as lacking, by the social life and situation they are presently in. The researcher appreciated how the respondents stuck to their spirit of resilience in dealing with exclusion, discrimination, marginalisation, and the life force they have despite the scuffles they face, but remained optimistic that their hardships would be over. In the meantime, the researcher examined the experiences of disability and became more appreciative of what she presently has.

On account of their exclusion, inconsistencies and inadequate opportunities to be rescued from the cycle of poverty, unemployment and economic deprivation, they were vocal and expressed hopelessness, helplessness and powerlessness in the end. Distressing stories of discrimination, exploitation, isolation, and marginalisation were inevitable as they were trapped by unemployment. They could not express how it was to be poor and not to be treated humanely. In the reflexivity sessions, the researcher identified peculiar acumens that could have been investigated throughout the information gathering, including alternative ways of

giving aid to unemployed PWD besides the existing ones that failed. However, the reality of living without opportunities is well-known. It is also affecting thoughts that there has not been much positive impact on their lives from programmes implemented for such a long period. The investigation embraced Jootun *et al.*'s (2009) views on reflexivity, which was embarked on at the beginning to uphold a convincing detachment from the investigation route. This was adapted to make it evident that researchers can have an effect in the research process and demonstrate how self-reflection could be developed during the research process.

3.7.1.4 Analytical introspection: Disentangling radical and societal creations in research.

This section discusses introspection from an analytical point of view that observed radical and societal productions which informed the research process. Reflexivity examines political awareness and social creations that enlighten the investigation process from a critical standpoint (Dowling, 2006:12). Critical reflexivity is discussed more often than not in disability theory, where it is analysed culturally, historically, socially and politically (Meekosha & Shuttleworth, 2009; Vehmas & Watson, 2014). Analytical reflexivity suggests that knowledge production is firmly rooted in deep-seated traditional circumstances supplemented by radical influences. The researcher's mission was to restore moral ethics and political enquiry that contours the investigation process.

3.7.1.5 Strengths and weaknesses of reflexivity and positionality

This section discusses the strengths and weaknesses of reflexivity and positionality. Reflexivity is crucial in forming new information between the interviewer and the interviewee. Its benefit is based on responsibility, reliability, productivity, lucidity, principles, provision, and individual progress, which is valuable for the truthfulness of the investigation procedure, the excellence of the information produced, the proper management of those individuals studied, and the investigator's happiness and progress. It is also advantageous for the reliability of the research progress, the excellence of the facts produced, the ethical conduct of individuals being studied, and researcher's comfort and progress (Finlay, 2002b: 532). Challenges that are hindrances and disadvantageous to introspection remained private, project-related, and universal.

Notwithstanding the different understandings and practices of reflexivity, it is generally understood as giving 'attention to the complex relationship between processes of knowledge production and the various contexts such processes, as well as the involvement of the knowledge producer' (Alvesson & Sköldbberg, 2009: 8). In qualitative research, much has been written in literature about the significance of reflexivity, yet, empirical study is still to be found in the actual practice on reflexivity by researchers for integration into the research. Reflexivity's

main focus is largely on definition (Probost, 2015). However, reflexivity is capable of confusing the research processes as it can make the research lose track of its objectives. Hence, reflexivity is defined as a “swamp, a gloomy dark and unclear terrain of self-analysis and self-disclosure that is endemic with endless egotistic personal who is interminable deconstructions, where the researcher can become hopelessly lost” (Finlay, 2002a:226). The majority of researchers concur with Finlay (2002b) in describing reflexivity as a muddy, messy, swarming mass of interminably encrusted subjectivity that necessitates for the researcher to come clean (Brown, 2006; Pillow, 2003; Valandra, 2012). Individual tests for the investigator have been based on the management of expressive reactions from the respondents where reflexivity may be exposed or self-loathing and nervousness induced through interrogation of one's expectations and beliefs (Gilgun, 2008; Hsiung, 2008).

Positionality is a significant consideration in action research in both its influence on the research and the research approval, but it also affects the determination of the results. Positionality discusses how societal position shapes the different identities through the power and access it has, the power and privileges of influencing research methods. A report of positionality in a research article can improve the legitimacy of its pragmatic data, including its theoretical contribution. Positionality can be regarded as a portion of the ethical landscape of contact-based enquiry because the interactions on which such research is based are permeated with questions of how researchers present themselves and how they are perceived by their interlocutors (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009: 8).

However, while understanding positionality delivers major profits, it comes at a price. When an author intentionally distorts the borders between the individual and the professionals by implanting their practices into their academic work, they expose themselves and not only their thoughts to criticism and harm. That hurt may encompass the depreciation of the intellectual content of the labour because it is assumed not to meet social science ethics of impartiality or objectivity. Positionality also entails expressive labour. In some instances, scholars converse through emotional memoirs with their research subjects, commentators, and readers. However, doing so may cause embarrassment when a researcher is often asked to epitomise and express their ethnicity or gender, instead of their scholarship history. At the extreme, researchers who experienced a physical or psychological disturbance may injure themselves by repeating their misery. This harm excessively disturbs women and individuals of colour, who are at present marginalised in the arena (Massoud, 2022).

The researcher experienced challenges from some respondents, such as managing emotional responses, more so that some were crying while others were angry when narrating their stories

due to pain. Reflexivity became a powerful experience for the researcher as it influenced uneasiness, defeat, susceptibility, and unwelcome sentiments, as she was a novice investigator. It has been discovered that most investigators are inclined to pay attention to the various methods only to their successful qualitative revisions, while the importance of self-reflection has been widely neglected. Probost (2015) confirmed that although more literature has been published on the significance of introspection in qualitative studies, there has been no experiential revision confirming researchers are putting reflexivity into training and integrating it into practice. Lack of reflexivity in qualitative research has been reflected on in recently published social work articles (Barusch, Gringeri, & Georgem, 2011: 7).

3.8. Limitations of the study

This section discusses the sample size and its shortcomings.

Sample size: The experiences that the researcher had were those related to the people of Soshanguve Township within the Municipality of Tshwane. The sample size was limited as the sample was only obtained from Soshanguve Township and not from other townships surrounding Soshanguve. The respondents in this study ought not to differ meaningfully from other PWD, or other potential respondents in other townships in South Africa. The PWD were hard to reach. They were very scarce on the streets, as one to two weeks would pass without seeing them in public places, including churches. Even if the researcher was referred to places where she could find them for recruitment, they were very sensitive and not easily approachable. The PWD were also not keen to be interviewed as they seemed to have had bad experiences with researchers. The researcher had language barriers in communicating with the locals, but the interpreter was helpful as she could speak all the languages.

Transportation: Transport systems were a problem in the township as taxis were everywhere on the streets, making walking and driving almost impossible. Transportation was generally difficult to manage as it was a distance from Pretoria CBD to Soshanguve Township, and its zones were far apart from each other. Transport was always a threat on rainy and windy days as roads had potholes and were muddy without smooth surfaces. Taxi ranks were not user-friendly, while taxi drivers who were not driving with care on the roads.

Limited Literature: The lack of literature on unemployed PWD in libraries and depositories was a huge challenge since there was limited literature on disability and unemployment, particularly in Africa. Hence, the researcher had to rely on secondary material, for example, media, encyclopaedias, newspapers, articles and journals on disability and literature from the West. The researcher had no prior information about the topic and did not know the important

variables to examine. The topic was new and sensitive as the subject had not been addressed before with a certain sample or group of people.

Political turmoil: Political interruptions of service delivery occurred very often in the township, and there was no guarantee that the researcher would reach her destination. Huge strikes were accompanied by the burning of tyres on the roads and massive crowds chanting on the streets, and there was no time limit for strikes to end. The researcher had to listen to the morning news every day before travelling to Soshanguve. These strikes could take two to three weeks or a month, sometimes months.

Lack of funds: The study was very costly as travelling weekly to and from Pretoria's city centre to Soshanguve Township was a stretch of 45 km, including travelling from zone to zone. Sometimes, the researcher had to visit the township on weekends during the recruitment period and sometimes two times in one week. Also, travelling from Pretoria CBD to and from Venda was costly with expensive toll gates and accommodation. Unfortunately, the researcher could not obtain any funds from the University Department of Finance. She paid all the expenses of her PhD journey out of her own pocket. This is despite sending claiming forms submitted to the Finance Department. Her requests were unsuccessful.

Inevitable circumstances: This study was hampered by the country's experiences of three harsh conditions beyond the masses' control, while some were due to government regulations. Firstly, there was an outbreak of coronavirus (COVID-19), which took the whole of South Africa by storm since it could be fatal. Secondly, the strict rules applied by the state for lockdown with its various stages affected the researcher's studies as all universities and public libraries were closed indefinitely. The third crisis was load-shedding, which affected every home, university, and business place still in existence. This painful reality affected the researcher's studies as she could not finish her studies on time.

3.8.1. Validity and Reliability

This section discusses validity and reliability and their importance to the study. Sheron (2004) noted that reliability occurs when coders reach a stage where they all come to an agreement on the application of themes in data analysis. Research confirmed that consistency for researched data has to be valuable, useful, reliable and valid as valid measurements make valid data, although validity itself depends on the collective opinion of researchers. Researchers had conflicting opinions regarding inter-coder reliability. Different researchers from many established frameworks argued that it was a crucial aspect peculiar to qualitative studies, ensuring the validity of the methodology used (Sheron, 2004).

The high level of agreement across coders indicates that the notion is not only a product of the investigator's mind, and it further supports the validity of the topic. The researcher's confidence in identifying relevant themes was bolstered by reaching a consensus across different methodologies, much like the discovery of comparable themes in many studies.

The trustworthiness of research may be evaluated based on four main criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability (Amankwaa, 2016; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The research included validity and reliability measures to ensure the credibility and dependability of the methods. Validity played a significant role in the data-gathering phase. Collecting valid information from the study was essential, and it was necessary to ensure the accuracy of the respondents' information gathered during interviews (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

Dependability

Since data from the study had to be stable, dependability is concerned with data stability under different conditions and over time. The study depended on the processes outlined in the research proposal. The study was conducted according to the proposed data collection and analysis method, interpreting findings, and reporting the study results (Polit & Beck, 2012). To check the study's dependability, the researcher needed to follow up to determine whether she had made mistakes, adjust where necessary in conceptualising the study, collect data, interpret findings, and ensure consistency for good study outcome. The more the researcher was consistent in the research process, the more dependable the study results were (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

Credibility

Trustworthiness was tested for the collected data for checking its credibility, and credibility was considered throughout the research, based on validity (i.e., tool measuring the degree of realistic quantity) and reliability (i.e., the tool used gives the same results if applied repeatedly). The concept utilised in this revision and collected data were tested to see whether they were trustworthy (Babbie, 2011:122).

3.8.2. Ethical implications

This section discusses the ethical concerns of PWD. Science ethics is concerned with what is right and wrong, "because scientific research is a form of human conduct, it follows that such conduct has to conform to generally accepted norms and values" (Mouton, 2001; 238). This section's purpose is to discuss the consequences pertinent to the study. It is suggested that ethical concerns in research have not yet followed the standards of research ethics (Bryen,

2016). Holloway & Jefferson (2000) concur with Bryen (2016) that ethics' primary focus should be preserved for the interests of the respondents in all stages of the research.

Bryen (2016) noted that ethics came from a collaboration of researchers and affected people, animals and the environment where there is a probable or concrete conflict of interest. In various instances, everybody may not have the same interests. In most cases, a competition of choices included compromising amid the benefits and privileges of several gatherings or events. In certain occasions, doing right may have comprised assigning the better substance in advance of precise profits that may have influenced the growth of the researcher. (Bryen, 2016). Moral anxieties encompass susceptible public, the absence of well-versed agreement, and support against unwarranted adversity while involving PWD in research. Therefore, research ethics demand acceptable conduct that can be recognised based on logical standards of right and wrong, meaning not every individual has to agree upon what is ethical regarding a particular scenario. However, research ethics should be founded on the researcher's notions of not hurting anybody during the research process (Neuman, 2012:96).

Punch (2005) illuminated that moral matters remain preconditioned in every kind of investigation, and this unique study is not exclusive. Innovative scientific developments, like social platform debates, introduce fresh virtuous anxieties. Moral deliberations prominent to research with susceptible respondent's state that they should be managed carefully and be protected. In medical ethics, the principle is a fundamental standard that patients are entitled to protection to a certain limit from vulnerability. Because PWD have been exposed to ongoing traumatic conditions right through their lives, they need an elevated level of compassion and protection. The Research and Ethics Committee of Venda granted permission to conduct research via my supervisor to conduct research. Consequently, the ethical issues considered in this research are a measure of the research process comprised of consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality, anonymity, and avoidance of harm. Facts about the determination and processes of the research were delivered (Stephan, 2013).

Ethical clearance

Informed consent

Mouton (2001; 238) noted that, "Science ethics concerns what is right and wrong, because scientific research is a form of human conduct, it follows that such conduct has to conform to generally accepted norms and values." The informed consent is the first document signed in the study by a person to be interviewed confirming their understanding of the informed consent procedure, interviews and consequences. It is a professional agreement for participation in the

enquiry proposed. It is neither a document to be merely signed up, but also a procedure to be followed in which the respondent must understand the research and its associated risks. Therefore, participants need to understand the procedure of informed consent before enrolling and participating in the research, that no information, including their names, will be divulged to anyone except to the researcher, and data will be kept in a safe place.

Participants were invited to join interviews signed forms. After being satisfied with the explanation, this served as proof of voluntary participation. If participants joined and realised later that they did not want to be interviewed, they were free to leave without harm (Udo-Akalang, 2013). Berg *et al.* (2011) noted that persons who, by virtue of the nature of their disabilities cannot give consent, needed a proxy/curatorship (proxy consent). It is a fundamental ethical standard honourable for medical concerns that require susceptible sick people to be eligible for an amount of security that reflects their weakness. In medical ethics, the principle is a fundamental standard that patients are entitled to protection to a certain limit from vulnerability.

In critical care research, fortification is frequently recognised by means of so-called proxy consent. Proxy consent for research participation institutes exchanged decisions and judgment by a close relative or friend, centred on knowledge of the patient's values, preferences, and view of life. For the consent to be genuinely considered, the proxy must be informed of and comprehend three society, and search practice: (1) that participation is voluntary, and the consent can be withdrawn at any time; (2) that the research is designed to benefit future patients and society as a whole, and not the individual study participant; and (3) that participation involves an incremental non-therapeutic risk. If this is not achieved since the research is to be conducted under the conditions where the proxy is unavailable, considerable protection of the patient must be ensured by other means. Thus, the research must be planned explicitly to benefit critically ill patients for the incremental non-therapeutic risk to comprise a minimal risk (Berg *et al.*, 2011).

If an adult responder is unable to sign a permission form due to their handicap, they will need to get informed consent from a proxy. This proxy might be their spouse, parent, legal guardian, family elder, or community leader. This might be particularly significant for participants from cultures that prioritise a communal (such as family) identity, rather than an independent individual identity. Under some conditions, obtaining permission may be both a legal and cultural obligation. Nevertheless, under these conditions, consent to participate from individual individuals with a disability issue will always be acquired, whether it is expressed or implied.

The procedure for acquiring this should be recorded for documentation purposes (Berg, Møller & Rossel, 2013).

Voluntary participation

The “voluntary participation” principle does not allow a participant to be forced into participating in the research. The researcher fully informed respondents to their satisfaction about the procedures and the risks involved by taking part in the study. No one was forced to join. Moreover, there would be no consequences if the participants decided to leave. It must be emphasised that no incentives or compensation were given to those participating in the research. If the respondent agreed to participate, that person would be given a form to sign. This would be proof of voluntary participation. If respondents realised after joining that they did not want to be interviewed, they would be free to leave (Udo-Akalang, 2013).

Anonymity

Pseudonyms were used instead of real names to protect the participants. This was done by following a protocol that had been included in the research design to attain data (NDA, 2014).

Privacy and confidentiality

Privacy and confidentiality ensure that the information about the respondents will be protected and not be exposed to other people who are not part of the research. Respondents were guaranteed that no information would be divulged without their permission. Care was taken not to ask questions that might make a respondent to be uncomfortable (Polit & Beck, 2012: 176).

No harm

Harm can be applied physically, psychologically and verbally, but social research has established principles to assist and safeguard research participants from harm. These procedures have been followed meticulously to protect the participants from any harm instigated by their participation in the research due to their contribution or exposure to risk, threats or verbal abuse.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter presented a comprehensive, detailed description of interpretative narrative methodology, qualitative narrative research design, narrative approach, deductive and inductive research approach, and sampling procedures. Amongst other methods discussed in this chapter were semi-structured interviews and focus group in-depth interviews, data

gathering and analysis including coding and recoding, reflexivity and positionality, the limitations of the study, validity and reliability, and ethical values. The next chapter is chapter four, which will discuss opportunities available for PWD in Soshanguve Township.

Chapter Four

Objective 1. Opportunities available for PWD in Soshanguve Township

4.1 Introduction

This chapter identifies opportunities available for PWD in Soshanguve Township.

The findings were that there were few opportunities available for PWD, including 1) qualification, 2) social assistance and financial support, 3) disability grants and social protection, 4) access to social services, and 5) related cash transfer programmes in this township. Most PWD remain unemployed and have no access to opportunities such as information, education, transportation, housing, assistive devices and health facilities, projects, and medication, least to mention buying them as they could not afford (Masango, 2019). In 1994, an international Conference on Population and Development was held in Cairo. It acknowledged the importance of the equal opportunities that PWD are entitled to.

Evidence shows that PWD of the working age group between the ages of 18 and 65 years were more likely to be unemployed than their non-disabled colleagues. Employment opportunities, particularly inspiring ones, were scarce throughout economic uncertainty (United Nations, 2015). The literature confirms that unemployment is not distributed equally and according to the country's demographics in many countries, and this also applies to South Africa. Documentation shows that, although more women than men with disabilities were unemployed in this country since 2009, the prevalence of the recurring years of joblessness among women was escalating. These numbers have also increased among indigenous people in general while the numbers are lower for white people. However, statistics show unemployment is the highest among black women in Africa (Stats SA, 2013).

These long periods of redundancy increased significant suffering in PWD, from chronic illnesses to major diseases, as they could not retain nor attain decent jobs (Du Plessis, 2015). Yeo (2001:11) noted that excluding PWD from education and employment meant they were restricted regarding social contacts, which led them to be exposed to illnesses and low self-confidence due to inaccessibility of resources, particularly employment opportunities, with long-lasting scarcity, increased exclusion, and risks to illness, injury, and impairment. Physically disabled people can work as most of them are often not ill. Wessel (2008:26) attested that PWD have not benefitted from the country's economic wealth to date in South Africa, as they have neither status nor class. Therefore, PWD were denied access to employment, skills training, or qualifications as life chances.

Wessel (2008: 27) observed that the country has two characteristic tools it uses to support a concept of equal opportunity, namely, that of a code which is conserved within the model, and that of evocative community services in confirming equal rights in occupation, for the same satisfaction of opportunities and benefits. The instruments are also available in the workplace to eliminate prejudice and injustice in pursuing exemplary public service. Wessel also distinguished between what was linked to the notions of equality, equal treatment, and job possibilities. He proposed that the notion of equal chances within the framework of government institutions was to be handled similarly, notably in terms of employment and education, hence the concept of equal employment possibilities (Wessel, 2008: 27).

Evidence shows that no policy intercession is proposed for improving PWD' unemployment predicament and alleviating their devastating living conditions. This quandary has persisted undisturbed for decades (Mitra, 2010). Attitudes and economic practices play a significant role in the barrier against the progress of PWD (DPSA, 2013). Inaccessibility to the environment's institutional information and exclusionary barriers continued to inhibit PWD from accessing available resources and opportunities in the country to maximise their potential (Naami, 2015). The evidence shows that most PWD in Soshanguve Township were semi-illiterate and had no school access from a young age.

Most PWD in the townships were unemployed due to discrimination since they were not educated, and many did not have skills or qualifications. They wanted to work but could not; hence their life chances were reduced, and they were doomed to poverty due to inaccessibility to education and occupation. These consequences further aggravated long-lasting marginalisation, exclusion, rejection, and complex hazards of sickness, harm, and impairment. To have a skill or qualification was beneficial for PWD' lives, as there was evidence that physically disabled people could work. The opportunities mentioned above in the township were difficult to access; hence very few people were employed.

Having access to a school for a child with a disability in Soshanguve Township was a problem. Children's learning opportunities were restricted to standard six until recently when the doors to tertiary learning were opened. Most schools may not be accessible or may be far away. The previous policies of segregation of disability schools from "normal schools" created divisions between disabled and non-disabled children to attend separate schools. The disabled schools created an arrangement for special schools, separating them from each other by creating specialties according to the various disabilities. Today, there are special schools for the Blind, Deaf, Intellectual Disabled, Physical Disabled, Mute or Silent, and many more. These special

schools were provided with their own academic curriculum to fit their purpose, a thing which caused a policy modification in all-inclusive instruction.

The government changed this policy of segregation to all-inclusive education in 2005 but since then, there has been no implementation yet of this policy. Currently, it seems there are no readily trained teachers to teach disabled children in all-inclusive schools. Hence, dealing with a child with a disability is difficult to handle (Malakwane, 2012). The new strategy was transferral towards all-inclusive instruction that had to deal with disabled children attending similar institutions as non-disabled children from primary level to high school level. However, the process has been very slow. Meaningful employment opportunities in Soshanguve Township were life-threatening to PWD and their well-being (Malakwane, 2012). When the researcher first collected data in the township, the respondents appeared despondent and stranded about finding work and transport to return home.

They had limited access to resources such as education, skills, or qualifications for entry into the job market and university, with fewer social grants and numerous problems within the labour department. Literature shows that, for most PWD, problems were caused by the unavailability of employment opportunities in Soshanguve Township. In addition, most PWD in the township were destitute, but their biggest problem following unemployment and education was homelessness. They have no access to housing or land. The PWD in townships lack opportunities from all angles (Mitra, 2010). Existing collected works sighted a link between poverty and disability that is more multilayered than formerly expected with subtle shades of meanings that are clarified (Banks & Polack, 2013; Graham *et al.*, 2014; Groce *et al.*, 2011; South African Department of Social Development [DSD], 2016).

The collected information above paid special attention to the complex facet of lack of resources in the framework of powerlessness with the consideration that PWD may well have major obstructions in their lives, such as poor health status, lack of medium of instruction in terms of education, and unemployment, which decreased prospects and revenue possibilities, while incurring experiences of non-remunerated business expenses. Moreover, this small population is varied, as are their experiences with diverse barriers and costs, which depend on the type of loss, sexual category and environmental dynamics. At this stage, it is not known precisely how and which category of PWD are oppressed by the paucity and lack of resources and how social protection measures may have affected them. It is suggested that specific research on the poverty-disability linkage should be conducted as it is urgently required (Hannas-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017).

This research should comprise data that is disseminated to comprehend the multifaceted shades of meanings of the impacts of disability on personalities, families and humanity generally. The research should specifically be applied to economically developing countries currently carrying liability and increasing the social protection mechanisms (IDS, 2010; International Labour Office & International Disability Alliance, 2015; DSD, 2016). Historically, the country is known for social security mechanisms directed at PWD. Consequently, the influence of the existing repetition on the cost-effective susceptibility in PWD functions as per economically developing countries with clear records showing fewer opportunities available and that accessing them was a problem.

Much as the government has delivered more than 3.7 million opportunities and offer people the opportunity to locate themselves in places of their choice since 1994, the digital figure of finished accommodation entities revealed a deterioration ever since 2012. There are 3.6 million informal settlements where mainly black South Africans, including PWD, lived without a secured tenure, and access to functional services remained a momentous challenge (Ebrahim & Masiangoako, 2019). Soshanguve Township is a big township mostly surrounded by industrial areas, universities, governmental buildings, huge stadiums, many churches and schools with huge business structures. However, for most job-seekers, the challenges of missing employment opportunities and information appeared very serious. Most respondents felt there were no job opportunities of any type despite the industrial areas surrounding them, and felt they had no access to the labour department.

Due to a lack of opportunities in the township, most PWD stopped schooling at lower grades while others have not been at school, making it more difficult for them to get education and employment. One respondent attested that *“I ended up schooling at Grade 9. I didn’t pursue [it] at school. After finishing Grade 9, I just stayed at home because there was [no] reason to go to school; I had nothing but poor [sic].”* Evidence shows that, because of PWD’ semi-illiteracy and destitution, they could not participate in the country’s economy; as such, they were not seen in the streets as unemployment made them inactive. The young people with disabilities as job-seekers experienced exclusion when it came to employment and re-training, and when they applied for jobs, they were not called for interviews (Mitra, 2010).

Respondents felt that exclusion and stigma were a stumbling block to access employment and education. They associated stigma and lack of qualification with a disability as employers first look at their disability when they interview. This barrier was intertwined with exclusions regarding education and training opportunities (Johannsmeier, 2007). The respondents were

also unhappy about non-disabled colleagues employed in posts advertised for PWD. The PWD blamed this quagmire on SASSA and the labour department officials for ignoring them and not pushing for EEA Legislation to be implemented. This statement is factual, pertaining to the previously deprived communities' lack of opportunities in South Africa, such as the Soshanguve Township residents (Kothari & Chaudhry, 2009:14; Soudien, 2012; UN-Habitat, 2010:13).

According to Pinilla-Roncancio *et al.* (2020), social exclusion is about fairness and how marginal individuals were deprived of equal prospects they were entitled to, as they were discriminated against in accessing essential services. This exclusion affects their stages of welfare and life chances, which was perceived as respondents not having any information about the proper criteria for attending a Learnership programme and receiving the stipend from the labour department. Hence, it was not easy for them to access learnership programmes.

Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie (2017) noted that with limited access to opportunities such as projects, resources, education, skills or qualifications for entry into the job market, there are fewer social grants, many problems with the labour department and more unavailability of employment opportunities for the majority of PWD in Soshanguve Township. Above all, these people were impoverished and semi-illiterate, living with their families, but their major problem was homelessness, as they had no access to land and housing. Although employment opportunities were scarce in the township at the time of research, it was noted that there were a few opportunities available, but accessing them was a problem.

Weber (2014) noted that before the 1950s, many societies deprived people of material rewards and cultural goods as they were not distributed equally, and this inequality is reflected in most societies in the world. As he stated, "a man's economic status is determined by his employment which is seen as the most important wealth and earnings for the entire population" (Giddens *et al.*, 2014). However, Ardington *et al.* (2015:456) argue that the supposed possibilities of these policies were not achieved in a way that could make it possible for PWD to have access to them, commonly because of the obvious number of black African PWD. Hence, they were unemployed and sitting in their houses in the Soshanguve Township.

This mirror image of the unimplemented policies made the researcher question the motives behind this dormancy of the unemployment of PWD with imaginable encounters facing them, leading to idleness. Ardington *et al.* (2015:456) referred to dormancy as affecting semi-literate people, without employment, with no training, but seeking job opportunities. The researcher pondered how PWD met their daily needs and survived under such hostile conditions during

apartheid South Africa. This also leaves the researcher wondering how they are surviving in the post-apartheid era, as only minor changes have been made, that did not change their livelihood.

These questions caused the researcher to be anxious and watch the influence of the countries' skewed position of the governmental structure and economic system, from racial segregation to the new democratic rule. Democratic rule doesn't seem to have applied an effort to change the lives of unemployed PWD for a better future. The next section covers qualifications and training.

4.2 Qualification and training

The section discusses the training and qualification of PWD for entry into learnership programmes.

Qualifications are important to PWD when it comes to work and living a better lifestyle. Much as there was no easy access for PWD to do training courses, many employers needed to consider formal qualifications as essential for job recruitment and skills building. However, few employers consider the importance of training these people and how good they could be when properly trained with skills. They could not see it necessary for PWD to be in the job market as they have an attitude against them. Having access to learnership programmes for training seemed to be a struggle with challenges for PWD.

The PWD who have already qualified experienced difficulties in accessing the job market. Those with tertiary education, if employed, were likely to be placed at a lower employment level, where they were overqualified. In the disability world, it was symbolic of PWD who were uneducated or semi-illiterate to be frequently placed in less-paying positions with lower occupational scenarios with poor functioning environments (ILO, 2015). The PWD believed getting a qualification was more important to them. Literature reveals that PWD lack equal opportunities to attain education. This lack was due to discriminatory practices that have always looked down upon them. Even if there were employment opportunities available, they would miss them due to a lack of information and missing opportunities. It was not easy for them to attain qualifications as they were deprived of accessing learnership programmes where they could get a skill.

The study revealed that the percentage of PWD who completed university degrees escalated from 0.3% in 2002 to within 1% and 2% in 2014 (Khumela, 2014). PWD' health statuses are generally reported as poor due to unemployment, poverty and inaccessibility to health centres

(World Report, 2011). The literature revealed that inclusive education has been accepted as a specific logic model for states to give assurance globally of non-discrimination in the right to education (Kelly, 2019). This assurance has been accepted on paper but has not been implemented yet in South Africa. Hence, most PWD in Soshanguve Township and other provinces have not been included officially in so-called “normal schools” and were unlikely to obtain a skill or a qualification, although there were provisions in place.

Exclusion was also exercised at schools as a discriminatory practice to prevent learners from attending school on the grounds of an impairment, with no intention of providing an alternative education opportunity for a student on equivalent terms with other students. This scheme was used to exclude a student with disabilities concerning the education system due to age, development or diagnosis located in a social welfare or healthcare environment without any entry to education (UN, 2013). Respondents expressed the importance of qualification through the following quotes.

A qualification is important because you have hope that one day you can be employed but we don't have access anywhere in the Labour Department for job opportunities we take our strides to look for opportunities and we are not even called for interviews coz the doors are closed for us.

To just get a school being disabled to study and get education is a huge problem in this country and education to PWD was restricted to Standard 6 until recently; that there are few schools for children with disabilities, and [not] even one university where students can do research about themselves because disability doesn't attract money.

Research revealed that, in South Africa, most Blacks do not benefit from the country's economy, particularly PWD who have neither status nor class. Having a skill or qualification could benefit their lives as they could not otherwise be employed (Keeton, 2014).

4.2.1 Access to training-learnership programmes

This section discusses training through learnership programmes.

Learnership programmes occur in a work environment that requires a registered qualification of NQF. Learnership programmes are associated with employment or fieldwork. These programmes are connected to the work environment with practical fieldwork and customer service of the State Information Technology Agency (SITA, 2020). The government of South

Africa formed training programmes for PWD to get skills and qualifications to be employable. SITA created these Learnership programmes in all nine provinces of the country. The agency created nearby centres for easy access to welcome everybody with a disability, who was ready to learn and get skills or qualifications (SITA, 2021).

4.2.1.1 Criteria for entry to a Learnership programme

This section discusses the criteria of candidates for entry into training.

SITA also have a criterion for candidates to be admitted to the centre for training (SITA, 2021). The candidates should be between 18 and 35 and South African citizens with an identification document (ID). The candidate should be unemployed with a Matric but without required working experience. If the candidate is computer literate, it will be an advantage. Applicants should not have attended or participated in any Centre for Learnership programmes. Candidates should send their CVs with certified copies of original qualifications and a copy of their South African ID document specifying the area of interest to internship8@sita.co.za. If the candidate does not get a reply two months before the deadline date, they must regard the application as not having been accepted (SITA, 2021) as it does not meet the requirements. Learners who meet the minimum requirements would go through training for 12 months and may be considered for full-time employment after completing the programme. In 2021, SITA had more than 102 vacancies for PWD.

The researcher found that respondents were unaware of this information of sending applications directly to SITA. What they knew was to go via the labour department for processing application forms. One of SITA's rules and regulations is that employers must encourage PWD to attend these programmes and see that they get employed immediately after completion, as they would have been qualified and ready for work. Although employers knew about this information, they concealed it from PWD and seemed to have a way of blocking candidates by not processing application forms through the right channel so that every process should start with them at the labour department.

4.2.1.2 Difficulties experienced by candidates in accessing learnership programmes.

This section discusses the learnership programmes' inaccessibility to PWD for training.

Most candidates have no access to learnership programmes and were not called for interviews even when they applied for jobs. They also had no access to job opportunities in the labour

department as the doors were closed for them. They struggled to get skills or qualifications. It was even worse for people without a matric certificate and who were mostly young. Education opportunities were not accessible to black PWD. They were opened to white PWD and non-disabled people. This was evident in how the Department of Labour and SASSA operate regarding the employment of PWD. The interviews revealed that the Labour Department and SASSA would advertise posts for PWD to apply for training. When they applied, there won't be any response from both these departments, and they would later learn that the posts were given to non-disabled people and disabled white people. The non-disabled people were employed because of their quick performance in doing tasks.

The PWD felt that exclusion and stigma were stumbling blocks to having access to employment and Learnership programmes. The PWD also felt that stigma and lack of qualification, including disability-related problems for them, as employers would look at their disability first and comment afterwards when they go for interviews. This barrier was intertwined with exclusion from education and training opportunities (Johannsmeier, 2007). Respondents were also not happy about non-disabled colleagues who were employed in posts advertised for PWD. The PWD blamed this quagmire on SASSA, the Labour Department's officials, for ignoring them and not pushing for EEA Legislation to be implemented. Literature confirms that the US government protect PWD against discrimination. Employers were warned not to discriminate against PWD in the labour department, as education is their right (Kelly, 2013). This practice in South Africa is not the same as in the US, as PWD were not protected by the legislation which is supposed to fight for their rights. Respondents have their testimonies as saying;

We have no access to sponsored Learnership programmes provided for us to get a skill or qualification, and we struggle to get a skill or qualification; many PWD are not educated in South African townships and in rural areas; more of them are semi-illiterate, especially here in Soshanguve as a result they can't get jobs hence we miss opportunities.

To just get a school, being disabled to study and get education is a huge problem in this country, and education to PWD was restricted to Standard 6 until recently; that there are few schools for children with disabilities, and [not] even one university where students can do research about themselves because disability doesn't attract money.

Watermeyer (2013) stated that "attitudes and economic practices modelled the greatest interference when it comes to job opportunities. Subsequently, a formal qualification among PWD appears to be of critical importance in terms of influencing their future life chances."

The majority of black South Africans, including PWD, live in devastating conditions and survive through unskillful manual labour; as a result, their unemployment rate is high, and this has a consequence in the economy of the country as their productivity is low and lacking contribution (Ebrahim & Masiangoako, 2019); Kelly, (2019). To endorse fairness of opportunity and inclusion of PWD are essential to social and economic development to meet the Millennium Development Goals' global financial and economic objectives (ILO, 2008). The principles of a non-racial approach were presented by the democratic government after 1994. These principles conveyed a message of visions and innovations that would promote inclusivity of all races, including PWD, in the component of economy and education. However, this special consideration in reform came up against various obstacles in the context of economic shifts.

Dube (2005), in responding to the above-mentioned statement by Ebrahim and Masiangoako, (2019) and Kelly, (2019), summarised that most stakeholders and the South African citizens contributed immensely towards influencing innovative guidelines for the abolition of discrimination in the labour force and workstations. The government provided opportunities for workers to be skilled in accomplishing new jobs. This progress brought about improvements in the workplace of such skills as Human Resource Development. Respondents' express importance of qualification through the following quotes:

Employers are corrupt and ask money to be paid to get a Learnership programme knowing fully well we don't work and have no money and poor the labour department is dysfunctional. We have no access anywhere in the Labour Department, even for jobs.

The slogan by employers says no matric, no qualification, and no employment; this doesn't work. The-rrr! labour department is dead; they think that disabled people are dumb; we don't have brains to think there's fraud going on in the labour department and in SASSA, and official think we do [not] see this.

Research revealed that, in South Africa, most blacks do not benefit from the economy of the country, particularly PWD who have no status or class in society. A skill or qualification could benefit their lives as they could otherwise not be employed (Keeton, 2014).

4.3 Problems Encountered by Candidates During Uploading of Application Forms in the System and the Selection Process

This section discusses the difficulties the candidates experienced during the selection and uploading processes before preparing for training.

The PWD faced various discrimination problems aligned with the selection process, loading of application forms into the system, and exclusion from finding a job after finishing training programmes. They have no access to resources, although they are eligible for them, let alone having a voice in the government that would be heard to understand their plight (Watermeyer, 2013). Employers were reluctant to retrain qualified PWD, complaining of lack of funds, although SITA was paying for them. These people had work experience as they were employed before. They wanted to participate in the workforce in various ways by being involved in employment programmes to earn a salary. The DG was not enough to sustain their families.

Kelly (2019) noted that the DG would offer better benefits for PWD, particularly for candidates already embroiled in re-registering for short-term employment. This would necessitate partnerships among departments in the government to coordinate with other current platforms like Expanded Public Works Programmes, Education Training Authorities and Job Centre. Respondents face hardships in achieving up-loading of application forms in the system in the selection processes. When the candidates applied for training in the Labour Department, they faced months of waiting with a period of up to three months before they could get the results of whether they were accepted. The uploading process of application forms into the system and the selection processes of these firms were going at a snail's pace and took more months to be completed in processing.

On enquiring about the delay of the results from employers, the employers complained of the shortage of manpower to speed up these processes. Employers explained that the processing of the selection and uploading of application forms were too much to handle for the few workers available, as it took time, and this caused delays. According to respondents who knew how these processes worked, the explanation for the delay was unsatisfactory, as these tasks did not take so much time. On investigation, they found that the delay in these processes was not about a shortage of manpower but more that it was accompanied by corruption of employers. According to respondents, the choice of which candidates were going for training or not was based on employers' choice. Respondents confirmed that employers asked for money from them to assist in speeding up the processes.

It transpired from the interviews that the delay was not caused by the shortage of staff rather, the bribery demanded by employers. They even used desperate respondents among them to go through the process of attending learnership programmes. Also, the rejected respondents noted that those who paid were mostly those with limited chances to go through since they were unqualified. They could not meet SITA's standards of attending training. However, these respondents were few and managed to exploit this corruption gap by responding to corrupt employers. Because the corrupt employers wanted to be seen as not discriminatory, they admitted a few respondents from those with qualifications while the majority was left out. These candidates who were left behind and qualified perceived this as a rejection of their very existence and did not have hope of any opportunity that would be available for them.

After applying for the form, you go and wait at home to be called. After two months you go to the labour department to find from employers why all this delay of results you are asked to pay a lump sum of money to assist in speeding up the process, while you were waiting for months at home not working. These people are corrupt as they allowed some of us to go for training without matrices or qualification because they were bribed employers.

Most companies hesitated to employ PWD, pointing to lack of capability as the main reason for rejecting them, while a few companies were willing to employ and retrain them. Most employers have a fear of the unknown about PWD. They feared retraining and accommodating them, stating that it would bring major changes and costs in the company environment. Employers also feared complaints from non-disabled workers about the changes in the work environment. Their fear was based on losing most non-disabled workers (Maja *et al.*, 2011). Kromberg (1985) concurs with Maja *et al.* (2012) that PWD were semi-skilled and lived in poverty-stricken areas in the urban and rural areas right through their lives, from one generation to the next.

These PWD were not employed and were unschooled due to discrimination. The few companies that offered help for retraining encouraged PWD to work as volunteers for ten months in their organisations before going for retraining. This offer was evident in the statistics of PWD. If they did volunteer, there was an 80% chance that learners would be retrained for full-time employment after finishing learnership programmes. One of the companies which was an example of retraining PWD was Insimbi Training Centre (Insimbi Training Centre for the Disabled People, 2021).

The literature reveals that exclusion and stigma were the tools most used by employers to suppress PWD and isolate them, using barriers from various degrees of oppression, such as poverty, lesser educational accomplishments, and reduced employment opportunities. Those who were employed, worked only part-time jobs under intolerable conditions. They would often work in shelters and earn a salary that was below average (ILO, 0215). The country's social protective technologies pertaining to social grants counterbalanced the economic susceptibility of PWD to some point, as it did not consider the depressing economic situations of various types of disability. For example, the escalating out-of-pocket costs concerning PWD desire a reasonable social protection plan that will include accessibility of services and programmes pertaining to disability benefits (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). Respondents understood that accessing an opportunity to be selected for registration and attend learnership programmes was not easy. They considered this predicament as a barrier to their life chances. Respondents narrated their experience as follows:

Labour and SASSA Departments do not care for us as they are supposed to. The Legislation and the government have totally failed us as EEA legislation is not implemented. We have lost our dignity as we cannot get job opportunities because those in the higher structures do not feel pain coz they are not in the same situation as us. They don't even care to give us feedback 3-months waiting is a long time waiting.

If we are employed, we are working under difficult conditions in secluded places like shelters where you can't breathe in summer or [it is] very cold in winter with little salary, and when you catch cold you are labelled as a sick person.

Sometimes when you were looking for a job, and you qualify and [are] lucky enough to be chosen, you were sent straight for training for 12 months to get a skill or qualification, but now you have to wait for months, and you are never called back to work you lose that opportunity.

The United Nations created worldwide guiding principles on adjusting prospects for incapacitated people. During the major conclusions reached during the Decade of Disabled Persons was acceptance in 1993 by the General Assembly of the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities in Section 504 of the 1973 Rehabilitation Act (US).

4.3.1 Preparation for a training programme

This section discusses preparation to go for training programmes.

After finishing the uploading and selection processes, it was time to be ready for training. As SITA has set its entry standards, respondents must possess either a Matric or Junior degree certificate to qualify for training. These credentials were needed by the companies. Respondents were aware of late that without these credentials, no job opportunities would be available for them, and employers kept reminding them. Among the respondents were a few who did not have either Matric or Junior degree certificates and were unemployed. They applied for entry together with the others who had the necessary credentials. Most of the qualified respondents noted that their applications were rejected during this recruitment period. The few respondents who did not possess certificates were accepted, together with another few with qualifications.

This raised questions among the rejected respondents who were in the majority. On investigation, they realised that the recruitment process was based on bribery. When employers demanded money to be paid to speed up the process, the unqualified respondents paid for bribery. Respondents believed that those having credentials would be employed. Also, respondents noted that the system in the Labour Department had changed at the recruiting stage. The routine was not performed as it used to be in the sense that an individual had to apply directly to SITA first and not to employers in the Labour Department. During the recruitment period, respondents were already feeling the pinch of missing that opportunity as no information was given. They misunderstood that entry to Learnership programmes was only through employers in the Labour Department.

According to respondents, while job opportunities seemed scanty, women were mostly bypassed. In that sense, job-seekers who were in the majority felt there were fewer opportunities, and some were inaccessible, no matter how much an individual tried, whether they had a Matric or a Junior degree certificate. The respondents found themselves vulnerable as they were exposed to insecurity with no protection. Some respondents felt the stumbling block could be unemployment or disability, as stigmas dominated their lives. Their views were supported by their various revelations as follows:

Because of poverty, we women lack opportunities more than men, and the cost demanded by employers to enter these programmes is very expensive we lack funds to educate ourselves, and we don't earn much salary even when we are employed while the stigma of disability stay with us.

Women get few allowances when employed than men. Women have a hope that employers will understand our position and admit more women into the Learnership programmes to get a skill

or qualification; now that we are aware that a person must apply directly to SITA, women will try that avenue.

Learnership programmes are not for women; they are attended by men mostly and women are few who are chosen, and this depends to the employer. I have no access to opportunities for schooling and employment despite my qualification and this leads me to be poor and unemployed.

Research confirmed that education for women with disabilities remained a problem among women with disabilities. Therefore, it has become difficult or impossible for women with disabilities to get work; hence, they are always poor. Since most of them miss tertiary-level opportunities, learnership programmes were their only hope. Watermeyer (2013) stated that “attitudes and economic practices modelled the greatest interference when it comes to job opportunities. Subsequently, a formal qualification among PWD appears to be of critical importance in terms of influencing their future life chances.”

4.3.2 Problems experienced in getting into the job market after training

This section discusses the difficulties PWD encounter after 12 months of training and finding a job. Having finished their training, respondents came back expecting to be deployed to various job vacancies according to the rules and regulations of SITA. It became known from the interviews that the respondents were met with unexpected disappointment from employers and colleagues who explained that there were no vacancies available for them at that moment. They should go and wait at home and would be called. A message would be sent shortly to inform them when to start their duties. The respondents had to wait months and year after year to be called. Employers did not contact them for feedback. Respondents reflected on all the various problems they went through in the journey of pursuing training. They concluded that these were the most atrocious acts used by employers to humiliate, dehumanise and exclude them from society. It became clear to the respondents that employers meant to marginalise and eliminate them from the labour market. Hence, they cannot be employed.

The PWD perceived employers as gatekeepers of the labour department and SASSA. Getting into the system was their choice, not to mention getting employment. Respondents also found that the learnership programmes they were allocated to were low-quality. According to SITA rules and regulations for finishing a course, the learnership programmes were not up to an agreeable standard. They were taught something of low quality, which was not accepted as a qualification or skill that would make them employable. Instead, they were taught to get used to a work environment and withstand the pressures of a work environment. Hence, they had problems returning from training and not getting jobs. These atrocities were committed by their

colleagues as employers whom they were meant to trust. Respondents also lamented about their wasted time, living for months unemployed after training since they had to start afresh being jobseekers. Their articulation was evidenced by the following quotations:

You have hope after coming from training you will get a job as promised, but you are discriminated from these programmes first and then from getting jobs by the very colleagues and staff that you thought would assist you in getting those vacancies including promotions.

We stayed at home for four years waiting to be called for feedback as promised. You find later that the job vacancies were advertised for disabled people without telling us and were given to non-disabled people because their movements are faster than ours. Employers think we are dumb and we don't have brains to think because we are disabled, there is fraud going on in the Labour department and SASSA

What learnt at the time we went for training that the courses we were doing were of a low standard and cannot match with the accepted standards of education at SITA. They were not teaching us new skills, and what they taught us is to make you not to be employed because you did not get new skills or qualification, they taught us to know the workplace setting and to get used to the stresses of the workplace. We came out without a skill or qualification from training. Maybe that's why they fooled us when we came back because they know.

This is the cruellest action by employers that downgrades our mental thinking and a wasted time that is troubling our minds as this is also a vicious cycle which forces us to start from scratch to be jobseekers the labour market is very dysfunctional. It must be dismantled it is not of assistance to us.

Evidence shows that PWD (particularly Blacks) were still experiencing difficulties with attending training programmes and getting promotions because of the biased mind-set of managers towards PWD and their potential to be effective in more high-ranking positions (Van Niekerk & Van Der Merwe, 2013).

4.4 Access to Social Assistance Support

This section discusses social assistance support.

The need for social assistance in South Africa required a major transformation by the government to address the integration of the population in the country. The system is vast in terms of the number of people it directly and indirectly serves and the quantity of specialised resources it consumes. Social assistance services serve people of all ages and demographics,

from older people to families with newborns or small children, assuring proper levels of care and support when needed. Social services are responsible for determining the degree of care and assistance necessary in any specific circumstance. Depending on the circumstances, this might vary from medical assistance to psychiatric counselling and financial assistance (RSA, 2012).

According to a United Nations Report (UN, 2013), “A new global partnership emerged to eradicate poverty and transform economies through sustainable development”. This global partnership recognised their mistake in the former developing agenda (Hannes-Hancock & Mackenzie, 2017; UN, 2013a, 2013b). Modification of the report went through and emphasised the visualisation of “leaving no one behind” (UN, 2013a), and added PWD to the list containing susceptible general population who required incorporation. Researchers agreed with the current literature highlighting the poverty-disability connection, which they argue is more multifaceted and blurred than the preceding one (Banks & Polack, 2013; Graham *et al.*, 2014; Groce *et al.*, 2011; SADS, 2016).

Recently, evidence suggested that countless PWD were in dire need of social services and support to attain a good living standard, allowing them to feel healthy and comfortable contributing to the community economically and socially and participating in social life events. Insufficiency in essential social services for PWD could encourage dependency on their family members. This dependency could inhibit the PWD and family members from becoming actively involved in the economy and social inclusion (Hannes-Hancock & Mackenzie, 2017). Globally, PWD have significant basic needs that require social support. However, social services were not seen as a vital element by policies for disabilities in various governments; hence, there were unexplainable gaps globally (WHO, 2011).

Evidence shows that social protection or security is the main component of national strategies that promote human development, maintain political stability, and inclusive growth. Therefore, social protection systems usually include a combination of programmes to decrease or inhibit poverty. Furthermore, social protection plays a big role in improving domestic demand, supporting the mechanical transformation of nationwide economies, promoting decent work, and supporting inclusive and sustainable growth. This association is more nuanced than formerly expected and, in this case, shows healthier data needed in understanding prospects and non-remunerated business expenses for various PWD. The government only becomes responsible to people who cannot care for themselves (Hannes-Hancock & MacKenzie, 2017).

This category belongs to people who are too young, sick and old, including those involved in accidents. The government provides social support where possible for these types of people, called “social assistance”. In combination, social assistance and social insurance form “social security”. The Social Assistance Act is the law that determines how people can qualify for government assistance. Its purpose is to assist and protect people unable to support or maintain themselves for different reasons, including age, illness, or a physical or mental disability. This Act also protects and assists people living with HIV or AIDS who cannot maintain or support their families. In 1994, South Africa was progressive in extending social security healthcare. Yet, more must be done to meet the commitment owed to legitimate necessities.

However, South Africa still has its deficiencies in some areas in expanding social assistance (RSA, 2012). For instance, the problem with social assistance is that it cannot reach all its envisioned goals, and its cash payment systems are costly. Several problems delay the progress of social assistance, namely, the lack of consistency in policy harmonisation among shared protection funds in the following sectors or systems: The Unemployment Insurance Fund, Workers’ Compensation Schemes and the Road Accident Fund. In addition, these sectors work on different arrangements and management schemes that result from huge expenses accompanied by the amplified probability of falsified claims. The associates of the secluded sequestration reserve rarely received the proper income in their superannuation. Memberships from the reserved superannuation coffers were reported as rarely benefitting from an applicable revenue when leaving. This is partly due to not carrying their reservations on their savings throughout their career. Also, their savings were battered by high administrative costs.

In totality, managers and workers were indebted to a contribution of a collective rate of 12% of the required compensations that reach a standard of alignment with the UIF reimbursement returns that are currently on a threshold of R149,736 per year. In addition, the government assists through subsidy offerings from low-income workers, reducing interruptions that affect the source of labour connected with the overview donations of the required contributions (DSD, 2010). Globally, PWD were marginalised as they rely on social grants for their living and are branded as inactive, incapacitated, and incapable (Majola & Dunphath, 2020). Literature confirms that most PWD have no access to disability grants and social welfare (Stats SA, 2014). Research shows social grants are targeted for their reduction of poverty in areas affected with high intensity of poverty such as the Eastern Cape and Limpopo provinces. This poverty includes female-headed households in the African population in the rural arrears (Satumba, Bayat, & Mohamed, 2017).

Literature shows that the Blind Psychological Act (Act 11 of 1936,) was first introduced in South Africa in 1937, as a social assistance scheme for the Blind with the Invalidity Pension Scheme. It was accessible to white South Africans only and presented by the Department of Welfare (Kelly, 20130). However, while social protection is defined as a human right that permits the destitute and those susceptible to poverty, including PWD, by having rights to live a good quality of life, it classically omitted PWD from the labour market. PWD, while omitted from entering the job market, did not have funds to maintain their upkeep. The issue of providing vulnerable groups, including PWD, with financial support to start their own businesses has been in government debates without reaching any resolution. These debates held that susceptible individuals should be presented with monetary backing to start business projects for their sustenance. Documentation reveals that marginalised groups such as PWD are recognised as having been neglected in the previous efforts to eradicate poverty and equality (Devereux, 2010; Mitra, 2010; Palmer, 2013).

Writings reveal that in the past decades, the South African government has commenced some rapid alterations in its social policies and protection machinery for the previous decades. The right to social protection has been guaranteed in the Constitution since 1996, and states that “everyone has the right to access social security, including with appropriate assistance for those who are unable to support themselves and their dependents.” Literature shows that the error in the progress programme has been recognised (UN, 2013a; 2013b).

The report revised its position and bringing to the attention its visualisation “leaving no one behind” (UN 2013a), and registered PWD amid susceptible inhabitants that required inclusion to attain justifiable growth, many researchers agreed that the bond created between poverty and disability is multi-dimensional, nuisance, and unclear from the former projected (Banks & Polack, 2013; Graham *et al.*, 2014; Groce *et al.*, 2011). The International Labour Office (ILO) & International Disability Alliance (IDA), 2015; South African Department of Social Development (SADS), 2016). Evidence shows that PWD living in economically developing countries were in threatened by poverty. However, recent evidence suggested that countless PWD were in dire need for social provision to attain their livelihood, since, living healthily would allow social and economic contribution for their lifetime. Lack of essential social provision for PWD could make them dependable on family members. This dependency could inhibit both PWD and family members and further reinforce social exclusion (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017).

Globally, PWD have significant basic needs that they desire for social support. However, these social provisions were an essential element of disability guidelines for various governments; hence, cracks were noted universally (WHO, 2011). The literature shows that social protection or social security is the main component of national strategies that promote human development, maintain political stability, and inclusive growth. Therefore, social protection systems play a big role in improving domestic demand, supporting the mechanical transformation of nationwide economies, promoting decent work, and supporting inclusive and sustainable growth. This association is more advanced than formerly expected and shows, in this case, healthier data needed for understanding prospects and remuneration business costs that various PWD experienced (Hanass-Hancock, & McKenzie, 2017).

In the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) framework, countries dedicated themselves to worldwide coverage, employing nationally appropriate social protection systems for all. This includes ensuring sustainability and adequacy of social protection, responding to the new social and labour market dynamic forces and the upcoming work opportunities. It is necessary to formulate new styles of employment and work. Upcoming commotions in labour markets, higher unemployment and scarcity risks, as well as demographic change, were likely to upsurge the challenges for social protection. Well-maintained social protection systems ensured greater capability to acclimatise to the fluctuating nature of the economy so they could remain an important part in poverty reduction, and as a cost-effective and social stabiliser (Mitra, 2010).

Despite the significant progress in outspreading coverage, important gaps remain unresolved, mainly through limited resources. Evidence shows that currently, an estimated 55 per cent of the world's population has access to several forms of social security benefits. Limited resources mostly determined the prime coverage gaps, hence, it is crucial to identify options for producing financial space to extend social protection. Some other households with different types of disabilities have considerably lower earnings compared to families of non-disabled people (Stats SA, 2014).

In the case of household income, this indicated that fewer household members were working or that those working were earning lower pay. It is conceivable that many people who were hard of hearing had trouble walking or had self-care issues and were jobless and may have required care from other family members. This lowered the household's earning potential. As social grants assisted these families for upkeep, it was not enough to manage them. Within this group of people, some of them could not perform and finish tasks at a given time, while some couldn't do anything for themselves due to recent attacks by illnesses. Consequently,

fewer opportunities belonging to these families are difficult for those with severe disabilities, as they would receive little over average once-a-month revenue within “all degrees of disabilities” grouping than families without disabilities. This would negatively impact the family economy (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). One of the respondents proclaimed:

For instance, when I was bitten by a stroke, I can't talk, walk, and stand and my wife died at that week leaving me with two young grandchildren. I had no money for food and stay in the house starving with these little kids until a neighbour comes by seeing children crying in yard.

The literature shows social protection mechanisms are newly introduced methods of addressing operational disproportions in MICs such as South Africa. Therefore, they should be evaluated on how these mechanisms currently reach those requiring them and how they could be used better to recompense for any existing inequities. However, the main interest of these instruments was that there must be equality of prospects concluded from reasonable instead of equivalent collective security machinery. These grants were fairly disseminated between the entire groups. Nonetheless, they were not rationally justifiable to recompense for the various amounts of monetary susceptibility related to the varied kinds and harshness of disabilities (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). Grants were meant to be an income to compensate the whole family based on the national average wage and also to compensate for those families with people with communication problems.

Conversely, they were less equitable and did not recompense for the different degrees of financial vulnerability associated with different types and severity of disability (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). Grants were meant to be an income to compensate the whole household or family to bring them closer to the national average wage and to compensate for those families having people with communication problems. Nonetheless, they were not rationally justifiable to recompense for the various amounts of monetary susceptibility related to varied kinds and harshness of disability. Nonetheless; it was not rationally justifiable to compensate for the various amounts of monetary susceptibility related to different kinds and harshness of disability (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). Grants aimed to be an income to compensate the whole family to align with the national average wage and to compensate those families with people with communication problems.

Research confirmed the correct level of compensation has not been extended to all sub-groups and to families having people with grave incapacities where social grants need to be nearly doubled, which could not substantially be accomplished for economically underdeveloped countries. People belonging to the extreme disability groupings are fewer than persons with

other graduations of disability, including the exclusion of families having individuals experiencing memory loss and attention deficit. The families in the final group with individuals with grave disabilities were, on average, on an appropriate income. This is probably because they have improved social grants. One should also be wary of the possibility of measurement errors for the relatively small sample from the entire spectrum of disabilities (Hernandez & McDonalds, 2010; ILO & International Disability Alliance, 2015).

Certification resolves that earlier works with physical disabilities painted the connotation that factors such as femininity and masculinity, geographical position, and race affect susceptibility to incapacity and physical appearances (Stats SA, 2014). Stats SA (2014) published a solid substantiation of women with disabilities facing a double burden of income inequity in the workplace. It also confirmed that when women with disabilities were employed, they received far less than the average wage compared to men with disabilities. The article further debated the complication of disability regarding the gradations and categories of disability, displaying ways these issues influenced susceptibility that impacts economic stability regarding salary, training and services.

Economic susceptibility is an urgent matter in creating appropriate tactics for accommodating the complexities of different disabilities while the social protection structure machinery is still in its developmental phases. This needs to be carried out in a practical fashion without obfuscating the progression of admissibility and assessment. This research validates that most PWD of all kinds experience fewer years in the field of education than the average population and, as such, do not usually finish their studies. They are less likely to be unemployed than abled people. PWD suffering from grave debilities were less likely to be presented in the labour market (Stats SA, 2014). One respondent expressed his pain of being rejected by community being disabled and an orphan saying:

I stopped schooling at the age 13 because of teasing by school children and being discriminated, and teachers turned a blind eye. I don't have parents, and I never work in my life; when I applied for a job I'm rejected by employers saying I can't make it in a job setting because I have nothing next to my name, no matric no qualification and I know I'm discriminated because of my disability.

Evidence shows that there are liberal labour laws in South Africa pertaining to qualified PWD with higher education qualifications (with degrees) as they earn better salaries on average than abled people without such qualifications in similar positions. This would appear contrary to the principle that sees PWD as more impoverished than non-disabled people. However, since this category includes persons with both moderate and severe impairments, and despite South

Africa's progressive labour regulations, those with minor disabilities were the least impacted by socioeconomic challenges.

South Africa was historically known for social security instruments targeted at PWD. Consequently, an inquiry into the existing practices impacts the economic susceptibility of PWD and paints a picture reminiscent of economically undeveloped countries. The PWD consist of families and children to look after, with no access to opportunities such as education because parents cannot afford to pay fees for institutions. Also, children are always refused entry to schools and cannot be admitted due to the type of disability they have. Despite that, PWD experience environmental obstacles concerning employment that create barriers which make it physically difficult to access employment. This restricted them from running businesses for survival, as they had no means to do so (DPSA, 2013).

The government created no projects to uplift PWD' living standards in Soshanguve Township. PWD cannot not contribute to their families and the country's economy; hence, they are invisible in the streets. Due to long periods of unemployment, these people are labelled as economically inactive and incapacitated by employers. With its high unemployment rate, South Africa needs the reinforcement of the existing employment policies appropriate to the development of services, together with the proper social assistance of this population group to alleviate the scourge of hunger, redundancy and hardship. A study conducted by USBLS (2015) regarding PWD in America's employment opportunities in comparison to South Africa found that there were barriers to PWD that create major obstacles in their progress in both countries. Another major barrier among some of them is the lack of formal qualification (Maja *et al.*, 2011), as the majority of PWD are exposed to starvation, unemployment and poverty in their testimonies.

People live in poverty and starvation here in Soshanguve. Disabled people depend on their families for financial support and social support from church and my community. The government fails to know how are we living, and it doesn't give us opportunity by prove ourselves that we are capable citizens who can contribute a lot to economy of this country with sober minds given a chance and be educated.

We are jobless and not given projects by the government to grow and show our natural skills and to our diligence and knowledge of creating small businesses for our survival if the government can do that for us we will know it cares about us we are not educated and we have no qualifications but we can tilt the land and eat.

The lack of essential support services for PWD could make them more dependent on other family members. This dependency could inhibit the PWD and family members from actively participating in the economy and social inclusion (Hanass-Hancock, & McKenzie, 2017). In the framework of attaining Sustainable Development Goals, countries dedicated themselves to nationwide coverage, employing national-scale social safety schemes protecting all their citizens. This is necessary to ensure sustainability and adequacy of social protection, responding to the new social and labour market dynamic forces and the upcoming workforce. It is also necessary to change or formulate new styles of employment and work to prepare for expected disruptions in labour markets, higher unemployment and scarcity risks, as well as expected demographic changes, which may be risks for the intended social protection.

Education is the key to everybody's career, including PWD (DPSA, 2013). PWD have less access to the official employment sector because organisations or employers exclude them from the employment processes. Stigma was identified as the most distressing concern in pursuing possible opportunities. PWD felt this exclusion contributed to making economic inclusion impossible for them, as they wanted to be counted as contributors to the country's economy and become landowners (Sedeto & Dar, 2014). Furthermore, investigations explicitly revealed families of PWD experiencing problems with eye-sight, including various grades of disabilities, have normal income earnings as compared to families with non-disabled people. This was because this group were better paid for employment than other PWLD. As these people were between 40 and 59 years of age, the salary outcomes might show they obtained optical deficiencies towards a more advanced age or illnesses emerging while they are already good salary earners from their previously recognised careers. Minor disabilities, such as those noted under "all degree of disability" were theoretically not likely to depend much on caregiving since, by description, an individual may have to struggle in the execution of the task. This could end up reducing strain on the family concerning incomes and lesser family costs in unemployment due to caregiving (Solomon, 1988).

Concerning other disability categories, many family units earn less income than homes of non-disabled people and fall far behind the national wage average income schedule. Agreeing that the income comes from the family, this indicated that there were fewer family members working or people working with poor salaries. It is likely that many disabled family members had extreme hearing impairment or were ambulatory but with health-care problems and were unwaged, and might even need maintenance from other family members, which decreases potential earnings for that family. This would reduce the income potential for that household. Social grants assist such households but are still insufficient in terms of the total average

monthly salary from all sources. People who are classified as having grievous disabilities if they cannot achieve certain tasks in their jobs. These individuals are probably redundant and need to be taken care of. This meant the whole load would be on family members, some of whom may have to relinquish their jobs. Fewer opportunities for earnings resulted from homes with grievous disabilities receiving more than half the normal monthly salary within the category of “all degrees of disabilities”.

However, while social grants would go a bit further to assist their families, they were still left in more difficult situations because they are bound to poverty-stricken lives and do not earn a standard monthly salary from normal incomes. The austere groupings signify people who experienced more problems or could not achieve precise tasks. In this respect, it is presumed that these individuals are redundant and cannot cope with their lives without full support, which means family members must relinquish their employment to give full support to them. Also, there are minimal chances of getting income that could be received by these families with grievous disabilities that would sustain them, which is above half the regular monthly salary in “all degrees of disabilities” in the groupings and families without disabilities (Mitra, 2010).

South Africa proposes that social grants should partly recompense earnings for those home units that lost income with PWD (International Labour Office & International Disability Alliance, 2015; Palmer *et al.*, 2015). These costs were varied and high for certain family clusters. Consequently, social safety machinery must be planned more justifiably and address the upkeep and funding requests instead of merely classifying disability rank. This also relates to the DG, GIA and CDG, together aiming to recompense charges connected to augmented maintenance. However, the GIA and CDG were planned to recompense charges related to augmented maintenance. However, the GIA is less important in covering the maintenance costs and providing for people “who need full-time attendance by another person” (SASSA, 2013b) (R250 per month in 2011 and R350 in 2017), which could barely cover the costs of a guardian for a day. The records also indicated that people in “all grades of disabilities” were less likely to have access to the social grant, which applies to particular groups of people in the classification of memory retention and recollection (SASSA, 2013b).

Therefore, social security machinery likewise aimed at identifying individuals with less visible debilities who could be deemed ineligible by mistake or may be unwilling to be labelled as “disabled.” Such people need to update their information and undergo processes for evaluation. These difficulties may apply to those with modest intellectual disabilities, mental health issues, the elderly, or people on the autism spectrum. Social protection systems that also target persons with less “visible” impairments are therefore required, and therefore the

present grant evaluation methods may need to be updated (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017; Hernandez & McDonald, 2010). Mitra (2010) used South African data contained in the General Household Survey (GHS) and the 2001-2003 Labour Market Survey (LFS) targeting poor households. She noted a contradiction that although the DG reaches poorer households, there were numerous children with escalated unemployment rates, including a lack of visibility that some children struggle with impairments.

Mitra (2010) showed that these family circles were not included in the labour force eligible for access to funding. However, she noted, "in principle, the DG is well placed to target poor households, but that for its current applications." She also pointed out that the procedure for evaluation associated with the DG and its benchmarks showed no substantial alterations ever since its launch in 1946. She explained that in an ideal world, assessment processes were supposed to monitor directed surveys with an indirect approach that included multifaceted procedures designed aimed at entitling all eligible recipients. Furthermore, South African statistics and research suggested individuals with slight or mild observable debilities were disqualified from subsidy arrangements, and households were unknowingly forfeiting their personal occupation and earnings to take over caretaking responsibilities (Mitra, 2010).

Because of the existing lack of state care and assistance, both mainstream and disability-focused studies are important in identifying possibilities and out-of-pocket expenditures for this segment of the population. This provides credible data on how to create comprehensive disability social protection schemes that are achievable for developing nations like South Africa. South Africa seems to be moving at a snail's pace in changing to present social protection measures to alleviate disability-related economic vulnerability quickly. As a result, the data and studies that might illuminate this process are still in their infancy in the nation (Mitra, 2010). The lesson learnt from South African experiences can update the present exertions taken by global activities touching headed for the enclosure of PWD in the fresh developing policies aimed at poverty mitigation and social security disability payment in several Low and Middle-Income countries (LMCs) (ICED, 2014b; ILO & IDA, 2015).

The ILO, IDA and other similar organisations have been working towards reaching a consensus about the subtle variations to be considered in the disability-poverty linkage, including stratagems of applicable and disability-specific applications of social security that are in agreement with the CPRD (ILO & IDA, 2015). The intricacy of this responsibility has been agreed upon, and South Africa has contributed substantial data to enhance the disability-specific social machinery in other countries (ILO & IDA, 2015). Research confirmed that the general commonness of disability in South Africa is 12%, based on the 2011 GHS.

These encompass people aged six and above, with more than 3% pointing to acute disability. Since most PWD were within the working age, over 50% of them represent all categories of incapacity, and nearly 40% of those with acute disability were between 15-19 years of age. The investigation dealt specifically with the economically active age (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). Kelly (2013) noted that the disability concept is generally impossible to describe and assess for economically disadvantaged countries regulating and specifying the qualifications and skills required for employment purposes of people with physical impairments, and the researcher postured a question regarding what the objective of a DG was.

Even though the enquiry about social grants was on compensating income losses for those house units with PWD, it has yet to be revealed whether the DG is a grant linked with poverty or a grant for the provision of social assistance to PWD because of the different requirements of the two objectives. The first approach accepts that PWD are economically disadvantaged and incapable of entering and participating in the labour force. The second option enquires about the kinds of social support that can empower PWD to contribute to the labour force and the economy of the country (Katsui & Kumpuvori, 2008; Mitra, 2010). The first approach is capable of functioning as a charity donation and may sometimes be perceived as a poverty set-up, while the second one asks about the kinds of assistance PWD will require that will allow them to contribute and independent living (hence, the Convention of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, CPRD, complaint) (Katsui & Kumpuvori, 2008; Mitra, 2010). To respond to the latter, one needs to comprehend the two components.

Initially, the additional expenditures related to disability have to be recognised, including budgets for disability accommodation, assistive devices, care and support, and additional house needs, in addition to those costs for creating opportunities. Furthermore, physical and social obstacles experienced by PWD in every facet of their lives must be acknowledged and eradicated. This should apply in the case of transportation, and access to facilities, information, and communications. Preferably, social security interventions should comprise three components, namely, accessibility, affordability and accessibility of rudimentary amenities (health, education and transportation), providing predictable living programmes with PWD (cash transfers, micro-lending, insurance cover for housing and workplace security), support for addressing house units and costs related to disability (Gooding & Marriot, 2009).

Threefold protection in social security systems assures the involvement of PWD and guarantees the contributions needed to support PWD based on maintenance needs and reward of common disability entitlements. Currently, PWD recognised as incapacitated are

recognised as eligible for DG, provided they pass a means test. The DG should not be multi-layered in assisting with financial support to inspire labour force involvement among these people. It is suggested that PWD should be exposed to a means test; the barrier should be higher than the usual poverty-related welfare benefits. This is due to additional costs disability-related budgets incur as soon as individuals join the workforce (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017; SADSD, 2015). In the years to come, it is hoped that South Africa will be able to show the extent to which she has already progressed in its policies towards PWLD accessing important services in the area of transportation, education and health, including monitoring (SADSD, 2015).

Attention must be given to the system's present shortcomings, including lack of access to education and work for certain categories of PWD. The resources and cost allocations required to establish inclusive education, health, and supporting services (e.g., transportation) remain unknown, notwithstanding some decrease in PWD' economic vulnerability (SADSD, 2016). South Africa and other LMICs need urgent research in this field. Although this analysis for South Africa suggests that social grants partially compensate for income losses for PLWD households (and for some households even up to the level of the average national monthly income), the significant disability-related out-of-pocket costs were not taken into account in this data (ILO & IDA, 2015; Palmer *et al.*, 2015).

The findings also show that people with "all degrees of disabilities" are less likely to use the DG in certain circumstances. This is especially true for those who have trouble remembering and focusing. This might be due to an exclusion mistake in the eligibility determination process, since this form of "disability" is less obvious and less likely to be discovered, or persons may be unwilling to be labelled as "disabled." These difficulties may apply to those with modest intellectual disabilities, mental health issues, the elderly, or people on the autism spectrum. As a result, social protection systems that target persons with less "visible" impairments were required, and the present grant evaluation methods may need to be revised. Except for the improvements indicated by Mitra, the DG evaluation method and criteria have not changed much since its inception in 1946 (Mitra, 2010).

These evaluation methods should ideally take a focused, nuanced approach, which may include a more sophisticated process of determining eligibility for all disability-related funds. This research also raises the issue of the DG's mission. Although the data shows that social grants compensate for income losses for families with PWD, it is unclear if the DG is a poverty grant or a grant that attempts to give social support to individuals with disabilities (SASS, 2015). The latest South African White paper (SASS, 2015) focuses primarily on addressing

the economic vulnerability of people with disabilities. It comprises a motivated operating strategy and addresses all three points discussed. The next five years will reveal how well South Africa can meet these lofty goals. To do this, South Africa must implement some of its existing progressive laws to improve access to critical services (education, health, and transportation) and track its progress toward this new set of objectives.

Respondents sorely required extra social assistance aid because they relied on an insufficient social grant to maintain their families. Respondents who lived with their immediate families were primarily breadwinners and could not manage on their incomes. They needed additional financial assistance to supplement the state's or other organisations' limited disability grant. Because the DG was insufficient, they sought financial assistance from their extended family members. Respondents with children combined their grants with their own to better manage home duties. According to Graham et al. (2010), PWD are often supplied with assistance inside the family, allowing other household members to create an income. According to research, since these payments were provided to people, families were more likely to pool resources (Budlender & Lund, 2011; Makiwane, Gumede & Molefi, 2016).

As they inherently play a communal function, social grants provide a large welfare benefit to impoverished families. Because of high levels of structural unemployment and poverty, many families rely heavily, if not entirely, on the income of social grant recipients. Grant payments have been proven in studies to impact family support networks and household formation. (Bertrand, Mullainathan, & Miller, 2003; Klasen & Woolard, 2009), with dependents often becoming “unpremeditated beneficiaries” (Burns, Keswell, & Leibbrandt, 2005) of the social grant system. Respondents criticised the government for being less interested in them and issues concerning them while they were in dire need of social assistance. Their feelings were expressed through the following quotes:

People live in poverty here in Soshanguve. Disabled people depend on their families for financial support and social support from church and my community. The government fails to know how are we living, and it doesn't give us opportunity by prove ourselves that we are capable citizens who can contribute a lot in economy of this country with sober minds given a chance.

We are not given projects by the government to grow and show our natural skills and to our diligence and knowledge of creating small businesses for our survival if the government can do that for us we will know it cares about us.

The capacity to adapt to the shifting nature of the economy was enhanced by well-maintained social safety measures. Well-maintained social safety programs may continue to be important

in poverty reduction and as a cost-effective social stabilizer. Major gaps persist despite great advances in expanding coverage, owing mostly to inadequate resources. According to evidence, 55% of the world's population now lacks access to any type of social safety programmes. Africa and Asia have the greatest coverage gaps (Stats SA, 2014). Meanwhile, as these social protection coverage gaps were mostly caused by a lack of resources; finding methods for creating financial leeway to expand social protection is critical. Households with various forms of impairments, for example, get inadequate disability allowances. Overall, PWD (of whatever severity) have much lower wages than non-PLWD families and are well below the national average salary (Stats SA, 2014).

Social grants were meant to be a source of income to compensate the whole family to bring them closer to the national average wage, and to compensate those families having people with communication problems. Social grants, while assisting these households, are still insufficient if it is the only source of the total average monthly salary from all sources. The literature shows social protection mechanisms are recently introduced methods of addressing operational disproportions. Consequently, it was suggested they be evaluated on how well these mechanisms addressed these requirements and how they could better recompense for any existing inequities. All the same, it was crucial that the main focus be kept within the adjustment of prospects over reasonable social protection mechanisms. These grants were disseminated equally amongst their groupings but were not equitable for compensation of all of the diverse grades of financial susceptibility linked with diverse forms and harshness of incapacity (Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017).

The research demonstrated that persons from the category of “all degrees of disabilities” have lower levels of education while they are unlikely to be working in comparison with non-disabled people. People with severe disabilities are more inclined to be out of the labour force altogether (Stats SA, 2014).

Respondents, particularly women, were not satisfied with the job placement as they could not get decent jobs due to loss of opportunities, degradation, and being overshadowed by men despite their qualifications in workplaces. Besides, they work part-time jobs, they said.

The problem of getting a decent job as woman is worse women always miss opportunities, and opportunities are given to men because employers do not accept women to be part of projects they say women are not fit enough to endure work projects because [they] are too strenuous. We [are] better off in the shelter, which is hot in summer and too cold in winter, with less income because we work half a day.

Women always miss opportunities because employers dress them down. One employer told me disabled women are to stay at home and look after families and not look for work because at work they do not do work properly like men and always need help. I ask if I don't have a man to work for me, what will I eat with my children? He said I must go and sell stuff in the streets where I won't need assistance and hard work; he doesn't know life is hard for disabled women.

Even if disabled women are qualified for jobs, they are always overshadowed by non-disabled people or by disabled men because are no equal to men nor to non-disabled people. Disabled women are known to be weak, sick and that shows to our low pay as there's no thanks for us because men and non-disabled people are first choice at the workplace, and yet we do more work than them even at home.

Evidence shows that South Africa has of late had liberal labour laws as far as qualified PWD were concerned since those who have been employed with higher education (degrees) receive more earnings than non-disabled people who do not possess degrees. The statement mentioned above seems contradictory as literature confirmed that PWD were worse off financially than non-disabled people.

Considering South Africa has progressive labour laws towards PWD, including considering their categories, people with minor debilities were the least affected by economic problems. Historically, South Africa was known for social security instruments targeted at PWD, particularly women. Consequently, an inquiry into the existing practices impacted the economic susceptibility of PWD (Palmer *et al.*, 2015).

As explained above, some difficulties are associated with attaining benefits consistently and for all categories of PWLD, as the DG must be reduced to a standard form amenable to practical administrative processes. However, it must accommodate the intricacies accompanying the variety of institutional redundancy and privation. The HIV epidemic has brought another level of complexity in defining social security structures to ensure sufficient provision for entire groups (Kelly, 2019). Destitution is rife amongst PWD in every economically developing country having a poor supply of intercession platforms. Documentation has confirmed that PWD face many struggles in accessing social programmes in many countries (Banks *et al.*, 2017; Devereux, 2010; Drucza, 2016; Globlatt, 2009; Gooding & Marriot, 2009; Katsui & Kumpuvuori, 2008).

Evidence shows that PWD were often given financial support by their families or households that replaced the limited services from the state or other organisations (Graham *et al.*, 2010; Mitra, 2010). It was apparent that family memberships were the main foundation providing for PWD. In many households, mothers and grandmothers were the main guardians, particularly for those with severe difficulties. These household members did not receive any training to do this stressful job, neither were they paid by the government. They expressed their pain to the government of this burden in vain. They needed financial, emotional, or physical support that would relieve their stress to cope with care on a full-time basis (CSDA, 2014).

The chief source of income for PWD was the DG for each family with access to it. The DG was accessible to disabled adults as well as those earning lower than average range of income. The DG is attuned every year. The elderly above 60 are eligible for an Old Age Grant (OAG), and caregivers looking after children with austere disabilities are eligible for a grant if their income is less than the average grant. In addition, the government provided several intervention protection processes for those who earn less than an average salary, such as free schools' fees, free health care, and subsidies for housing (SADSD, 2015; SASSA, 2013b).

Person-centered services were desirable to make sure of everybody's involvement in the decision-making processes pertaining to the sustenance they obtained. Evidence shows that a fifth or less with considerable debilities are eligible for intervention protection procedures in economically developed countries with low incomes (Duran-Valverde *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, the existing social safety policies frequently emphasise the inability instead of sufficient support for an all-inclusive process. This restricts efficiency that promulgates biases (Banks *et al.*, 2018b; Hanass-Hancock *et al.*, 2017; Kelly, 2019; Kidd *et al.*, 2019).

Some of the PWD commented:

We are ever poor because there's no work and there's no reasonable accommodation to qualify disabled people. So we cannot perform the functions of jobs for which we have applied for or which we have been hired to perform. If you have a family, it means you live on "Mashonisa" [Mashonisa, a debt collector] for the family to survive and Mashonisa takes half of your grant every month".

We have been complaining that DG is not enough for our families. Parents add children's grants to theirs so they can live a better life. If you have four children, money becomes better. If you are a disabled person and have a family, you seldom have money to pay for electricity, which is

expensive, and transport which charges you R40.00 to go to town and R40.00 to come back, and you also pay transport for children to go to school.”

Despite their suffering in the new democracy because of insufficient grants to compensate for income, poverty, illiteracy, and health inaccessibility, the resources and cost allocations required to develop inclusive education, health, and supporting services (e.g. transportation) are currently unknown, despite some reduction in the economic vulnerability of PWD (SADSD, 2016). South Africa and other LMICs need urgent research in this field. Although this analysis for South Africa suggests that social grants partially compensate for income losses for households with people with disabilities (up to the level of the average national monthly income for some households), the substantial disability-related out-of-pocket costs are not considered in this data (ILO & International Disability Alliance, 2015); Palmer *et al.*, 2015).

4.5 Disability Grant and Social Protection

This section discusses both the importance of disability grants (DG) and social protection among PWD.

The ILO (2015) describes social protection-disability grants as interferences introduced from policies and programmes aimed at reducing potential financial loss, poverty, and susceptibility in alleviating risky destitution and dispossession of material resources. Many African countries practice inclusive opportunities for social protection that incorporate the activities of African governments, including growing partnerships on social protection in each country. African governments, in their partnerships, concentrate on communication, implementation of policies, and social safety programmes, particularly addressing women and youth with disabilities and susceptible individuals. The international community is working on the continent, and some national governments aimed to expand social protection to alleviate poverty to achieve MDGs (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014).

A ground-breaking programme was to move forward the essence of the period statement and the most important of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), including the real-world effort on matters such as alleviating poverty and hunger, and developing water, sanitation, education, and healthcare. It should be driven further than the MDGs to accomplish the vision of continuing development. The UN (2013) heralded, “A new global partnership” in its agenda, emphasising the abolition of privation and the renovation of economies through supportable expansion. It has been increasingly documented that ostracised groups such as PWD have been disregarded for some time in previous exertions to do away with poverty and inequality.

The report emphasised the vision of “leaving no one behind’ and included PWD in a list of the susceptible public that needed encompassing, reachable, maintainable, growth or progress (UN, 2013a). The current literature highlighted in the report was the relationship between poverty and disability relation was more diverse and sensitive than predicted (Banks & Pack, 2013b). Therefore, African governments resorted to implementing different intercessions like Public Works Programmes, social transferals, subsidies, and preparation platforms to enable the right of access to social services and productive activities (Cirillo & Tebaldi, 2016).

For example, the protection schemes were to improve entry to vital government organs such as education and health and advance the economy by assisting with intervention in various safety nets. For example, the safety schemes were to improve entry to schooling and well-being, which were vitally suitable for economic expansion in assisting a variety of social security intercessions as buffer government aid. Generally, its involvements is often comprised of procedures with delivery for suitable housing and nutrition, ensuring entry to education, health, and political stability (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014).

In some countries, social intervention schemes are already broad-based with all-inclusive facilities like cash transfers and grants aimed at susceptible individuals, in subsidised microfinance and financial services, including management of subsidies and allowances. Most African countries have government interventions and growth partnerships for social security. They aim to design, adopt, and implement social security schemes for susceptible groups such as women, youth, PWD and people experiencing poverty. Certain African countries have introduced development programmes for improving poverty, providing critical infrastructure, subsidising microfinance, providing professional services, and reducing costs and cash transfer allowances. Governments implement these schemes with the help of collaborations and global NGPs. The protection measures in these countries encompass straightforward benefit programmes (provisional and unqualified financial aid, food aid), productivity-improvement programmes (work programmes, subsidies), market interventions (price control) and policy changes (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014).

For example, the protection schemes must embark on improving entry to vital organs of government such as education and health and advancement the economy through assisting in intervention to allow entry to various safety nets. Generally, social security networks often comprise procedures to support suitable covering and nourishment, ensuring entrance to training and health services in a stable political environment. Governments implement these schemes through various collaborations to achieve New Growth Paths (NGPs). These

protection schemes add to these countries and encompass straight forward benefit programmes such as provisional and unqualified financial aid, food aid, cash transferals, productivity-improvement programmes, labour programmes, subsidizations, market involvements (price control) and policy amendments (Omilola & Kaniki, 2014).

It has gradually been recognised that certain groups, such as PWD have been unnoticed for some time before the efforts to do away with poverty and inequality. Social grants in South Africa started with the whites and coloured people in 1928. In 1944, social grants were extended to old-age indigenous people as a pension, far lower than that of whites and coloured people (Republic of South Africa, 2010). Social Assistance towards PWD has been in the form of the Disability Grant (DG) programme, which is the main grant accessible to households with PWD. The DG was reinforced under the South African Bill of Rights, which accommodates social safety net programmes and the right to access the economy. The United Nations emphasises these safety net programmes as the main programmes targeting groupings that can be fully involved in the equalisation of PWD in these programmes. The Bill of Rights has been protected by South African law through frameworks of the United Nations. The Bill of Rights emphasised social security to be seen as one of the targeted spaces for equal participation of PWD. It also included the socio-economic right to social security for PWD (Kagee, 2014).

Therefore, the government created and formulated a method whereby employees would benefit from a pension and be sponsored by an employer through a cash transfer to the employee without any contribution made by them (Kelly, (2019). Hence, it is called a non-contributory cash transfer. Non-contributory cash transfers were created through social safety network programmes, targeting poor and vulnerable people. These cash transfers come from money donated and transferred to people in need through various mechanisms. According to Kelly (2019), the social grant system is categorised according to PWD' functional limitations that make them unfit for work on a temporary or permanent basis. Kelly also noted that disability groups are categorised, extremely multifaceted and fluid, so much so that it is problematic to describe and measure for social protection purposes.

The White Paper on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and numerous statutory procedures endorsed the impartiality, employment, self-representation and inclusivity of PWD, as these have previously been poorly executed. The state also has provisions for various health care services such as free health care, reintegration services and assistive devices for PWD. However, policy application procedures are pathetic since there is inadequate quality control regarding the availability of services. Hence, most PWD remain unemployed, and those

employed receive a below-average income, have no access to education, health or rehabilitation services and are flooded by severe discrimination in all walks of life (Grut *et al.*, 2012). This resulted in voluminous PWD completely relying on grants for earnings. Disability rights activists contended that the government's expenditure on DGs arises from the discomfort of creating additional significant energies comprising PWD in the labour market (Gooding & Marriot, 2009; Grut *et al.*, 2012).

Accessing community health services is a challenge faced by poor people with disabilities in a rural community in South Africa. The DG is a social grant aimed at individuals who are poor and unable to support themselves through work due to their disabilities (Kelly, 2014). PWD falls under this category. Social grants are available to adults aged 18-60 receiving below-average salaries (United Nations, 2013), and is currently R1 780 per person per month. Initially, the social grant was intended for persons who were destitute and incapacitated, unable to support themselves. These individuals were not supposed to have been under the care of any institution before to further qualify for this grant (Kelly, 2013).

Seekings (2005) noted that South Africa was known worldwide for the generosity of its exceptional welfare system. Kelly (2019) concurs with Seekings (2005) that South Africa offers generous cash transfers based social grants targeted at PWD, although, as for now, there is minimal material available on the long-term socioeconomic repercussions of the social grant. However, evidence shows that the South African welfare system is considered extraordinary amongst economically developed and developing countries since it is seen as plentiful and substantial for household income benefit. The disability grant is given to old-age pensioners, incapacitated people, and those unfit to work. It is also given as a child support grant to caregivers and nursing mothers. Lately, there has also been a disability grant for war veterans (Mitra, 2010).

SASSA approved an increase in the number of eligible recipients, which was noticeable again in July 2013, with the number of eligible working-age people estimated at 1.4 million (3.4%) (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). Hence, Gooding and Marriot (2009) found South Africa very rare amongst industrialised nations to have such a respectable liberal package for PWD. Usually, the target for social assistance in industrialised nations of welfare states for PWD was at lower levels, as they were often unemployed and poor. SASSA reported that the demographic transition model showed that HIV/AIDS cases have been stirring each year as from 2004. Due to this reason, South Africa became known in the world as the country having the highest HIV infection. Mitra (2010) attested that this grant was habitually approved out of compassion created out of destitution rather than lack of genuine corporeal competency. It is

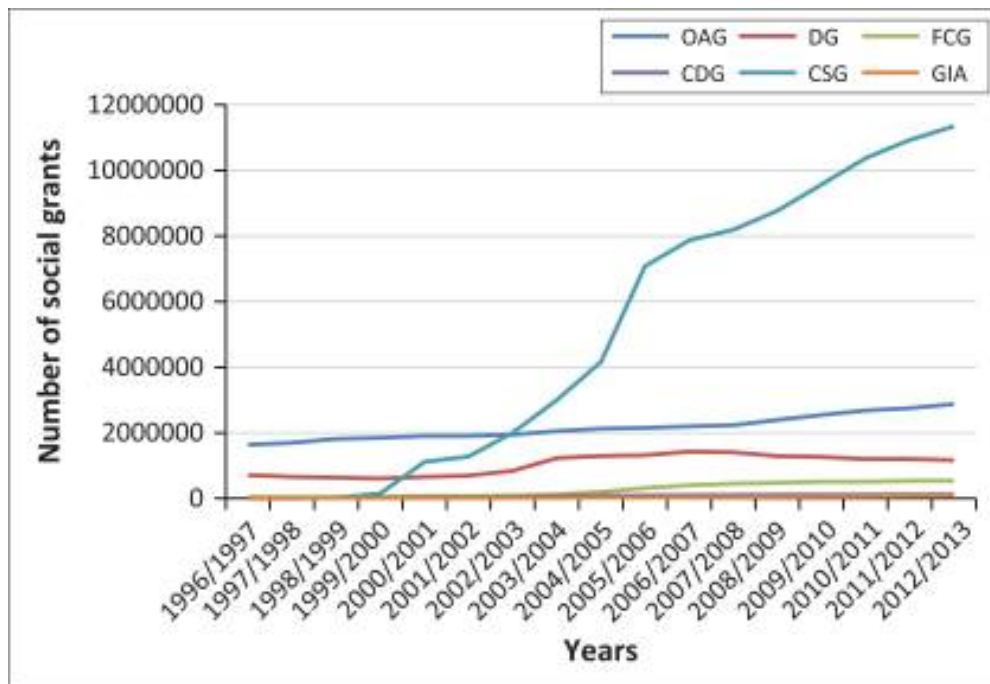
estimated that the total number of social grants rewarded each month reached 10 million, which increased by up to 3% per annum.

Due to the escalation, the social health benefit scheme endured pressure from grants that further increased from 600,000 for the years between 2000 and 2004 to 1.3 million. Although this amount of social assistance was paid, there has been continued pressure on the welfare scheme that continued increasing the grants. Natrass (2005) contends that the burden that brought anxiety to the DSD around 2014 over a swift upturn in the budget for DGs obliged it to conduct a study to explore this overwhelming increase in DG. The study revealed an acceleration in the numbers of DGs due to the elevated numbers of people living with HIV and AIDS, including Tuberculosis (Natrass, 2006).

The high levels of unemployment in the country have been a contributing factor. The study also revealed that disability grant applications were multiplying more rapidly than usual as a result of the AIDS pandemic. Evidence shows that AIDS was not the only reason for the escalation of the number of DGs (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). The institutional changes that took place caused an escalation in the number of DGs which were elevated by the growth of HIV and TB patients. The interpretation of this study also revealed that the commonalities among the people submitting applications for disability grants turned out to be the dominant driver in these applications (Gooding & Marriot, 2009).

Figure 4.1 below shows the fluctuations in DG recipient figures from 1997 to 2013 and the growth of recipients from 2001 to 2007, when the DG receivers' number reached a peak of 1 442 808. Also, the unpredictable large amount of disability allowances since 2002 has been largely accredited to the 2001 governing deviations.

Figure 4.1: Number of social grants



Source: SASSA (2008, 2013a)

OAG, Old age grant; DG, disability grant; FCG, foster care grant; CDG, care dependency grant; CSG, child support grant.

Source: Department of Social Development (DSD) Yearly Information 1997-2013.

The social grant system for PWD in South Africa has been categorised according to capabilities and restrictions, which branded people unfit for employment, irrespective of the type of work, on a temporary or permanent basis. South Africa provided liberal cash transfers as social grants for PWD even though the disability groups are categorised as extremely multifaceted and fluid, such that it is problematic to describe and quantify for social protection purposes (Kelly, 2019). Since Africa is known worldwide for the generosity of its exceptional welfare system (Seekings, 2005), SASSA already resonated that the grant was not envisioned to recompense individuals for their incapacities as such; instead, it was recreated for compensation for their incapacity to make use of prospective opportunities. Natrass 2006:3) attested that disability was not once a priority in decision-making processes that were taken on the development goals. It has also not been mentioned and clarified in the eight MDGs of the 21 targets or the 60 pointers for achieving the objectives. Had PWD been included in this project, they could have benefitted from development projects (World Report, 2011).

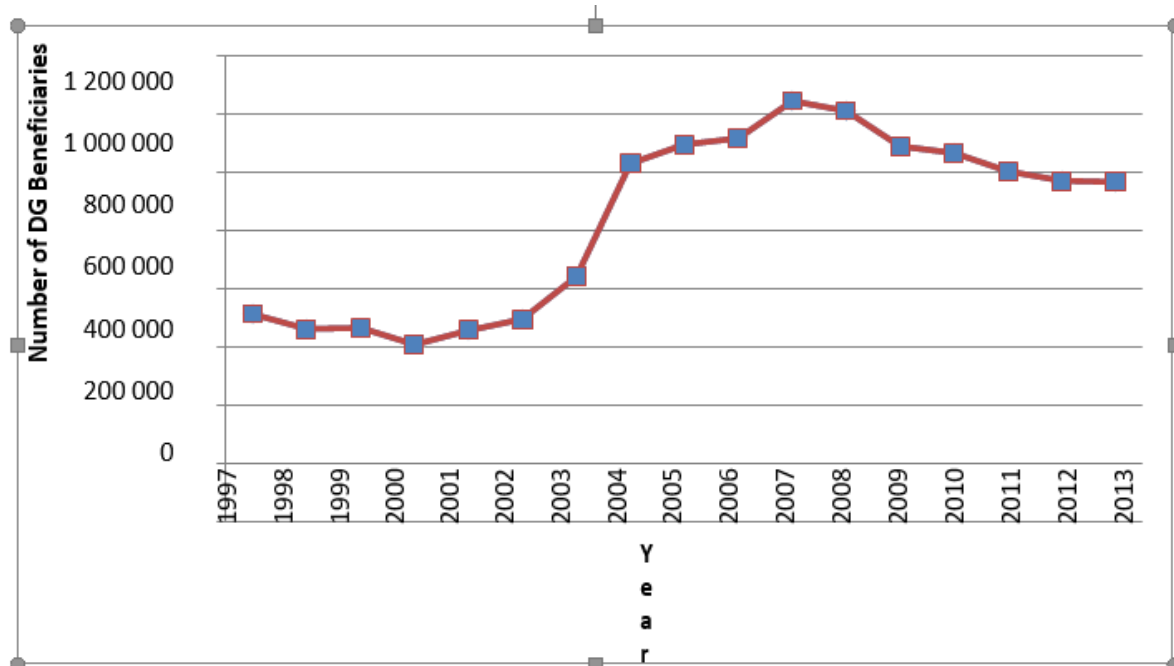
Mechanisms for incorporating PWD into the development agenda have evolved from a needs-based to a human rights-based approach. PWD were a small group that was often overlooked in development plans. Furthermore, despite the generally known link between disability and

poverty, initiatives to promote development and poverty reduction have not always embraced disability appropriately (Pinilla-Roncancio, 2015).

Most states could have better support systems for the ill and handicapped and more comprehensive social insurance coverage for the jobless. Furthermore, usually, no guidelines are provided on integrating impairment information and what tests should be utilised to demonstrate impairment. Globally, impairment-based models have been recognised as of limited utility because disability is rarely absolute. The effect of impairment (or set of impairments) on an individual and their employment needs assessment to be quantified in terms of their activity confinements (especially work-specific activities) and participation restrictions, which can be highly individualised, situation-dependent, and ambiguous (Jette *et al.*, 2002).

Figure 4.2 below shows the rise in the number of beneficiaries' of DGs between the years 2001 and 2007. The surprisingly large increment in numbers from 600 000 in 2000 to 1.3 million in 2004 has been ascribed to regulatory changes.

Figure 4.2: Number of DG beneficiaries



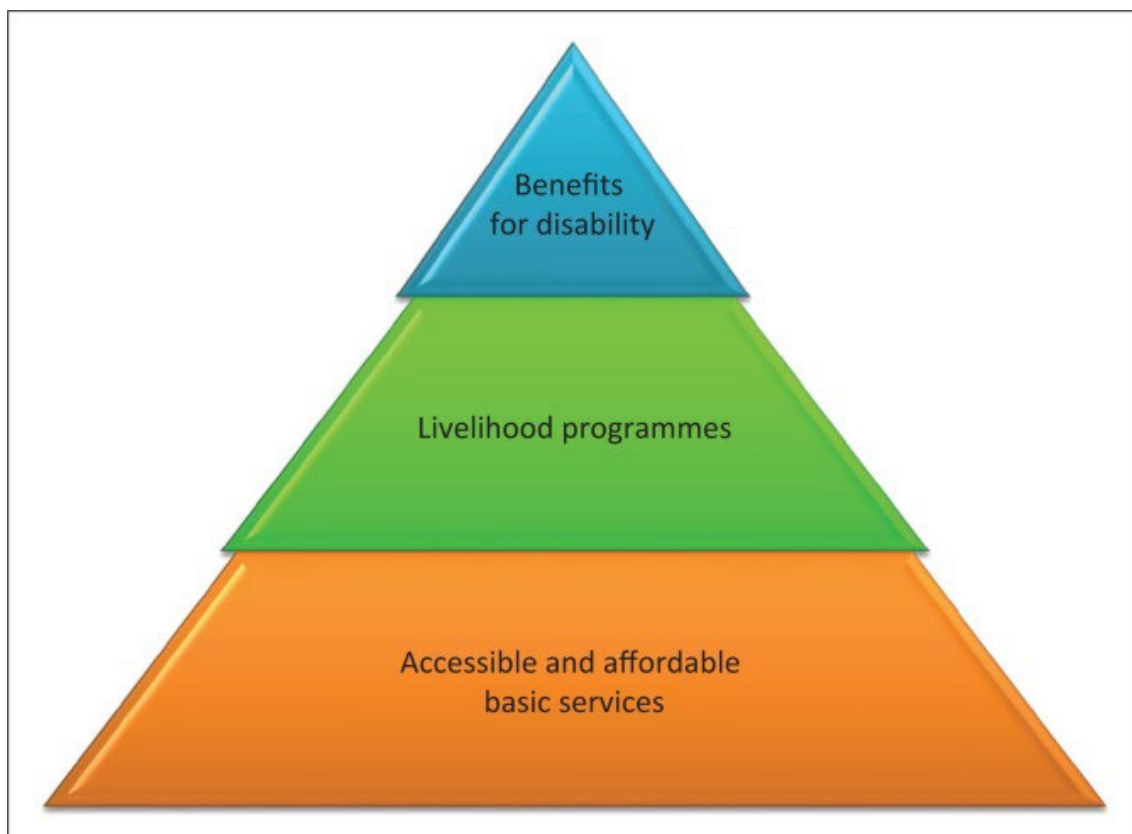
SASSA specifically targeted PWD. This is common in countries with mature welfare systems, where there is rampant unemployment and severe poverty. The programmes for the chronically ill are supported by social assistance schemes and better social insurance

coverage, with SASSA commenting: “social assistance grants happen more to South African blacks”. In addition, the DG was extended to those in need of permanent care and to unemployed mothers having babies. This South African model is seen as highly unusual in developed and underdeveloped countries because of generosity (Mitra, 2010).

The South African grant operates in a very specific environment, with significant unemployment and HIV rates, requiring complicated grant targeting and oversight. The grant administration questioned who should be considered incapacitated and the aim of social security in the context of chronic sickness. Alternatively, they wanted to know what strategy to use for quantifying an individual's incapacitation level and the effect of social safety mechanisms if applied in the context of prolonged sicknesses (Kelly, 2013; McGregor, 2010).

Figure 4.3 below shows the triple social protection mechanisms in a pyramid form to ensure the participation of PWD.

Figure 4.3: Social protection mechanisms



Source: Authors' own work

Hannass-Hancock and McKenzie (2017).

According to Mitra (2010), social grants in South Africa were largely used by PWD for basic needs such as food, transportation, school expenses, and sometimes to pay for utilities like electricity. It was frequently spent by households without any other fixed earnings or any other means of living and unable to supplement their income. This meant households would regularly remain deprived and susceptible to economic crises, including liabilities for daily necessities and requirements. The literature shows that cash transfers in the form of stokvels improved the livelihoods and living conditions of people, including those with disabilities. The DG was seen at times as bringing financial relief through stokvels and Funeral Burial Society Contributions Schemes (Hannass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017).

It has been proposed that stokvels should be created as informal financial savings or investment institutes like Capitec Bank, which would, in principle, operate like any formal financial institution with income attractive cause. This would suggest that stokvels and Funeral Burial Society Contribution Schemes have a common purpose, that of an economic goal rather than being a trust or a social goal, as foundations for their source and presence. This strategy could assist people who do not have access to financial accounts or are ineligible for formal banking accounts. Research proved that protection programmes were needed as effective observation instruments to identify financial challenges and implement improvements. Documents confirmed that research did not monitor social protection programmes concerning PWD (Kidd *et al.*, 2019).

The termination of the DG upon review brings another financial shock, which tempts one to fall into financial arrears. Transformation caused by deprivation and long-term unemployment escalates to dependency by PWD on the DGs and other members of their households, creating an elevation of joblessness. This interweaves with the psychological and attitudinal barriers that hinder schooling, creating discomfort and obstructing disabled individuals and their family members from accessing employment. This is one of the obstacles that obstructs PWD from utilising opportunities in education and employment. Although the desire to be educated for employment to support their families is strong, this has been exasperated by social exclusion.

Evidence discloses that employing PWD encourages joining the employment sector which should be acknowledged in terms of the existing South African situation of societal and financial strategies and their interrelated impact (Mitra, 2010). Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie (2017) stated, “the addressing operational inequalities in MICs such as South Africa, was imperative to measure machinations to reach those in need, and used improved compensation for some inequities that might be present”. The primary goal of these measures should be to equalise opportunities via reasonable rather than equal social protection systems.

Although South Africa asserts that social payments partly compensate PLWD families for income losses, some households reach the average national monthly income. However, the significant out-of-pocket expenditures associated with disability were not taken into account when calculating household costs. These expenses vary and might be unaffordable for certain population groups (Hannas-Hancock *et al.*, 2017). As a result, if PWD were subject to a means-tested social grant, the barrier should be greater than that of other poverty-related benefits, because disability-related expenditures are unpredictable and may increase if a person can engage in the labour market (Hannas-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017).

Documents confirm that disability in South Africa is still controlled by the medical and individual structures that disregard the social needs of PWD, which is a consequence of their marginalisation from mainstream society. South Africa emphasises human rights and equity in its constitution, which also includes issues relating to disabilities, but these do not reflect administrator's value (Natrass, 2005). Furthermore, South Africa's DG programme has been chastised for fostering a culture of reliance and bad management (Mitra, 2010). The disability self-reports and conventional measures of economic well-being employed by Mitra (2005) in her research revealed that DGs' inclusion errors were minor, while their exclusion errors were considerable and serious. The analysis also demonstrates that increasing leniency in disability screening policy in Gauteng jurisdiction earlier in the 2000s did not seem to have changed labour market behaviours in comparison to the Northern Cape - a jurisdiction where policy has not changed (Mitra, 2005).

Some PWD receive a disability grant, while some do not. In 2016, the former Minister of Social Development, Bathabile Dlamini implied that the beneficiaries of social grants would be able to reflect on R753.00 a month, but in 2017, the same minister did not pay PWD for three months. The issue of upgrading disability grants seems like a long way to go in getting rectified (Tyilo, 2022).

4.6 Access to Social Services and Cash Transfer Programmes

This section discusses the availability of social services and cash transfer programmes among PWD.

Social cash transfers are non-contributory and consistent and predictable grants offered to households or persons in the form of cash or other financial instruments. Non-contributory cash transfers is a welfare benefit that does not need or involve any contribution to cover a claim (Cambridge English Dictionary). Cash transfers can be given in many ways, as payment

support, child grants, disability benefits, scholarships and stipends, or non-contributory pensions. They can be aimed at specific susceptible groups, or disseminated wider. Cash vouchers are near-cash transfers that can be cashed or converted for particular products or services, even though they are often not received consistently.

Social transfers can be very effective in steering incomes to the deprived and are generally omitted from the public view to assist in getting and keeping children at schools and to utilise health services. Though free services may be available, or fee-waivers may function smoothly, those who are generally deprived and disqualified are barred by other obstacles like expenses, means of transport, medications, rent, uniforms, and schoolbooks. The disadvantage of social transfers is that countless bulky cash transfer programmes are provisional, with payments that rely on consistent school appearance, usage of precautionary conditional facilities, or other qualified situations. Vouchers are the least flexible use for transfers, with beneficiaries restricted to spending on specific listed services as breadwinners (Department of International Development [DFID], 2018.)

The introduction of the Agreement on the Human Rights of PWD (CRPD, 2012), not only approved devastating conditions most PWD were living under, but also appealed for the debate on this scourge (Tesemma, 2014). The present unemployment rate, which moved from 29% to 35.4 %, makes the future look bleak for PWD in the country as there is less government movement to see if employment opportunities are created, particularly for Blacks. Literature confirms that in this country, statistics show a high rate of PWD in the continent, constituting about 8% of the population. In comparison, PWD accounted for 10.5% of the unemployed, more than twice the figure of people with no disabilities at 4% (Webster, 2019). South Africa devotes around 3% of its GDP on social grants (Budget Review, 2017/2018) and 7.2% to poverty alleviation programmes.

South Africa has a major poverty alleviation programme of a well-built scheme of social cash transfers or social grants, which monthly reaches more than 17.4 million people (SASSA, 2017). Unemployment in South Africa affects more indigenous people (Blacks) than other races (Stats SA, 2014). Phillip (2009) noted that the main characteristic of the budget is unspoken, and the “commanding heights” of a reduced economy are exceedingly consolidated, from top to bottom levels of concentration of wealth, including narrow ranks in cooperation with main divisions. Wealthy industries have a tendency of excluding contributions from lesser initiatives, making costly (Phillip, 2009). However, socio-economy that compressed PWD which was significant in this study, was seen as a deep-rooted cause of exclusion of these people.

Table 4.1: Percentage of persons with disabilities who needed but did not receive welfare services, in nine countries, around Africa.

AVERAGE	76%							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
94%	92%	90%	87%	82%	84%	75%	61%	20%

Key: Malawi (1) Lesotho (2) Zambia (3) Mozambique (4) Nepal (5) Eswatini (6) Zimbabwe (7), Botswana (8), South Africa (9) (Sida, 2015).

The socio-economic status among PWD was perceived to be creating inequality and poverty that remained from one decade to the next. This was confirmed by a study conducted by Keeton (2014) on unemployment, finding that it is still a challenge among South African Blacks in the pre- and post-apartheid era. Apartheid created a legacy of income inequality that remained within the workplace, leaving people in poverty (Keeton, 2014). Consequently, equality and marginalisation among black PWD appear to be the major issue that makes them drift apart as they were omitted from society, while they were also prohibited from gaining access to essential communal, governmental, and monetary rights (Stats SA, 2014). Literature shows that economic studies have subsidised the understanding of many disability matters. However, it has been discovered that there has been no systematic economic market research into the problem that presents regarding disability systems.

The absence of data was found to be the main problem causing many challenges mentioned above and discussed earlier in the chapter at length (Mitra, 2013). The employers' lack of understanding of the mental capacity and the abilities of the PWD may contribute to the question as to why few PWD engage in paid work (UN Enable, 2016). The ILO (2015:4) mentions the South African “generation in crisis” which contributed a meaningful role in social order during the post-apartheid era, includes PWD, but this “generation in crisis” could not play a crucial role after apartheid was over in terms of societal adjustments in this new dispensation. The crises also disadvantaged PWD as they missed employment opportunities, resulting in long unemployment periods that led to inactivity and poverty. Black economic empowerment (BEE), which was introduced to transform the economic situation for Blacks, did not fulfil this mandate and was perceived by many black South African business managers as flawed.

Hence, the South African Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) noted:

“Our country requires an economy that can meet the needs of all economic citizens, our people and their enterprises in a sustainable manner. This will only be possible if our economy builds on the full potential of all persons and communities across the length and breadth of this country”. (Krüger, 2014)

Under normal circumstances, PWD who were working and lost their jobs would be required to improve their employment skills to re-enter the labour market in assisting with the crisis of poverty. It was proposed that programmes that were to be of assistance to PWD and which were to ensure the security of income were to be reviewed. This revision was not implemented (USBLS, 2015).

These programmes were also not free of costs, as they were linked to their incomes for deductions. The deductions excluded those whose income was below a certain threshold. This indicated that PWD are experiencing a higher unemployment rate than non-disabled people (Stats SA, 2014; USBLS, 2015). Hence, the low cost of the workforce’s contribution was the vital path on which incapacity may be central to poverty (ILO, 2015). Marx Weber’s theory of life chances states that the theory is positively interrelated with one’s socio-economic status in the community (Weber, as cited in Giddens *et al.*, 2014).

4.6.1 Related Cash Transfer Programmes

This section discusses the availability of related cash transfer programmes to PWD. Cash transfer programming (CTP) talks about all programmes involving cash (or vouchers for goods or services) that are sent out to recipients. This method constructs forms of connections, capabilities, motivations, and associations to inspire operative market retrieval. The literature shows that cash transfers and stokvels improved people's livelihoods and living conditions, including those with disabilities (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). Research proved that social protection programmes were needed as effective observation instruments to identify challenges and implement improvements. Documents confirmed that research did not observe examples of monitoring of social protection concerning PWD (Kidd *et al.*, 2019).

According to Kelly (2019), South Africa offers generous cash transfers called social grants targeted at PWD. According to ILO (2018), social protection schemes should encompass disability-related costs and offer incentives for PWD to move in and continue in the labour force. At same time, the construction of social protection schemes can be a barrier to the employment of PWD. For example, in various countries that provide disability benefits, entitlements for benefits are tied to the incapacity to work, discouraging them from looking for employment rather than receiving benefits. In a situation where occupation could result from higher income levels, PWD may still opt for benefits because they avoid taking risks with their

jobs that do not even provide suitable support and are not flexible enough to satisfy their needs. Furthermore, working often involves extra costs for PWD, which cuts into the return to work if not covered by social protection schemes (ILO, 2018).

Mitra (2010) reported that South African cash transfer practices are “any disability” measures and as a developed poverty measure reported an exclusion error rate of 46% of PWD who do not meet the standards of mainstream microfinance institutions. PWD could not afford to pay fees to join programmes, and many have failed to join due to a lack of expertise trying to offer financial services to PWD (Handicap International, 2011). After the apartheid era, cash transfers were targeted explicitly at PWD with a comparatively long history of suffering (Kelly, 2013). South Africa opted for a social assistance programme rather than cash transfer programmes for PWD, because of the country's high unemployment rate (Kagee, 2014). The literature reveals that the DG did not alleviate poverty nor boost PWD economic stance. Hence PWD were still living in extreme poverty (Mitra, 2010).

According to Honorati, Gentilini and Yemtsov *et al.* (2015), cash transfer programmes were soon identified as the primary source of social safety networks in many Sub-Saharan African (SSA) nations. The primary goal of these programs was to aid and enhance food security for families experiencing economic hardship to ensure steady consumption. Despite their widespread visibility and effect, monetary aid represented a smaller proportion of social safety net programmes than financial help. Social assistance, especially cash transfers, is recognised as an important strategy in recognizing poverty in SSA. “Cash transfers, therefore, have been shown to diminish poverty and provide extensive human assets development impacts often more so than other traditional forms of social assistance. Cash also assists recipients with a sense dignity and autonomy” (Honorati *et al.*, 2015).

Evidence shows that PWD are estimated at 15% of the population globally and live in poverty most of the time, facing appalling health expenses. They have less significant levels of education and economic involvement while they live as unsecured families that are more susceptible to financial security shockwaves compared to non-disabled people (Mizunoya & Mitra, 2013, 2018; Mizunoya, Mitra, and Yamasaki, 2016; Trani *et al.*, 2015; SADS, 2015; UN DESA, 2018; WHO & World Bank, 2011). This is also the case with PWD in Soshanguve Township, where social programmes were available in the country but prohibited PWD and their families from participating in any social programmes while they were vulnerable to economic security and subjected to shockwaves.

South Africa was not alone in experiencing challenges with social programmes for PWD. Evidence revealed challenges PWD encounter in other countries where social programmes are available, and they struggle to access them (Banks *et al.*, 2017; Devereux, 2010; Drucza, 2016; Mwendwa *et al.*, 2009). For example, Kupers *et al.*'s (2016) exploration in Tanzania showed that PWD' needs were not met since they were not selected in the existing social programmes that were operating. The WHO and World Bank (2011) and UN DESA (2018) noted that these disparities emanated from various obstacles, including shame, isolation, improper arrangements, lack of information, inappropriate services, as well an absence of sustenance.

Disability, gender, or ethnicity-related obstacles are frequently interconnected, as they create discrimination that is directed to womenfolk and female adolescents with disabilities. Durán *et al.* (2019) noted that few people with incapacities were eligible for social security welfare in economically developing countries. Moreover, existing social protection policies diverted their attention to inability to labour and deprivation instead of concentrating on sufficient provision and enclosure that restrict efficiency and well-preserved biases Kidd *et al.*, 2018, 2019a). Previously, the proposal of PWD on the agreement for their rights in the United Nations generated extensive policy variations.

The vision "no one left behind", which is the centre of SDGs, has augmented the drive for operating to unanimity for the menacing starring role of social protection to decrease susceptibility and encourage supportive inclusion for PWD throughout their life series (ILO. 2017, 2019; UN 2015; UN DESA, 2018). Kelly (2013) noted that, to avoid these economic shocks, the profits from social grants should jointly be shared within families through the support of a steady salary that would encourage chances for PWD to work on their activities that would make them be appreciated as praiseworthy families. To acknowledge the susceptibility of PWD and their families, the government should make a conventional set of three related disability social cash transfers available.

PWD who cannot contest in the labour force environment, including as guardians for incapacitated children, were given a grant of R1 600 per month. Therefore, families having members with disabilities were mostly involved in financial restrictions due to losing jobs and income, with added expenses for assistive devices, healthcare, and transportation, particularly those with grave impairment. However, clashes would erupt over income sharing, leading to aggression against PWD, with those with grave disablement (Gooding & Marriot, 2009). Respondents expressed their dissatisfaction with the DG saying:

To us a social grant is not a normal salary. It's just a stipend. We need jobs and houses from the government to bring our dignity back. We are very lonely. I think the government should start becoming serious about disabled people by building shelters for businesses because we are perishing fast.

We parents, if you have four children, money becomes better and as we add their grant to ours, so we pay electricity which is expensive and pay transport for children to go to school and buy groceries. We wait for store sales to get food at a cheaper price and buy chicken feet and chicken necks for meat and make gravy to eat with pap.

We have been overlooked and are tired of fighting this battle after using all our resources hoping that we will get the backing of social and financial assistance somehow when our businesses collapsed, and no one wants to hear from us, we are on our own.

Documentation confirms that the DSD and Labour Offices failed to recognise the omission of PWD from existing progression projects or action plans. The legislation did not make enough effort to assist PWD in their performance toward employment. The EEA failed to achieve the goals regarding the number of employed PWD. The DSD was required to connect DG receivers to the occupation sector by organising or encouraging small businesses for PWD. Before that, it had to consider several conservational and social obstacles, in particular, discernment in the framework of the rapid rate of unemployment (Mitra, 2010).

4.6.2 Income and Means of Support

The life of unemployed incapacitated persons surrounds them with inaccessibility in everything that requires expenditures, particularly health, transport, food, family, maintenance, caregivers, and many more, besides the actual disability. The reason behind this inaccessibility is presented by the public perception of PWD, which suggests they are incapable of making a meaningful contribution to society. Hence, PWD were physically excluded from meaningful public spaces (Gavu, Tudzi, & Shani, 2015: 6). Meaningful employment opportunities in Soshanguve Township were life-threatening to PWD' well-being as they miss opportunities and information with no access to education. The PWD suffer from chronic diseases and depression (Malakwane, 2014). The literature confirms that PWD are unlikely to have opportunities based on income that would enable them to manage their families (Aiden & McCarthy, 2014).

Currently, no policy intercession is envisioned to improve PWD' predicament of unemployment and their devastating living conditions. This quandary persisted undisturbed for decades (Mitra, 2010). Opportunities of any type are scarce for black South Africans as every opportunity is

locked for them, be it health, employment, food, education, housing, human rights, and many others. PWD saw that supporting themselves by creating small businesses would be better, but they needed capital from the government. This shows how hard it is to live in South Africa as a Black person without a job, while senseless laws infringe on individuals' rights. It is even harder for PWD to do business in the streets because there is no assistance to access capital. In other African countries, PWD and non-disabled women are assisted by their governments to start small businesses.

A study was conducted in Ghana on peoples' perceptions about the encounters and chances to increase the quality of food the local street-sellers were selling in urban Ghana and whether the community could consume it. For example, street vendors were allowed to sell food in the streets for people who could not afford food from expensive restaurants, as street food was always fresh, healthy, accessible, and affordable. Street sellers produced many local dishes for people from different cultures. Food sold in the streets was important to the urban inhabitants in unindustrialised nations (Haleegoah *et al.*, 2020). Much research was conducted on nutrition in various nations pertaining to eminence, safety, and hygiene because of effective regulations, which was important to government policymaking. Therefore, researchers not only emphasise the care and cleanliness of food in Ghana. They also provided an important knowledge base for policy and action. Seemingly, not so much has been done about the experiments in improving excellence in local foods and street-selling.

Evidence shows various disputes concerning the care, security, and cleanliness in the groundwork stage and sale surroundings. Also, concerning the indigenous supervisory specialists, with insufficient investment and associated contests and self-doubting places for food street selling, it could have been a big opportunity for PWD in South Africa to be funded on such projects and be observed under hygienic conditions. This research suggested that competent and active partnerships between all performers, actors and appropriate organisations can provide sellers the prospect of providing well, inexpensive and favoured native serving dishes of national price to customers (Haleegoah *et al.*, 2020).

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed qualification and training as the main issues with reference to access to learnership programmes, criteria for entry into a learnership programme, difficulties experienced by candidates in accessing a learnership programme, problems encountered during the selection process and uploading application forms into the system, preparation for training programmes, problems encountered in getting into the job market, access to social assistance financial support, disability grants and social protection, access to social services,

related cash transfer programmes, income, and means of support. The next chapter, Chapter 5, discusses the challenges experienced by PWD.

Chapter Five

Objective 2. Challenges Experienced by PWD

5.1. Introduction

Objective 1 sought to discover and define the encounters and difficulties confronted by unemployed PWD and their discriminatory workplace conditions wrought by a loss of dignity, stigmatisation, and social rejection. The findings revealed that the PWD faced numerous challenges relating to discrimination in the workplace. Discrimination occurs not only in the workplace for these people but also in society. These challenges faced by PWD in the workplace were manifested in different ways, as already discussed, such as (1) disability and discrimination in the workplace, (2) unemployment, depression and attitudes, (3) society's attitudes towards PWD, (4) lack of access to the labour market and employers' corrupt tendencies towards job seekers, (5) low self-esteem and sexual harassment, (6) the disability and associated remuneration business costs and medication, (7) inaccessibility to information, education and cost barriers (8) poverty and disability, (9) lack of information and costs (9) societal attitudes, (10) homelessness, (11) inadequate policies, (12) barriers, e.g., exclusionary barriers, transportation and physical barriers, and (13) forms of economic challenges, e.g., socio-economic marginalisation, lack of resources and lack of income.

5.1.1 Disability and discrimination in the workplace

This section discusses disability and discrimination in the workplace and how discriminatory employers and colleagues applied practices towards candidates in various forms. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 prohibits organisations and employers from excluding or denying individuals an equal opportunity to access projects and facilities. The Act explains the rights of PWD to contribute and access programme benefits and services. Discrimination has been described as partial, harmful conduct based on bigotry and is inflicted by the powerful on powerless individuals and groupings through ethnicity, sex, oldness or sensual orientation (Community Tool Box, 2020.). Confirmation shows that judgment is an action that creates unjustified distinctions between humans in groups, programmes, and other sets of people apparently belonging together.

However, people may be affected by disability bias, they are discriminated against for their disability. PWD are still experiencing incongruities despite physical barriers they endure (Community Tool Box, 2020). There is now mounting evidence that PWD are overwhelmingly more vulnerable to lifestyle and chronic diseases (Grech, 2016). There are numerous reasons for the prejudice aligned with disability, such as low social status frequently accorded to PWD

due to discrimination, stigma, exclusion and myths that are associated with disfigurement of the body, differences in sexuality and disability due to a general absence of disability awareness and limited focus in organisations on recruitment processes to drive the employment of PWD (National Institute for Neurological Disorders & Stroke, n.d.).

According to Roscigno (2019), workplace discrimination research has been convinced to concentrate on a single element of inequality or a certain kind of closure, specifically, how positional and relational power within the job context might perpetuate or relieve vulnerability. However, vulnerabilities continue to be overstated in the research since victims, primarily those with lower occupational standing, seldom file official complaints, much alone challenge their lower incomes or the humiliations they face (Berrey *et al.*, 2017). Article 09 of the South African Constitution states, “all persons are equal before law and there cannot be any discrimination on the grounds of race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language”.

The South African Constitution guarantees the right to equality and protects all from unfair discrimination. The Constitution further acknowledges that “affirmative action measures are necessary to advance disadvantaged groups”. South Africa’s discrimination in the workplace is more strictly allied with race and, to a lesser degree, gender, which results in discrimination (Community Tool Box, no date). Although the life-long grounds of discrimination such as race, gender and disability persist, the erratic nature of the employees and social interactions have deepened to fresher methods of discrimination over time that are based on HIV and Aids status, age, sexual positioning and gender identity, language, religion, and culture (Watermeyer *et al.*, 2006).

PWD were discriminated against regarding job opportunities and schooling because of their peculiar appearance, so many dropped out of school (Machipisa, 2002). Employers have been reported as preventing PWD from accessing jobs (Kromberg, 1987), so much so that among those afflicted, poverty passes from one generation to the next (Kromberg & Jenkins, 1984:107). However, evidence shows that South African employers have not changed their discriminatory behaviour against PWD in the workplace. The EEA legislation, which is supposed to protect them, is of no assistance as it has not been implemented since it was gazetted in the parliament years ago (White Paper, 2015).

This omission shuts the doors to employment and education opportunities for PWD and employers, and the labour department played a big role in ensuring these people would not benefit from such opportunities. It also shows that many employers, through their discriminatory tactics, do not recognise PWD' talents and capabilities of qualified candidates who live with disabilities simply because they assume that accommodation is a burden for reasons that do not bear out facts. Employers also believe that employing PWD would make the workplace less user-friendly (Maja *et al.*, 2011). At the workplace, PWD were often shouted at and monitored if they weren't doing the right thing.

They were bullied, given names and labelled as slow learners, inactive and sickly. Discrimination, with its innovative practices, was perceived as a disturbing objective by employees that requires obstinate attention and assessment that no one is left behind in the efforts of opposing discriminatory practices to achieve the goal of equal rights and dignity for all (South African Human Rights Commission [INDSINDTS], 2016). Lee (2013) noted that PWD often experienced unemployment, varying from underemployment due to undeveloped skills to refusal of individual entry into the job market. Unmet skills expectations would lead to depression and anxiety in the employment/unemployment issues.

All respondents agreed they faced serious challenges at work due to not being conceived as human beings. Due to ill-treatment, they were often depressed and stressed, and these signs also occurred when they were looking for jobs. A male respondent commented, *"Yhoo! Its stressful having no job jong, and man; it's a big stress, I feel it, because I have no money and I need to help my family as anybody else also to run my project"*. A Research Brief on disability and equality (2015), noted that "Discrimination against PWD persists in various social and economic spheres including in the economy and education. Without sincere social inclusion and reasonable accommodation of PWD, substantive equality cannot be achieved."

The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 2000 (PEPUDA) was passed in 2000. PEPUDA was a policy introduced to control any unfair discrimination based on race, gender and disability. PEPUDA approves the accessibility to employment opportunities for all citizens including PWD. Furthermore, the Labour Relations Act (LRA) 66 of 1995 regulates the right to fair labour practices entrenched in Section 27 of the Constitution as follows: "No person may be unfairly discriminated against on an arbitrary ground such as disability" (DSD, 2016). It was suggested that discriminatory policies should be eradicated and replaced by new policies that should be pursued with ongoing evaluation programmes to ensure accountability to reflect transformation; this would be a solution.

According to Emanuel (2018), adopting new policies requires a deep transformation that will replicate new democratic principles. It was also suggested that white employers be encouraged to hire black employers and collaborate on decision-making procedures rather than white-only employers who make choices for black impaired personnel. It is critical that adjustments be implemented in this nation to avoid vilifying PWD via their dominating culture. It is believed that enforcing anti-discrimination legislation would boost access to the formal sector and have broader societal benefits (Tesemma, 2014). Furthermore, policy design does not always take into account the requirements and variations of PWD, and current regulations and norms are not always implemented (World Report, 2011).

Black workers were in the majority, but they did not have individuals at higher levels to serve on committees and implement decision-making procedures on their behalf (Van Der Westhuizen, 2015). According to Tesemma (2014), PWD were treated unequally at work throughout the democratic era. He proposed repealing anti-discriminatory legislation in this nation to cease dehumanising PWD via dominant culture (Tesemma, 2014). Forcing anti-discrimination legislation is intended to increase access to the formal sector and have broader societal benefits for policy and design, which often fails to consider the demands of PWD or unimplemented existing norms and standards (World Report, 2011). The PWD were constantly sad and agitated due to unending unemployment and poverty, which posed a significant obstacle, leaving them with no choice except to succumb to malnutrition and hunger.

Even if PWD were employed, they were often just as depressed as when unemployed because of the daily dehumanisation they experience at work. It transpired from the interviews that respondents, as job seekers, were always embarrassed by employers when looking for jobs. Despite being qualified for a job, employers would say they simply could not waste time or go to the expense of changing the whole workplace environment because of their disability, as it was expensive. This gesture to respondents created the impression that a qualified person looking for a job came to violate the workplace environment.

We are a community of unemployed people, and we are poor; as a result we have stopped looking for jobs due to discrimination. Even if we apply, we are seldom called for interviews. If we are qualified, having a degree is seen as someone who come to change the environment of the workplace.

There's no accommodation at the workplace. The employer looked at my disability and said, my hand will need a lot of adjustments for the computer, and it's expensive. Even if you try to be

self-employed there will be an issue of not getting a capital to start up the business this discrimination is not going to end soon in the workplace unless laws are changed.

Employers should realise that special accommodations were not an inconvenience but adds to the value and improves efficiency. It is no different than adding a step stool in your kitchen to help you reach the top shelf. We all need 'accommodations' at some point even the able-bodied.

Deprivation of job opportunities is a decisive tool used by employers to discriminate against people's disabled bodies. Watermeyer (2013) noted that "attitudes and economic practices modelled the greatest interference regarding job opportunities. Subsequently, a formal qualification among PWD appears to be critical in influencing their future life chances". The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2020) confirmed that most PWD miss job opportunities worldwide, irrespective of how much they seek employment due to discrimination. The testimonies mentioned above reflect the frustration of PWD as they have given up on job application processes.

This challenge is due to adjustments required to enable them to work efficiently and the expenses needed for the adjustment. Profit-oriented organisations require an extra budget to close the gap people have encountered during previous rejection experiences, which they tried to understand. Evidence shows that disability in South Africa is still controlled by medical and individual structures that disregard the social needs of PWD, confirming their marginalisation from mainstream society. South Africans emphasise human rights and equity in their constitution, including issues relating to disabilities, but these lofty goals are not reflected in these bureaucrats' values (Natrass, 2005). In addition, the social security programme was condemned for promoting a culture of dependency and poor administration. Also, the use of language must be considered, and its importance to PWD must be acknowledged, as it is about an essential respect for the integrity and dignity of PWD that it is known as people's first language (Al Ju'beh, 2015:24).

5.2 Unemployment, depression and attitudes

This section discusses the impact of unemployment and depression and the attitudes involved in the workplace.

For more two consecutive decade's social equality in "South Africa is still battling with issues of unemployment, inequality, poverty, and hunger" (Stats SA, 2013a: 22). The reality reflects most recently in the Pulse of the People Research Study that is detecting more significant problems that were facing the South African government (Van Der Westhuizen & Swart, 2015).

Unemployment of PWD is a problem that they endure in their daily lives, which continues without interruption and with minimal intervention by governments (UN, Enable, 2016). The country has been emaciated by joblessness crisis of 6.1 (27%) million people suffering from redundancy. A 2015 -2016 Report was issued that signified 1. 2% of PWD. In the labour force of designated employers according to the Employment Equity Act (Department of Labour, South Africa, 2015).

Unemployment is still the biggest challenge to date for Black South Africans since the days of apartheid. It has created an income inequality in the workplace (Keeton, 2014). This problem is bigger for indigenous people living with disabilities and worse for those who are unemployed. Black PWD are most affected by unemployment as employment opportunities always bypass them due to disability bias leading to discrimination, exclusion, attitudes, marginalisation and social isolation (Disability in Africa, no date). The CPRD acknowledges that employment is vital to the self-worth of PWD. Article 27 of the CPRD places specific obligations on governments to promote equal access to employment for PWD. Key measures outlined in Article 27 include the prohibition of discrimination based on disability in all matters concerning all forms of employment, promotion of employment opportunities, and career advancement for PWD in the labour market.

In 2020, South Africa's unemployment rate remained at 29%; five times the rate of the rest of the world, as there were 16 million people of working age (15 to 64) at the time who were rendered invisible through unemployment (Belling, 2020). The Health Economics and HIV/AIDS Research Division (HEARD) Policy Brief (2012) confirmed that in developing countries with limited resources, working age PWD were largely unemployed. The organised disability movements have fought against this worldwide social oppression at international and local levels. In the past 20 years, discrimination and exclusion remained despite leading to unemployment due to loss of opportunities (Ngwena *et al.*, 2017).

In addition, PWD endure a disability bias daily through attitudes, alienation, stigma, and social isolation (DPSA, 2013). The conditions that respondents work under are not favourable, and they perceived them as abnormal. Furthermore, PWD often feel depressed, sad, isolated, and stressed. What stresses them most is the issue of the social grant that is insufficient for their families, and that they have to wait for some time before it comes (a month), when there is no food on the table. They do not know whether they will sleep, not having eaten each night. Some are depressed because they are rejected by their families and society due to their disability.

South Africa is known to be the most stressful country in the world among black Africans, particularly PWD, irrespective of their qualifications. Those with less than a matric qualification, including the youth, are even worse off. PWD perceived unemployment as an agony that they must live with, accompanied by attitudes. Inclusion needs to be implemented in society to benefit the country's economy, which can improve their citizens' lives. So far, they see themselves as the small forgotten population living on the country's margins. They still lived in poverty in the urban and rural areas even after the demise of the apartheid government for their whole lives, as this continues from one generation to the next (Kromberg, 1985). Joblessness is conceived as being caused by undeveloped skills which were supposed to have been developed according to the understanding of the employed and unemployed at all levels among PWD (Lee, 2013), which results in their exclusion.

According to Yeo and Moore (2011), the level of unemployment and poverty in South Africa was limitless and so bad that unemployment rates among PWD were even more significant than those of the rest of the population. The literature revealed that PWD were underrepresented in the workforce in South Africa because they were jobless, whether via contract, part-time employment, unemployment, underemployment, or forced employment (Lee, 2013). The high unemployment rate can have a greater impact on disadvantaged Blacks, particularly black PWD, who have already lost hope in finding work. As a result, equity and marginalisation among black PWD seem to be a serious problem separating them from most of society (ILO, 2015).

The unimplemented legislation on PWD in South Africa lies within the ambit of the South African Constitution because it encompasses legislation that omits some important principles that matter most to disabled individuals (Grobelaar & Grobler, 2013). Most South Africans still fear the challenge of unemployment, which has been the primary problem for black South Africans during the apartheid and post-apartheid era. However, with the unrelenting rejection and ostracism, the impact of long-term lesions on their self-esteem and confidence was obvious. Rejection and ostracism led to insufficient experience, absence of qualifications, and lengthy times living unemployed. Despite these negatives, some PWD reinforced their resolution to pursue largely unavailable work (Bam, 2018).

The current unemployment figures (36.2%) suggest that the COVID-19 lockdown has created additional difficulties for job seekers to find access to the labour market and for struggling businesses to create employment (Mahlaka, 2021). Employers were rude in the workplace; as a result, respondents suffered from low self-esteem and were prone to sexual harassment. All

respondents felt depressed and stressed due to ill-treatment and corruption of employers, while at the same time, they were stressed by ongoing monitoring that made them feel stupid when employed. The following quotes are illustrative of the challenges mentioned above:

Unemployment is a big challenge to us in this country and is even worse in Soshanguve. It's a stress not to be employed, not to work being a man and disabled and having no money, cause people need money, and they don't have. We do not get job opportunities here in Soshanguve no matter how much we try due to exclusion we experienced this exclusion in most situations in our lives.

Our working conditions are depressing as they are not normal, and you work under either too cold or hot shelters with the same ours with non-disabled people while you earn less than them. By being disabled and on a wheelchair means you are always depressed and stressed as you are immobile with long hours sitting with nothing much you can do on your own just depending your life on others.

We live lives of depression, isolation and stressed out as we don't know our families whether they will sleep eating food tonight. Waiting for a social grant that comes end of the month is depressing and coming when there's nothing to eat at home and those who work earn less money. And we suffer in Soshanguve, besides, unemployment from discrimination, inequality, isolation, and depression, which cause unnecessary pressure due to physical disability.

Owusu-Ansah (2015) noted that the symptoms of depression, including feelings of sadness, loneliness and helplessness, sometimes present as boredom and anhedonia (inability to feel pleasure in normally pleasurable activities). Stress can be a feeling of emotional or physical tension that makes an individual feel frustrated, anxious, angry, or nervous through a challenge or demand and leads to depression. Watermeyer (2013) noted that "attitudes and economic practices modelled the greatest interference when it comes to job opportunities. Subsequently, a formal qualification among people with disabilities appears to be of critical importance in terms of influencing their future life chances." The ILO (2020) confirmed that most PWD miss job opportunities worldwide, irrespective of how much they try to look for employment due to discrimination.

5.2.1 Society's attitudes towards PWD

This section discusses society's negative attitudes towards PWD. It has already been discussed that negative attitudes towards PWD were not just practised in the workplace but also by communities. Negative attitudes are not just a local phenomenon; they are also known

in the United States and worldwide. Attitudes are built on a lengthy past of undesirable insights of arrogances directed to PWD (Munyi, 2012). Documentation on unemployment of PWD revealed that societies frequently excluded unemployed members from significant roles in communities. Meanwhile, a disability may result from insufficient knowledge; it is often associated with sickness. As attitudes may play a big role in alienating these people, society observed them as incapacitated people, unable to give any assistance, and just sitting there waiting for handouts. They are viewed as reliant on other people. They also carry the heavy burden of being excluded from society by meekness and mistreatment in the workplace and from African ways of knowing, apart from being disabled (Uromi & Mazangwa, 2015).

Unemployed men were often excluded by other men from participating in masculine events and in shared title roles within the groups due to society's attitudes. However, as PWD frequently experienced this exclusion, they were expected to be living a life of being unemployed (Gottlieb *et al.*, 2010). Currently, most PWD expected to spend most of their lives unemployed. Those among them without qualifications were seen as performing poorly in the labour market (Riddell *et al.*, 2010). Although unemployment-imposed difficulties on men with disabilities, these were linked with poverty, lack of recognition and disrespect of their dignity, which limited their ability to socialise with others. Men felt they were a liability for their friends who were employed. This feeling was the strongest when they had to meet socially and with their family members.

Disabled men became more isolated as they grew older (Fryer & Ullah, 2012:102-106), while women could not socialise at all because of patriarchy and discrimination against women and the disabled. Above all, PWD were burdened for life with these challenges. Furthermore, they were affected by societal beliefs about disability, which were often associated with superstitions, stigma, myths, moralising or beliefs about curses (NOAH, 1999). According to Munyi (2012), the manifestation of negative attitudes towards those who differ from others dates to the ancient times of the Greeks and Romans. Machipisa, (2006) noted that PWD often experienced exclusion, marginalisation and stigma in the workplace and society, and these negatives reflected immoral views towards these people. Africa is not unique in exhibiting this behaviour. These beliefs, superstitions and myths about these people are held by mainstream society.

Research reveals that, in Africa, PWD are often associated with wickedness, myth and a curse, including punishment from God. Furthermore, they are often not afforded decent burials when they die. Mothers who gave birth to such children were often stigmatised (Fanck, 2015: 6). Due to the fear of the unknown, society is often suspicious of them, creating beliefs, myths and

superstitions that result in negative attitudes and discrimination (NOAH, 1999). According to the responses from interviews, people often gaze at them. Gottlieb, Myhill, and Blanck (2010) confirmed that societies have negative attitudes toward PWD, particularly if they are unemployed. They are victims of exclusion and are not invited to social gatherings or any activity. They are isolated and not given any important societal roles in the community.

PWD have always been marginalised by society, particularly those in wheelchairs, as they would ask for assistance to reach commodities on the top shelves in the supermarkets. Similarly, when asking for help with buttons in lifts, they would often be ignored or given a “gaze”. The very same society would feel ashamed of them but assist in pushing their wheelchairs without asking, an action that is embarrassing to them. PWD have no access to education. Some would be ignored by society when they ask for assistance. Although society sees PWD daily, it cannot eliminate the “stigma” and associated attitudes.

Society still finds disability a strange phenomenon. Seemingly, society is reluctant to accept body differences or disfigured bodies. Some people develop a fear of the unknown just by coming across a disfigured body; hence, they “gaze” at them, which makes them feel very uncomfortable. Before the 20th century, collective attitudes reproduced the opinion that PWD were unnatural, imperfect, and unusual. This label continued in society without changing, treating these people as objects of fear and pity. Societal beliefs about disability were often associated with superstitions, myths, morality or curses (NOAH, 1999). Recently, there have been some minimal changes in managing and treating PWD (Burtner, 2021) but they still experience significant problems. To affirm the allegations, respondents said:

According to me society is our problem as when you go out to the supermarket people always give us a ‘gaze’ and want to help us without asking in pushing our wheelchairs, and they always feel shameful for us, and that is embarrassing to us, and this makes us very uncomfortable.

To get access to shopping centre[s], spazza shops, clinics, [and] Home Affairs is a problem as there are no smooth footpaths or off-ramps for driving a wheelchair; it’s even worse when it’s raining, and when we need something on the top shelves we seldom get help even if we ask. Sometimes people just stare at US; so it’s a challenge coming to shopping centre.

Although society comes across a disabled person on daily basis, it still sees [a] disabled person as strange, howling at us with appalling gestures and passing remarks [at] all times. You always get negative results from people out there if wanting a job or something else. They try to take you low and simple as if you are not supposed to work or see you as equal to them.

Nyangweso (2018) noted that society has not been able to eliminate the stigma of social and professional rejection as well as criticism towards PWD. The most basic needs of PWD have been neglected, particularly education, in a manner that would not happen if they were needed by everyone not disabled. In the same way, PWD were still regularly coming across negative attitudes from families and other community members, ranging from being treated in a way that appears kind or helpful but betrays a feeling of superiority merely for venturing out. The difficulty of climbing, reaching out and being unable to enter certain environments was seen in society's attitudes as you would not get assistance. Nyangweso (2018) argues that attitudes are constructions created by society to label disability. As such, people may see disability as incompetent, inactive or sick and have a deficiency not fitting with the expected standards of society.

According to the dictionary, the meaning of the word "dumb" is to be temporarily unable or unwilling to speak at that moment as the mind is dazed, leaving the individual tongue-tied and unable to respond; it has nothing to do with intelligence. The use of the word today is associated with stupidity and a lack of intelligence; it is used in a derogatory manner. Stone (2018) noted that "the majority of working-age South Africans, particularly the Black youth is without work or jobs, and this has been declared a national crisis that will take years to fix, if ever - it can break the back of unemployment in South Africa". Since 1994, many conditions have slightly improved for the Black nation in South Africa with some significant changes, but for PWD, unemployment has remained. Since the apartheid era, PWD have borne the brunt of being discriminated against and being unemployed (Owusu & Mji, 2013).

The recent outbreak of the devastating coronavirus (COVID-19), often fatal, brought additional concerns to the PWD for their bleak future. However, the lockdown crisis did not affect only PWD, but the entire population and businesses as it increased unemployment for the whole nation. Nolutshungu (2011:157) noted:

Tackling the unemployment problem may seem a daunting and insurmountable task. It is going to require statesmanship and fortitude of character as opposed to the opportunism and myopia being practiced by many of our contemporary politicians. But the task is not prohibitively difficult. Before the unemployment problem gets worse, some audacious policy measures need to be implemented, for, at the end of the day, it is only the stroke of the statutory pen that is required (Nolutshungu, 2011:157)

5.3 Access to Labour Market and Employers' Corrupt Tendencies Toward Job Seekers

This section discusses access to the labour market and employers' corrupt tendencies toward job seekers. The labour market's dysfunction exposed corruption orchestrated by employers against PWD in the human resources (HR) department when they were looking for jobs. Employers and other officials abused their power over PWD by making financial demands when asking for employment. The literature reveals that the absorption of PWD in South Africa into the labour market is very low, resulting in a high unemployment rate of PWD in the country. Statistics show very little intake in the private sector (SA Research Brief, 2013-2017). Evidence shows the main problem the labour force faces in South Africa is an excess of unskilled labour. Besides the divisions and inequalities that badly affected physically disabled people, they were not accepted in any workplace despite their qualifications.

The government, which aimed at redistributing wealth more equitably in South Africa, did so by pushing for an upskilled workforce. In 2012, the number of untrained workers increased to 28.9% of the workforce with no improvement in sight as it was escalating yearly. Statistics South Africa revealed the unemployed people according to their race as being 39.2 for Indigenous people, 26.7% for coloured people, 10.5% for Asians and only 7.4% for white people (Saunders, 2013). Unemployment is higher among women with disabilities, with 37.5% being unemployed, while 30.6% of disabled males were unemployed. Unemployment is even higher in youth than all races mentioned above at 62 % and highest between the ages of 15 and 24-year-olds in the workforce. The statistics for PWD were not reflected in this list. In this case, the best option for employers is to exploit resources by studying and increasing strategies to increase the employment of PWD.

Discrimination against PWD remains a reality in the public and private sectors. Cornell University's Policy 6.4 is an excellent example of prohibiting the harassment of academics and candidates for employment based on their veteran or disability status. The Cornell University HR professionals and management continuously pre-empted cases of harassment or discrimination (Cornell University, 2015).

Unemployment is the lowest between the ages 45 and 54 (18.4%) and 55 and 65 (11.5%). Unemployment is the highest among people who do not possess a matric certificate and is lower among those with a diploma or a degree (Saunders, 2013). It is imperative to include PWD, who, according to Yeo and More (2011), have the highest unemployment rate in the whole South African population in the list of statistics.

The labour market inefficiencies are caused by various interconnected obstacles, such as the inaccessibility of public transportation to places of employment and inaccessible buildings owing to the lack of compliance with the National Building Regulations. It may be that personnel were not scrutinised for corruption due to labour market inadequacies. Respondents said that once SASSA and the Labour Department listed employment for PWD, they would go to SASSA or the Labour Department to get application forms and be helped in filling them out for the offered positions. Employers and other authorities often demanded a fee for organising a job for them, even though they could not afford to pay since they were jobless.

Corruption among individuals in positions of authority, such as managers and government officials, is said to be widespread in South Africa. According to Pauw (2017), corruption may lead to taking bribes, which entails the violation of laws and standards of behaviour or professional responsibilities, whether overt or disguised, coming from formal or other entrusted tasks (Pauw, 2017). Respondents reported corruption respondents among SASSA and Labour Department officials. Most PWD are also ineligible for disability assistance, which is unacceptable to those with disabilities. In addition, it insufficient to sustain the families of those who get it. Furthermore, many businesses continued to demand payments from job applicants while knowing that they were impoverished. The respondents' statements confirming discrimination in the dysfunctional labour market underscored their displeasure with the labour department's systems and the ill-treatment they encountered while seeking jobs. Respondents depicted these tales in the following quotes:

Because we are sick and inactive, but the disabled white person is never sick, they make you to sign forms every year without any permanent employment. Our opportunities were given to able-bodied people and to white people, and we are kept as a front. Hence, we don't participate anywhere, and authorities know about that.

Employers use our names in seeking tenders our tenders when we got them after application they use other ways in the Labour Department to get them ignoring our names appearing in the system. You will think you were given a tender because of your name appears in the list of tenders. Yhoo! No! It's a lie, you find later it's just your name used and appearing in their documents, but the tender is not yours is theirs.

When you apply for a tender, they ask you an arm and leg to pay for it. In my own experience the government says it is creating jobs for disabled people. They don't do that. They play with

us, and that is why we are not seen anywhere in the streets and whenever we go to the Labour Department officials always say they we were looking for us because they know we come to look for jobs.

When looking for a job in a certain company employers want to be paid and they say we should both agree before I get you a job. I am going to deduct R1000.00 from your salary every month this made me to lose hope in employment employers are crooked.

When you bribe money you are accepted. Even if you don't qualify you are put on a contract, signing forms every year until you are told they are frozen you can't sign anymore form.

I struggled myself to get a job and to get educated to be where I am today, right now I cannot be taken anywhere to do a job as I'm blind it's even worse when you are young and disabled opportunities are not there because their negative attitudes.

The uncouth behaviour of employers indicates that they were not yet ready to open employment opportunities for PWD and were also unprepared for workplace transformation, as jobs were similarly difficult to find. That is confirmed by the snail's pace of progress in the task of reaching the 2% employment target for PWD agreed upon by parliament in 2005. Those who are employed work under severe and unbearable conditions with a low wage (Du Plessis, 2015). Webster (2019) indicated that the most recent statistics released in 2019 by Stats SA were shocking as the unemployment rate has risen so rapidly from 27% to 29%.

5.3.1 Low self-esteem and sexual harassment

This section discusses how low self-esteem and sexual harassment introduced by employers and colleagues in the workplace affected PWD. The White Paper on the Rights of Homeless People noted that "harassment is an unwanted conduct of sexual nature that is prohibited at the workplace according to the Constitution including disability language and culture that undermines human dignity and affects equal enjoyment of a person's rights and freedom" (DSD, 2016).

Low self-esteem is caused by depression, affects individuals and makes them lose confidence about who they are and what they can do. Respondents were subjected to sexual harassment in the workplace and were vulnerable since they were also stigmatised and shouted at as they lived with a negative self-concept. It could help employers and colleagues empathise with PWD to achieve a deeper understanding of living with incapacity, including what it entails. This

understanding may also serve as a platform for interventions that promote PWD' development and enable them to experience life as a meaningful and positive process. Employers and colleagues always instil fear in PWD that causes them to make mistakes; hence, they consistently struggle with low self-esteem. Respondents were constantly feeling guilty, depressed, and stressed as they did not want to annoy or let down their employers and colleagues. They felt unappreciated and they could easily lose their dignity to appear incompetent. Respondents started feeling unwell at work although still working and without taking any medication due to unaffordability.

Employers would further downgrade PWD by using demeaning words instead of asking about their health status. This was even though they faced employment obstacles such as transport that caused them not to be on time at work while under constant surveillance. The PWD had no access to the labour department to look for jobs and other employers. Employers were corrupt and demanded bribes for employment from the respondents when looking for jobs. The following statements attested to their challenges of low self-esteem and sexual harassment, as alluded to by some respondents:

Employers were rude and always shouting at us, and we were afraid of harassment to be told every day you are slow, you are lazy you are never on time at work, you are a slow learner you are incompetent. You are never going to make it and you look different from us. These words were demeaning and lowers our self-esteem because they were not true.

Meanwhile, we are never left alone; we are monitored all the time to find out whether we are doing things right, and these are the things they make us sick. Sometimes they treated us negatively because we don't look like them, but to find out it worries me too much coz to find out mentally I'm like them. It's just that I'm unable to do some of the jobs so speedily like them, but certainly, I can finish my task; some jobs I can do but some I can't because ei-ssh! Because physically, I'm not 100% and that worries me too much.

On top of being harassed, we lack resources at work and have to borrow tools/devices as they refuse to give us. This lowers our self-esteem as no one wants us here; although it was not good at work and not peaceful, it was better than staying at home.

With its high unemployment rate, South Africa requires the reinforcement of the present employment policies suitable to the development of services composed with the proper social assistance for this population within a framework for relieving the high unemployment scourge, poverty and ill-health. Disability inclusivity and development pursue surety for the full involvement of PWD as invested activists in progression processes that required alternative

retorts with mechanisms to redress obstacles from accessing and contribution. The use of language has to be considered used to describe acknowledgement of their importance to PWD, since is an essential admiration aimed at the truthfulness and self-respect for PWD, that it is known as people's first language (Al Ju'beh, 2015:24 - 49).

5.3.2 The disability-related out-of-pocket costs and medication

This section discusses the relationship between disability and remuneration business costs towards medication. In many countries, PWD have no access to services due to attitudes that result in discrimination. PWD, when employed, fall into a trap of some additional costs in going to and from the workplace, including medication, and accompaniment for assistance with things like wheelchairs. Due to these economic reasons, PWD' medical needs could not be adequately catered for by an insufficient disability grant. Furthermore, increased expenses associated with a disability may impact financial resources and eventually lead to poverty. These barriers also reduce employment opportunities and possible income for PWD by incurring disability-related remuneration business costs (Disability & Development Report, 2018). Despite the costs, PWD lack information and access to education and its costs.

Respondents, particularly those in wheelchairs, found medication very important to them as they cannot live without it while it is expensive and unaffordable. Hence, waiting for the grant coming at month end was frustrating. They also expressed their vulnerability by living the life of disability as an endless challenge. Respondents aired their frustrations as follows:

Medication is an important commodity to us, which is expensive and sometimes becomes out of stock in hospital or clinics while we are in pain. We cry alone in our corners every day as we have nowhere to go. The life of disability is an expensive and unending challenge that makes you helpless and hopeless as you are unemployed.

Our nappies, for US, are also expensive, and you need to change them every day, and we can't afford to buy all these things every day because we are unemployed and seriously poor and waiting for a disability grant that is never enough, which comes late month and is frustrating as we have a lot to buy.

Financial safety and societal assistance for PWD require a multifaceted network of interrelated interferences. PWD should have the right to use their meagre commercial resources to cover additional costs of living with a disability (DSD, 2016).

5.3.3 Lack of information, education and costs for PWD

This section discusses the difficulties of accessing information, education and costs for children of PWD. The literature reveals that in Africa and South Africa, PWD and their families have little access to information and other basic human rights, such as procuring fundamental social, political and economic rights. Access to public information is often governed by national legislation, and many PWD in Soshanguve Township found it difficult to get information. Information is often not presented in accessible forms or housed in facilities accessible to PWD, making it more difficult for persons living with HIV/AIDS and other diseases to stay up to date (Stats SA, 2014).

Improved information and communication technology can be made accessible for PWD by combining market regulation and anti-discriminatory approaches alongside relevant perspectives on consumer and public protection (World Report, 2011). The PWD have no access to education; most of them are semi-illiterate, and hence, they missed employment opportunities. In Soshanguve Township, The PWD have been asking the government for years to build disability schools and universities specifically for them so that they can research themselves, but that request was brushed aside.

The Department of Women, Children and PWD (DWCPD, 2013), gave a starting point report revealing 500 000 primary school children, including 600 000 out-of-school children, were not schooling because of being turned away. Children from special schools were turned away from conventional schools due to discrimination. This is an infringement of prevention contrary to prejudice based on disability to others. Some school children were refused admission by other special schools because of their special needs. Special schools have also categorised themselves against each other according to their specific disabilities. There are special schools for the Blind, Deaf, Learning Needs Physical Disability, Intellectual Disability and others. It was noted that the reasons for the lack of education of PWD must be understood concerning the barriers the PWD faced, such as the lack of finances, refused entry to school, lack of school fees and negative attitudes. Respondents lamented the lack of information and access to education and costs (Hussein & Dar, 2019). The following quotes below were their actual narration.

Disabled people are suffering from poverty and lack of information here. I feel we don't get enough information right now about us in Soshanguve. For example if the president is going to talk on TV with the family, we cannot watch TV because we don't have TVs in our homes.

Employers and colleagues, knowing our problem of not having TVs, will ask us to gather at a certain place to pick us and take us all to a certain hall to listen to the president talking, but we

will stay there for hours waiting without anyone coming to us from officials until we go back home.

To just get a school, being disabled, to study, and get education, is a huge problem in this country and education to PWD was restricted to Standard 6 until recently. There are few schools for children with disabilities and not even one university for those students who want to go to university to do disability studies because the government does not invest on this area. We want a universities of our own where we won't be teased.

Evidence shows that availability of information and communication technology that was reasonable and reachable pointedly increased the presence of PWD in every part of society (DSD, 2016). The literature revealed that elderly Black and coloured people were seldom developed educationally due to the special effects of segregation laws on schooling. However, the main variance in schooling stages among PWD and non-disabled people were to be clarified not by disability per se, but rather within the advanced ordinary stage of PWD (Centre for Social Development in Africa [CSDA], 2014).

5.4 Poverty and disability

This section discusses poverty and disability among the unemployed PWD in Soshanguve Township. South Africa is known for its high poverty rate and inequality among the Black nation. Most Africans suffer in extreme poverty. PWD have limited access to social facilities, social support, and poverty alleviation, forcing some of them to sleep hungry. Unemployment and poverty are big challenges facing PWD and other vulnerable groups, because jobs are scarce. This is originated in the discriminatory and racial policies of the apartheid era. Employed PWD earned lower salaries that deprived them of decent standard of living in the heart of joblessness. Considering this unsatisfactory background, a Basic Income Grant was initiated as a quantity to reduce poverty to allow PWD and other poverty-stricken groups to live decent life (Van Rensburg & Lamarche, 2005).

Documentation reveals that marginalised people, such as PWD, went ignored during prior efforts to eliminate scarcity and imbalance. "A new global report on the partnership of poverty eradication and economic transformation through sustainable development" has self-admitted an error in the previous programme of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) (United Nations, 2013a, 2013b). Instead, the report focused on the goal of "leaving no one behind" (UN 2013a). It went on to designate PWD as vulnerable communities in need of inclusion to achieve sustainable development. Confirmation indicates that 80% of PWD reside in poor

countries, and failing to incorporate and integrate them in all development initiatives means failure to achieve the SDGs (ILO, 2002).

The question of addressing poverty in South Africa has remained one of the government's prime concerns since 1994. The significance of social grants that has been utilised to address poverty alleviation has been seen as problematic and unclear. It has been observed that in terms of the recognition of grant allocation, "the overarching policy of government to address Millennium Development Goal 1 (MDG 1) is through the provision of a 'social wage' package that was intended for reducing the cost of living of the poor" (Stats SA, 2013a:22). Statistics South Africa suggested the "triple challenge of poverty, unemployment and inequality" to be put under investigation. Regarding social grants, they could not be seen as an emergency device in alleviating poverty, as could be seen as resulting to dependence syndrome that would hinder their prosperity (Nattrass, 2005; Steel, 2006:86), while effective reduction of poverty still remains a challenge (Van Der Westhuizen & Swart, 2015).

Documentation claims poverty and disability relation is perceived as more assorted and unclear than it was thought to be (Banks & Polack, 2013; Graham *et al.*, 2014). In many countries, PWD have no access to services due to attitudes that result in discrimination (World Report, 2011). Evidence confirmed that a developing body of research had discovered a supposition that PWD and their families were more likely to be exposed to poverty and starvation. PWD who were severely disabled and needed a better level of care and support, mainly women with disabilities, were more vulnerable economically. In addition, they live in insecure households. Inaccessibility of resources in the physical environment and discrimination, could inhibit PWD chances of having access to school arrangement, by limiting their expertise, acquaintance and upcoming aptitude to work, and producing financial worth. Relatedly, the same obstacles could obstruct PWD from accessing the workforce or restrict the type of work they are capable of doing and reducing their profits. Furthermore, improved expenses associated with incapacity could influence the economic capitals, leading PWD into poverty (Disability & Development Report, 2018).

According to Seekings and Nattrass (2005), unemployment is now the leading cause of poverty and inequality, a position that is exacerbated for many people afflicted with HIV/AIDS. Because of unemployment, PWD were not exempt from poverty. Poverty is linked to malnutrition, insufficient access to public health services (e.g., immunisation), poor living conditions (e.g., a lack of safe water), and environmental exposures (e.g., unsafe work environments), all of which can lead to health conditions that result in disability (Mitra *et al.*, 2013:2). The poor who were

crippled were more likely to fall deeper into poverty, affecting their whole family (Groce *et al.*, 2011:1493-1513).

According to Hanness-Hancock and McKenzie (2017), the minority group of persons living with disabilities is distinct and is surrounded by varying barriers of experiences and expenses based on their disability, gender, and environmental circumstances. However, data on how and which PWD were impacted by poverty and how social protection measures affected them are limited. In the same vein, they must be classified based on their natural skills and re-trained based on those skills to determine which category they belong to and which areas need to be improved, as well as the type of treatment they require (as the majority of them are not seen but suffer from starvation and poverty). Otherwise, they will always be considered as a group of sick, weak, and economically inactive individuals.

Poverty and the high rate of unemployment may increase dependence on a disability grant and, at the same time, may increase the danger of disability as it may lead to the inception of a health condition associated with disability (World Report, 2011). This dilemma relates to physical and attitudinal barriers and deficiencies in education that hamper PWD from getting employed. However, some PWD have expressed their aspirations to work, but their attempts have been frustrated by obstacles they come across, and because of high general unemployment. This indicates that employment of PWD, and conceivable hindrances that enter an occupation, must be agreed upon within the existing South African context; hence social and economic policies and their special effects are interrelated (Johannesmeier, 2007).

In all these problems, society has not changed its attitude towards PWD despite publicly speaking on awareness about disability in media, social gatherings, workshops and seminars. Respondents reported that poverty was a serious issue among them due to unemployment, as they had no food to put on the table. They have to wait for the sales at the shopping centres for food prices to be lowered to buy groceries at a cheaper price. They would buy chicken feet, hearts, and gizzards for meat and eat it with pap to satisfy the whole family. Respondents said:

People live in poverty here, and the disability families have nothing to put on the table. They don't get salaries and depend for groceries on Store sales to get food on cheaper price, and for meat we live on chicken feet hearts gizzards and chicken necks and we make gravy from these, and so we are able to eat with pap.

"My children never got a grant because my wife is working, and me I'm getting this cheap disability grant because I'm blind."

We are ever poor because there's no work and there's no reasonable accommodation. To qualify individuals with disabilities so we can perform the functions of the job for which we have applied for or which we have been hired for; to perform if you have a family, this means you have to live on "Mashonisa" (money for Loan for immediate cash or a debit collector). Many families survive through Mashonisa, and the debt collector takes half of my grant every month.

We are astonished by the negligence of employers and the government as the constituencies in the township they are watching us living in such conditions, unemployed homeless and poor these are the main contributing factors which were evident in limiting our social participation in the social space.

According to the research, the implications of poverty and unemployment have a significant effect on human dignity. However, one should consider that excluding PWD from activities addressing poverty and unemployment is essentially a violation of dignity. Furthermore, when PWD are victims of violence and have a sense of being shielded by the law, they become victims of social injustice because the violence affects their sense of safety (Chambers, 2006:3; Kakwani, 2006:20).

5.5 Homelessness

This section examines the homelessness of indigenous people in South Africa, particularly persons with disabilities (PWD). Olufemi's research of indigenous people's homelessness Olufemi, (2002) goes deeper in describing homelessness expressing difficulty in explaining the term as it refers to a variety of definitions that reflect diverse purposes, values, ideologies and political agendas. In South African, it refers to "those who lack real homes, live in bad housing, sleep on pavements; lack basic needs with no access to safe water, sanitation, and lack personal needs, 'self-determination, creativity, dignity, expression and voice" (Olufemi, 2000:224). The South African Housing Policy 1994–2000 states that, "Everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing." Despite this healthy-looking recommendation, numerous problems continue concerning service delivery and housing policy (Wilkinson, 1998).

Olufemi (2002) noted that in South Africa, housing was often unavailable and had exorbitant prices, which made it inaccessible and forced people, especially PWD, to live in remote areas, while housing was an important determining factor of health. People who were experiencing homelessness were at a larger risk since they had health challenges. PWD were expected to experience homelessness disproportionately since they were continuously unemployed. Documentation shows that, in South Africa, squatting and homelessness started before and

during the apartheid era and still exist. The 1885 Gold Law prohibited indigenous people from possessing housing and land (Olufemi, 1998) if the located land was claimed for mining. This caused accommodation to be unavailable for blacks in the suburbs.

This created a long-lasting history that was both constructed by apartheid and a manifestation in the post-apartheid period (Olufemi, 1998). The literature confirms that, before and after the apartheid era, South Africa has been struggling to address the apartheid-era inequities for blacks in wealth, housing, education, and health care (The World Factbook, 2020). SASSA only funds residential care facilities and homes with memberships that offer specialised care to some PWD. If one does not belong to this category, one has to look for work to rent a home for a living. According to STATS SA, in 2013, 13.6% of the country's inhabitants lived in squatter camps (STATS SA, 2014b).

The primary reasons of homelessness in this nation include a lack of housing, a 28% unemployment rate, and urbanisation (Central Intelligence Agency [CIA], 2017). As of 2015, there were 200 000 homeless individuals, including PWD, living on the streets alone, and huge inequality was endemic, with around 79% of the population living below the poverty line (DW, 2019). According to the findings, weak policies were impeding their growth. "Government policies and policing, while intended to benefit the public, can pose significant difficulties for the homeless, who in some fashion live outside the boundaries of society," according to the Cape Town Central City Improvement District (CCID) (Cape Town Project Centre, 2015).

The 2009 National Housing Code of the Department of Human Settlements encourages municipalities to collaborate with communities to ensure lease security and basic service assistance. As a result, the Upgrading Informal Communities Programme is critical for informal communities to be supported to live safer and better lives, whether geotechnically or ecologically feasible. Affordable, well-located housing is critical for urban land reform and redistribution. Poor execution, underspent budgets, and a lack of political will have significantly hampered attempts in South Africa to ensure socioeconomic rights, notably in housing (Ebrahim & Masiangoako, 2019). In the interview group, there were three respondents who owned homes and lived in Soshanguve Township with their families.

Most PWD were renting back rooms while some were living in the "Mikhukhus" (informal settlements or squatter camps), and some with friends. Their challenges in living in casual settlements were the weather conditions and safety. They applied to the government for a land of their own in vain. To them, having land was seen as the greatest opportunity an

individual could have, as one would tilt the land and grow food. The respondents expressed their feelings as follows:

We don't have a land of our own, and we don't own houses. We rent rooms at the backyards of peoples' houses while most of us live in Mikhukhus (squatter camps, shacks, informal settlements), and few live with their families while others live with friend. The only option is for the government to build us houses or give us land to tilt and grow food living in the township and in Mikhukus is scary and dangerous as you are never safe because is not secured.

Accommodation is a problem in Soshanguve, We were applying for houses for years and the government refuses to give us accommodation. The government build houses for non-disabled people, some of us are living with friends and some have been rejected by our families because of our disability. We also live in Mikhukhus with our families as we don't have houses and it becomes a problem when it's windy or there are rains because they leak.

I live with my children in an Mkhukhu. I have no husband I've got nowhere to go. This is my home; when it's raining we go and look for a shelter elsewhere. I do piece jobs in these houses during the day, but now I have to come to a learnership programme to upgrade myself and it's not easy because we pay for ourselves in these programmes as we are not employed, but we support each other.

The UN Special Rapporteur on the right to adequate housing of PWD in 2017 reported the 2013 General Household Survey of an estimation 13.6% of the country's inhabitants, including PWD who live in casual houses (Stats SA, 2014).

5.6 Inadequate Policies

The EEA No. 55 of 1988 creates one of the essential legislative and policy intercessions inside South Africa's new Constitution's philosophy or moral convictions, to be influential to the needs connected to the eradication of policies due to disparities in the country. Specifically, the policy emphasizes maintaining justice, the right to equal protection, and the legislation will assist PWD, among others (Dube, 2005). The purpose of EEA No. 55 of 1998 is to achieve workplace equity by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment, eliminating unfair discrimination, and implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated people. Watkins (2016) estimates that 4.3 percent of the South African population is handicapped.

Even though numerous hurdles, such as general ignorance, fear, and preconceptions, have caused PWD to be unjustly discriminated against in society and work, South Africa should take pride in its efforts to develop legislation that protects the rights of PWD (Mdladlana, 2002). While the EEA No. 55 of 1988 aims to protect PWD from unfair employment discrimination, it also directs companies to design and execute anti-discrimination measures to make restitution for discrimination. The EEA (Republic of South Africa, 1998) demands equitable treatment of all workers, including PWD, in all phases of employment, including recruitment, promotion, training, and progress. Job candidates are protected by the EEA regardless of whether they are handicapped (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

In redressing discrimination, the Code of Good Practice aims to assist employers and employees in understanding their rights and responsibilities and to reduce disputes in ensuring that PWD work in a conducive and harmonious environment that enables them to exercise their rights (Mdladlana, 2002). Where the problem lies is with the following statement:

[The] Code of Good Practice is not an authoritative summary of law, nor does it construct supplementary rights and obligations. Failure to observe the Code does not, by itself, render a person liable in any proceedings. Nevertheless, when the courts and tribunals interpret and apply the EEA, they must consider it (Dube, 1955)

Therefore, to meet the demands of the code, workplace accommodation may include modification policies; creating facilities, equipment, or devices accessible to PWD; restructuring jobs and testing; providing training materials; changing work schedules; and/or providing opportunities to telecommute from home (Kaplan *et al.*, 2006; Scharz *et al.*, 2002, 2011).

These measures aim to increase the employability of PWD (Bell & Heitmueller, 2008). However, the EEA legislation was not implemented, meaning PWD were not protected by the legislation. The Code of Good Practice on employment of PWD became part of a larger inequality agenda where their rights were not documented by the labour market. As a result, impacted individuals were excluded and marginalised, which made PWD experience high levels of unemployment and continue in low-status jobs with below-average remuneration (DSD, 2015). Therefore it can be argued that the EEA No. 55 of 1998 legislation has contributed to the social exclusion of PWD by firstly, failing to protect their rights, and secondly, by barriers that it created to prevent PWD from accessing equal opportunities notwithstanding the rights enshrined in the Constitution of the country. There is, as yet no disability-specific legislation.

One of the main reasons legislative discriminations continues is that discrimination is not always obvious merely from reading a statute. Problems often arise when the law or statute is applied. The only objective is for this legislation to be scrutinised and make changes involving black doctors and medical sociologists in the decision-making processes. The findings were that, although respondents had so many challenges facing them, they found exclusionary barriers from the legislation the worst; it brought PWD' lives to a standstill. Respondents saw exclusion by the legislation as a huge problem that has been added to their disability and unemployment, making it a triple burden that existed and caused disintegrating that led to more depression and anxiety. Respondents said:

It is the Act that is not implemented which encourages employers to practice discrimination and attitudes against us as they know that we are not protected so as to miss opportunities and be excluded. There's no change in our lives, however, and translating these rights into reality remains a challenge.

[The] SASSA Department is not caring for us like it is supposed to do. When going to SASSA or to the Labour department, we were harassed by the securities at the gates and reminded us of our situation before we were harassed by employers. We are not taken as human beings by these people.

The Legislation and the government have totally failed us, and we have lost our dignity. The EEA legislation is not implemented, so we cannot get job opportunities, because those in the higher structures were not in the same situation as us; they don't feel the pain. They say we belong to SASSA, but who is actually leading us there when you go to SASSA, you were thrown from pillar to post us also have no access to the Labour Department.

Documentation confirms that the discrimination also results in an organised under-representation of PWD in crucial spaces of social, economic, and political life of most countries. The under-representation of minorities, such as PWD, from the worldwide labour market is rife and is unswerving. It follows a trend that is a source and an outcome of their social exclusion, or of their inclusion on unfair terms (DSD, 2015).

5.7 Forms of Economic Marginalisation

(a) Socio-economic challenges

This section describes how the economic growth of South Africa has made less progress than the average economic growth of the country as from April 2016 to March 2017. The revision

of the gross domestic product (GDP) forecast has been down to 0.5% from 0.9 % for 2016. The majority of eyewitnesses associated the slow economic growth with universal realities with the inclusion of a slowdown in trade with lower commodity prices and higher risk of external instability. Malakwane (2012) noted that the socioeconomic challenges of unemployment bring devastating social repercussions that convict a large segment of the country's population to inequality and poverty. In addition, the labour market plays its role with its rigid policies that were inclined to confine employment creation and discourage foreign direct investment (FDI) to operate. That is proven by the ongoing devastating load-shedding that affected people's lives during the COVID-19 period, where patients needed oxygen.

(b) Lack of resources and assistive devices among PWD in Soshanguve Township

The section discusses the lack of resources among PWD. According to the UN Report (2022), "Nearly one billion children and adults with disabilities lack access to assistive technology. Almost one billion children and adults with disabilities, and older people, are unable to access the assistive technology they need." The UN report calls for more investment in these life-changing products. The lack of resources creates a circle of poverty for these PWD. The unavailability of special appliances such as wheelchairs, artificial limbs, crutches, hearing aids and braille to support them means they could not afford to buy them as they were struggling financially (ILO, 2015). Assistive devices are a life changer to PWD as these give opportunities for education for children with impairments, employment and social collaboration for adults living with disabilities. They provide independence for life and dignity for older persons. WHO Director-General Dr Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus noted:

Denying these people access to these life-changing tools is not only an infringement of human rights, it's economically short-sighted. We call on all countries to fund and prioritize access to assistive technology and give everyone a chance to live up to their potential. (Ghebreyesus, 2022)

Respondents complained extensively about the difficulties they face with the unavailability of assistive devices:

We lack resources and also have no access to devices [as] the status of economy is very bad in South Africa, and it doesn't bring hope as it affects disabled people more. Some who are not disabled get the grant, and those who are disabled don't. Our future is not promising.

We have no strong wheelchairs let alone artificial limbs, crutches, hearing aids, and braille to support us. Everything is expensive, and we have no money to buy, and the government does little to assist us. If the wheelchair is damaged or broken, you are on your own.

The government doesn't do much to assist us. It's difficult to maintain wheelchairs and we don't get any resources from the government. The government gives wheelchairs after two years Sisters a brand-new wheelchair costs R6000.00-R7000.00. The cheapest wheelchair that you can buy costs R3000.00 and we don't have money to fix or buy and every device is expensive.

Sisters, a disabled person in South Africa won't be able to buy devices as they are expensive. It's even worse when we get this cheap grant, it's difficult to maintain devices as we don't get less resources from the government. In some European countries, disabled people are taken care of by their governments, given devices to assist them at home and outside on the road you will even be given a tracker device that will help you walking about it's like a GPS device, and it tells you everything and where to go.

Access to appropriate and affordable assistive devices and technologies for persons across the impairment spectrum ensures increased independence, participation, and improved health. Such devices should be available for use at home, at school, at work and during leisure activities (DSD, 2016). The ILO (2020) confirmed that most PWD miss job opportunities in the world irrespective of how much they try to look for employment, and this is due to discrimination. As such, they are unable to buy basic things such as assistive devices.

(c) Lack of Income among PWD

It has been increasingly recognised that marginalised groups such as PWD have been ignored in previous efforts to eradicate poverty and inequality. The Report on Millennium Development Goals which aims to eradicate poverty and inequality changes its focus towards a vision of "leaving no one behind" and puts PWD on a list among vulnerable populations who are in need of being included to achieve sustainable development (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). The argument was that the results were significant because of continuous structural limitations and lower levels of investor confidence in the domestic economy that led to increasing unemployment. Despite some progressive trends noted, it was observed in the last quarter of the 2016/17 financial year that the economy still requires high levels of private investment and needs collaboration between governments, organised labour and civil society to promote inclusive growth and economic transformation (The Annual Labour Market, 2016). Economic growth that is vibrant will make it possible for more people to get employment in the South African labour market (Maluleke, 2018), particularly PWD. People lack income and resources and could not move forward in their lives.

Al Jazeera News (2021) reported that the economic situation of South Africa and the pandemic were the last nail in the coffin as the economy is unsustainably narrow and shallow. It rests on a small and declining working population burned by the demand of debt and taxis. Over 2013-2018, the highest proportions of the unemployed working-age population were recorded in Gauteng, Free State. The researcher noted that these are some of many issues reported by Ajazeera caused serious damage to PWD 's lives in South Africa, so much as they have lost hope in job finding. Most PWD run little businesses in the streets, selling sweets, vegetables, fruit, materials cloths, wood, and wire.

As the negative economic consequences of disability affect individuals and their families, several factors interact in the intergenerational transmission of poverty. Respondents expressed their suffering from socio-economic constraints that have more to do with the weak economy in the country. Respondents saw themselves getting poorer due to the stagnant economy's weakness, which reflects their disappointments, including the ill-treatment they endured at the workplace. They saw a gloomy future with a depressing economic situation. Respondents reported that since they were unemployed, they had no income from any source except selling in the streets for survival. The respondents said:

We don't have an income; we sell in the streets for our survival; we sell wood, sweets chips fruits or vegetables wire and repair shoes to get little income, but our challenge is we don't get customers all the due to weather conditions as we also don't go out and sell when it's raining or too cold or windy and sometimes when it's too hot coz our stock gets rotten. There's little or no income and we don't get buyers.

There's no way I can participate in the economy of this country unless I'm employed or self-employed at the same time. Opportunities are bypassing us despite our qualifications and long experience in the workplace. It's even worse when you are in a wheelchair they don't even look at you.

Financial safety and shared security for PWD required a compound network of unified intercessions. PWD should have a right of admission to suitable monetary incomes to enable them to manage extra expenses and maintenance related with disability (DSD, 2016). PWD have long been omitted from labour force because of discrimination with an assumption that they were incapable to work. However, PWD did not think disability grant could be a consistent

foundation of salary as this would suggest that most of them depend on societal aid as a basis for revenue (Alcock, 1999).

5.8. Barriers

Social exclusion

This section discusses the barriers to social exclusion of PWD from the workplace. “Social exclusion refers to the insufficient human emotional essential to be an acknowledged and recognised as a member in a group, or a situation in which some members of a society do not feel part of that society, because they are poor or do not have a job” (McMillan Dictionary).

According to Sen (2000), the exclusion makes PWD feel depressed when they are among others in society, as they are omitted from contributing to academic, financial, societal and party-political actions, while they are exposed to a consistent planned exclusion from the same enlargement opportunities. Alternatively, social exclusion is defined as the breaking down of a societal connection among persons and culture that is based on tradition and honour, instead of being economically motivated (Silver, 1994). Research confirmed that, PWD were often deprived of positive human qualities in their lifetime while they were faced with obstacles in attempting to access services of any kind.

Some typical barriers include escalators, bathrooms, stairs, elevators, gravel roads, and a road with potholes. Buildings without escalators limit their movements and inhibit their common daily activities or participation in everyday life matters. Sedeto and Dar recommend an awareness campaign regarding the obstacles towards family, community and society. Research has confirmed that social exclusion continues to be practiced in the workplace to date. Also, to be in the job market feeds one’s self-esteem and confidence as employment enables an individual to accomplish several elementary requirements such as providing a collective purpose, social contact, status, and activity. A person with a disability is often socially alienated, isolated, and discriminated against; excluding them from these privileges while working is recognised as a way of reducing stress and isolation (Vernies & Vala, 2018).

Employment enables an individual to accomplish several elementary requirements, including collaboration, acquaintanceship, status, and action, as being in the job market builds one’s self-esteem and confidence. Also, to be in the job market feeds one’s self-esteem and confidence since employment enables an individual to accomplish several elementary requirements. Social exclusion distressed PWD because it stopped them from contributing fully to the economic, social, and political spheres. Social alienation is habitually revealed as the

core aspect contributing to malicious cycles between disability and poverty since it is perceived to complicate disability into poverty (Sedeto & Dar, 2019). An individual who has a disability is usually alienated, secluded and discriminated against from these privileges, while work is recognised as a way of reducing stress and isolation (Vernies & Vala, 2018).

Social ostracism is often pointed out as the core aspect contributing to malicious cycles amid disability, poor physical health and paucity, while exclusion of any kind at the workplace complicates disability with poverty. “Regardless of the all-inclusive policy scenery and the considerable work of the disability rights movement in South Africa, PWD were still experiencing a variety of challenges that were diverse and compounded by unemployment, discrimination, exclusion and poverty” (CSDA, 2010). Furthermore, several physical and attitudinal barriers excluded PWD from recruitment processes such as finishing tasks, sustaining jobs, getting promotions or permanent jobs. They are subjected to unequal salaries and ill-treatment, as employers are reluctant to recognise them because of the costs that are involved in training and in altering the work environment.

The unemployment narrative and social system forced these people to live on the periphery of poverty and reinforced the link between poverty and powerlessness. The situation described above is factual in developing countries and rapidly becoming more common in the developed world (USAID, 2009). Moreover, documentation confirms that employers had no confidence in PWD as they believed they could not carry out any task to its completion, as such, they were reluctant to employ them. This affects many companies as evidence shows that these companies are unwilling to employ PWD since they want to avoid personnel training and refuse to register them in their records for various policy reasons in the workplace. Employers continue being scornful and reluctant to appoint PWD (Pinilla-Roncancio, 2015). Respondents affirm that many companies refused totally to employ them for various reasons known to them including avoiding training personnel.

This situation was as a result of the dereliction of responsibilities for the broader good of society that resulted in the exclusion of PWD’ from society. In acknowledging this seclusion. The government developed an office for disabilities at the president’s office where it was synchronised for significant rights of PWD (Maart *et al.*, 2007). This office was to monitor and manage accessibility to significant rights of PWD. coordinate. A recommendation of creating new policies that can be a solution to this problem was suggested. These policies were to abolish the embedded medical and welfare framework that strongly emphasised the medical needs of PWD, instead of social inclusion in mainstream society. The new policies were also to remove the negligence of exclusion of social needs of PWD.

This policy change could be achieved by employing PWD of mixed race, particularly Blacks, as some of the officials in the higher structures are part of the decision-making processes on behalf of PWD. In addition to the non-fundamental rights they were deprived of, they struggled with physical barriers due to inaccessibility to environments. Evidence shows that PWD often faced arrogance in government circles, alleged by officials, policymakers, community members and even family members (Burns *et al.*, 2005; Burns *et al.*, 2014: 39-4; Groce *et al.*, 2011:1499; Groce & Kett, 2014: 10-11). The respondents revealed that they experienced serious challenges due to unemployment and exclusion, which are concealed in some instances.

Sisters! I tell you, most of the companies don't want to employ us because they fear they have to re- train us if they accept us at all, so we struggle in life to get employed, This thing doesn't happen to companies only; it also happens in the government, and this thing makes me to lose yourself.

"This behaviour demoralises us and making you feel as [if] you no human being, you don't exist."

When we are employed, we are employment in low-status jobs where we will earn lower salary than others and [are] not allowed to complain. We work in dark and sometimes damp corners, and we are limited by many barriers that jammed our capacity to achieve employment, and we cannot enjoy a full and active association in the labour market so as to be equal with others, and we are always taken as low - low people.

I have been working in the government on contract for four years and filling forms of being on contract every year with all my qualifications without being put in a permanent position. Whites are all on permanent positions. You gain a lot of experience in what you were doing in your four years. Tell me, do you mean for four years there has never been an opportunity for me to get a permanent job? I knew they want requirements and criteria for blocking us from participating in the economy, but not all whites are qualified.

Documentation shows that various industries did not include PWD in their workplace diversity and inclusivity policies, and employers remain in contempt by expressing an unwillingness to hire them. However, while many companies are seen as unwilling to employ them, South African PWD are excluded by the additional burden of discrimination (Ngwena *et al.*, 2014). Social omission is also related to social justice and how minority groups are deprived of the same opportunities as they were discriminated against in accessing basic services. This affects their well-being and quality of life (Pinilla-Roncancio, 2015).

Physical barriers

This section discusses physical barriers experienced by PWD in their daily lives. The inaccessibility of environments is seen as another barrier facing PWD. PWD have problems climbing stairs, taking lifts, and using buildings without escalators. Bathrooms were often built on higher floors and were not designed to suit PWD. Inaccessible off-ramps for wheelchairs and the unavailability of smooth footpaths with no guiding boards that give them access to information to reach places affected them. They experienced difficulties in buildings without escalators and lifts, and this limited their daily activities from participating in everyday matters. Rehabilitation and education centres were unreachable as they needed reliable transportation (University of Kansas, 2020). Sedeto and Dar recommend major socio-economic corrections that include:

Facilitation of access to information, special need education, and health, awareness creation towards family, community and society; access to infrastructure (buildings and stages) and means of transportation; provision of entrepreneurship training and initial capitals, suitable jobs that match with their disability, and medical, social and assistive instrument rehabilitations” (Sedeto & Dar, 2019: 2).

PWD have less earnings than the average non-disabled people. They also experience inaccessible work environments that can make an individual unable to reach the workplace on time if they are far. Inaccessible environments extend not only to workplaces but also to other areas, such as the inability to reach social services. The inaccessibility extends to accessing services that society may have long taken for granted, including health, education, employment, transport and information, off-ramps and elevators, and rehabilitation centres.

Many non-disabled individuals may not be aware of this issue as some are perceived to be taking these facilities for granted (University of Kansas, 2020). The respondents experienced difficulties in driving wheelchairs on the gravel roads or going with crutches in the township because of potholes, and the cost of paying an accompaniment was another big challenge. These difficulties were worsened by high levels of disability-disadvantaged individuals who faced transportation problems, as most streets were not tarred in the townships except the main roads, and taxi ranks had long queues waiting for a taxi from Soshanguve Township to the city and back.

In the townships, there’s no freedom of movement. Roads and footpaths are congested and are full of potholes. Many people walk in a narrow footpaths which are risky because of Tsotsies’

(robbers) that are grabbing bags and jewels as everybody is rushing to the taxi rank using the same footpath, and it is scary.

Most buildings have toilets in the upper floors where we have no access, but these toilets there's none which are built for us. In shopping centres there are no lifts in most buildings and no off-ramps for people using wheelchairs and crutches.

We drive wheelchairs in between people. Some they don't move from the pathway while some drive your wheelchair without asking for permission. In our township, nothing is made to suite disabled people.

Some buildings in the townships pose physical barriers to PWD as they have not been properly built, and some have no accessibility to restrooms. In squatter camps, the system of pit latrines is still used. It is recommended that regulations be monitored and evaluated for standards of the implementation and accessibility in providing information that will lead to the continuity of progression for PWD (United Nations, 2018). Evidence shows that in most developed countries, it is rare to find PWD living in houses without sufficient water, hygiene and sanitation amenities (United Nations, 2018).

Transportation

This section discusses poor public transportation in South Africa. Khosa (1995:167) noted “The South African passenger transportation system was by and large designed for daily transportation of labour to and from the workplace”. The apartheid legacy left a routine that forced indigenous people to a transportation system that would carry them from the outlying areas of every city to the city centres, frequently constructed according to the highly distorted rule of segregating the majority of the people from the minority (Mthimkhulu, 1995). Nonetheless, in this new dispensation, the country is still fantasising about an effective, reasonable, united transport system that continues to be delayed or deferred (Mthimkhulu, 2017).

Due to the lack of an adequate transportation system, it is often unaffordable to go to and from work due to high costs, especially when it involves accompaniment. As public transport is not readily available, it remains one of the major barriers PWD face because of its restrictions. The labour market has inefficiencies and barriers as transportation in South Africa is unstable and insufficient, creating problems for PWD in the taxi ranks and inside the taxis. It is argued the “existing challenges that are present emanate from years of poorly provided, yet heavily subsidised, systems and networks among spatial segregation and other roots of unequal

provision of infrastructure” (Mthimkhulu, 2017). The economic situation, including transportation, is unfavourable for black citizens in the country, particularly for those living in the townships and PWD. For them, this is showing a bleak future as they lack resources. The testimonies of respondents below attested to this as they said:

If you are a disabled person and have a family, you seldom have money to pay electricity which is expensive because money ended up in transport to pay for transport which charges you R40.00 to go to town and R40.00 and back and also pay transport for children to go to school.

“We are at the mercy of taxi drivers who are insensible and always shouting at us all the time that we are slow and delaying them.”

As I was entering in [a] taxi, making myself comfortable, the driver said I don’t take any shit and don’t care about you I want money, and you have to pay for the wheelchair as it is taking a space of another person.

“It was a problem getting in and out of the taxi with a wheelchair and it adds to the problem as I have to pay for an accompaniment and the labour of being assisted.”

“Townships have no smooth roads for driving, and the taxi system is not managed well; they are a law unto themselves.”

According to respondents, transportation was a huge problem as it was unreliable with unbearable costs increasing all the time, having to also pay for other family members besides their immediate ones to assist with accompaniment. The taxi drivers were often unapproachable and rude while waiting. After a report was sent to the Labour Department concerning their behaviour, nothing was done to improve the situation. People in wheelchairs and those with difficulty walking, for example, on crutches, were often labelled negatively and seen by people in various ways as weak, dependent, and different. There was an absence of accessible public transport to reach the workplaces and meetings on time, and there were also unreachable buildings due to the absence of regulations for safe buildings.

Respondents reported the unfriendly problem of public transportation and its costs, which were exorbitant and a great barrier to them, least to mention the negative attitudes and rudeness of the taxi drivers. The respondents said,

If you are a disabled person and have a family, you seldom have money to pay electricity which is expensive because money ended up in transport. To pay for transport which charges you R40.00 to go to town and R40.00 and back and also pay transport for children to go to school.

We are at the mercy of taxi drivers who are insensible and always shouting at us all the time that we are slow". "Taxis and busses they don't take any shit, they don't care about you. They make you feel as a cripple and pass you. Well, I don't take trains.

Living in Townships where there are no tarred or smooth roads for driving wheelchairs is a problem as there is no freedom of movement for us. Taxi system is not running very well, and the public transport is a big problem we are facing on daily basis. Reaching a taxi rank is a problem, and getting to the actual taxi with a wheelchair is another problem. We also pay for accompaniment and labour of being assisted with the wheelchair."

Taxies do not stop for us on the road, sometimes they will just pass you even at the taxi rank. They say we are making them to lose money by walking slow. If you happen to enter, there is no decency, as you are trying to fix the chair and making yourself comfortable, the taxi is already moving. If you are driving a wheelchair, they say you must pay for two as the wheelchair is taking or blocking someone else's space."

The inaccessibility of environments was seen as another barrier facing PWD (University of Kansas, 2020).

Barriers to the Labour Market

The main problem in the labour force was a surplus of untrained workers. The goal was to reallocate resources in a more justifiable way to lower increasing pressure on skilled labour (28.9% since 2012) while the present statistics of a 62% active worker population (Saunders, 2013). This would balance the scale for the acknowledgement of all people who were either working or available to work and were actively looking for jobs. However, not everybody contributed to the workforce. The labour market in South Africa has the most exclusionary barriers to employment on PWD, which leads to discrimination and causes stress to those affected (ILO, 2018). However, while their salary was not enough, they were also faced with practices of economic marginalisation from all angles.

PWD experienced forms of economic marginalisation, such as socio-economic challenges. Respondents complained of employment on contract for years, filling application forms every end of the year, which gave them hope that they would still come to work the following year and eventually get promoted. They were not employed in permanent positions although white

disabled and black non-disabled people were, right from the beginning. When the contract term was finished, they would be informed that the forms were frozen and there wouldn't be any more for signing. Respondents knew that when they were told about the contract frozen forms, the job openings were all filled, and this reflected the labour market's dysfunctional management. The respondents said:

[The] labour market is very dysfunctional; you know when they employ us they never respected us because we are sick, but the disabled white person is never sick; they make you to sign forms every year without knowing whether you are employed or not because there's no paper saying so our opportunities were given to white disable[d] and [able-] bodied indigenous people and we were kept as a front, and our authorities knows about this."

"Employers when you apply for a tender, they ask you an arm and a leg knowing that you can't afford to pay that money"

"In my own experience, they say they are creating jobs for disabled people they don't because they play with us; that is why we are not seen anywhere in the streets; whenever we go to the Labour Department, officials always say they were looking for us and couldn't find us because they know we come to look for jobs."

The incapacitating barricades also donate to the difficulties practised by PWD in all cultures, crippling them and plunging them into reduced economic involvement that leads to scarcity and an amplified reliance that constrained contribution (African Union Commission [AUCDSA], 2013).

Attitudinal Barriers

Work is a foundation that enhances self-esteem, confidence, and satisfaction in most people. It is also a central contributor to adult adjustment and participation in the labour force; however, at the same time, work can be a source of frustration. Respondents in the workplace were often labelled with the assumption that their quality of life is poor, unhealthy, or dull-witted because of their disability and this was humiliating as they were not what they were assumed to be. Findings were that, respondents were faced with many forms of economic challenges affecting lives including leaving in absolute poverty. Female respondents also mentioned that they were overwhelmed by the attitudes of employers at the workplace in questioning their very existence when it comes to management of duties. The respondents said:

An employer would come in the morning and don't say 'Good Morning' to you; instead will question you of your readiness and fitness to work and will ask you if [you] are ready for work today as if I was sick yesterday and doesn't blame the weather is cold today.

When I lift something or a box the employer asks if I have enough strength to lift that box and yesterday he didn't ask that question when I lifted a box and tells me I must be careful its heavy or he can send someone to assist me. They talk to you like you as if you are dumb you can't do anything for yourself.

"Those instructions need you to read them thoroughly and understand them, or I can send someone to [be an] assistance for you."

Munyi (2012) noted that from a cultural point of view, various definite conditions were influential to the living situations of PWD, including people's attitudes towards them. Evidence shows that history reveals ignorance, neglect, superstition, and fear of the unknown of social factor.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the challenges faced by unemployed physically disabled people in the workplace and in society with the following sections: disability and discrimination in the workplace, unemployment, depression, societal attitudes, access to the labour market and employers' corrupt tendencies to job seekers, low self-esteem and sexual harassment, access to social grants, remuneration occupational costs and medication, lack of information, right of entry to the labour force, poverty and disability, homelessness, inadequate policies, economic marginalisation, lack of resources and income. Coming next is Chapter 6 on coping strategies of PWD.

Chapter Six

Objective 3. Coping Strategies of PWD

6.1 Introduction

Objective 3 sought to identify coping strategies used by PWD in Soshanguve Township. The findings were that they used coping strategies for their survival that were discussed in this chapter, and how they dealt with them. Cohen & Lazarus (2009) refer to coping as the process of managing some difficulties that are intrinsic and extrinsic, and which are measured as exhaustive or beyond people's resources to adjust, adapt, and meet challenges positively, that are required in dealing successfully with challenging events. Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) concur with Cohen and Lazarus (2009), explaining further in simple terms that management mechanisms can be either optimistic or adverse, and are defined as the feelings and behaviours organised to accomplish internal and external taxing conditions.

On the other hand, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping strategies psychologically as cognitive and behavioural efforts utilised by a person to diminish the effects of stress, while managing mechanisms are influential to persons on how to manage stressors in their lives Salloum and Lewis (2010). Venner (1988) noted that the term cognitive is utilised specifically for cognisant and intentional mobilisation in actions. It contradicts that "defence mechanisms" that are unintentional or intentional in adapting to reactions, in cooperation to those which were intended to decrease or endure pressure. In addition, survival approaches assist in unique resolutions and in fighting problems that meet demanding occasions. King (2008) related this notion to person's strength or power on how to cope with stressful circumstances, by spending time to resolve problems they are faced with, while pursuing ways to master or reduce stress (Carr & Pudrovskaja, 2007).

In other words, coping skills assist an individual in tolerating, minimising, and managing stressful situations in life. Dealing with stress can help an individual feel better physically and psychologically and can impact an individual's ability to perform better (Cohen & Lazarus, 2009). Carr and Pudrovskaja (2007) noted that coping strategies are behaviourally and mentally employed to deal with crises, situations and strains considered distressing. Consequently, survival approaches are well-defined as rational communicative exertions utilised by people in lessening special effects of strain (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, Tennen *et al.* (2000) believed that the vital function of coping strategy is to decrease pressure to reinstate equilibrium, as stressors aim to eliminate or work with the stressors. The current coping research also reveals an awareness that coping with a stressor is a vigorous process that

involves flexibility in policies through the coping process, subject to the existing demands of the situation.

Considering the deceitful challenges PWD encountered with policies that were not implemented to meet their demands, fitting into psychological coping strategies was perceived to be difficult for them without the involvement of necessary resources and induction to social sciences of disability and coping matters. It seemed it would even be tougher to decrease the pressure that has been endured for ages through coping strategies that are new to them, to reinstate equilibrium without an income. These programmes need money for them to be carried out. Moreover, coping strategies focus more on psychological health issues with biological risk factors and on non-disabled persons than on the general membership with social factors like PWD, who lived with depression due to poverty and unemployment right through their lives (Tennen *et al.* (2000).

It is suggested that psychological, sociological and disability researchers should work jointly on these coping strategies for disability as PWD really need them since there is limited literature on this area of practice, (coping strategies for disabilities) concerning disability at large. Introducing incapacity into the party-political and societal discourses would generate consciousness in consideration to structural, public and organised stages that could encourage optimistic approaches (Al Ju'beh, 2015:50; DESA, 2011; UNICEF, 2013:12). Positive consciousness promotes documentation in the occurrence, kind of influence that affects their incapacity. Consciousness will then incorporate acknowledgement in various practices of PWD with consideration shared archetypal that altered disability. Therefore, inclusion must be reinforced so that its messages are understood.

Weiten (2008) recognised four kinds of managing stratagems, namely: reasonable actions, adaptive coping mechanism, and emotion oriented coping, and active coping mechanisms. However, Lazarus with Folkman (1984), recognised two kinds of categories out of these four types of mechanisms that they perceived to be the most important in human life, which were often used. Furthermore, these two strategies fit the purpose of understanding the stressors that PWD go through and will be discussed at length. Emotion-focused strategies to be discussed were coping through religion or spirituality, coping through avoidance, and coping through acceptance or the status quo. The problem-focused coping strategies discussed were, coping with defeat, coping with optimism and hope, and coping through dispositional optimism. In principle, an emotion-focused coping strategy's main function is to decrease or manage emotions and anguish that result in pain from catastrophe. Management stratagems that were discussed under emotion coping strategy were coping through religion, coping through

avoidance and through status quo. In addition to above-mentioned survival strategies, Billings and Moos (1981) pointed out that avoidance is the same as an emotion-focused coping strategy.

The second strategy is known to be a stress reliever as it normalises negative emotional responses due to pressure from nervousness, fright, sorrow, and irritation. In principle, it focuses on an individual's practice on committed response in driving away the problem or directing it by solving it through taking immediate action to change the source of the stress (Carr & Pudrovskaya, 2007). Coping strategies mentioned above were in accordance with the survival strategies attempted by PWD for their survival. The above clarifications emerged through the conclusions disclosed by PWD associated with the traumatic events they bore at Soshanguve Township. Handling stress well and using coping strategies appropriately could bring them physical and psychological relief, as these influence their ability to perform well (Tennen *et al.*, 2000). Lazarus (1998:201) stated that management of a survival situation is represented as "constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person". Therefore, surviving strategies are precise since perceptive and behavioural exertions embark on decreasing the burden, while it is noted that survival approaches are described as influential to persons who want to handle stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Salloum & Lewis, 2010).

Social exclusion prevents PWD from participating in social economy and politics (Sedeto & Dar, 2019). It has been observed in societies that unemployed men were often excluded by other men from participating in manly events and in shared title roles within the groups. However, as PWD were frequently experiencing this exclusion, they were expected to be living a life of being unemployed (Gottlieb *et al.*, (2010).

According to Sen (2000), *exclusion* concerns how people with disabilities experience being among other people, how the former are excluded from participation in pedagogical, economic, social and political activities and are subjected to systemically engineered exclusion from equal development opportunities.

6.2 Emotion-Oriented Coping

This following section discusses emotion-oriented coping and how it deals with PWD' emotions. Since emotions are "described as a valence experience that is felt with some degree of intensity that involves a person's interpretation of the immediate situation, and is accompanied by learned and unlearned physical responses"; there are various ways of utilising

coping strategies that PWD used in their journey to manage such as coping through religion, avoidance and status quo. One of the measurements of personal experience is to be expressive or sentimental. Furthermore, sentiments are part of mortal operational activities that individuals practice, escalating from a multifaceted interaction amid biological and mental conditions with conditional changes Plutchik (1955). According to Plutchik (1955), the main emotions in existence are namely: happiness, expectation, annoyance, revulsion, wretchedness, astonishment, fright and reception. They continually occur when individuals assume avoidance strategy in dealing with extensive inner-self reformation that takes place inside them.

Thus, an emotional process, if unchangeable, is not an insulated occurrence but an element of general practice that is continually influenced by other processes that are easily swayed by their practices working concurrently with them (Donnelly, 2002). Plutchik (1955) noted that, while primary emotion such as colours is inherent, they conglomerate to produce subordinate reactions. For instance, shock plus blues could result in dissatisfaction; similarly, rage plus hatred could result in contempt. Since each one of the key sensation senses could have different strengths, every single equality in power for each feeling could link to forces of alternative reaction to make the overall figure expected that can run to hundreds. PWD' emotions were positioned to resist an emotive agony because of calamity. Literature shows this type of coping may be useful when a stressor is something that an individual cannot change since it involves aspiring thoughts, estrangement, evading, and optimistic reconsideration (Donnelly, 2002).

6.2.2 Coping through religion

This section discusses a religious coping strategy for PWD. Religion refers to use of religious principles or practices to cope with stressful life situations (Pargament *et al.*, 2005). This means “the use of religious beliefs or behaviours to facilitate problem-solving to prevent or alleviate the negative emotional consequences of stressful life circumstances” (Koenig, Pargament, & Nielsen, 1998: 513). Evidence shows religious coping comprises some features of trust, belief, and holiness, agreed upon to wisdom of denotation, determination, and confidence (Peres *et al.*, 2007), and which are in association with God, deities, or universe. Spirituality, therefore, can be understood in terms of searching for more connotation, resolution and linking with personality, and the cosmos (Cadell, Regehr, & Hemsworth, 2003).

Literature confirms that despite confirmation that beliefs and mystical management has, restrains on individual's state of mind and well-being (Hourani *et al.*, 2012), while stigma continues to prevail over them. Therefore, if that is the case, it is necessary to provide

psychological support in particular around the coping instrument (Ozcan, Hoelterhoff, & Wylie, 2021). Documentation shows that a spiritual coping instrument is faithfully entwined by means of faith, while it could be theorised to separate background in its existence, devoid of religion. Hence, religiousness includes an individual's common sense of connotation, ethics and affiliation to the world ecosphere (Van Hook, 2016). It is assumed that this is exclusively a personal knowledge of Immortal or sovereignty (Farley, 2007).

Furthermore, religiousness is better presumed to be sanctified knowledge to a person, with a background contradictory with the internal spirituality knowledge, as it is an exterior development that incorporates social supporters of common traditional moralities, opinions, and religious ceremonial events. Although the respondents during interviews did not show any signs of religious or spiritual beliefs, they were church-goers and believed in God. They have a sense that if their situation was bad for now, by turning to God, it would be better as it would be answered. They believed that prayers in church calmed down their depression. Respondents' strong sentiments proved that they still believed in the miracles of God and that he could change their situation through those miracles, as they believed He heard their prayers. They also believed that prayers showed them the way to success. They obtained comfort in church with a state of relaxation, as they also received support from church community and friends.

Pew Research Centre (2015) revealed that religion could offer an opportunity for mystical knowledge while Fallot (2007) noted that religious zeal is by no means specifically essential for an individual's divine understanding. For example, documentation confirms that trust and devoutness continue to be significant through beliefs in most nations having labour forces on aid that are universally functioning. Regardless of the awareness of danger observed in practising faith and spirituality in some countries, it is not favoured by them. Writings show that the leader of the Ethics Office of the Humanitarian Organisation proclaimed that the mystical exercise remain openly omitted in the daily communication practice at the office (Personal communication, 2018). Evidence on mystical training generated varied outcomes as some studies were not showing any relationships between mystical exercise, and improved psychological healthiness results (Connor, Davidson, & Lee, 2003; Ellison *et al.*, 2014; Fitchet *et al.*, 1999; Kirkpatrick, Shillito, & Kellas, 1999; Pargament *et al.*, 2001)

Conversely, there is an increasing body of evidence that recognises the benefits of faith-based or spiritual training on mental and physical well-being (Koenig, 2001; Moreira-Almeida, Koenig, & Lucchetti, 2014; Seybold & Hill, 2001). For instance, a recent investigation shows that optimistic relationships within psychological healthiness, intellectual abilities, corporeal fitness

and regularity in supplication give an individual strength to move forward with natural life (Maltby, Lewis., & Day, 1999). The PWD' regular attendance of worshiping fellowships provided them with relaxation and communal preservation (Ellison, 1998 & 2008; Koenig *et al.*, 1999; Dein *et al.*, 2012). Hourani *et al.* (2012) conducted a study on the influence of spirituality on depression due to post-traumatic anxiety and suicidal disorders in the army workforce. The data was randomly composed of 24,000 carefully chosen active US military personnel. The results confirmed that the effective spirituality protected depression symptoms. Also, aid workers self-report concurs with the importance of utilising faith-based and spiritual practices as a coping mechanism.

Van Der Merwe (2008:65-66) noted that interpretation from the African biosphere and realism is perceived as a locked-up structure which is closed and isolated from its environment with all human beings affected and exposed to any changes in its arrangement. The situation of PWD of being excluded from society is as closed and isolated from society as they are affected by various kinds of discrimination, marginalisation and dehumanisation. Van Der Merwe goes further in his analysis by saying, within this locked-up scheme, there is a chain of command and mysticism where Divinity is at the hierarchy and shadowed by descendants, the human race, and creatures, which all contradicts the Western worldview, where realism is perceived as comprising of dual distinctive compasses: the corporeal and paranormal (Van Der Merwe, 2008:65-66, *[author's own emphasis]*). Hence, the African traditional churches, their members and religious affiliations purported that the root cause of sickness and well-being emanated from the lineages and magical causes, rather than natural causes. Nonetheless, the "core" fellow worshipper's belief was based on paranormal sources and nothing less on normal reasons than memberships of outdated spiritual associations *[author's own emphasis]*. However, "core" fellow-worshippers' belief was based much on mystical grounds than on innate reasons that were nothing less on normal reasons of memberships outdated with spiritual associations (Van Der Merwe, 2008:65-66).

Literature shows that spiritual principles are a hub of massive networks of theories, insouciances and sentiments that created a cosmology of various belief systems (Cottingham, 2003:13). Thus, spiritual-religious opinions are of grave significance in consideration with the ideologies and feelings of self-efficacy, since "different worldviews may cause diverse definitions of illness and health" (Van Der Merwe, 2008:61). According to Van Dyk and Van Dyk (2015), if the African traditional worldview was observed as a serious matter in the context of health care, it would have consequently indicated the origins of health conditions and diseases that should have not been comprehended as either one of expected or paranormal, but rather as both. Evidence shows that spiritual practices can be an effective coping mechanism when it is allied

through procedures of mortality's prime requirements of self, cosmos for self-care, public, fitting, and association (Abernethy *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, PWD, by allowing themselves to be involved in the discussions and consenting interplanetary trust and religiousness, assisted them in revealing and doing away with humiliation, in improving their self-esteem leads to productive communication.

Ni Raghallaigh (2011) explains that religious coping involves using religion with the power to cope with stressful circumstances. The PWD were also churchgoers. Cass and Moore (2006) cautioned that going to church regularly should not be confused with religious coping. The same authors contend that religious coping narrates how people practice their faith in God for guidance and support to deal with life's problems. Investigation has shown that religious opinions and practices can assist PWD in coping with demanding circumstances such as physical illnesses, stress and depression (Duberstein, 2002:456-463). Therefore, PWD, taking advantage of religious coping, were seen as managing their conditions more efficiently than those who did not. Hence, religion habitually intricates the restoration of traumatic events and arranges to restructure the church to accept the most senseless accident, the most unbearable pain, or the most unjust outcome. This indicates that if one counts on a higher power, one would feel more secure with less pressure to regulate conditions and to worry less about results. This way of assessing a traumatic life situation may alleviate nervousness and neutralise feelings of hopelessness and despair, even in the most frantic circumstances (Aflakseir & Mahdiyar, 2016).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) noted that if an individual can stop thinking about a possible threat, the physiological stress response also turns off, resulting in a relaxation response. However, Snyder *et al.* (2010) define religious belief as the main component of religiousness, which plays a key role in preventing the effects of tension on an individual's mental health. Cornell (2015) attested that as stressors in life increase, the more one is likely to align themselves with a religious coping strategy to deal with these stressors. Apparently, religious coping was perceived by the respondents as an actual good coping strategy. It came from the interviews that all respondents were all churchgoers, as they proudly say by going to church, they found peace of mind and felt they are closer to God. It is perceived that coping with religious strategy can assist people under stressful conditions to manage their distress (Ano & Vasconcelles, 2005).

Pargamen's (2013) concept of religious coping points out that religion is an imperative philosophical orientation that influences adherents, is sympathetic to the world and makes realism and suffering comprehensible and endurable. Literature has shown that religious

beliefs and practices can be of assistance to people coping with difficult situations such as physical illnesses (Koenig *et al.*, 2001) and stress and depression (Smith *et al.*, 2003). Also, in a church, there is no stigma, teasing or name-calling like in the communities where PWD believed strongly that their difficulties could be resolved through prayers. The communities were also convinced that the spirit of Divinity lived with them, and no evil would hinder their belief. The quotes below illustrate PWD' beliefs in God as a coping strategy.

“Ei-ssh! People like us will survive by the grace of God, there is no support system in this township”.

“We also created our coping strategies which kept us mental through God’s grace”.

“We are struggling a lot and sometimes we need the miracles of God to change our situation”.

“I read the Bible every day and asked God to show us the way and open doors for us because it’s tough.”

“I go to church to hear the word of the Lord so I can be strong for the day”.

“In church we also get a lot of support from many people and there is no teasing or name-calling or insults like in the community”.

“I think my friends being there for me in church most of the time we met in church. I meet lots of kind people and get lots of visitors at home on Sundays. I believe in God, and we all meet in church and become one family”.

“We go to church often to listen to the preacher with the word of God and to meet friends and come back home happy”. *“In church, we are not seen as stigmatic people and we are not given new names and no howling and teasing we are treated normally like others.”*

From the quotes above, it could be determined that religion plays a significant role in the lives of PWD in Soshanguve Township. That was proved by the presence of many churches in Soshanguve Township. Their relationship with God is provided with logic, relaxation, and an amplified sense of control (Ni Raghallaigh, 2011). The next section discusses coping through avoidance strategy.

6.2.3 Coping through avoidance

This section focuses on coping through avoidance strategy. Avoidance coping refers to a maladaptive coping mechanism (coping non-appropriately or inadequately adjusting to the environment), which is characterised by often struggling to escape discerning certain thoughts or feelings. Scott (2021) noted that the avoidance coping strategy is also known as avoidant coping, behaviours, and escape coping, and is a maladjusted form of coping that involves changing. Some examples of avoidance coping strategies include passive-aggressiveness and rotation. The PWD avoided bringing or remembering some vivid memories they might

have suffered during their time of hardships that was shown during interviews, and as an alternative, would decide to think positively about their life (Ni Raghallaigh & Gilligan, 2010). Some would even suppress the question of whether they have an aid helping them in the house since they have small children.

The literature reveals that suppressing emotions and distracting them from thoughts is something common in the literature regarding people in general (Beiser & Wickrama, 2004; Goodman, 2004; Kohli, 2006b). Haskell, Britton, and Servatius (2020) clarified the difference between avoidance and escape behaviour, arguing that they do not have the same meaning. They noted that in the framework of human research on coping behaviour, valuations of “avoidance” or avoidant coping refer to all behaviour or cognitive coping strategies in which a person evades or escapes from an unsympathetic stimulus. However, this definition is tricky in that it combines avoidance behaviours and escape behaviours into a single category, whereas these two are distinguishable in interpretation. In psychology, avoidance coping is a coping mechanism and a practice of experimental avoidance.

Wakiza *et al.* (2011) believed that the avoidance coping strategy is identified by a person's efforts, conscious or unconscious, to evade dealing with a stressor in order to protect oneself from the troubles that the stressor presents. Avoidance coping can lead to substance abuse, social withdrawal, and other forms of escapism. High levels of avoidance behaviour may lead to a diagnosis of avoidant personality disorder, though not everyone who displays such behaviour meets the definition of having this disorder (Weinbrecht *et al.*, 2016). Avoidance coping is also a symptom of post-traumatic stress disorder (Howitz, 2018) and is related to symptoms of depression and anxiety (Haskell *et al.*, 2020). Additionally, avoidance coping is part of the approach-avoidance conflict theory introduced by a certain psychologist (Roth, 1986). Sometimes, individuals would opt to use action-oriented coping responses through distraction or avoidance and sometimes by accepting their position through suppressing their bad memories. PWD chose an emotional coping strategy to deal with their pain. They adopted an avoidance strategy to internally restructure their situation to change their own emotional reactions to the consistent situation. They felt nothing more could be done to transform their situation after using all their resources to manage pain, which was in vain, since it was distressing and life-threatening (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984).

For instance, shock plus blues could result in dissatisfaction, same as rage plus hatred could result in contempt. Since each one of key sensation senses could have different strengths, every single equality in power for each feeling could link to forces of alternative reaction to make the overall figure expected that can run to hundreds. Scott (2021) noted that to cope with

an avoidance strategy is to try and avoid stressors instead of dealing with them. Avoiding stress might look like the best option to become less stressed. Most of the time, the best way to efficiently decrease the stress it causes is to confront problems or stressors. Hence the slogan "We are for stress management" rather than "stress avoidance", because it is impossible to escape from thoughts or feelings, but it can be managed with effective coping techniques. Avoidance coping is unhealthy. Avoidance coping is unhealthy because it often aggravates stress without helping individuals to contract with the things that are stressing them. Procrastination, passive-aggressiveness, and rumination are all examples of avoidance coping mechanisms. A good example is that of individuals who feel stressed when they think about what they must do something and end up avoiding doing it, and finally try to avoid thinking about it (Scott, 2021).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) noted that if a person casts off thoughts about a prospective threat, the physiological stress reaction also turns off, resulting in a relaxation response. When people believe there is nothing, they can do to change the situation, it does little good to think about it (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This happened to PWD when they realised they couldn't change their situation in being excluded by society. Instead, the anguish created by thinking about it, resulted in physical and emotional harm (Davis & Carter, 2008), as they developed chronic illnesses. Under these circumstances, it may be helpful to turn one's mind to an enjoyable, engaging leisure activity (Lyubomirsky, 2008). The following quotes confirmed respondents' use of avoidance strategies in escaping from stressors.

"I just take my family to church to relieve stress and visit friends after church".

"I have no family I play drafts after church or watch soccer with friends when feeling stressed out".

"I play snakes and ladders with my children to stimulate my brain and forget it all if they are not there, I sleep the whole day."

"Since I learned writing, I write my thoughts out as I found something peaceful in writing". "I created a small garden and water it every day when feeling stressed and sometimes cleaning the yard and weed out weeds in the lawn."

"After church I help my children do their homework and sometimes, I read the South African Constitution over and over again to try to understand issues of disabilities and taking stress away."

I repair shoes for people and my wife sew clothes for the community to get a little income and we spend our time on this little business with our children and extended family which visit every Sunday and that is stress relieving.

From this perspective, not only did PWD show their strength in identifying available opportunities around the township, but they also wanted to display their capacity to take measures in developing their living situation through exploiting unskilled jobs, to destroy or escape from bad thinking of the stressors such as unemployment, poverty and hunger and other exasperating stressors. Their ability to recoil back and to cope despite the challenges of unemployment, poverty and hunger, including homelessness, agrees with the idea that PWD were not inactive victims of the circumstances instead were social actors within their available opportunities, and they proceeded in stimulating themselves within their setting.

6.2.4 Acceptance of the status quo

This section discusses the acceptance of the status quo by PWD of their situation. The status quo is defined as the current or existing situation. Emotion-focused coping focuses on the regulation of negative emotional responses to stress, such as anxiety, fear, sadness, and anger. This type of coping may be useful when a stressor is something that you cannot change. Various people mainly thought of solution-focused coping strategies as the finest way to manage stress. Removing all the things that appear to cause stress indicates that people do not need to learn how to change their responses to any stressors, as there will be nothing left in their lives (Scott, 2021). To maintain the status quo is to keep things the way they are, but the world does not work that way. Groups of people and competitors change strategies and come up with new campaigns, customers adjust buyers, governments amend policies, strikes put production to a halt, and natural disasters cause commotion now and then. As a result, the status quo is not enough, and organisations need to learn to adapt to change.

Even though PWD were eligible for protection under UNCRP (2012) and EEA No. 55 of 1998, confirmation acclaims that PWD remained marginalised and continue to be excluded amidst national legislations and international treaties that are meant to protect them (Watermeyer, 2013). Evidence shows that many countries suffer from poor infrastructure and sanitation, exposing the population to disability. Also, the sub-standards of health and safety found at the workplace and at home attached to political, ethnic, and domestic violence continue to contribute to escalating the risks of becoming physically disabled. The consequence of physical disability on peoples' lives would probably deteriorate more than in the developed economies because of their reliance on physical labour for income generation - for instance, in the case of farming. Advanced stages of national income and technological competence may also allow societies to create the essential investments to empower PWD to be effectively employed.

Lastly, because official social insurance was frequently absent in developing countries, the outcome of disability depending on welfare was anticipated to be advanced as they would be reliant on social networks, which had limited capability to pool threats (Fafchamps & Lund, 2003). On the other hand, other factors tended to worsen the proportion of PWD in deprived societies, firstly by lowering their life expectancy. In developing countries, the prevalence of disability is escalating with age, showing signs of hearing loss, diminished eyesight and paralysis due to stroke. This signifies that certain things were equivalent to populations with a greater percentage of the aged with a larger fraction of disabled persons. In other words, several PWD who lived in rural areas did not have ample time to live long enough to become disabled. Secondly, disability might have been due to terrible situations of penalties in terms of loss of income and absence of maintenance. This leads to their short lifespan as this would not have happened had they lived in the developed economies.

That being the case, the percentage of PWD in the population would have declined, although the threat of disability would be high. This means that disability is a key welfare apprehension of socio-economic studies on the effect of disability in developed communities, they are few in number (Fafchamps & Kebedetrast, 2008). A study conducted by Fafchamps and Kebedetrast (2008) on subjective well-being, disability, and adaptation, a case study from rural Ethiopia, found that disability appreciably negatively impacted welfare and, as such, it was associated with significantly lower material welfare. Disability was associated with less individual happiness and emotional health, irrespective of the time of ancient history since the beginning of the disability scenario. In the studied population, this lower material welfare was the main channel through which disability reduced personal well-being.

Fafchamps and Kebedetrast (2008) argue that these findings were in contrast with those of the psychology literature, which discovered that, in developed economies, the negativity of comfort, health and happiness on subjective welfare becomes reduced or weakened over time. But they resonated with the local framework in an economy where there is less social protection contrary to disability and where production rested on physical labour, thus reducing the household's substantial welfare. This also explained why the adverse effect of disability on well-being was shared by all household members, whether they were themselves disabled or not. The respondents' voice was not heard in the parliament since DPISA, which was supposed to be their mouthpiece, kept silent since 2005. No report was given of what is was happening about their situation. They have no hope that their situation would bring any new changes. The PWD decided to accept their status quo as it was with deep dejection. The following extracts illustrate the acceptance of their situation.

It was not easy to accept this situation to give up without fighting, but we did, not because we had no option none wants to hear from us. Up there is nothing we can do to save ourselves after losing everything; even DPSA which talks for us in parliament last spoke to us in 2005, its just mum these days.

Page 2012

Unemployment is killing our families and us because we are sick and we don't have money to buy medicines. We have hope the president will mention us on January 8 speech for the nation, but nothing came out. We have to accept this situation because we are too stressed and don't want to damage our health; some of us have major illnesses."

It is clear this is our fate unless otherwise the Almighty comes down and changes things in this world for disabled people but we must live in hope guys there's nothing we can do we have been defeated by the system.

It is argued that the devastating conditions that most PWD were living under made it impossible for them to adapt and cope with new conditions, particularly since they have no source of income or any viable support that would assist them to live healthy lives. The PWD accepted their condition as normal as they saw nothing could be done to improve it, but they were living with the hope that God would show them the way if they honestly asked him. By highlighting their coping strategies, the study wants to illustrate an understanding and confidence in the livelihood of their daily activities to be ready for the township struggle for survival. The second coping strategy utilised by PWD, which is problem-focused coping comes next.

6.3 Problem Solving Technique

The stratagem uses action rather than conversation in dealing with the underlying cause. This method aims at fatal situations and eliminates the cause of the problem (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Coping strategies discussed in this section are coping through defeat, coping through optimism and hope and coping through dispositional optimism. A problem-focused coping strategy operates on various mechanisms that were used like those used by PWD to cope with their situation, as they believe will drive away all the problems (Carr & Pudrovska. 2007). The strategy identifies problems that create stress and position them into action for probable solutions that could be managed efficiently (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). Evidence shows that these mechanisms are presumed to be applicable when the situation is perceived to be intolerable and can easily dealt with or controlled Individuals who opt for this strategy focus on researching the problem and evolving renewed ways to resolve it (Dombeck, 2006). It was noted that emotion oriented and problem approach coping approaches are exploited in responding to demanding occasions Folkman and Lazarus (1980), which are linked with

optimistic outcomes in challenging specified conditions (Kosic, 2004). The next section discusses coping with defeat.

6.3.1 Coping with defeat

Evidence shows that unemployment is a markedly grave stressor that causes embarrassment and affects the mental health of individuals. The absence of being disposed of potential abilities and deficiencies to PWD suggests that the depressing disorders are a concern other than the cause of unemployment, as social skills are not responsible for preventing depressive reactions during unemployment. PWD have been living with depression, anxiety, and stress all their lives, and these stressors affected their health as they did not know how long they would stay out of work. Much of this situation could not be avoided as they felt defeated by staying unemployed and missing job opportunities. They accepted the status quo as they could not do otherwise. Goldberg (2020) stated that, "Individuals who accept the situation as it is rather than judge their mental experiences may attain better psychological health in part because acceptance helps them experience fewer negative emotions in response to stressors." The United States Bureau of Labour Statistics (USBLS) (2012) describes long-term unemployment after it takes a length of 26 weeks or more to assess it. When PWD lost their jobs, they started looking for new jobs immediately to avoid staying home for too long.

They were also escaping from feelings of emotional stress and depression by avoiding the effects of long-term emotional unemployment. Job loss was taking its toll on them, and they had no tools to use or break the cycle and avoid unemployment and depression. Although some respondents chose to accept the situation as it was, they still felt the pain of giving up. The respondents expressed how unemployment and poverty impinged on them and their families' lives, with no financial support coming from anywhere except for the DG, while some of them get financial support from their families. In a study by Graham *et al.* (2014) on financial support from PWD, their results concur that, indeed, most PWD got financial support from their families. The feelings of pain, dejection, anger and helplessness were felt which were vocal from the respondents, as the government was giving limited assistance (Lyubomirsky, 2008).

All the respondents stated their feelings about how difficult it was for them to cope and support their families since there were limited services from the state for unemployed PWD, which resulted in their social isolation, dependency and poverty. Respondents could acknowledge the changes in the new dispensation as they were not enough to rescue them from unemployment and poverty while they have hope in this new dispensation. Respondents expressed their feelings of resentment towards the government as they felt they had exhausted all their resources in trying to maintain their small businesses to fruitfulness before they

collapsed. They complained that there seemed to be nothing operational in the township to keep them living, and their future looked bleak. They feared that nothing else would ever rescue them from their misery until the government acknowledged their presence. Respondents verbalised their feelings on how they tried to improve their lives with no financial support from the government.

“We have tried our level best to win the situation, but we were defeated. It does not mean we didn’t try to save ourselves, but there was no help from anywhere. We have nowhere to turn to. We are on our own.

We had hope we can be assisted somehow by government or any organisation when our small businesses collapsed but.....esh-sh- now it’s like we are forced by the conditions to look at other way of surviving.

We feel defeated depressed and angry and also disappointed by the whole situation of being overlooked by the government. We have hope that this new government will treat us better but there seems nothing changing it’s the same old same story that nothing can be done to boost our lives.

When our businesses collapsed we had hope that we will be given a backing of some sort by the government but no ways the government kept quiet till today it is clear no one cares or want to hear from us. We are [on] our own.

Problem-oriented machinery is linked with optimistic adjustments and positive outcomes in challenging conditions, as specified by Kotic (2004).

Goldberg (2020) attested that adversities have always been there in life, and everybody feels defeated at some stage. The crux of the matter is how to handle disappointments and deal with discouragement or pain. Suppressing emotions through anger, sadness, frustration, or grief can actually put people at a higher risk of premature death. Through the whys in people’s lives and goals, they establish a sense of meaning. Literature shows that cash transfers and stokvels generally improved people’s livelihoods and living conditions, including those with disabilities (Hanass-Hancock & McKenzie, 2017). Research proved that social protection programmes were needed as effective observation instruments to identify challenges and implement improvements. Documents confirmed that research did not observe examples of monitoring of social protection concerning PWD (Kidd *et al.*, 2019). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) believed that when an individual says there is nothing that he can do to change the

situation, they become demoralised to think about it. As a substitute, the suffering created by thinking about it can be a consequence of physical and emotional destruction (Davis & Carter, 2008). The next section discussed coping through optimism and hope.

6.3.2 Coping through optimism and hope

Snyder's conceptualisation of hope

Optimism is explained by Scheier and Carver (1985:219) as “generalised outcome expectancies”. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, optimism is “hopefulness and confidence about the future or the successful outcome of something; a tendency to take a favourable or hopeful view”. Hope is the “expectation of something desired; desire combined with expectation”. Coping through optimism is described as a strategy that entails that nothing can be lost by accepting a positive outlook (Ní Raghallaigh & Gilligan, 2010). The description of hopefulness symbolises an inevitable achievement more than anything else in the biosphere as it is the greatest amongst them all (Reivich & Gillham, 2003).

To be precise, optimism, as it indicates a positive direction towards the future, proposes a justly unchanging character, which is the principle of hope when considering everything, concerning the interior management instrument (Carver *et al.*, 2010; Scheier & Carver, 1985, 1988). This well-established definition denotes a kind of hopefulness and exciting, optimistic desires, which is the hope of general positive outcomes in the near future. In principle, hope can be defined as a positive motivational state, which is different from optimism but related in the sense that hope encompasses clear thinking about methods to achieve one's goals through a logic of agency. Wrosch and Scheier (2003) noted that this overall expectation brings attention not on the dominant areas of life only as it extends crossways on numerous diverse dominions of lifespan.

Snyder, Sympson, Scott, and Cheavans (2001) noted that optimism and hope do not share the same meaning. Writings affirm that optimism and hope are diverse as having the same meaning as hope, and yet they differ. They also have similarities and are related as they were created within an expectancy-value framework of motivation (Carver & Scheier, 2002; Snyder, Michael, & Cheavens, 2002). These concepts are sturdily designed to meet the needs of expectations concerning the future (Snyder *et al.*, 2002). Hope also reviews alternate pathways and personal agency required to achieve goals. Hope, while it emphasises confidence, is uncertain about attaining and anticipating a good future that is genuine and personally meaningful (Herth, 1991, 2013), while optimism emphasises more on agency-like expectations and confidence that an individual has towards a goal. Activity arrange quantities that are

carefully chosen with capability to move along pathway(s) and when the goal line is obstructed, outcomes are affected (Ruehlman & Wolchik, 1988).

Evidence shows that hope envisages significant conclusions extending from physical and psychological health that are presented in the academic world and sports (Snyder *et al.*, 2001; 2002). Nonetheless, those individuals with high hopes cognitively produce several routes to attain goals. Hope evaluates alternative passageways and individual activity essential to attain goals. Activity transacts measurements selected for transport alongside the passageway(s). Activity also arranges quantities that are carefully chosen with capability to move along pathway(s). The encouraging element delivers power to follow goals beside the imaginary passageway(s). Snyder's classical model, is motivated toward goals stimulates affective responses, and when goals are obstructed, negative affect results (Ruehlman & Wolchik, 1988).

Literature shows that those high in hope are capable of perseverance and thinking of different conduits in trying to reach the goal. Hope is not solely simplifying to attain an objective once the goal is unrestrained, it assists people to manage in an improved way when negative emotions ascend. Since the approach is comparable to certain optimistic psychological concepts, is similar to positivity and self-assurance (Snyder, 2000; Snyder *et al.*, 2002). Hope in cooperation with optimism include constructive prospects. However, within hope, prospects are reserved specifically for definite objective with constant action en route for that goal, while optimism is well-defined by Carver and Scheier, (2002) as a common expectancy that decent things will ensue. Furthermore, hope is conceived as a personality or mannerism and therefore is culturally diverse. On the contrary, self-efficacy by (Bandura, 1997) is commonly recognised as definite capacities and services that characters trust with confidence in accurate conditions.

PWD tried to cope with optimism many times in Soshangve Township in search of survival skills, but the conditions of coping with living in a township and a new environment were intolerable and stressful. They affected their businesses and health. They were not used in this type of living, and there was no support base or guidance. However, Carver and Scheier (2002) did not give special attention to the concept of individual controller and action in their concept of hopefulness, asserting of reaching a goal an objective is in fact achieved not how it was accomplished. Additionally, confidence philosophers emphasise self-confidence in attaining the ultimate result instead of the machinery and procedures of accomplishing the goal line (Carver & Scheier, 2002). They suggested conditions of individual activity, which was advantageous than the over-all sureness in conclusions, as they contended for it not occur

frequently. Relatively speaking, there was suspicion that at some stage particular action was probably misinterpreted over and above self-reliance.

Hope theorists suggest that hope should be a relationship with the generation (group) of improved passages, including those pathways that are more specific to the goal that is capable of being endorsed by an individual, and which lead to successful, positive goal attainment (Snyder *et al.*, 2002). Affleck *et al.* (2002), stated the belief that the future normally holds promise, however, many researchers concluded that optimism and hope are different from each other and contrast from various personality traits (Snyder *et al.*, 1991:572). Hope can be defined as a positive motivational state, which is different from optimism in the sense that hope encompasses clear thinking about methods to achieve one's goals through a logic of agency (Snyder *et al.*, 2001). Lampropoulos (2001) recommended optimistic individual's quality of life (QOL) and reduction of the adverse signs meanwhile assistance is provided in promotion of eradication of negative symptoms.

Documents shows that exploiting optimistic emotions and intrinsic powers and qualities will not only encourage comfort to individual properties, but then again can assist as shielding issues during spells in sorrow (Cohen & Fredrickson, 2009; Lampropoulos, 2001). It was impossible for PWD to acclimatise to coping at first-hand. However, the PWD, after cooling from these stressors and seeing no hope for assistance to improve their situation, put their minds together and coped with dispositional optimism. They put their hope in the disability organisation they were creating in the township, which they thought would hopefully bring life to them once it was on its feet, as it would keep them busy. Although the PWD were despondent about the bleak future ahead of them, were still hoping on dispositional optimism that if they could do something positive, their future would be brighter. At the same time they had little hope that the country's economy would improve, and even if it could be improved they didn't see jobs being created for them. The respondents expressed their feelings of living with hope through the quotes below.

These ineffective and unimplemented laws about us need to be rewrote again and implemented as we are waiting from the government that it will fix them preparing our future to be bright, but we still hope that it will dawn to the government one day that there are people like us out there they never cared for.

We live in hope for many years because of many promises from the government which were never fulfilled. We also have our own hope that we will be remembered, but we have learnt a

good lesson that we should not put our hope to them. We should put it to this new organisation we are building for disabled people here in Soshanguve.

This organisation is our only hope since we are not sure whether we will be given assistance by the government to run it or not. We know even if the economy for the country can be better it won't be better for us as we won't get jobs.

Milona (2020) contends that although optimism is a form of “positive thinking”, it must still be expected that optimism requires active planning or imagining as persons with expectations that things might go well without actually planning on how to bring their desires to function would not be successful. The disability theorists argue that optimism is entrenched in self-regulation theory that provides multiple theories for coping, goal attainment and physical progress (Lear, 2020). Literature confirms that various readings accepted competence miracle that led numerous notions conceptualised “disposition”, “attribution style”, “cognitive bias”, and “shared illusion”. Hence, the term “optimism” is universally understood to hold feelings of confidence, on one normally inclination which makes one accept as true that sentiments are “the best of all possible worlds”.

However, there is comprehensive empirical support for the welfares of optimism in populations of PWD. Although there is a lack of literature on the influence of optimism among PWD and their caregivers, the existing collected works suggest that optimism is a significant predictor of adaptive coping, successful goal attainment, and overall well-being for PWD and their caregivers (Conversano *et al.*, 2010; Freeman, 2013). Nevertheless, it could have been seen as thought-provoking fact, had it not every person was afflicted with corporeal incapacity experience, distress, and insecurity equally. This is proven by a few people with physical disabilities having high positions in their jobs and living an affluent arrears (Schontz, 2007). These individuals also gained high status in their communities and lived good life, while majority of them were suffering. They were constantly rated highly in QOL assessments with some of them questioning if such survivors were unwelcomed (Albrecht & Devinger, 1999).

It has been noted that PWD living in affluent areas or wealthier suburbs and who were professionals with good incomes did not want to be associated with the poor PWD. These people were perceived not to be seen attending the Disability Rights Awareness Month in support of their own. This occasion occurs every year starting from 03 November to 03 December. This is the same with the people living with albinism who are educated and rich, as they would not support the National Awareness Day of Albinism, which occurs each year on September 18 (Ngwenya, 2006). Fewer PWD in Soshanguve Township had high-profile

positions in their jobs, and these people were businesspeople while the rest were poor. It transpired from the interviews that PWD who have prosperous businesses achieved them by getting assistance from parliamentarians. Disability is one of the seven focused arrears identified by the South African Human Rights Commission to promote, protect and monitor the realisation of Human Rights in PWD in South Africa (South African Government, 2020).

Equally, Schulz & Decker (1985) in their study of life satisfaction revealed that PWD only scored a little lower in life satisfaction than persons without disabilities. In a similar vein, a study by Dunn *et al.* (2009), which was similar, found that at the inception of the disability, individuals were rated fairly high on levels of stress and depression and noted that the “disability paradox” or inconsistencies are within people with severe physical disabilities, where they are usually found to rank d extremely high on QOL Freedman (2013). Marinić & Brkljačić (2008) concur that in high QOL levels, findings reinforced the theory that austere people discover gratification in their lifetime during the process of dealing with themselves. Shontz (2007) argued that these findings were possibly found to be allied with the confirmation of anguish when incapacity is efficiently controlled, with individual's charisma and incomes becoming reinforced.

On the other hand, Lucas (2007) noted that upon inception of a disability, the person is rated less on stages of cheerfulness, as such, were unlikely to make up adjustment modifications. A longitudinal study of disabled peoples' levels of psychological well-being revealed that their happiness preceding the disability, did not progress and up to stages of happiness, although signs were identified of initial reduction in happiness and comfort at the beginning of a disability. Nonetheless, the establishment in the psychological well-being appeared to increase on stages on arrival of infirmity, hence facilitation of adjustment (Lucas, 2007). At the same time, Lucas (2007) contends that though certain persons can finally demonstrate growth pertaining their pleasure in the process of adapting through the passage of time, it might be unlikely that they could attain the stages of healthiness that had control of inception. In addition to this outcome, Derluyn & Broekaert (2008) recapped this notion stating that adjusting to a new environment can be devastating and is also a thought-provoking process. This is was occurred to PWD when they reached a new environment in trying to cope with their difficulties since they were unaware at the time of what would transpire in changing to a new environment, as there were no preparations or guidance in this process (Mathe, 2018).

6.3.4. Coping through dispositional optimism

This section discusses coping through dispositional optimism. This section also discusses coping through dispositional optimism. “Dispositional optimism coping is conceptualised as habitual tendencies shaping how individuals handle stress (Haan, 1969). Straw & Ross (1985)

on the other hand explain dispositional optimism “as a measurement of individualist features that can clarify specific assertiveness and behaviour”. Documentation confirms that surviving reactions are theorised in corporation with habitual tendencies towards personality confidence of responses from several tensions and situational explanations of behaviours to precise irritations. In comprehension just how how significances of diverse handling of stress differ, having been in employment, and regularly engage in action against a single specific setting that have notional and scientific inferences. According to Scheier with Carver (1985), personality cheerfulness speaks of the acceptance of individual’s positive conclusions in comparison to negative ones.

Idealists expect better things over doubters, who expect positive results that are realistic and depraved, which cannot be avoided. They belief that individual’s outcomes will be positive rather than negative. Optimists rather than pessimists, would apply a great effort to attain the desired outcomes, whereas pessimists would withdraw and apply no exertion including abandoning all the anticipated intentions (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Scheier & Carver, 1988).

Optimists rather than pessimists, would apply a great effort to attain the desired outcomes, whereas pessimists would withdraw and apply no exertion including abandoning the whole anticipated intentions (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Scheier & Carver, 1988). Therefore, idealists are more likely to succeed at achieving their anticipated results over doubters.

Literature revealed that dispositional approach predicts fewer symptoms that bring trouble through less situational avoidance (Carver & Scheier, 1994). Since PWD were dealing with disappointments and aggressions, they opted to cope with dispositional optimism. Although they were defeated, they instead creatively adopted a positive attitude after they gave up and saw that they could not do anything about their situation. They must think positively about the future of their children. They seemed not to be discouraged or yield to their imaginations of a better future. It also emerged that their children were the future of tomorrow, and their future was important. They felt that their children should not experience the hardships they had and believed that if they could do something for themselves, their children would live a better life than theirs.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that being dispositional optimistic reverses person’s beliefs of the medical discipline. In medical discipline, dispositional optimism demonstrated that patients recover physically quickly during hospitalisation and come back to the usual everyday mundane after release. Optimism is quantified with an individual before he undergoes surgery which is linked with life fulfilment and delight after six months of healing

process. Therefore, positivity that is leisurely applied before surgical procedure is confidently interconnected with life expectancy, gratification, and cheerfulness having finished six months period. According to Scheier *et al.* (1989), a study they conducted on dispositional optimism concerning quicker recovery, provided them with convincing evidence that optimists recover quicker and more effectively from health issues as compared to pessimists during hospitalisation.

For an example, in a prospective study of college undergraduates by (Scheier & Carver, 1985), optimism negatively revealed a mid-semester interrelated report of mundane symptoms of infection after four weeks, in advance to final exams. In further research on optimism, it was revealed that idealists are more effective as compared to pessimists after finishing an aftercare programme for inpatients intoxicated by alcohol (Strack *et al.*, 1987). Most In spite of a certain amount of opposition, other researchers confirmed the first results of dispositional optimism were found to be certainly interrelated with those of coping strategies that were designed to eliminate, reduce or manage the stressors and negatively connected with those employed to ignore, avoid or distance themselves from stressors and emotions (Nes & Segerstrom, 2006). The respondents, although they were despondent with the bleak future ahead of them were still hoping on dispositional optimism that if they could do something positive with their situation, a bright life would shine over them.

According to Snyder (1994; 1995) and Feldman, Shorey & Rand, 2002) for individuals to prosper in ensuing their desired goals, they need to be enthusiastic to start preserving goal-directed action, including mental planning that leads to hopeful thinking, which is crucial and repetition for goal directed achievement. Hence, in accordance with hope theory, without goal directed pursuit, one starts becoming stagnant and lose the whole search. Similarly, the activities and pathways in thinking are critical in replication for goal-directed attainment, and minus one goal quest, things would deteriorate. In a study which has mainly exclusive capability and multiple modelling, analysis for data revealed that passageways for hope were exclusively interrelated for the distraction of coping. Courage activity was exceptionally influential (Scott *et al.* 2010). It was impossible for PWD to acclimatise with their situation of coping with the challenges of being unemployed with no income and doubting of hope (Lampropoulos, 2001).

Most researchers in this area of study, confirmed that, despite certain amount of opposition, the initial outcomes revealed positive consistency that was considered to eradicate and decrease management of irritation, and adversely connected with certain individuals in occupation to disregard and evade from irritations and reactions (Nes & Segerstrom, 2006).

Although respondents in the previous quotes predicted a gloomy or bleak future, they were despondent with the bleak future ahead of them and were still hoping on dispositional optimism that if they could do something positive to change their situation, a bright life might shine over them. At the same time, they had little hope that if the country's economy could improve towards their benefit as they stayed unemployed for decades after next. The respondents, although they were despondent with the bleak future ahead of them were still hoping on dispositional optimism that if they could do something positive with their situation, a bright life would shine over them.

Their testimonies of hope were illustrated in the following quotes.

We need to come together and put all our strength and recruit many disabled people as much as we can and the surrounding townships to join our organisation and ask for contributions to be able to contest in the 2024 elections so we can have a seat in the Parliament.

I'm happy that our new organisation is growing so fast, it is our only hope for our survival and Ntate Shibulai our chairperson is going to contest for disability organisation in the 2024 elections so we can have a voice in the Parliament we will strongly support him to win as he once worked in the higher structures in the government.

It is our duty to strengthen for this organisation for our livelihood because it will create jobs for our people and I think time for begging it's over and let us create our own businesses because we are on our own.

It was recommended persons that are malleable in reference and using survival arrays crosswise circumstances, possess sensitive ability in distinguishing methods of handling difficult situations while likewise are having capacity to assimilate to strengths and weaknesses of different viewpoints. Consequently, one of them could conclude they are coming from nerve-racking events and can alter or minimise emotional problems and distressing spirits (Cheng & Cheung, 2005). Taking into consideration devastating conditions PWD were living under right through their lives under the laws of separateness, was essential for the researcher to have an overview of PWD, and their coping strategies in Soshanguve Township. Under these conditions, PWD were compelled to develop coping mechanisms to attain their thoughts and ambitions of adjusting to a new environment. Adjustment to a new environment was not easy. They experienced difficulties in coping.

6.3.5 Difficulties experienced by PWD in coping.

This section discusses the difficulties of the coping strategies used by unemployed black PWD where household maintenance was important. Tennen *et al.* (2000) noted that coping with stressors is important to decrease pressure and maintain balance. Despite PWD being faced by innumerable misfortunes of unemployment and employment, including unreasonable employers at the workplace, they tried very hard to master some survival strategies despite their vulnerability. There has been not much thought spent on the coping mechanisms of this population group from the government side, they missed job opportunities, information and lacked income. They found themselves sitting at home indefinitely since they lost their jobs and could not manage their families. They found themselves being faced with a harsh reality. New coping strategies were difficult to deal with and not manageable, as there were no preparation beforehand or new strategies provided for them to deal with the situation. In fact, the new coping strategies they created for themselves seemed to threaten their lives through stress and anxiety. In South Africa, indigenous people generally live under strenuous conditions dominated by unemployment, violence and poverty before and after apartheid era. Maja *et al.* (2011) noted that indigenous people in South Africa lived a fixed life of coping with events coming at times, such as crimes like violence, including gender-based violence (GBV), unemployment and poverty that forced them to adjust themselves to normality for their health purposes. The PWD were worse off as they faced all types of abuses, exclusion and marginalisation, which is the crux of this study.

Various studies confirmed that women are inclined to use approaches of managing their families meant in altering their expressive reactions in traumatic situations including women with disabilities. However, while the menfolk use problem solving techniques, are more in the management of demanding practises (Endler & Parker, 1990; Matud, 2004). Women on the other hand use more of additional emotion-focused coping strategies such as religion, ruminative coping and avoidance coping (Janney, 2017). Literature shows that the utilisation of certain survival plans vary liable on men and women showing upper stages of support actions of coping from others, while men revealed an advanced stages of dealing positively on survival strategies (Ptacek *et al.*, 1994).

Nielson (2017) contends that, in coping strategies and gender disparities refer to habits i men and women adopt which vary according to how they deal with emotional stress. Suggestions shows men as frequently developing pressure because of occupations, while women usually bump into pressure because of problems in relational relations. Initially, research shows that "there were gender differences in the sources of stressors, but gender differences in coping

were relatively small after controlling for the source of stressors” and new research exposed similar work “small differences between women's and men's coping strategies when studying individuals in similar situations”. Generally speaking, these variances indicated females having intensions of employing anxiety coping strategies and be inclined on “tend-and-befriend” reaction to pressure, while males were inclined to utilise problem solving techniques in coping including “fight-or-flight” reaction. Maybe this was because of social ideals that encouraged males to differentiate themselves from society, while females were anticipate showing interactiveness in coping strategies. Another explanation for the above-mentioned variances involved hereditary aspects. A mark in which hereditary aspects and societal taming is a stimulus to conduct, is the topic of continuing discussions (Nielson, 2017).

PWD could not cope because they did not have projects or income to assist with the eradication of poverty and starvation. They also did not own any land for production of any crop or harvest and food as a contribution to their families for sustenance due to unemployment (Sedeto & Dar, 2019) and poverty. They could not cope because they could not manage their families with the limited amount of social grant they received from government, which was not enough for household chores. Besides, PWD have no access to housing built by the government in Soshanguve Township people. They could not even benefit from the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) i.e. a programme that is funding houses for beneficiaries to obtain one house constructed and delivered by the government from administration subsidy. This is despite applying for housing every year to the government with no response. If available, the projects could afford their families a measure of financial independence (Stats SA, 2014).

Furthermore, the families were in desperate need for houses to accommodate those with severe disabilities, who could not do anything for themselves without any financial assistance from the government. In addition, the welfare programmes that were proposed to assist them and which were to ensure their security of income were not implemented. These programmes were also not free of charge as they were linked to their income for deductions. The deductions excluded those whose income was below a certain threshold limit (Stats SA, 2014; USBLS, 2015). Unemployment was encroaching on them and their families, particularly those who were not receiving any social assistance from the government. These families were impoverished, starving, with chronic diseases, and could not afford to buy medication due to lack of income, while employers have closed doors for employment due to stigma and discrimination.

According to World Report (2011), when the government is providing medication for them, it is doing so at a cost, and is draining the economy of the country. This is mainly due to the

absence of awareness, inexperience and bias in society and again due to legislations that fail to protect the rights of PWD. The PWD attempted using coping strategies by creating small businesses in the streets and selling to make income. The PWD, were often unemployed, would not be allowed to open bank accounts. They joined stokvels and practised cash transfers to prevent impoverishment and deprivation (Hajdu *et al.*, 2020). All these small businesses need a joining fee that they did not have. This was also another way of organising informal finances for their survival (Mashigo, 2015). PWD experienced difficulties in coping with these small businesses as they could not flourish. They needed income which was self-sufficient and stable. The businesses were not working for them since they were created without a financial support base from beginning, or from any other organisation to keep them going. According to the PWD, to survive in these businesses, one needed a financial backup or capital to maintain the business to stay longer and bear fruits.

Ultimately, their businesses collapsed as couldn't get any sponsor to assist to maintain them. PWD were resentful towards government as they could not manage their household chores without the necessary backing. They collapsed as they were built without foundation. The efforts by PWD to sustain their businesses also did not work for long due to a lack of customers. They also encounter problem in maintaining customers. They had hoped that the government would assist when their businesses were collapsing, and this did not happen as assistance was not given despite several appeals. Their plea for a capital fell on deaf ears and to no avail. The PWD utilised whatever coping mechanisms they could lay their hands on to manage the stress and maintain the balance of their livelihood. In addition, being unemployed and living in poverty meant they were susceptible to poverty, chronic financial stress, chronic diseases, mental illness, and social isolation. The PWD expressed how they have exhausted all their resources trying to make a means to survive by sustaining their businesses; how difficult it was for them to manage their families with the mean-tested social grant they were getting, which in return created social isolation around them.

The PWD wanted to relinquish their possessions and leave Soshanguve Township in search of greener pastures elsewhere. During the first interviews, the respondents appeared despondent and subdued as they were stranded about finding work. This was due to the unavailability of employment opportunities created by employers for the majority of PWD in Soshanguve Township. The PWD lived with their families having limited access to all the resources that were available, a right that they were restricted to have. Kelly (2013) noted that the employers' motivation to employ PWD was in comply with the requirements in the Employment Equity Act. The Employment Equity Act (Act No. 55 of 1998) required that unconfirmed entitled employers, municipalities, and employers who have over 50 employees

in their companies or firms and those who have larger profits than what is stated by the Act, ought to implement favourable action procedures.

These procedures contained documentation that eliminated employment barriers such as unfair discrimination (Dube, 2005). The PWD' unemployment for long periods further exacerbated their coping strategies. They felt defeated by the system, seeing that there was no support base provided. They realised that this situation was fatal as it affected their health status meanwhile, there were no profits coming from the preceding hard work to do away with deficiency. They felt that their energies were exhausted and could do nothing as individuals to boost them up, as they felt short of ideas to move forward. They had no hope of being rescued from their misery they, except by the drastic economic measures that could bring change in the country. While they did not forestall a bright future, they did not imagine a disability grant as a reliable basis of remuneration (Alock. 1999)

Later respondents showed anger and pain as some were crying and showed feelings of resentment for being overlooked by the government, which resulted to their helplessness, hopelessness, and deep depression. At first, they did not foresee themselves defeated by the system. With their inadequate disability grant, they couldn't move forward as there was nowhere that they can ask for funds to support themselves apart from their families (Graham *et al.*, 2010). This could have a negative implication that PWD depend solely on disability grant as a social benefits and foundation for income, and yet respondents did not perceive social grants as a consistent foundation for income (Alcock, 1999), and also selling in the streets did not bring much income. They did not anticipate a bright future since no opportunities were coming their way. Also, they saw a bleak future since they release there was a serious economic decline in the country. They endured a gloomy future with social isolation and extreme poverty as they felt they were disregarded by the unimplemented guidelines that fostered unreasonable activities practiced by employers.

They blamed deficiency in the government's failure to implement its regulations and policies such as the EEA legislation No. 55 of 1998, as they were not protected by the Act. They also felt their dignity had been lowered and undermined as they could not contribute to the economy of the country. SASSA and labour departments were seen as acting irresponsible for not caring for them when they were supposed to. It was painful to know they could not benefit from all the resources or wealth of the country, and nothing seemed to be operational on their side. They verbalised their feelings of unhappiness and dejection and felt exhausted by the whole system. The quotes below attested to their testimonies.

I don't see disabled people coping here, because they are poor and do not get help from anywhere. It's tough and our health is poor. Our businesses and stokvels collapsed with no boost up from the government, and we, the government build us shelters for us to do business, so we are not lonely and sick.

We don't see our grant as a consistent income even selling in the streets does not bring enough income to manage our families; while we don't benefit anything like resources or wealth of the country, we are not coping.

"Yhoo! With this situation, we don't see a bright future for us coz there are no job opportunities coming our way. We see a gloomy future coming, and that we have to endure with social isolation, depression and extreme poverty because we are starving with our families and nobody seemed to care.

We feel we are not treated dignified by the labour department and SASSA as man and women with life and families to look after, and the poor insufficient government policies that are incomplete and some un-implemented enforce cruel actions and stigma against us through employers hence they don't care for us.

We feel more undermined by the non-implementation of the EEA legislation No 55 of 1998 as it encourages employers to practice discrimination and apply negative attitudes and sexual harassment against us knowing very well they won't account to anybody as we are not protected by the Act.

There's nothing we can do since we did not get support from the government and anywhere when our little businesses collapsed maybe leaving Soshanguve and look for greener pastures elsewhere will be the best option.

Due to the negative behaviours of organisations and employers who refused to include PWD in their formal employment process, they did not have access to employment services. Stigma also played its part in addressing them as nonentities since they were brand-named by employers who were denying them of their rights for joining the labour market. However, while this was distressing for PWD, they wanted to participate in the labour force to contribute to the country's economy (Sedeto & Dar, 2019). Under these circumstances, is suggested that it could be of assistance to turn an individual's mind to a pleasant, engaging leisure activity (Lyubomirsky, 2008).

Mainstreaming and universal access for PWD were the decisive objectives for the Disability Organisation, the exclusion of all traditional and all the obstacles that inhibit PWD from opportunities to contribute fully to all aspects of growth in the country (Mwendwa *et al.*, 2009). Documentation shows since it was observed that the CRPD was a critical universal ethics set instrument that was agreed upon to support disability rights, none of the individual governments' signing nor ratification was satisfactory to ensure a rapid change and efficiency (Language, 2009; Meekosha & Soldatic, 2011:1984) (Mwendwa *et al.*, 2009) Therefore, none of the countries have implemented the rights of PWD adequately to its efficiency, regardless of the existence of progressive human rights-based policies and programmes for PWD in various countries.

The implementation for human rights-based methods were converted to multifarious forms, after the Eurocentric ideas of rights were transported to non-Western recognised and national frameworks. Few developing economies had to trail or sanction civil rights and the moral which CRPD and moralities are prominently familiar and assumed (Mwendwa *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, the European notions of civil rights are founded against an administration that is with dynamism, protective, and considerate to disability residency by means of state policy, that is program designed and socially equipped with procedures (Meekosha & Soldatic, 2011). Several variations were required within the social improvement agenda, together with the distribution which needed to be altered. By means of incapacity itself, this requires additional occasions than one of the attendances of PWD as inactive receivers of sensible support (Gartrell & Hoban, 2013; Mwendwa *et al.*, 2009).

Richards (2008:1722) noted that to liberate disability research, the contestation of the authoritarianism that is intrinsic in copious incapacity and progress dissertation, preparation, and curriculum and provision of services is necessary. Research laboratory methods to provide voices to the unrepresented, such as PWD, giving them consent to give the impossible in disclosing the muteness and inconspicuousness of the worldwide structuring of deficiency and in the involvement of incapacity. PWD also have no access to reasonable accommodation in the workplace, accessible public transportation to go to work and meetings, and discrimination and ignorance about their potential at the workplace (Kelly, 2013).

Literature shows that there is a growing acceptance that the behaviours of how individuals cope with stress have an emotional impact on their psychological, physical, and social well-being (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Considering what PWD went through, it is imperative to examine the coping strategies they depended on for their survival. Salloum & Lewis (2010) noted that coping strategies influence how people reduce aggravation. The mental, emotional,

socially unhappy events were their daily lives, and these hardships were passionately draining them and causing aggressiveness at times with special effects concerning their psychological mind-set or psyche. However, in fighting against stressful situations springing from, unavoidably destined adversities and change to certain mechanical devices, and this happen to PWD. The investigator's viewpoint was an inadequate event to improve management mechanisms can be a consequence of PWD' psychological deterioration. However, pulling from the abovementioned discussions, it is, therefore, necessary for the researcher to explore how the respondents coped with disability, unemployment, and poverty.

The evidence shows that exploiting optimistic emotions and intrinsic powers and qualities will not only encourage comfort in individual belongings but again work for as shielding elements during sorrow (Cohen & Fredrickson, 2009; Lampropoulos, 2001). The PWD were always sorrowful in their lives and, at times, angry as they were burying their people almost every two weeks because most of them were sickly and could not afford medication. As they were people who also lost hope in life, it seemed using optimism during sorrowful circumstances as a shielding tool for comfort was not working. During the recruiting time, the researcher couldn't meet appointments as they would have attended funerals during the week. Although PWD surrendered to the status quo, the majority were still optimistic about the bright future despite the gloomy picture they foresaw. The PWD in Soshanguve were adamant that their organisation would bear fruits such as jobs created by them and for them once it is well established.

Snyder (1994, 1995) and Feldman *et al.* (2002) expanded that, for people to be successive in their desired goals, they would require to be enthusiastic to start and preserve their goal-directed action, including mental planning that leads to hopeful thinking. Hence, in conformity to hope theory, equally the agency and passageways of thinking were crucial, and reiteration of the goal-directed achievement; without at least one goal to pursue, starts to stagnate. Evidence shows that coping through hope and optimism suggests that optimism is a significant prophesy of adaptive coping, with successful goal attainment, and overall well-being. At the same time, some of them were pessimistic, arguing that others have a general tendency to expect that things could go well for them without any planning. This idea contrasted with those who are pessimistic as they generally expect things to go poorly for them even if things go right in the country. For example, if the economy of the country could improve, jobs would not be available for them; hence they should put their hope in the new disability organisation that they were forming and work hard on it to be successful. In this case, it could be argued that some PWD were in a state of dispositional optimism.

6.4 Critique of Optimism

Optimism results have been found to be the most positive in their connotation with happiness. However, some opinions have been brought forward against this positive psychology concept. There are certain beliefs that optimists are people who expect good things to amazingly occur (Carver & Scheier, 2003). According to Carver and Scheier's (2003), the argument, in their response to these optimistic opinions, was that individuals whose viewpoints are to have a positive attitude are expecting and achieving positive results. The critics also disapproved of the notion of being optimistic as being too ingenuous (Peterson, 2000). The term "optimistic bias" was invented by Weinstein (1980) to define people whose beliefs are based on being immune to bad things or hardships. Furthermore, Seligman (1991) noticed that optimists from time to time, become more unconvincing about experiences than pessimists.

Thus far, numerous studies bond optimism to well-being when coping with hardships (Lazarus, 1983). Lazarus (1983) transcribed a constructive and thought-provoking rejection that can be of use throughout, stating that in rehabilitation psychology literature's rejection is not continually measured as an inadequate adaptation if used briefly (Livneh, 2009). Lazarus's (1983) argument is that denial can help lessen the emotional agony related to a trauma, combat anxiety, be influential in maintaining self-esteem, and ward off feelings of helplessness. Moreover, a benefit of being optimistic recommends that when optimists continue, they will frequently and finally be strengthened with a positive outcome as opposed to pessimists who may certainly not try and thus experience missed opportunities (Seligman, 1991).

In addition, the theory of Beck involving the cognitive treatment of depression embraces a harmful impression of pessimists' negative statements on depression (Armor & Taylor, 1998; Peterson, 2000) rebukes the statement that optimists have harmful impractical views by providing another response to this argument, stating that in its place, optimists hold grounded beliefs. It is perceived people used optimism fuzzily in those situations that seemed to be within one's control (Armor & Taylor, 1998). For manageable situations, the optimistic bias is solid and prevalent, whereas, in situations that are not controllable, the optimistic bias is weak or non-existent (Armor & Taylor, 1998). Their investigation also showed that people were more anticipated to be optimistic when the results were quantifiable, which implied that individuals were more expected to be realistic with their expertise and abilities when they could easily evaluate outcomes. Seemingly, optimists are skilled at determining whether the situation is controllable and can transform behaviours as needed (Armor & Taylor, 1998).

The argument that may transpire is that optimism can position a person at risk if they disregard a threat that is truly harmful or if individuals miscalculate their ability to handle a threatening and risky condition (Scheier *et al.*, 2002). Current arguments are that if an optimist is not successful, even with their positive expectations, the consequences of this failure could be more destructive than they would be for a pessimist (Scheier *et al.*, 2002). Since the above-mentioned arguments and options could be real, they did not often occur and were not methodical enough to cause reluctance toward the advantageous emphasis placed upon optimism (Scheier *et al.*, 2002). These benefits of being optimistic, despite being faced with adversity, proposed practical implications for the field of rehabilitation psychology.

6.5 Emotional Benefits of Optimism

Emotional benefits of optimism suggest that PWD' conditions could improve through coping with optimism and proposes that optimism is a momentous prophecy of adaptive coping, successful goal attainment, and overall well-being. Optimism assists in inspiring environments. Therefore, staying optimistic through periods of suffering could charge against the anxiety, sadness, and despair that pessimists often experience. Evidence shows that optimistic people were not born with an optimistic mind; they must learn and train themselves to be optimistic (Lear, 2020). On cross-sectional research conducted on the comparison measures of optimism and measures of distress, it was revealed that optimistic people have a disposition to be more positive with an emotional attitude during stressful situations. However, an improved intellect of how, and even whether, optimism cooperates with distress in studies that involved quantities at altered points over time would be beneficial. Literature shows that such studies on cross-sectional research were limited (Bouchard *et al.*, 2017:117; Segerstrom *et al.*, Carver & Scheier, 2017, 2018: 219-220).

The literature confirms that optimistic people present a higher quality of life than those with low levels of optimism or even pessimists. For example, optimism is related more to biological risk factors such as lower blood sugar and cancer (Lear, 2020). Therefore, optimism may be influential significantly on an individual's mental and physical welfare through the advancement of a healthy lifestyle, as well as by adaptation of behaviour and cognitive reactions associated with greater elasticity, problem-solving capacity and a more competent elaboration of negative information. Thus, positive and negative expectations concerning the future were significant for understanding the susceptibility to mental disorders and in specific mood and anxiety disorders, including physical illness. The literature shows an important positive relationship that emerges between optimism and coping strategies, which is engrossed in social support and highlighting positive aspects of stressful circumstances. Even through engagement in specific coping strategies, optimism applies an unintended influence on the QOL. It is apparent

that optimism is a mental attitude that severely influences physical and mental health, including coping with daily social and working life. Through an adaptation of management of personal goals and expansion using active coping tactics, optimists were likely to be significantly more successful than pessimists in aversive proceedings and when important life-goals were impaired (Lear, 2020).

It is suggested that the application procedure of optimism thought should be combined in treatments and prevention programmes individually in mental and physical health, to improve well-being (Conversano *et al.*, 2010). Schulz & Decker (1985), in their study of life satisfaction, revealed that PWD only scored a little lower in life satisfaction than persons without disabilities. In a similar vein, the study conducted by Dunn *et al.* (2009), which was similar, found that at the inception of the disability, individuals were in reality, rated fairly high on levels of SWB. Freeman (2013) noted that the “disability paradox” or inconsistency is within people with severe physical disabilities where they are usually found to have a high rank and extremely high on QOL (Marinić & Brkljačić, 2008). These findings supported the assumption that people with severe physical disabilities find satisfaction in life when learning how to cope (Marinić & Brkljačić, 2008).

These findings were possibly related in confirming that when anguish from a disability is effectively controlled, a person’s charisma and resources are reinforced (Shontz, 2007). On the other hand, Lucas (2007) discovered that upon the inception of a disability, the persons are rated lower on levels of happiness and as such were not likely to reach adjustment. A longitudinal study was conducted on disabled peoples’ levels of psychological well-being. The study revealed that their happiness did not improve and reach the pre-disability levels of well-being, while it was noted that there was an initial decrease in well-being at the beginning of a disability. However, it was established that psychological well-being appeared to improve in time post-arrival of disability, thus facilitating adaptation (Lucas, 2007). At the same time, Lucas (2007) argues that while some persons may eventually show growth in their well-being and process of adapting through time, it may be unlikely that they could reach the original level of well-being that they had control of before the inception of the disability.

6.6 Benefits of Optimism

This segment discussed the benefits of optimism. There are various advantages and benefits of being optimistic. For example, optimism has been found by researchers to be connected to problem-solving, positive mood and a reduction in depression, lower susceptibility to trauma, adaptive coping strategies, determination, a decrease in negative physical symptoms, and lower susceptibility to trauma (Carver & Scheier, 1992, 1993, 2003; Peterson, 2000). On the

other hand, pessimism is associated with depression, failure, inactivity, social isolation, and mortality (Peterson, 2000). An outcome indicates that when a diagnosis is poor or a task is challenging and time-consuming, optimists show determination and confidence (Carver, Scheier, Miller & Fulford, 2009). Researchers have discovered that optimism is related to a positive mood and less depression, problem-solving and adaptive coping strategies, perseverance, health, a reduction in negative physical symptoms, and lower susceptibility to trauma (Carver & Scheier, 1992, 1993, 2003; Peterson, 2000). Conversely, pessimism is related to depression, failure, passivity, social isolation, and mortality (Peterson, 2000). Much research has been conducted on the relationship between optimism and adversity (Carver & Scheier, 2003) and various researchers agreed that optimism and hope are different from each other and contrasted from various personality traits (Chamberlin *et al.*, 1992; Das, 2005; Dunn, 1996; Fitzgerald *et al.*, 1993; Fournier *et al.*, 2002; Gruber-Baldini *et al.*, 2009; Scheier *et al.*, 1989; Snyder *et al.*, 1991:572; Taylor, *et al.*, 1992). Results seem to show that when a prognosis is poor or a task is difficult and time consuming, optimists remain determined and confident (Carver *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, during adverse times, optimists do not experience as much psychological distress as pessimists do; rather, optimists show more flexibility in accepting difficulties (Carver & Scheier, 2003; Scheier *et al.*, 2002). Carver and Scheier (2003) suggest that optimists can find and experience some type of subjective well-being even from difficult situations. In addition, optimists can also partake in an active and focused form of coping instead of giving up or letting go of goals (Carver & Scheier, 2003). Finally, because optimism involves motivation toward the future, the result of this motivation can also be motivating in and of itself (Peterson, 2000).

Literature confirms that, although the pessimistic person may be correct in the end, the fact remains an optimistic person enjoys life more along the way with their positive mind-set and may be exploiting more than just providing enjoyment, while optimism is improving an individual's health. It is well known that a mental and physical state of mind are intertwined though the mental side of things is more often being ignored, and that could be the lack of knowledge of the functioning of the brain and other parts of the body. Evidence shows although optimistic people have a positive attitude towards life, it doesn't necessarily mean they are constantly joyful, happy or successful. Lear (2020) noted that although pessimists have a negative viewpoint, they can experience joy, happiness, and success. However, those who may be considered broken and at the bottom of society's success ladder can be optimistic as a positive mind-set is linked or allied with better achievements, r health and fewer chances of disease. Therefore, a positive mind-set is related with improved health and less chance of disease while the mental attitude of an individual is contagious. An individual who associates with

negative minds is likely to be brought down by them. In the same vein, if individuals associate themselves with optimistic people, their spirits will likely be lifted up and implant a livelier view of life. A positive mind-set is associated with better health and a lower chance of disease.

Although being around optimistic people can lift one's spirits and instil a brighter view on life, PWD couldn't associate themselves with other people except for their own type because of stigma; as such, they could get any benefit except for the organisation that they were forming. Thus, positive and negative expectations regarding the bleak future of PWD were significant for understanding the susceptibility to mental disorders, specific mood and anxiety disorders, as well as physical illness (Lear, 2020). It important to note in this study was that the time of onset of the disability varied from when each participant completed the instrumentation; therefore, it could not have been accurately measured for the full scope of adaptation to disability (Lucas, 2007). Also, a selection bias may have occurred because the respondents were chosen for the researcher-PWD with benefits rather than including PWD who applied but did not get benefits (Lucas, 2007).

The discussion above stated, in short that when an individual was able to enhance personality and strength in response to the inception of a disability, the disability may serve as an incentive for growth and a positive experience (Shontz, 2007). However, despite some contradictions in the research, it seems for this growth to occur, PWD must learn positive coping strategies to reach adjustment. Thus, it is necessary to continue research in this area of adaptation to disability and positive psychology to glean more conclusive results. Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) noted that persons with optimistic feelings about their recovery from CID are also the same individuals who are more successful in therapy because they do not experience feelings of depression and hopelessness. Dunn *et al.* (2009) argue that PWD will likely experience future happiness if they can reframe their perspective to one of positive thoughts and behaviours. Moreover, Keany and Glueckauf (1993) trust that by using this reframing method, in which the individual focuses more on their gifts and assets, positive emotions and feelings of good functioning with a QOL can be achieved. Yet, there have been methodological technical hitches in measuring the implementation of strengths focused in thinking, as noted by Keany and Glueckauf (1993), mainly in the dependence on the samples used with PWD.

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the coping strategies that PWD used in Soshanguve Township to deal with their stressful situations such as emotional-and problem-focused coping strategies. In

emotional coping strategies, various strategies were discussed, such as the religious coping strategy, coping through avoidance, and coping through accepting the status quo. In problem-focused coping strategy, the following were discussed: coping with defeat, coping with avoidance, and coping with the status quo. These coping strategies could not help PWD much as there were financial implications involved to deal with coping, as Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) noted that persons who have optimistic feelings about their recovery from CID are also the same individuals who are more successful in therapy because they do not experience feelings of depression and hopelessness. The emotional benefits of optimism and limitations of the chapter were also discussed. Based on the identified experiences of respondents with coping strategies, gender aspects are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Seven

Objective 4: Experiences of Men and Women with Disabilities in Post-Apartheid South Africa: A Gendered Perspective

7.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to explain the gender perspective, particularly on gender-based differences in status and power, and considers how such discrimination shapes the immediate needs, as well as the long-term interests, of women and men (Kangas & Rostgaard. 2007), in post-apartheid South Africa through a gendered lens. There is overwhelming evidence that PWD are not handled well by employers at the workplace as they stigmatised, and isolated, particularly black women. Gender may be defined as the categorical differences between men and women, boys and girls. Thus, a person may be defined as either male or female. From time to time, gender refers to the diverse distribution between women and men as groups. For an example, men as a group, on the average earn higher salaries than women and, on the average, women as a group may have a greater sickness absence rate than men. Furthermore, gender concerns cultural dialogues about what is viewed as feminine or masculine (Nielsen, 2017).

Riley (2019), in his investigation of the origin of the word “gender” noted that the noun “gender” comes from the Latin word “*genus*” meaning a kind or sort. It denotes mainly to a person’s internal sense of maleness and femaleness. Gender has therefore, habitually been used interchangeably with the word *sex*. The World Bank Group’s Report 2012 defined gender “as socially constructed standards and beliefs which control the behaviour and actions of men and women in society” (World Bank Group, 2012). The Report further emphasised the importance of straightforwardness in targeting the tenacious limitations and hindrances to women’s equality, particularly in areas such as economic empowerment, employment, educational gaps, household, silence of, and violence against women, to improve efficiency and advanced continuation of development outcomes. Behaviour is further explained in a particular way of approaching how societal norms and power structures affect diverse groups of men and women (World Bank Group, 2012).

Furthermore, gender equality is perceived as important for practically recognising that an escalating body of empirical evidence proposes a high-quality of gender inequality related to women’s complex risks of inner struggles in comparison with men, as they have less control of political and economic resources, together with land, employment, and traditional influential positions (Kangas & Rostgaard. 2007).

Cock (2019) noted gender differences in South Africa remained despite all the policies and laws to address gender. Evidence shows that after 25 years of democracy, the country was still far from rectifying issues such as discrimination, gender imbalance, race, and sexual harassment, particularly at work. However, this chapter discusses the following points: 1) How unemployment impacts people living with disabilities and their families 2) The differences in these experiences between men and women living with disabilities; 3) What consequences or outcomes these experiences have and perceptions on PWD; 4) Education system; 5) The land system in South Africa pertaining to PWD; and 6) The gender wage gap.

The literature confirms that traditionally, the work environment and its chain of command were still arranged into strata or layers along racial lines. “Apartheid practices such as job reservation were used as tools that were aimed to create sharp divisions in the South African society in order to achieve differences in economic outcomes.” This segregation of people of different colours and races was discriminatory towards women, particularly that they received other forms of suppression which were not recognised but damaging (Eagly & Carli, 2007). PSA (2019) concurs that this double discrimination based on blackness, woman, and culture extends to the subjugation of women at home and in the workplace. Peterson and Morgan (1995) noted that the realism in the realms of the labour market contradicts the Composition particularly that the governmental machineries have been strengthened with restrictions in the field where bigotry applies copious and were propagated to obtained effectiveness. Hence, Grobbelaar and Grobler (2013) uttered, “regarding the unimplemented legislation on PWD in South Africa, it lies within the South African Constitution that contains the Bill of Rights, which applies to ‘everyone’ but not, apply in actual fact to PWD as the majority of them were still confronted with unemployment, discrimination, and exclusion”.

Moreover, the legislation that addresses these issues does not do in a comprehensive manner. The legislation has parts that exclude matters relating to disability (Grobbelaar & Grobler, 2013). The legislation that is incidentally unimplemented regarding PWD, gave power to employers to exert extortion on these people as powerless and incapacitated, as such, employers are sceptical of employing PWD. Writings confirm gender analysis is a segment of socio-economic analysis aiming at informing policymaking and contesting the assumption that is often thought of as intercessions used to ensure gender neutrality, but which can reinforce current imbalances. The big problem was that gender discrimination, poor representation and disparities continue to exist in the workplace, as shown by the inequalities between men and women on income and culture.

Evidence shows that poor representativeness, discrimination, and gender disparities are manifested from behavioural norms and old-fashioned traditions (Bangani & Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2020). Since the centenary, the women's rights movement for equal rights of and the movement to put an end to sexism have been disapproving of unequal opportunities and exploitation of women as dehumanising. In Setswana, this type of exploitation is explained metaphorically as saying, "a team of oxen was never led by the female, otherwise the oxen would fall into the ditch" Mokhele (2016).

Furthermore, it was noted from the time of dawn of the new dispensation that few women have been visible in the state sector and had noteworthy growth, especially in the areas such as supervisory and technical skills positions. Evidence shows that the shrinking numbers of women have been evident since 1994 when women were represented in disproportionately low numbers in the government (Mokhele, 2011). When studies were conducted by non-disabled women about discrimination, they seldom mentioned women with disabilities or they would be mentioned less, and yet they are the worst sufferers. This causes concern. The fact that employers lack an understanding of the mental capacity and the abilities of the PWD may also contribute to why few PWD were still engaged in paid work (UN Enable, 2016).

7.2 The Experiences of Unemployment Among Adults in New Dispensation

Marshall and Rossman (2011) proposed that shared experiences allow for the disabilities narration of a worldview that is understood by those individuals with a similar consciousness. In sharing the narratives of PWD who have had similar experiences will allow for a better understanding of the phenomena. It is understood that the majority of PWD are unemployed in Africa, destitute and excluded; as such, they are entangled in a web of continuous poverty (Naami, 2015), which is passed from one generation to the next (Disability News Africa, 2016). Due to semi-illiteracy, they missed job opportunities, but the labels of inactivity and incapability affected them throughout Africa. PWD were seen as sick and economically incapacitated without any assistance. Furthermore, they were seen as people who were unable to do things for themselves. Assumptions may be made about them by the non-disabled people that they may not be cognisant of their rights as employees, who were not considered. This implies that some non-disabled people do not know that most of these people are quite aware of their situation and surroundings (Munyi, 2012). Naami (2015) contends that PWD were not counted as citizens of a country who can make their contributions for the wealth of a country. Discrimination and social stigma in alliance with disability are tools used against them. Due to unemployment, are compelled to beg on roads for their survival (Disability in Africa, 2014). PWD were desecrated by employers and not taken or treated with respect and this behaviour affected them, particularly women and their socio-economic struggles.

The inequalities and the women were an ongoing tenacious pattern of power distribution. Incapacity cripples the position individuals in society and in situations of rating using positioning masculinity, potency, and social power. On average, this is a constantly observed phenomenon (Stats SA, 2014). However, gender studies examining gender earnings differentials in South Africa were beginning to increase in importance, since the rise of feminisation (Bhorat & Goga, 2013; DPISA, 2013). Despite feminisation, most women remained unemployed and have limited access to employment opportunities, education, housing, and health facilities, at least for buying medication (Stats SA, 2014). This chapter argues that, as PWD were always in chains in their lives, employers were using all sorts of derogatory utterances against them, such as 'weak and inactive' and 'should not be allowed to work'.

These derogatory utterances were used for society to believe in labelling. The majority of PWD remained in chains even in the post-apartheid era as they could not bring income to their families or put food on the table. Unemployment is still their problem, and it continues to occur as employers in the workplace are reinforcing this behaviour before and in the post-apartheid era. The question is, for how long are these people going to be excluded by society and on which grounds? This is an area that seems not to be on the agendas of the platforms of the parliament. Naami (2015) noted that their dire situation leaves them hopeless, helpless, economically inactive, and poor; hence women continue to suffer from high levels of unemployment, poverty and chronic diseases (Disabled People South Africa [DPISA], 2013).

The invisibility of black Africans with disabilities in the streets of the townships is conspicuous, particularly in Soshanguve Township during the day and working hours, while they were unemployed. This indicates that they remained in the bondage of exclusion, marginalised during and alienated. This situation persisted despite the various intercessions DPISA (2013) for assistance in having opportunities to several constructions, including interrelated cultural events with a view that would enable contestation on an equal basis with others in the changing global society (Soudien, 2012). In addition to their prolonged history of socio-economic and political challenges that they endured, they have to face the tragedy of the consequences of the new life after segregation, and this concerns many of those who care about their situation. To start with, disability and unemployment are political in South Africa and, as such, are controlled by politicians who seemed to be less educated on disability, particularly those who are at the higher echelons of decision-making processes about the marginalisation of black PWD.

When PWD' marginalisation in society became a reality, their unacceptability also became a meaningful reality as no one wanted to know and hear from them (NOAH, 1999). Their silence is symbolic of their devastating status of health conditions and low socio-economic rejection. The incessant dehumanisation practised by employers upon them including society, made their very existence remain unforgettable in their lives; hence women continued to suffer from high levels of unemployment, deficiency, physical violence, and all types of judgments at work and in other domains of life (Kangas & Rostgaard. 2007). The quality, talent, and position of women in society have yet to be discovered.

Every person is permitted to be measured initially and primarily with consideration to their competences and involvement in civilisation, even if they are comparatively reserved in the background domestically, in occupation, or by means of communal associations or party-political participation (Disability News Africa, 2016), this also applies too to women and men with disabilities. However, meanwhile, it can be confirmed that culture is unsuccessful in getting the wisdom of women and men with disabilities; its treatment of disabilities is worse in terms of exclusion and deprivation from participating fully. Very often, it is the norm and still is, the rehearsal to "hide" and side-line females and teenagers afflicted with incapacity to negate them of any chance of utilising the capabilities they hold (Abu-Habib, 1997). This action denies who they actually stand for prior their remoteness and stigmatisation by the classification of societal control, which have emerged in the political arena (Naami, 2015). Evidence shows that in this country, 64% of black disabled people are jobless and are not stressing themselves to look for jobs since they know they would be marginalised. Hence, they are seen as inactive and powerless by non-disabled people.

The Commission for Employment Equity (2016) reported that slight progress in the employment of persons with disabilities had remained since its inauguration of the legislation phase in 1998, and in the announcement of this Act from Chapter 3 since 1999. Additionally, the majority of PWD in employment occupied inexplicable jobs which are tedious, time-consuming and created for unskilled labour with less remuneration. Documentation continue to reveal that employers are recognised to their fear of commissioning PWD as they have less self-assurance in retaining them. Employers contend that commissioning PWD is too pricey and their engagements might generate fear and technical hitches in the work environment, that would attract big budgets and brought changes that could affect the troposphere, making it unpromising (Maja *et al.*, 2011; UN Enable, 2011).

While the colour of the skin matters most in South Africa, these people **are liable to** triple-decker of disablement, joblessness, and incapacitated. This boldness is at times grounded on

the inaccurate thoughts which have no basis that PWD needs “protection” from wild behaviours, an attitude that signifies bias and inexperience. In most incidences, the reaction to the particular requirements of women and girls’ teen-agers with disabilities, is often insufficient and are debarred from utilising their capacities (Burner, 2021).

As a matter of priority, men and women with disabilities should be empowered with skills everywhere to grow and make a variance in life, which cannot grant an obstacle against them to participate in society. They should be distributed to facilities where they will be guaranteed to gain a skill that would allow them to brand a difference. They should be allowed to participate in the normal public amenities and the accepted spaces. The law in each situation should allow services to be accommodative for all, except on conditions where situations do not allow their participation of which they could not be involved, such as particular occupations. In this way, integration would have been achieved. An in-depth conceivable incorporation is the goal of an unbiased space to be achieved. Alternatively, by means of common teaching and consciousness-raising in the community at large and, otherwise, by means of all probable procedures that ensured normal amenities that were intended to be utilised by all. Specially designed solutions should be adopted only in exceptional cases (Public Servants Association [PSA], 2019).

Some women seeking employment commented:

Women are never easily allowed to enter in these learnership programmes because of employers refuse to employ us. It's like these programmes were designed for men as doors are closed for women but can be opened for most men, and having not been selected to a learnership programme I will never be able to apply for jobs because I have no skill.

I don't have a higher education or a husband, and I'm maintaining two kids they go to school. It's difficult to stay with a disability unemployed and young children depending on this cheap social grant not enough. I spend a lot of money to children taking them to doctors and schools. I have to buy food and pay electricity E-e-sh! Living with a disability it's hard.

Self-rule, individuality, incorporation, and involvement are the main thoughts of ideas that motivate every single programme that distresses PWD. Despite that there's existence of double judgement where concerning women with disabilities, denotes that these intentions are in cooperation with essential and more demanding to attain in their situation. Accomplishing these ideas in rehearsal is the privilege for women as well as for men. It is a grave infringement of women's civil rights to believe them as less talented than men of contributing in culture

(Beleza, 2003). Evidence shows that in South Africa, many ethnical groups have long-lasting beliefs that women are less important or less worthy of power than men in as far as gender roles are concerned. Various groups believed historical African organisations were male-positioned and male-dominated (Peterson & Morgan, 1995).

Documentation confirms that the jurisdicative agenda of South Africa is celebrated worldwide for its liberal Constitution. Its established requirements that laws were centred on the principles of self-respect, the achievements of fairness, improvement of civil rights and recognition; multicultural, and gender-free; authority decree of law, including the general mature voting rights, amid others. The by-law gives assurances of jurisdiction and other procedures way of promoting parity. Furthermore, there is legislation which was intended to promote the statutory standards of equal opportunities, and rectifying discrimination at work, ensuring diversity of the workplace. Some important proposed points were endorsing equality including reasonable management for workplace and enact effective affirmative action measures. But how gender roles were observed in South Africa was unconceivable as they go parallel with the Constitution and worse in the workplace. Gender disparities remained life-threatening to PWD and a form of marginalisation despite all the pledges to promote Constitutional Standards (PSA, 2019).

Literature shows that many countries globally retain verbal obligation concerning sexual role and parity, except for those still suppressed by traditional laws and where their strict religious beliefs are absolute, in both society and politics (Policy Brief, 2013). In various countries, gender equality agrees with their constitutions, but commitment, which is lacking in practice, is visible. In general, women control less political and economic resources as compared to men including the land rights, occupation and traditional positions of authority (PSA, 2019). To attain justifiable visibility and full involvement at higher ranks of organisations would be an act of good conscience and worthwhile. It stems after the essential civil rights of females which is designed equally to males biologically and superficially in existence of the only differences. Also, such adjustments do not physically symbolise the subordination of women; however, they are also instituted differently (PSA, 2019). Documents confirm that the judgement similarly have effects of prearranged marginalisation in PWD for crucial spaces in any country's social, economic, and political life.

The worldwide marginalisation of subgroups like PWD in labour force rife is endemic and unwavering. It follows a trend that is a source and an outcome of social segregation and enclosure on prejudiced relations. The social exclusion is further exacerbated by gender inequality (DSD, 2015). Abu-Habib (2010) alludes that working together with gender and disability constructs a life-threatening form of marginalisation. The combination of gender and

disability generates countless layers of discrimination against women. Literature shows that employment-related disparities continue in both developed and developing countries. Women, in general, were less valued in the labour market, as shown by inequality in participation in the labour force, pay, the kind of jobs they have, and the positions they hold. Literature confirms that several studies on employment confirm this globally (Hausmann *et al.*, 2013).

7.2.1 The differences in these experiences between PWD

This section discusses gender differences existing between PWD at workplace. Gender disparities were noted worldwide to be a multifaceted occurrence and understood as organisational arrangements, procedures, and put into practise. Collected work show continuation of disparities in the employment sector in the developed and underdeveloped nations and various studies confirmed globally the underestimation of women in the workplace (Hausmann, Tyson and Zahidi, 2013). LO (2015) concurred with Hausmann, Tyson and Zahidi (2013) that gender disparities exist between men and women in the workplace worldwide. Women earn less than their male counterparts as they were understated in positions of higher status, while they were overrepresented in job situations such as sales, clerical, and services workers. In cases of females, certain experience of damaging sex-role disparities is ratified in the circles of personnel in human resource.

The personnel practices such as guidelines, policymaking processes, with representation disturb the employment, preparation, wage, and upgrading of females. This consists of management, administration, planning, culture, legislative situation, as well as workplace policies. Furthermore, those from policymaking procedures can intensify sexism that disrupts women with disabilities' prospects by creating gender-related choices with bigotry behaviours meanwhile indorsing workplace practices (Stamarski, Son, & Hing, 2019). UNICEF (2013:19) exposed that girls with disabilities also suffer discrimination, stigma, prejudice, and inequities encountered by many PWD, and they seldom get promotions. The South African government issued a report emphasising the position of women in the workplace that they are distant and have limited muscle from the levers of power where influence and control of remuneration decisions are taken (Nhlapo & Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2016:171-172). The examination of female workers from junior positions were barred from having access in promotions. Citations also confirm the gender inequalities and the diversity of PWD with various impairment forms may practise disparities contrarily.

It was reported the long suffering of PWD from psychological disorders or cerebral damages seemed underprivileged in various locations as compared to the inflicted with corporeal or sensual deficiencies (WHO & World Bank, 2011:8).

PWD inflicted with invisible disabilities (e.g., distressing pain or fatigue) were frequently faced with considerable judgment (Yeo & Moore, 2003:579). From other nations, individuals obtained their disability through a conflict where it was appreciated and given a much higher status than those whose disabilities happen through other causes. This is due to their recognition as prisoners of war or “war heroes” or “innocent victims” (Kett & Twigg, 2007:95; Meyers, Karr & Pineda, 2014:200; Mitchell & Karr, 2014:228). Documentation confirms that PWD faced various barriers in their struggle for equality at work.

As PWD were prone to discernment owing due to incapacities, the disadvantage from women as compared to men was by far in combination to discrimination constructed on gender and discrimination based on disability. This discrimination in the workplace affected women negatively and tampered with their earnings and opportunities, which were symbolic of the gender wage gap (Peterson & Morgan, 1995). Evidence shows that universally females were faced with various which were hampering their access for occupation. Where women were employed, their arrangements for positions of hierarchy remained imperceptible. Stats SA (2021) revealed that in the labour force more favouritism to men as opposed to women was evident in terms of salaries since men were expected to be on paid jobs than women, and was operated irrespective of identity. Females were most likely on unpaid work. Literature reveals that after more than 25 years in new dispensation, there were not much significant changes marked, as issues of importance are far from being rectified, such as discrimination, gender imbalance, race, unemployment, GBV and sexual harassment, particularly at work (Cock, 2019).

Men and women with disabilities represented lesser numbers in the labour force and in education as compared to their non-disabled counterparts, while men with disabilities get more favour than women with disability. As much as men and women with disabilities were faced with many hurdles, they also fought for equality in the workplace (ILO, 2015). Documents confirm that the practices of discrimination have consequences of marginalisation of PWD in crucial spaces in any country's social, economic, and political life. Abu-Habib (2010) alludes that working together with gender and disability constructs a life-threatening form of marginalisation. The combination of gender and disability generate countless layers of discrimination for women. Evidence shows that in South Africa, many' ethnical groups have long-lasting beliefs that women are less important or less worthy of power than men, in as far as gender roles are concerned. Various groups believed historical African organisations were male-positioned and male-dominated (Peterson & Morgan, 1995).

Evidence shows that inequalities relating to disability and age discrimination were compounded when combined with gender discrimination. For example, in South Africa, the rate of national disability prevalence is 5%, and disability is more prevalent among females compared to males by 8, 3% and 6,5%, respectively. While inequalities exist between male and women with disabilities, they also exist in age. Since PWD' age increase as they grow older. More than half (53, 2%) of persons growing older are of 85+ and most of them have a disability. (Stats SA, 2014). According to Bhorat and Goga (2013), in South Africa, apartheid policies resulted in non-white men and women being subjected to legalised discrimination, while Vernies and Val (2018) noted that younger women and girls achieve less educational outcomes than younger men and boys. Moreover, histories revealed that women and girls were inconceivably often faced with excessively high crime rates.

There they were twice as likely to be exposed to gender-based violence, sexual abuse, neglect, maltreatment and exploitation compared to women and girls without disabilities (Abu-Habib, 2010; Sweetman, 1995). Traustadottir (1990) attested that women with disabilities have traditionally been equally neglected by disability studies and feminist scholarship. The matters of importance. Movement in conjunction with the Women's Movement. Gender imbalances were predominantly conspicuous in the developing world. Berghs (2016) noted that oppression of PWD manifests while a person, shared collective or the carnal or mystical setting of what tolerates "Ubuntu", our shared humanity, is being endangered by insensitive activities that create injury, like various forms of abuse, deprivation, or ferocity. Respondents expressed the differences in treatment between salaries. They felt they were deprived of their obligatory rights between PWD and those without disability in terms of their salaries while doing the same work and having the same qualifications. Also, there were differences between disabled black men and disabled black women and disabled whites. Their testimonies were illustrated by their quotes below.

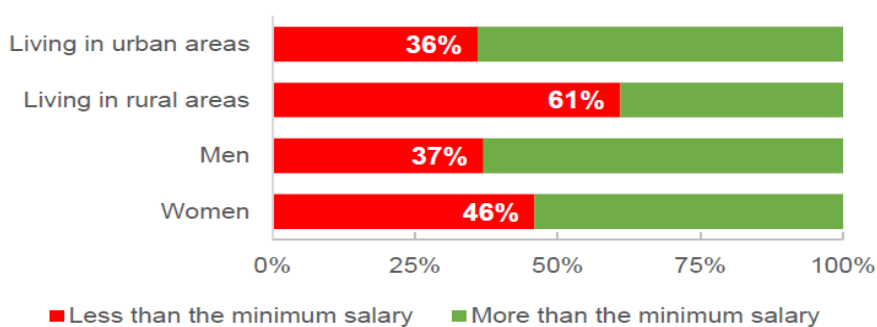
In other companies, they employ black disabled and white disabled people with same qualification but they were paid three times salary than Blacks at the same time they get more privileges than all of us. This also happens between us black females and black men. Disabled men earn much than disabled women.

As a black disabled woman, you will ever earn far less than all of the groups here because we come to work on days and opportunities are not available for us. They come better for men than for women because when we females apply for jobs with disabled males are always given a first preference than us.

This uneven salaries also happen to non-disabled disabled people. Non-disabled people are paid more because employers discriminate them from us saying they do job fast and always on time at work and never absent at work.

Evidence on gender inequality that shows the existing statistics in South Africa revealed a disturbing landscape for women. It does not reflect a true picture of those in the labour force in general, least to mention women with disabilities. Consensus, in women made up 51% of the population. This is reflected in the findings and not in the statistics. And these figures were slim indicating representation of females in the workforce. The statistics on South African parliamentarians show positivity of their depiction with a stable upsurge in female leaders, as such the country was graded 10th globally with 41.78% of females in the House of Assembly. The Executive Council of Provinces on the other hand, shows a 35.3% of women representation. It was perceived that women at the grassroots were not included in the statistics. The composition which defends and supports the requirement for gender fairness, its application appeared to be of a snail's pace in ordinary African women (Mafu, 2019), particularly for those with disabilities.

Figure 7.1: Comparison of employed persons with disabilities (employees, employers and own account workers) wages with the minimum wage in Peru in 2012



Source: National Statistical Institute of Peru.⁴⁸⁹

Peterson and Morgan (1995) noted the reality of legislative mechanisms which were unstrengthened to enforce obedience and having restrictions in the secluded field, where prejudiced is put into practise which is open to public which, propagated and gained their power. Eagly and Carli (2007) observed shortage of females in management and the lengthier period that is essential for them (vs. men) to progress in their professions (Blau & DeVaro, 2007). Furthermore, women were likely to receive less opportunities at work as compared to

men, resulting in their marginalisation at echelons in organisations (Martell, Lane, & Emrich, 1996).

Literature shows that South Africa's apartheid practices, such as job reservation, were used as tools aimed to create sharp divisions to cause differences in economic outcomes. The segregation of people of different colour or race was severer on females, particularly who also received other methods of suppression that were taken as unintended but damaging (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Through customary laws women were deprived of the right to contribute to economic activities in conjunction to retain property and other forms of traditional practices that were depriving women of self.

The bequest of sexual role and domination including inequality remains severely entrenched to South African society's spirit or soul and is impermeable to legislative measures (City Press, 2021). Assured applications are problematic to enact, including the discrepancies of labour distribution domestically in other means that can generate viable disadvantages including extensive insinuations for global scuffle in contradiction of sex domination of females in work environment. This is an obscure method of subjugation that might happen by joint arrangement at family level, and numerous varieties of discernment in exclusive and free fields. Exclusive and casual preparations that are regressive in friendly areas could possibly weaken the location of womenfolk as clusters in culture (Klaasen & Woolard, 2008). The absence of progression of females and variability generally in the workstation can't be unravelled from domestic or friendly policy, is part of nation in the public, and interpersonal prejudices that reflect females low-grade in civilisation. The workstation derives at the conclusion to strengthen and support entirely these wreckages of domination and judgement that arise from within civilisation. Although governmental events are in a position to endorse parity, growth in this capacity rests cold (Cornwall, 2014).

7.2.3 The consequences or outcomes of these experiences and perceptions for PWD.

Education system

This section discusses the consequences or outcomes of PWD' experiences and perceptions of education. Evidence shows that employers were not paying unemployment insurance fund contributions to employees living with disabilities nor making them sign any written contract (Pitso & Magubane, 2014), as they did not believe in their abilities (Maja *et al.*, 2011). However, under these circumstances, they were more vulnerable as communities also marginalised them because of their disability and unemployment. Consequently, they were excluded from

the rest of society (Oliver & Barnes, 2012) and lived in poverty (Naami, 2015). The reluctance of many employers to employ PWD was based on perceptions of labelling and stigma. The labelling was founded on the PWD' incapacity to do any job.

They were also labelled as expensive as they needed high-quality equipment and changes in the work environment. They were also labelled as popular with absenteeism at work while they were slow in doing any task because of a lack of understanding of instructions. Above all, they required extra help (Maja *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, social attitudes that propagated stereotyping to PWD further excluded them from mainstream society (DPSA, 2013). The summary of how PWD were perceived and marginalised by society was illustrated a meeting that was held by three government departments in search of a decent solution on how these people should be handled by society. In a meeting held in 2013 on disabled people, the Department of Education, the Department of Women, Children and PWD (WCPD), and the Disabled People South Africa were present (DPSA, 2013).

The meeting agreed that PWD were a susceptible collection in civilisation. The meeting resolved not to prioritise PWD as members of the workforce. Furthermore, their experiences of human rights abuses were often not addressed despite being reported. The human rights abuses were accompanied by attitudes embroiled in economic practices and negative employers. Burtner (2021) noted that social attitudes mirrored the opinion that PWD were unhealthy, defective, and deviant. For centuries, Dominant boldness made them incompetent and powerless to partake in society and, therefore should depend on welfare or charitable organisations. The meeting outcome revealed that PWD were faced with harsh discriminatory practices, including marginalisation in the workplace (UN Enable, 2011). The INDS of 1997 (RSA, 1997, 2014), sighted various details and motives in unemployment and lesser degree of employment for PWD, among others, the loss of opportunities due to discrimination, semi-illiteracy intensities because of insufficiencies in biased practices by managers, historical discriminatory and unsuccessful labour laws, unreachable and uncooperative work surroundings, insufficient inaccessibility of facility for occupational therapy and training, solitariness to material; and an inexperienced humanity regarding disabilities. These practices hinder PWD' progress in life, as they cannot move freely with their lives (DPSA, 2013, affecting their health status as most of them suffer from major illnesses and cannot keep decent jobs. The meeting concluded that the good policies preserved in the Composition, meant to protect PWD from abuses, were not protecting them from human rights abuses (DPSA, 2013).

In countries like Brazil, all the discourses associated with these laws that were practised against PWD, such as disability bias, donated the nation's behaviour of inactive radical

participation. Organisations of PWD all over the country pressurised the National Executive, to replicate endorsed guidelines for enclosure. Despite all those barriers against them, citizenship privileges for PWD increased in Brazil in the last two decades until 2016 (Galery *et al.*, 2018). Women with disabilities were seldom promoted to higher positions, and this became worse for uneducated women no matter how experienced they were in their jobs. This did not encourage them to look for work (Bangani & Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2020).

This was because of these experiences and the perceptions they have. These barriers limit these people from accessing employment. The research methods used in this study were a test of ideas and theories of social life (Shuttleworth, 2016) of PWD. Stats SA (2014) revealed that in South Africa, the population of PWD was expanding rapidly, and the need for medication funds and medication services for these families was also increasing – an issue that can cripple the state financially (Grech, 2016). According to Bhorat and Khan (2018), the country is rated the highest rates in joblessness globally, but this is in contrast with the lowest labour force participation rate. Being unemployed means PWD are subjected to stress, depression, and mental illness. At the same time, government by providing medication for them at a cost – was draining the country's economy (World Report, 2011). This could be a lesson to governments to properly control their funds. In other words, the Department of Labour, by opening opportunities for jobs for PWD, would relieve the financial stress on the government (Enable, 2016).

By the same token, members of the community have the power to change the environment to be either positive or negative regarding certain issues involving society. They can also promote or restrain the abilities, rights, and needs of PWD. These consequences resulted in their exclusion, marginalisation, social isolation, discrimination, and alienation, which left them with no alternative but to live in the streets by begging to survive as they have nowhere to go (Naami, 2015). According to ILO (2018), the generation of incentives for PWD need to be employers' duties and institutions must promote the entry and retention of PWD in the labour market. All these initiatives, to be effective, will need to consider the diversity of situations to ensure that men with disabilities benefit equally. Disabled women are habitually deprived of equal opportunities of their civil rights, through reduced status that they qualified for through custom and ritual, or because of bias (Maja *et al.*, 2011). Although elderly women were experiencing lesser death rates but upper rates of long-lasting infections, they reported restrictions, usage of support, and an inordinate grade of incapacity, mainly among ADL groups (World Report, 2011). Disabled women brand up a considerable populace globally with 65-70% of them located in countryside (Gender Links for Equality & Justice, 2014).

7.3 Education System

This section discusses gender, education, and PWD' deprivation of fundamental human rights in education. For time immemorial, gender has been an issue that affected life chances of women from sub-standard of fitness after effects, and this is despite their marginalisation with discrimination including socio-economic status that is noticeable, As they endure disability bas and unemployment, they were branded as incapacitated and inactive (Ngwena *et al.*, 2017). Thus, their socio-economic status is noticeable. In the Middle East, evidence shows that disabled women have either no access or less access than disabled men to resources that may be obtained from national governments and non-governmental organisations, established to address the practical and strategic needs of PWD (Abu-Habib, 2010). Some countries in the world like Maldovo, are becoming progressive as far as women with disabilities are concerned. The UN Women Organisation of Moldova initiated a public local party-political enablement for female applicants with incapacities in advance to the 2019 resident selections, in corporation with the native "MOTIVATIE". These women were launching a Political Training Programme for women with disabilities so they could contest the 2019 local elections.

The consequences of these experiences should be further studied since PWD globally have long been excluded globally from education officially (Peters, 2003). The current research by UNESCO indicates that 1-2% of PWD receive education (IDDC 1999) in countries of the South, while the recent study by the World Bank estimations of PWD as one in five in deprivation globally. Therefore, paucity and absence in education are intertwined, so they incorporate PWD into a chronic cycle (Elwan, 1999). However, while exclusion from education and employment is unacceptable, it restricts women with disabilities from social contact, resulting in poor health status and low self-esteem. They miss opportunities such as income-generating prospects and promote further reduction that leads to more exposure to greater catastrophic situations (Yeo 2001:11).

Women with disabilities, while facing specific disadvantages in the education, health, employment, family and reproductive rights, are victims of violence and abuse and also working part-time with no decent jobs, then non-disabled women or men with disabilities (UN Enable, 2011).

This situation negatively affects their life chances at the workplace as they were frequently employed under intimidating and offensive circumstances. A study conducted by Akala (2019) from the University of Johannesburg on gender inequality on education in comparison with Kenya universities, revealed that higher education institutions in South Africa's systemic

gender inequality is perceived to be caused by underhand enrolments that are accompanied by course selection with categorical processes that were encompassed with an underprivileged career progression.

Documentation shows that African education inequalities have been an ongoing spectacle for generations. Evidence shows that inequalities in learning were happening from one generation to the next. Research revealed that people that were studied from age 65 upwards, 20,9% of non-disabled people were unsuccessful in achieving secondary school certificates in comparison to 25,1% and 38,6% of those with a without severe or grievous, individually, correspondingly, to those who were unsuccessful to attain secondary school (Steinmetz, 2006). Noticeable differences were also noted during comparison in the accomplishment of higher education. This disparity was revealed in the consensus of 2015 that 51.1% of disabled people from age 25 and above have acquired a junior degree and over, meanwhile 33% of people within the similar phase group gained a similar educational status (US Census Bureau, 2015).

These people depended on social grants as they have no other means of income. This was a concern as black South African women traditionally suffered “triple ostracism”, orchestrated by race, sexism and social class. These barriers forced South African women to fight more barriers to access higher education. This move was interpreted as the reason for South Africa to remain with gender inequality. One respondent verbalised her pain of being discriminated against with the quote below:

“I don’t know how many times I have been applying for a junior degree from these South African universities and turned down due to low marks in Matric while men with the same situation are encouraged to do an upgrading of their marks for entry.”

This is the same type of situation occurring in Kenya. Literature shows that even though the two countries have progressive policies that support gender equality and fairness, things were not the same on the ground. Many women were still excluded from higher education, specifically those from marginalised communities (Akala, 2019). Although progressive policies as gender equality and clauses with justice have been endorsed in both countries, the skewing of gender equality was still predominant in public higher institutions concerning throughput and completion rates, study areas and enrolment in postgraduate studies. In higher education, black women were still faced with hurdles of the social conditions they live under, which involve

poverty, racism, geographical positioning, and institutional culture, which is always associated with gender bias and sexism (Akala, 2019).

Evidence shows in The Human Rights and Mental Disability Rights International investigations such actions are still practiced. In countries such as Serbia, people with mental disabilities are subjected to torture, detention and confined in cages, electrocuted, and made guinea pigs in risky experiments without a consent form (Irish Times, 2019). It is suggested, under these conditions, the concept of disability must be analysed for clarity. Literature reveals that most Africans with disabilities are excluded from schools. School enrolment for them is estimated at no more than 5 -10%. Employer attitudes are the greatest obstacle for PWD in getting access to opportunities due to, among other reasons, a lack of education (Disability News Africa, 2014). In Soshanguve Township, PWD have been asking the government to build disability schools and universities to conduct research about themselves in vain.

Hussein and Dar (2019) noted that the problem for PWD concerning education required to be agreed upon in relation to barricade aspects regarding economic restrictions for paying fees to achieve a qualification. An estimation of 500,000 to 600,000 primary school children were out of school (DWCPD, 2013). Recently, parents of children with disabilities in Orange Farm criticised the officials and personnel in the Department of Education for letting them down by not introducing equal conduct for their children in these schools. Also, their children were not empowered enough on passable skills to develop independence for life that will enable them to fit in, in the employment sector, counting the lack of basic amenities, trained teachers on disabilities, and the set of courses. Parents were concerned about essential equipment for Excellency in abilities. Some learners were refused schooling while others were declined for admission to special schools based on their specific disability or learning needs. Some achieved graduation or leaving school at age 18, lacking sufficient reading and writing skills that would be required for employment purposes. In 2019, parents made a special appeal to President Ramaphosa to fast-track this process (Martinez, 2017).

A study on education showed that the percentage of PWD in the country accomplished a junior degree that rose in 2002 from 0, 3% to amid 1% and 2% in 2014 (The Centre for Social Development in Africa's (CSDA, 2014). These negative results affected PWD' their health status as did not receive them as good due to unemployment, poverty and the inaccessibility to health centres. The distinction of exceptional school guidelines from the previous laws of segregation, shaped a scheme of learning centres to diversify learning in disability in specialising to different forms such as educating blind, deaf or intellectually impaired students, while others catering for bodily incapacitated pupils were presented with the normal

educational programme, attached with medicinal and semi-medical facilities in their treatment of the learners'. As with the overall population, these schools were also racially segregated. It was also noted that PWD lack information in all spheres of life. The education system in South Africa is currently not skilling young PWD adequately to be ready for the open labour market or as owners of economically viable small enterprises (Khumela, 2014).

In other countries like Ethiopia, the education system of disabled children is implemented in a collective manner where the duties and responsibilities are shared among ministries for mutual accountability. Therefore, the shared gaps are shown in education service areas (World Bank & World Report, 2011). Respondents mentioned that life is hard for them without Matric as they stopped going to school at a primary level. Their testimonies in quotes below proved this.

According to Graham *et al.* (2014), Africans and coloured people are unlikely to be professional people due to previous segregation laws and policies on education that were not favourable for them and Africans including PWD. Hence, the main variance in schooling amid PWD and non-disabled people may be explained in terms of advanced age of the inhabitants conflicted by incapacities (CSDA, 2014). There, disparities in teaching, fitness and nourishment, entree to terrain and curtail prolific incomes, shared products and entree to amenities are persistently considerably shoddier for low-income and countryside families, particularly the disadvantaged and distinguished in contradiction with sex, oldness, incapacity and society (Graham *et al.*, 2014).

7.4 Land System in South Africa Pertaining to Women with Disabilities

This section discusses how land system affected gender equality. Research confirmed that, globally rural women agonise extensively on gender-based discernment in regulations, levies and application due to plain disparities in their capacity to right of entry, controller, individual utilisation of land and boundaries for contribution in management at all levels of land-living supremacy (Daley *et al.*, 2013). The land rights of women and justice for gender are the vital support in the elevation and security of females' rights in pastoral arrears.

When women finally gain ownership of land, they are frequently faced with discrimination of property rights and have no control of its production or incomes which are essential for farming (Deere *et al.*, 2011: 4710). In most cases the land will be of small plots that have to be rented out with frequently poor quality" (FAO 2011: 23)9.

As women have their own rights on land, they are carefully connected to it because of their position in society due to their lawful birth and assets rights, their location in family land and

marital law, and their contribution in community. Women also make available accessibility to most significant quality in agricultural farming cultures, land, in the context of women provision of a substantial portion of agronomic work. Their land rights are an import factor of their enablement in countryside areas and have a deep reflection on inferences on females' capability of relishing in rehearsal of public and party-political human rights, community and commercial rights, including outflowing deficiency and social isolation (Daley *et al.*, 2013).

Evidence shows that it is an uncommon behaviour for native PWD to be in possession of land while being not in possession of land have a great impacted in them. Having no ownership to tribal land and appropriation of land which interrupts accessibility to honourable livings, inhibits their actions from working out their communal and traditional rights. The terrain is restrained as the key property of traditional attachment to their native group. The facts about retrieving the right land on indigenous PWD is restricted and distributed throughout the Global Labour Organisation (Rivas Verlade, 2015).

The first African Consultation was convened for African Decade PWD, and the conference extended for a decade. Conference's aim was to include PWD so they could gain land. The conference was also to be included in all sectors of society and be engaged in full participation on equality and empowerment in the activities of the African continent. This inclusion was slow that in most areas of PWD that were not visible. These were restricting blockades for PWD from contributing in civilisation to be equal to others. Hence, they are invisible in the social community. These problems lead to extreme deficiency and augmented dependence, limited contribution, and omission to society (African Union Commission (AUC), 2010-2019). The significant part that while men and with disabilities are marginalised, women are triple discriminated against as women in general, as black women, and women disabled.

Rivers Verlade (2015) gave a summary of the conference of the land right of women held in Geneva, Switzerland from 25-27 June 2012 pertaining to gender on land issues. The conference brought many critical issues of importance that faced current womenfolk relative to the pleasure of having land privileges to surface all and provided leadership in legislators and politicians, including civilian societal and cultural organisations and former investors, to provide sustenance to actual application and application of laws, policies, and platforms for veneration, defend and accomplish females' rights to land and additional creative incomes. The ownership of land could be assumed to comprise of countryside, marshland, meadowland, and fishery, forestry, including gathering and shooting terrains. Right through the conference, "women's rights to land", was historically unspoken to and analytically grounded globally to the agenda of civil rights (Rivers Verlade, 2015).

Recommendations were that women need to obtain an independence for commercial and governmental relationships and rural women felt secured with the land rights as they are crucial for the improvement of their position politics, and to increase self-confidence and maturity, which would sustainable their livelihood. Literature shows that many G20 countries, recommended the requirement for all-inclusive and complete policies that would address the need for the labour market to enforce the law, which will enforce employers to work with and PWD in harmony. Promoting the labour market addition of PWD entails mainstream and, where desirable, specialised services, as well as stimulating an environment that is more favourable to decent work for PWD (Rivas Verlade, 2015). Evidence shows that PWD suffer from high stress levels that complicated mental illness (World Report, 2011) due to discrimination, marginalisation and health.

Healthcare among indigenous PWD

Writings disclosed that the inferior stages of SES have steadily remained associated with deprivation of fitness and lesser eminence of natural life. The presence of a disability can contributes to emotive variability for people and their households taking care of them. Persons with a disability and their relations are in danger due to lack of fitness and quality lifestyle and with consequences if their condition of their disability distresses their standpoint in socioeconomic situation. Evidence on disability and health maintenance proposes that incapacitated persons developed augmented obstructions in receiving health management due to having anxieties to transport, communication, and insurance problems (Drainoni *et al.*, 2006).

An exploratory qualitative research approach was adopted to equate with the three authorities of Australia, Mexico and New Zealand. Methods of collecting figures were included. The comparison between three countries was over healthcare and security of native inhabits with incapacities. It was carried out to instigate indigenous PWD regarding their access to expectations of health care.

This was in addition to the disabling barriers that followed the scuffling with parliamentary decrees which were impinging on them. Their opinions were compared to those of health professionals, government officials, and Combined Nation States. The conclusions were that the departments misconstrued and inadequately provided the health requirements of native PWD. The special preventive care that they deserved was found too challenging. Hence, marginalisation arose as the conceivable main cause of the sickness among native inhabits with incapacities.

The conference's recommendations were that regulations, strategies, and drivers must acknowledge the privileges of proprietorship including custody of native PWD and traditionally occupied properties. This was to support the standards permitted such as taking prior research an informed consent, to guarantee native PWD that they would have equivalent, protection including bearable privileges to land, and some prolific incomes irrespective of their matrimonial or any status, having to acknowledge the traditional and mystical meaning of the land-dwelling for native inhabitants. This was to endorse the active contribution of womenfolk in choices regarding the occupancy arrangements by means of their accustomed institutes. This also includes the counting in shared occupancy systems, implement where necessary and temporary special measures. All was done to upsurge the volume of females to be fully involved in making decisions and ascendancy of tenancy schemes.

7.5 The Wage Gap

This section discusses gender disparities in salaries noticeable among disabled men and women. Two different studies were conducted pertaining pay gap, evidence from both studies show that PWD' unemployment rates remain high with less absorption charges including contribution tolls in relation to grownups (Bhorat & Goga, 2013; Ntuli,2007). For example, a study conducted by Ntuli (2007) on salary disparities revealed that most gender wage gaps were calculated within the gap based on unkind delivery using quartile versions aimed at the 1995 – 2004 period.

Bhorat and Goga (2013) concur with Ntuli's findings of percentile reversions were used in a cruel way as compensation in variances among two groupings of individuals. Gender pay gap was also larger at the bottom of the distribution than at the top. Firstly, the pay gap had amplified in its age in quantity since women were at the higher end of the dissemination with the challenges of more discernment. Secondly, the study revealed that there was continuous discrimination accounts for most of the gap between the 20 and 50th period in each sample divided into equal size. Thirdly, there was a negative or a complimentary inexplicable contribution related to an affirmative policy shockwave for abetted labour including an official segment service assisted in thinning the opening among the 20 and 50th equal sizes of data. Furthermore, data was considered an opening of judgement for informal service through delivery. Favourable donation effects started largely to employees with advanced learning of specialised workforce, communal sector personnel and workforce in the official division. In post-apartheid South Africa, the gender disparity gap for Africans in using the returning purify variations to elucidate inexplicable contributions that were related to various factors. For

example, the dearth of influence to women marks political decision-making the world over (Bhorat & Goga, 2013).

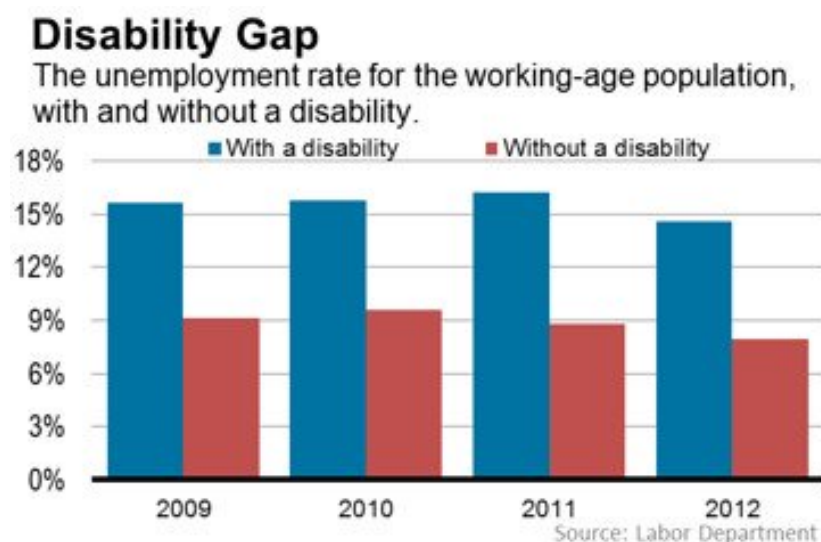
We are never meant to be equal to men the system makes sure despite our efforts making sure we are as educated and qualified as men nothing can change our less salaries to theirs to equal to theirs.

We schooled and qualified with him together at college and look for employment and we were luckily to employed by the same Firm when I ask him three times about his salary and told him mine he pretends not hear me and disappeared I gathered later that men earn higher salaries than women he doesn't want to tell me.

Women with disabilities continue to receive lower wages than men. Even though the Disabled Women's Organisations and other organisations are fighting for equal rights, they do not seem to be enthusiastic to fight for equality for women with disabilities (Trustadottir, [1990] 1977). Figure 7.2 shows the unemployment rate for the working-age population.

Disability Wage Gap

Figure 7.2: Disability gap



In a study conducted on an investigation of 15 developing countries in the world using the World Health Survey (WHS), it was discovered that PWD have inferior rates of employment as compared to non-disabled persons. The major disability slit was found among people with several infirmities PWD inferior rates in employment as opposed with people having no in those nine countries. Across countries, disability gaps in employment rates are more often found for

men than women. The largest disability gap in employment rates was found in people with several disabilities. In other nations having disability gap, the conclusions came from a logistic putrefaction that was noticeable, revealing that the disparity marked amid PWD, and non-disabled did not give much of a difference (Mizunoya, & Mitra, 2013). According to Mizunoya, while disability occurrence is complex in the developing countries, there is limited information known about incapacity and labour force practiced in this perspective. It is because of the absence of eminence of data on disability.

Evidence continues showing that data for PWD is discriminatory in the work environment. This is irrespective of where its entrée to work as PWD are seldom become full time employees. They also miss opportunities while they are not many opportunities coming their way. This is with respect to of abundant conditions that they have to endure where there's lot of disrespect for their privileges including requirements for accommodation. Writings disclosed that, although equivalent right of entry to occupation has amended in the course of years, the work including pay - gaps endure in actuality in the European Union. Data demonstrations that women and PWD in cooperation were analysed distinctly, linger to be faced with judgment in service, irrespective of it having relationship to accessing services or equality in payment for the same work. Therefore, 29.5% of women with disabilities were in danger of paucity and social rejection as opposed to 27.4% of males with disabilities and women with "austere" disabilities were even though they were severely wedged with 33.9% of deficiency and damaged to social segregation related to 34.2% of males with "austere" incapacity. Consequently, the position of womenfolk and teenagers with incapacities were therefore not as of inferior quality as opposed to those of non- disabled women, nonetheless poorer as opposed to of their manly peers. This state of affairs was because of an amalgamation of issues, together with stigma and discrimination, and unpaid work (European Disability Forum, [n.d]).

What came out of this research is that the challenges of women with disabilities and their perceptions are not clearly or adequately stated below EU procedures. It was recommended that in ensuring that none of them left behind, the EU must educate the gender disparity gap of payment amongst women with disabilities, in contrast to men with disabilities and non-disabled women (European Disability Forum, n.d)

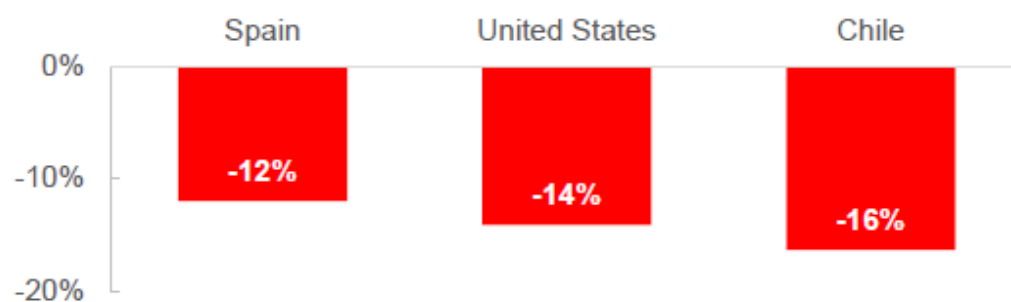
Disabled women were more deprived as opposed to incapacitated men at work. In the developed countries the inequality that are existing among women were shown by the gender differences is in areas such as income, employment, and education as it is consistent, although not as much as in the developing countries (Human Rights Council International, 2013).

Women with disabilities have lower incomes from employment due to often working part-time jobs, having less education, and ill-health. Therefore, gender relations are power relations, which meant that to be a “woman” were to be powerless, silent, submissive, and accommodating without being shielded by labour market due to its inefficiencies that resulted from several interrelating barriers.

Literature shows that organisations contributed in empowering women to be engaged in strategic roles in society. The crucial element in the starring role was with relations of belief, devotion, and affection of blind women organisations including the portion of their level of efficiency (Frohman & Swift, 2013). Cornwall (2014) attested that women can organise and create electorates and associations to prosper in bringing new changes to others be able to practice authorising special effects of organisation. Berghs (2016) noted that subjugation of PWD happens when individualism, communal or mystical situation of what consents “Ubuntu”, our shared humankind is endangered by insensitive activities that bring destruction using methods of mistreatment, deprivation, or fierceness. Respondents expressed the differences in treatment between salaries in the interviews. They felt they were deprived of their obligatory rights between PWD and those without disability in terms of their salaries while they were doing the same work and having same qualifications while there were differences between the disabled black men and disabled black women and disabled whites.

Figure 7.3 follows below.

Figure 7.3: Wage gap amongst disabled and non-disabled persons in the three different countries from 2012-2013



Source: National Statistical Institute of Spain, 486 Erickson *et al.* (2014) 487 and Ministry of Social Development of Chile

By the historical data investigation revealed that in South Africa PWD were less motivated to look for jobs as they knew employment opportunities were unavailable for them. Seemingly, the encounters of looking for occupation have been going on for long periods of time, as people

without disabilities would find work over a period of three years (Graham *et al.*, 2014). Even if they were employed, they would be faced with challenges of discrimination. Apparently, the under-representation of PWD from in labour force is common and constant. Unemployment in South Africa continues to be a thorn in the flesh for PWD as it confines their abilities from meeting the expenses of transportation, buying medication, assistive devices and equipment that is required to manage daily activities. Moreover pay-gap inequalities are changing and continue to impinge on them. Those who were employed and having abilities to assist in pursuing and securing employment, in turn, yields to an endless cycle of harassment in the workplace (DSD, 2015). In addition, disability is often equalised with inability at work. In the end, these factors severely impacted on the unemployment of PWD in South Africa (South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC), 2018).

Furthermore, the provision of assistive technology (AT) services could be of assistance to PWD in overcoming social and environmental barricades in the workplace to simplify employment outcomes. Nevertheless, there is less known about the types of customers receiving assistive technology services and who is supposed to benefit from these services in vocational rehabilitation (Bam, 2018; Huang *et al.*, 2002).

Despite marginalisation and discrimination, PWD in South Africa suffer from stressful situations, anxiety, depression, helplessness, and hopelessness due to years of unemployment, they also suffer from poor health and progression in education with less economic attainment leading to poverty as compared to non-disabled people. Apart from exclusion, social isolation, and marginalisation, they were restricted to many opportunities social gatherings with others and attending workshops and conferences on disabilities (Ngwena *et al.*, 2017), and to social life in general. The UN Security Council acted universally to adopt resolution 2475, on June 20, 2019. It called upon member states and parties to protect PWD in conflict situations and ensure that they have access to justice, basic services, and unimpeded humanitarian assistance as there was still a long way to go to ensure the rights of PWD in particularly.

In other countries, although there were some measures implemented in terms of progression pertaining PWD in calming them, respect and protection were not yet maintained in the country in relation to them, both during struggles and daily. At this point in time, the ongoing violence and discrimination continue unabated. Furthermore, assumptions may be made about them by the non-disabled people that they may not be cognisant of their rights as employees who were not considered. This implied that some non-disabled people do not understand that the majority of PWD were quite aware of their situation (Munyi, 2012). According to Borat and

Khan (2018), South Africa grade the countries with higher unemployment rate globally but perceived as the utmost as opposed to other frugalities in the county, as such, this is with it lowest labour force participation rate in labour dynamism.

Since it has been highlighted that the providing of the government of medication to PWD at a price is strenuous for economy maintained (World Report, 2011), this should be a lesson to governments to properly control their funds. In other words, the Department of Labour, by opening opportunities for jobs for PWD, would relieve the financial stress on government (Unable, 2016). By the same token, members of the community have the power to change the environment to be either positive or negative about certain issues involving society. They can also promote or restrain the abilities, rights, and needs of PWD. These consequences resulted in their exclusion, marginalisation, social isolation, discrimination, and alienation, which left them with no alternative, but to resort to the streets as beggars to survive, as they have nowhere to go (Naami, 2015. According to ILO (2018), the generation of incentives for PWD need to be employers' duties and institutions to promote the entry and retention of PWD in the labour market.

For all these initiatives to be effective, they need diversity of situations faced disabilities ensure that men with disabilities benefit equally. Women living with disabilities are often deprived of equivalent pleasure to civil rights, by quality of their reduced position that they qualify for by institution and convention, (Maja *et al.*, 2011). Although elderly women's numbers are low for death rates but higher in numbers of continuing illnesses, they mention restrictions in the usage of assistance, and a larger grade of frailty, in particularly amongst ADL groupings (World Report, 2011). Women with disabilities' statistics in the world it estimated at 65-70% (Gender Links for Equality & Justice, 2014).

The reasons for women to have less access to land rights and other natural resources is because of discrimination which is the deep-seated root against them. Patriarchy is another which is universal and omnipresent and expressed through conventional ways, insights, boldness, and standards. These behaviours generate authority, radicalism, and financial restrictions to the progression of women. Patriarchy and entrenched gender typecasts are extensive and function at all ranks, from households to indigenous communities, from management to larger authority, from civic institutes to civic cultures and rustic bodies

7.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the Experiences of Men and Women with Disabilities in Post-Apartheid South Africa: A Gendered Perspective. It further discussed the experiences of unemployment

among adults in new dispensation, the differences in these experiences between PWD in the workplace showing anxieties inequalities that were not preserved, the consequences or outcomes of these experiences and perceptions for PWD, education system, Healthcare among indigenous PWD, land system pertaining women with disabilities in South Africa. Wage gap and disability disparities.

Chapter Eight

Research Conclusions, Main Findings and Recommendations

8.1 Outline

The aim of this thesis was to investigate the experiences of unemployed physically indigenous people living with disabilities in Soshanguve Township, South Africa. The chapter gives an outline to all seven chapters, an outline of concrete consideration of the literature the theoretical framework, with regards to people living with disabilities, the validation for the research design, and conclusions with references to the problem statement and research design in conjunction with the integration of the outcomes. The research, conclusions, main findings and recommendations were based on the data analysed from the previous chapter. Conclusions result from the answers pulled from the study “the experiences of unemployed physically indigenous people living with disabilities in Soshanguve Township, South Africa”. The study was conducted in parts of Soshanguve Township, Pretoria in Gauteng Province.

The assumptions were based on the resolutions of the research and its implications, clarified questions and outcomes of the study. The implications of these findings and the resultant recommendations are also explained. Recommendations are based on the conclusions and purpose of the study.

8.2 Restoration of the Exploration Queries and Aim of the Study

The justification for reflecting on the study questions, objectives, and aims of the research is to first run by again for the reader to get essence resolution of the research. Furthermore, the method allows the investigator to authenticate stipulation if every research queries, aims, and purposes were efficiently restored and accomplished. Therefore, the research was showed by the succeeding all-encompassing research queries:

- To what extent were encounters faced by PWD changed their lives?
- What were the existing opportunities for PWD in Soshanguve Township?
- To what extent were the differences in experiences of PWD shaped by gender?
- How do PWD cope with their everyday challenges?

The research questions mentioned above were subsequently verbalised in the study aim, which was detailed as follows:

The aim of this study: The study aimed at examining the practices of redundant disabled black South African males and females to develop and improve current information pertaining programme planning of strategies and interferences that were meant to lessen the dilemma of

incapacitated people. In digging deeper, the investigator concluded that the research was effectively responded to, as the research queries have been redressed, and goals stated in study have been achieved.

8.3 Outline for Each Chapter

Episode one: This chapter presented an introduction and location of the research following what was dispensed in the chapter– the problem statement, the aim and the objectives of the study, research questions that gave guidance to the research process; the meaning of the study, the motivation for delimitations; the theoretical and practical significance, and research methodology. Qualitative narrative research approach. The chapter clarified the key terms and concluded by giving an overview of the whole study.

Episode two presented reviewed collected works and theoretic background. It presented a detailed combination of various literature sources on the experiences of PWD in Soshanguve Township, Tshwane. The theoretical framework underpinning the study was also explored, namely, symbolic interactionist theory with other theories relevant to it.

Chapter three presented a detailed research methodology based on qualitative research, a narrative research approach, deductive and inductive approaches, research design, data collection, data analysis, and the verification thereof. The chapter concludes by giving ethical aspects to be followed when dealing with PWD.

Chapter four: The section delivered a summary of deficiency in employment opportunities for PWD and any opportunity in Soshanguve Township. Although the findings identified a few jobs which could be accessed, for the majority of PWD, employment was inaccessible. Even SASSA, which was supposed to look after their needs, could assist them in meeting those needs. The South Government Training Agency (SITA) which sponsored PWD for training programmes to get a skills or qualifications and coming programmes was hard to reach should focus on employing these people. The objectives stated above have not all been achieved.

Chapter five: This chapter presented various challenges of PWD in Soshanguve Township Tshwane. PWD have many challenges of unemployment, poverty and illiteracy in the and post-apartheid South Africa. They remained unemployed from one decade to another due to discrimination by employers who refused to employ them. In the workplace, they were discriminated against, stigmatised, marginalised, deprived of accommodation and also excluded from society with no access to basic human needs such as education, medication,

housing, employment and such. They suffered from chronic diseases and mental illness. The most significant challenge for them all was not having a voice in the government during pre- and post-apartheid South Africa, and that they were silenced indefinitely. The literature revealed their exclusion as having major economic consequences in addition to social reimbursement business costs that were triggered by loss in production and manpower prospective (DFID, 2000; Morgon *et al.*, 2014).

Chapter six This chapter presented different stages of mechanical survival strategies utilised by PWD managing their stressors such as emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping, coping with religion, avoidance, maintaining the status quo, coping with defeat, disposition, and listed the benefits of optimism. These coping strategies are briefly summarised below:

Coping through religion: Religious coping was undertaken by PWD by using opinions or actions “to facilitate problem-solving to prevent or alleviate the negative emotional consequences of stressful life circumstances” (Koenig, Pargament, & Nielsen, 1998:513). Evidence shows that religious coping comprises some features of conviction and devoutness, agreed upon as a wisdom of denotation, drive, and confidence (Moreira-Almeida, Nasello, & Koenig, 2007)., that are in association with Deity or deities, environment, or force of life. Spirituality, therefore, can be understood in terms of searching for spiritual connection with self, and the cosmos (Cadell, Regehr, & Hemsworth, 2003).

Coping with distraction or avoidance strategy: PWD coped through distraction or avoidance strategy in making the greatest of their innovative setting. PWD avoided reviewing and remembering the hurting memories they might have suffered during their lifetime. Howitz (2018) noted that coping through evasion is an indication of intense distress.

Coped through the status quo: Some PWD accepted the situation and coped with the status quo. This was after using their best methods to cope by keeping their unchanging situation as it was, as they avoided learning to adapt to a new change. These methods were also a way of avoiding their devastating conditions and unemployment situation that the government could not change. They were eligible for protection under UNCRP, 2012 and EEA No. 55 of 1998, confirming acclaims that PWD remained deprived of opportunities and continued to be excluded amidst national legislations and international treaties that were meant to protect them (Watermeyer, 2013).

Coping with defeat: Unemployed PWD expressed their feelings of defeat after they had been looking for jobs, houses, and the increments of the disability grant in vain, and losing the small businesses that they created to cope with poverty, stress and depression, with no backup from the government. They voiced their frustrations towards the government, who did not reply to their requests. They felt they had nowhere to go and ask for employment as there was nothing functional in the township, as they were living in hardships and challenging situations. They also felt there was nothing they could do to save their situation, and also felt there was no one who could rescue them from their misery until the government acknowledged them.

Coping through optimism: Some PWD tried very hard to cope with optimism by trying to forget about stressors and think positively. They created small businesses to acclimate to deprivation and other stressors, such as discrimination at work. Some PWD were optimists, believing things would be alright, while others were pessimistic and sceptical with optimism, believing it wouldn't help without planning. Milona 2020, contends that although optimism is a form of "being positive and hope," it cannot be ignored that optimism requires active planning or imagining as persons with expectations that things might go well; it would not help without actually planning on how to bring their desires to function. Some variations are:

Coping with optimism and hope: PWD had to cope with optimism and hope, thinking positively about the situation and making one feel comfortable about themselves as optimism enables an individual to acclimatise to hardships and challenging circumstances (Affleck *et al.*, 2002). Some PWD couldn't cope as they were living in adversities and devastating conditions. It was hard for them to think positively in their situations.

Coping through dispositional optimism: After cooling off from their stressors and seeing that there was no hope for assistance to improve their situation, some PWD put their minds together and coped with dispositional optimism that the disability organisation which they have created in the township would hopefully bring life to them once it is on its feet as it would keep them busy. Although they were despondent about the bleak future ahead of them,, some PWD were still relying on dispositional optimism that if they could do something positive, their future would be brighter.

Difficult experiences in coping in Soshanguve Township: Some PWD experienced difficulties in coping strategies after losing their jobs and small businesses with no backup, missing job opportunities and lacking income with a social grant which was not enough to manage their families. They couldn't cope with the predicament which made them found

themselves sitting at home since they could not manage their families. They were resentful with the government and blamed the inadequate policies.

Chapter 7: This chapter narrated issues pertaining to how gender shapes disability PWD and is summarised same way as the previous. Disabled women had multiple disadvantages as opposed to males with incapacities in the workplace because they also must look at the household chores. Research revealed that while PWD have no control of their lives as decisions were taken for them, women are worse off than men as they were not even consulted for anything. Abu-Habib, (1997), the conditions that women are positioned by society are incomprehensible as they are complicated to understand. This because there is limited literature that is published on women particularly in disability and gender in combination. Also, the statistical material in this area is minimal this because there are few women in other countries such as Yemen (amongst others) who have little contribution in the community. Even when collecting data is insufficient on areas such as education, health, economic activities. In general, women in Yemen are not much visible on the public scene Abu-Habib, (1997).

This situation causes women to always be denigrated by men with disabilities as it perceived as gender power relations that means being a 'woman' she is a subordinate because she is powerless, silent, submissive, and accommodating without being shielded by the labour market, due to its inefficiencies resulting from a few interrelating barriers. This was how power play changed gender issues to PWD issues. In the developed countries, the inequality that still exists between men and women was shown by the gender differences in areas such as income, employment, and education, as cost is consistent although not as much as in the developing countries (Human Rights Council International, 2013). The literature shows that female organisations contribute a vivacious role in assisting to empower women. The main starring role that keeps these relationships of trust, loyalty and love binding women/organisations together as part of their story of effectiveness is unifying (Frohmader & Swift 2013).

8.4 Sociological Contribution of the Study

This section discusses the contribution suggested for the study. The study is beneficial for developing a new scientific body of knowledge on “unemployment of PWD. This research is an eye opener to the government in terms of the construction, intercessions for plans and policies for workable resolutions to the challenges experienced by black PWD in the townships, and their coping strategies in post-apartheid South Africa. The research offers hope that PWD would be recognised and fully accepted by society soon, as society would have been fully

informed at an early age about the nature of various disabilities, particularly about the disfigurement of the body, towards creating a culture of acceptance and inclusion.

Egbunu (2014) noted that “the human person is the most valuable possession that God created”. Society’s limited awareness of disability highlighted its ignorance and the fear of the unknown regarding the disfigurement of the body, its uniqueness, and society’s reluctance to accept and include them. Hence, the negative attitudes toward these people are unnecessary. It is also hoped that for the unemployed PWD, the experience could be used as a lesson by non-disabled people of their situation, the government and the private sector. Knowing about disabilities is an excellent contribution to policymakers (SAHR, 2017).

This approach could also assist in formulating policies and procedures that could provide the process of working conditions far less traumatic for PWD, leading to a more positive approach. Through this learning, the government may be able to contribute to sustainable projects to eradicate hunger and starvation as in other countries such as Ghana. The study is also a revelation to the public and private sectors and other relevant departments such Labour, SASSA, Education, Health, and the South African Police Service (SAPS) to conduct further research on the unemployment of PWD and how unemployment cripples them. The study opens doors for restructuring policies, for labour laws, for employers, and for society to be more knowledgeable about the conditions of PWD, and to lessen misconceptions and misinterpretations about disability.

The study contributes to Disability Studies for young researchers to grow so that a Disability Research Institute can be established in Africa. The research encourages the discipline of sociology and other disciplines in Africa and the SADEC region to research disabilities, as disability has no boundaries. South Africans have a great opportunity to research disabilities as they will draw from the history of apartheid that created many disabled people among blacks. This contribution also extends to the African communities and families that ill-treated these people to ease up on beliefs such as superstitions, myths, and beliefs to create “ubuntu” around them.

The narratives that arose in this study are life-threatening and a warning to society and those in power. These narratives are not only a threat to PWD but also to their families. They are not challenging our own understanding as researchers, but an understanding of the whole world to think deeper about the situation of PWD in terms of their living conditions. PWD are people who have an inherent ability to be effective, efficient and productive in all that they do, had they been given a chance. Anyone can be disabled at any time, and that is life. There is a limitation

that exists pertaining unemployment of PWD, which is the lack of sense of life-transforming power in humanity that has not yet been applied, which, if it can be applied positively and the focus is on it, can bring immediate changes in the perception of PWD, and the term disability can be history.

8.5 Areas for Further Research

Research is needed to change the term disability to be interpreted from an African perspective.

The study is sensitive and unique, as it is about the black physically unemployed PWD. The literature was limited on this area of physically unemployed PWD such that researchers, particularly Sociologists, are urged to do more investigations on the unemployment of PWD as disability is broad.

Statistics of disability research should be made available in Africa, particularly in South Africa, because of casualties from the apartheid system, which left millions of indigenous people with various disabilities. Recently many PWD have been involved in crime in the country, which is uncontrollable. Without statistics researchers will have difficulty in getting data on the actual number as data is absent (Mitra, 2010).

Therefore, research is needed to find the effects of the DG on welfare, as there is insufficient information known particularly by middle-income and developing countries as an extraordinary, while PWD lack financial support that is essential service for their families (Kelly, 2013).

Disability is a broad, and silent condition, therefore, more research is essential to raise awareness and to find other hidden arrears, such as attitudes and others, and how can it be overcome.

At this stage, it is not known precisely how and which category of PWD are oppressed by paucity and lack of resources, and how social protection measures may have affected them, and how social protection measures may have affected them (Hannas-Hancock & Mckenzie, 2017).

It is suggested that specific research on the poverty-disability linkage should be conducted as it is urgently required (Hannas-Hancock & Mckenzie, 2017).

Research the social and economic effects of the DG in South Africa's welfare system as there is minimal information known about this area, particularly as this is observed by middle-income

and developing countries as extraordinary, while PWD lack social support and essential services with their families (Kelly, 2013)

Ongoing research is essential for increasing public understanding of disability as it is broad and to assist with the information on disability policies and programmes, and efficiently allocating resources.

More research is needed on disability awareness, not just about their lives, but also about the social barriers, such as persisting societal attitudes, and how these can be overcome (World Report, 2011).

Research in this area is urgently needed for South Africa and other LMICs as it is currently not understood how the resources and cost allocations that are needed to develop inclusive education, health and supporting services (e.g. transport) can be done, as this provides some reduction in the economic vulnerability of PWD (South African Department of Social Development, 2016).

The extent of coping strategies in PWD seems to be blurred and complex particularly in areas such as coping strategies. These people as they are excluded from be sponsored society are hard to reach and attending expensive programmes may show poor attendance unless they can be sponsored. This is an area that needs to be properly observed as they are still discriminated against in all spheres of life and deprived of human rights and basic needs. It is perceived there is more hidden information than what is reflected here that can be revealed of their actual ways of coping with their situation. More changes in their economic situation need to be made to assist them to attend these programmes.

Households with different types of disabilities (any degree or severity) have income levels that are significantly lower than households without PWD and lie far behind the national average wage (Stats SA 2014).

Despite the significant progress in expanding coverage of PWD, even this prime coverage has existing gaps and is focused primarily on Africa and Asia. There are important gaps that are difficult to eradicate mainly because of limited resources such as the weak economy and lack of social protection benefits.

The literature shows that currently an estimated 55 per cent have less access to systems of social security benefits for PWD globally. The developing countries, including Africa, are worse

off. Meanwhile these social protection coverage gaps have been mostly determined by limited resources, hence, it is important to identify options to produce financial spaces to extend social protection. How to identify these options need further research.

PWD are a small population group and are varied in nature, and so are their experiences and behaviours. They are also diverse along their lines of barriers and costs, and their situation is defined by their incapacity, sex and environmentally friendly aspects. Very little is known about which PWD are affected by diseases at this stage and which type of diseases and life-expectancy they have. It is suggested that further accurate research is conducted (Hannas-Hancock 7 Mackenzie, 2017).

8.6 Summary of the Recommendations (For Improving Policy and Practice)

It is recommended that:

In observing some of disability policies that have not been implemented for years, it is suggested that these policies should be urgently implemented as they affect PWD' lives. Policymakers, service providers, the public and private sectors to investigate disability as grave matter, as disability is a human rights and development issue. By the issue of disability not taken into consideration, further excludes them from society. The exclusion deprives them from all-inclusive development of disability equality perspective of inclusion and disability policy, despite the political will to restore the inequity of the past (DPSA, 2013). Therefore, compulsory training should be a priority for the relevant government structures to empower them on disability awareness, and to be able to create good policies relevant to PWD' social protection benefit programmes.

Education on disability should start from the primary level to alleviate the fear of the unknown. Compulsory training programmes should be also encouraged for employers and the relevant staff employees to broaden their knowledge on disability issues and attitudes and alleviate disability bias.

Several guidelines and plans must be careful to redress the difficult of PWD.

The historical background of disability should take into account when handling the disability bias pertaining to PWD.

Integrating schools among "normal children" with disabled children should take place as soon as possible to bridge the gap of ignorance and separateness. The integration will help in learning about body differences and behaviour. The present minister in dealing with disabilities,

needs to be reminded about the review of policy integration process passed in the Government Gazette in 2005. This was announced in parliament by the then Minister of Education, Minister Naledi Pando.

This integration should start at pre-school and continue to matric, so children get used to the differences of disability at a young age avoiding the fear of the unknown. Teachers are also encouraged to do a course on disability to eliminate stereotyping and negative actions through sensitivity programmes at schools, such as those for music, drama, and films.

Social science researchers, particularly those from of sociology, should make disability a priority since it has vast theoretical and practical knowledge that needs to be disseminated. This is to educate society to avoid exclusion and alleviate the burden on PWD of being branded with a disability bias (discrimination, attitudes, stigmatisation, marginalisation, alienation, name-calling, isolation and dehumanisation).

Black disabled employers should be promoted and integrated with white employers, working together in making decision processes rather than whites who make decisions for black disabled employees without them being involved. Employers should be encouraged to attend compulsory training on disability. This will improve their negative mind-set on how they perceive PWD in an employment environment, thus reducing beliefs, superstition, myths, discrimination, and attitudes on PWD.

The disability theorists and indigenous writers of the southern countries are edged to write on disabilities in a Southern or African perspective, to oppose the theorists of the North, find an acceptable definition of disability from an African perspective, and address disability and impairment.

SASSA or the DSD are encouraged to provide adequate support and resources to PWD to deal with the challenges they face effectively and efficiently. Expressive and spiritual provision needs to be always available for families with disabilities as they are looking after those with severe conditions without financial support.

Other recommendations are:

To observe the recognition of the National Day for Disability, which is Disability Awareness Day that takes place each year between the 3rd of November the 3rd of December. It should be announced countrywide, and transport and food be provided to attend the event. This day

should be made as noteworthy as the HIV/AIDS and Cancer Days, respectively, which are reflected on the calendar.

To educate society about disability through programmes, workshops, media and drama regarding disabilities of various types. Furthermore, information should be disseminated properly throughout the country in all eleven official languages through pamphlets as little known about disability. This will alleviate the shame and embarrassment among these people and their families and discourage negative stereotype.

To empower PWD by placing them in strategic positions in their communities and encourage communities to intermingle with them through formal cultural gatherings, such as sport, weddings, and birthday parties and cultural ceremonies to build confidence and unity to reduce disability bias. This is perceived as a great tool for reducing stigmatisation and creating social support for PWD. This would also act as a milestone in achieving respect, belongingness, recognition and dignity.

It is advised that all medical doctors, social workers and medical staff should be involved in the workshops or conferences for continuous learning for professional points (C.P.D.) on disabilities.

The disability researchers, indigenous writers and all researchers from the southern countries are advised to give their own indigenous explanations on disability and write from a southern perspective to give their interpretations about disability as opposed to the Northern theories and interpretations. They should find a word suitable word for disability and impairment for indigenous PWD that will be treated with respect.

The following specific areas need to be addressed:

Redundancy: The following options are advisable to be considered by the government in renewing the country: economic growth, education, work-integrated learning, labour market policy, training programmes, health, public sector employment, employment incentives and subsidies, and entrepreneurial schemes (National Treasury, 2011:18-26).

Trade and industry: it is suggested that South Africa to carefully consider development guidelines encouraging to financial progress and workforce response.

Instruction: Work-based learning should be accentuated in our prospectus at all stages of our training scheme. This method ensures that children are completely prepared for applied labour ready for introduction at a time when they will be graduating from the higher education level.

Employment market programme: Since the country consumes one of the greatest liberal dynamic labour fair guidelines on broadsheet; it requires to be positioned it into exploitation to be efficiently implemented.

Educational programmes: Professional preparation programmes for schemes such as drilling drivers are necessary as they contribute significant part in the financial advancement of the nation.

Government organisations and employment: The country has carefully taken good initiative in embracing construction projects of handling the task of joblessness.

Occupation inducements and grants: Income or occupation subventions must be utilised as inducements that its goal is to fast-track work construction and increase occupation.

Commercial structures: Business schemes endorse services in youth to produce and accomplish supportable and competent productions talented enough of bringing lasting occupations and services for development.

8.7 Conclusion

This chapter concludes by furnishing summaries, which include synopses of all sections, the examination procedure and method that was engaged. Finally, an outline of the main exploration discoveries. It concludes by illustrating assumptions in recapping the methodology that was employed. It also provides areas of further additional investigation and commendations founded on the empirical answers including propositions intended for upcoming investigation.

9.0 APPENDICES

9.1 APPENDIX A: LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE



Wednesday, 18 September 2016

TO:

MRS NL JOBODWANA

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SOCIAL RESEARCH

I have the pleasure of informing you that permission is hereby granted to you to conduct social research at Westbury, Social Solutions.

Kind regards,

Lesley Ann Van Selm



.....

9.2 APPENDIX B: INFORMED CONSENT

I have read and understood the information about the project and my participation.
1. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project and my participation.
2. I voluntarily agree to participate in the project.
3. I understand I can withdraw at any time without giving reasons and that I will not be penalised for withdrawing nor will I be questioned on why I have withdrawn.
4. The procedures regarding confidentiality have been clearly explained to me, where my name and data will remain strictly confidential.
5. Where applicable, separate terms of consent for interviews, audio, video or other forms of data collection have been explained and provided to me.
6. The use of data in research, publications, sharing and archiving has been explained to me.
3. I understand that other researchers will have access to this data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality thereof.
Select only one of the following: I would like my name to be used and understand that what I have said or written as part of this study will be used in reports, publications and other research outputs so that anything I have contributed to this project can be recognised. OR I do not want my name to be used in this project.
10. I, along with the Researcher, agree to sign and date this Informed Consent form.

Participant:

Name of participant:

Signature

Date

Researcher:

Signature

Date

9.3 APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE/MEMO GUIDE

Date of Interview: 11/04/2019. Second focus group: 25/08/2019

Place of Interview: Soshanguve Self-Help Disability Association Centre (SOSHAD)

Time of Interview: 11 am, both focus groups

Please Note:

There is no correct/ right or incorrect/ wrong answer or response;

All the answers or responses are only for the purpose of this research.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender	Female	Male				
2. Language	English	Afrikaans	African			
3. Nationality	Black	Coloured	Indian	White		
4. Marital Status	Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed		
5. Dependants	None	1	1-3	3-4	>4	
6. Age	18 years	18-25 years	25-30 years	35-40 years	40-45 years	>45
7. Educational Background	Matric only	Vocational	Bachelor's degree	Honours degree	Master's degree	Doctoral degree
8. Work Experience	Not employed	<1 year	1-5 years	6-10 years	11-15 years	>15 years
9. Employment Category	Professional	Technical	Labourer	Self-employed	Not employed	Never been employed before
10. Living Arrangements	Dependant	Sole breadwinner	Social grant recipient	How many people living in the house	Any type of support besides social grant	Are there any elderly people

SECTION B: DISABILITY-RELATED INFORMATION

“Grand tour” question: What are the experiences of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities in post-apartheid South Africa?

Research Objective 1: To explore, identify, and describe the **challenges** experienced by unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities.

Research Question 1: What is the nature of **challenges** encountered by unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities in South Africa?

1.1 What is the main challenge that you experienced as an unemployed black person living with a disability?

Answer Yes/Y or No/N to the following questions:

1.2 You receive adequate support from your family, government and the community?

1.3 You are discriminated against or marginalised more as a result of your:

1.3.1 gender, OR

1.3.2 disability?

1.4 PWD are discriminated against in the workplace.

1.5 PWD are discriminated against in schools and educational institutions.

1.6 In public spaces, the environments are ergonomically and infrastructural unfriendly for use by people living with a disability.

1.7 There are enough opportunities for PLWD's personal, educational, and financial growth and development.

Research Objective 2: To ascertain the nature of opportunities available for unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities, if any.

Research Question 2: What are the **existing opportunities** for unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities in South Africa?

2.1 Are you a member of any organisation catering for people living with disabilities?

If Yes:

2.1.1 What is the name of the organisation?

2.1.2 Do you hold any position in the organisation?

2.1.3 For how long have you been a member or official in the organisation?

If No:

2.1.4 What could be the reason for your non-affiliation to any organisation catering for people living with disabilities?

2.2 Are you currently employed? (Answer Yes or No)

If Yes:

2.2.1 In which sector of the economy are you employed?

2.2.2 For how long were you employed?

2.2.3 Are you satisfied with your treatment at your place of employment? Please mention at least one reason for your satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

If No:

2.2.4 Were you at any time employed in the past?

2.2.5 Are you currently looking for employment opportunities?

2.3 According to you, in which specific areas should opportunities be created for unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities?

2.4 According to you, should there be any specific legislation to advance the interests of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities?

Research Objective 3: To establish the extent to which gender shapes the experiences of unemployed people living with disabilities.

Research Question 3: To what extent does **gender** shape the experiences of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities?

3.1 Have you ever been discriminated against or marginalised because of your gender?
(Answer Yes or No)

If Yes:

3.1.1 Where did this discrimination or marginalisation take place?

3.1.2 How was the discrimination or marginalisation expressed/ manifested?

3.1.3 Did you experience any physical or psychological consequences following the discrimination or marginalisation?

3.1.4 Did you report this incident? (Answer Yes or No)

If Yes:

3.1.4.1 To whom was the incident reported, and what was the outcome?

Research Objective 4: To ascertain how unemployed black PWD cope with their experiences.

Research Question 4: How do unemployed indigenous people live with disabilities **cope** with their daily needs?

4.1 Do you receive any form of support for your daily needs? (Answer Yes or No)

If Yes:

4.1.1 Please specify the form of support provided (e.g. financial or non-financial).

4.1.2 Who is the provider of this form of support (e.g. family, government, etc.)?

4.1.3 For how long have you received this particular form of support?

4.1.4 From whom is this form of support obtained?

4.1.5 To what extent does this form of support help you to cope with your everyday challenges?

If No:

4.1.6 What are the reasons for you not receiving any form of (financial or non-financial) support?

4.1.7 How do you cope without any form of support?

4.1.8 Please specify the kind or form of support you require.

4.1.9 How do you cope without this support?

TABULAR REPRESENTATION OF MAIN INTERVIEW-BASED QUESTIONS

Research Objective	Related Research Question	Related Interview Questions
1. To explore, identify, and describe the challenges experienced by unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities	What is the nature of challenges encountered by unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities in South Africa?	<p>1.1 What is the main challenge that you experience as an unemployed black person living with a disability? Answer Yes/Y or No/N to the following questions:</p> <p>1.2 You receive adequate support from your family, government and the community?</p> <p>1.3 You are discriminated against or marginalised more as a result of your: 1.3.1 gender, OR 1.3.2 disability.</p> <p>1.4 PWD are generally discriminated against in the workplace.</p> <p>1.5 PWD are generally discriminated against in schools and educational institutions.</p> <p>1.6 In public spaces, the environments are ergonomically and infrastructural unfriendly for use by people living with disability.</p> <p>1.7 There are enough opportunities for PLWD's personal, educational and financial growth and development.</p>
2. To ascertain the nature of opportunities available for the unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities, if any	What are the existing opportunities for unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities in South Africa?	<p>2.1 Are you a member of any organisation catering for people living with disabilities? If Yes:</p> <p>2.1.1 What is the name of the organisation?</p> <p>2.1.2 Do you hold any position in the organisation?</p> <p>2.1.3 For how long have you been a member or official in the organisation?</p> <p>If No:</p> <p>2.1.4 What could be the reason for your non-affiliation to any organisation catering for people living with disabilities?</p> <p>2.2 Are you currently employed? (Answer Yes or No) If Yes:</p> <p>2.2.1 In which sector of the economy are you employed?</p> <p>2.2.2 For how long were you employed?</p> <p>2.2.3 Are you satisfied with your treatment at your place of employment? Please mention at least one reason for your satisfaction or dissatisfaction.</p> <p>If No:</p>

		<p>2.2.4 Were you at any time employed in the past?</p> <p>2.2.5 Are you currently looking for employment opportunities?</p> <p>2.3 According to you, in which specific areas should opportunities be created for unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities?</p> <p>2.4 According to you, should there be any specific legislation to advance the interests of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities?</p>
<p>3. To establish the extent to which gender shapes the experiences of unemployed people living with disabilities</p>	<p>To what extent does gender shape the experiences of unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities?</p>	<p>3.1 Have you ever been discriminated against or marginalised as a result of your gender? (Answer Yes or No)</p> <p>If Yes:</p> <p>3.1.1 Where did this discrimination or marginalisation take place?</p> <p>3.1.2 How was the discrimination or marginalisation expressed/ manifested?</p> <p>3.1.3 Did you experience any physical or psychological consequences following the discrimination or marginalisation?</p> <p>3.1.4 Did you report this incident? (Answer Yes or No)</p>
<p>4. To ascertain how unemployed black PWD cope with their experiences</p>	<p>How do unemployed indigenous people living with disabilities cope with their daily needs?</p>	<p>4.1 Do you receive any form of support for your daily needs? (Answer Yes or No)</p> <p>If Yes:</p> <p>4.1.1 Please specify the form of support provided (e.g. financial or non-financial).</p> <p>4.1.2 Who is the provider of this form of support (e.g. family, government, etc.)?</p> <p>4.1.3 For how long have you received this particular form of support?</p> <p>4.1.4 From whom is this form of support obtained?</p> <p>4.1.5 To what extent does this form of support help you to cope with your everyday challenges?</p> <p>If No:</p> <p>4.1.6 What are the reasons for you not receiving any form of (financial or non-financial) support?</p> <p>4.1.7 How do you cope without any form of support?</p>

9.4 APPENDIX D: CHECKLIST

1. Abstract, cover page and table of contents	
2. Introduction and literature review	
3. Rationale/ research question/ justification of the study	
4. Objectives (or aims) of the study	
5. Hypotheses	
7. Materials and methods or methodology or study design	
7. Expected outcomes	
8. Work plan/ milestones/ deliverables	
9. Budget	
10. References	
11. Signatures for proposal	
12. Certificate of proofreading	
13. Budget	
14. Letter of acceptance, informed consent, interview schedule and checklist	

Overall Remarks

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