The role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households

by

Ntobeko Bambeni

Dissertation presented for the degree of

Doctor of Social Work in the

Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at

Stellenbosch University

Promoter: Professor Lambert Engelbrecht

March 2021

DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

March 2021

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

At the beginning of this PhD journey I was uncertain as to whether I would be able to reach its end. I would never have been able to navigate it without the support and care of my supervisor, Professor Lambert Engelbrecht. His belief in my capabilities was a source of inspiration for me to become more vigorous throughout the journey. It was indeed a great honour for me to have a supervisor of his calibre.

I would like also to extend my gratitude to the following:

- Managers from the service offices who participated in the study for their support when I was negotiating entry to conduct interviews.
- The social workers, social work supervisors and social work policy managers for the enthusiasm they showed during their participation in this study.
- All those who encouraged and supported me throughout the journey.
- My late mother, Nozipiwo Bambeni, and my late eldest brother, Pumlani Bambeni, for laying a sound educational foundation for me. Without their support at lower levels I would never have been able to reach this milestone in my life.

ABSTRACT

Financial capability is one of the important strategies for poverty alleviation, and the social work profession plays a significant role in interventions that are aimed at alleviating poverty. However, such role has not been adequately explored, especially in the South African context. This is despite social workers' contribution to the facilitation of financial capabilities development during their daily interaction with service users.

The objectives of this study were to provide an overview of the socio-economic context of households in South Africa, to describe and analyse poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa, to analyse theories of the facilitation of vulnerable households' financial capabilities within a social development perspective, to empirically investigate the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households and to present conclusions and offer recommendations to the Department of Social Development, the non-profit social welfare sector and the South African Council for Social Service Professions in terms of the findings of the study.

A qualitative study was conducted utilising semi-structured interviews with 35 social work professionals (20 social workers, 10 supervisors and 5 social work policy managers) in order to gain in-depth understanding of the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development. The data and empirical findings were analysed in line with themes as identified in the interview schedule, namely conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability, causes of financial vulnerability, sources of referral for cases of financial vulnerability, interventions of social workers, success and effectiveness of social workers' interventions, challenges faced by social workers when facilitating financial capabilities development, relevance of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development and capacitation of social workers. Subthemes and categories were identified in accordance with the narratives of the participants from the empirical data.

The conclusions of the study were based on the findings in relation to the eight themes. Some of the findings indicated that the social workers provided interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities through their roles of educator, advocate, communicator, enabler and negotiator. The findings also revealed that some of the social workers' interventions were successful and effective in bringing about the desired financial behaviour, and that this became possible through the cooperation of service users and relevant stakeholders. Despite the success and effectiveness of the interventions, the findings showed that social workers were also faced with challenges when facilitating financial capabilities. These challenges included lack of cooperation from non-voluntary service users and lack of appropriate skills and knowledge among social workers. The findings indicated the relevance of the social work profession in the facilitation of financial capabilities development due to the correlation between financial and psychosocial vulnerability. Furthermore, the study highlights the need for the capacitation of social workers in financial management and financial capabilities development. Based on the research findings, some of the recommendations include the capacitation of social workers through the provision of in-service training on financial management and financial capability and the inclusion of financial capabilities development in the social work curriculum. The key recommendation of this study is that the development of a curriculum for social work students and practitioners alike on the facilitation of financial capabilities development (financial social work) is absolutely vital in the context of South Africa's social development approach towards social work service delivery.

OPSOMMING

Finansiële vermoë is een van die belangrikste strategieë vir die verligting van armoede, en die maatskaplikewerk-professie speel ŉ belangrike rol in intervensies gemik op armoedeverligting. Ondanks maatskaplike werkers se bydrae tot die fasilitering van ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë in hul daaglikse interaksie met diensgebruikers is hierdie rol egter nog nie voldoende ondersoek nie, veral nie in die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks nie.

Die doelstellings van hierdie studie was om ŉ oorsig te gee van die sosio-ekonomiese konteks van huishoudings in Suid-Afrika, om armoedeverligting-intervensies in Suid-Afrika te beskryf en te ontleed, om teorieë oor die fasilitering van kwesbare huishouding se finansiële vermoë in ŉ perspektief van maatskaplike ontwikkeling te ontleed, om die rol van maatskaplike werkers in die fasilitering van die ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoëns van kwesbare huishoudings empiries te ondersoek en om gevolgtrekkings te maak en aanbevelings aan die Departement van Maatskaplike Ontwikkeling, die maatskaplikewelsyn-sektor en die Suid-Afrikaanse Raad vir Maatskaplike Diensprofessies ingevolge die studiebevindinge te maak.

ŉ Kwalitatiewe studie is onderneem met semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude met 35 persone in die maatskaplikewerk-professie (20 maatskaplike werkers, 10 toesighouers en 5 maatskaplikewerk-beleidsbestuurders) om ŉ grondige begrip te verkry van die rol van maatskaplike werkers in die fasilitering van ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë. Die data en empiriese bevindinge is ontleed ooreenkomstig die temas wat in die onderhoudskedule geïdentifiseer is, naamlik konseptuele begrip van finansiële kwesbaarheid, oorsake van finansiële kwesbaarheid, verwysingsbronne vir gevalle van finansiële kwesbaarheid, intervensies van maatskaplike werkers, sukses en doeltreffendheid van maatskaplike werkers se intervensies, uitdagings vir maatskaplike werkers in die fasilitering van ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë, relevansie van maatskaplike werkers in die fasilitering van ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë en bemagtiging van maatskaplike werkers. Subtemas en kategorieë is ooreenkomstig die narratiewe van die deelnemers uit die empiriese data geïdentifiseer.

Die gevolgtrekkings van die studie is gegrond op die bevindinge volgens die agt temas. Die bevindinge het onder andere aangetoon dat die maatskaplike werkers intervensie in die fasilitering van finansiële vermoë deur hul rolle as opvoeder, kampvegter, segspersoon, instaatsteller en onderhandelaar verskaf het. Die bevindinge het ook getoon dat sommige intervensies deur maatskaplike werkers daarin geslaag het om die gewenste finansiële gedrag voort te bring, en dat dit moontlik gemaak is deur samewerking tussen diensgebruikers en die betrokke belanghebbendes. Ondanks die sukses en doeltreffendheid van die intervensies, toon die bevindinge dat die maatskaplike werkers voor uitdagings te staan kom rakende die fasilitering van finansiële vermoë. Hierdie uitdagings sluit in ŉ gebrek aan samewerking van nievrywillige diensgebruikers en ŉ gebrek aan die toepaslike vaardighede en kennis onder maatskaplike werkers. Die bevindinge dui op die relevansie van die maatskaplikewerk-professie in die fasilitering van ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë weens die verband tussen finansiële en psigososiale kwesbaarheid. Die studie beklemtoon voorts die behoefte aan bemagtiging van maatskaplike werkers in finansiële bestuur en ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë. Op grond van die navorsingsbevindinge is die aanbevelings onder andere dat maatskaplike werkers bemagtig moet word deur die verskaffing van diensopleiding in finansiële bestuur en finansiële vermoë en dat ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë by die maatskaplikewerk-kurrikulum ingesluit moet word. Die hoofaanbeveling van hierdie studie is dat die ontwikkeling van ŉ kurrikulum vir maatskaplikewerk-studente en -praktisyns oor die fasilitering van ontwikkeling van finansiële vermoë (finansiële maatskaplike werk) gebiedend noodsaaklik is in die konteks van Suid-Afrika se benadering tot maatskaplikewerk-dienslewering vir maatskaplike ontwikkeling.

ACRONYMS

AIDS	Acquired immune deficiency syndrome
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
BASA	Banking Association of South Africa
B-BBEE	Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment
CDG	Care dependency grant
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
CSG	Child support grant
DG	Disability grant
DSD	Department of Social Development
ECD	Early childhood development
ECDSD	Eastern Cape Department of Social Development
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FCG	Foster care grant
FFI	Financial Planning Institute
FIA	Financial Intermediaries Association of Southern Africa
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
IDP	Infrastructure Development Plan
IFFS	Integrated Food Security Strategy
INDS	Integrated National Disability Strategy
ISPESE	Integrated Strategy on the Promotion of Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprises
ISRDP	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme
NCFEC	National Consumer Financial Education Committee
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NPO	Non-profit organisation
NSFAS	National Student Financial Aid

OAG	Old age grant
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
ROSCA	Rotating Savings and Credit Associations
SAIA	South African Insurance Association
SASA	South African Schools Act
SASSA	South African Social Security Agency
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
StatsSA	Statistics South Africa
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNICEF	United Nations International Children’s Emergency Fund

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

CHAPTER 2

OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC SITUATION OF THE VULNERABLE HOUSEHOLDS IN SOUTH AFRICA

CHAPTER 3

POVERTY ALLEVIATION INTERVENTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

CHAPTER 4

FINANCIAL CAPABILITY WITHIN A SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVE

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

ANNEXURES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY

1. PRELIMINARY STUDY AND RATIONALE

Reasons for poverty remain poorly articulated and largely unresolved in the world. This is despite the poverty reduction sentiments expressed in the politics and declarations of world bodies such as the United Nations, International Monetary Fund and The World Bank (May & Nzimande, 2012). For example, during the past five decades, world organisations have made numerous endeavours by offering international aid to help Africa overcome poverty (Engelbrecht, 2008a). Despite the assistance rendered, this has not yielded any substantial results yet, as many countries today are worse off than they were 50 years ago. Sub-Saharan Africa is the only region in the world where poverty has increased over the past decade (Engelbrecht, 2008a). Hall and Midgley (2004) hold the view that, while development is needed to reduce poverty, development has no meaning if it does not increase the income and well-being of all. Asset building is an innovative new approach to addressing poverty by providing access to savings and assets, as well as income support (SEDI, 2004). Collins, Morduch, Rutherford and Ruthven (2010) add that financial management is an essential skill for poor people relying on irregular income. Thus, financial capability could play a significant role in alleviating poverty among poor households because of its potential to contribute towards building assets and improving financial management skills.

Financial capability is defined as the combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour that a person needs in order to make sound financial decisions to support financial well-being (Arnold & Rhyne, 2016; Rousseau & Venter, 2016; Storchi & Johnson, 2016). Such capability is also required to access sound financial products and services, including access to opportunities for building savings and other assets (Sherraden, Huang, Frey, Birkenmaier, Callahan, 2015). Financial capability may also be understood as the internal capacity to act in one's best financial interest, given socioeconomic and environmental conditions (The World Bank, 2013). Financial literacy has become one of the essential components of financial capability for vulnerable households to understand basic financial concepts and be better informed about financial services. Notwithstanding, an array of other definitions from various scholars, Johnson and Sherraden (2007) define financial literacy as the ability to read, analyse, manage and communicate about the personal financial conditions that affect material well-being. This may imply a person's minimal knowledge about financial terms such as money, inflation, interest rate, credit and others, as well as that person's abilities and skills to use all the information in his or her personal life and be aware of the consequences of his or her financial actions (Oanea & Dornean, 2012).

Financial exclusion is another factor contributing to the financial vulnerability of households. Financial exclusion refers to a process whereby people encounter difficulties accessing and/or using financial services and products in the mainstream market that are appropriate to their needs and that would enable them to lead a normal social life in the society where they belong (Anderloni, Bayot, Bledowski, Iwanicz-Drozdowska & Kempson, 2008). Mundy (2011) argues that financial capability initiatives are unlikely to have much practical impact if there is a lack of suitable financial products and services available to those who are supposed to benefit from the financial capability initiatives. However, financial inclusion and financial literacy are not the only essential components of financial capability. Financial behaviour is also considered an important objective in achieving financial capability. Personal financial management behaviour is a set of behaviours performed regarding planning, implementing and evaluating in the areas of cash, credit, investments, insurance, retirement and estate planning (Deacon & Firebaugh, 1988). Behavioural economics acknowledges the role of psychological characteristics such as procrastination, regret, risk aversion, compulsiveness, generosity, altruism and peer pressure in the financial decisions of households (Hilgert, Hogarth & Beverly, 2003).

Vulnerable households often have no choice but to seek assistance and support in order to ameliorate their financial situation. Social work has become one of the most appropriate professions to intervene in the situation of vulnerable households, as it is a practice-based profession that promotes social change and development, social cohesion and the empowerment and liberation of people (International Federation of Social Workers, 2014). Birkenmaier and Tyuse (2005) argue that the financial services and credit readily available to poor families differ from that available to middle- and upper-income families and communities, and significantly affect social work practice in terms of assisting families to meet their basic needs and empower themselves financially. Zhan, Anderson and Scott (2006) assert that social work in practice can play an important role to improve the financial knowledge of low-income persons, not only through the development and provision of finance-related materials but also by referring clients to financial education programmes for communities. Social work in the financial field provides professionals and front-line staff with the tools and skills to help clients understand how their relationship with money drives their financial behaviour and contributes to their emotional and financial stability (Wolfsohn, 2012). The perspectives and expertise of social workers are vital for continued development of information dissemination and outreach efforts designed to inform potential beneficiaries about available benefits. The reason for this is that they often have an in-depth understanding of public programmes that consumer education specialists or adult education teachers do not (Zhan *et al*., 2006). Birkenmaier and Curley (2009) describe how social workers' ability to build trust with clients, use empathy and non-judgementalism, and problem solving by breaking down tasks into manageable actions can help clients improve their credit scores. According to Birkenmaier, Callahan, Frey and Sherraden (2017), professional social workers assist people with troubles such as interpersonal violence, addiction, mental and physical illness, abuse and neglect, incarceration, and homelessness. In many instances, serious challenges such as poverty, problem debt, poor credit, asset poverty and financial victimisation accompany these troubles. However, the role of social workers in financial capability is not without limitation, bearing in mind the challenges inherent in the lack of financial content in social work training.

According to Despard and Chowa (2010), little is known about social workers who are interested or engaged in efforts to build financial capability. Social workers also lack clarity themselves with respect to their role and place in facilitating financial capabilities of vulnerable households (Engelbrecht, 2008b). Birkenmaier and Curley (2009) affirm that the number of social workers who routinely engage clients in discussions about financial management and credit is small relative to other areas of social work practice. Social workers and other helping professionals often lack the skills and knowledge to tackle increasingly complex financial problems facing their clients (Sherraden, 2013), as very few schools of social work teach personal finance content (Sherraden, Laux & Kaufman, 2007). Students receive little training and education on how to help clients build stable and secure financial lives (Sherraden, Birkenmaier, Rochelle & McClendon, 2015). Gillen and Loeffler (2012) assert that social workers have the ability and responsibility to be more of a resource than a referral source for marginalised populations. However, if social workers are not prepared to understand the complex landscape of personal finance, it will be difficult for them even to be a resource for clients.

In the South African context, access to financial services is crucial as it is about ensuring that all South Africans have access to financial services that encourage them to manage their money, save for the future, and insure against unforeseen events (National Treasury, 2011). This is especially important for low-income households which live in or close to poverty (National Treasury, 2011). As in other parts of the world, poor South Africans often have limited access to reliable, safe and convenient financial services, although the widespread nature of informal arrangements such as stokvels is evidence of demand for such services (Delany & Storchi, 2012). Delany and Storchi further affirm that many people in South Africa continue to be excluded from the formal economy, particularly in rural areas, such as the Eastern Cape province.

The Eastern Cape is among the poorest areas in the country (Merten, 2017) and as a consequence, the province is trapped in structural poverty. According to Saal (2017), more than 40% of the people in the Eastern Cape live in poverty and the province had the highest unemployment level of 35.1% at the end of 2017 (Statistics South Africa [StatsSA], 2018), with the OR Tambo district having the highest percentage of the population living in poverty in 2012 (Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council, 2012, May & Nzimande, 2012). Although it is famous among middle-class tourists for its beauty, life in the OR Tambo district is far from comfortable for its residents (Cullinan, 2018). Cullinan (2018) asserts that the district is one of the most deprived places in the country and barely 6% of homes have piped water, while fewer than one in 10 households have flush toilets. Cullinan (2018) points out that close to 60% of households are headed by women and the majority of them are social grant recipients. Westaway (2012) affirms that rural households in these areas spend most of their income on food and less than a quarter of households reported saving some money after taking care of all household expenses, excluding investments and pensions (May & Nzimande, 2012). The province is also characterised by having the highest number of unbanked individuals (Mishi, Vacu & Chipote, 2012). This could be because of banks failing to penetrate rural areas owing to limited demand, or individuals failing to access banks because they are not nearby (Mishi *et al*., 2012).

One of the goals and objectives of the Provincial Department of Social Development is the empowerment of communities, groups and individuals through their active participation in developmental programmes for improved social functioning and quality of life (DSD, 2017). The Provincial Department of Social Development in the Eastern Cape has poverty alleviation interventions through its community development programmes, which include poverty alleviation and sustainable livelihoods, youth development, and women development. The developmental social welfare programme that comprises social welfare interventions implemented mainly by social workers through individual, family, group and community work methods offer no guidelines on how to integrate poverty alleviation in social workers' interventions for individuals, families, groups and communities.

However, social workers do participate in poverty alleviation during their day-to-day interaction with clients through psychosocial empowerment and facilitation of clients' financial capabilities, specifically social grant recipients. This is despite the fact that not a single activity exists in the Department's Operational Plans and Annual Performance Plan that seeks to address poverty through building financial capabilities of individuals, groups and communities. Social workers are also not trained in financial management, neither in their training towards their qualification nor as part of their service training. Therefore, the financial skills, knowledge and therapeutic techniques applied by social workers employed by the Eastern Cape Department of Social Development when facilitating the financial capabilities of their clients are not known. The role of social work intervention in facilitating financial capabilities of vulnerable households could bring great impetus to the sphere of facilitating financial capabilities. This study will provide an insight into how social workers can assist their clients who are faced with financial challenges. The practice of social work in South Africa within the social developmental paradigm needs to be explored further in terms of alleviating poverty through facilitating the financial capabilities of the poor. Furthermore, an in-depth study on this issue is required to inform social work education and improve its responsiveness to practice.

2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the last decade, some schools of social work in the Western world have begun taking steps to integrate household financial issues into professional training (Sherraden, Huang et al., 2015). Social workers have also made remarkable progress in conducting applied research and contributing to policy and practice innovations that aim to improve financial capabilities and build assets in low-income and financially vulnerable families (Birkenmaier, Sherraden & Curley, 2013; Huang, Nam & Sherraden, 2013; Sherraden, *et al.,* 2015). However, little is known about social workers who are interested or engaged in efforts to facilitate financial capability (Despard & Chowa, 2010). To date, there is also no research on faculty and student responses to these incipient efforts to build professional competence in financial capability and asset building with financially vulnerable populations (Sherraden, Huang *et al*., 2015). Birkenmaier and Curley (2009) affirm that the number of social workers who routinely engage clients in discussions about financial management and credit is small relative to other areas of social work practice. Social workers and other helping professionals often lack knowledge and skills to tackle increasingly complex financial problems facing their clients (Sherraden, 2013) because very few schools of social work teach personal finance content (Sherraden *et al*., 2007). As a consequence, most social workers are unprepared to help clients resolve their financial problems (Despard & Chowa, 2012; Gillen & Loeffler, 2012).

In South Africa, significant scholarly work is being done on social work and financial capability, albeit on a limited scale. The scholarly work done includes financial vulnerability and indebtedness of people using social work services (Engelbrecht, 2009); social workers' perceptions of poverty; and the construction of a conceptual framework for financial literacy programmes (Engelbrecht, 2008a). Engelbrecht (2009) argues that research into the debt levels of social work service users and specific social work intervention in South Africa is non-existent. Based on research findings by Engelbrecht (2008b), social workers in South Africa also lack clarity about their role and place in facilitating financial capabilities of vulnerable households in the continuum of services in a social development paradigm. The reason for this is that underlying social development theory of integrating social and economic development goals does not figure prominently in macro and micro social work practice (Gray, 2006). This implies that frontline social workers do not readily act as facilitators or advocates for the financial capability of vulnerable households, as their interventions with over-indebted households focus on service user's symptomatic psychosocial well-being and vulnerability (Engelbrecht, 2011). Research findings by Engelbrecht (2009) also reveal that fewer than half of the social workers employed by NGOs in South Africa are not doing anything about household financial education. The main reason for this is social workers' own uncertainty about the nature and scope of financial education. Although social workers may play a role in facilitating financial capabilities of their service users, there are no clear theoretical and practice guidelines informing their interventions. Indeed, no clear correlation exists between theoretical knowledge, skills, and practice among social workers when facilitating financial capabilities, as they are often not fully prepared to integrate professional financial counselling and coaching into practice (Birkenmaier *et al*., 2017). More information about the social workers' role is needed to help identify needs and opportunities for education and professional development in finance and to examine the potential contribution social workers can make and their role in the financial field (Despard & Chowa, 2010).

3. RESEARCH QUESTION

Flowing from the problem statement, the following main research questions were formulated:

- What is the nature of financial challenges that often face vulnerable households in the Eastern Cape?

- How do social workers perceive their role in the day-to-day facilitation of financial capabilities of vulnerable households?
- Based on the findings of the study, what can be done to improve the role of social workers in facilitating the development of financial capabilities of vulnerable households?

4. DEFINITIONS

Definitions of concepts are not specifically offered in this section as all definitions used in this study are conceptualised as part of the text and within contexts in which they apply. The reason not to have separate definitions in this section is because all the concepts and definitions that have been used are context based and therefore are presented and integrated in a coherent manner throughout the text.

5. GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

The goal of the research was to gain an in-depth understanding of the role that social workers play in facilitating the development of financial capabilities of vulnerable households.

In order to achieve this aim, the following objectives were formulated:

- To provide an overview of the socioeconomic context of households in South Africa, and in particular in the Eastern Cape province;
- To describe and analyse poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa;
- To analyse theories about the facilitation of vulnerable households' financial capabilities within a social development perspective;
- To investigate empirically the role of social workers in facilitating the development of financial capabilities of vulnerable households;
- To present conclusions and offer recommendations emanating from the findings of the study for application by the Department of Social Development, the non-profit social welfare sector and the South African Council for Social Service Professions.

6. THEORETICAL POINT OF DEPARTURE

A financial capability approach was presented and analysed as the theoretical point of departure. Financial capability may be understood as generally including all the skills, access to finance, and behaviours that enable individuals to use financial services to their advantage (Storchi & Johnson, 2016; The World Bank, 2014). A capability approach was also described and analysed as the theoretical framework understood to be concerned with evaluating a person's actual ability to achieve various valuable functions as part of living (Sen, 1993). This approach focuses on what people are able to do and be, as opposed to what they have, or how they feel (Hick, 2014). The approach is also based on a review of living as a combination of various "doings and beings" with quality of life to be assessed in terms of the capability to achieve valuable functioning (Clarke, 2006; Robeyns, 2003; Sen, 1989; 2003). Its emphasis is the shift from the means of living, such as income, to the actual opportunities people have, such as their functioning and capabilities (Hick, 2014). Functioning refers to the various things a person succeeds in doing or being (such as participating in activities of one's society life being healthy, and so forth), while capabilities refer to a person's real or substantive freedom to achieve such functioning, for example the ability to take part in one's society life (Hick, 2014). These capabilities and functioning can be realised among others, through the achievement of well-being and agency (Sen, 2003). The well-being achievement of a person can be seen as an evaluation of the wellness of the person's state of being, and the agency achievement as the evaluation of a person's success relating to wellness that goes beyond the person's state of being (Sen, 2003). Therefore, financial capability requires a conceptual framework to explore how and to what degree poor people take financial decisions and engage with financial services to improve their well-being (Storchi & Johnson, 2016) and agency (Sen, 2003). In this context, a capability approach provides a conceptual framework that considers financial inclusion in terms of well-being and agency by exploring the ways in which people manage their money and wider resources, and how they relate to their goals in respect of well-being and agency (Sen, 2003; Storchi & Johnson, 2016). Lastly, a social development approach was presented and analysed as a theoretical basis for practice from which social workers could apply financial literacy and behavioural economics to facilitate financial capabilities. Social development is defined as a process of planned social change designed to promote well-being as a whole, in conjunction with a dynamic process of economic development (Midgley, 2014). Therefore, it seeks to promote social and economic inclusion through enhanced personal functioning; strengthening of human capital, well-being and the livelihood capabilities of individuals; and groups and communities that contribute to social justice and human development (Patel, 2005).

7. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

This chapter outlines the research approach and design that were applied, the population and sampling procedures that were followed, and the data collection instruments that were used during the study.

7.1 Research approach

The research approach that was deemed to be most appropriate for this study was the qualitative research approach. The qualitative research approach was chosen in order to understand phenomena from the participants' perspective and to explore and discover them in depth and in context (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). This approach allowed researchers to explore the inner experience of participants (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Flick, 2007) to determine how meanings were formed and to discover rather than to test variables. In this study, the researcher sought to explore and understand the role of social workers based on their experiences in facilitating the financial capabilities development of their vulnerable service users. Qualitative research also involved the use and collection of empirical materials, case studies, personal experience, introspection, life stories, interviews, artefacts, and cultural texts that describe routine and problematic moments and meanings in individuals' lives. The researcher was convinced that qualitative research would offer a better understanding of the subject matter at hand (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). The research was conducted through semi-structured interviews with the intention of gaining a better understanding of social workers' experiences when assisting vulnerable service users in their professional practice.

7.2 Research design

The study was conducted through exploratory and descriptive case study designs. Exploratory research is applied when very little is known about the study topic (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole, 2013) or when a researcher examines a new interest, or when the subject itself is relatively new (Babbie, 2011). Exploratory research is appropriate, in the case of the present study, in that very limited knowledge or information exists about the subject and the purpose of the research is to gain a broader understanding of the social workers' role in facilitating financial capabilities. Descriptive research was also applied as detailed documentation of what was studied (Babbie, 2011; Bhattacherjee, 2012). The descriptive research is relevant because this study provides detailed information about the role played by social workers in facilitating financial capabilities.

7.3 Population and sampling procedure

7.3.1 Population

The population or entire set of objects or people that comprise the focus of a research project include individuals who possess specific characteristics (Bless *et al*., 2013). In this study, they were front line social workers, supervisors and social work policy managers employed by the Eastern Cape Department of Social Development. The Eastern Cape province was chosen as a case study as no previous study had been conducted on the focal research area, in particular among social workers employed by government. Less than a quarter of households in the Eastern Cape reported that they were able to save some money after taking care of all household expenses, excluding investments and pensions (May & Nzimande, 2012). The province also had the highest number of unbanked individuals (Mishi *et al*., 2012).

7.3.2 Sampling procedure

Sampling represents the population from which the sample is selected (Mouton, 1996). Sampling in qualitative research in most cases is not oriented on a formal (e.g., random) selection of a part of an existing or assumed population (Flick, 2007). Rather it is conceived as a way of setting up a collection of deliberately selected cases, materials, or events for constructing a corpus of empirical examples for studying the phenomenon of interests in the most instructive way (Flick, 2007). Non-probability sampling was used in this study since qualitative research does not concentrate on the representation of the population at large, but rather on the diversity of cases (Bless *et al*., 2013). Purposive sampling was used as a type of non-probability sampling. Through purposive or judgemental sampling, the social workers, supervisors and provincial social work policy managers studied were scheduled based on the researcher's judgement about which ones were the most representative (Babbie, 2011).

The sample for the study comprised of twenty social workers, ten social work supervisors and five social work policy managers from the Social Welfare Services stream at the Provincial Office of the Department of Social Development. The social workers were selected to form part of the sample because they work directly with the vulnerable households, while the supervisors were selected to be part of the sample because they manage the policy and practice implementation by social workers. The five social work policy managers became part of the study because they are responsible for policy formulation. The number of participants in this study were deemed enough to represent the study population, as the sample in qualitative research is considered to be adequate if it can generalise the obtained results to the whole population (Bless *et al*., 2013). The twenty participants among the social workers were chosen from two districts of the Department of Social Development, namely the OR Tambo District and the Buffalo City Metropolitan areas. The Eastern Cape Department of Social Development in the Eastern Cape Province has eight districts that are structured in line with the local government demarcation of six district municipalities and two metros. The district municipalities are mostly rural, while the metros are largely urban. More than 90% of service users serviced by social workers in the OR Tambo District come from traditional rural areas, whereas the majority of those in Buffalo City are urban based. The reason for the selection of urban- and rural-based districts is based on the assumption that service users might present different challenges of vulnerability that may be influenced by different socio-economic environments.

The total number of participants is thirty-five; thus, twenty social workers, ten supervisors from two respective districts and five social work policy managers. The criteria used for selecting social work participants was a minimum of three years practising as a social worker in generic social work in the Department of Social Development at their various local service offices. Supervisors should also meet the criteria of a minimum of three years' performing supervisory role of generic social work at their respective service offices of the Department of Social Development. The five social work policy managers were drawn from the sub directorates that have a role in the facilitation of financial capabilities, namely foster care, care and support to older persons, services to persons with disabilities, care and support to families, and HIV and AIDS. The five social work policy managers have also a minimum of three years' working as social work policy managers.

The social workers and social work supervisors were recruited through the offices of their respective district directors in response to a letter from the researcher requesting voluntary participation from those who met the criteria for participation. For the social work policy managers, the correspondence was addressed to the chief director of Social Welfare Services, also inviting voluntary participation from social work managers who met the criteria. Both correspondences included the introduction, purpose, background of the study and the role of the participants as provided by the researcher. There was also a follow up for further clarification of the study through requesting meetings from their heads of offices whereby the researcher would make an oral presentation to the prospective participants. The prospective participants were requested to communicate with the researcher when confirming their consent to participate in the study through email.

7.4 Instruments for data collection

The data will be collected through one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

7.4.1 One-on-one semi-structured interview

One-on-one semi-structured interviews was used in order to gain a detailed picture of participants' accounts of the research questions (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). One-on-one semi-structured interviews was used and audiotaped in order to elicit individual responses from the social work supervisors. The semi-structured interviews were based on the identified themes relevant to each group category of participants that were interviewed. The interviews were conducted at times, dates and venues that were suitable to the participants. The interviews were held in three phases with the different categories of participants. The first phase was comprised of social work participants, while the second phase was for the social work supervisors. The third phase of the interview schedule was scheduled for social work policy managers from the Provincial Office.

8. DATA ANALYSIS

In this study, the researcher conducted data analysis by planning for the recording of data in a systematic manner that was appropriate to the setting, research participants, or both, and that was able to facilitate analysis, prior to the collection of data (Schurink, Fouché & De Vos, 2011). The researcher generated themes based on the literature studies and subsequently, generated codes that came out of the raw data (Marshall & Rossman, 2011), into a standardised form (Babbie, 2011). The analysis also included offering interpretation by evaluating the data for their usefulness and centrality (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The research was conducted in three phases and data was analysed based on the themes identified for each category of participants during each phase. The phases for data analysis were not consecutive, but rather supporting each other as data of the different phases has not be compared, instead has be integrated in narratives and themes.

9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students (Strydom, 2011). The nature of this study is such that it did not explore personal experiences, instead it sought to explore theoretical and practical experiences of social workers, supervisors, and social work managers in their respective roles in facilitating the financial capabilities of financially vulnerable households. However, the following ethical issues were taken into consideration:

- **Informed consent** was sought through formal written consent. Each participant received a written request for participation in the study that provides the purpose of the study and the procedures to be followed during the study, including times and outlining the roles of the participants. The participants had to sign a consent form as a way of agreeing to voluntarily participate in the study.

- **Deception of respondents** was avoided through a genuinely open introduction of the researcher and the purpose of the study, including the expected roles of the participants throughout the study. Deception involves withholding information or offering incorrect information in order to ensure the participation of subjects, when they would otherwise possibly have refused it (Strydom, 2011).
- **Confidentiality** or safeguarding of confidentiality was ensured by the researcher when collecting data, he used an audiotape recorder that was locked away safely in a place that was accessible only to the researcher. The assurance about safeguarding confidentiality was part of the consent form that was signed by the participants.
- **Anonymity** was ensured by the researcher by not disclosing the identity of participants when reporting on the findings, in other words when people read the research narrative, will not be able to attribute any given response to any particular respondent (Babbie, 2011).

As the study was conducted at the Provincial Department of Social Development, permission for this study was sought from the Provincial Head of Department. Permission was first sought from the Stellenbosch University Departmental Ethics Committee before commencing with the study. The researcher is registered with the South African Council for Social Service Professions (SACSSP), and thus committed to the code of ethics of the social work profession.

10. IMPACT

Social workers in South Africa deal with a myriad of social problems that are brought to them by service users on a daily basis. Some of these challenges relate to or emanate from the financial problems faced by the service users. The majority of service users accessing social work services are poor or from low-income households. One of the goals of developmental social welfare is to eradicate poverty. Financial capability is regarded as one of the tools that may be used to alleviate poverty. Although social workers play a role in facilitating financial capabilities of poor people, there are no clear theoretical and practice-related guidelines informing their interventions. This study could assist in identifying the gaps that exist in social work practice in this area and inform the formulation of appropriate practice guidelines for effective social work intervention.

11. CONNECTION WITH THE DOCTORAL PROGRAMME OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK AT STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

Research based on the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households is of particular interest to the Department of Social Work at Stellenbosch University. The researcher's supervisor has published several works on related topics, and the research questions posed by the study are in line with the current interests of the Department.

12. OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 provides an overview about households in South Africa and their inherent socio-economic characteristics which include poverty, high unemployment, large household size, food insecurity, high debt rates, low savings, financial exclusion, lack of access to basic infrastructure and services and subsequently describes these above features and their concomitant role in the vulnerability of households. Chapter 3 explores, describes and analyse various poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa since the advent of the democratic era in 1994. Chapter 4 outlines the description of the financial capability, synthesis of capability approach from the perspective of a developing economy and also in the context of South Africa and the essential role of the social work profession in the facilitation of financial capability within the social development paradigm. Chapter 5 discusses the research methodology applied in the collection of data during the empirical investigation. Chapter 6 presents the empirical findings of the study and chapter 7 presents conclusions and recommendations based on the empirical findings presented in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 2

OVERVIEW OF THE SOCIOECONOMIC SITUATION OF VULNERABLE HOUSEHOLDS IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Vulnerable households constitute the majority of households in South Africa. They are characterised by poverty, high unemployment, large household size, food insecurity, high debt rates, low savings, financial exclusion, lack of access to basic infrastructure and lack of services, and the majority have members who are beneficiaries of social grants. The aforementioned features demonstrate the socioeconomic situation of vulnerable households in South Africa. This chapter begins with the definition of households and further describes the above features and their role in the vulnerability of households in South Africa. The chapter therefore provides an overview of the socioeconomic context of households in South Africa. The socioeconomic situation of households described in this chapter prevailed before the Covid-19 pandemic, which has changed the economic and poverty landscape in South Africa.

2.2 HOUSEHOLD POVERTY

The extent of poverty varies among households, and different levels of poverty are associated with different types of households. The definition of households below highlights the diverse nature of households across communities and societies.

2.2.1 Definition of households

A household comprises either one person living alone or a group of people who may or may not be related living at the same address with common living accommodation (Smeeding & Weinberg, 2001. According to the United Nations (1989), a household may be either one person who makes provision for his or her own food or with another person may constitute a household. A multipurpose household is a group of two or more persons who make common provision for food or other essentials for living (United Nations, 1989). The United Nations further states that households usually occupy the whole, part of or more than one housing unit, or they may be homeless. Furthermore, in instances where households consist of extended families that make common provision for food or of separate households with a common head resulting from polygamous unions, these households may occupy more than one housing unit (United Nations, 1989). South Africa adopted the same definition of households as the United Nations (Amoateng & Heaton, 2007). The DSD (2008) adds that households also provide a place of dwelling and of sharing resources for people who are related by blood and for those who are not related by blood.

2.2.2 Poverty among South African households

Many sub-Saharan countries, including South Africa, suffer severely from extensive and deeply rooted poverty (Meyer & Nishimwe-Niyimbanira, 2016). Despite South Africa's being regarded as an upper-middle-income country (The World Bank, 2014), up to 50% of its households live in poverty or at least are vulnerable to being exposed to poverty. Furthermore, while the South African government provides social grants that help to minimise the rate and effect of food insecurity within the country, more than half of South Africans live in poverty (Abdu, Raheem & Worth, 2011) According to StatsSA (2017), poverty trends show that despite the general decline in poverty between 2006 and 2011, poverty levels rose in 2015. StatsSA (2015) revealed that more than 30.4 million South African were living in poverty.

Meyer and Nishmiwe-Niyimbanira (2016) assert that one of the reasons for the high levels of poverty in South Africa is the apartheid system, which was the cause of structural poverty among black people, which many still suffer from today. The role of asset accumulation in assisting in wealth creation is widely acknowledged, and through colonialism and apartheid, assets such as livestock and land belonging to black people were lost through dispossession (May & Norton, 1997). Meyer and Nishimwe-Niyimbanira (2016) further point out that high levels of poverty in South Africa are caused by lack of access to opportunities, high levels of unemployment, lack of basic services and provision for basic needs, and limited access to land. The South African economy in the last five decades, more in particular between 2011 and 2015, has been driven by a combination of international and domestic factors such as weak economic growth, continuing unemployment levels, lower commodity prices, higher consumer prices, lower investment levels, greater household dependency on credit and policy uncertainty (StatsSA, 2017). StatsSA further asserts that this period has experienced a decline in the financial wellbeing of South African households due to economic pressures and that more households and individuals have been dragged down into poverty.

The demographic characteristics of households such as family size, structure and ethnicity are important determinants of the socioeconomic status of the family and its level of poverty (The World Bank, 2018). There is also a significant relationship between participation in economic activities and poverty reduction, and households with nonworking or economically inactive members experience higher rates of poverty than those whose members are working and active (The World Bank, 2018). The World Bank (2013) asserts that households with more children have a higher chance of being poor. In addition, there is a positive relation between access to basic services and income, and the level of access to basic services is lowest among the poorest segments of the population, which is attributed to inequality (The World Bank, 2018).

The poor tend to live in overcrowded housing conditions, and that often is the cause of worsening health and education outcomes (Leventhal & Newman, 2019). The World Bank (2010) points out that educational outcomes are uneven across consumption expenditure groups in favour of rich households and that the rich have better access to hospitals than the poor. Poverty also declines with rising levels of education, and households headed by a person with no education or a low level of education tend to be poorer than those with heads with higher levels of education (The World Bank, 2010). Furthermore, the World Bank (2010) points out that the larger the household is, the higher the incidence of poverty is. Poverty is also more prevalent among women than men (The World Bank, 2018). The World Bank (2010) further asserts that rural areas have a higher incidence of poverty than urban areas.

According to Mashigo (2006), poor households in South Africa represent the largest segment of the population. A household is understood to be in poverty when its poverty endures over a period of time; thus, a household is unable or lacks an opportunity to better its circumstances over time or to sustain itself through difficult times (Aliber, 2009. Children aged below 17 years, black Africans, women from rural areas, people living in the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo and those with little or no education are the main victims in the ongoing struggle against poverty (StatsSA, 2017). Inequality, especially concerning race and gender, is a common feature in poverty trends (Frye, 2017).

According to The World Bank (2010), all provinces in South Africa experienced a reduction in poverty between 2006 and 2015. Mpumalanga Province recorded the highest reduction in poverty levels, with the poverty rate falling from 60% to 43% between 2006 and 2015 (The World Bank, 2018). All provinces except Mpumalanga recorded an increase in poverty levels between 2011 and 2015 (The World Bank, 2010). Again, Mpumalanga Province is the only province that has consistently recorded a decrease in poverty rates across all these years.

The high levels of poverty in South African households are inextricably linked to the high prevalence of unemployment as lack of income or insufficient income pulls households down into poverty. The poverty line before the end of 2019 was R561 per person a month, referring to the amount of money that an individual would need to afford the required daily energy intake (BusinessTech, 2019). This is an extreme poverty line that reflects how little the poorest live on each month in South Africa (BusinessTech, 2019).

Due to the Covid-19 lockdown, life has become even more difficult for those already burdened by high levels of unemployment, poverty and inequality due to stoppage of most economic and social activities during this period (Nicolson, 2020). It is estimated that as many as 34% of people in South Africa have gone to bed hungry during the Covid-19 lockdown (Nicolson, 2020).

2.2.3 Composition of households in South Africa

According to the DSD (2016), about 49% of the population live in two-generation households with a further 33% in three-generation households. About 24% of adults, men and women combined, live in one-generation households as compared to 4% of children. Women constitute 30% of those living in three-generation households, and this is expected taking into consideration women’s traditional role of caring for children and/or older generations (DSD, 2016).

White people are far more likely than other groups to live in one-generation households, and coloured people are least likely (DSD, 2016). White people are also far less likely than others to live in households with more than two generations (DSD, 2016). Black Africans are least likely to live in two-generation households, with fewer than half living in this situation while more than a third live in three-generation households (DSD, 2016). About 47% of people in former homeland areas live in three-generation households as compared to fewer than 30% in all other areas (DSD, 2016). Only 12% of people in former homeland areas live in one-generation households. More than half of people in urban formal areas live in two-generation households (DSD, 2016). About 6% of black Africans live in skip-generation households as compared to 3% of all other race groups (DSD, 2016). According to the DSD, skip-generation household are those in which there are members from one generation with no members from the next generation but with members from the following generation. An example of a skip-generation household is a household that consists of grandparents and grandchildren without their parents (DSD, 2016). About 9% of skip-generation households are found in former homeland areas (DSD, 2016).

2.3 THE STATE OF EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG SOUTH AFRICAN HOUSEHOLDS

South Africa has been experiencing one of the highest reported unemployment rates in the world (Klasen & Woolard, 2008). Despite the increase in employment over the past two decades, not all new job seekers have been absorbed into the labour market (Yu; Kasongo & Moses, 2016). Unemployment is a matter of serious concern because of its potentially negative effects regarding economic welfare, production, erosion of human capital, social exclusion, crime and social instability (Kingdom & Knight, 2004). While urban unemployment rates are already extremely high, rural unemployment is at the highest proportionate levels, particularly in the former homeland areas where unemployment levels are far higher than anywhere else in the developing world (Klasen & Woolard, 2008).

The structural characteristics of endemic unemployment in South Africa have been caused by several factors related to the apartheid government’s policies aimed at promoting separate development (Altman, 2003). Apartheid policies resulted in uneven population distribution of black Africans, many of whom (including most of the elderly) are still crowded into the predominantly rural areas of the former homelands (Klasen & Woodlard, 2008). Altman (2003) further asserts that the supply of labour suitable to a middle-income economy was constrained by a set of adverse education, population control and labour market measures that contributed towards the diminishing of household incomes and the nation's greatest resource, namely its people. Altman further argues that the return to education for black African women is much lower than for black African men. Although educational attainment is the same or better for women, at least half of black women are employed in low-level occupations such as domestic work or 'elementary' work categories such as tea ladies, cleaners and so forth (Altman, 2003). Male workers with the same education are employed in a much wider variety of occupations such as trades and manufacturing, and this provides insight into one of the reasons for the disparity in earnings between men and women (Altman, 2003). Earnings by locations also clearly differ substantially as rural areas are characterised by lower earnings as compared to urban areas (Altman, 2003). Altman asserts that this has implications for households as it results in persistence of cycles of poverty, more in particular for female-headed households.

In response to unemployment and with almost no unemployment insurance, unemployed individuals look to parents, relatives and friends for economic support (Ebrahim, Leibbrandt & Woolard, 2016; Klasen & Woolard, 2008). Ebrahim *et al.* (2016) state that these individuals are more likely to attach themselves to households that have some income through an employed member. The common trend through which this happens is for unemployed youth and younger adults to postpone leaving the homes of parents or relatives while a minority return to parents or relatives in search for support (Klasen & Woodlard, 2008). The decisions of the unemployed about where to live may lead many of them to choose to remain with their relatives and parents or to move to rural areas where the nature of economic support tends to be better, which can partly account for the high rural unemployment rates (Klasen & Woolard, 2008). Klasen and Woolard argue that while this private safety net ensures basic access to resources for most of the unemployed, there is great inequality in the amount of support received with some unemployed facing destitution. Moreover, supporting unemployed members pulls down many households into deeper poverty (Klasen & Woolard, 2008). Klasen and Woodlard (2008) argue that despite the relatively even distribution of unemployment across households in rich countries, in the South African context, unemployment is skewed across racial differences. Klasen and Woodlard further assert that this is shown when white households and to a lesser extent, Indian households are largely not affected by the burden of unemployment. This implies that there is a high concentration of unemployment among black African households with nearly 50% of these households with at least one unemployed person and quite a few with more than one unemployed person (Klasen & Woodlard, 2008). Despite the lack of a system of unemployment support or other safety nets targeted at the unemployed, one source of social security in South Africa is the non-contributory means-tested old age grant (OAG) (Ardington & Luid, 1995; Case & Deaton, 1998).

An important source of resources for the unemployed are incomes of other household members, either directly from working households or indirectly via remittances from absent household members (Klasen & Woolard, 2008). The burden of unemployment on the unemployed and the households hosting them has increased over time, as has the share of households containing an unemployed person (Klasen & Woolard, 2008). Klasen and Woolard assert that the burden of unemployment on households is apportioned unequally. A minority of households that have little connection to the labour market accommodate a high number of unemployed and thus carry a disproportionate burden while the majority of households are not linked to the labour market (Klasen & Woolard, 2008). Klasen and Woolard conclude that the majority of these households receive social grants, which are a public safety net that complements the private safety net and plays a significant role in the support of the unemployed, given that the beneficiaries are largely the elderly and children. The low earnings of the lowest levels of employment and to a greater extent the social grants leave many South African households struggling to maintain themselves and, more particularly, to ensure food security, which is a great concern for many households (Abdu, Raheem & Worth*,* 2011).

2.4 FOOD INSECURITY

The Food and Agriculture Organisation (2011) defines food security as a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Poverty is strongly correlated with food insecurity, and, therefore, it is necessary to address poverty and food security simultaneously. Food insecurity in South Africa is viewed as a failure of livelihoods to provide adequate cash to purchase food at the household level (Manyamba, Hendricks, Chilonda & Musaba, 2012). In South Africa, food consumption is important because of its relation to poverty and deprivation (Sekhampu, 2012). Despite South Africa's being a middle-income country and enjoying national food security, many households are food insecure due to several factors that are also related to poverty (Manyamba, *et al*., 2012).

2.5 DETERMINANTS OF FOOD INSECURITY

Food insecurity in South Africa is determined by various factors, and there are many households that are vulnerable to food insecurity. Food insecurity can be determined by income, price increases, expenditure, inadequate safety nets and less involvement in agricultural production.

2.5.1 Household income

Household income is important as it determines how much can be spent on the various needs of the household (Sekhampu, 2012). Although employment has risen in South Africa, it has not attained the level where it can significantly address the issue of income poverty (Aliber, 2009). While South Africa may have a high per capita income, a significant proportion of households lack cash to purchase food (Manyamba *et al*., 2012). Underlying the lack of purchasing power is the limited scope of income opportunities, especially in the rural areas (Department of Agriculture and Land Reform, 2002).

2.5.2 Price increases

Selepe, Mtyingizane and Masuku (2015) assert that rising costs have a major long-term impact on vulnerable households, forcing those least able to cope with high food prices deeper into poverty and hunger. Rising food prices, particularly of maize and wheat as the staple diet of the poor in South Africa, pose serious problems for the urban and rural poor as most of them are the net buyers of food (Altman, Hart & Jacobs, 2009). The financial constraints experienced by poor households cause them to opt for less nutritious food as they may consume it mainly for its energy value (Selepe *et al.*, 2015). Selepe *et al.* (2015) affirm that the evidence for this is settling for less expensive staple foods in order to satisfy hunger without any consideration of the nutritional demands of the body. Gustafson (2013) points out that food insecurity is as a result of high food prices which falls directly on those who are financially insecure or least affording and thereby affecting their food consumption. It is in these instances that poor households find themselves pushed into a situation that will cause them to sell their assets or give up other essentials (Gustafson, 2013). Again, households are pushed deeper into the poverty trap that becomes even harder to escape (Gustafson, 2013).

The global economic meltdown also had a direct impact on the price increase of certain staple foods such as maize and on fuel (FAO, 2011;). Heady and Fan (2008) assert that the prices of wheat and maize, which form part of the staple foods in South Africa, have increased globally. This development has worsened food insecurity as households now face more difficulties in procuring food from their earnings. Another factor contributing to the food insecurity of South African households is increases in the oil price, resulting in higher prices for food items and fertilisers (Abdu *et al.,* 2011). The increases in oil prices have a direct impact on the cost of transportation, thereby forcing food prices to increase proportionately (Altman *et al*., 2009). According to Van Wyk and Dlamini (2018), increasing food prices have a disproportionate and adverse impact on the ultra-poor as they spend most of their household income on buying food. As prices become more volatile, vulnerable households find their consumption decisions affected by higher prices in the markets (Heady & Fan, 2010). Furthermore, households' access to social safety nets and other social protection schemes will also be a key determinant of the level of suffering that they will experience because of higher food prices (Manyamba *et al*., 2012*).*

2.5.3 Household size

According to Feleke, Kilmer and Gladwini (2005), household size is measured by the number of members within a household. Sekhampu (2012) points out that large households require more food expenditure. This could be attributed to the fact that households with many members are expected to consume more food than small households (Jacobs, 2009). An observation by Aidoo, Meusah and Tuffour (2013) is that an increase of one additional member in a household generally reduces income per head, expenditure per head and per capita food consumption. The higher the number of inactive individuals in the households, the higher the burden for active individuals in the provision of food, which in turn increases the likelihood of food insecurity (Amaza, Abdoulaye, Kwaghe & Tegbaru, 2009).

2.5.4 Household expenditure

The nature and patterns of food expenditure continue to reflect the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of households (Sekhampu, 2012). According to StatsSA (2008), housing, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, transport and food and nonalcoholic beverages are the main components of household consumption. The black population was found to be spending an average of 21.4% of household expenditure on food and nonalcoholic beverages (StatsSA, 2008). Case and Deaton (1998) point out that the expenditure on food by social grant recipients is not significantly different from that of nonrecipients. Households that receive social grants spend more on food than similar households that do not receive social grants (Klasen & Woolard, 2009). The quality and quantity of a household’s expenditure on food are highly dependent on the purchasing power of the household (Sekhampu, 2012). Sekhampu further asserts that the size of the household may significantly impact on food expenditure because a household with many members is likely to spend more than one with fewer members.

2.5.5 Inadequate safety nets

According to Manyamba *et al*. (2012), poor households are typically characterised by few income earners and many dependants. They are also primarily dependent on migrant remittances and social security grants, making them vulnerable to food insecurity

(Manyamba, 2012). Migrant remittances and social protection schemes make households receiving them attractive to the unemployed (Ebrahim *et al.*, 2016). These households are likely to become bigger as they are often multigenerational (Keleher, 2014). Both public safety nets in the form of social security schemes and private safety nets in the form of migrant remittances provide support to the unemployed members of multigenerational households (Ebrahim *et al.*, 2016). The dependency of the unemployed members of multigenerational households places a burden on the already strained public and private safety nets.

2.5.6 Less involvement in agricultural production

Manyamba *et al.* (2012) argue that most of the households that are vulnerable to food insecurity are consumers rather than producers of food and rely on cash transfers, casual wages or temporary employment. Manyamba *et al.* further report that a household survey provided evidence that less than a quarter (20.7%) of South African households were involved in agricultural production. According to StatsSA (2011), those who are involved in agricultural production engage mostly in the production of food for home consumption. This means that the majority of South Africans need reliable and stable sources of income to buy their staple food.

2.6 HOUSEHOLDS' VULNERABILITY TO FOOD INSECURITY

Households that are vulnerable to food insecurity in South Africa are those in rural areas, those who are female headed, those affected by HIV/AIDS and those with limited scope for income.

2.6.1 Rural households

According to Koch (2011), statistics suggest that food insecurity is most severe in rural areas, where most of the poor live. Rural households are particularly vulnerable because of their reliance on remittances from urban areas (Manyamba *et al.*, 2012). Because rural household produce less than what they consume, they are dependent on purchased food and rely of nonfarm income to meet most of their household needs (Department of Agriculture and Land Reform, 2002). The majority of poor households are concentrated in rural areas, especially in the former homelands (Department of Agriculture and Land

Reform, 2011). Since the majority of the poor reside in rural areas, it is possible that food-insecure households are also prevalent in these areas (du Toit, 2011). Rural households spend more on food but less per person than their urban counterparts (Altman *et al.*, 2009).

2.6.2 Female-headed households

According to Nwosu and Ndinda (2018), unemployment, economic inactivity and poverty are disproportionately borne by women and by female-headed households. Female-headed households are poorer than male-headed households in South Africa (Nwosu & Ndinda, 2018). Female-headed households are also more likely to experience high levels of unemployment. Findings by Tibesiguna and Visser (2015) show that male-headed households are more food secure compared to their female-headed counterparts. According to Tibesiguna and Visser, the main reason for male-headed households' being more food secure is the income derived from off-farm labour participation. Tibesiguna and Visser (2015) further observed that the food security gap between male and female-headed households was wider in rural than in urban areas, with rural female-headed households more likely to report chronic food insecurity than their male-headed counterparts. Nwoso and Ndinda (2018) further assert that female-headed households in which only women are employed are still more likely to be poorer than male-headed households as they may not have stable and reliable employment to provide adequate and nutritious food on a daily basis (Selepe *et al.*, 2015). Selepe *et al.* (2015) further argue that female-headed households are among the most vulnerable households in rural areas because they tend to spend more of their income on food than male-headed ones and thus higher food prices affect their total expenditure more (Gustafson, 2013). Olowu (2013) reveals that an increasing number of female-headed households are struggling to make a living and to ensure the food security of their families without access to credit, technology or extension services.

2.6.3 Households affected by HIV/AIDS

HIV/AIDS is a shock to household food security, and household food security cannot be properly understood without considering the effects of HIV/AIDS (Southern African

Development Community, 2009). HIV/AIDS increases vulnerability to food insecurity, which leads to increase in vulnerability to HIV infection, and thus HIV/AIDS can be treated as a shock to household security (Manyamba *et al.*, 2012). Families affected by HIV/AIDS have higher dependency ratios because the disease, unlike most other illnesses, affects the strong and able-bodied and people in the household depend on each able-bodied adult for survival (Adato & Basset, 2012). Within HIV and AIDS-affected households, there is an increased risk of food insecurity and malnutrition due to decreased economic capacity (Anema, Vogenthalelar, Frongillo, Kadiyala & Weiser, 2009). Manyamba *et al.* (2012) point out that there is evidence that as family members become ill, resources needed for care increase while at the same time the capacity to generate income decreases, thereby resulting in fewer household resources. Death due to HIV/AIDS strips families of their breadwinners, and families are pushed into a cycle of poverty and deprivation, with children being immediate victims (Manyamba *et al.*, 2012). Gillespie, Hadden and Jackson (2001) affirm that HIV/AIDS is a unique, slow-moving and devastating shock that strips households of their livelihood assets and progressively erodes the lives and livelihoods of affected households.

2.6.4 Households with limited scope of income

Low-income households are more likely to suffer from food insecurity as compared to middle-income and wealthier households (Jacobs, 2009). One of the factors that causes households with limited income to become vulnerable to food insecurity is their inability to consume sufficient food because they are usually unemployed and have a low income and inadequate social transfer mechanisms (European Union, 2012). According to Staatz, Boughton and Donovan (2009) poor households' real income depends on the cost of food prices and thus, they are prevented from accessing adequate food. Low-income households spend a third of their income on food (Stats SA, 2014) and may often end up in debt because of insufficient income to procure food.

2.7 THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL GRANTS ON HOUSEHOLDS

South Africa has the highest expenditure on social assistance in the world (Potts, 2011) due to the government's commitment to the social grant system in its efforts to improve the socioeconomic status of poor and vulnerable groups (Grobbler & Sekhampu, 2012). It is widely documented that social grants in South Africa contribute significantly towards reducing poverty and promoting social development amongst the poor (Case & Deaton, 1996; Samson, Lee, Ndlebe, Macqueene, Van Niekerk, Gandhi, Harigava & Ebrahim, 2004; Woodlard & Leibbrandt, 2010). Ralston, Schatz, Menken, Gomez-Olive & Tollman (2015) assert that the social grant system plays a critical role in the survival and livelihoods of elderly individuals. Ralston *et al* further affirm that the OAG significantly increases income in black South African households. In many instances, the OAG supports the entire household (Rossouw, 2017). The OAG provides many households with access to credit markets and provides many older women with a stable income for the first time in their lives (Ralston *et al.*, 2015).

The OAG may also provide a better life with higher food security and help children to enjoy higher food security and better schooling (Gomez-Olive, Thorogood, Clark, Kahn & Tollman, 2010). In many instances, older people, more often women, assume caregiving roles, particularly in multigenerational households (Moller & Devey, 2003). Income pooling of pensions and other social grants provides a reliable and regular safety net, improving overall food security and wellbeing in older persons' households (Barrientos, 2003; May, 2003; Moller & Devey, 2003). There is evidence that the OAG mitigates the financial and emotional impacts of an adult child's death (Ardington, Case, Islan, Larn, Leibbrandt, Menendez & Oligiati, 2010) and assists in the care of grandchildren that are left behind (Case, 2004). There is also evidence that there are improvements in health and wellbeing among adults and children living in households that are headed by OAG recipients (Case, 2004; Case & Deaton, 1998; Duflo, 2003).

Brenes-Canacho (2011) argues that while the OAG may improve perceived wellbeing in the short term, particularly for women, there are several potentially gendered reasons why initial gains may fade. One of them could be the physical and emotional toll of aging and the stress of caregiving, which may have an impact on older women's health (Schatz, Gomez-Olive, Raston, Menken & Tollman, 2012). Mayosi, Flisher, Tollman, Lallo, Sitas, Tollman & Bradshaw (2009) affirm that emerging hypertension and related noncommunicable diseases may be evidence of these effects. In addition, as older women prove their willingness to share their social pension to maintain and sustain their households (Schatz & Ogunmefun, 2007), the burden on them may increase, including an increasing number of dependants in their households. This may in turn make them unable to fulfil all the demands that they face.

Another grant that plays a significant role in the socioeconomic situation of South African households is the child support grant (CSG). The CSG is the largest social cash transfer programme in terms of number of beneficiaries and one of the government's most successful social interventions (Tanga & Gutura, 2013). The CSG reaches a large number of children, including those living in the deepest rural areas of the Eastern Cape and Kwa-Zulu Natal (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2013). Tanga and Gutura (2013) state that the CSG may help to ensure food security, to enable parents to buy school uniforms and pay school fees, thus supporting enrolment and attendance, to increase access to credit by raising individual creditworthiness, to alleviate poverty in the household, to raise women's bargaining power in the household and to fund daycare or preschool for the beneficiary, thereby enabling the mother to find work and become employed. The CSG also enhances women's power and control over household decision making in financial matters, general household spending and child wellbeing (Patel, Hochfield, Moodley & Mutwali, 2012). Patel *et al.* (2012) affirm that women's increased capability to make decisions and to exercise freedom of choice about how the CSG is spent enables them to generate valuable outcomes that are important to the quality of their lives and those of their children.

According to Tanga and Gutura (2013), female beneficiaries of the CSG can use the money for food in order to gain the strength to search for employment whilst also using the money to pay for transport when searching for employment. Thus, the CSG enables female beneficiaries to invest in a more productive search for employment by providing the critical support necessary for searching for decent work and not attaching themselves to the worst forms of available labour opportunities out of desperation (Tanga & Gutura, 2013). The study conducted by Samson (2009) also supports the view that social protection services when used for their intended purpose can contribute to the reduction of gender inequalities. This could be attributed to the possibility of the migration of female beneficiaries to look for a job while leaving the CSG behind to assist older women to look after the children while their mothers are away (Tanga & Gutura, 2013). Jacobs, Baiphethi, Ngcobo and Hart (2010) also argue that although the effect of the CSG seems small, the mere fact that the beneficiaries of the grant are more likely to participate in the labour force than nonbeneficiaries is promising and somewhat dispels the earlier reservations about the potential impacts of social grants on labour force participation that claimed that social grants created dependency.

Households that receive the disability grant (DG) are inclined to be multigenerational. The situation of DG recipients has been shown to be worse in every respect than that of nonrecipients (Potts, 2011). The employment rate for DG-receiving households was 17.3% compared to 51.4% for non-DG-receiving households (Mitra, 2014. Potts states that DG-receiving households are concentrated in rural areas with less access to social services. DG recipients are also beneficiaries of other types of social assistance, and their living conditions are inferior to those of nonrecipients in terms of access to services such as piped water, flush toilets and electricity (Potts, 2011). Overall, this indicates that the DG is reaching its target demographics, namely the poorest households (Potts, 2011).

Despite targeting specific vulnerable groups (such as the young, elderly and chronically sick or disabled), social grants generally benefit household as a whole (Abel, 2013; Klasen & Woolard, 2008). The concern is that households that are receiving social grants may become dependent on the income from the social grants rather than becoming engaged in economic activities (Sinyolo, Mudhara & Wale, 2016). Sinyolo *et al*. (2016) affirm that based on the conventional economic theory, there is an assertion that social grants, as an unearned income, create disincentives to undertaking economic activities and earning a living. In contrast, findings from other studies (Ardington, Case & Hosegood, 2009, Pose *et al*., 2006; Williams, 2007) indicate that additional income from social grants has a positive impact on economic activities by easing households' financial constraints. Potts (2011) argues that contrary to the assertion that the OAG in South Africa creates a network of dependency in which the entire household is dependent on the pension income of one individual and uses this for sustenance rather than seeking employment, OAG may assist the unemployed household members to pay transport costs when seeking employment.

2.8 THE SAVING BEHAVIOUR OF POOR SOUTH AFRICAN HOUSEHOLDS

There is an acknowledgment that saving in South Africa is low for both those who are employed and the beneficiaries of social grants. The higher dependency ratio is hampering the ability of many South African households to save, amid rising unemployment and the cost of living (Ramos, 2017). Ramos further states that the World Bank and the South African Reserve Bank have agreed that South African savings stocks accumulated from household savings have been trending downwards for the past 35 years, with consumers tending to borrow rather than to save. Ramos affirms that this is true of low-income households whose savings are cancelled out by debt and where far too little of the borrowings are used to acquire long-term assets such as housing. According to Chitiga, Mabungu, Fotana, Abidoye and Mbanda (2014), there has been a decline in household savings amongst social grant beneficiaries due to increase in prices and increasing demand for health services and agricultural and food products. The savings levels of working South Africans are also still low at 15% while the gross rate of savings for the entire population is at a shocking 3% (Le Roux, 2017). According to the FinScope South Africa (2017) survey, there is persistence in insurance savings, with funeral cover still increasing. About 58% of South Africans have funeral cover as compared to 22% who do not (FinScope South Africa, 2017). The FinScope South Africa survey points out that this is a disturbing trend because funeral insurance products take away scarce resources from other more productive expenditure or can reduce the utilisation of credit for consumption by the poor. Le Roux (2017) points out that people are struggling to save more because they are under financial pressure due to rising inflation, interest rates and taxes and their income is not growing fast enough. Furthermore, low savings are due to the prevalence of the sandwich generation, whereby the middle-aged generation has to take care of adult children as well as elderly parents, which places a financial burden on them (Le Roux, 2017). Westaway (2012) asserts that rural households in the former Bantustan areas (which are mostly traditional areas) spend most of their income on food. In the Eastern Cape Province, less than a quarter of households reported saving some money after taking care of all household expenses, excluding investments and pensions (May & Nzimande, 2012).

According to Hoos (2010), saving is influenced by the following factors:

- The more there are younger dependants in a household, the less money will be saved.
- The more elderly persons there are in a household, the less money will be saved.
- The higher the education level is, the higher the rate of savings will be.
- The higher the life expectancy is, the more money will be saved.
- The higher the inflation rate is, the less money will be saved.

Saving behaviour and its determinants in South Africa need to be understood within the context of colonial disenfranchisement through legislative instruments that left the majority of people outside the mainstream economy, excluding them from conventional savings and saving instruments (Carter & May 2001; May & Norton, 1997). According to Carter and May, apartheid policies negatively affected many people, particularly blacks, by stripping them of productive assets, especially land and livestock, and distorting economic markets, which were the cornerstone of the poor's livelihoods and their ability to save (May & Norton, 1997). Zwane, Greyling and Maleka (2016 identify poverty, income inequality and unemployment as crucial socioeconomic legacies of apartheid in South Africa, which together complicate the understanding of saving behaviour and its specific determinants.

Understanding of the saving behaviour of poor households is further complicated by financial institutions' regulatory environment that is not accommodative of poor households' socioeconomic circumstances. However, Bachas Gertler, Higgins and Seira (2016) contend that poor households could save through formal saving instruments that are offered by formal financial institutions such as commercial or retail banks. Jain (2015) affirms that banks that have poor households as their niche market exist and provide saving instruments for these households. Kishor (2013) argues that these formal banks have regulations, terms and conditions that often restrict the poor from saving with these institutions. For instance, it is a requirement as part of formal financial regulation that a potential bank account owner has to deposit a minimum fee and provide proof of employment and proof of residence (Allen, Dermirgun-Kint, Klapper & Peri, 2016). According to Thosago, the poor may not meet these requirements as they reside in areas where proof of residence is difficult to acquire. As mentioned earlier, the majority of poor households are found in rural areas and in informal settlements in urban areas. Informal settlement dwellers do not receive water and electricity bills that can be used as proof of residence (Thosago, 2018). The poor are often also not employed in the formal sectors where letters of employment and income statements are issued (Dermirguckant & Klapper, 2013). Based on the above argument, it is important therefore to note that the availability of formal financial institutions and their formal saving mechanisms does not imply that the poor can access these formal saving instruments easily.

Ellis, Lemma and Rud (2010) provide empirical evidence that indicates that poor households that experience access and availability constraints regarding saving with formal financial institutions have alternative semiformal and informal saving options instruments. Ellis *et al.* classify semiformal saving instruments as saving instruments offered by organisations that are not banks, insurance companies, government institutions or employer organisations. Examples of semi-formal saving instruments in South Africa are burial societies and rotating savings and credit associations and are often referred to as stokvels (Matuku & Kaseke, 2014). Unlike formal financial instruments that have regulations, terms and conditions that take into account whether a potential saver is poorer or richer, the semiformal saving instruments enable members of burial societies and stokvels to set regulations, terms and conditions that suit the members and their socioeconomic circumstances (Mashigo, 2007). Regarding availability, burial societies and stokvels have always had a common bond that enables these semiformal saving instruments to be easily available to poor households (Thosago, 2018). Based on the findings by Mashigo (2007) and Mutesasire Sempangi, Hulme, Rutherfold and Wright (1998), members of semiformal saving instruments have at least a common bond of geographical location, ethnicity, workplace, family relations or friendship.

Besides the semiformal saving instruments such as burial societies and stokvels, poor households tend to save with informal saving instruments (Karlan & Morduch, 2010).

According to Ellis *et al*. (2010), these saving instruments are categorised as in-kind savings and savings in the house, also referred to as hoarding of cash. Hoarding of cash or savings in the house happens when there is excess income that can be hoarded in the house for future use (Ellis *et al.*, 2010; Paxton & Young, 2009). In-kind savings occur when the household decides to consider its animals, jewellery, food and so forth as savings (Aportela, 1999; Wright & Mutesasira, 2001).

2.9 INDEBTEDNESS OF SOUTH AFRICAN HOUSEHOLDS

The rising cost of living against a background of increasing dependency means that disproportionately large amounts of household income have become commitment to consumption expenditure rather than saving (Ssebagala, 2016). Collins and Morduch (2010) point out that South African low-income households may use loans to cope with health shocks, pay school fees, put food on the table or participate in communal or religious activities. Ssebagala (2016) further states that while increased access to credit means that families can easily supplement this consumption expenditure, rising consumer debt burdens have caused serious concern that families are becoming more financially fragile and less able to meet debt their repayment obligations when they are due. FinScope South Africa (2017) also highlights that although South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) grant beneficiaries have access to a greater diversity of financial products than other poor groups, they are increasingly becoming more indebted,, supporting the view that they are being targeted by credit providers. As indicated earlier, despite a well-established and effectively regulated banking system, many low-income or poor households do not have access to credit services (Biyase & Fisher, 2007). According to Biyase and Fisher, one of the reasons for limited access by poor households to credit services is that poor households are regarded as risky and unprofitable. Second, the low rate of saving and asset accumulation on their low income gives them a high-risk profile, thus making them unattractive to commercial banks (Biyase & Fisher, 2007). Lastly, commercial banks are likely to incur high information costs to access the creditworthiness of poor households (Dallimore & Mgimet, 2003; Okurut, 2006). Mashigo (2006) argues that despite the increasing need for the financial services sector to cater for a wide variety of essential needs such as food, education and clothes as well as shocks such as illness, theft, fire and death, the formal financial services sector is not appropriately structured to satisfy the rapid growth in the need for financial services by poor communities.

Concerning access to credit services in South Africa, Okurut (2006) discovered a number of variables, namely age of the household head, race group, educational level, gender, employment status and geographical location, that had a significant impact on the propensity to borrow. Households living in the poorest provinces, namely the Eastern Cape, Kwa-Zulu Natal and Limpopo, were less likely to be approved for loans than those residing in the Western Cape (Biyase & Fisher, 2017). Biyase and Fisher further affirm that this also applies to households living in traditional rural and farm areas as they are less likely to be approved for loans than households in urban communities.

Poor households are therefore prevented from accessing credit services and are marginalised (Mashigo, 2006). Such alienation and marginalisation often result in dependence on formal microlenders and informal local money lenders by most households for the provision of credit (Baumann, 2001). These money-lending options are regarded as responsive to their financial needs and act as lenders of last resort for them as they could not obtain credit elsewhere (The World Bank, 2002). However, according to Mashigo (2006), poor households are exploited by these lenders who lend them more than they can afford. The unscrupulous lending practices of most money lenders contribute to the debt spiral of poor households (Mashigo, 2006). These households become overindebted because they use loans to pay off other loans and allocate more than 50% of their monthly net income to loan repayment (Mashigo, 2006). The other causes of the debt spiral include retail credit, municipal services and groceries to cater for themselves and their dependent children (Mashigo, 2006). All this indicates that consumption expenditure for the most basic household goods is an extremely significant constraint on poor households in South Africa (Mashigo, 2006). According to Mashigo, poor households in this regard have no option but to incur debts in order to survive.

The Human Rights Commission (2017) attests that in recent years, unsecured lending has grown rapidly and with it comes a discriminatory and predatory practice of debt collection. Many people in South Africa are struggling under a burden of debt that is difficult to overcome, rendering them vulnerable to an endless cycle of debt and poverty (Human Rights Commission, 2017). It is estimated that at least 40% of the monthly income of South African workers is being directed towards repayment of debt, and in addition to that, around 80% of South African employees are subject to deductions from their salaries for debt owed (Human Rights Commission, 2017). As a result of the deductions from their salaries, individuals are left with little cash to cover their basic needs (Human Rights Commission, 2017). The Human Rights Commission asserts that those in the lower income brackets are most severely affected, with many households struggling to meet their basic needs, such as food, water, housing, electricity, clothing and education.

2.10 FINANCIALLY EXCLUDED HOUSEHOLDS IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to the FinScope Survey of 2016, at least 23% of South Africans did not have bank accounts (BASA, 2019. Djankov, Miranda, Seira and Sharma (2008) put forward hypotheses that explain the reasons that people remain unbaked. One hypothesis states that the unbanked are those for whom opening a bank account does not make economic sense. Their deposits are relatively small compared to their withdrawals, and thus the costs of accounts are too high; sometimes, it is also too costly to access a distant bank branch (Djankov *et al*., 2008). Another hypothesis is that the unbanked are those who do not trust banks because they have had a bad experience with banks, have heard of others who have lost their money in banks or simply lack financial education. There is also a hypothesis that states that the uneducated stay unbanked because they are more comfortable dealing with the informal sector, even if it is more expensive (Djankov *et al*., 2008).

In the South African context, access to financial services is crucial as it encourages people to manage their money, save for the future and insure themselves against unforeseen events (National Treasury, 2011). This is especially important for low-income households that live in or close to poverty (National Treasury, 2011). As in other parts of the world, poor South Africans often have limited access to reliable, safe and convenient financial services although the widespread occurrence of informal arrangements such as stokvels is evidence of a demand for such services (Delany & Storchi, 2012). Delany and

Storchi further affirm that many people in South Africa continue to be excluded from the formal economy, particularly in rural areas. The Eastern Cape Province has the highest number of unbanked individuals (Mishi *et al*., 2012). This could be because of banks' failing to penetrate rural areas due to limited demand or individuals' failing to access banks because they are not close to where they reside (Mishi *et al*., 2012).

The World Economic Forum (2017) identifies certain challenges to financial inclusion in South Africa:

- A perception of high fees limits the use of banks: Despite the fact that more than 70% of adults have transaction accounts, only 24% make more than three transactions in a month such as withdrawals, deposits or card swipes. Many people are willing to run the risk of loss and theft associated with cash to avoid transaction fees.
- People have a general mistrust of banks' motives: People with a low income have a deep mistrust of the formal financial sector that is rooted in fear of exploitation. Past abuses such as inappropriate marketing strategies and types of financial products sold have shown that poor people are the worst victims of rapacious commercial interests. It is also argued that South Africa's poor are particularly vulnerable due to widespread financial illiteracy, thereby exacerbating the sense of mistrust and levels of exploitation fostered by these practices.
- People value a sense of community with trusted advisors: It is widely documented that 40% of South African households use trust-based models such as stokvels. For many South Africans, stokvels are more than a mechanism to save money; they also provide a safety net for emergencies and offer an aspect of social interaction for the purpose of entertainment and advice. When considering the socioeconomic circumstances of low-income households, these trust-based models provide the flexibility and support structure that is perceived as lacking in the formal financial sector.
- Banks require too much paperwork, and response times are slow: The financial services industry has created substantial barriers for individuals to access services such as loans. One such barrier is the requirement of payslips and bank

statements, and approval can also take a long time. This may become restrictive to the low-income segment that often needs money on the same day and in many instances does not have access to the required documents. When low-income people borrow money for immediate needs such as getting to work or buying food, flexibility and immediate response times are the key factors in determining the choice of financial services. It is also argued that despite the progress made by the formal financial institutions in response times, their regulatory requirements make it difficult for the poor to compete and therefore when it is really necessary to borrow, many poor South Africans turn to community loan sharks or friends and family.

- A significant amount of business is conducted informally: According to StatsSA, in 2013, more than 1.5 million South Africans were running small, informal businesses. Informal businesses do not easily satisfy the requirements of the formal financial sector. This is because banks require proper registration in order to open business banking accounts and offer loans, but registration fees are often expensive for small business owners, thus limiting the use of such services by people running small businesses.

The survey by FinScope South Africa (2017) showed an increase in the number of people who were not using their bank account optimally. FinScope South Africa (2017) revealed that although the banked population was at 77%, about 6% of those accounts were dormant. The survey further revealed a disturbing increase in the number of account holders who withdrew all their money as soon as it was deposited.

2.11 CONCLUSION

Even though South Africa is one of the two biggest economies on the African continent, the majority of its citizens are engulfed in poverty. Those most affected are black Africans and women living in rural areas and informal urban neighbourhoods. The race, geographical and gender dimensions of poverty are inextricably linked to the historical past of dispossession, segregation and gender inequality in South Africa. Poverty is further exacerbated by increasing unemployment levels and acute levels of inequality. Due to the limited income resources as a result of unemployment, poor South African households are also faced with a challenge of food insecurity that adversely affects especially rural households and female-headed households. The social protection scheme that is part of the South African government's poverty alleviation strategies contributes significantly towards improving food security among poor households. However, households with social grant beneficiaries are overburdened by the presence of unemployed household members who do not have any other source of income. The low income of these poor households is stretched as it has to cater for the members of the household who do not have any other source of income. Some research findings suggest that some of the money is spent on funding job search for the unemployed. In many instances, in order to cope with the demand of meeting the households' needs, these households have to resort to searching for credit in the form of loans so that they can fulfil their household socioeconomic obligations. The lack of disposable income after expenditure prohibits them from investing in savings and assets, and consequently, they are pulled down deeper into poverty.

CHAPTER 3

POVERTY ALLEVIATION INTERVENTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Despite South Africa's being regarded as one of the biggest economies on the continent and one of the significant players in the world economic space, it is still faced by the challenge of poverty that affects the majority of the population, more particularly vulnerable groups such as women, children, youth, older persons and people with disabilities. The most affected are those living in rural areas and informal urban dwellings. Since the advent of the democratic dispensation in 1994, the South African government has initiated a wide range of poverty alleviation interventions through policies, legislations and programmes. The policy and legislative framework that informed the democratic government's poverty alleviation interventions was influenced by the Poverty and Inequality Report of 1998. The poverty alleviation interventions were aimed at ensuring that government institutions, the private sector, nongovernmental organisations (NGOs), civil society organisations and communities played a significant role in alleviating poverty in the country. This chapter describes and analyses various poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa since the advent of the democratic era in 1994. It begins with the definition of poverty, explains how poverty and poverty alleviation are viewed within the capability approach and further describes the current situation of poverty in South Africa. A brief examination of social policy approaches and goals underpinning poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa is given. In addition, the chapter describes poverty alleviation strategies through economic growth, infrastructure development, creation of economic opportunities for previously excluded groups, empowerment of and employment creation for previously disadvantaged individuals, and poverty alleviation interventions directed at vulnerable sectors of South African society such as children, the elderly, persons with disabilities, youth and women. These focal areas of intervention are inextricably linked as the success of each depends on the implementation of the other. For example, economic growth has a direct impact on the availability of finance for the funding of social development-related poverty alleviation and creation of jobs. Infrastructure development strengthens the delivery of services, improves the quality of life and creates an environment conducive to economic growth. Empowerment and creation of economic opportunities strengthen human capital and social capital for inclusive and effective participation in the economy.

3.2 DEFINITION OF POVERTY

Notwithstanding various definitions and conceptualisations of poverty as may be influenced by the economic and social conditions of different nations and countries, there is consensus among many authors regarding the factors that underpin the definition of poverty. Chambers (2006) indicates that the meaning of poverty depends on who is asking the question, how that question is understood and who answers it. Sen (1999) defines poverty as deprivation of basic capabilities rather than merely as low income. Dasgupta and Weale (1992) argue that poverty can be conceptualised and measured by the determinants of wellbeing or alternatively by the access that people have to the determinants of wellbeing. Green (2008) views poverty as a multidimensional phenomenon and therefore not as only linked to low income. Green argues that the reverse of poverty is not simply wealth but a wider notion of wellbeing including health, physical safety, meaningful work, connection to community and other nonmonetary factors. Green (2012) further asserts that poverty is a sense of powerlessness, frustration and exclusion from decision making, and limited access to public services, financial systems and just about any other source of official support. Poverty also has a deep existential impact of being denied the opportunity to flourish whether for oneself or one's children (Green, 2012). Green further argues that because the many dimensions of poverty reinforce one another, poor people are discriminated against and too many of them are poor because of this discrimination.

To elaborate on the conceptualisations of poverty as articulated above, Tenai (2016) highlights the following three approaches to the conceptualisation and quantification of poverty:

- Monetary approach to poverty: Tenai (2016) argues that this approach conceptualises poverty in terms of a shortfall on consumption or income based on poverty line. This approach often places a monetary value on substance production and social services and other public goods based on market prices. Fakunda-Parr

(2010) argues that despite the lack of consensus on how to define and measure poverty, there is a broader recognition that the income perspective is too narrow to capture the complexity of poverty as a life experience of people. In essence, this approach identifies those who live below the poverty line as poor.

- Social exclusion approach to poverty: This approach implies marginalisation and relegation away from the social arrangements within a given community, including its entitlements and opportunities, directly because of poverty or on account of being insignificant (Tenai, 2016). The approach values the significance of relationships, especially in resource distribution, control and usage as vital for one's social and economic wellbeing. The types of exclusion include decision making, social services, community and family support (Tenai, 2016). According to Tenai, the apparent weakness of this approach is the lack of a clear distinction between induced social exclusion and other forms of social exclusion that are referred to above. A social exclusion approach to poverty identifies those who are marginalised and powerless as living in poverty.
- Participatory approach to poverty: This approach is informed by an emphasis on poor people's ability and capacity to understand and analyse their own experiences and realities. It anticipates a dominant role being played by poor people themselves in assessing what it means to be poor and the scale of poverty (Chambers, 1994). However, the approach is criticised for presenting a superficial appearance that everyone who has a stake has a voice and a choice (Tenai, 2016). Tenai (2016) points out that even the so-called community-driven meetings which are meant to be about participatory planning, including other initiatives that lay claim to participation and empowerment, can turn out to be driven by certain interests (race, gender, class, ability, age and so forth) and thus may not necessarily be a true expression of the voice of the broader community. According to Tenai, this approach does not explain what poverty is or who the poor are as the task to determine this is left to the people.

Triegaardt (2006 also points out that there is a common agreement about the degrees of poverty, which are as follows:

- Absolute poverty implies that households are unable to meet the basic needs for survival. They are chronically hungry, unable to access healthcare, lack safe drinking water and sanitation, cannot afford education for some or perhaps all the children and lack basic shelter and basic clothing such as shoes.
- Moderate poverty means that basic needs are met but just barely.
- Relative poverty is generally perceived to be a household income level that is below a given proportion of the average national income.

According to The World Bank (2003), to be poor means hunger, lack of shelter and clothing, inability to seek medical treatment and lack of formal education or illiteracy. Annafo (2014) identifies three concepts of poverty:

- Income concepts: Poverty occurs when income is below the defined poverty line. This is based on the income poverty lines adopted by countries to monitor progress in reducing poverty incidences and cut-off poverty lines are defined in terms of having enough income for a specified amount of food.
- Basic needs concepts: Poverty is perceived as deprivation of material requirements for minimal acceptable fulfilment of human needs, including food. It is argued that deprivation goes well beyond the lack of private income. It includes the need for basic health and education and essential services that prevent people from falling into poverty and recognises the need for employment and participation.
- Capability concepts: Poverty represents the absence of some basic capabilities to function, and a poor person lacks the opportunity to achieve some minimally acceptable levels of these functionings. The functionings can vary from physical ones such as being well nourished, being adequately clothed and sheltered and avoiding preventable morbidity to more complex social achievement such as partaking in the life of the community (Anaafo, 2014). The capability approach to poverty reconciles the notions of absolute and relative poverty since relative

deprivation in incomes and commodities can lead to absolute deprivation of minimum capabilities (Anaafo, 2014). The focus on the capability approach is of intrinsic importance for consideration when thinking of poverty alleviation.

3.3 CAPABILITY APPROACH AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The focus of the capability approach is on what a person actually ends up doing and also what he or she is in fact able to do, whether or not he or she chooses to make use of the opportunity (Sen, 2009). According to Buzzelli (2015), the capability approach includes two main concepts, namely capabilities and functionings. Capabilities are the freedoms that allow persons to lead the kind of life that they value and have reason to value (Sen, 1999). Capabilities are opportunities that persons may choose from and act on in order to live the kind of life that they value based on their potential. Functionings are the beings and doings that are realisations of capabilities (Sen, 2011). Robeyns (2003) adds that functionings include working, resting, being literate, being healthy, being part of a community, being respected and so forth. The capability to achieve all the various combinations of functions that a person can choose to have constitutes the person's real opportunities (freedom) to enjoy wellbeing (Tenai 2016). The achievement of wellbeing therefore is dependent on the capability to function (Sen, 1992). When wellbeing is achieved, agency achievement may also be realised. A person's agency achievement is his or her success in the totality of her or his considered goals and objectives (Sen, 1992). According to Keleher (2014), examples of agency achievement may include being well nourished, owning a sports car, having all children's lives go well, protecting the environment and so forth. These goals and objectives may not necessarily be connected with a person's own wellbeing (Crocker, 2008). Crocker (2008) states that they may involve an overarching interest in the roles of human beings, whether on their own and or in co-operation with each other, in running their lives and in using and expanding their freedoms.

From a capability approach, poverty is viewed as the deprivation of certain basic capabilities. These can include more complex social achievements such as taking part in the life of the community, being able to appear in public without shame and so forth (Hick, 2012). The capability approach links poverty to the ability to achieve precisely those things that are important (Sen, 1989). Hick (2012) points out that the capability approach to poverty stresses the intrinsic importance of people's capabilities (as ends) as opposed to the instrumental importance of income (as mean). Tenai (2016) asserts that the capability approach assesses poverty beyond the income method. The capability approach argues for the importance of multidimensional assessment in poverty analysis and adopts a broad perspective of many kinds of constraints that affect people's lives (Hick, 2012). A response to poverty therefore is about the expansion of choices and capabilities that people can have in order to live the lives that they value. Sen (1984) highlights the elements that are essential for the expansion of capabilities, namely that assets and resources are available to the poor, that activities can be undertaken to generate sustainable livelihoods and that commodities and services required by people for an acceptable standard of living are made available. Sen also identifies human capabilities, natural resources, social and institutional resources and human-made assets as resources required to achieve the expansion of capabilities. Any poverty alleviation intervention must be able to provide capabilities that are opportunities for the expansion of choices and also functionings in order to be able to do whatever one wants to do in achieving wellbeing and agency. A brief overview of the poverty besetting South Africa is provided below.

3.4 POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

An in-depth description of the prevalence of poverty in South Africa has already been dealt with in the preceding chapter. Poverty in South Africa is apparent to the human eye and is characterised by shacks, homelessness, unemployment, casual labour, poor infrastructure and lack of or poor access to basic services (Triegaardt, 2012). Poverty in South Africa occurs more among women than men, and the poverty incidence is higher for women as age increases compared to men (The World Bank, 2018). Rural areas are the hardest hit by poverty, with 59.7% of the poor living in rural areas in 2015 (The World Bank, 2018). The Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo are the poorest provinces, and Gauteng has consistently had the lowest poverty rate in the country (The World Bank, 2018). All provinces have experienced poverty reduction between 2006 and 2015. Mpumalanga recorded the highest reduction in poverty levels, with the poverty rate falling from 60% to 43% between 2006 and 2015, and the Eastern Cape recorded the lowest reduction rate during the same period (The World Bank, 2018).

Poverty reduction is a key national governmental priority and has been mainstreamed throughout most government programmes (Patel, 2005) from the onset of democracy in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and in the current National Development Plan (NDP) (The World Bank, 2018). It is implemented through macrostrategies implemented by different social and economic policies of government in partnership with the private sector. Despite the notable gains in poverty alleviation through the implementation of these macrostrategies, the country continues to face the challenge of poverty, high inequality and high unemployment (The World Bank, 2018).

3.5 SOCIAL POLICY APPROACHES UNDERPINNING POVERTY ALLEVIATION INTERVENTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

The social policy approaches underpinning poverty alleviation have been derived mainly from the conventional consumption-based welfare approach and the social investment approach. The conventional consumption-based approach is viewed as seeking to remedy the problems facing needy communities and is concerned with income transfers, social services, decommodification (Morel, Palier & Palmer, 2012) and in-kind social protection programmes targeting poor, vulnerable households and individuals (Patel, 2018). Conversely, the social investment approach promotes labour market participation and prepares people for employment (Morel *et al.*, 2012), thereby enhancing people's capabilities and fostering their participation in the productive economy with positive social and economic effects. Despite the market liberalism belief that consumption-based approach programmes dampen incentives, foster dependency and harm the economy (Midgley, 2012), there has been an acceleration of social protection cash transfers by several developing countries (Midgley, 2018). Midgley (2018) argues that any government spending on social programmes that generates future yields should not be viewed as fostering consumption but should rather be seen as investment. This is echoed by the seminal work of Schultz (1962) who asserts that government spending on education, health and nutrition is human capital investment rather than allocation that sustains consumption.

In Africa, the acceleration of social protection programmes can be attributed to the realities of human insecurity and persistent high rates of poverty and unemployment and the impact of economic crises that are the result of various factors such as political conflict, vulnerability to food insecurity, climate change and high rates of HIV and AIDS (Patel, 2018). Social policy interventions for poverty alleviation in South Africa have been characterised by both the consumption-based and the social investment approaches, with the former complementing the latter. Social policy interventions for poverty alleviation in South Africa have been premised on three goals that according to Sherraden (2018) are social protection, development and macroeconomic goals.

3.5.1 Social protection goals

Social protection goals seek to prevent hardship and to promote social stability by mainly focusing on standard of living, coverage and adequate minimum protection at the bottom (Sherraden, 2018). According to Patel (2018), social protection goals are also measures to provide income or consumption transfers to protect vulnerable households against livelihoods risk and to enhance households' social status and rights with the overall objective of reducing their economic and social vulnerability. The bulk of social protection cash transfers in South Africa have been targeted at older persons, persons with disabilities and children, reaching 17 million in 2017, and also have been shown to have a positive social impact on education outcomes such as high enrolment and attendance rates in school (Patel, 2018). The positive impact on education serves as clear evidence of the element of social investment approach within the social protection goal despite its perceived role of consumption. Social protection programmes are described below under poverty alleviation interventions targeting poor and vulnerable groups. In the light of the harsh reality of mass poverty, high rate of unemployment and pervasive inequality, social protection programmes are likely to remain a dominant feature of poverty alleviation in South Africa.

3.5.2 Development goals

Development goals are aimed at promoting the economic and social development of families and households and their active participation in work, community and civic affairs (Sherraden, 2018). Sherraden (2003) points out that social spending can contribute to both economic growth and social development, thereby reinforcing capabilities. South African policies for achieving development goals place great emphasis on job creation, education, skills development, new forms of work organisation and innovative policies that promote social inclusion, all of which are associated with social investment (Midgley, 2018). Development programmes are described below under creation of economic opportunities and empowerment, and poverty alleviation interventions targeting the poor.

3.5.3 Macroeconomic goals

These are macroeconomic policies that are congruent with the broader social policy framework and that focus on counter-cyclical spending, fiscal stability, saving and investment support and ultimately aim to achieve greater social and economic development of households, communities, society and the economy as a whole (Sherraden, 2018). Patel (2018) asserts that social development needs to be accompanied by macroeconomic and social policies and public social spending that are in line with national priorities. The implementation of successful social protection and social investment programmes is dependent upon sustainable economic growth strategies that can yield positive returns for the attainment of social and economic goals. Macroeconomic interventions are described below under economic growth strategies.

3.6 ECONOMIC GROWTH AND CREATION OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES FOR PREVIOUSLY DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

In a bid to achieve its macroeconomic and developmental goals, the South African government has initiated and developed a plethora of macroeconomic growth strategies and economic opportunities for previously disadvantaged segments of the population.

3.6.1 Economic growth strategies

This subsection discusses the postapartheid government's macroeconomic strategies that have been initiated for facilitating economic growth. The first overarching macropolicy during the early years of the postapartheid era that encompassed the transformation of political, social and economic sectors for the benefit of the broader South African society was the RDP.

3.6.1.1 The Reconstruction and Development Programme of 1995

Five major policy programmes were identified by the RDP and outlined in the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (RSA, 1995):

- Creation of a strong, dynamic and balanced economy.
- Development of the human resource capacity of all South Africans.
- Ensuring that no one suffers racial or gender discrimination in hiring, promotion or training situations.
- Development of a prosperous, balanced or regional economy in Southern Africa.
- Democratisation of the state and society.

According to Chagunda (2006), the RDP allowed beneficiary communities to be involved in decision making and in project implementation and the government was determined to use the budget and other state resources to deliver social services to the poor. In the short to medium term, the government put aside a considerable budget for social grants and huge spending on public programmes (Chagunda, 2006). In the long term, it was expected that the objectives of redistribution and poverty eradication would be achieved by prudent fiscal policy and a reduction in the debt accumulated pre 1994 (Chagunda, 2006). The RDP was meant to redress the inherited gross inequalities of apartheid socially, economically and spatially through its programmes.

3.6.1.2 Growth, Employment and Redistribution of 1996

The objectives of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) policy (Department of Finance, 1996) as a macroeconomic strategy were to promote the plight of the poor, alleviate poverty, achieve economic growth, reduce national debt, stabilise inflation and give effect to the socioeconomic rights as enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Department of Finance, 1996). These objectives would be achieved through economic growth spearheaded by private sector investment with the hope that it would create employment (Chagunda, 2006). The GEAR policy also emphasised the strengthening of the government's capacity to deliver through spending on social programmes such as social assistance, health, public works and other services to the poor (Department of Finance, 1996). However, many local analysts suggest that the liberal prescripts that GEAR outlines effectively curtailed some of the poverty alleviation objectives enshrined in the RDP (Moletsane, Reddy, Ntombela, Dayal, Wiebesiek, Munthree, Kangolo and Masilela, 2010). Moletsane *et al*. (2010) point out that a study conducted in 1998 showed that while GEAR advocated reduced and more efficient state expenditure, this conflicted with the need to enhance expenditure on poverty alleviation.

3.6.1.3 Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa of 2006

The Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) was aimed at improving policy implementation and economic growth by dealing with the following challenges:

- Lack of skills and committed personnel in the public service.
- Lack of human resources to implement policies.
- Inadequate financial resources.
- Corruption and mismanagement of funds.
- Lack of people-driven development.
- Lack of proper co-ordination among institutions.
- Barrier to entry, limits to competition and limited new investment opportunities.

According to Moletsane *et al*. (2010), ASGISA did not substantially alter the economic framework of GEAR but sought to accelerate growth with simultaneous concentration on intensive job creation.

3.6.1.4 The New Growth Path of 2011

The New Growth Path (Department of Economic Development, 2011) is an economic framework that combines government programmes in order to achieve development, decent work and inclusive growth. It identifies the following five priorities as focal areas for the achievement of economic growth and creation of employment opportunities:

- Infrastructure.
- Main economic sectors.
- Seizing of the economic potential of new economies.
- Investment in the social capital and public service.

- Spatial development.

The New Growth Path identifies the following job drivers in each focal area:

- Making substantial public investment in infrastructure with the aim of creating employment directly in construction operation and management as well as the production of inputs.
- Targeting more labour-absorbing activities across the main economic sectors, for example agricultural and mining value chains.
- Taking advantage of new opportunities in the knowledge and green economies.
- Leveraging social capital in the social economy and public services.
- Fostering rural development and regional integration.

The New Growth Path responds to emerging opportunities and risks while building on policies advanced since the achievement of democracy. It starts by identifying where economic creation is possible, both within economic sectors as conventionally defined and in cross-cutting activities. It follows with analysis of the policies and institutional developments required to take advantage of the opportunities.

3.6.1.5 The National Development Plan 2030 of 2013

The aim of the NDP (National Planning Commission, 2013) is to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030. According to the NDP, these goals can be achieved by drawing on the energies of the people, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capacity of the state and promoting leadership and partnership through society. The NDP acknowledges that high rates of inequality, unemployment and poverty are still prevalent and that poor quality of school education for mostly black learners and the apartheid spatial divide are still evident. The NDP affirms that in order to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality, the economy must grow faster and in ways that benefit all South Africans. The NDP puts emphasis on three priorities:

- Raising employment through faster economic growth.
- Improving the quality of education, skills development and innovation.
- Building the capacity of the state to play a developmental and transformative role.

The NDP has also put direct and immediate measures in place to tackle poverty that include the following:

- Introduce active labour market policies and incentives to grow employment, particularly for young people and in sectors employing relatively low-skilled people.
- Expand public employment programmes to 2 million by 2020.
- Strengthen primary healthcare services and broaden district-based health programmes such as community health work and midwife programmes and health education.
- Expand welfare services and public employment schemes, enabling the state to service and support poor communities, particularly those with higher levels of crime and violence.
- Introduce a nutrition programme for pregnant women and young children and extend Early Childhood Development (ECD) services for children under five years.
- Improve the quality of education in underperforming schools and Further Education and Training colleges.
- Promote mixed-housing strategies and more compact urban development to help people access public spaces and facilities, state agencies and business opportunities.
- Invest in public transport, which will benefit low-income households by facilitating mobility.

The NDP also presents a long-term strategy to increase employment and broaden opportunities through education, vocational training and work experience, a public employment programme, health and nutrition initiatives, and public access to information. Notwithstanding the quick wins to be achieved in each of these areas, the NDP acknowledges that the strategies will take time to have a large-scale effect on poverty on millions of South Africans over a short space of time.

3.6.2 INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT

Infrastructure development has become part of the government's agenda to achieve improvement in the delivery of basic services, employment creation and economic growth. An Infrastructure Development Plan (IDP) was developed in 2012 and was followed by the Infrastructure Development Act No 23 that was enacted in 2014 to regulate its implementation.

3.6.2.1 Infrastructure Development Plan of 2012

The IDP (Department of Economic Development, 2014) is aimed at transforming the economic landscape while simultaneously creating significant numbers of new jobs and strengthening the delivery of services. The IDP presents the Presidential Infrastructure Co-ordinating Commission' special mapping of infrastructure gaps that analyse future population growth, projected economic growth and areas of the country that are not serviced with water, electricity, roads, sanitation and communication through the 18 Strategic Integrated Projects (SIPs). The SIPs were developed to support economic development and to address service delivery in the poorest provinces. The IDP also intends to enable the achievement of the New Growth Path's first job driver, which is infrastructure. The 18 SIPSs seek to achieve the following:

- Unlocking of mineral resources.
- Strengthening of the logistics and transport co-ordination between South African main hubs.
- Establishment of new dams with irrigation schemes, a new transshipment port and rail upgrades to improve the industrial capacity and performance of the automotive sector.
- Acceleration of investments in roads, rail, bulk water, water treatment and transmission infrastructure.
- Electricity generation to support socioeconomic development and transmission and distribution to all.
- Integrated municipal infrastructure development.
- Integrated urban space and public transport.

- Agricultural logistics and rural infrastructure.
- Revitalisation of public hospitals and other health facilities.
- National school-building programme.
- Water and sanitation infrastructure.

According to the IDP (Department of Economic Development, 2014), the benefits of investments in the infrastructure and service delivery backlog include job creation, significant increase in tax base and revenue, infrastructure projects and economic activity that will attract foreign direct investments, increase in exports and trade, improved quality of life for all citizens and addressing of the backlog in basic services. Job estimates done show new jobs in construction, operation and maintenance.

3.6.2.2 Infrastructure Development Act No 23 of 2014

The Infrastructure Development Act (RSA, 2014) seeks to provide for the facilitation and co-ordination of public infrastructure development, which is of significant economic and social importance to the country, to ensure that infrastructure development is given priority in planning, approval and implementation and to ensure that the developmental goals of the state are promoted through infrastructure development. Among its objectives, the Infrastructure Development Act aims to provide for general practices and procedures that seek to ensure that infrastructure development is undertaken not merely in a transactional manner but in a manner that seeks to advance national development goals, including local industrialisation, skills development, job creation, youth employment, small business and co-operative broad-based economic empowerment, and regional economic integration.

The Infrastructure Development Act makes provision for the establishment of the Presidential Infrastructure Co-ordinating Commission. This commission's responsibilities include the identification of the direct and indirect impact of any strategic integrated projects on job creation, youth employment and economic inclusiveness, including that of women and persons with disabilities. It is also expected to promote the creation of decent employment opportunities and skills development, training and education, especially for historically disadvantaged persons and communities, women and persons with disabilities.

3.6.3 CREATION OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES

Strategies for the opening of economic opportunities for previously disadvantaged segments of the South African population have been fostered through various legislations, policies and programmes. The legislative and policy framework has been aimed at ensuring the implementation of the intervention for opening of economic opportunities by both government institutions and the private sector.

3.6.3.1 National Small Business Act No 102 of 1996

The National Small Business Act (RSA, 1996a) provides for the establishment of Ntsika Enterprise Promotion Agency provides guidelines for organs of the state in order to promote small businesses in South Africa.

3.6.3.2 National Empowerment Fund Act No 105 of 1998

The objective of the National Empowerment Fund Act (RSA, 1998b) is the establishment of a trust for the promotion and facilitation of ownership of income-generating assets by historically disadvantaged persons. This would be achieved through acquiring shares or interests in state-owned commercial enterprises or in private businesses, savings, meaningful economic participation by historically disadvantaged persons and supporting business ventures pioneered and run by historically disadvantaged persons (Department of Trade and Industry, 1998). The criteria used for the consideration of funding applications include a minimum percentage of black ownership or investment, black women empowerment, job creation, geographic location of the business (rural/urban/disadvantaged area) and black managerial and operational involvement (Department of Trade and Industry, 1998). Application for funding takes cognisance of the viability of the business, and nonfinancial support such as ongoing mentorship is also provided (Department of Trade and Industry, 1998).

3.6.3.3 Integrated Strategy on the Promotion of Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise of 2005

The Integrated Strategy on the Promotion of Entrepreneurship and Small Enterprise (Department of Trade and Industry, 2005) is premised on three strategic actions:

- Increasing the supply for financial and nonfinancial support services through streamlining resources from the public sector and crowding in private sector resources.
- Creating demand for small enterprise products and services through public sector procurement and the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (B-BBEE) code of good practice as a lever for increased demand.
- Reducing small enterprises' regulatory constraints through establishing a regulatory impact assessment framework and business environment monitoring mechanisms.

The core thrust of the strategy covers businesses in all stages of evolution from pre-establishment to start-up, emerging, stable or expanding as well as enterprises in distress. The strategy also covers businesses that can be characterised as family, black, women and/or co-operatively owned.

3.6.3.4 Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment strategy of 2003

The B-BBEE strategy (Department of Economic Development, 2003) became the forerunner to the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003. B-BBEE (Department of Economic Development, 2003) is an integrated and coherent socioeconomic transformation strategy for South Africa. The core thrust of the strategy is to bring about significant increases in the number of black people that manage, own and control the country's economy and to significantly reduce income inequalities. It seeks to accomplish this through implementing programmes focusing on human resource development, employment equity, enterprise development, preferential procurement as well as investment, ownership and control of enterprises and economic assets. Companies doing or planning to do business with the South African government must comply with B-BBEE policies (The World Bank, 2018). The goal is to increase the number of black South Africans that either own or manage companies (The World Bank, 2018). The successful implementation of the B-BBEE strategy is evaluated against the following policy objectives:

- A substantial number of black people who have ownership and control of existing and new enterprises.
- Ownership and control of existing and new enterprises in the priority sectors of the economy that government has identified in its microeconomic reform strategy.
- A significant increase in the number of new black enterprises, black-empowered enterprises and black-engendered enterprises.
- A significant increase in the number of black persons in the executive and senior management of enterprises.
- An increasing proportion of the ownership and management of economic activities vested in community and broad-based enterprises (such as trade unions, employee trusts and other collective enterprises) and co-operatives.
- Increased ownership of land and other productive assets, improved access to infrastructure, increased acquisition of skills and increased participation in productive economic activities in underdeveloped areas, including the 13 nodal areas identified in the Urban Renewal Programme (URP) and the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP).
- Increased income levels of black persons and a reduction in income inequalities among black persons.

3.6.3.5 Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act No 5 of 2000

The Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (RSA, 2000b) made provision for government tenders to be awarded on a prescribed point system whereby preference is given to historically disadvantaged individuals and small, medium and micro enterprises in order to enhance their participation in the public sector procurement system.

3.6.3.6 Co-operative Development Policy for South Africa of 2004

The core thrust of the Co-operative Development Policy (RSA, 2004) is to promote and support developing or emerging co-operative enterprises. These emerging enterprises include small, medium, micro and survivalist co-operative enterprises. The first objective of the Co-operative Development Policy is to create an enabling environment for co-operative enterprises in order to reduce disparities between urban and rural businesses. Another objective is to promote greater participation by black persons, especially those in rural areas, women, persons with disabilities and youth in the formation and management of co-operatives. The Co-operative Development Policy also seeks to facilitate the provision of support programmes targeting co-operatives, particularly those that create employment or benefit disadvantaged groups. Lastly, it became the forerunner to the Co-operative Act 14 of 2005.

3.6.3.7 National Credit Act No. 34 of 2005

The purpose of the National Credit Act (RSA, 2005b) is to promote and advance the social and economic welfare of South Africans, to promote a fair, transparent, competitive, sustainable, efficient, effective and accessible credit market and industry, and to protect consumers through the following:

- Promoting the development of a credit market that is accessible to all South Africans and in particular to those who have historically been unable to access credit.
- Promoting responsibility in the credit market by encouraging responsible borrowing, avoidance of over-indebtedness and fulfilment of financial obligations by consumers and discouraging reckless credit granting by credit providers and contractual default by consumers.

Through the National Credit Act, the financial sector began opening markets to more South Africans by allowing them to access credit to build assets or to finance consumption (The World Bank, 2018). The creation of economic opportunities in the process also led to the empowerment of previously disadvantaged citizens through acquiring skills, and jobs were also created in the implementation of various projects and programmes. This is despite an array of interventions specifically designed to promote empowerment and employment creation.

3.6.4 EMPOWERMENT AND EMPLOYMENT CREATION INTERVENTIONS

The empowerment and employment creation initiatives and interventions are aimed at dealing with the challenge of high unemployment and income inequalities, more particularly among the previously disadvantaged groups. The empowerment interventions seek to address the skills shortage within the labour force and those outside the labour market in order to promote access to better employment opportunities. The employment creation interventions are aimed at absorbing the unemployed into the labour market and at creating broader employment opportunities for previously disadvantaged groups. These interventions are in the form of legislative and policy frameworks and programmes.

3.6.4.1 Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998

The Employment Equity Act (RSA, 1998a) seeks to promote equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination. It also strives for the implementation of affirmative action measures to redress the barriers to employment experienced by previously disadvantaged groups in order to ensure the equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels. The act was established in order to promote the constitutional rights of equality and the exercise of true democracy and to give effect to the obligations of the Republic of South Africa as a member of the International Labour Organization.

3.6.4.2 Expanded Public Works Programme

The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) (Department of Public Works, 2004) was introduced as one of the government's major public employment programmes under the Anti-Poverty Strategy. The objective of the EPWP is to provide work opportunities and income support to poor and unemployed people through the labour-intensive delivery of public and community assets and services, thereby contributing to development. It targets low-skilled, poor and unemployed persons. It is a nationwide programme implemented in all spheres of government and state-owned enterprises. It also aims to bring a significant number of unemployed people into productive work accompanied by skills development. The intention was that those participating in the EPWP would be employed for a limited period, and the expectation is that they will be better equipped to seek full-time employment after participation in the EPWP (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008). The EPWP Code provides for training of a minimum of two days per month for workers in this programme, and such training must be linked to possible exit opportunities for the participants (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008). The EPWP Inter-Ministerial Determination of 2012 sets a minimum wage for the EPWP, and it must seek to achieve full compliance with the Determination. The challenges besetting the EPWP are substantial noncompliance with the minimum wage, lack of technical capacity in public bodies, data integrity challenges and nonattainment of full-time equivalent targets due to shorter duration of work opportunities.

3.6.4.3 National Skills Act No 97 of 1998

The National Skills Act (RSA, 1998c) seeks to achieve the following:

- To encourage employers to provide opportunities to employees to acquire new skills, to provide opportunities for new entrants to the labour market to gain work experience and to employ persons who find it difficult to be employed.
- To improve the employment prospects of persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress the past imbalance in skills acquisition through training and education.
- To assist workers to find work and retrenched persons to reunite with the labour market.

3.6.4.4 National Skills Development Strategy of 2005

The mission of the National Skills Development Strategy (Department of Labour, 2005) is to contribute to sustainable development of skills growth and equity of skills development by institutions by aligning their work and resources to the skills needs of the country for effective delivery and implementation. It seeks to achieve its mission based, among others, on three principles:

- Support economic growth for employment and poverty eradication.
- Promote productive citizenship for all by aligning skills development with national strategies for growth and development.
- Accelerate B-BBEE and employment equity, particularly for people with disabilities and the youth.

3.7 POVERTY ALLEVIATION INTERVENTIONS TARGETING POOR AND VULNERABLE GROUPS

The South African government has developed various interventions through legislations, policies and programmes to deal with poverty among those most affected by poverty, and these interventions have been implemented in collaboration with institutions within the nongovernment sector. Some of these poverty alleviation interventions target the most affected segment of the population as a whole, and some specifically target each specific group of the most affected segment of the population. These groups include children, youth, women, older persons and persons with disabilities. In this section of the chapter, various poverty alleviation interventions for each specific group as well as other overarching poverty alleviation interventions are presented. The discussion begins with the overarching poverty alleviation strategies targeting the most affected segments of the population.

3.7.1 Integrated Food Security Strategy of 2002

Based on its vision, the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) (Department of Agriculture and Rural Reform, 2002) seeks to attain universal physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food at all times to meet people's dietary and food preferences for an active and healthy life. The IFFS is based on the development approach, which embodies public-private partnerships and focuses on household food security without overlooking national food security. The operations of the IFFS (Department of Agriculture and Rural Reform, 2002) are based on the following:

- Food security interventions ensure that the target food-insecure population gains access to productive resources.
- When a segment of the target food-insecure population is unable to access productive resources, the food security interventions ensure that this segment gains access to income and job opportunities to enhance its power to purchase food.
- Food security interventions ensure that the target food-insecure population is empowered to gain access to nutritious and safe food.
- When a segment of the target food-insecure population is unable to access sufficient food because of disability or extreme destitution, food security interventions ensure that the state provides relief measures that may be short term to medium term on a sustained basis, depending on the nature of the interventions provided.
- Food security interventions shall proceed from analysis that is grounded in accurate information that is going to have an impact on the eradication of hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity, and these interventions should be constantly monitored and evaluated.

3.7.2 Integrated Nutrition Programme of 1994

The original Integrated Nutrition Programme (Department of Health, 1994) policy framework placed emphasis on the development of community-based nutrition projects to address the problem of malnutrition in South Africa. The envisaged overall strategy was to provide multisectoral government support to communities to solve their own nutritional problems.

3.7.3 Urban Renewal Programme and Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme of 2000

Both the URP and the ISRDP of 2000 (Office of the Presidency, 2000) began to be implemented in 2001. The period for the implementation of the programmes was between 2001 and 2010. The central focus of the URP and ISRDP was to intensify the antipoverty and underdevelopment programmes throughout the country with some of the common futures of the programmes including the following:

- Poverty targeting and alleviation through identification of nodal localities that deliberately correspond with the landscape of underdevelopment and poverty in South Africa.
- Focus on addressing the microeconomic and local economic development imperatives that seek to implement and sustain the macroeconomic stability that was achieved in the country when they were initiated.

According to the Presidential Renewal Programme (Office of the Presidency, 2001), the URP emphasises three principles:

- Mobilisation of people to become active participants in their own development.
- Activities, initiatives and budget resources of the three spheres of government should be co-ordinated and focused.
- Public sector investment needs to leverage private sector resources to enable a systematic and sustained intervention to alleviate poverty and significantly address underdevelopment in the country.

The strategic goal of the ISRDP was to transform rural South Africa into an economically and a socially viable and harmonious sector that makes a significant contribution to the nation's gross domestic product. Although the strategy would benefit the rural poor generally, particular efforts would be made to target women, the youth and the disabled. For the strategy to be successful, it had to reflect on three key elements, namely integrated, sustainable and rural development.

3.7.4 Comprehensive Rural Development Programme of 2009

The focus of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009) is to enable rural people to take control of their lives with support from government. This programme was a specific initiative of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. Through the Comprehensive Rural

Development Programme, the government aims to deal with rural poverty effectively through the optimal use and management of natural resources through integrated agrarian transformation and strategic investment in economic and social infrastructure that will benefit rural communities. Through this programme, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform succeeded in helping to create a better life for millions of residents in villages throughout South Africa by providing food, stimulating local economies, establishing jobs and reducing poverty (SA Yearbook, 2016). In an effort to improve the economy and sustained production of land, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform acquired and distributed 834 134 hectares of land throughout the country and supported 712 067 smallholder farmers through various initiatives (SA Yearbook, 2016).

3.7.5 Housing

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa through Section 26(1) stipulates that everyone has the right to access to adequate housing, and Section 26 (2) asserts that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures to achieve the progressive realisation of this right as far as the state's available resources allows (RSA, 1996). The policy guidelines for the provision of houses for the poor began with the White Paper on Housing of 1995 (RSA, 1994). It sought to redress the past imbalance in the provision of decent houses for the poor, and the provision of these houses would be implemented through the RDP. Through its vision, the White Paper on Housing strives for the establishment of socially and economically viable integrated communities situated in areas allowing convenient access to economic opportunities as well as health, education and social amenities to which all South Africans will have access on a progressive basis, including the following:

- A permanent residential structure with secure tenure, ensuring privacy and providing adequate protection.
- Potable water and adequate sanitary facilities, including waste disposal, and domestic electricity supply.
-

3.7.6 Healthcare

Since the advent of democracy, the government has introduced progressive policies that aim to improve access to healthcare for the poorest and most marginalised by expanding the healthcare facility network and abolishing user fees for primary healthcare (Burger & Christian, 2018). These policies have contributed towards improvement in the availability of healthcare services (Burger & Christian, 2018). The policies were influenced by the governing party's pre-democratic era Health Plan that viewed health from a developmental perspective as an integral part of the socioeconomic development of South Africa (Chetty, 2007). Arising from the Health Plan of the African National Congress of 1994, the key health sector goals were integrated into the RDP (Chetty, 2007). Chetty points out that many of the broader social sector policies, for example improved access to water and sanitation, were specifically motivated in terms of their likely positive impact on health status. The health sector was also given a relatively high priority in the RDP (Chetty, 2007). Thus, health equity goals were seen as an integral part of the overall political commitment to tackling poverty and redressing inequality by the first democratic government; hence, the new government subsequently drafted the White Paper for the Transformation of the National Health System for South Africa of 1997 (RSA, 1997b). The White Paper mapped out the proposed direction and programme of action for the transformation of the health sector in South Africa and also served as a basis for the drafting of the National Health Act No. 61 of 2003. The objects of the National Health Act (RSA, 2003) are to regulate national health and to provide uniformity in respect of health services across the nation by establishing a national health system that seeks to

- Close the gap between public and private providers of health services; and
- provide in an equitable manner the population of the Republic with the best possible health services through available resources.

The National Health Act (RSA, 2003) was the basis for the establishment of free healthcare in South Africa. Free healthcare in South Africa means that services at public sector clinics and community healthcare centres are free of charge and that services are also free of charge for some groups of people in public sector hospitals (Monson, 2016).

Initially, free healthcare was offered to all children under the age of six years and to pregnant and breastfeeding women making use of public health sector health facilities (Shung-King; McIntyre & Jacobs, 2005). In 1996, free healthcare was further extended to include children above six years with moderate and severe disabilities (Monson, 2016).

According to Chetty (2007), in order to pursue the government's objective of equity and equality outcomes in human capital, a wide range of health programmes have been designed and implemented by the Department of Health since 1994:

- Free healthcare for children under six and for pregnant and breastfeeding women is provided at public clinics and health centres.
- Essential drugs are provided at all primary healthcare facilities based on the Essential Drug List.
- Postnatal services for all women are offered free at the point of delivery.
- The Integrated Management of Childhood Illness initiative is implemented in all provinces.
- An Expanded Programme of Immunisation is employed to reduce vaccine-preventable diseases.
- An Integrated Nutrition Programme including the Primary School Nutrition Programme is employed.
- Various measures are taken to reduce substance abuse and to improve the accessibility of mental health support and counselling services, particularly for the survivors of rape and child abuse and those affected by domestic and other forms of violence.
- A comprehensive national HIV/AIDS/STIs programme includes mass education, the ABC (Abstinence, Be faithful, use a Condom) campaign, condom distribution, voluntary counselling and testing, nutrition education and support, treatment of opportunistic infections, prevention of mother-to-child transmission, vaccine development initiatives and antiretroviral treatment.
- The National TB Control Programme introduced the Directly Observed TB Treatment Short Course (DOTS) in 1996 to prevent, treat and control tuberculosis.
- Treatment of cancer of the cervix, hypertension and diabetes is provided.

- Healthy lifestyles are promoted.

3.7.7 Water supply and sanitation services

The policy change in bringing about equity in accessing water and sanitation service began with the drafting of the White Paper on Water Supply and Sanitation Policy of 1994 (RSA, 1994). The White Paper states that the goal of government is to ensure that all South Africans have access to basic water supply and sanitation services at a cost that is affordable both to the household and to the country as a whole. The White Paper further asserts that the lack of basic services such as water supply and sanitation is a key symptom of poverty and underdevelopment. The White Paper formed the basis for the enactment of the Water Services Act 108 of 1998 that also refers to the right to water and sanitation supply to ensure sufficient water and an environment not harmful to human health and wellbeing and stipulates that every water services authority must in its water services development plan provide for measures to realise these rights (RSA, 1998). The White Paper on Basic Household Sanitationof 2001 also acknowledges that government has a constitutional responsibility to ensure that all South Africans have access to adequate sanitation.

The Norms and Standards in Respect of Tariffs for Water Services of 2001 (RSA, 2001) make provision for how municipalities charge for sanitation services, tariff setting and cross-subsidisation categories and levels of water services. In terms of Section 3(2) of the Norms and Standards, with regard to cross-subsidisation, tariffs for water services must consider the right to access basic water supply and the right to access basic sanitation when determining the water tariffs to be charged (RSA, 2001). Section 7 of the Norms and Standards states that in provision of sanitation services to a household, a tariff set by a water services institution must support the viability and sustainability of sanitation services to the poor (RSA, 2001). The Municipal Systems Act No 32 of 2000 makes provision for the establishment of procedures to enable municipalities to uplift their communities socially and to guarantee affordable universal access to basic services (RSA, 2000a). The Municipal Systems Act also seeks to empower the poor and to ensure that municipalities establish tariffs and credit control policies that take their needs into consideration (RSA, 2000a).

The main emphasis of the Strategic Framework for Water Services of 2003 is the provision of free basic sanitation (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2003). The purpose of the Strategic Framework is to assist in promoting free and affordable access to water by poor households in rural and peri-urban areas of South Africa with specific reference to women and people affected by HIV/AIDS. (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2003). In 2008, the Free Basic Sanitation Implementation Strategy was introduced to promote access to basic sanitation by the poor. It also provides the necessary information for municipalities to develop and implement their own free basic sanitation policies for the benefit of poor households (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2008). The government also introduced the Free Basic Water Implementation Strategy of 2002 (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2002) that asserts that the primary intended recipients of free basic water are poor households for whom free basic services represent a significant poverty alleviation measure. The Free Basic Water Implementation Strategy also advocates that the continued extension of adequate water supply to unserved households must be at the core of any provision of free basic water services (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2002).

3.7.8 National Framework for Municipal Indigent Policies of 2005

The National Framework for Municipal Indigent Policies (RSA, 2005) was the result of a renewed effort by government to rapidly improve access to basic services and goods with the purpose of having an impact on reducing the levels of poverty and specifically on the people who are indigent. It provides a basis for the provision of free basic services to the indigent. The National Framework for Municipal Indigent Policies defines an indigent as anyone who does not have access to goods and services such as sufficient water, basic sanitation, refuse removal in dense settlements, environmental health, basic energy, healthcare, housing, food and clothing. Services that are the direct responsibility of local government are water supply, sanitation and refuse removal, and it is in this regard that the overall objective is to substantially eradicate those elements of poverty over which the local government has control (RSA, 2005). The Framework is aimed at including those that are excluded from accessing basic services through the provision of safety nets (RSA, 2005). The policy is also aimed at assisting the local government sphere in determining how these universal rights might be achieved through the activities of municipalities (RSA, 2005). The fundamental task of the Framework is to establish how the needs of the poor who cannot afford to pay for basic services can be addressed in a manner that does not challenge the overall integrity or sustainability of financial or natural resources (RSA, 2005).

3.7.9 Non-Profit Organisation Act No 77 of 1997

The objects of the Non-Profit Organisation Act (RSA, 1997a) are to encourage and support non-profit organisations (NPOs) in their contribution to meeting the diverse needs of the population of the country by, amongst others, the following:

- Creating an enabling environment in which NPOs can flourish.
- Promoting a spirit of co-operation and shared responsibilities with government, donors and interested parties in their dealings with NPOs.

This act enables registered NPOs to raise funds from prospective donors, enabling them to render services to communities, including services that are aimed at poverty alleviation.

3.8 POVERTY ALLEVIATION STRATEGIES TARGETING SPECIAL GROUPS

Poverty alleviation strategies especially target children, youth, women, persons with disabilities and older persons.

3.8.1 Children

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, several policies and programmes have been put in place to support children and families (HSRC, 2010). Despite this, most South African children still live in very difficult circumstances (HSRC, 2010). The HSRC (2010) cites some of the policy frameworks developed to support service providers in the development of comprehensive, age-appropriate and integrated quality responses to the different vulnerabilities facing children:

- The 2000 National Integrated Plan for Children and Youth (NIP) infected and affected by HIV and AIDS.
- South African National Strategic Plan for HIV, TB and STIs 2007-2011 and 2012-2016.
- Policy Framework on Orphans and Other Children Made Vulnerable by HIV and AIDS in South Africa 2009-2012.
- The National Integrated Plan for Early Childhood Development in South Africa 2005-2010.

The abovementioned policy frameworks undoubtedly impacted significantly on the plight of vulnerable children in mitigating the risk of poverty or in rescuing these children from poverty. The greater part of this section examines the role of the child support grant (CSG), the foster care grant (FCG), the care dependency grant (CDG), early childhood development (ECD), school nutrition, child health services and birth registration of children in alleviating poverty.

3.8.1.1 Child support grant

The CSG refers to a grant paid to the primary caregiver of a child who satisfies the criteria in terms of Section 6 of the Social Assistance Act No 13 of 2004 (RSA, 2004). Currently, this grant amounts to R420 per month. The CSG has been significantly expanded over the last decades (ILO, 2016) and currently reaches more the 12.7 million children (Crotty, 2019). The growth in the CSG is attributed to the increase in the number of children entitled to the grant and successful awareness-raising campaigns (ILO, 2016). It reaches a large number of children, including those living in deep rural areas (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2013). The CSG is also the largest social cash transfer programme in terms of the number of beneficiaries and one of the government's most successful social protection interventions (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2012; Tange & Gutura, 2013).

It is reported that the CSG generates a positive developmental impact that multiplies into benefits in terms of directly reducing poverty and vulnerability (DSD, SASSA & UNICEF, 2012). The CSG is having a significant impact on the alleviation of poverty by increasing children’s access to food, education and healthcare (South African Social Security Agency, 2012). SASSA states that as the CSG is one of the cash grants, it also deals with some of the underlying causes of poverty and in so doing not only provides a safety net but also generates positive dynamics through causing the risks of chronic poverty to be mitigated and reduced over time. The CSG may have a positive impact by helping to ensure food security and enabling parents to buy school uniforms and pay school fees, thus contributing to an increase in school enrolment and attendance (Tanga & Guture, 2013). According to the DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012), caregivers can now afford to purchase a greater quantity and variety of food and there is larger household expenditure on food among CSG recipients. The DSD, SASSA and UNICEF further assert that because the CSG is overwhelmingly paid to women, it tends to be spent in ways that benefit the children in their care rather than on adult consumption. The Financial and Fiscal Commission (2012) also asserts that the CSG has several positive impacts on the economy and leads to an increase in the consumption and production of nutritious food products and in education levels. Hall and Sambu (2016) argue that there is evidence that shows the association of CSG with improved nutritional health and educational outcomes.

According to the DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012), research shows that children who were enrolled in the CSG at birth completed significantly more grades of schooling than children who were enrolled at six years and also achieved higher scores in mathematics. Another study reveals that the CSG appears to play a compensatory role for children with less-educated mothers by narrowing the gap between children whose mothers have less education and those with mothers who have more (DSD, SASSA & UNICEF, 2012). In these ways, the CSG promotes human capital development, improves gender outcomes and helps to reduce the historical legacy of inequality (DSD, SASSA & UNICEF, 2012). The DSD, SASSA and UNICEF affirm that the study also provides evidence that early enrolment in the CSG is accompanied by reduced incidences of illness.

According to Hall and Sambu (2014), caregivers have reported to use the CSG to pay preschool and crèche expenses or are able to negotiate deferred payment against the grant. Hall and Sambu assert that the CSG enables its beneficiaries to have easier access to ECD services as compared to children not receiving the CSG. Hall and Sambu further state that despite the lower attendance rates among children in rural and informal urban areas, those who are receiving the CSG are one and a half times as likely to be attending an ECD facility as compared to those who are not receiving the grant. Receipt of the CSG also seems to encourage utilisation of crèches and nursery schools from a slightly earlier age and increases the length of attendance by girls (Hall & Sambu, 2014). Hall and Sambu contend that the results are significant because children in low- and middle-income countries who have accessed ECD services tend to score better on tests of literacy, vocabulary and mathematics, and these benefits may persist through primary school into adolescence.

As stated earlier, the CSG is one of the poverty alleviation grants. Through its means test criteria, relatively better off parents are excluded without determining their level of poorness (Mc Even & Woolard, 2012). In addition, McEwen and Woolard argue that household income is not taken into account. The means test criteria take into consideration only the personal or joint income of the parents, which may not be an accurate reflection of household poverty (McEwen & Wooland, 2002).

According to Streak (2004), despite the rights stated in various conventions and in the South African Constitution, children are still experiencing poverty at the hands of poor parents. Grinspun (2016) also argues that despite the gains of having the CSG reach millions of South African children, a large number of children are still suffering from inadequate nutrition. According to Grinspun, the value of the CSG seems too low to enable families to afford more than the basic staple foods and the grant money is often used up before the next pay date.

There are also deserving children who do not access the CSG because of certain barriers. These barriers range from complex and slow bureaucracy to disputes within families about whether to apply and who should register as the primary caregiver, and the biggest barrier is seen as the lack of documentation (Grinspun, 2016).

3.8.1.2 Foster care grant

The FCG is available to foster parents who have a child placed in their care by an order of the court and is paid in terms of Section 8 of the Social Assistance Act (RSA, 2004). Currently, it is R960 a month per child. According to Hall and Sambu (2015), there has been a rapid expansion of FCG recipients, which can be associated with the rise in HIV/AIDS-related orphaning. This prompted the DSD to make the FCG a policy, and from 2003, it started encouraging family members caring for orphaned children to apply for the grant. However, by 2009, the foster care system was struggling to keep pace with the number of FCG applications due to the required initial investigations and reports by social workers, court placement orders through children's courts, and biennial social worker reviews and court-ordered extensions (Hall & Sambu, 2015). Hall and Sambu affirmed that neither the welfare services nor the courts had the capacity to keep up with the biennial extensions and that SASSA was not allowed to pay the FCG without a valid court order or an extension order. The situation was resolved by a court order that stipulated that a foster care court order that had expired or that was going to expire in the following two years had to be deemed to have been extended until June 2013 (Hall & Sambu, 2015). This effectively placed a moratorium on the lapsing of these FCGs until December 2014. According to the Report on the Review of the White Paper of 1997 (DSD, 2016), concerns were raised about barriers to accessing the FCG, including the difficulties in obtaining birth certificates and identity documents from the Department of Home Affairs. The Report (DSD, 2016) points out that the difficulties were exacerbated when children were orphaned (and the needed supporting documents were sometimes not available) and when the children and/or parents were not South Africans.

3.8.1.3 Care dependency grant

The CDG is a noncontributory monthly cash transfer of R1 690. It is paid to caregivers of children with severe disabilities who require permanent care or support services (Hall & Sambu, 2015). The child needs to undergo medical assessment to determine eligibility, and the parents must pass an income or means test (Hall & Sambu, 2015). The CDG covers the additional costs that the parents or caregivers might incur as a result of the child's disability (Hall & Sambu, 2015). Although the CDG targets children with severe disabilities, children with chronic illnesses are eligible for the grant once the illness becomes disabling, for example children who are very sick with HIV and AIDS-related illnesses (Hall & Sambu, 2015). Hall and Sambu (2015) state that children with severe disabilities and chronic illnesses need substantial care and attention and that parents may need to stay at home or employ a caregiver. Hall and Sambu (2015) further state that children with health conditions may need medication, equipment or frequent hospitalisation. Hall and Sambu (2015) argue that these extra costs can put a strain on families that are already struggling to make ends meet and that therefore, poverty and chronic health conditions are strongly related.

3.8.1.4 National Integrated Early Childhood Development Policy of 2016

According to the Report on the Review of the White Paper of 1997 (DSD, 2016), ECD has been an area of significant achievement since 1997.The number of funded ECD centres and the number of children reached have increased (DSD, 2016). The government has led the development of the National Integrated Early Childhood Development Policy that is aimed at providing a multisectoral enabling framework for ECD services (DSD, 2016). The policy makes provision for a comprehensive package of ECD services for young children and prioritises the delivery of an essential package of ECD services (DSD, 2016).

The DSD (2016) further states that there are, however, still many concerns, namely that the number of children reached is inadequate, that infrastructure is highly inadequate, that municipalities do not provide or facilitate acquisition of premises and that ECD centres generally do not accommodate children with disabilities. The DSD also reports that there are concerns about the mushrooming of unregistered ECD centres and that most of these centres cannot be registered because they do not meet the minimum norms and standards. In a bid to ameliorate the situation, the National Development Agency has had ECD as one of its three focus areas over recent years (DSD, 2016). According to the DSD, the National Development Agency renders assistance to ECD centres in all provinces in respect of infrastructure (although in each case to a relatively small number of centres) and capacity building and training of various kinds, and in some cases, equipment is also provided. The National Development Agency also brings together two of its three focus areas, namely ECD and nutrition, by supporting the establishment of food gardens at ECD centres and in some cases facilitating provision of food to ECD centres by co-operatives and other food-growing projects (DSD, 2016).

3.8.1.5 Birth registrations

The right to a name and nationality is realised through the registration of the birth of a baby and the issuing of an identification document when the child reaches the age of 16 years (HSRC, 2010). According to the DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012), South Africa has made impressive strides in issuing birth certificates in the past two decades. By 2016, 97% of children were registered during their first years of life (DSD, SASSA & UNICEF, 2012). The DSD, SASSA and UNICEF maintain that there is consensus that the documentation required, which includes a birth certificate, has been one of the drivers of this increase. The DSD, SASSA and UNICEF further highlight that registration began to rise sharply from 22% to 76% in 2016 when the CSG was introduced. The DSD, SASSA and UNICEF also assert that the near universalisation of birth certificates serves as a gateway for accessing a range of basic services and helps to realise the child's right to a name and identity, as established by UNICEF.

The Department of Home Affairs is responsible for the issuing of documents such as birth, death and marriage certificates. According to the HSRC (2010), these documents are collectively referred to as enabling documents. The HSRC asserts that these enabling documents are a cornerstone of the realisation of the right of every child to a name and a nationality from birth. The HSRC adds that enabling documents are essential in order to benefit from most of the programmes that have been developed and implemented by government to realise the socioeconomic rights guaranteed in the Constitution, whether for vulnerable children or their adult family members. The HSRC further states that enabling documents are required not only to access social grants but also to access healthcare, subsidised ECD, schooling, housing, free basic services such as water and electricity, and other benefits and services.

Despite the increase in birth registration, there is still poor registration among the impoverished, especially in rural communities (HSRC, 2010). The HSRC affirms that those who are poorest continue to have the worst access to enabling documents, and the following are cited as some of the reasons for this:

- Local community members and caregivers tend not to recognise the intrinsic importance of birth registration and enabling documents.
- The multiplicity of supporting documents that are required when applying for a late birth registration, the difficulty in obtaining these documents and the complexity of the types of documents that are required are a barrier to accessing enabling documents.
- The already high cost of transport to Department of Home Affairs offices is often exacerbated by the need for multiple visits and the cost of obtaining supporting documents, which often includes the cost of photocopies for certification purposes and the cost of photographs.
- A lack of accessible local services offices and/or service delivery sites is experienced in rural areas. Even when mobile service delivery sites are occasionally made available in rural areas, they lack basic resources such as computers and photocopying equipment.
- Inadequately trained and unsupervised staff, especially at Department of Home Affairs service points in rural areas, often act as a barrier to speedy and efficient processing of registrations and applications for certificates.
- Fraud and corruption by the staff of the Department of the Department of Home Affairs who extract money from already impoverished clients is a further barrier to poor and vulnerable people's obtaining documents.

3.8.1.6 South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996

Section 34 (1) of the South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996b) makes provision for the state to fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis to ensure that the right of children to education and the redress of past inequalities in education provision as enshrined in the Constitution are realised. The South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996b) also makes provision through school governing bodies for schools to charge fees if the majority of parents agree but also makes provision for fee exemption for those parents who cannot afford to pay the charged fees.

3.8.1.7 National Norms and Standards for School Funding of 1998

The purpose of the Norms and Standards (RSA, 1998d) was to bring about equality and equity in the funding of schools in order to improve the quality of education and access to schooling for the previously disadvantaged segments of the school population. The Norms and Standards made provision for specific criteria and methods of distributing funds according to certain categories, targeting the poorest schools.

3.8.1.8 Exemption of Parents from Payment of School Fees Regulations of 1998

The Exemption of Parents from Payment of School Fees Regulations (RSA, 1998) were a mechanism to ensure that all children from poor families who were unable to pay school fees had access to school. The Regulations provide a mandatory minimum means test for the granting of exemption of parents from paying fees. The means test is based on the annual income gross income of the parents, and if it is less than 10 times the annual school fee, the parents qualify for full exemption. Partial exemption is also available for those whose income is more than 10 times but less than 30 times the annual school fees.

3.8.1.9 Education Laws Amendment Act No 24 of 2005

The Education Laws Amendment Act (RSA, 2005a) was aimed at revising various sections of the South African Schools Act with the aim of addressing challenges and gaps that had become barriers since its inception. The Education Laws Amendment Act introduced amendments to some sections of the South African Schools Act and the National Norms and Standards for School Funding. The Education Laws Amendment Act (RSA, 2005a) ultimately brought about a total overhaul of the regulation on the exemption of parents from the payment of school fees. The key sections of the act that brought about this complete overhaul include the following:

- Section 39 (7) provides a new definition of the no-fee threshold that enables the Minister of Education to declare schools that serve poor communities as no-fee schools.

- Section 39 (5) makes provision for the prohibition of registration fees and any other related charges in schools that serve the poor.
- Section 39 (11) makes provision for no-fee schools to charge school fees if what they receive from the provincial governments is less than the no-fee threshold.
- Section 41 (7) provides for the protection of learners who are unable to pay fees from all forms of victimisation.

3.8.1.10 Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding of 2006

The Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding of 2006 (RSA, 2006a) were aimed at addressing challenges that were identified when the original Norms and Standards of 1998 were implemented. The Amended Norms and Standards provide guidelines for the categories of exemptions to be applied in schools, namely automatic exemption, partial exemption and other exemptions as determined by the school governing bodies.

3.8.1.11 Primary School Nutrition Programme

The Primary School Nutrition Programme (Department of Education, 1994) was first implemented in September 1994 as a second strategic objective for addressing household food insecurity. The programme has made a significant contribution towards poverty alleviation as it has ensured that children from the poorest families receive at least a midday meal at school. The programme has also created opportunities for employment among food handlers to prepare and serve meals.

3.8.2 Youth

3.8.2.1 National Youth Development Agency Act No 54 of 2008

The National Youth Development Agency Act (RSA, 2008) was enacted in order to achieve the following:

- Initiate, design, co-ordinate, evaluate and monitor all programmes aimed at integrating the youth into the economy and society in general.

- Guide efforts to facilitate economic participation, empowerment and achievement of education and training.
- Partner with and assist organs of the state, the private sector, NGOs and community-based organisations on initiatives directed at attainment of employment and skills development.
- Initiate programmes directed at poverty alleviation and urban and rural development, and the combating of crime, substance abuse and social decay amongst the youth.

3.8.2.2 Learnerships

According to Friedman and Bhengu (2008), the Learnership Programme (Department of Labour, 1998) is a critical government intervention that is intended to address skills shortage and unemployment. It is intended to encourage employers to improve the levels of skills not only of their existing workers but also of potential future recruits and would-be entrepreneurs by providing learning opportunities to the unemployed and those entering the job market for the first time (Government Information and Communication Services, 2001). According to the Government Information and Communication Services, the Learnership Programme is regulated by three separate legal documents:

- The Funding Regulations of 2001 that set out the arrangements for the Sector Education and Training Authority to allocate grants to employers, including grants for learnership.
- The Learnership Regulations of 2007 that lay out the way in which learnership for new occupations can be developed, registered and become eligible for grants.
- The Learnership Determination of 2001 that stipulates that no learner can be paid less than a minimum allowance and that the rate depends on the type of learnership and the skills or qualifications acquired.

3.8.2.3 Youth initiatives by the government, civic and private agencies

A wide range of youth programmes and services has emerged over the years and has been offered by a wide range of different agencies, including government, government-related, nonprofit and corporate agencies (DSD, 2016). Almost each government agency has a programme targeting youth empowerment and participation. The nature of the different youth programmes offered by government agencies, NPOs and the private sector cannot be fully elaborated on due to the limited scope of the chapter. According to the DSD (2016), services to the youth are seldom co-ordinated with each other, resulting in duplication alongside huge gaps. Concern has also been expressed by the Report on the Review of the White Paper of 1997 (DSD, 2016) that reference is generally made to poor youth without consideration of the different needs of young women and young men. The Report argues that this often results in more focus on young men than on young women. Under its youth development component, the DSD has five services, namely youth development centres, life and personal skills development, skills development, leadership development and Masupatsila youth pioneers (DSD, 2016).

3.8.2.4 National Development Plan 2030

The NDP (National Planning Commission, 2012) adopted a ‘youth lens’ influenced by prior recognition by the Planning Commission that young people bear the brunt of unemployment and set out proposals that include the following:

- A nutrition intervention for pregnant women and young children.
- Universal access to two years of ECD.
- Improving the school system, including increasing the number of students achieving 50% in literacy and mathematics, increasing leaner retention rates to 90% and improving teacher training.
- Strengthening youth service programmes and introducing new community-based programmes to offer young people life skills training, entrepreneurship training and opportunities to participate in community development programmes.
- Strengthening and expansion in the number of Technical and Vocational Education and Training colleges in order to increase the participation rate to 25%.

- Provision of full funding assistance covering tuition, books, accommodation and living allowance to students from poor families.
- Introducing a tax incentive to employers to reduce the initial cost of hiring young labour market entrants.
- Introducing a subsidy to the placement sector to identify, prepare and place matric graduates into work. The subsidy will be paid upon successful placement.
- Expanding learnership and making training vouchers available directly to job seekers.
- Introducing a formalised graduate recruitment scheme for the public service to attract highly skilled people.
- Expanding the role of state-owned enterprises in training artisans and technical professionals.

3.8.2.5 National Student Financial Aid Scheme Act No 56 of 1999 and National Student Financial Aid Scheme

The purpose of the National Student Financial Aid Scheme Act of 1999 (RSA, 1999) was to establish a financial aid scheme for students at higher education institutions and to provide financial aid to eligible students who met the criteria for admission to a higher education programme. The National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) was established in terms of this act. The NSFAS funds students from poor households by providing loans to eligible university students and grants to Technical and Vocational Education and Training colleges on behalf of eligible enrolees (NSFAS, 2016). The expectation by the NSFAS is that the loans will be repaid as new graduates enter the labour market, with a repayment schedule linked to their incomes. A significant portion of loans are also converted into bursaries if borrowers progress through university successfully. The main purpose of the NSFAS is to enable young people from poor households to obtain a higher education (NSFAS, 2016). The NSFAS is essential for expanding South Africa’s skills base and is a powerful mechanism for breaking the intergenerational cycle of household poverty and exclusion. In addition to its main purpose, the NSFAS also has the following subordinate goals:

- Providing support to specific categories of students, such as those with disabilities.
- Incentivising students by converting a part of the loans to successful students into bursaries and achieving a measure of self-financing through the recovery of loans from students after they find employment.

3.8.3 Women

Programmes directed at alleviating programmes at women are encapsulated in most government macropolicies as a way of redressing gender imbalance. For example, throughout the first development of the RDP, specific emphasis was placed on the development and empowerment of women. Sadie and Loots (1998) note that no less than 40 references are made in the development process to gender equality. According to Moletsane *et al.* (2010), the development policy guidelines have always sought to bring about improvements in maternal health, provision of childcare facilities and provision of electricity due to the acknowledgement that rural women in particular carry a heavy burden collecting wood. The policy guidelines on development in South Africa suggest a gender-based approach to development, and the challenge of a gender-based approach lies in its implementation (Moletsane *et al.*, 2010). Moletsane *et al.* assert that the lack of meaningful participation by women in the planning, management, implementation and assessment of projects is key in the failure of projects for women. The findings of the Report on the Review of the White Paper for Social Welfare of 1997 (DSD, 2016) suggest that women development is poorly defined. Women development overlaps with sustainable livelihoods, and the provision of some of the services to women has diminished.

3.8.4 Persons with disabilities

The White Paper on Integrated National Disability Strategy (RSA, 1997) was developed in 1997 by the government, advocating a society wherein there must be integration of disability issues into all government development strategies, planning and programmes. The policy areas underpinning the Strategy are prevention, health care, rehabilitation, public education, barrier-free access, transport, communication, data collection and research, education, employment, human resource development, social welfare and community development, social security, housing, and sport and recreation. The White Paper has developed policy objectives, strategies and mechanisms for each policy area. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act No 108 of 1996 (RSA, 1996) protects the rights and dignity of persons with disabilities and promotes and supports the full equalisation of opportunities of such persons and their integration in society within a social model and human rights framework. According to Hanass-Hancock and Mckenzie (2017), research suggests that poor persons with disabilities are affected by issues relating to multidimensional poverty such as lower education attainment and few employment opportunities. In addition, households with persons with disabilities earn significantly less than households without persons with disabilities, and this particularly applies to households with persons with severe disabilities (Hanass-Hancock & Mckenzie, 2017). This vulnerability varies by disability type. Hanass-Hancock and Mckenzie argue that the country's social protection mechanisms in terms of social grants counteract economic vulnerability to some extent but do not consider the obvious economic impact of diverse conditions, the increased impact of diverse conditions of disabilities or the increased out-of-pocket costs related to disability.

3.8.5 Older persons

The role of non-contributory cash transfers to older persons, especially the OAG, has been discussed extensively in the preceding chapter. In this section, community-based care and support services are also presented as part of the poverty alleviation programmes directed at older persons in South Africa. The Older Persons Act No 13 of 2006 (RSA, 2006b) makes provision for the rendering of community-based care and support services for older persons. According to the South African Policy for Older Persons of 2006 (RSA, 2006b), community- based care and support services mean development, care and support services provided within a community, aimed at promoting and maintaining the independent functioning of older persons in a community, and include home-based care for frail older persons within the community. The services that are stipulated in the regulations of the Older Persons Act (RSA, 2006b) include the following:

- Economic empowerment of older persons in the form of income-generating activities, food and gardening projects, crafts and arts projects, poverty relief projects, and employment and economic empowerment programmes and projects.
- Establishment of recreational opportunities for older persons that include cultural and/or social activities, indoor and outdoor games, library services, and sport and/or physical activities.
- Information awareness, education and skills development campaigns through Adult Basic Education and Training, life skills programmes (e.g. budgeting, grand parenting etc.), computer training, skills training as identified in the community, awareness campaigns on the rights of older persons on abuse, information on health and lifestyle aspects, for example dementia, Alzheimer's, HIV/AIDS and so forth, and information on basic and other professional services and how and where to access these services.
- Counselling services in the form of bereavement counselling, trauma and/or pre- and post-retirement counselling, support groups, telephone helplines and counselling based on verbalised personal needs.
- Spiritual, cultural, medical, civic and social services, activities through primary healthcare (e.g. immunisation, basic podiatry services, monitoring of health status etc.), cultural/traditional activities (e.g. indigenous games), pension pay points/access to social grants, advice and referral in order to access basic services, and preventative and promotive healthcare programmes.
- Provision of nutritionally balanced meals to needy older persons, meals on wheels (provision of meals to older persons in the community on a regular basis), food on foot (when members from the community based care centres deliver meals to members of the community who due to ill-health are unable to collect meals) and provision of nutritionally balanced meal to older persons at a designated facility.
- Appropriate services contained in the indigent policy for vulnerable and qualifying older persons through awareness of the content of the indigent policy of local government, rebates or rates concessions for qualifying older persons (e.g. subsidised transport, rates and taxes) and a referral system in place to assist access to services contained in the indigent policy.

3.9 THE ROLE OF INSTITUTIONS IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The role of institutions in poverty alleviation was first highlighted in the Poverty and Inequality Report wherein it was stated that the success of development initiatives greatly depended on the strengths and weaknesses of the underlying institutional environment (May, 2000). Mubangizi (2009) points out that state institutions impact on poverty and inequality by setting out the legal, policy and administrative framework according to which other actors and institutions operate and by targeting groups in the provision of services. Mubangizi (2009) further asserts that state institutions also impact on poverty to the extent that they create an environment or framework in which the various aspects of government as well as the various departments for the co-ordination of development initiatives for poverty alleviation. Intrinsic to the institutional framework is the administrative system for the delivery of poverty alleviation programmes. Mathur (1986) attributes the failure of development and poverty alleviation programmes to the inefficiency of the administrative system. Mathur further argues that while a great deal of work is often done in an attempt to perfect policies and programmes designed for development and poverty alleviation, the administrative dimension remains largely neglected.

Mubangizi (2009) also argues that for sustainable livelihoods and poverty alleviation to be effective, service delivery must be sustainable. Mubangizi (2009) describes sustainability as referring to the institutional and functional durability of public institutions, organisations or offices in the implementation of public policy, including poverty alleviation programmes. According to Peterson (1997), sustainability in the sense of public service delivery not only means the availability of sufficient finances or other socioeconomic resources to provide the services needed but more comprehensively refers to the overall capacity of the organisation to deliver such services and to adapt to changing circumstances over an extended period of time, thereby maintaining or preferably improving the services concerned. Cloete (2000) also sees sustainability in service delivery as the overall capacity of the institution (public or private) to deliver the needed services and to adapt to changing circumstances over an extended period of time, maintaining or preferably improving the services concerned.

3.10 CONCLUSION

The post-apartheid government introduced an array of poverty alleviation interventions through legislations, policies and programmes. Some noticeable gains have been achieved through these interventions, more particularly through social grants as a redistributive mechanism aimed at improving the lives of the poor and reducing their cost of living (The World Bank, 2018). However, the implementation of the interventions has not yet yielded the desired outcomes as the country continues to face the challenge of high poverty, high inequality and high unemployment (The World Bank, 2018). Friedman and Bhengu (2008) point out that concerns that have been raised include poor co-ordination and poor integration of service delivery, lack of proper process, excluding practices and lack of monitoring and evaluation. According to Robeyns (2003), the core characteristic of the capability approach is its focus on what people are effectively able to do and to be. Roberyns (2003) further asserts that the key analytical point in the capability approach is the relationship between the means and the ends of wellbeing and development. Based on this analysis, only the ends have intrinsic importance whereas the means are only instrumental in reaching the goals of increased wellbeing and development (Roberyns, 2003).

Although the main input towards the capability approach is financial resources and economic production, it can also be political practices, such as effective guaranteeing and protection of freedom of thought, religion, political participation, social and cultural practices, social structures, social institutions, public goods, social norms, and traditions and habits (Roberyns, 2003). This highlights the necessity of taking into cognisance the social arrangements or forces in society that can hinder or support the conversion of poverty alleviation interventions into capabilities and functions. In this instance, service delivery, poverty reduction, and economic development and sustainability depend on the availability of money and the ability to use it effectively (Tsheletsane & Fourie, 2014). Poverty alleviation interventions depend on good governance in all the institutions responsible for their implementation, including the government, the private sector and civil society organisations. In South Africa, notwithstanding the current economic meltdown and slow economic growth, the government has put in place a wide range of policies, procedures and acts to improve financial management, but the limited success of these strategies thus far is illustrated by the low number of clean audits from the Auditor General (Tsheletsane & Fourie, 2014). Tsheletsane and Fourie (2014) affirm that the qualified audits of various government departments reveal that the requirements of the Public Financial Management Act, the legislative oversight bodies and the wider legal framework governing public finance have been partially or largely ignored. According to Chiumia and Van Vyk (2015), South Africa has lost R700 billion in public money to corruption since the advent of democracy.

The World Bank (2011) argues that despite the enormous efforts and amounts of money put into new policies and institutions for improved service delivery, providing coverage and quality services for the rapidly growing mostly black and poor population remains an extremely great challenge. Both the government and civil society are increasingly concerned that the huge investment made in development is having less impact than expected (World Bank, 2011). The World Bank points out that inadequate services combined with unemployment and continued poverty have frequently ignited township protests and riots and have encouraged a refocus on policy analysis, debates and reform proposals. The government-initiated poverty alleviation interventions were means to advance the capabilities and functioning of the many South Africans affected by poverty. Although there are noticeable positive yields in alleviating poverty among the poor, the interventions seem not to have realised the desired outcome or end yet as the majority of citizens are still trapped in poverty. The country's economic meltdown and the financial maladministration of available resources serve as barriers to realising the desired outcomes of poverty alleviation, and consequently, the majority of poor South Africans have not yet achieved wellbeing and agency.

CHAPTER 4

FINANCIAL CAPABILITY WITHIN A SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PERSPECTIVE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The recognition of the role of financial capability in alleviating poverty among low-income and vulnerable households is gathering momentum in the poverty alleviation discourse, and financial capability is increasingly regarded as one of the strategies to achieve social development goals. Financial capability is generally understood as including all the skills, access to finance and behaviours that enable individuals to use financial services to their advantage (Storchi & Johnson, 2016; The World Bank, 2014). Financial capability improves the financial wellbeing of vulnerable households and thereby contributes towards the improvement of their social and economic conditions. This chapter begins with a description of the financial capability approach followed by an examination of its essential elements, namely financial literacy, financial inclusion, financial behaviour, and economic opportunities and economic self-sufficiency. The chapter further investigates the capability approach from the perspective of a developing economy and in the context of South Africa. This is followed by examining financial capability in relation to a capability approach as articulated by Sen (1993; 2003). Lastly, the chapter discusses the relevance of financial capability as a strategy to achieve social development goals and the essential role of the social work profession in the facilitation of financial capability within the social development paradigm.

4.2 ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF FINANCIAL CAPABILITY

Financial capability can be defined as the ability to apply appropriate financial knowledge and to perform desirable financial behaviour to achieve financial goals and to enhance financial wellbeing (Centre for Financial Inclusion, 2013; Xiao, 2016). Sherraden (2010) also refers to financial capability as requiring both the ability to act (knowledge, skills, confidence and motivation) and the opportunity to act (through appropriate financial products and financial institutions). Both the ability to act and the opportunity to act contribute to personal financial wellbeing and life chances (Sherraden, 2010). Taylor, Jenkins and Sacker (2011) assert that financial capability as a concept is different from income or material wellbeing and reflects the ability of people to control and manage their finances, make appropriate financial decisions, have an understanding of how to manage credit and debt, and identify appropriate financial products and services. Individuals' and households' ability to achieve financial capability requires a complexity of skills that will vary across individuals and households depending on a range of factors such as household size and composition, housing tenure, income and expenditure patterns (Taylor *et al.*, 2011). According to Atkinson, Mckay, Kempson and Collard (2006), financial capability can be measured through five different domains:

- Managing money, which refers to making ends meet and having few problems dealing with financial obligations.
- Making money, which in this instance is about keeping track by having an overview of expenses.
- Planning ahead, which is about being future oriented.
- Deciding reasonably in financial matters by being able to choose appropriate financial products.
- Staying informed through seeking information about financial products.

Although there is consensus on the definition of financial capability as a combination of skills, knowledge and access to financial services that culminates in appropriate financial behaviour to achieve financial wellbeing, the theoretical framework underpinning the concept itself and its implementation may have diverse outcomes due to different socioeconomic and cultural contexts. This is asserted by Kempson, Perotti and Scott (2013) when they argue that financial capability can be seen as multidimensional and composed of multiple domains. According to Kempson *et al*. (2013), this implies that individuals may be good at some aspects of the capability approach and may not be good at other aspects. Storchi and Johnson (2015) point out that the dynamic nature of the capability approach as a concept highlights that financial decisions need to best suit different circumstances of life. In this instance, Storchi and Johnson (2015) argue that financial capability may mean different financial practices for different people and even for the same people at various stages of their life. Furthermore, because financial capability considers the effect of the external environment, individuals may or may not be able to exercise financial capability because of the external environment (Storchi & Johnson, 2015.)

Another aspect underpinning financial capability as pointed out by Scanlon and Sanders (2017) is its reliance on the individualistic view of economic factors. Scanlon and Sanders argue that financial capability focuses on helping individuals to learn new skills, knowledge and practices but often ignores individual, social and economic interests. Consequently, individuals are often assisted to gain financial knowledge through individual-focused interventions such as financial education and financial therapy (Scanlon & Sanders, 2017). The individualistic view of financial capability can lead to victim blaming in which individuals are assigned responsibility for their financial circumstances without acknowledging the social, political and economic systems that shape their financial life choices (Olen, 2012). Storchi and Johnson (2015) state that financial capability could be affected by a multitude of factors including knowledge, skills, attitudes, individual abilities and behaviours as well as the social, cultural and financial contexts in which individuals make their financial decisions. The following section will discuss each of the elements that constitute financial capability, namely financial literacy, financial inclusion, financial behaviour, and economic opportunities and economic self-sufficiency.

4.2.1 Financial literacy

The ability to read about, analyse, manage and communicate about the personal financial conditions that affect material wellbeing is one of the essential elements of financial capability (Faboyede, Ben-Caleb, & Oyemo, 2015). Based on the definition by Firli (2017) financial literacy enables the individual to achieve financial cability by being able to collect important information and to differentiate among diverse financial options, discuss financial issues, plan and provide proficient answers for good financial decision making. Financial education is the process by which individuals improve their understanding of financial products and concepts to become aware of financial risks and opportunities (Xiao, 2016); thus, financial literacy is achieved through financial education. According to

Xiao, once there is improvement in the financial understanding among individuals, they will be able to make informed choices, will know where to go for help and will be able to take effective actions to improve their financial wellbeing and protection. Firli (2017) identifies six basic components of financial literacy:

- Savings and borrowings are related to knowledge of saving and borrowing and the ability to evaluate and do financial planning.
- Personal budgeting is related to understanding of the budget based on personal income.
- Financial concept is related to understanding of basic financial concepts such as debt, credit, inflation, savings, budget and so forth.
- Financial services are related to knowledge about the current products and services provided by financial institutions.
- Investment is related to knowledge about investment and the risks associated with various types of investments.
- Economic issues are related to the country's or the global understanding and knowledge of economic issues.

Capuano and Ramsay (2011) argues that financial literacy not only has effects on individuals but also has implications for the financial system and the domestic economy. The specific benefits for individuals include an increase in savings and retirement planning, more realistic assessment of financial knowledge by consumers, financial efficiency and financial wellbeing together with improved debt management and choosing the right financial products with confidence (Capuano and Ramsay, 2011). There is also an assertion that through education on proper financial management, individuals can use their finances in a more effective manner and choose financial instruments that meet their needs (Capuano and Ramsay, 2011).

Esowe, Cho and Iso (2017) point out that the global picture depicts a situation whereby consumers of financial services, especially vulnerable groups, exhibit inadequate knowledge of financial instruments and principles. Consequently, most individuals fail to plan for the future and are unable to make financial decisions that meet their needs. The report by the Master Card Foundation (2011) indicates that when people have lower levels of financial literacy, they often make unproductive financial decisions by spending their money in suboptimal ways, borrow more than they can afford, have little savings and miss opportunities for investing. The Policy Report of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2016) also states that the growing sophistication within financial markets exposes consumers to a variety of complex financial instruments for borrowing and saving, with a large range of options. The study by Xu and Zia (2012) in sub-Saharan Africa revealed that most people in these countries lacked awareness of basic financial products and concepts such as savings accounts, interests on savings, insurance and loans.

Financial literacy is widely gaining ground and is seen as a major determinant for the socioeconomic wellbeing and livelihoods of people. According to Muizzuddin, Taufik, Ghasarma, Putri and Adam (2017), since financial literacy improves the efficiency and quality of financial services, it is a basic necessity for every individual to avoid financial problems. Notwithstanding the significance of financial literacy in improving knowledge of financial concepts and principles to be able to choose the right financial products and make informed financial decisions, access to financial services and products is a matter of the utmost importance as individuals often remain financially incapable if they are excluded from accessing these services.

4.2.2 Financial inclusion

Financial literacy is useless unless facilities such as financial institutions are available to support people using financial services (Johnson & Sherraden, 2007). Financial exclusion occurs when people experience difficulties in accessing or using the available financial services and products and when such services and products are not appropriate to their need to be able to lead a normal life in the society to which they belong (Anderloni *et al*, 2008). Brown and Robinson (2016) point out that in large segments of impoverished communities, individuals do not have access to basic financial products and services that are critical to building a secure future such as bank accounts, home mortgages, business accounts and so forth. Consequently, these individuals turn to available alternative financial products such as pyramid schemes, rent-to-own loan sharks, rotating savings and credit associations, and savings clubs (Karger, 2015).

Dermirgue-Kunt, Klapper, Singer and Van Oudhensden (2014) argue that there is a difference between financial inclusion and access to finance. Dermirgue-Kunt *et al.* assert that financial inclusion is focused on use and that lack of use does not always mean lack of access in the sense that these services are often accompanied by prohibitive costs and barriers to their use, which may include regulations that require paperwork involving a great deal of effort and difficulty, great travelling distance, legal complications or market failures. People may also choose not to use financial services despite having access at affordable prices (Dermirgue-Kunt *et al.*, 2014).

According to the Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index (2017), the transaction account is an essential financial service that serves as a gateway to other financial services such as savings, credit and insurance. Despite this, nearly 40% of the world’s adult population still have no account with a bank or authorised financial service provider (Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index, 2017). The Momentum argues that apart from being able to access a financial service, the key issue is whether the service is valuable to its user. How valuable the service is can often be seen in how frequently it is used by the consumer (Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index, 2017). To achieve financial inclusion through a transaction account, ideally, all individuals should have access to and be able to use a transaction account operated by an authorised and/or regulated payment service provider to be able to fulfil payment needs such as remitting money and making payments and to safely store money for future needs. A transaction account may also serve as a gateway to other financial services (Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index, 2017).

Despite the lack of access to financial products and financial services, neither the mainstream nor the alternative products and services meet the needs of low-income households (Brown & Robinson, 2016). According to Barr (2008) the financial services offered are insufficient for the needs of low-income households and compel them to choose among the high fees and ill-structured products offered by both formal and alternative financial services institutions. Consequently, most of these households may rely on cash transactions and keep cash at home (Bachelder *et al.*, 2008). Cash may not only be unsafe due to the risk of being robbed but it is also much more likely to be spent (Mullainathan & Shafir, 2010).

Another factor that acts as a barrier to financial inclusion among low-income households is eligibility. Some individuals are excluded from financial products as a result of their poor credit records, and their previous negative encounter with financial products may prevent them from holding regular accounts (Brown & Robinson, 2016). Individuals with irregular income from low-income households may also not be accommodated (Brown & Robinson, 2016). Households may also face barriers to financial inclusion as a result of location, hours of operation, personnel within the financial institution, hours of business operation, language, social class, culture and age (Caskey, 2005). Affordability and financially attractiveness also may serve as a barrier to financial inclusion. Caskey asserts that many unbanked individuals do not use mainstream financial products because they are too expensive, especially when considering the small amount at their disposal. As a result, it is difficult for low-income households to take advantage of the numerous incentives offered by financial institutions, for example subsidies, higher returns, lower fees and other benefits that make products financially attractive to bank customers who maintain high account balances (Brown & Robinson, 2016). This is because wealthier bank clients can afford to keep large bank balances, which makes them reap higher rates of returns and exempts them from certain fees whereas the poor do not benefit as they may be penalised and thus be ineligible (Brown & Robinson, 2016).

Lastly, the complexity of financial services transactions is another barrier to access, especially for poor and low-income households. Most of the financial services transactions offered by financial institutions require confidence, numeracy skills, willpower and the ability to differentiate among often complex options (Brown & Robinson, 2016). These transactions may also be confusing and difficult even for those who grow up observing and learning how to use financial products (Brown & Robinson, 2016). It is likely that low-income employees may be unbanked because their work may be temporary or they may receive their wages in cash, rendering them unable to access financial services and products (Brown & Robinson, 2016). Despite the high levels of literacy that individuals may have and the access that they may have to financial services, their financial conduct may render them financially incapable.

4.2.3 Financial behaviour

Financial incapability can be the result of errors in financial management or mismanagement (Muizzuddin, Tanfik, Putri & Adam *et al*., 2017). According to behavioural economics, financial behaviour is the result of emotions, instinct, previous experience and quick decisions aimed at shortcuts (Storchi & Johnson, 2015) and is sometimes aimed at achieving a hedonistic lifestyle. Xio (2008) defines financial behaviour as human behaviour relevant to money management. Financial behaviour may be related to earning, spending, borrowing, saving and protecting and may hurt financial wellbeing (Storchi & Johnson, 2015). Muizzuddin *et al.* (2017) argue that financial behaviour originates from the field of psychology, which highlights that individuals cannot make decisions without being influenced by their psychological conditions and that individuals are assumed to have rational limitations. Financial behaviour seeks to examine the relationship between human behaviour and the financial system as well as the behavioural dimension of the organisation in which the human and the financial system co-exist and are acknowledged (Muizzuddin *et al.*, 2017).

Hilgert *et al.* (2003) assert that an individual's financial behaviour can be observed in how good the person is at managing savings and other expenses. Regarding savings, the question is whether individuals have regular savings or not and whether they have an emergency fund or not (Muizzuddin *et al.,* 2017). Other expenses may be related to the ability to buy a house, having goals etc. (Muizzuddin *et al.*, 2017). According to the Centre for Financial Inclusion (2013), financial attitudes and behaviours are shaped by culture and the broader society.

Linked to financial behaviour is individual cognitive ability, which is regarded as another factor that might predict variations in financial capabilities, especially through its effect on financial literacy (Lubis, 2018). Individual cognitive ability is related to self-efficacy, which includes cognitive, social and emotional dimensions (Bandura, 1997). In the context of financial literacy, Muizzuddin *et al*. (2017) argue that individual cognitive ability is related to how individuals manage and are able to understand financial products and services and their levels of literacy with regard to a variety of financial products and services that are always dynamic and fluctuating. Individual cognitive ability is also influenced by various factors that include mastery experience, modelling and verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1997), and these factors are described by Muizzuddin *et al*. as follows:

- Mastery experience is the experience of success that provides authentic evidence of whether someone will be successful or not. Success in the context of financial management is good financial literacy, which improves strength and confidence in the use of the financial products and services industry.
- Modelling is about a person's success in managing her or his finances and provides a motivation for individuals to prove that they can deliver good performance.
- Verbal persuasion is a means for strengthening confidence about the ability of the individual to achieve goals. Therefore, education and socialisation are very important in improving the financial literacy of individuals.

4.2.4 Economic opportunities and economic self-sufficiency

Access to economic opportunities is also an important aspect of achieving financial capability as individuals without access to economic activities are unlikely to have income and finances to manage. The lack of access to proper education for individuals to secure good jobs and ultimately to achieve upward mobility acts as a barrier to achieving financial capability (Brown & Robinson, 2016). Brown and Robinson also point out that high-quality education from early childhood through university, accompanied by strong community support, lays the foundation for career success and financial stability. Poor academic preparation has a direct impact on individuals' future employment prospects and their long-term financial security (Brown & Robinson, 2016).

Economic self-sufficiency also plays a vital role in building financial capability. Economic self-sufficiency is the ability of individuals and families to consistently meet their needs with minimal or no special financial assistance from private or public organisations (Gates, Koza & Akabas, 2016). Economic self-sufficiency involves the income generation and financial capability needed to help individuals to progress towards the ultimate goal of achieving financial well-being and enhancing their prosperity beyond basic subsistence (Bauer, Braun & Olson, 2000; Hawkins, 2005). Income generation refers to the skills and knowledge needed to make money, which may include the ability to develop a career plan, to manage the conflicting demands of life circumstances and expectations of employment, to learn the relational competencies needed to be a successful worker, to know workers' rights and employer responsibilities as mandated by the law, to know workplace policies and/or to be aware of sources of social support in and outside of the workplace (Gates & Akabas, 2012). Income generation also includes opportunities to secure a livelihood such as exposure to diverse career options, access to opportunities for career exploration (e.g. internships, apprenticeships, access to workforce capacity development providers, recruitment agencies, employee benefits and diversity policies) and practices and support services needed to make work possible (e.g. childcare, care for older persons, healthcare, mental care, labour relations etc.) (Cooney, 2010; Gates & Akabas, 2012).

4.3 FINANCIAL CAPABILITY WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF DEVELOPING ECONOMIES

As mentioned earlier, financial capability has the potential to improve the financial wellbeing of individuals, which leads to improvement of their social and economic conditions. According to Laufer (2015), financial education in developing economies is suggested to fulfil two functions, first, to drive financial integration for the purpose of enhancing consumer protection in financial markets and second, to counteract increasing rates of over-indebtedness and to mitigate risks. However, Storchi and Johnson (2016) argue that little research has been done on what financial capability means for low-income people in developing countries, on the potential in developing countries and on whether the potential relationship between financial capability and financial inclusion actually leads to wellbeing improvements for poor people. Mabule and Ping (2019) also argue that even though global research shows low literacy levels, its analysis is not specific to the financial systems of developing economies. In developing economies, saving and planning may take place in informal markets, in contrast to developed economies where saving and planning take place in formal financial markets and where financial product accessibility is at a higher level (Mabule & Ping, 2019). As a result, the approach to financial capability has been based primarily on universalistic models of rational choice and behavioural economics, thereby failing to capture the potentially deeper meanings and values that people's financial practices represent in developing countries (Storchi & Johnson, 2016).

Based on the research by Ibrahim (2011), managing economic and financial resources well is something that people in developing countries value in itself and as an instrument for the achievement of their life goals. According to Storchi and Johnson (2015), individuals may save because of a sense of security regarding their own life and saving may also be instrumental in individuals' achievement of other goals such as being educated or healthy. Storchi and Johnson (2015) further state that economic resources at large rather than financial resources alone are intrinsically important for people's wellbeing. Therefore, the focus should be broadened from money management to management of economic resources, which include money as well as productive assets, livestock, property and so on (Storchi & Johnson, 2015). This is in contrast with what is predominant in the current literature on financial capability, namely a focus on money management, and the broader view shows that people attach value and meaning to both their economic and financial resources and transactions (Shipton, 2010). Shipton (2010) adds that credit and debt can take a form that is not necessarily monetary, and therefore it is useful to take into consideration not only how people manage their money but also how they manage their economic resources as a whole.

In developing countries, people may be able to manage their small, irregular and unpredictable income even when not using formal financial services (Collins, Zollmann & Maina (2008. This suggests that the lower level of financial access may not be a good indication of financial capability and that the two issues may be quite separate (Kempson *et al.*, 2013). Atkinson and Kempson (2008) argue that higher poverty levels also need to be taken into consideration since it is necessary to distinguish between the lack of income and the lack of skills and ability to manage. Storchi and Johnson (2015) point out that in a context that is predominantly characterised by low levels of education and in which people may be less able to perform arithmetic calculations, the value of a transaction may not solely lie in its monetary value. Again, the higher levels of informality that are ingrained in developing countries may inform different ways in which individuals plan for the future and manage risks (Storchi & Johnson, 2015).

Kempson *et al.* (2013) argue that the policies underpinning financial capability in developed economies are still predominantly characterised by a language that is reflective of prescribed norms whereby financial capability is often linked to a set of optimal financial decisions such as planning and budgeting, while impulsivity, inconsistency and risk taking behaviours are associated with a lack of financial capability and poor management skills. Kempson *et al.* (2013) further argue that such a policy discourse is conservative and risk averse in its focus on planning and saving as it misses the fact that in developing countries, livelihoods are developed and maintained through multiple sources of income and by taking up what may appear to be risky business opportunities in a context of high vulnerability and uncertainty. There are suggestions for distinct approaches and the need for adjustments in the way in which financial capability is defined and measured and how financial education and alternative interventions are provided (Mabule & Ping 2019; Holzman, 2010). The application of such adjustments requires embracement of the distinct socio-economic environment that exists in developing economies.

4.4 FINANCIAL CAPABILITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa has been earmarked by a plethora of activities and noticeable growth in the field of financial literacy mainly conducted by financial institutions and in the school curriculum (Wentzel, 2016). Wentzel asserts that despite all these efforts, the country has scored poorly in international surveys of economic and financial literacy. Sibanda and Sibanda (2016a) affirm that while financial literacy is important in South Africa, as in other parts of the world, it is still underdeveloped among a large segment of the population. Wentzel states that this could be due to several erroneous assumptions often made by policy makers and financial educators about how poor people manage their money. Wentzel argues that these assumptions are erroneous because the surveys do not reflect the kind of financial literacy required to survive in conditions of poverty. The low financial literacy scores among the poor are not a true reflection of their financial lives as these scores do not do justice to the complex financial behaviours that the poor engage in when trying to manage their small and unreliable income (Wentzel, 2016). Wentzel further asserts that the very same behaviours that are perceived as irrational according to financial literacy measures are the behaviours that the poor have to engage in to survive.

Despite being a developing country, South Africa has a highly dualistic economy characterised by a developed economy (with an advanced financial sector) that coexists with a large informal and underdeveloped economy (Wentzel, 2016). As mentioned earlier, efforts regarding financial literacy in South Africa come mainly from financial institutions such as banks and insurance companies. As signatories to the Financial Sector Charter of 2003, they are obliged to implement financial literacy as the Financial Charter stipulates that financial institutions have to contribute 0.4% of their net profit after tax towards consumer education programmes Wentzel, 2016). Financial institutions can do this through funding their own consumer education programmes by establishing their own consumer education divisions or through funding programmes offered by training providers (Wentzel, 2016). The target for the consumer education programmes is those who earn less than R5 000 a month (Wentzel, 2016). In order to reach greater numbers, some financial institutions have offered financial education as part of workplace training (Wentzel, 2016). Because of the effectiveness of conventional workshops, financial institutions have devised more innovative approaches such as short movies for example *Smartbucks* played in schools and movie theatres and integration of financial literacy issues in popular soap operas such as *Scandals* and *Muvhango* (Wentzel, 2016).

Professional bodies representing financial institutions such as the South African Insurance Association, the Financial Planning Institute, the Banking Association of South Africa, the Financial Intermediaries Association of Southern Africa and Associated Savings and Investments of South Africa also participate in financial education. The government and financial regulators also take part in consumer education programmes. The National Credit Regulator and the Financial Services Board conduct financial education programmes (Wentzel, 2016). The National Treasury has worked on the introduction of the National Financial Education Strategy of 2013 and has also launched the Social Security and Retirement Reform of 2007. There has also been a successful implementation of the Mzantsi Account, which is a bank account available at all major banks and is customised to the needs of low-income earners and the previously unbanked (Wentzel, 2016). The Johannesburg Securities Exchange (2017) implemented financial literacy through the Investment Challenge programme that has been in existence for more than 45 years, and the South African Banking Risk Information Centre did the same through the Star Saver Platform initiative (BASA, 2019). The FPI MYMONEY 123TM is a community outreach programme and an initiative of the Financial Planning Institute. There is also involvement of private and NGOs in financial education. They participate either independently or in partnership with financial institutions, and they include institutions such as the South African Foundation for Economic and Financial Education, the South African Savings Institute, the Fin Mark Trust, Operation Hope and SaveAct. There is also involvement of multinational organisations such as the Financial Education Fund that are involved through the funding of programmes such as the Postbank/Wizzit peer education programme, focused on illiterate people, UBank' Nakekela Imali workshops for mine workers, the South African Insurance Association's Financial Freedom radio dramas and the Money Advise Association's Imali Matters financial counselling services. According to Sibanda and Sibanda (2016a), the financial education initiatives implemented by these various stakeholders are aimed at addressing the limited skills and lack of knowledge of the following groups:

- Young women and men between 6 and 19 years.
- The elderly.
- Black Africans.
- Those with low living standards.
- Those living in rural areas and on rural farms.
- People living in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo provinces.

Sibanda and Sibanda (2016a) further suggest the following in strengthening the financial education programmes:

- Standardisation of the financial education curriculum and enhancement of capacity among the implementing partners.

- Development of a database for financial education stakeholders.
- Expansion of financial education initiatives to enhance outreach.
- Development of impact assessment tools that must lead the way in conducting impact assessments and documenting the successes of the various financial education models.

The financial education programmes that are implemented by a wide range of financial institutions in South Africa have been poorly co-ordinated (Sibanda & Sibanda, 2016a). The National Consumer Financial Education Committee (NCFEC) was formed in 2012 with its membership drawn from labour, civil society, associations of the financial services industry, financial self-regulatory organisations, government departments, provincial treasuries and NGOs (Sibanda & Sibanda, 2016a). The NCFEC is chaired by the Treasury, and its Secretariat is the Financial Services Board. The NCFEC is mandated to design a National Consumer Education Strategy and also to co-ordinate the implementation of the strategy (NCFEC, 2012). The NCFEC also made a commitment to compile a database of all financial education initiatives in the country (NCFEC, 2012).

Despite the presence of various legislations in South Africa for consumer protection, there is still a challenge for consumers of limited skills and resources to understand the complexities of the financial services and the financial institutions that they interact with (Sibanda & Sibanda, 2016a). In addition to this, the NCFEC (2012) identifies some challenges faced by consumers in South Africa:

- Inability of consumers to evaluate the appropriateness of financial products in relation to their own circumstances.
- Vulnerability of consumers to predatory lending.
- High levels of debt among consumers.
- Low savings rate.
- Proliferation of pyramid schemes and financial scams.
- High product service and penalty fees.
- Lack of accessible and comparable information on prices.

- Limited knowledge about recourse mechanisms.

The envisaged National Consumer Education Strategy was finally approved in July 2013. The strategy aimed to increase the levels of financial capability and thereby enhancing the financial capability of all South Africans. The mission of the National Consumer Education Strategy is to ensure that all South Africans, especially those who are vulnerable and marginalised, are empowered to participate with knowledge and confidence in the financial marketplace and are able to manage their financial affairs, deal with their day-to-day financial decisions and make good choices about allocating their incomes from school-going to working and to retirement. The strategy seeks to achieve its objectives by focusing on concepts such as financial control, financial planning, product choice and financial knowledge.

According to Nanziri and Leibbrandt (2016), there is an increasing focus on making formal financial services accessible to all members of society. Nanziri and Leibbrandt assert that the financial sector is also becoming innovative with products that might be complicated and sophisticated for potential consumers. South Africa is still also faced with a significant challenge with respect to financial inclusion of low-income earners although it has a well-developed financial services sector (Sibanda & Sibanda, 2016).

As mentioned earlier, ownership of a transactional account is an important element of gaining access to financial inclusion. South Africa has made significant gains in account ownership (Momentum Household financial Wellness Index, 2017). The reduction of nearly 15% in the number of South Africans without bank accounts, which compares relatively well to developed countries, has also been supported by government programmes such as social grant payments and others (Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index, 2017). The 48% segment of the financially excluded live in rural areas (42% in traditional areas and 6%) in farm areas, and it is difficult to provide services to them due to traditional banking products and business models that rely on physical access points (Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index Wellness Index, 2017).

Account ownership in South Africa varies and is dependent on socio-demographic factors (Momentum Household Financial Wellness Index Wellness Index, 2017). Finscope South Africa (2015) presents the following socio-demographic observations:

- Women are more likely to have access to regulated financial services than men, namely 86% as compared to 81%.
- Coloured and black South Africans (80% and 82% respectively) are less likely to have access to regulated financial services than Asian (89%) and white South Africans (96%), and 87% of those living in urban areas as opposed to 77% living in rural areas have access.
- There is also a conclusion by Findex (2014) that youth between 15 and 25 years are 16.8% less likely to own a bank account and that adults of 15 years and older of the poorest segment of the population are 12.5% less likely to own a bank account.

The next section seeks to explore financial capability in relation to the capability approach based on its main concepts of capabilities and functionings.

4.5 FINANCIAL CAPABILITY AND THE CAPABILITY APPROACH

The capability approach as a concept has already been described at length in chapters 1 and 2.The capability approach concerns the freedoms that a person is afforded to have the ability to choose and the opportunity to act through beings and doings in order to realise those freedoms (Sen, 2011). Birkenmaier, Sherraden, Frey, Callahan and Santiago (2016) assert that essentially, financial capability and asset building are aimed at improving the financial wellbeing of families and communities. Based on Nussbaum's (2011) research on the capability approach, financial capability is comprised of both internal capabilities such as an individual's knowledge, skills and attitudes concerning finances and external factors such as financial institutions, financial products and services, and financial consumer protection programmes. Internal capabilities allow an individual to act, and external conditions allow an individual to exercise these internal abilities; thus, the development of internal capabilities requires favourable external conditions (Sherraden, 2013). Sherraden (2010) affirms that financial capability requires financial literacy and access to financial products. Therefore, financial capability requires the ability to act (knowledge, skills, confidence and motivation) and the opportunity to act (through appropriate financial institutions and products) (Johnson & Sherraden, 2007) and ultimately contributes towards financial wellbeing and good life chances. Therefore, the ability to make informed financial decisions and to perform effective financial behaviours that promote financial wellbeing and good life chances is facilitated by the combination of internal capabilities and external conditions (Sherraden, 2013). The failure to connect internal capabilities (financial knowledge and skills) and external conditions (financial products and services) could cause what Sen (1999) refers to as unfreedoms.

Storchi and Johnson (2015) also argue that the capability approach puts emphasis on the importance of people's freedom to choose the type of life that they have reason to value among several available options and considers choice as being intrinsically important for wellbeing. It is in this context that people's quality of life should be observed through their value achievements rather than through their desires or the goods that they possess (Storchi & Johnson, 2015). Storchi and Johnson suggest that when evaluating the aspect of choice in quality-of-life policies, one should focus on improvement in the creation of opportunities and functionings for people in order to achieve their valued goals. According to Storchi and Johnson, the challenge with regard to financial capability based on the capability approach is that, first, the current global policies on financial inclusion are based on the view that increasing access to financial services for poor people (through focusing primarily on the availability and quality of formal financial services and the regulation of the financial sector) will lead to an increase in their wellbeing. Second, the focus has also been on the ability of users to engage with the financial sector (through financial literacy and education programmes) (Storchi & Johnson, 2015). Storchi and Johnson aver that there have not been any clear attempts to evaluate financial inclusion from the user's perspective to examine whether and in what ways financial inclusion actually improves poor people's achievement of valued beings and doings.

Storchi and Johnson (2015) argue that the development of an evaluative framework for financial inclusion based on how financial inclusion supports the achievement of people's valued state of being and doing is supposed first to find out what people have reason to value in order to live a good life and second to establish whether the financial system that is available to them assists them in achievement of living a good life (Storchi & Johnson, 2015). One would ask ultimately that regardless of how adequately accessible financial services and products are, whether does financial inclusion allows people to pursue their valued state of being and doing. Storchi and Johnson (2015) assert that evaluation of financial inclusion and its potential to support wellbeing should go beyond the quality and quantity traits of financial services and products such as prices, safety, flexibility, convenience and so forth and suggest that the perspective on financial inclusion must become user centred by also considering that what poor people regard as a good life is what primarily matters and that how financial services can support them in the achievement of such priorities should guide the development and improvement of the financial sector. In this context, the envisaged improvements may also be attuned towards social and cultural environments instead of focusing on the financial sector only, which appears distant and does not reflect people's values and goals (Johnson, 2013). In conclusion, through financial capability individuals could improve their socioeconomic circumstances; hence, it plays a significant role in the attainment of social development goals.

4.6 FINANCIAL CAPABILITY AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT APPROACH

Midgley (2014) defines social development as a process of planned social change designed to promote the wellbeing of the population as a whole within the context of a dynamic, multifaceted development process. Social development is a macro-policy perspective that is primarily aimed at eradicating poverty and also provides context within which development takes place (Gray, 1996). According to the United Nations Development Programme (1999), social development could create an enabling environment for people to enjoy long, healthy and productive lives. Social development could also lead to the widening of people's choice through employment opportunities for the expansion of human capability (Patel, 2005). The fundamental assumption underpinning the social development approach is that economic development does not automatically translate into social improvements and that the benefits of growth do not reach all people equally (Patel, 2005). Patel asserts that social investments in human capital, social capital and asset-based strategies are key to the social development approach. These social investments could be achieved through improvements in health status, educational attainment and income, financial capability and asset building, and building of social networks, relationship and ties that benefit the community for social integration (Patel, 2015) Through social investments, individuals are able to live longer, lead fulfilling lives and have access to resources to improve their standard of living (Patel, 2005). Therefore, in social development, human wellbeing is about the development of people and the achievement of wellbeing is the goal of social development (Patel, 2005). Patel (1992) summarises the goals of a social development paradigm as follows:

- Improvement of people's material conditions of life.
- Maximisation of the development of human capacity to create productive and contributing members of society.
- Promotion of individuals and the collective in an enabling social, economic and political environment to promote social and economic wellbeing, worth, dignity and self-identity.
- Assisting of individuals and groups at various stages of their development and in different circumstances and helping of those in need of protection, care, support and material assistance to achieve their optimal development.
- Building of grassroots democracy through empowerment of people to press for social policies and programmes to meet their needs, to promote their rights, to contribute and benefit from the fruits of their social and economic progress.

Asset building and development is of intrinsic significance in achieving financial capability and is also one of the social development interventions. Assets are economic resources such as cash savings, college or university education, emergency savings, a home and financial investments (Brown & Robinson, 2016). Assets constitute wealth and are different from income in that wealth is the stock of items of economic value in a household and income refers to the inflow of economic resources (Brown & Robinson, 2016). According to Midgley (2014), wealth is usually concentrated among the minority in society and asset accumulation by the poor can help to reduce the patterns of inequality. Programmes and projects that promote asset ownership among individuals and communities play an important role in social development (Midgley, 2014). Midgley emphasises that these programmes and projects harmonise the economic and social dimensions of development, thereby giving expression to key social development principles.

The asset development intervention in social development is premised on the belief that asset development programmes are more effective than traditional income maintenance services that maintain the poor at basic subsistence levels and do little to promote self-sufficiency (Midgley & Tang, 2001). Asset development programmes also change attitudes, values and work habits so that individuals acquire the confidence to become self-sufficient (Midgley & Tang, 2001). From a social development perspective, asset-building programmes differ from the normal processes through which wealth is accumulated in market economies because they are designed to promote asset acquisition, particularly among those who have few or no assets (Midgley, 2014). Midgley (2014) further asserts that the adoption of policies by governments that promote asset accumulation among those earning higher incomes and asset building for the poor is not only equitable but also a necessary part of the social development process.

Empowerment is one of the essential elements of social development that is essential for the facilitation of financial capability. Green and Newman (2003) define empowerment as an active process whereby individuals and groups are energised to higher levels of capabilities to make decisions in solving their problems. Empowerment is an essential element in the vocabulary of social development and can be considered as a goal as well as a result of development efforts (Green & Newman, 2003). Empowerment can also be a powerful mechanism in social development to benefit individuals, groups and communities (Green & Newman, 2003). Empowerment as an element of social development can be best put in practice through financial literacy when facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The opening of opportunities for individuals to access financial services and products can also facilitate financial empowerment of individuals and households. The implementation of empowerment interventions through financial literacy and financial inclusion may improve the capacity of individuals to manage their finances optimally.

Capacity building also plays a vital role in the successful implementation of social development programmes. If empowerment interventions cannot translate into adequate capacity to function among individuals and families, it may be difficult to attain the social development goals. The United Nations Development Programme (1997) refers to capacity building as a process whereby individuals, organisations, institutions and societies gain abilities to enable them not only to perform certain functions but also to solve their problems and to set and achieve collective goals. Capacity building helps towards instilling institutional culture, personal behaviour and attitudes that are vital for the sustainability of development (Chambers, 1997). Chambers (1997) further emphasises that changing personal behaviour and attitudes is most important because it helps to facilitate participation. Bergdall (2000) states that for any development project that requires participation, capacity building is important because there is a belief that behaviour is governed by images and that people act according to their image of themselves and how people react to them. According to Green and Newman (2003), the perception that behaviour is shaped by images which also guide how people act and react to them, determines one’s attitudes, beliefs and opinions. Capacity building of individuals and households in the facilitation of financial capabilities can be achieved through appropriate financial literacy programmes, financial inclusion and creation of economic opportunities and any other intervention that may stimulate and strengthen individuals’ and households’ capacity to function.

This section highlighted the significance of social development as one of the mechanisms that can be used to facilitate financial capabilities development. The social work profession has a vital role to play in the implementation of social development programmes through developmental social work. The next section will examine the role of social work in facilitating financial capabilities development within the social development paradigm.

4.7 SOCIAL WORK AND DEVELOPMENT OF FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES

The role of social work in the facilitation of financial capabilities development is increasingly gaining recognition because low-income and poor households tend to consult social workers when faced with various life challenges, including financial challenges. This section will discuss the relevance of social work in the facilitation of financial capabilities development, the current challenges faced by social workers when facilitating financial capabilities development and the appropriateness of social work education and will also analyse the applicability of developmental social work in the implementation of financial capability interventions.

4.7.1 Relevance of social work in financial capabilities development

Contributing towards poverty alleviation has always been a core mission of the social work profession (International Federation of Social Workers, 2017). Social workers are well positioned to help individuals and families to address their financial problems (Sherraden, *et al*., 2007). According to Sherraden, Birkenmaier, Mclendon & Rochelle (2016), contemporary social work practice and education have begun to make considerable effort towards dealing with household finance at all client system levels. Nowadays, social workers also conduct applied research and contribute to policy and practice innovations that are aimed at improving financial capability and building assets in low-income and financially valuable families (Birkenmaier, *et al.*, 2013). Engelbrecht (2011) holds the view that financial capability and social work can be integrated by means of a dual focus by not only considering access to financial institutions and financial products but also taking into account change in people’s skills, thought processes, feelings, motivations and values. Social workers can also link financially vulnerable people with significant providers of financial education in order to assist them to escape from poverty (Engelbrecht, 2008b).

Despite the availability of professional financial planners, accredited financial advisors and attorneys for those who can afford their services, financially vulnerable clients often opt for social work services and nonprofit credit counselling for financial guidance (Collins & Birkenmaier, 2013; Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016). Social workers may also come into contact with clients due to their financial challenges or as a result of other psychosocially related difficulties that may be connected to their financial situation and low-income status (Barczyk & Linconve, 2010). The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau (2016) adds that even though the presenting problems of vulnerable populations might be related to disability, ill-health, homelessness, family violence, child neglect, substance abuse, truancy or other difficulties, the vast majority of people who experience these problems are also struggling financially.

When families are in crisis, social workers as part of the human service professions are uniquely placed to provide basic financial guidance and support to vulnerable families by bringing their deep understanding of the realities of their clients' lives to financial capability practice (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016). The Consumer Financial Protection Bureau further states that the education acquired by human service professionals in human development, family dynamics, organisational and community functioning, and social policy prepares them to be key partners in bringing about solutions to financial vulnerability. Social workers can also play a role of providing financial counselling to resolve conflicts in families about financial circumstances (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016). Human service professions may play an active role in informing the design of financial products, services and policies that meet the financial conditions of vulnerable people and reflect the changing nature of household finance in the 21st century (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016).

Sherraden, Birkenmaier and Collins (2018) argue that even well-informed consumers find it challenging to keep on track with the fast pace of change in the financial sector and are often unsure about whether they are making the best choices for themselves and their families. This is compounded by the fact that consumers of all income levels lack the necessary financial knowledge and skills (Financial Industry Regulatory Authority, 2017). Financial knowledge is important for everyone, but it is critical for low-income families as small mistakes or miscalculations as a result of a narrow margin of error can be very costly and have an extremely negative effect on their financial wellbeing (Sherraden, 2018). McKean, Lessem and Bax (2008) add that low-income families are often poorly served by mainstream financial services and that as a result, they often seek alternatives in costly, unsafe and sometimes predatory financial services. The financial circumstances of low- and middle-income families contribute to their financial vulnerability and stress because they worry about meeting household needs such as healthcare, housing, saving for retirement, children's education and so forth (McKean, Lessem & Bax, 2005).

To effectively deal with the situation of financial exclusion and the fringe economy, social workers can aid clients by helping them to find nonpredatory lending options (Karger, 2015). Social workers can assist by intervening before clients become embroiled in predatory lending by examining options such as family loans and/or creating small savings accounts (Karger, 2015). Karger asserts that financial literacy training by social workers should include a broad range of mediation skills and suggests that social workers use finance, social policy and community development skills to discover and develop alternatives to fringe lending. Through financial literacy training, social workers may be able to intervene early and by doing so help clients to avoid the trap of predatory financial services (Karger, 2015).

Social workers are also engaged in efforts to address financial problems and needs (Chowa & Hart, 2011). These include matched savings programmes, investments for low-income individuals and financial education targeting low-income persons (Zhan *et al.*, 2006). Social workers may also deal with other financially related challenges such as limited financial knowledge and skills (Chowa & Hart, 2011). The other factors that are dealt with by social workers that are beyond the control of individuals and families and that may increase their risks for financial problems include unemployment, lack of health insurance, jobs that fail to pay a living wage and limited options for affordable childcare and housing (Chowa & Hart, 2011). Social workers may also assist by assessing clients' finances in order to refer, teach, counsel clients and advocate for them regarding financial issues (Bierkenmaier, Loke & Hagemen, 2016). In addition, social workers use financial information to screen for eligibility in respect of agency services and to assist clients to obtain public benefits such as social security benefits (Bachman & Gonyee, 2012). Social workers apply their professional skills by assisting clients to learn more about their finances and to gain appropriate skills through exploring value, creating financial goals, developing and maintaining budgets, managing financial resources, making basic financial choices, and building and maintaining good credit (Collins, 2010). Clients are also assisted by social workers in building and retaining financial assets such as savings (Sherraden, 2013). Social workers provide these services as standalone services and sometimes combined with other services such as psychotherapy and crisis intervention (Bachman & Gonyee, 2012; Despard & Chowa, 2010). However, Sherraden, Laux and

Kaufman (2007) suggests that social workers must understand their own relationship and behaviour with money before entering into a helping relationship with a client about his or her personal finances. Despite all the appropriate skills that social workers may possess for helping low-income households, they are still faced with challenges when it comes to effectively playing their role in the facilitation of financial capabilities development.

4.7.2 Challenges besetting social workers in the facilitation of financial capabilities development

Research by Despard and Chowa (2010) suggest that social workers themselves struggle with low financial literacy as they seem to lack adequate knowledge and skills regarding financial concepts to help families that are in precarious financial positions to improve their household stability and optimise their economic futures (Sherraden *et al.,* 2007. As a result, social workers are left to explore their own strategies for how best to support the individuals, families and communities that they serve (Birkenmaier *et al.*, 2013). In a study by Loke, Watts and Kakosi (2013), social workers reported having confidence in their level of financial knowledge and skills while paradoxically, their financial knowledge was no higher than that of the general public. Sherraden (2013) argues that regarding the macrolevel, social workers often learn about income support policies and programmes, but they rarely learn about access to financial services and asset-building policies. In the South African context, Patel (2015) contends that there is a limited recognition of this area in social development practice and that much work needs to be done in this area so that more lessons can be learnt from social development practice within the South African context.

The symptoms of financial distress can manifest themselves in multiple ways, including anxiety, depression, domestic violence, eating disorders, insomnia, marital problems, child abuse and physical symptoms (Karger, 2015). According to American Association of Marriage and Family Therapists (2014), financial stress may drive some parents to relate to their children in negative ways, which affects the children's self-esteem, peer relationships and general sense of wellbeing. Because social workers lack training in financial knowledge and skills, they risk focusing on these symptoms rather than on the distress underlying the problem behaviours; consequently, they may overemphasise interpersonal adjustment issues (Karger, 2015). This may not be unusual because some social workers are more comfortable dealing with psychological or relationship problems than with financial issues (Kindle, 2013). Although social workers espouse other views within broader social justice, they are silent on the financial struggles of the poor, including the fringe economy that charges exorbitant fees for financial services (Karger, 2015). Hawkins (2005) argues that the current social work response to poverty has been dominated by therapeutic approaches that either do not respond directly to clients' financial circumstances or provide solutions that maintain clients' reliance on public assistance. The inadequacies experienced by social workers in dealing with the financial dilemmas of poor and low-income households are rooted in the inability of social work training to prepare them for effective interventions.

4.7.3 Social work education and financial capabilities development

Despite renewed focus on financial issues in social work, few social workers have received education and training in helping clients with their household finances (Sherraden, 2013). Social workers routinely respond to the financial circumstances of clients; however, their education does not prepare them to do so (Gates et al., 2016). Students in most social work education programmes are not acquiring the financial literacy skills needed to grasp the increasingly complex financial challenges faced by low-income populations (Karger, 2015). Patel (2015) points out that in South Africa, how to best incorporate financial capability in social work education is a matter that needs to be explored.

In dealing with the shortcomings in social work training with regard to financial capability, Karger (2015) suggests that the profession will have to choose to address the challenges associated with the changing financial and economic environment by infusing financial education into the social work curriculum or by strengthening referral networks to existing financial experts. The much-needed training on financial training for social workers can provide them with the skills to help clients to avoid dangerous debt traps, steer clients to healthier choices and help clients to examine barriers to financial health and stability (University of Maryland, 2014). The financial literacy that needs to be infused into the social work curriculum includes training on basic financial literacy such as the fringe economy, a range of community and national alternatives to predatory lending, the credit industry including credit scoring and reporting, credit counselling agencies, bankruptcy laws, and laws governing lending and other financial services (Karger, 2015). Karger also suggests that social work education programmes can take the lead by providing academic training, field placement experiences, research and continuing education that promote and support financial literacy. These can also be accompanied by professional development courses in financial literacy for social work practitioners (Karger, 2015). To overcome the inadequacy of social work interventions in assisting clients do deal with financial challenges, there is a growing speciality of financial social work, particularly in the United States of America.

4.8 FINANCIAL SOCIAL WORK

This section presents the background and definition of financial social work, followed by a discussion on its important role in building financial capabilities.

4.8.1 Background

In the preceding section, it has been demonstrated how pertinent the role of social work is in the development of financial capabilities. Sherraden, Birkenmaier *et al.* (2015) point out that in the last decade, especially in the United States of America, schools of social work have begun taking steps to integrate household financial issues into professional training. Even though social workers are known for helping individuals to deal with a great deal of psychosocial issues, financial social work as one of the crucial responsibilities of social workers is a less known function in social work practice (Rutgers University, 2019). Financial social work evolved out of femonomics, a term created by social worker Reeta Wolfsohn in 1997 while working exclusively with the female population (Silverman, 2018; Wolfsohn & Michaeli, 2014). Because it became clear that problems associated with money were not gender specific, in 2003 femonomics was broadened by Reeta Wolfsohn so that it could become applicable to both men and women and she conceptualised it as financial social work. Financial social work is taught by the Centre for Financial Social Work via a self-online process (Centre for Financial Social Work, 2019).

4.8.2 Definition of financial social work

Financial social work is the process of working with clients in order to provide practical, sustainable skills for controlling and managing finances with the goal of creating real behaviour change in clients (Mcdonald, 2014). Financial social work can also be defined as a model adaptable to a majority of the client population to encourage clients to engage in sustainable, long-term financial behaviour change through education, motivation and support so that clients can take control of their income and gain more control of their lives (Haven, 2013). According to Centre for Financial Social Work (2019), financial social work involves helping to guide individuals facing financial distress, raising awareness of sound financial management behaviours and promoting financial security.

4.8.3 Why financial social work?

Macdonald (2014) asserts that financial problems are a leading cause of divorce, that poor financial skills can cause even an individual with a high income to experience stress and that those with a low income may find themselves approaching social work services for counselling. Financial social work is crucial because it recognises that financial stress can cause fears that are debilitating, chronic, paralysing and isolating and can cause or contribute to depression, insomnia and feelings of helplessness (Centre for Financial Social Work, 2019). In financial social work, it is also acknowledged that the fear of finances is a cause of money disconnect and affects financial and mental wellbeing. Lastly, financial social work also recognises that hopelessness is a major obstacle to changing financial behaviour (Centre for Financial Social Work, 2019).

Silverman (2018) affirms that key to financial social work is the expansion of self-awareness, provision of financial knowledge and helping clients to integrate better financial decision making into their daily lives. In financial social work, feelings and attitudes that determine a person's relationship to and behaviour with money are explored (Silverman, 2018). Silverman further argues that financial social work has less to do with how much money a person has than with the person's self-awareness and self-esteem to manage his or her financial circumstances. Financial social work also focuses on understanding the client's current financial circumstances and how they relate to financial goals for the future, healing the client's relationship with money, developing skills to manage financial stressors, reducing behaviour that inhibits financial wellbeing and addressing emotional issues that drive financial behaviour (Wolfsohn, 2015).

The Centre for Financial Social Work (2019) highlights some of the most important facts about the financial social work model:

- Financial social work is interactive and introspective, and it is also a behavioural approach that is heavily psychosocial.
- It is multidisciplinary in approach, strength based and motivational, with validation and support.
- In its practice, it incorporates ongoing financial education, motivation, validation and support.
- It supports clients through creating healthier thoughts, feelings and attitudes about their money and themselves.
- It helps financial social workers to improve their own financial futures as well as those of their clients.

The Wolfson 'whole person' financial health model provides insight into both financial social workers and clients to understand that it is not only money that is involved in financial healing and health (Centre for Financial Social Work, 2019). According to the Centre for Financial Social Work, the Wolfsohn 'whole person' financial health model is based on the following key concepts in financial healing and health:

Money: It is seen as the source of many different thoughts, feelings, attitudes and beliefs that are difficult to talk about, understand and manage. In as far as this model is concerned, making friends with one's money is a crucial step towards financial health.

Self: The model asserts that the relationship that each person has with himself or herself is as important as the relationship that the person has with his or her money. It is further stated that a person's thoughts and beliefs about himself or herself determines his or her financial behaviour and that a person's financial behaviour determines his or her circumstances.

Behaviour: Because financial social work is a behaviour model that is interactive, introspective, multidisciplinary and heavily psychosocial, it engages clients in financial behaviour change.

Others: The people sharing one's life, for example family, friends, colleagues, partners, spouses and others, influence one's financial decisions directly or indirectly. The Centre for Financial Social Work argued that whether one is aware of it or not, the financial wants, needs and choices of the people around one affect one's own wants, needs and choices.

Society: Key to this concept is the understanding that money does not exist in a vacuum. Money exists in a society fuelled by various forms of media that keep on bombarding people with politics and other influences that shape how people view themselves and how they earn, spend, save, share and borrow.

Life cycle: Throughout the life cycle, there are financial tasks that are intended to be completed and there are financial expectations to meet those financial tasks.

Health: Financial stress can be detrimental to physical, mental emotional, psychological and social wellbeing. It is argued that most of this stress continues unnoticed, leaving the body and mind struggling to cope with consequences such as high blood pressure, ulcers, anxiety, depression, heart attacks and so forth.

The Centre for Financial Social Work (2019) points out three areas of financial social work, namely income sufficiency, asset building and financial capability. Income sufficiency includes budgeting and helping clients to improve their finances by generating income. Asset building includes financial and tangible resources. Financial capability, as already described throughout this chapter, includes individuals' knowledge and skills to manage and oversee finances and exposure to opportunities to support financial wellbeing (The Centre for Financial Social Work, 2019). In the light of the current inadequacies in both social work practice and training for the facilitation of financial capabilities development and the fact that financial social work is a lesser known aspect of social work, especially in developing countries, developmental social work becomes increasingly appropriate in implementing financial capabilities intervention.

4.9 FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT THROUGH DEVELOPMENTAL SOCIAL WORK

Midgley (2010) argues that although the notion of developmental social work has gained momentum among social work scholars and practitioners, no standard definition of developmental social work has been adopted. However, despite the lack of a standard definition, it is possible to identify common themes that provide the basis for a systematic conceptual perspective on developmental social work (Midgley, 2010). According to Midgley (2010), these themes include consensus on the importance of facilitating change, utilisation of strengths and empowerment and capacity enhancement, self-determination, client participation and commitment to equality and social justice. Based on the above themes, developmental social work is primarily concerned with improving the material wellbeing of individuals, families and communities living in conditions of poverty and deprivation (Midgley, 2010). Developmental social workers make extensive use of interventions that are designed to enhance standards of living, and these interventions are productivists in that they foster economic participation and increase incomes and assets (Midgley, 2010).

The research by Engelbrecht (2009) confirms the correlation between financial and human wellbeing as well as the role of social workers practising within the social development paradigm on the microlevel towards integrated service delivery. Developmental social work is defined by Patel (2005; 2015) as the practical and appropriate application of knowledge, skills and value to enhance the wellbeing of individuals, families, groups, organisations and communities in their social context. Patel (2015) further states that developmental social work aims to balance needs with resources and to promote the optimal use of opportunities presented by the wider social environment through utilising the strengths and inner resources within clients and the environment. Midgley (2010) asserts that developmental social work emphasises the role of social investments in professional practice and that these investments meet the material needs of clients and facilitate their full integration into the social and economic life of the community. According to Lombard and Warira (2010), developmental social work affirms the commitment of the social work profession to social justice, human rights, eradication of poverty and ending inequality. It aims to promote social change through focusing on the person and the environment and the interaction between the two (Patel, 2005). Developmental social work also aims to balance needs with resources and to promote the optimal use of opportunities presented by the wider social environment through tapping the assets, strengths and inner resources within clients and the environment (Patel, 2005). The third aim of developmental social work is to achieve the following:

- Meet the needs and promote and protect the rights of client groups, especially those who are vulnerable and marginalised.
- Facilitate participation of client groups to manage and solve social problems.
- Promote social and economic inclusion through enhanced personal functioning and through strengthening human capital and the livelihood capabilities of individuals, groups and communities.
- Work collaboratively with all actors such as individuals, families, groups, organisations, NGOs, the private sector and government to achieve its core objectives.

Sanders (1982) also affirms the holistic approach of developmental social work when resolving challenges faced by clients for the following reasons:

- It places more emphasis on all levels in optimising human potential and providing positive social development.
- Because it is broad-based, it is concerned with all sectors of development.
- It focuses on institutional development and structural change that are responsive to the changing needs and aspirations of people.
- It focuses on the cultural factors pertinent to social work practice in a community or society where social work intervention is taking place.

Intrinsic to developmental social work practice is the knowledge that embodies its theory and practice. According to Patel (2005), developmental social work is informed by integrated multidimensional theories that emphasise the interconnection among human problems, life situations and social conditions. Developmental social work is also based on holistic assessment of the client's social situation, and the types and levels of interventions are determined after the problem has been identified, assessed and understood in its full context and discussed with the client (Patel, 2005). In order to best apply a holistic approach in its interventions, developmental social work derives general systems and ecosystems with client groups of different sizes, thereby enhancing understanding of the interconnections between persons and the environment complementary with other relevant social work and development theories such as empowerment and social justice (Patel, 2005). Participatory and people-centred theories are highly relevant as is human needs-centred development (Patel, 2005). In this regard, developmental social work is premised on the fact that individual, community and macro changes are driven by people themselves in partnership with development agents such as social workers through deliberate and planned change (Patel, 2005).

Developmental social work on all levels of practice and in diverse client groups is also the best approach to facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable individuals and households. One of the roles of developmental social workers is that of enabler. The role of enabler entails assisting or encouraging the client and the client group to be provided with the means and opportunities and that subsequently become effective and possible (Patel, 2005; 2015). The role of enabler is also linked to exclusion in society whereby personal or collective action is assisted or promoted to address the situation of exclusion (Patel, 2005; 2015). The role of enabler is furthermore closely related to empowerment, which is the process of increasing personal, interpersonal or political power so that individuals can take action to improve their life situation (Patel, 2005; 2015).

The other important role of developmental social workers is that of educator. The educator's role in developmental social work involves information sharing and exchange, transfer of skills as part of lifelong learning and building of human capabilities to strengthen livelihoods and improve social functioning (Patel, 2005; 2015). In this regard, developmental social workers may provide education on various matters, such as parenting skills, stress management, accessing resources and applying for employment (Patel, 2005; 2015).

Developmental social workers may also play the role of counsellor whereby they provide support and guidance to clients and assist them in problem solving (Patel, 2005; 2015).

The last role is that of broker. As a broker, the developmental social worker links clients with financial, physical, educational, social service, technical and environmental resources to meet their needs through referral to a service or through facilitating clients' access to resources (Patel, 2005; 2015).

4.10 CONCLUSION

The facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households is one of the strategies to alleviate poverty among the poor. There is wide consensus that there is a correlation between financial wellbeing and social wellbeing, and thus successful facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households is likely to have positive outcomes for the social wellbeing of individuals, communities and society at large. High financial capability scores can only be attained when the elements of financial capability, which are financial literacy, financial inclusion and financial behaviour, are compatible with each other. The concept of financial capability and its elements have been developed within the context of developed economies, and the way in which they are defined and understood may be based on the experiences of developed economies. There is therefore a strong assertion that the implementation of financial capabilities intervention should take cognisance of the different conditions in which developed and developing economies operate.

South Africa as one of the developing economies has a dual financial sector, including an advanced financial sector that resembles a developed economy and a large informal economy. Despite the array of financial education programmes implemented by different stakeholders in South Africa, there are still low scores on financial capabilities. This could be attributed to complex products and services offered by the financial institution, low levels of literacy, unemployment and utilisation of informal financial services that in some instances are linked to the informal economy.

Financial capabilities development is viewed as one of the strategies that can be used to improve the quality of life within the social development paradigm as it seeks to develop the assets of individuals and communities. Developmental social work is seen as best suited to facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households for achieving optimal financial capability. In addition, financial social work as a model needs to be explored and incorporated into developmental social work in order to enhance its role in the development of financial capabilities.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the theoretical frameworks and empirical processes that formed the basis for the researcher's choices and decisions regarding the design and execution of the research study. These theoretical frameworks and empirical processes underpinned the scientific social research undertaken by the researcher, which Babbie (2010) defines as a specific and systematic way to investigate and discover how social realities emerge, operate and impact on individuals and organisations. These theoretical frameworks and empirical processes also formed the basis for the research methodology that was pursued in the realisation of the research goal and in answering the main research question. The concept of research methodology as defined by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) refer to the various methods of scientific investigation that complement one another and are able to deliver the data and findings that reflect the research question and purpose through coherent research processes as conceptualised by the researcher. Crotty (2003) also defines 'methodology' as a strategy, plan of action or design that underpins the choice behind the use of specific methods to reach certain desired outcomes. This chapter begins with presenting the ontological, epistemological and interpretive research paradigms that informed the researcher's choice of research methodology and then explains how the research topic was selected. The chapter further discusses and reflects on the research approach and design; the research processes, which include the selection of the research topic, research approach, research design, literature review, population and sampling procedures, data collection methods, data analysis, interpretation and presentation, research ethics, reflexivity, member checking and the limitations of the study.

5.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

As indicated above, the study was influenced by ontological, epistemological and interpretive paradigms that informed the theoretical perspective of the research.

5.2.1 Ontological paradigm

The topic of the study was the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households, and the goal of the study was to gain an in-depth understanding of the role that social workers played. Such an understanding could be best achieved through an in-depth study of social workers based on their experiences of facilitating financial capabilities development. The role that social workers play in this regard is unknown, hence the intention of the study to achieve an in-depth understanding thereof.

The ontological paradigm seeks to discover the nature of existence and what constitutes reality (Gray, 2018) and in the context of the social sciences how social reality or reality in general should be viewed (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). Fouché and Schurink argue that reality is approached either objectively as an external reality 'out there', requiring that the researcher remains detached from the study, or subjectively, meaning that it can only be constructed through an empathetic understanding of the meaning that research participants attach to their own experiences of the world. In this study, social reality or the role played by social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development was regarded as unknown and and based on social workers' subjective experiences, and their role would only be known after construction of reality from the meaning derived from their experiences of performing this role.

5.2.2 Epistemological paradigm

The epistemological paradigm constitutes a set of theories of knowledge or the principles and rules by which reality should be known (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). Crotty (2003) states that epistemology provides a philosophical foundation for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how to ensure that they are adequate. Ultimately, epistemology informs a theoretical perspective that embodies a certain way of understanding what it means to know (Crotty, 2003). The theories of knowledge and principles and rules by which the research question of this study should be answered should be able to elicit the subjective experiences of the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development, and the theoretical perspective that embodies the epistemological paradigm is the interpretive paradigm.

5.2.3 Interpretive paradigm

The interpretive paradigm is based on the belief that the goal of the social sciences is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences (De Vos, Strydom & Schulze, 2011). De Vos *et al.* further argue that a different methodology is required to reach an interpretive understanding and explanation that will enable the researcher to appreciate the subjective meaning of social action. Within the interpretive paradigm, the researcher seeks to describe and understand the world and the meaning of people's actions from the perspective of people themselves (Bertram & Christiansen 2014). The purpose is to develop a greater understanding of how people make sense of the contexts in which they live and work (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The underlying theoretical principle underpinning the interpretive paradigm is its recognition that research results are not out there waiting to be discovered by the researcher but are established through the interpretation of data (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Bertram and Christiansen further states that within the interpretive paradigm, researchers make interpretations with the purpose of understanding human agency, behaviour, attitudes, beliefs and perceptions and thereby influences the research methods that they choose. The interpretive paradigm formed the theoretical base of the study as it sought to make sense of the context in which social workers played their role and the research results would be obtained through interpretation of the data.

5.3 SELECTION OF A RESEARCH TOPIC

The selection of a topic for the study was stimulated by previous research in the field of financial capability. Despite some research on the role played by social workers in financial capabilities development, especially in South Africa, it is still minimal. The research conducted in this area includes financial vulnerability and indebtedness of people using social work services (Engelbrecht, 2009), social workers' perceptions of poverty, the construction of a conceptual framework for financial literacy programmes (Engelbrecht, 2008a) and the role of social workers employed by NGOs in financial education (Engelbrecht, 2009). Fouché and De Vos (2011) point out that the research projects are not selected out of context but are stimulated by ideas and the research of others. Fouché and De Vos further state that all the research projects have limitations and that therefore a need for further research exists.

5.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

The qualitative research method was chosen as the most appropriate for the study. Qualitative research is defined as an approach to research that elicits participants' accounts of meaning, experiences and perceptions (Fouché & Delport, 2011). Qualitative research seeks to understand and explain an argument by using evidence from the data and from the literature about the phenomenon that is being studied (Henning *et al.*, 2004). The qualitative research applied was informed by both inductive and deductive reasoning. Deductive reasoning is premised on moving from the particular to the general (Babbie, 2010) after the data has been analysed to see whether any pattern that suggests a relationship between the variables emerges (Gray, 2018). Inductive theory is the opposite of deductive theory, which moves from the general to the specific that might be logically or theoretically expected (Babbie, 2010). In inductive theorising or reasoning, the researcher begins with a general topic with no concrete ideas that are subsequently refined and elaborated into more exact theoretical concepts (Delport & De Vos, 2011). The deductive reasoning in the study was based on the theory in the literature whilst the inductive reasoning was the result of new theories that emerged from the data collected during empirical investigation. The deductive theory performed the role of guiding principles as it assisted in the structuring of the data collection process, and it was also important because without it, the researcher could not have acquired an understanding of the topic, what had already been done concerning the topic, how it had been researched and what the key issues were. The inductive reasoning was relevant because the findings of the empirical investigation discovered some concepts that were not covered by the theoretical literature.

The qualitative research approach allows the participants to have a different view of the theme that is studied and a more open-ended way of expressing their view and demonstrating their actions (Henning *et al.*, 2004). It can allow the researcher to access the context of peoples' everyday lives in which decisions are made and enacted (Barbour, 2001 Fouché & Delport, 2011). According to Fouché and Delport, qualitative research is concerned with describing and understanding rather than explaining or predicting human actions. Fouché and Delport further argue that qualitative research is naturalistic rather than controlled by measurements and does an objective exploration of reality from the perspective of the participants, as opposed to the perspective of the outsider that is predominant in the quantitative research approach. Flick, Von Kardoff and Steinke (2004) point out that qualitative research seeks to describe life in the world from the point of view of the participants. Essentially, qualitative research strives to bring about a better understanding of social realities and is specific about processes, meanings, patterns and structural features (Flick *et al*., 2004). The qualitative approach achieves this through the application of systematic procedures (Berg, 2004). The qualitative approach was appropriate for the study because it sought to elicit social workers' accounts of meaning, experiences and perceptions regarding their role in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

The choice of the qualitative approach was influenced by the research topic, the goal of the study and the ontological and epistemological predispositions of the researcher. The interpretive theoretical paradigm also influenced the research design, data collection and analysis methods that were applied. The study sought to elicit the meaning, experiences and perceptions of social workers regarding their role in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. One-on-one semistructured interviews were utilised as data collection tools to understand the role of social workers based on participants' point of view.

5.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design refers to the entire plan for collecting and analysing data to answer the questions posed by the researcher (Flick *et al*., 2004) and is more a strategy than a method (Punch, 2005). The type of qualitative research design that was selected was a case study. A case study is defined as a systematic, in-depth study of a case in its context, and the case could be a person, a group, a community or an organisation (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Bertram and Christiansen point out that a case study aims to capture the views of participants about their lived experiences and their thoughts about a situation.

It may also refer to a period rather than a particular group of people (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). Fouché and Schurink describe the case study as follows:

> The exploration and description of the case takes place through detailed, In-depth data collection methods, involving multiple sources of information that are rich in context. These may include interviews, documents, observations, or archival records. As such the researcher needs access to, and the confidence of the participants. The product of this research is an in-depth description of a case or cases, and case based on themes. The researcher situates this system or case within its larger context, but the focus remains on either the case or an issue that is illustrated by the case researchers, in contrast to grounded theories, seek to enter the field with a knowledge of the relevant literature before conducting the field research.

According to Fouché and Schurink (2011), case studies are particularly useful for the purpose of producing theory and knowledge for informing policy development. Fouché and Schurink further assert that case studies involve a detailed investigation of a complex entity and by doing so, they can generate theoretical insight closely grounded in real experience in contrast to more speculative theorising. Punch (2005) identifies the following characteristics of a case study:

- It is a bounded system with its boundaries identified and described as clearly as possible.
- It is a case of something so that the researcher can have a focus, and that becomes a significant aspect in determining the unit of analysis, which is an important idea in the analysis of data.
- In a case study, there is an explicit attempt to preserve the wholeness, unity and integrity of the case and the research question helps to define this focus.

The types of case study that were utilised were intrinsic and instrumental case studies. The purpose of the intrinsic case study is to describe, analyse and interpret a specific phenomenon (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). The instrumental case study strives to produce knowledge and to test theory, and its purpose is exploratory (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). These types of case study may be applied together as they often overlap because the case study may explore and describe a subject (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). Explorative studies seek to explore what is happening and to ask questions about it and they are particularly useful when limited information or knowledge exists about a particular issue (Gray, 2018), and when the purpose of the research is to gain a broader understanding of a situation or phenomenon (Bless *et al.*, 2013). Explorative studies can also be applied in order to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study and may also be used to develop methods to be employed in any subsequent study (Babbie, 2010). On the one hand, descriptive studies seek to demonstrate a situation, person or event or may illustrate how things are related to each other (Gray, 2018). Bless *et al.* (2013) add that descriptive studies can also take the form of verbal narratives and descriptions derived from interviews.

The case study in this research project involved social workers at different professional levels who were employed by the ECDSD. The case study sought to capture their lived experiences and thoughts about their role in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The study entailed a detailed investigation with the purpose of gaining knowledge of the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. From the knowledge obtained, theories emerged that could inform policy development in both practice and social work education. The study was both explorative and descriptive; hence, intrinsic and instrumental case studies were applied. The explorative dimension was pursued through one-on-one semistructured interviews and the descriptive dimension was achived with verbal narratives based on the data obtained from the semistructured interviews.

5.6 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature review pertains to the existing scholarship or available body of knowledge whereby the researcher can see how other scholars have investigated the research problem that the researcher is interested in (Mouton, 2001). It is used in the contextualisation of a study to argue a case and to identify what the focal area that underpins a researcher's own study (Henning *et al*., 2004). A review of the literature is important because without it, the researcher cannot acquire an understanding of the topic, what has already been done concerning the topic, how it has been researched and what the key issues are (Hart, 1998). According to Delport, Fouché and Schurink (2011), the literature review has three broad functions in qualitative studies:

- It demonstrates the assumptions underlying the research questions.
- It demonstrates the knowledge that the researcher has about research and the intellectual traditions that surround and support it.
- It shows that the researcher has identified some gaps in the previous research and that the proposed study will fill these gaps.

Delport *et al*. (2011) point out that the theoretical expectations of the literature review at the beginning of the study is to supply guiding principles that may assist in the structuring of the data collection process. When the literature review is carried out towards the end of the study, the researcher explains the data and provides evidence of findings in relation to the existing body of knowledge (Henning *et al*., 2004). Flick (2009) suggests the following ways to carry out the literature review in a qualitative study:

- Employing theoretical literature about the topic under study by using insights and information from the existing body of knowledge as contextual knowledge.
- Employing empirical literature about earlier research in the field of study or similar fields and combined theoretical and empirical literature to contextualise, compare and generalise findings.

The literature review was used in this study to broaden the researcher's knowledge about the scholarly work done on the research problem and to gain more insight into the information and knowledge in other areas related to the research topic. The literature review concerned the scholarly work done in the field of financial capability and the areas related to the study, which included the socioeconomic circumstances of households in South Africa and poverty alleviation interventions in the country. The literature review assisted the researcher in the development of themes for the participants, which subsequently assisted the researcher in developing the interview schedule. The literature review also provided deep theoretical insight into the topic under study by using insights and information from the existing body of knowledge as contextual knowledge. Inductive reasoning was applied in the empirical study to substantiate the narratives of participants that did not find expression through deductive reasoning.

The literature study was mainly based on peer-reviewed articles that were accessed through the internet. In advancing the objectives of synthesising the socioeconomic situation of households in South Africa and poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa, the main sources of literature were local and included South African government legislative and policy frameworks. In achieving the objective of understanding financial capability within a developmental approach, the literature review was based on articles by authors who had written extensively on financial capability and who were based mainly in the United States of America where the social work profession is already practising financial capabilities development. The literature review provided the researcher with an in-depth overview of the socioeconomic situation of households in South Africa and poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa and with a deep insight into the theoretical undergirding of financial capability and the financial capability approach, which formed the theoretical foundations of the study. In chapter 6 on the research findings, the literature review is used to show evidence of the research findings and for comparison and generalisation of findings.

5.7 POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

This section discusses the population that was targeted, and the sampling procedure applied for the study.

5.7.1 Population of the study

According to Babbie (2010), the population is the group of people about whom the study wants to draw conclusions. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) refer to the population as the total number of people, groups or organisations that could be included in a study. Rossman and Marshall (1999) highlight the significance of the rationale when identifying a data collection site. Berg (2004) suggests that a study site or setting should be a location where the following is possible:

- Where entry or access is possible.
- Where an appropriate target population is likely to be available.
- Where there is a high probability that the people who are relevant to the research question will be available to the investigator.
- Where empirical research can be conducted effectively by the researcher during the data collection phase.

The population for this study was social workers working for the ECDSD. The population was appropriate as the study focus because the research problem had never been explored before in this population. Access to the study site was deemed possible, and the target population was readily available as these persons were full-time employees of the department.

5.7.2 Sampling procedure

Sampling entails making decisions about which people to include in the study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In sampling, researchers decide on how many individuals, groups or objects will be studied (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Bertram and Christiansen argue that researchers within the interpretive paradigm are not concerned with statistical accuracy or with whether their data is representative of an entire population. Instead, the researchers are concerned with detailed and in-depth description and analysis as the focus is on collecting rich and in-depth qualitative data (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Strydom and Delport (2011) assert that the sample size in qualitative research depends on what the researcher wants to know, the purpose of the research, what is at stake, what will be useful for the study, what will have credibility and what can be done within the available time and with the available resources.

The study sample was composed of 20 social workers doing generic social work, 10 social work supervisors and 5 social work policy managers. The total number of participants was thus 35. The total number of participants to represent the population was decided on the basis that the number of participants was deemed enough to produce the required data for the researcher to do an in-depth description and analysis. The process of data collection reached the saturation point whereby the narratives of the participants became repetitive; as a result, the researcher could stick with the envisaged number of participants for each cohort.

Since this was a qualitative study, nonprobability sampling was the most appropriate sampling design to apply. In nonprobability sampling, the participants do not have an equal opportunity of being selected for a study (Strydom & Delport, 2011). The type of nonprobability sampling used was purposive sampling. According to Barbour (2001), purposive or judgemental sampling relies on selecting participants by virtue of characteristics deemed by the researcher as likely to have some bearing on their perceptions and experiences. Purposive sampling is informed by the assumption that the researcher knows what type of participants are needed (Bless *et al.*, 2013). Bless *et al.* add that the researcher will therefore purposefully choose participants based on some specific criteria that are deemed to be essential. In purposive sample, the researcher exercises a degree of judgement about who will provide the best perspective on the research question (Gray, 2018).

The participants were chosen based of the different roles that they played in social work within the ECDSD; hence, the study sample was composed of frontline social workers, supervisors and social work policy managers. The ultimate purpose was to gain diverse perspectives on the subject matter based on different levels of responsibility and experience in social work practice. Although the study population was all the social work employees of the ECDSD, the study sample comprised 20 social workers, 10 supervisors from two districts and 5 social work policy managers based at the provincial office. The minimum requirement for participation was a period of three years practising as a social worker, social work supervisor or social work policy manager. This criterion would enable the participants to provide the best perspective on the phenomenon being studied.

5.8 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

The purpose of this section is to discuss and reflect on the steps followed in the collection of data. As indicated above, qualitative interviewing was used as a data collection tool wherein semistructured interviews were utilised. The data collection process began with gaining entry to the participants and conducting one-on-one interviews with them.

5.8.1 Gaining entry to the participants

Gaining entry to the prospective participants, requesting participation in the research and explaining the research aims and the ethical implications of the research are referred to by Henning *et al.* (2004) as surveying the site and gaining entry to the site. De Vos *et al*. (2011) state that the successful execution of the study design and data gathering is usually determined by the accessibility of the research setting and the researcher's ability to build up and maintain relationships and agreements with gatekeepers and participants. According to De Vos *et al*., gatekeepers in the context of a research study are those individuals with the formal or informal authority to provide approval for access to research groups, sites or participants. De Vos *et al.* further state that once the researcher has located and established contact with the gatekeepers, there must be co-operation by the gatekeepers, and this often involves bargaining and negotiating.

In this study, gaining access to the research setting through the gatekeepers was accomplished through various stage directions for conducting interviews (Okumas, Alitay & Roper, 2006), namely seeking permission for study from the Head of the ECDSD (see Annexure 4), writing to the directors of the respective districts in which the study was conducted and seeking permission to interact with the heads of the service offices where the interviews were to be conducted. The chief director responsible for welfare services was also apprised of the intent to conduct research in his directorate at the provincial office through a written request accompanied by the approval from the head of the ECDSD.

Once the district directors had been notified through written requests accompanied by approval from the head of the ECDSD, brief sessions were arranged in collaboration with the heads of the respective service offices to brief the eligible prospective participants and to explain the research framework (Hermas, 2004) for the purpose of introducing the researcher, the study itself, the research process in terms of how it would be conducted, the role of the participants, when and where the interviews would take place and how long each interview would last, and also to address ethical dilemmas. At the end of the briefing sessions, the prospective eligible participants indicated their willingness to participate and contact details were exchanged for further communication regarding suitable times and venues for the interviews. Prospective participants form the provincial office were personally approached by the researcher telephonically, seeking their consent to participate in the study. Before the commencement of each interview, the participant was afforded an opportunity to read through the consent form and to raise any question about the contents of the consent form before signing it (see Annexure 6). During the recruitment process, the prospective participants from the provincial office were also briefed about the research framework as it had been explained to the other participants. Appointments for interviews were arranged between each participant and the researcher (see Annexure 6).

5.8.2 Interviewing the participants

In interpretive-based research, interviews are used extensively because the aim is to explore and describe participants' unique perceptions and understanding as they allow the researcher to ask probing and clarifying questions and to discuss their perceptions and understanding with them (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). According to Babbie (2010), interviewing in qualitative research is an interaction between an interviewer and a respondent in which the interviewer executes the plan of inquiry. Babbie further asserts that interviewing is not just a set of questions that must be asked with particular words and in a particular order; instead, it can be treated as a conversation wherein the interviewer provides a general direction for the conversation and wherein the interviewer also pursues specific topics raised by the respondent. Barbour (2008) affirms that one-on-one interviews are the most commonly used interviewing method in qualitative studies and further affirms that most qualitative researchers favour the use of semistructured interviews, which allow for the ordering of questions that are arranged according to the priority that is accorded to each topic by the interviewer.

The interviews in this study were conducted in English and Xhosa. For non-Xhosa-speaking participants, the interviews were conducted in English, and for Xhosa-speaking participants, both languages were used. However, the transcripts for the narratives of the participants are reflected in English in the study. The interviews were conducted in the offices of the participants during the times when they were available and not busy. All the participants made themselves available for interviews except in a few instances where they would inform the researcher about their nonavailability for the appointment as a result of unforeseen circumstances and would reschedule the appointment.

5.8.2.1 Interview schedule

The researcher developed an interview schedule from the literature study that guided the interviews (Green, 2011a). The interview schedule was based on a set of predetermined questions, and it was used as an appropriate instrument to engage with the participants based on a broad range of themes or question areas (Green, 2011). The questions were arranged in a logical sequence, which made it easier for the participants to respond. During the interviews, not all questions were asked as participants would provide answers when responding to other questions as the questions allowed them to expand on their answers. The participants responded appropriately, although due to the nature of the semistructured interview schedule, some of the participants covered many details in one question.

5.8.2.2 One-on-one semistructured interviews

Bless *et al*. (2013) attest to the usefulness of semistructured interviews in exploratory research as they help to clarify concepts and problems and allow for the elimination of ambiguous questions. Semistructured interviews are defined as interviews organised around areas of particular interest while still being flexible in scope and depth (Greef, 2011). They are used to gain a detailed picture of a participant's beliefs about and perceptions of a particular topic (Greef, 2011). According to Hopf (2004a), semistructured interviews are an interview guide through which researchers orient themselves and that gives them plenty of freedom of movement in the formulation of questions, follow-up strategies and sequencing. Semistructured interviews also allow for the discovery of new aspects of the problem by providing a detailed exploration of the explanation given by respondents (Bless *et al*., 2013). According to Gray (2018), semi-structured interviews allow for probing of views and opinions where respondents are expected to expand on their answers. Gray adds that such probing may also allow the researcher to divert the interview onto new pathways that though not considered as part of the research interview may nonetheless contribute towards meeting the research objectives.

The one-on-one semistructured interviews were conducted at the venues and times that the researcher and participants agreed were most convenient for the participants from the first week of September 2019 until the second week of October 2019. Each interview lasted an average of 50 minutes. The interviews with the social workers from each service office were held on the same day for each service office at venues that had been secured by the service office managers. For social work supervisors and social work policy managers, the venues were agreed on with each participant and were mostly the participants' offices.

According to Greef (2011), an introduction to an interview provides direction to guide active participation through the open scope of their experience. At the beginning of each individual interview, the researcher provided an introduction, reaffirming the general purpose of the research, the role of the interview in the research, the approximate time to be spent and the confidentiality of the information (Greef, 2011). An audio recorder was used for recording of the interviews. The researcher explained the use of the audio recorder to the participants and obtained permission for the use thereof. The researcher also finalised the signing of the consent forms and informed the participants about their right to withdraw at any time if they wished to (Greef, 2011). The participants responded appropriately, and when the researcher was not adequately clarified would probe the participant to gain more clarity hence the pilot study was not necessary.

5.9 DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION

This section begins with a description of the process of data analysis and followed by data interpretation. These processes took place during the study concurrently.

5.9.1 Data analysis

In qualitative studies, data analysis involves the process of breaking data down into smaller units and constituent parts and making connection among the various elements, thereby providing the basis for new descriptions (Gray, 2018). Babbie (2010) defines qualitative data as the nonstatistical examination and interpretation of observations for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships in the data. Babbie further states that the qualitative research processes of data collection, analysis and theorising are interconnected and that therefore elements of data analysis may present themselves in all these processes. According to Schurink *et al.* (2011), during the process of data collection, ideas for data analysis occur as patterns take shape, possible themes spring to mind and hunches that inform subsequent data collection emerge. In this qualitative study, an inductive approach to data analysis was applied (Bless *et al.*, 2013). The inductive approach implies that categories, themes and patterns emerge from the empirical data (Bless *et al*., 2013). Silverman (2005) suggests that data can be developed through focusing on the data that is of high quality and is easiest to collect, looking at one process within the data, narrowing down the data to one part of that process and comparing difficult subsamples of the population. Data analysis was done through transcription, coding, writing of memos, interpretation and presentation. Henning *et al.* (2004) affirm that data analysis in qualitative research is ongoing, emerging and interactive. Schmidt (2004) argues that data analysis of semistructured interviews can be understood in terms of five stages:

- Categories for the analysis are set up in response to the material collected.
- Categories are brought together in an analytical guide and are tested and revised.
- Through use of this analytic guide, all interviews are coded according to the categories.
- Based on coding, case overviews can be produced and form the basis for the final analytical stage.
- The final analytical stage entails the selection of individual themes for in-depth analysis.

Schmidt (2004) argues that the guiding principle in this analysis strategy for semistructured interviews is the interchange between the data and prior theoretical knowledge. Schmidt affirms that this kind of interchange process begins not when the data is already transcribed but at the beginning of the data collection as an interplay among theoretical considerations in reaction to experience and observation of theoretical traditions during exploration in the research field. In the course of this interchange process, the process of theoretical preassumptions may also be refined, questioned and sometimes altered (Schmidt, 2004). The data analysis was based on the themes that informed the formulation of the interview schedule. The analytical strategy will be described under 'Coding'.

5.9.1.1 Transcription

Transcription is the conversion of the text from the interviews, observational notes or memos into written or typed documents (Henning *et al*., 2004). Kowal and O'Connel (2004) describe transcription as the graphic presentation of selected aspects of the behaviours of individuals engaged in a conversation. Bless *et al.* (2013) refer to transcription as a process of data reduction whereby data is transformed from raw data and appears in written-up field notes. The purpose of transcription is to present on paper as accurately as possible the spoken words of the respondents from the interviews (Kowal & O'Connel, 2004) and in the case of this study are the verbal features that are presented. Barbour (2008) asserts that good transcription in qualitative research is a product of forethought, careful planning and careful attention to detail. Kowal and O'Connel argue that the researcher should take note of the difference that exists between transcription and description of conversational behaviour. In a transcription, conversational behaviour is reproduced in writing in such a way that there is a relationship of similarity between the behaviour and its notation, while in description there is no relationship of similarity between the behaviour and its notation (Kowal & O'Connel, 2004). Kowal and O'Connel highlight some basic decisions that contribute to the development of a transcription system:

- The selection of the system of transcription is always determined by the goals and questions of the research project;

- by the selection of a system of notation; and
- by the selection of a transcription format for spatial ordering on paper.

Kowal and O'Connel (2004) recommend that the only features of conversational behaviour that should be transcribed are those to be specifically analysed.

Transcription was done for each interview after completion of the interview process. The features of the conversations that were transcribed were mainly those that were responses to the interview schedules for different cohorts of participants and other issues that emerged and were related to the goal of the study. The features of the conversations were written down in an order that was informed by the sequence of the questions in the interview schedules. The transcriptions were first denaturalised through interpretation of words spoken in isiXhosa and written down in English. Secondly, necessary adjustments from the original oral responses were made through writing down what had been said by using appropriate grammar so that the content was not tedious and incomprehensible for the reader, yet without losing content (Nascimento & Steinbruch, 2019). The denaturalising process was employed as a technique to present the narratives of the participants in the findings of the research (see the next chapter) in a coherent and reader-friendly way.

5.9.1.2 Coding

According to Bless *et al*. (2013), the process of coding involves breaking up the original transcripts and classifying all the small parts into various categories. 'Coding' is the verb and 'codes' are the names given through coding, and coding is more than just paraphrasing (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Corbin and Strauss assert that coding is more than just taking notes of the concepts in the margins of the field notes or making a list of codes as in a computer program. Coding involves interacting with the data using techniques such as asking questions about the data, and in doing so, the researcher derives concepts to stand for the data and then develops the data in terms of its properties and dimensions (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). In qualitative research, codes are developed by looking for themes and patterns within the data itself (Bless *et al*., 2013). Bless *et al* indicate that as the researcher writes more and more notes and tries out different combinations of codes, a coding system begins to emerge and some of the preliminary coding ideas are redefined and developed while others are discarded. Bless *et al.* suggest that each code be clearly defined and that a code definition should include at least a title and a description of what kind of data is to be categorised under the code. Schurink *et al.* (2011) point out the procedures that coding is comprised of:

- The labelling of phenomena or conceptualising of data is the first step whereby coding occurs through taking parts of a sentence or a paragraph and giving each a discrete incident, identifying an idea that it stands for or a phenomenon that it represents. This is done through the comparison of incidents, ideas or events so that as the comparison proceeds, similar phenomena are given the same name.
- The process of discovering categories that pertain to the same phenomenon and the phenomenon that is represented by each category is given a conceptual name that should be more abstract than that given to the concepts grouped under it.
- The naming and pulling together of groups of concepts or subcategories by choosing the ones that seem most logically related to the data and should be a more abstract concept than the one that it represents.

Gray (2018), Babbie (2010) and Henning *et al.* (2004) identify three processes or categories in the coding of data, namely open coding, axial coding and selective coding, and the procedures outlined above followed specifically in each type of coding process.

5.9.1.2.1 Open coding

According to Babbie (2010), the purpose of open coding is to uncover, name and develop concepts and to expose the thoughts, ideas and meanings contained in the data, which makes it the first step in the analysis and communication process. Gray (2008) points out that open coding works through the process of making constant comparisons whereby each time that an instance of a category is found, it is compared with previous instances. This is done by breaking down the data into discrete parts that according to Henning *et al.* (2004) are compared and questioned with "'what', 'where', 'who' and 'how' and are closely examined and compared for similarities and differences (Babbie, 2010) and given the same conceptual label, which is referred to as categorising (Henning *et al*., 2004) and modification (Gray, 2018). The researcher started by identification and coding of concepts that emerged from each sentence throughout all the transcripts and subsequently made comparisons of the coded concepts and shaded them with different colours as a form of identification. The narratives from participants that seemed to contain the same coded concepts from the same questions were connected to each other and shaded with the same colour to form subthemes. In other words, all excerpts that showed responses that were interconnected with the specific shaded concepts were shaded and grouped together to form subthemes.

5.9.1.2.2 Axial coding

The process of axial coding takes place when the researcher takes some parts of the data identified in open coding (Henning *et al*., 2004) by making connections between categories and subcategories (Gray, 2018). Through axial coding, analytical concepts are identified through reanalysis of the open coding with the aim to identify general concepts (Babbie, 2010). According to Gray (2018), axial coding achieves this by being specific about the following:

- The categories and conditions that helped in giving rise to it.
- The context in which it arises.
- The actions and interactions that emerge from its consequences.

Through axial coding, the narratives that had similar responses to those that were shaded as subthemes were reshaded with different colours according to their response similarities to form categories. For example, all excerpts that showed a similar meaning in the way that participants responded were reshaded together and formed a category.

5.9.1.2.3 Selective coding

This is a coding process whereby core categories are selected from the data through which the grounded theory is formed and is completed at a high level of abstraction (Gray, 2018). Selective coding is based on the results of open coding and axial coding whereby the central concept that organises all other concepts has been identified in the preceding categories. Henning *et al.* (2004) refers to selective coding as implying integrating and refining categories. The central concept or category represents the main theme of the research and a concept that all other concepts are related to (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Corbin and Strauss suggest that when identifying the central category, the researcher must choose from among the many categories developed over the course of a study and it must be a case category that appears to have the greatest explanatory relevance and highest potential for linking all of the other categories.

Table 5.1

Criteria for choosing a central category

It must be abstract so that all other major categories can be related to it and placed under it.
It must appear frequently in the data. This means that in all cases, there are indicators pointing to that concept.
It must be logical and consistent with the data. There should be no forcing of data.
It should be sufficiently abstract so that it can be used to do research in other substantive areas, leading to the development of a more general theory.
It should grow in depth and explanatory power as each of the other categories is related to it through a statement of relationship.

Selective coding was used in order to identify themes in the research findings. This was done through comparing subthemes that described a common phenomenon. For example, categories under the subtheme that had narratives with responses that fed into the themes that formed the basis for the interviews scheduled subsequently contributed to the formation of the main themes of the study findings.

5.9.2 Writing of memos

Schurink *et al.* (2011) states that analytical memos are important because they forge a link between the data and more abstract thinking, and they form the basis for analysing data in the research report. The writing of these memos occurs throughout the process of data collection and analysis (Babbie, 2010). Babbie suggests that writing of memos should be done as soon as thoughts come to the mind of the researcher. In the writing of memos, the researcher should focus only on those issues that are relevant for answering the research question (Schurink *et al.*, 2011). The memos may include operational notes that direct future data collection, such as reminders, instructions and critical comments to the researcher on how to collect the data and how to improve the quality of the interviews (Schurink *et al.*, 2011).

During the process of data collection, the researcher made notes through writing of memos about the recurring themes after every three interviews. The researcher also made notes about how the participants responded to certain questions and assisted in rephrasing the questions for subsequent interviews. In analysing the data, the researcher started with identified and coded concepts that emerged from each sentence throughout all the transcripts. The concepts were subsequently compared and divided into categories and subcategories. The researcher looked for connectivity among categories and subcategories and coded the ones that resembled logical connection. Finally, the subcategories and categories were regrouped, and themes and subthemes were generated and formed the basis for interpretation.

5.9.3 Data interpretation

The process of data interpretation involves making sense of the data (Schurink *et al.*, 2011). In qualitative data interpretation, the researcher distinguishes between conceptual terms, either to arrive at new theoretical considerations or to revise existing theoretical framework (Schmidt, 2004). Through data interpretation, categories that emerged from data analysis are subjected to interrogation in order to highlight exceptions, contradictions or disconfirming, which provides access to patterning and thus becomes the starting point for 'theorising' utilising counting (which is distinct from quantification and it strives for explanation solely in terms of frequencies and association) (Schmidt, 2004). Intrinsic to qualitative data analysis is the constant comparative method, which relies on constant comparing and contrasting. It has a systematic focus on who is saying what and in what context (Barbour, 2008). Barbour further states that the constant comparative method of analysis mainly relies on identifying patterning in the data that may lead to the researcher's having to do some counting so that he or she is able to make a claim that is firmly based on whether there is a shared issue or perspective that emerged in all interviews.

Schurink *et al.* (2011) refer to two typologies that are applied when interpreting qualitative data. The first one is first-order classification that is based on the categories of meaning of the research participants (Schurink *et al.* 2011). Through first-order classification, the researcher interprets data by finding out how research participants see the world, how they define the situation or what it means for them (Kreuger & Newman, 2006). Schurink *et al.* (2011) further state that in first-order interpretation, a qualitative researcher interprets data by assigning meaning or making data understandable from the point of view of the participants. Conversely, second-order interpretation or the etic approach is linked to the researcher's own discovery and reconstruction of the first-order interpretation or the approaches used by other researchers or found in the literature (Schurink *et al*., 2011). In second-order interpretation, the researcher comes in from the outside to interpret the data (Schurink *et al.*, 2011). Schurink *et al.* further state that through second-order interpretation, the researcher elicits an underlying sense of meaning from the data.

In this study, the researcher applied first-order interpretation whereby the data was made understandable based on the point of view of the participants. The data interpretation involved the identification of recurring patterns in the data and patterns that highlighted areas of importance in the themes. This was done by identifying the responses that surfaced most frequently in all the narratives. Secondly, the narratives that provided meaning to the identified themes regardless of how less often they surfaced in the data were also selected as part of the data analysis. The excerpts from the narratives of the participants were used in the text in order to enlighten the themes and to demonstrate the experiences and perceptions of the participants.

5.9.4 Data presentation

Matt (2004) argues that the route that the researcher selects in presenting data depends on his or her epistemological interest and on the data documented, in other words what the problems are, what structures the data represent and what structures are documented in the data. Matt further emphasises that the above argument is premised on the fact that in a qualitative study, the variability of analysis is not based on randomness but is an expression of a recognition of the unique structural nature of the research field and of the different epistemological interests. The data was presented through what Berg (2004) refers to as an organised, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion to be analytical drawn. The data presentation was in the form tables of data, themes, direct quotations of statements and terms or phrases (Berg, 2004). Berg asserts that the data presentation assists the researcher in understanding and observing certain patterns in the data or determining what additional analysis or actions should occur. The researcher applied what Matt (2004) refers to as realistic presentation whereby the researcher is an impartial observer by producing a single unambiguous description. According to Matt, the presentation is factual and is written in the third person and dominated by a documentary styles in the form of language of facts. In this form of presentation, the relationship among theoretical concepts, textual presentation and argument becomes an object of analysis (Matt, 2004). For example, in the chapter on empirical findings (Chapter 6), the data is presented under eight themes and subthemes under the themes and categories under the subthemes. Tables are used to present categories with excerpts wherein key concepts are underlined to demonstrate participants' perspectives based on their experiences. Narratives are also discussed, and conclusions are reached through a literature control.

5.10 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Schurink *et al*. (2011) assert that the conventional criteria of verifying whether the research was good or not that include internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity are not appropriate for a qualitative research project. Instead, the criteria most suited to establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research include the four concepts of credibility or authenticity, transferability, dependability and conformability. Notwithstanding the four concepts that constitute the criteria for establishing trustworthiness, Bless *et al.* (2013) identify essential tools for enhancing trustworthiness, which include adequate description of context, adequate description of the sample and the sampling procedure, concurrent data collection and analysis, methodological verification, ensuring data saturation, respondent validation and use of sufficient verbal quotation. The trustworthiness of the study was ensured by providing a detailed account of how the sample had been chosen and a description of the data collection processes and analysis. During the data analysis, the researcher demonstrated the responses of the participants through verbal quotations of the participants. The data reached a point of saturation that was demonstrated by participants' repeating what others had already said during the previous interviews for each cohort of participants.

5.10.1 Credibility

Credibility seeks to establish whether the findings depict the truth of the reality under study or whether the findings make sense (Bless *et al*., 2013). Bless *et al*. further assert that studies with high credibility are those in which the researcher has convincingly demonstrated the appropriateness of the overall internal logic of the research question, the study design, the data collection methods and the data analysis approach used. Credibility of the study can also be achieved through accurate identification and description of the subject by ensuring that there is a match between participants' views and the researcher's construction and presentation of these views (Schurink *et al*., 2011). The researcher ensured that the study was credible by having clearly defined research methods that led to attainment of the research goal and objectives and answering of the research question. The research methods applied included the selection of an appropriate qualitative research approach, sampling procedures, an explorative and descriptive case study design, a relevant literature review, the use of one-on-one semistructured interviews as data collection tool and appropriate data analysis and interpretation techniques.

5.10.2 Transferability

Transferability is about establishing whether the findings of the research can be transferred from one specific situation or case to another (Schurink *et al*., 2011) and can be compared to external validity (Bless *et al.*, 2013). Schurink *et al*. argue that the generalisation of qualitative findings to other populations and settings is seen as a weakness in the qualitative research approach. One of the strategies suggested by Schurink *et al*. in enhancing a study's generalisability is the use of data from different sources to corroborate or to clarify the study in question. Transferability also requires of the researcher to provide a detailed description of the context in which the data was collected, of the researcher as a person and of the relationship with the participants (Bless *et al.*, 2013). Bless *et al.* add that such detailed descriptions of the context allow other researchers to compare and assess the similarities between the given situation and other settings or contexts. The type of qualitative research in this study was a case study that was specific to a setting, and the research will allow other researchers to make comparisons between this study and similar studies conducted in other settings. Therefore, because it was a case study that was specific to a setting, the study cannot be generalised to the rest of South Africa; however, similar contexts may exist in South Africa, and the study may be applicable to those contexts. The context underpinning the study was that the data collection was conducted among social workers employed by the ECDSD. The researcher as a person and his relationship with participants was explained through reflexivity whereby the researcher has presented about himself as he is also an employee of the ECDSD and member checking was done to confirm the researcher's understanding of the participants' discourses and that they were correct and agreed with the researcher's understanding immediately after the interviews.

5.10.3 Dependability

According to Bless *et al.* (2013), dependability is similar to reliability and it requires that the researcher thoroughly describes and precisely follows a clear and thoughtful research strategy. Dependability seeks to establish whether the research process is logical, well documented and audited (Schurink *et al.*, 2011). Bless *et al.* (2013) assert that when a researcher describes exactly how the data was collected, recorded, coded and analysed and can present good examples to illustrate the process, the results can be trusted to be dependable. A detailed account of how the data collection and analysis were done and how it followed the research strategy that the researcher envisioned is presented in sections 8 and 9 of this chapter.

5.10.4 Conformability

Conformability is similar to replicability, and it requires that other researchers be able to obtain similar findings by following a similar research process in a similar context (Bless *et al*., 2013). The researcher is expected to do a critical evaluation of the research methodology used (Bless *et al.*, 2013) and be able to provide evidence that corroborates the findings and interpretation by means of auditing (Schurink *et al*., 2011). The researcher effected a reconciliation of the findings by repeatedly examining the match between the interpreted data and the findings. The conformability of the study is confirmed by the literature presented particularly in chapters 2 and 4 and the data that emerged as a result of inductive reasoning. Conformability is also confirmed by the data analysis in Chapter 6 that is presented through verbatim responses and objective arguments that are substantiated by the literature review.

5.11 RESEARCH ETHICS

According to Gray (2018), research ethics mean the conducting of research in a way that goes beyond merely adopting the most appropriate research methodology but conducting research in a responsible and morally defensible way. Research ethics in the social sciences are usually about grouping together all those ethical principles and rules in which it is determined in a more or less binding and consensual way that reflects the manner in which the relationship between researchers and participants is to be handled (Hopf, 2004b). Babbie (2010) suggests that anyone involved in social research should be aware of the general agreements shared by researchers about what is proper and improper when conducting scientific research. The goal of research ethics is mainly to minimise risks for the participants (Bless *et al*., 2013). Gray (2018) argues that research ethics are either normative or metaethics. Normative ethics include the deontological perspective that argues that ethical principles should never be compromised and that they focus on the rights of research participants such as the right to privacy, the right to respect and the right to self-determination. Within the deontological perspective, there are two views that are based on the universalistic and the relativistic position (Gray, 2018).

5.11.1 Ethical risk

This research carried a low ethical risk due to the low probability or magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research as it was negligible and not greater than that ordinarily encountered in daily life experienced by the average person. Ethical risks are factors that can significantly harm participants, directly or indirectly affect their welfare or violate their human rights during and after the research (Resnic, 2015). In this study, the only foreseeable risk was one of minimal discomfort or inconvenience as the participants gave their opinions and reflected on their experiences as experts in their work environment. The study did not seek to explore any emotional content. In addition, the participants were all regarded as professionals as they had a qualification in the form of a professional degree that was required in their work environment. The research also did not focus on their personal lives as they were regarded as service providers and not as vulnerable recipients of social work services.

The researcher adopted a universalistic stance regarding research ethics as it is considered a prerequisite before commencing with the empirical study. The ethical issues that the researcher considered included informed consent, avoiding deception of participants, confidentiality and anonymity.

5.11.2 Informed consent

According to Berg (2004), informed consent means the knowing consent of individuals to participate in a research study, not influenced by fraud, deceit, duress or similar unfair inducement or manipulation. The principle of informed consent also means that the participants are provided with adequate and accessible information about the research project so that they can make an informed decision about whether to become involved or not (Gray, 2018). According to this ethical principle, research participants have the right to know what the research is about, how it will affect them and what the risks and benefits of participation are and also have the right to decline participation or to cease participation at any time during the research process (Bless *et al*., 2013). Gray points out that informed consent applies to both individuals and the organisations that they work for; hence, the gaining of consent occurs in two stages. The first stage concerns gaining consent from organisational stakeholders such as senior managers, research sponsors and so forth (Gray, 2018). The second stage concerns gaining consent from individual participants after organisational consent has been obtained.

In this study, consent was gained during the first phase by obtaining approval from the head of the ECDSD (Annexure 1) and from the directors of the two districts in which the study was conducted. Permission was also sought from the chief director responsible for social welfare services at the provincial office to which the social work policy managers were attached. The second phase of gaining consent from individual participants was facilitated through briefing sessions during which the researcher introduced all eligible prospective participants to the study and its purpose, and their voluntary participation was sought. Prospective participants were also made aware that participation was voluntary and that those who volunteered to participate were at liberty to withdraw their participation at any time if they chose to do so (see annexures 4 and 6).

5.11.3 Avoidance of deception of participants

Deception refers to withholding information or offering incorrect information in order to ensure the participation of subjects when they would otherwise possibly have refused it (Corey, Corey & Callanan, 1993) or researchers' presenting their research as something that it is not (Gray, 2018). The researcher is well known by most of the participants in his capacity as a social work manager within the ECDSD. To avoid deception, the researcher introduced himself as a PhD student and emphasised that he would be conducting the study not in his capacity as official or manager but in his capacity as student. The topic and purpose of the study, how it was going to be conducted and the possible time that was to be spent on each interview were discussed beforehand.

5.11.4 Confidentiality and anonymity

According to Babbie (2010), a research project guarantees confidentiality when the researcher can identify a participant's response but promises not to do so publicly and anonymity is guaranteed when the people who read about the research and also the researcher himself or herself cannot identify a given response with a given participant. The principle of confidentiality or privacy is premised on the right that every individual has to privacy whereby it is her or his right to decide when, where, to whom and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs and behaviour will be revealed (Strydom, 2011). Morris (2006) emphasises that participants should be informed of all possible efforts to preserve confidentiality as well as the steps that will be taken to ensure that no breach of this principle occurs. The principles of confidentiality and anonymity also affect the ways in which data collected by the researcher is stored and what kinds of controls are in place to prevent the data from being accessed and used by others (Gray, 2018).

The principles of confidentiality and anonymity and how these would be preserved were explained to the participants. It was explained that the identities of the participants and their responses would not be made available to anyone and that even in the publication of the study, they would remain anonymous. The participants signed consent forms in which the principles of confidentiality and anonymity were included. During the duration of data collection, the audio recorder that was used was always locked up in a secret place and the collected data would be deleted after completion of the study. The data was also stored in a password-protected computer and backed up on a Cloud platform, which prevented access to anyone except the researcher himself.

5.12 REFLEXIVITY

Reflexivity is the recognition by researchers that they have significant influence over the development of the research and the engagement of the participants by bringing the preconceived beliefs based on the biases, assumptions and other aspects of their background into the research (Curtin & Fossey, 2007). Reflexivity is also a continuous process of reflection by researchers on their values (Parahoo, 2006) and entails recognising, examining and understanding how their social background and assumptions affect their research practice (Hesser, 2007). Reflexivity in this study was manifested through personal and professional reflexivity. Personal reflexivity related to the researcher's personal experience of financial vulnerability in the past. The personal experience of financial vulnerability of the researcher led him to have preconceived ideas when he became involved in the study. The study also enabled the researcher to learn from the research by transforming the perceptions that he held about some of the aspects related to the subject matter of the study. Professional reflexivity related to the researcher's professional experience as a social worker who had directly worked with financially vulnerable service users. The professional experience of the researcher in the area of financial vulnerability also contributed towards having preconceived ideas during the research process.

To mitigate the subjective impact of reflexivity, the researcher ensured that a detailed account was given of the process followed during sampling, data collection and analysis in order to derive credible study results achieved through following scientific research processes. Anfara, Brown and Mangoire (2002) assert that researchers provide very detailed descriptions of settings, participants, data collection and analysis procedures as a way of making their accounts more credible to show that they were diligent in their attempts to conduct respectable research.

5.13 MEMBER CHECKING

Member checking is used in a qualitative study in order to control processes by which the researcher seeks to improve the accuracy, credibility and validity of what has been recorded during a research interview (Barbour, 2001). The participants are provided with an opportunity to state whether they agree or disagree with the information summarised by the researcher, whether they agree or disagree that the summaries reflect their views, feelings and experiences, and whether accuracy and completeness have been achieved. Member checking was done immediately after the interviews. During the process of conducting the interviews, the researcher also did member checking by paraphrasing the narratives of the participants to seek confirmation whether the content of the paraphrased and denaturalised narratives (Nascimento & Steinbruch, 2019) was a true reflection of what was said by the participants. This process of member checking facilitated the data analysis as themes started to emerge even during the member checking process.

5.14 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations in a research study refer to consideration by the researcher of the validity and reliability of all data collection instruments, the generalisation of the sample to the population from which it was drawn, access to data, ethical problems and the ability to control extraneous factors in the environment and in respondents (Fouché & Delport, 2011). The first limitation of the study was the lack of conceptual knowledge of financial capability among participants. The researcher started by defining the concepts so that the participants could respond within the proper conceptual context. This was due to the fact that social workers facilitated financial capabilities development without conceptual knowledge of financial capability. Secondly, the study cannot be generalised to the rest of South Africa; however, similar contexts may exist in South Africa and the study may be applicable to those contexts. Some of the participants, especially social work policy managers, had no deep insight into direct interactions with service users due to a long period of nondirect social work practice. However, they could reflect on poverty alleviation strategies and directives followed by their departments. Most participants who were social workers and social work supervisors had more insight as they provided direct services to service users. Lastly, the study was conducted prior to the Covid-19 outbreak, which had a tremendous impact on poverty in the country. Despite all these limitations, the essence of the study regarding financial capability development is still applicable.

5.15 CONCLUSION

The epistemological, ontological and interpretive theoretical research paradigms were the basis for the methodology followed in the execution of the research project. The study was implemented as planned by the researcher. However, the data collection process took longer than the scheduled time as some of the participants could not keep the scheduled appointments for interviews due to work commitments and sometimes due to ill health.

The findings of the empirical investigation are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS ON THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT OF VULNERABLE HOUSEHOLDS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an exposition of the empirical findings from the data collected through the semistructured interviews. The data was collected through one-on-one interviews with social workers, social work supervisors and social work policy managers. The empirical findings are presented in the form of tables, themes, subthemes, categories, and direct quotations of statements and terms or phrases (Berg, 2004). The data collected is discussed in accordance with the literature study presented in chapters 2, 3 and 4 that formed the basis for combined theoretical and empirical literature to contextualise, compare and generalise findings (Flick, 2009). The qualitative research approach as presented in Chapter 5 was used to provide a methodological framework for the study, which provided the basis for the empirical findings. The phases of data collection among the different cohorts of participants were not consecutive but rather supported each other as the data from the different phases were presented simultaneously and integrated into tables, narratives and themes.

The emergence of themes and subthemes was influenced by the responses of the participants whereby they all gave responses that led to the same themes as the focus of all the questions was to achieve the same goal of determining the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. There was no significant difference in the responses among the different cohorts of participants; hence, they were presented and analysed simultaneously and in an integrated manner. The aim of the study was to empirically investigate the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households as depicted in the fourth objective in Chapter 1. Therefore, the aim was the premise for the presentation of an argument in the process of discussion. The combined literature and empirical studies paved the way for the development of new insights into and deeper understanding of the role played by social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

The research cohort and the number of participants in each cohort are presented in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1

Number of participants for each cohort

Phase	Cohort of participants	Number of participants
1	Social workers	20
2	Social workers supervisors	10
3	Social work policy managers	5

The exposition of the empirical findings is presented as follows:

- Profile of the case study organisation.
- Biographical details of the participants.
- Discussion of the themes that emerged from the interviews.
- Discussion of the subthemes that emerged from the themes.
- Subdivision of themes into categories.
- Discussion and linkages of themes, subthemes and categories to the literature review.
- Representative verbatim responses of the participants.
- Integration and synthesis of literature control.

6.2 PROFILE OF THE CASE STUDY ORGANISATION

The case study was conducted among social workers employed by the ECDSD, which therefore was the case study organisation. Chapter 5 presented a motivation that justified the appropriateness of the case study, namely that the study was both explorative and descriptive, hence the intrinsic and instrumental nature of the case study. The purpose of an intrinsic case study is to describe, analyse and interpret a particular phenomenon (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). An instrumental case study strives to produce knowledge and to test theory, and its purpose is exploratory (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). The relevance of intrinsic and instrumental case studies is that both may be applied together (as they were in this study) as they often overlap because the case study may explore and describe a particular subject (Fouché & Schurink, 2011).

A brief profile of the case study organisation is presented based on the information on the website of the ECDSD and on the personal knowledge and experience of the researcher as he is also an employee of the ECDSD. The ECDSD is a provincial government department in the Eastern Cape Province and one of the functions of the provincial Executive Council. The ECDSD has at the top the Member of the Executive Council who is appointed by the Premier as its political head and the Head of the Department who is its Accounting Officer. The Head of the Department is responsible for the overall implementation of the administrative and service delivery functions of the department across all levels of its operation. The ECDSD currently operates across four levels of service delivery, namely provincial, district, area and service office levels. The provincial office is responsible for the strategic management and provision of a high level of administrative support and policy development. The district office level is responsible for the co-ordination of all services rendered by the area offices under its jurisdiction. The area office level is responsible for the implementation of the community and developmental social welfare services within its space of operation, which is based on the local government demarcation in respect of local municipalities. The service office level is at the frontline in delivery of services as it interacts directly with service users. The ECDSD executes its mandate of the rendering of services through five programmes that exist across all levels except one that is not found at service office level. These programmes include Programme 1, which is Administrative Support (finance, corporate services, supply chain management, information and technology, and institutional support services), Programme 2 (Social Welfare Services), Programme 3 (Children and Families), Programme 4 (Specialist Social Services) and Programme 5 (Community Development and Research). The programme that does not occur at service office level is Programme 1. Each programme is headed by a manager at the level of chief director.

The management at provincial level is made up of top management and extended top management. The top provincial management is comprised of the head of the department, the deputy director general for operations and the chief directors of all the programmes as outlined above. The extended top management is comprised of the head of the department, the deputy director general for operations, the chief directors of all the programmes, the directors at the provincial office and the directors of the eight districts. The directors at the provincial office head directorates that have subdirectorates that feed to each directorate. The programmes that are directly linked to this study are programmes 2 and 3 as they are the ones from which participants were drawn. Programme 2 is referred to as Social Welfare Services, and Programme 3 is called Children and Families. Programme 2 has four subprogrammes that are interchangeable, referred to as subdirectorates. These subdirectorates include care and support services to older persons, services to persons with disabilities, HIV and AIDS and social relief. Programme 3 is comprised of five subdirectorates, namely care and support services to families, child-care and protection, early childhood development and partial care, child and youth care centres, and community-based care services for children. Each of the subdirectorates is headed by a social work policy manager who reports to the directors responsible for each of the directorates.

The district level is headed by a district director who is an accounting officer at this layer of administration and service delivery and is responsible for overseeing the overall management of the five programmes outlined above. Under the district director are social work managers who are responsible for programmes 2, 3 and 4 within the district as programmes 1 and 5 are not within the scope of social work services. The main responsibility of social workers at district level is the co-ordination and management of policy and programme implementation across the area and service office layers within the district. To be exact, social work managers are programme managers of programmes 2, 3 and 4 at district level. Below social work managers are social work supervisors. Social work supervisors are based at both area and service office level. The social work supervisors at the area office are responsible for the co-ordination and management of subprogramme implementation, including project implementation. The social work supervisors at the service office are responsible for supervision of social workers in generic social work practice across all subprogrammes. Generic social work is practised by frontline social workers to the benefit of service users who receive services from all the subdirectorates outlined above.

The ECDSD has eight districts that are derived from six district municipalities and two metropolitan municipalities. The six district municipalities include OR Tambo, Alfred Nzo, Joe Gqabi, Chris Hani, Sarah Baartman and Amathole. The two metropolitan municipalities are Nelson Mandela Bay and Buffalo City. The study was conducted in OR Tambo and Buffalo City. The motivation for choosing these as research sites is provided in chapters 1 and 5. OR Tambo District municipality is comprised of five local municipalities or area offices (as they are referred to by the ECDSD), namely King Sabatha Dalindebo, Mhlontlo, Nyandeni, Port St Johns and Ingquza Hill. Buffalo City as a metropolitan municipality does not have local municipalities under its jurisdiction; instead, the ECDSD has established area offices within Buffalo City that are compatible to its operations in the improvement of service delivery. OR Tambo has nine service offices that reside in each local municipality, namely Mthatha and Mqanduli service offices in King Sabatha Dalindyebo Local Municipality, Tsolo and Qumbu service offices in Mhlontlo Local Municipality, Ngqeleni and Libode service offices in Nyandeni Local Municipality, Lusikisiki and Flagstaff service offices in Ingquza Hill Local Municipality, and Port St Johns service office in Port St Johns Local Municipality. Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality is comprised of East London service office, King William’s Town service office, Zwelitsha service office, Mdantsane NU 1 service office and Mdantsane NU 11 service office. The empirical investigation was conducted in two of the service offices from OR Tambo and Buffalo City. The profile of the participants, which provides a clear understanding of the context in which the social workers perform their role of facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households, is discussed below. The service delivery structure of the ECDSD is illustrated in Figure 6.1 below.

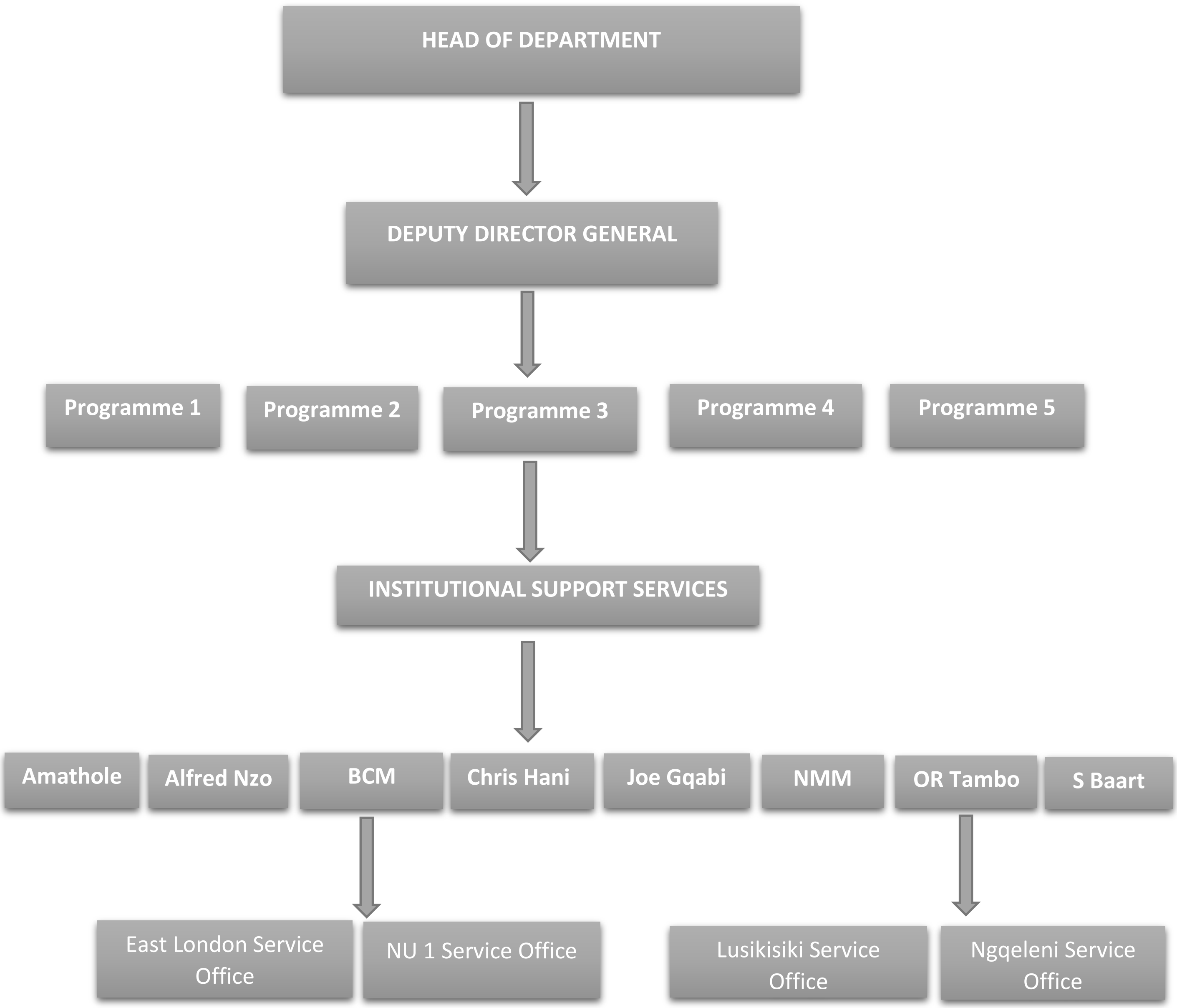

Figure 6.1: Service delivery structure

6.3 BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

The identifying details of the participants were part of the themes and biographies for the participants that had been completed prior to the commencement of each interview. The variables were the number of years of practice for each participant in her or his respective category of social work, namely social worker, social work supervisor and social work policy manager, and the geographical areas in which they were operating or rendering services. The tables below depict the participants' profiles in respect of the above described variables.

Table 6.2

Participants' work categories (cohort), years of experience and geographical areas of operation

Category	Code	Years of experience	Geographical areas of operation
Social worker	SW 1	13	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 2	10	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 3	4	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 4	5	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 5	3	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 6	5	Rural
Social worker	SW 7	5	Rural
Social worker	SW 8	4	Rural
Social worker	SW 9	6	Rural
Social worker	SW 10	5	Rural
Social worker	SW 11	5	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 12	5	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 13	3	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 14	4	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 15	7	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social worker	SW 16	6	Rural
Social worker	SW 17	8	Rural
Social worker	SW 18	4	Rural
Social worker	SW 19	5	Rural
Social worker	SW 20	4	Rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 1	6	Rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 2	10	Rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 3	12	Rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 4	6	Rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 5	7	Rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 6	5	Urban, semiurban and rural

Social work supervisor	SUP 7	5	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 8	3	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 9	3	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work supervisor	SUP 10	4	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work policy manager	MAN 1	11 years	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work policy manager	MAN 2	9 years	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work policy manager	MAN 3	11 years	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work policy manager	MAN 4	11 years	Urban, semiurban and rural
Social work policy manager	MAN 5	11 years	Urban, semiurban and rural

6.4 YEARS OF EXPERIENCE PER EACH SOCIAL WORK CATEGORY

Of the 20 social workers who participated in the empirical investigation, most had 3–5 years of experience of practising as social workers at the ECDSD. Those with 6–9 years and those with 10 years and more of experience constituted slightly more than a quarter of the total number of participants. All participants had ample experience as frontline social workers, and some were even seasoned social workers. Of the 10 social work supervisors who participated, half had 3–5 years of experience and thus half were seasoned social work supervisors. None of the social work managers had practice experience of less than 9 years in their current positions; thus, they were all seasoned social work managers with ample practice experience. Therefore, all the cohorts of participants possessed the necessary practice experience for participating in the study.

6.5 GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS OF OPERATION

Table 6.2 depicts the context wherein social workers render services to users who hail from different types of geographical areas. Such a scenario is most prevalent in Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality. The plurality of the geographical areas in Buffalo City is the result of the inner city, suburbs, townships, informal settlements and rural villages whose multifaceted geographical features resemble the geographical features that are referred to by Atkinson (2014) as periurban and dense rural settlements. Ten of the social workers and five of the social work supervisors who participated in the empirical investigation rendered services in urban, semiurban and and rural areas. The other ten social workers and five social work supervisors rendered services in rural areas only, and all of them were based in OR Tambo District Municipality. The five social work policy managers were all based at the provincial office, and therefore their scope operation covered all the geographical areas of operation. Therefore, the participants' experience is a reflection of working with service users from different geographical areas.

6.6. EMERGENCE OF THEMES, SUBTHEMES AND CATEGORIES

The interview schedule was applied as a source of interviews as suggested by Green (2011). None of the 35 respondents showed discomfort in their responses, and all responded with enthusiasm and understanding of the questions and would ask for clarification if there was a sense of ambiguity in some of the questions. From the 35 interviews that were conducted, eight themes emerged:

1. Conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability.
2. Sources of referral for financially vulnerable cases.
3. Factors contributing towards financial vulnerability among service users.
4. Social workers' interventions in facilitating financial capabilities development.
5. Successfulness and effectiveness of social workers' interventions.
6. Challenges faced by social workers when facilitating financial capabilities development.
7. Relevance of the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development.
8. Capacitation of social workers.

Table 6.3

Emerging themes, subthemes and categories

Theme	Subtheme	Category
1. Conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability by social workers	1.1 Lack of financial knowledge	1.1.1 Lack of knowledge about the difference between wants and needs 1.1.2 Lack of knowledge about financial products 1.1.3 Lack of knowledge about financial concepts
	1.2 Lack of personal financial management skills	1.2.1 Lack of budgeting skills 1.2.2 Lack of financial planning skills
	1.3 Undesirable financial behaviour	1.3.1 Inability to manage personal finances 1.3.2 Behaviour that is incompatible with financial knowledge
2. Sources of referral for cases of financial vulnerability	2.1 Self-referral, next of kin and community	1.2.1 Self-referral 1.2.2 Family members 1.2.3 Community
	2.2 Institutions	2.2.1 Local authorities 2.2.2 Government
3. Factors contributing towards financial vulnerability among service users	3.1 Misuse of social grants	3.1.1 Social and personal activities 3.1.2 Misuse of child support grant by biological mothers of child support grant beneficiaries
	3.2 Addictive social behaviours	3.2.1 Alcohol abuse 3.2.2 Gambling
	3.3 Unscrupulous loan sharks	3.3.1 Excessive borrowing 3.3.2 Irresponsible lending

	3.4 Poverty	3.4.1 Illiteracy and low levels of literacy 3.4.2 Insufficient source of income
	3.5 Unstable family relationships	3.5.1 Conflict among married couples
4. Social workers' interventions in facilitating financial capabilities	4.1 Advisor	4.1.1 Advice on financial products 4.1.2 Advice on efficient and effective use of income
	4.2 Educator	4.2.1 Education on the purpose of social grants 4.2.2 Education on financial literacy
	4.3 Advocate	4.3.1 Advocacy against exploitation of disability grant by carers and procurators 4.3.2 Advocacy against exploitation of service users and illegal acts by loan sharks
	4.4 Enabler	4.4.1 Monitoring of financial capability action plans 4.4.2 Support in the implementation of financial capability action plans
	4.5 Negotiator	4.5.1 Negotiating with credit providers
5. Successfulness and effectiveness of social workers' interventions	5.1 Co-operation	5.1.1 Co-operation from service users 5.1.2 Co-operation from other stakeholders
	5.2 Improvements in the psychosocial and economic circumstances of service users	5.2.1 Immediate benefits 5.2.2 Long-term benefits

6. Challenges faced by social workers when facilitating financial capabilities	6.1 Lack of co-operation	6.1.1 Alcohol abuse 6.1.2 Nonadherence to action plans
	6.2 Lack of skills and knowledge by social workers	6.2.1 Lack of appropriate practice skills 6.2.2 Lack of knowledge of financial management and financial capability
	6.3 Lack of policy and practice guidelines for social workers	6.3.1 Nonexistent practice guidelines 6.3.2 Nonexistent policy guidelines
7. Relevance of the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development	7.1 Centrality of financial challenges in every aspect of social life	7.1.1 Interconnection between social and financial challenges faced by service users 7.1.2 Interconnection between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing
	7.2 Social work professional skills	7.2.1 Empathy 7.2.2 Active listening 7.2.3 Communication 7.2.4 Persuasion
8. Capacitation of social workers	8.1 Training and reorientation of social workers	8.1.1 Inclusion of financial capability in the social work training curriculum 8.1.2 In-service training on facilitation of financial capabilities for practising social workers
	8.2 Policy and practice guidelines	8.2 Development of policy and practice guidelines

6.6.1 THEME 1: CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF FINANCIAL VULNERABILITY BY SOCIAL WORKERS

The conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability by social workers was crucial to be explored because it formed the basis for the research topic, namely the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. It was vital that all social workers had the same understanding of the concept to avoid any ambiguity, vagueness and misconceptions when investigating their role in the facilitation of financial capabilities development. Conceptualisation is a process that is expressed in words that belong to a particular language and enables people to communicate with one another because they know what is meant by the words that they are using in communicating (De Vos & Strydom, 2012).

6.6.1.1 Subtheme 1.1: Lack of financial knowledge by service users

From the responses of the participants, financial knowledge was identified as one of the key determinants of financial vulnerability. According to Scalon and Sanders (2017), it is through financial knowledge that individuals can learn new skills, knowledge and practices. Without acquiring adequate financial skills, knowledge and practices, people remain financially vulnerable. Participant SW 2 described financial vulnerability as "when the service user does not have financial skills or has little or no knowledge about financial matters", and Participant SW 5 added that "the lack of financial knowledge can be the cause for unwise financial decisions for many service users".

6.6.1.1.1 Category 1.1.1: Lack of knowledge about the difference between wants and needs

Lack of knowledge about the difference between wants and needs is one of the factors that exposes vulnerable households to financial vulnerability. A need is separate from a want in the sense that it is something necessary to survive and without it one's life might be in danger or one might even die (Ngo, 2017). Conversely, a want is something that one can survive without it as it is merely something desired (Ngo, 2017). Most of the participants indicated that the financial expenditure of service users was not guided by prioritising the household needs. The financial expenditure of service users was mostly driven by hedonistic sentiments whereby money was spent on nonessential goods for the purpose of entertainment or because of pressure from others. Table 6.4 below demonstrates the responses of the participants regarding the lack of understanding between wants and needs by service users.

Table 6.4

Lack of knowledge about the difference between wants and needs

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of financial knowledge	Lack of knowledge about wants and needs	• "A person that is financially vulnerable cannot differentiate between wants and needs." (Participant SW 2) • "Financially vulnerable households include a person who does not understand the difference between needs and wants and who cannot manage money and as a result becomes highly indebted." (Participant SW 8) • "A person who is financially vulnerable is the one who is unable to plan and spends money unwisely and is unable to distinguish needs instead of wants when spending money." (Participant SW 8)

Lack of knowledge about the difference between needs and wants among vulnerable households as demonstrated in the above excerpts contributes towards financial vulnerability as their financial spending does not prioritise basic and essential needs when spending. Huffstertler (2019) asserts that the secret to sustaining oneself from day to day while also realising financial goals is drawing up a budget that balances one's needs and wants. Ngo (2017) suggests that the best way for one to gain control of one's money is to separate needs from wants.

6.6.1.1.2 Category 1.1.2: Lack of knowledge about financial products

The significance of knowledge about available financial products and services is emphasised by Xiao (2016) when he asserts that once there is improvement in the understanding of individuals of these products and services, they will be able to make informed choices, will know where to go for help and will be able to take effective actions to improve their financial wellbeing and protection.

Table 6.5

Lack of knowledge about financial products

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of financial knowledge	Lack of knowledge about financial products	• "He or she is an individual who lacks knowledge about the available financial services." (Participant SW 3) • "Is the one who has no knowledge of financial matters and as a result may not get financial assistance because he/she does not know about any financial assistance available and may also be subjected to financial exploitation." (Participant SW 14)

The above verbatim responses indicate that lack of knowledge about available financial products and services is another cause of financial vulnerability. The responses also highlight that lack of knowledge about available financial services and products significantly prevents individuals from accessing them, and thus they remain financially excluded. Consumers do not have enough urgency, skills or knowledge to ask for, understand and use the wide range of financial products and services offered to them to their advantage (Mitchel & Abusheva, 2016). These skills are needed to defend, grow and use any form of personal income wisely (Mitchel & Abusheva, 2016).

6.6.1.1.3 Category 1.1.3: Lack of knowledge about financial concepts

The verbatim responses of the participants indicate how lack of financial knowledge can be exhibited by lack of knowledge about financial concepts, which is key in the understanding of financial transactions and communication. Johnson and Sherraden (2007) describe understanding of financial concepts within financial literacy as the ability to read about, analyse, manage and communicate about the personal financial conditions that affect material wellbeing. This lack of understanding may imply a person's minimal knowledge of financial terms such as 'money', 'inflation', 'interest rate', 'credit' and so forth (Oanea & Dornean, 2012).

Table 6.6

Lack of knowledge about financial concepts

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Lack of financial knowledge	Lack of knowledge about financial concepts	"Financially incapable service user is the one who is <u>financially illiterate</u> and sometimes has money but cannot budget." (Participant SW 13) "Financially incapable service user is the <u>one without any knowledge about financial issues and concepts</u> e.g. when to borrow money and how to negotiate repayment and becomes bankrupt as he or <u>she does not spend money wisely.</u>" (Participant SW 3) "A person who is <u>financially illiterate</u> is a person who does not have information on how to budget, save etc." (Participant SW 4)

Lack of knowledge about financial concepts has been identified as one of the elements that describes financial vulnerability. The above excerpts demonstrate how financial illiteracy through lack of knowledge about financial concepts impedes individuals' ability to interact with their finances wisely. One of the participants expressed how financial illiteracy could become a barrier to financial wellness regardless of the source of the income that an individual might earn. Participant SW2 said, “A financially illiterate person has a source of income regardless of the work she does and is unable to budget and spend money wisely even though she is not poor.” Participant SW7 described lack of financial knowledge “as a situation whereby a person cannot take a wise decision about what to do about the money if he or she does not receive financial advice”. In support of the above responses from the participants, Refera, Dhaliwal and Kaur (2016) argue that financial knowledge is essential because lack of financial knowledge leads to poor financial choices and decisions, which could result in undesirable financial and economic consequences for individuals.

6.6.1.2 Subtheme 1.2: Lack of financial skills

The second subtheme of the conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability is lack of financial skills. To be able to achieve financial capability, one must possess complex skills that vary across a range of factors (Taylor *et al.*, 2011). Financial skills enhance the ability to act on the opportunity provided by financial products and financial institutions, and both the ability to act and the opportunity to act contribute to personal financial wellbeing and improved life chances (Sherraden, 2010). Johnsen and Sherraden (2007) and Atkinson *et al*. (2006) identify budgeting, planning and financial management as some of the pertinent financial skills for achieving financial capability. These areas emerged in the study as the categories of lack of budgeting skills and lack of personal financial management skills and are discussed below.

6.6.1.2.1 Category 1.2.1: Lack of budgeting skills

Budgeting skills was raised as one of the aspects that described financial literacy. Budgeting skills are crucial for financial capability as they determine the individual’s ability to spend money within the available income. Budgeting is the act of making money available to a person or an organisation and includes a plan for how money will be spent over a period of time to achive the desired outcomes(Shim & Siegel, 2005). The type of budget that was relevant to this study was personal or family budget.

Table 6.7

Lack of budgeting skills

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of financial skills	Lack of budgeting skills	• "Service users who are financially vulnerable are those who do not know how to manage their finances, who also overspend, cannot budget and are always highly indebted." (Participant SW 18) • "Financially illiterate is the one who does not know about how to budget for the household income by ensuring that the income meet the household needs." (Participant SWP 5) • "This refers to people who spend money guided by emotions and they spend on anything they see around them." (Participant SW 13)

The above verbatim responses highlight that the lack of budgeting skills prohibits individuals from becoming financially capable as they do not know how to budget for the fulfilment of household needs within the available income. Participant SW 19 described some of the service users as "individuals who just get money and spend it on anything that they can spend on and do not prioritise things that they have to spend the money on". Participant SW 1 explained, "The individuals that do not have the budget skills can afford some of the things to pay but they find themselves without any money to buy basic things or pay debts as their spending of money is not informed by budget." Personal budget is significant because it helps to track one's spending, to ensure that spending is less than earnings, to prepare for the future and to monitor financial health (O'Hagan, 2019).

6.6.1.2.2 Category 1.2.2: Lack of personal financial management skills

Personal financial management skills may be evident when an individual has acquired both financial knowledge and budget skills. In essence, personal financial management skills are the appropriate application of financial concepts in the handling of personal finances. Personal financial management contributes towards the improvement of financial behaviour among individuals (Refera *et al.*, 2016).

Table 6.8

Lack of personal financial management skills

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of financial skills	Lack of personal financial management skills	• "People who are financially vulnerable are <u>incapable of managing income</u>." (Participant SW 1) • "Financially incapable individuals are the one <u>who do not know how to spend money.</u>" (Participant SW 5) • "A service user who is financially vulnerable is the one <u>who cannot manage</u> his or her finances or who <u>spend more than the income</u> he or she receives." (Participant SW 8) • "A person does <u>not know how to spend money a</u>nd its value may have money or knowledge <u>but be unable to spend it wisely</u>." (Participant SW 2)

Lack of personal financial management skills as demonstrated by the above responses renders individuals financially vulnerable as they cannot manage their finances properly. Therefore, financial management skills are essential for effective financial behaviour. People who lack financial management skills are likely to struggle to handle their finances properly. Participant SW 11 described people without financial management skills as "people who are without any knowledge about financial issues and concepts e.g. when to borrow money and how to negotiate repayment and become bankrupt as they spend money unwisely and unnecessarily".

Lack of personal financial skills is also the cause of financial vulnerability as individuals are likely to suffer from financial stress due to expenditure that is not informed by a personal budget. Lack of personal financial management skills leads to unwise spending by individuals, which may deprive them of the opportunity to improve their financial situation through savings, investments and so on.

6.6.1.3 Subtheme 1.3: Undesirable financial behaviour

The excerpts from the responses of the participants during the empirical investigation pointed out undesirable financial behaviour as an element that added to the definition of financial vulnerability. According to the empirical findings, undesirable financial behaviour can manifest as inability to manage personal finances and behaviour that is incompatible with financial knowledge; these behavioural patterns constitute the categories for the subtheme and are discussed below.

6.6.1.3.1 Category 1.3.1: Inability to manage personal finances

Inability to manage personal finances also found expression amongst the participants in their conceptual understanding of financially incapable individuals. Inability to manage personal finances is the result of a lack personal of financial management skills.

Table 6.9

Inability to manage personal finances

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Undesirable financial behaviour	Inability to manage personal finances	• "A service user who is financially vulnerable is the one who cannot manage his or her finances." (Participant SW 10) • "A service user who is financially vulnerable is the one who is unable to plan according to the income or money that s at his or her disposal." (Participant SW 19)

		• "A person with bad financial behaviour is the one who is unable to manage money and as a result spends money unwisely." (Participant SUP 1) • "Service users who are financially vulnerable are incapable of managing income." (Participant SW 20)

The above verbatim responses demonstrate that regardless of adequate personal financial resources that a person may have, he or she may lack the ability to manage them wisely and may end up in financial distress. Participant SW 8 said,

> My own understanding of people who are not financially capable are those that do not know how to spend money and display a bad financial behaviour which is demonstrated by their inability to budget whereby most of the time expenditure exceeds income.

Participant SW 4 said, "These are the people who are unable to manage finances and sometimes become highly indebted." Refera *et al.* (2016) emphasise that personal financial management is important because it enables people to save for income and consumption smoothing, especially in developing countries where people are faced with various risks. The application of personal financial management skills is essential for the daily management of personal finances regardless of the income earned.

6.6.1.3.2 Category 1.3.2: Behaviour that is incompatible with financial knowledge

Some of the participants mentioned that undesirable financial behaviour was not related to lack of financial literacy. This was demonstrated by Participant SW 12: "Some of the financially capable people have sources of income and regardless of the work they do they are unable to budget and spend money unwisely even though they are not poor." Participant SW 18 said, "A person with bad financial behaviour is a person who spends his or her finances lavishly and the way he or she spends is influenced by peer pressure and he or she spends money on wants instead of needs."

Table 6.10

Behaviour that is incompatible with financial knowledge

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Undesirable financial behaviour	Behaviour that is incompatible with financial knowledge	• "Some of the service users are financially literate but their behaviour is incongruent with the financial knowledge they have." (Participant SW 1) • "Financially vulnerable individuals can be someone with bad financial behaviour who does not prioritise which things to spend money on." (Participant SW 9) • "A financially vulnerable person can also be a person with bad financial behaviour who spends his or her finances lavishly and expenditure is influenced by peer pressure." (Participant SW 12) • "A financially vulnerable person can also be characterised by bad financial behaviour whereby he or she is unable to manage money and as a result spends money unwisely." (Participant SW 16)

The verbatim responses of the participants demonstrate that although some individuals may have adequate financial knowledge, their financial behaviour may not reflect their level of financial knowledge. The above statements from the participants affirm the assertion from behavioural economics that undesirable financial behaviour is the result of emotions, instinct, previous experience and quick decisions aimed at shortcuts (Storchi & Johnson, 2015) and is sometimes aimed at achieving a hedonistic lifestyle. An individual's financial behaviour can be observed in how good the person is at managing savings and expenses (Hilgert *et al.*, 2003). In this category, it has been demonstrated that the level of financial knowledge is not always manifested by effective financial behaviour.

Undesirable financial behaviour contributes to financial vulnerability because it leads to mismanagement of personal finances due to negligence of individuals in applying effective financial practices despite having adequate financial resources and knowledge.

6.6.2 THEME 2: SOURCES OF REFERRAL FOR CASES OF FINANCIAL VULNERABILITY

In order to gain a better understanding of the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households, it was also essential to discover how these cases reached the attention of social workers. This is significant for the process of intervention as it marks the beginning of the engagement phase in the helping process. The engagement process involves the development of an agreement on the goals and tasks of intervention between the practitioner and the service user (Jacobsen, 2013). It is also regarded as a process through which the service user begins to participate actively in the intervention plan (Jacobsen, 2013). As indicated earlier, social workers render services in service offices that are an interface between the ECDSD and communities. The sources of referral for cases of vulnerability include self-referral, next of kin, members of the community and institutions in the form of other stakeholders in the community. Because of these diverse sources of referral, social workers meet service users who are described by Rooney and Minick (2019) as involuntary and voluntary. The process of engagement is universal to the interactions of all service users, whether voluntary or involuntary, and social workers (Jacobsen, 2013). The sources of referral were divided into subthemes, and the subthemes were divided into categories

6.6.2.1 Subtheme 2.1: Self-referral, family and community

The findings show that service users sometimes take the initiative and approach social workers for their intervention when faced with financial challenges. Sometimes, next of kin approach social workers to refer the service user, especially when realising that the financial conduct of the service user adversely affects her or his psychosocial wellbeing or that of immediate members of his or her family. The same situation also applies to concerned members of the community who after having observed the negative impact of financial behaviour on the life of the person concerned and/or on the immediate members of the family approach the social workers, sometimes anonymously. The categories for this subtheme include family members, self-referral, and members of the community and are discussed below.

6.6.2.1.1 Category 2.1.1: Family members

Family members include children, spouses, siblings and members of the extended family. This type of referral often happens when the family members have tried everything on their part without any success. In many instances, the service user does not see anything wrong with the negative consequences of his or her financial behaviour to him- or herself and those close to him or her. Most participants pointed out that the service users who exhibited behaviour of this nature were those who abused substances such as alcohol and illicit drugs. These service users become involuntary service users because they come for help to social workers under coercion of a legal body or pressure from significant others, family members and institutions (Pope & King, 2011). Because these service users have come under coercion of others, they are categorised by Rooney (2009) as nonvoluntary service users. Nonvoluntary service users are likely to feel pressure to seek intervention, and the pressure often comes from a significant other, which may include the workplace, family members or other sources (Rooney, 2009). Table 6.11 below demonstrates the way in which these involuntary service users are referred to social workers by family members.

Table 6.11

Family members

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Self-referral, next of kin and community	Family members	• "Referred by relatives or by children when the salary or social grants are not spent for the basic needs of the family or household." (Participant SW 3) • "Referred by family members and relatives especially in respect of those who are highly indebted to loan sharks." (Participant SW 2) • "Some referrals would come from one of the spouses who due to disagreement over how

		money is spent by the other spouse consults social workers." (Participant SW 5) • "Relatives who become concerned about the way the money is spent." (Participant SW 6)

The responses in Table 6.11 reflect the fact that some of the service users whom social workers interact with are nonvoluntary service users who are referred by family members such as relatives, children and spouses. Nonvoluntary service users are often cited as unwilling to accept responsibility for their problems (Rooney & Minick, 2019). Nonvoluntary service users find themselves with social workers against their wishes and as a result, they are often reluctant to accept help or resistant to any form of intervention (Alketbi, 2017). It is widely documented that engagement with involuntary service users is often a different and more difficult process than engagement with voluntary ones due to coercion by the legal system or significant others (De Jong & Berg, 2001). Therefore, social workers are likely to experience difficulties in the engagement process in cases of financial vulnerability as a result of referrals from family members.

6.6.2.1.2 Category 2.1.2: Self-referral

Service users who make use of self-referral are those who take it upon themselves to approach social workers after having acknowledged that they are faced with a challenge and find it difficult to deal with it on their own. These service users include those who have huge debts, especially to loan sharks and spaza shops. Participants pointed out that most of these service users approached social workers when they could no longer manage to pay their debts and were faced with harassment and threats from credit providers. Some service users are married couples who approach social workers with marital problems, and upon assessment, it transpires that household financial problems are the actual source of the marital conflict. Sometimes, the cases are referred as conflict among household members and later it is discovered that the underlying cause is in fact financial vulnerability. The verbatim responses of the participants are depicted in Table 6.12 below.

Table 6.12

Self-referral

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Self-referral, next of kin and community	Self-referral	• "Some make self-referral as they see the need for social workers' assistance when the household income is unable to fulfil the basic needs of the household." (Participant SW 6) • "Self-referrals sometimes come from those who are highly indebted." (Participant SW 1)

The above responses show that service users refer themselves to social workers because they find it difficult to manage their finances on their own and can no longer fulfil the basic household needs and struggle to pay debts. In addition to the above responses, Participant SW 7 commented as follows: "Those who make self-referral come to seek advice about how to spend the income and sometimes these service users are both those who earn salaries and those who are social grant beneficiaries."

In the case of voluntary service users, there is no experience of external pressure to participate in intervention plans (Rooney & Minick, 2019) because contact between service users and social workers does not happen as a result of pressure from formal or informal sources (Rooney, 2009). During the engagement process, social workers are less likely to experience difficulty in cases of financial vulnerability that are the result of self referrals.

6.6.2.1.3 Category 2.1.3: Community

During the empirical investigation, it also emerged that members of the community who were concerned about the socioeconomic situation of financially vulnerable households voluntarily approached social workers. Most of these community members choose to remain anonymous so that they cannot be identified by the members of the financially vulnerable households as the ones who referred them. Table 6.13 below demonstrates the verbatim responses of the participants regarding referrals that are received from the community.

Table 6.13

Community members

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Self-referral, next of kin and community	Community members	• "They are referred by some community members who in many instances choose to remain anonymous." (Participant SW 14) • "In many instances the cases are referred by members of the community." (Participant SW 5)

The above verbatim responses demonstrate that cases of financial vulnerability are referred to social workers by members of the community who would prefer to remain anonymous so that they cannot be identified by the individuals or households whom they referred to social workers. It was revealed that on many occasions, community members who made referrals were neighbours of the financially incapable households and community activists. Participant SW 10 explained how she received referrals from the community: "In most cases referrals that come to us are brought by concerned members of the community and neighbours and this happens when money is misused on buying of alcohol and other wants and is not spent on personal basic needs." Participant SW 15 explained that the community became aware of the work done by social workers through outreach programmes in the community and thus referred these cases to them:

> "We receive some of the referrals when social workers are in the community conducting prevention and awareness programmes about other social ills and social welfare programmes rendered by social workers whereby community members are encouraged to report cases of social grant misuse".

The statements by the participants are supported by the assertion by Le Cray and Stinson (2004) that the public has developed an improved awareness about a wide range of social work roles and activities and also to a fairly large degree is well aware of the functions that social workers perform. LeCray and Stinson (2004) further highlight the importance of enhancing the public's knowledge of and opinions about the profession by social workers themselves. Engagement for a single case for the attention of the social worker can be triggered by a problem identified in a group or community setting (Patel, 2015). According to Patel, engagement in developmental social work can also be initiated by community members and therefore is not only expert driven but may be community led through various informal entry points. The service users referred by community members are involuntary service users as they have been exposed to external pressure from neighbours and other community members as significant others, and social workers are likely to experience difficulties in engaging with them.

6.6.2.2 Subtheme 2.2: Institutions in the community

The institutions that serve as sources of referrals include local authorities and government institutions that also render services in the communities. The local authorities that feature predominantly as sources of referral are members of the ward committees and ward councillors. Government institutions include schools, healthcare facilities or clinics and the SAPS. Both local authorities and government institutions are thus categories of this subtheme.

6.6.2.2.1 Category 2.2.1: Local authorities

Local authorities are sources of referral for cases of financial vulnerability. Ward councillors and members of the ward committees approach social workers and report cases of financial vulnerability, especially when the economic and social wellbeing of the individual or entire household is negatively affected. The members of the ward committees oversee local government services in specific residential areas within a ward, and they report to the ward councillors. Table 6.14 depicts the responses of the participants about referrals from local authorities.

Table 6.14

Local authorities

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Institutions in the community	Local authorities	• "Cases referred by ward councillors, ward committees." (Participant SW 9) • "In many instances the cases are referred by members of the community and sometimes by ward councillors." (Participant SW 13)

The above verbatim responses show that cases of financial vulnerability are reported by members of the ward committees because they are the ones who interact and reside with the people whom they serve. The referral by ward councillors was described by a Participant SW5 as follows:

> Because we do not stay in the community ward councillors are very helpful as they report to us some of the social ills that are prevailing in the community and in situations where an individual misuse a social grant not for the benefit of the beneficiary they inform us. They inform us telephonically as they have the phone numbers of the social workers responsible for their wards or when they are in town they come and visit us and then we make a follow up.

Regarding the involvement of members of ward committees, Participant SW 3 said, "Ward committees watch these things happening in front of them and they come and inform us about social grant recipients who cannot afford the basic necessities because of the misuse of the social grant money." According to Patel (2015), engagement in developmental social work can also be initiated by community leaders and therefore is not only expert driven but may be community led through various informal entry points. The service users referred by local authorities fall in the category of nonvoluntary service users. The White Paper on Local Government (RSA, 1998e) asserts that it is important for local leadership and councillors to ensure that they understand the needs of the community and also work towards uplifting of the wellbeing of the community, which needs good leadership characteristics. Social workers are likely to experience difficulties in the engagement process in cases of financial vulnerability that have been referred by local authorities.

6.6.2.2.2 Category 2.2.2: Government institutions

Government institutions in communities were reported as important sources of referral of cases of financial vulnerability for the attention of social workers. These government institutions include clinics, SASSA and the SAPS. Referral from clinics and the SAPS was most prevalent in townships as most of these institutions are available within these communities. In rural areas, police stations are mainly situated in towns and clinics are not available in each village. SASSA's offices are not available in rural villages as they are found only in towns. The offices of social workers are also situated in towns and in some of the townships where the study was conducted. The close proximity of government offices in towns enables interaction among the public servants working for these institutions. The responses of the participants regarding referral by government officials are depicted in Table 6.15 below.

Table 6.15

Government institutions

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Institutions in the community	Government institutions	• "<u>Referrals come from schools when teachers</u> have observed bad conditions of children in schools who are FCG and CSG beneficiaries." (Participant SW 10) "Some cases reach social workers as self-referral more in particular for those who are trapped in debts through Mashonisa and some are referred by <u>departments such as health</u> as for those who suffer <u>mental condition</u> due to <u>financial stress</u> and sometimes <u>by police</u> in instances of <u>conflict</u> due to <u>financial dispute.</u>" (Participant SW 8) "Sometimes we receive referrals that come <u>from clinics</u> whereby children <u>suffer from illnesses</u>

		that are caused by malnutrition." (Participant SW 1) "Some of them are referred by SASSA especially those who seem destitute when they visit their offices to renew their grants so that we can be able to assess their situation before they can finalise the renewal of their grants." (Participant SW 2)

The above excerpts demonstrate that in the case of schools, referrals occur as a result of the hardship facing learners who are beneficiaries of the CSG and the FCG who are observed by educators. The responses also show that referrals by the SAPS are often triggered by cases of domestic violence when police officers in the process of handling them find that the source of conflict has an element of financial incapability. In clinics, referrals occur when nurses identify malnutrition amongst patients, especially children who are beneficiaries of the CSG and the FCG. SASSA officials also make referrals when they witness hardship when clients visit their offices for renewal of the DG. SASSA officials refer people so that social workers can intervene in the event when the social grant does not benefit the recipients so that when it is renewed, it is used for its intended purpose. Patel (2015) asserts that the referral of individuals, their families or members of their households are done via social development agencies, schools, clinics and SASSA, amongst others. This category shows that there is collaboration between government institutions and social workers in the referral of cases of financial vulnerability. The service users who come to social workers through the referral of government institutions are involuntary service users as they have been exposed to external pressure, and social workers are likely to experience difficulty in engaging with them.

6.6.3 THEME 3: CAUSES OF FINANCIAL VULNERABILITY

Knowledge of the causes of financial vulnerability among service users is vital for effective intervention by social workers, and it is necessary to consider these causes when exploring the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The interventions are key to the objective of the empirical investigation as they form the basis for the role that social workers play in the facilitation of financial capabilities. The causes of financial vulnerability, which also constitute the subthemes, include misuse of social grants, addictive social behaviours, unscrupulous loan sharks, poverty and unstable marital and family relationships.

6.6.3.1. Subtheme 3.1: Misuse of social grants

Most of the vulnerable households that are served by the participants derive their income from social grants. Social grant payment in South Africa is administered by SASSA, which acts in accordance with the mandate of the South Africa Social Security Agency Act of 2004 in order to ensure the provision of social security services against vulnerability and poverty. Therefore, social grants as part of social security services seek to assist in the improvement of standards of living in society and their beneficiaries are people who are vulnerable to poverty and in need of state support. Social grants generally target older persons, persons with disabilities and people with children younger than 18 years and can only be accessed through a means test, except the FCG and grant-in-aid. The empirical findings by Khosa and Kaseke (2017) reveal that in many instances, social grants have not achieved the intended objective of alleviating poverty as they are not spent on meeting basic needs. The grants are instead spent on social and other personal activities, and there is also misuse of the CSG by the biological mothers of children left in the care of grandmothers. These two categories of this subtheme are discussed below. The spending of social grants on social and other personal activities is illustrated through excerpts from the interviews in Table 6.16 below.

6.6.3.1.1 Category 3.1.1: Social and personal activities

Throughout the interviews with social workers and social work supervisors, the spending of social grants and wages on social and other personal activities was highlighted as the most prevalent habit in the mismanagement of money from income earned whereby the intended purpose of the income is not prioritised. This confirms the empirical findings by Khosa and Kaseke (2017) that some of the CSG caregivers misuse the social grant and do not use it in the best interest of the child.

Table 6.16

Social and personal activities

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Misuse of social grants	Social and personal activities	• "They spend foster care grant on stokvels and other social activities in the community and not on immediate basic needs of households or beneficiaries." (Participant SW 1) • "Foster care grant sometimes is spent by foster parents on other household wants that do not benefit the foster care children." (Participant SW 4) • "Sometimes of the social grant beneficiaries come to us highly indebted only to find that they have many debts for funeral insurances more that they could afford to sustain their daily basic living." (Participant SW 2)

The supporting experts from the narratives of the participants show that fairly large amounts of money from the income derived from social grants and wages go towards payment of stokvel contributions and formal and informal funeral insurance. The spending of the FCG by some of the recipients on social activities such as stokvels and household wants is against the intended purpose as these activities do not benefit the foster child. The excessive spending of social grants on funeral insurance also defeats the objective of ensuring the provision of social security services against vulnerability and poverty as the households remain financially vulnerable because money is not spent on their daily basic needs.

The study revealed that the CSG recipients utilised the money to buy clothes for themselves (Khosa & Kaseke, 2017). This misuse of social grants was reflected in the response of Participant SW 12: "Foster parents are unable to spend money and invest in savings for foster care children as a result basic household needs of the foster children remain unmet.”

Based on the survey by FinScope South Africa (2017), there is persistence in insurance savings, with funeral cover still increasing, which had culminated into 58% of South Africans having funeral cover as compared to 22% who do not (FinScope South Africa, 2017). FinScope points out that this is a disturbing trend because the funeral insurance products take away scarce resources from more productive expenditure or can reduce the utilisation of credit for consumption by the poor.

Stokvels in the form of rotating savings, credit associations and burial societies are some of the examples of the semiformal instruments in South Africa that low-income earners utilise for savings (Masuku & Kaseke, 2014; Storchi, 2018). Low-income earners prefer these the semi-formal saving instruments because they enable the members of stokvels to set regulations, terms and conditions that suit the members and their socioeconomic circumstances as opposed to formal financial instruments that have regulations, terms and conditions that do not take into account whether a potential saver is poor or rich (Mashigo, 2007). Based on the narratives of the participants, the lack of financial capability in the utilisation of these informal instruments has negative consequences for the financial wellbeing of the service users. This is because service users join more than one burial society and stokvel without taking into account affordability as a result of limited income. Participant SW 19 said, “The problem with our clients is that they join all the stokvels and burial societies available in the community and this leaves them without any money to survive for the whole month or year and end up relying on borrowing.” Participant SW 19 further said,

> Even those who earn salaries and happen to visit social workers for help as they cannot afford basic needs and you find them with so many funeral insurance debits from different insurers in their payslip that take money from them every month and leave them with little income to sustain themselves.

Based on the empirical findings by Storchi (2018), the habit of joining and contributing to several stokvels is driven by the perception that it is easier for service users to have more options to access credit when faced with an emergency.

The research on funeral policies by BusinessTech (2018) revealed that South Africans took out an average of three to four funeral policies in their lifetime. According to Fonta, Berkowitz, Khumalo, Mutsonziwa, Maposa and Ramsay (2017), uptake of funeral insurance has shown a significant increase from 34% in 2004 to 62% in 2016. On the list of different funeral products, funeral insurance through an undertaker was the highest (Roberts, Struwig, Gordon & Radebe, 2018). According to Roberts *et al.*, less than half of South Africans are aware of funeral cover from a bank or an insurance company. One of the reasons that service users use a variety of burial societies, insurance schemes and funeral plans from banks is that death is unexpected and funeral costs have increased over time and often one scheme is not enough to cover all the funeral expenses, including food and refreshments (Storchi, 2018). Another reason for the massive increase in funeral cover could be an increase in the supply of funeral insurance (Fonta *et al.*, 2017). Research has also revealed that preference of local burial societies is influenced by their ability to disburse money quickly as compared to formal financial service providers (Storchi, 2018). The use of social grants and wages for social activities that do not have a direct bearing on the everyday basic needs of the beneficiaries is one of the causal factors of financial vulnerability.

6.6.3.1.2 Category 3.1.2: Misuse of the child support grant by the biological mothers of the child support grant beneficiaries

Despite the much-vaunted success of the CSG as the largest cash transfer payment in terms of the number of beneficiaries and also as the most successful in South Africa (Tanga & Gutura, 2013), the responses from the participants point out an undesirable outcome of the CSG, namely its misuse by the biological mothers of the CSG beneficiaries. This narrative from the participants correlates with empirical findings by Khosa and Kaseka (2017) that the CSG recipients utilise the money from the social grant for personal benefit, such as buying clothes for themselves. This category and the supporting excerpts from the interviews are illustrated in Figure 6.17 below.

Table 6. 17

Misuse of CSG by biological mothers of CSG beneficiaries

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Misuse of social grants	Misuse of the CSG by the biological mothers of the CSG beneficiaries	• "Biological mothers of children benefitting from CSG disappear with CSG and leave the children under the care of grandparents." (Participant SW 13) • "Sometimes OAG beneficiaries spend the grant supporting grandchildren who are CSG beneficiaries and whose grants are earned by their biological mothers who do not stay with them and end up unable to fulfil the household needs and end up borrowing from loan sharks." (Participant SW 10) • "OAG beneficiaries support their older children who do not stay with them and their grandchildren." (Participant SW 2)

The above supporting excerpts from the narratives point out that the CSG is paid out to the biological mothers of children who do not stay with them and that the CSG is not spent for the benefit of the intended beneficiaries as it does not reach them. The responses also show that the children are often left in the care of their grandparents, which adds an additional burden to their already strained OAG. The literature supports the fact that the biological parents of children often migrate from their places of origin (especially those from rural areas migrate to urban areas) in search of opportunities in the labour market (Posel & Van der Stoep, 2008) while retaining their attachment to a household of origin (Hall, 2017). The migrating parents sometimes take care of both economic and household responsibilities that stretch across long distances and generations, and children often remain at the rural home of origin where an arrangement for substitute care is made, in many instances the grandparents (Ardington *et al.*, 2009; Casel & Posel, 2006). Hall and

Budlende (2013) state that in the absence of grandparents, the burden of care generally falls on the extended family.

The above theoretical narrative of household migration in respect of biological mothers who are single parents of children and who migrate from their places of origin to urban areas concurs with the scenario as described by the majority of participants during the interviews. Participant SW 10 said,

> "The most common cases that we come across with is when the household is experiencing hardship due to the fact that the OAG is not enough for the entire household and among the household members include children who are supposedly CSG beneficiaries and their social grant is earned by their mother who is in Cape Town or Johannesburg".

Participant SW 8 added,

> "When the matter is brought to our attention it becomes clear that an arrangement was made between the mother of the child or children and grandparent that the CSG would be used by the mother to support herself while still in a process of searching for employment".

In the absence of mothers, children are often left in the care of grandmothers. According to the literature, in many instances older people, more often women, assume caregiving roles, particularly in multigenerational households (Moller & Devey, 2003). Because of a lack of job opportunities in the local labour market, single mothers migrate to urban areas to seek employment. According to Tanga and Gutura (2013), female beneficiaries of the CSG have the drive to search for employment as they use the money for food in order to gain the strength to search for employment whilst also using the money to pay for transport when searching for employment. The idea of using money from the CSG to pay for transport when searching for employment has not proved to have yielded any positive outcomes in the case of migrating parents as in the cases reported to the social workers, the children did not benefit from the grant. Based on the supporting excerpts above, it becomes clear that children rely on the OAG despite their parents' receiving the CSG. Participant SW 3 stated, "The grandparents don't come forward and report that the CSG does not benefit children as the parent who is the recipient has not been sending it to the children for a while." Participant SW3 further said, "The same grandparents tell us that the parents of the children never secured employment and its either they cohabit with friends or intimate partners utilising the CSG while they are away."

Some of the biological mothers of children on CSG payment misuse the grant by spending it for personal benefit as they do not stay with the children, and thus the children are a burden to their grandparents as they take care of their needs utilising their already strained OAG.

6.6.3.2 Subtheme 3.2: Addictive social behaviours

According to Samila and Kogeda (2013), even though the government took the necessary steps to minimise fraud and corruption in the process of social grant administration, a challenge with the disbursement of funds still exists. Mabugu, Chitiga, Fotana, Abiyode and Mbanda (2015) express a concern that since cash is exchangeable, poor people might be tempted to use the money from social grants on nonessential goods including alcohol and drugs. The use of income for alcohol and gambling by service users emerged as a serious cause of financial vulnerability. Khosa and Kesaka (2017) discovered that social grants were often spent on alcohol and that service users remained without any money to fulfil their basic needs. Khosa and Kesaka also found that some of the service users spent most of their money on gambling in a bid to accumulate more money for themselves. It is in this context that alcohol abuse and gambling are the categories under this theme.

6.6.3.2.1 Category 3.2.1: Alcohol abuse

In the light of the literature cited above, alcohol abuse is a serious threat to the financial wellbeing of vulnerable households, particularly those whose only source of income is social grants. The relationship between financial bankruptcy and alcohol abuse due to the relationship between debt and excessive drinking is widely documented (Haotanto, 2016; Labello, 2013). Poverty as one of the end results of unemployment is at a high level in South Africa, and it has been noted that communities living below the poverty line tend to spend the little money that they have on alcohol. One of the factors in the relationship between alcohol abuse and poverty is the relatively high cost of alcohol, which means that being dependent on it can contribute to an individual's falling into debt. Another factor could be the depressant effect that alcohol has on the brain, which may result in poor judgement, causing persons to make impulsive decisions that they would not normally make. The supporting excerpts from the interviews depicting the misuse of social grants on alcohol are shown in Table 6.18 below.

Table 6.18

Alcohol abuse

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Addictive social behaviours	Alcohol abuse	• "The causes of cases of financial vulnerability include alcohol abuse by social grant recipients." (Participant SW 9) • "DG, CSG are spent on alcohol and as a result CSG is spent not for the benefits of children and adult beneficiaries." (Participant SW 1) • "Misuse of OAG on alcohol leaves the service users unable to pay for basic necessities such as food and funeral covers and sometimes this applies to both male and female beneficiaries." (Participant SW 19)

The misuse of money earned from social grants found expression in the supporting excerpts from participants' narratives. This challenge of misusing social grant money on alcohol cuts across all four most prevalent types of social grants, namely the OAG, DG, FCG and CSG, and this finds expression in the supporting excerpts. Those who use alcohol take a portion of the grant to buy alcohol or to pay debts incurred by buying alcohol on credit from shebeens or taverns. This leaves many households with meagre financial resources to meet the basic financial needs of the households and/or social grant beneficiaries. Participant SW 15 said, "We have struggled with some of the foster parents in adhering to the savings plan and discover that they misuse foster care grants on buying alcohol and fail to invest for the children or attend to their material needs."

Participant SW 13 also said, "The challenge of alcohol abuse is becoming a worrying trend among DSG beneficiaries who have been reported to us as their excessive drinking render them destitute due to high levels of indebtedness as all their money is spent towards alcohol."

Due to the limited research available on the spending of social grants on substance and alcohol usage in South Africa, there is no adequate literature on the relationship between the two variables. However, the research findings by Khosa and Kaseka (2017) reveal that some of the CSG recipients utilise the grant to buy alcohol for their own consumption and leave their children without food. The misuse of social grants on alcohol by some of the social grant beneficiaries negatively affects their ability to honour their obligation of ensuring the availability of essential basic household necessities.

The second aspect of addictive social behaviour that is a cause of impaired financial capability among social grant beneficiaries is gambling and is discussed below and depicted in Table 6.19.

6.6.3.2.2 Category 2: Gambling

Gambling also affects the financial capability of many households whose income is derived from social grants. Gambling also cuts across all four prominent social grants mentioned above. The most common type of gambling that is utilised by social grant recipients is Bingo. Bingo accounted for 4% of the total gross gambling revenue in 2015 with a rise of 27.5% from 2014 (BusinessTech, 2017). Bingo gambling is prevalent in the cities and bigger rural towns of the Eastern Cape Province. During the financial year 2017/2018, the Eastern Cape Gambling Board entered into partnership with the ECDSD for the implementation of educational programmes on the dangers of gambling, targeting older persons of whom the majority were OAG recipients (DSD, 2018). These educational programmes were implemented across the districts in the province. Some of the responses from participants reflecting on the role of gambling on financial vulnerability are depicted in Table 6.19 below.

Table 6.19

Gambling

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Addictive social behaviours	Gambling	• "Those who are addicted to gambling spend all the income on gambling." (Participant SW 14) • "Some of the CSG and OAG beneficiaries borrow money from loan sharks for gambling purposes." (Participant SW 3)

The above verbatim responses indicate that some social grant recipients spend their grant on gambling and end up borrowing money from loan sharks to sustain their habit or to buy basic necessities when all their social grant money has been spent on gambling.

Commenting on the effect of gambling on financial wellbeing, Participant SW 3 had this to say:

> "In this town where we are working there is a place of gambling where CSG flock to on the payment date of social grants and the loan sharks wait for them before they could enter because they go to Bingos in order to gamble with the hope of accumulating more money and repay the loan sharks".

Participant SW 18 made this comment: "For those for whom it is difficult to apply self-control because the habit is out of control, we make sure that in collaboration with SASSA a new recipient of the social grant takes over."

Khosa and Kaseka (2017) discovered that some of the CSG recipients used the CSG money for gambling. Gambling thus remains a threat to the attainment of financial capability among social grant beneficiaries.

6.6.3.3 Subtheme 3.3: Unscrupulous loan sharks

This subtheme is about unscrupulous financial lenders who are approached by cash borrowers from low-income households. These loan sharks take advantage of the rising cost of living that means that disproportionately large numbers of poor households have become commited to consumption expenditure rather than saving (Ssebagala, 2016). Poor households are prevented from accessing credit services and are marginalised (Mashigo, 2006). Such alienation and marginalisation often result in dependence on formal microlenders and informal local money lenders by most households for the provision of credit (Baumann, 2001). Consequently, in some instances, loan sharks go out on pay day and look for potential clients among pensioners and also collect debts from pensioners (*Mail & Guardian*, 2014). The *Mail & Guardian* reported that the National Credit Regulator had acknowledged awareness of the existence of these unscrupulous credit providers. Loan sharks cause excessive borrowing by service users due to nonadherence to the regulations on affordability and irresponsible lending of the National Credit Act by these loan sharks. Excessive borrowing and irresponsible lending constitute the two categories for this subtheme and are discussed below.

6.6.3.3.1 Category 3.3.1: Excessive borrowing

Excessive borrowing by many low-income and poor households remains one of the major causes of not affording the daily necessities. The inability to afford essentials due to excessive borrowing leaves many households financially vulnerable. Borrowing among South African households is endemic, and savings have persistently remained low compared with other countries (Nhlanhla, 2011). Access to credit is a significant financial activity as it allows individuals to start businesses, buy assets and recover from financial shortfalls (Roberts *et al.*, 2018). However, South Africans seem to borrow at unsustainable levels and that kind of borrowing often leads to permanent damage to the individual's financial wellbeing (Roberts *et al*., 2018). The rate of borrowing has also been characterised by an increase in the number of social grant beneficiaries who have accessed unsecured loans (Fonta *et al.*, 2017). According to Fonta *et al.*, the increase in the number of social grant recipients who access unsecured loans could be attributed to various financial services such as loans, insurances and so forth that are provided to social grant recipients by the distributors of social grants. Table 6.20 below demonstrates excessive borrowing with supporting excerpts from interviews.

Table 6.20

Excessive borrowing

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Unscrupulous loan sharks	Excessive borrowing	• "Child support grant also pay recurring loans." (Participant SW 15) • "Mismanagement of CSG and irresponsible borrowing." (Participant SW 20) • "The beneficiaries use all social grant earned on paying the loan sharks and re-borrow to survive, this happens every month." (Participant SW 9) • "OAG is not spent on meeting older persons' needs instead is used on repayment of loans from loan sharks." (Participant SW 19)

The comments from the participants are a strong indication that excessive borrowing poses a serious threat to the financial wellbeing of some low-income and poor households whose source of income is social grants. This was also reflected in a comment by Participant SW 5: "The clients come to seek help from us as they found themselves trapped in the cycle of unending debt as they survive on repaying the previous debt so that they can re-borrow in order to survive next month." The statement was supported by Participant SW 12:

> The Mashonisa take all their money because they keep their bank cards and SASSA cards and keep them as a form of surety and on the pay day withdraw money that is due to them and clients are compelled to borrow again in order to survive again.

When the debtor does not have funds to repay the debt, it is an indication that he or she lives beyond his or her means and this may signal irresponsible spending (Gathergood, 2012). The comments from the participants regarding the indebtedness of social grants recipients is in consensus with a statement by PolicyLink (2016) that many borrowers become trapped in loans that they cannot repay. These loans roll over the same debt multiple times, incurring excessive fees on relatively small initial loan amounts (PolicyLink, 2016). Again, it has been widely documented in the literature that many individuals living in South Africa are struggling due to the burden of debt that is difficult to overcome and renders them vulnerable to the cycle of debt and poverty (Human Rights Commission, 2017).

There is evidence that overindebtedness has a negative impact on families and in some extreme cases is the cause of family suicides (Human Rights Commission, 2017). Central to the negative impacts of overindebtedness are shame, marginalisation, exclusion and the inability to meet basic needs (Ondersma, 2014). Overindebtedness can also be linked to health problems that include mental illnesses such as anxiety, depression and social withdrawal and physical illnesses that include sleep deprivation, indigestion and heart problems (Ondersma, 2014). Lastly, apart from its impact on mental and physical health, the debt burden also affects the wellbeing of the affected individual's family and dependants (Porter, 2012).

Dependency on loan sharks occurs among recipients of all four prominent types of social grants but is more common among DG and OAG recipients. This kind of borrowing leaves poor households without any financial reserves at their disposal to deal with emergencies. These households are left without any power to manage their finances as they do not have any money in their possession.

6.6.3.3.2 Category 3.3.2: Irresponsible lending

Irresponsible lending by unscrupulous loan sharks is the cause for excessive borrowing. The loan sharks do not operate within the confines of the law as most of them are not registered in terms of the National Credit Act of 2005 and consequently, they are not bound by its regulations. The act prohibits lending or supplying credit to an overindebted individual. The National Credit Act (RSA, 2005b:112) states,

> A consumer is over-indebted of the preponderance of available information at the time the determination is made indicates that the particular consumer is or

will be unable to satisfy in a timely manner all the obligations under all the credit agreement to which the consumer is a party, as indicated by the consumer's history of debt repayment.

In 2014, the Department of Trade and Industry introduced the Affordability and Assessment Regulation as a measure to address the prevalence of reckless lending by credit providers in South Africa. In terms of the regulations, credit providers are required to determine the existing financial obligations of consumers and their debt repayment history and to provide disclosure of any costs applicable to the credit that the consumer wishes to pursue. The regulations' intent is to ensure that the consumer has money for the daily basic necessities. Since loan sharks do not operate according to these regulations, it is impossible to monitor and control the way in which they lend money to their customers. Table 6.21 depicts irresponsible lending with excerpts from the interviews, and the discussion is based on the responses of the participants.

Table 6.21

Irresponsible lending

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Unscrupulous loan sharks	Irresponsible lending	• "Loan sharks lend money to them more than they can afford." (Participant SW 17) • "Loan sharks sometimes keep their SASSA and bank cards and identity documents as sureties." (Participant SW 7)

The excerpts in the table above illustrate the modus operandi of loan sharks in which there is a disregard for the provisions of the National Credit Act with regard to affordability of loans and prohibition of seizing essential personal documents such as identity documents and bank cards. Participant SW 12 said, "They don't think about how the clients survive as long as they come to them when they are in desperate need of money. Clients end up borrowing more than the amount they receive from social grants." Participant SW 15 also commented, "They take advantage of the clients who are desperate for money and sometimes who do not understand the implications of debt." Participant SW 19 said, "Some of the older persons think that loan sharks are doing them a favour and see nothing about the exorbitant interests and the fact that their documents are kept away from them." Bel and Eberlein (2015) argue that predatory lending takes advantage of financial illiteracy whereby inappropriate loans are pushed onto consumers who cannot repay them. The study by Hoza (2018) reveals that 70% of OAG beneficiaries make use of microlending schemes because of the inadequate monthly OAG allocated to them. The study further reveals that microlenders confiscate the documents of the consumers as a form of surety that their money will be paid back (Hoza, 2018). Irresponsible lending by loan sharks leaves many vulnerable households financially vulnerable due to overindebtedness, and they remain trapped in poverty as they do not have money at their disposal for basic necessities.

6.6.3.4 Subtheme 3.4: Poverty

In chapters 1 and 2, it is documented that lack of financial capability leads to poverty. Paradoxically, poverty may contribute towards financial vulnerability. Notwithstanding other dimensions of poverty, the effect of poverty on financial capability is examined in relation to two dimensions of poverty, which are illiteracy and low levels of literacy and low income among vulnerable households. According to Lusardi, Michaud and Mitchell (2017), poorly educated and low-income respondents display lower levels of financial literacy and households with less income and wealth see no need of any benefit in investing in financial literacy. These two dimensions are the two categories of this subtheme.

6.6.3.4.1 Category 3.4.1: Illiteracy and low levels of literacy

Illiteracy and low levels of literacy are one of the dimensions that define poverty. The relationship between poverty and levels of literacy is supported by The World Bank (2010), stating that poverty declines with higher levels of education and that households headed by a person with no education or a low level of education tend to be poorer than those headed by persons with higher levels of education. This is because without the ability to read and write, many illiterate people become trapped in a cycle of poverty with limited opportunities for employment or income generation (World Literacy Foundation, 2018). Storchi and Johnson (2015) point out that in a context that is predominantly characterised by low levels of education, individuals may be less able to perform arithmetic calculations and may not realise that the value of a transaction may not solely lie in its monetary value. The excerpts from the interviews that pertain to this category are depicted below in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22

Illiteracy and low levels of literacy

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Levels of literacy and poverty	Illiteracy and low levels of literacy	• "Most of the service users who are social grant beneficiaries are illiterate and semi-illiterate." (Participant SW 19) • "Most of the credit granters take advantage of the ignorance among social grant recipients." (Participant SW 5)

The supporting excerpts from the participants' narratives point out that the majority of social grant beneficiaries are illiterate or have low levels of literacy. Both goods and money to buy goods are described and understood in monetary terms, which requires appropriate levels of literacy. Lack of understanding of monetary terms may make it difficult for an individual to interact with money confidently. Participant SW 20 made this comment: "Some of the clients who are illiterate it is even difficult for them to understand different rand notes and cannot count notes as well and they are at risk of getting cheated." The inability to read of illiterate individuals can also be a disadvantage for them as they may not have the freedom to choose better prices. Participant SW 15 said, "The older persons who are illiterate sometimes become victims of informal traders who sell linen and clothing in their homes at inflated prices." Participant SW 20 also commented, "When illiterate older persons go and do shopping on their own without anyone to assist they cannot compare prices, they only buy what they see."

In support of the above, Cole, Paulson and Shastry (2013) state that the lower levels of education and no prior experience of the formal financial system among the poor limit their capacity for making optimal financial decisions and using available financial services. Poor literacy also limits a person's ability to engage in activities that require a solid base of literacy and numeracy or critical thinking (World Literacy Foundation, 2018). Poor literacy has a bearing on financial literacy, and without financial literacy skills to understand financial concepts, many illiterate people will make financial decisions without fully understanding the impact thereof (World Literacy Foundation, 2018). This is the reason why better educated individuals often make better informed financial decisions than their less educated peers (Roberts *et al.*, 2018). Illiteracy and low levels of literacy can serve as barriers to the attainment of financial capability due to the complex nature of financial concepts, products and financial services in modern financial systems.

6.6.3.4.2 Category 3.4.2: Insufficient income

A limited income makes it difficult for the household or individual to obtain the necessities and subsequently thwarts any prospects of financial capability. Funds may be insufficient due to a plethora of factors, including but not limited to high consumption due to price increases, a high number of dependants and household size. The bigger the household size as a result of adult children who are unemployed and depend on the social grants earned by the head of the household or other members of the household, the higher the demand for consumption.

Household income influences the ability to determine how much can be spent on the various needs of the household (Sekhampu, 2012). A lack of purchasing power is linked with limited income opportunities, especially in rural areas (Department of Agriculture and Land Reform, 2002). Selepe *et al*. (2015) assert that rising costs have a major long-term impact on vulnerable households, forcing those already vulnerable and least able to cope with high food prices deeper into poverty and hunger. According to Feleke *et al.* (2005), household size is measured by the number of members within a household, and large households require increased food expenditure (Sekhampu, 2012). Below is a detailed discussion of insufficient income, preceded by Table 6.23 with supporting excerpts from the interviews.

Table 6.23

Insufficient income

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Levels of literacy and poverty	Insufficient source of income	• "Cases of financial vulnerability also occur in households where the source of income is only the CSG and/or FCG." (Participant SW 18) • "Some of the foster parents find it difficult to save as expected because the entire household suffers from poverty as the foster care grant is the only source of income." (Participant SW 10)

The participants' narratives show that many financially vulnerable households depend on social grants as the only source of income. The ever-increasing pressure imposed by demand for consumption on the limited funds of low-income individuals and households as a result of price increases and higher number of dependants hampers the prospects of financial planning and budgeting. Participant SW 2 said,

> The situation sometimes becomes so dire to such an extent that you don't know how to advice the clients. There was a situation whereby everybody in the house has no other source of income and the foster care grant was the only source of income in the household. Uncles and aunts of the foster children are unemployed and have tried their best but cannot find employment.

Participant SW 4 commented, "For some households almost the entire OAG is spent towards groceries as older children of the OAG beneficiaries are also unemployed and are dependent on the same OAG and that leave older person without any funds to deal with emergencies."

There is also an assertion from the literature that the size of the household may significantly impact on food expenditure because a household with many members is likely to spend more as compared to one with fewer members (Sekhampu, 2012). In most cases, it is the OAG, DG and CSG that support the entire household financially (Rossouw, 2017). The pressure to purchase food merely with social grants can push financially vulnerable households below the survival point (Matul, 2009). As a result of the pressure for consumption, low-income households do not borrow for things that will yield a return in the future (Matul, 2009). Vulnerable households borrow to buy consumer durables, to face emergencies or to meet subsistence needs and very often borrow spontaneously without thinking about the consequences (Matul, 2009). The financial behaviour of low-income households is reactive and thus hampers asset accumulation and increases their vulnerability to poverty (Matul, 2009).The low income of vulnerable households coupled with a large number of household members and dependants act as a barrier to achieving financial capability as it makes it difficult for them to afford the cost of living, particularly in the current economic meltdown.

6.6.3.5 Subtheme 3.5: Unstable marital and family relationships

During the empirical investigation, it emerged that unstable marriages could also contribute towards lack of financial capability. Unstable marital and family relationships may have a significant impact on the financial capability of households. One of the factors that is characteristic of unstable marriages is conflict, which often results in lack of communication and lack of mutual planning among couples. Therefore, in the event of marital conflict, communication about household finances and household financial planning is affected, which has a direct impact on the wellbeing of the family. Family is regarded as an important resource for the wellbeing of an individual. The family can be a fount of resources for the fulfilment of the emotional and physical needs of an individual. These resources can benefit an individual effectively only if they are co-ordinated within a stable family. If the family relationships are in disarray, an individual is unlikely to access the resources as this disarray may affect the efficient and effective management of resources negatively. One of the physical resources is financial resources, which play a crucial role in an individual’s psychosocial wellbeing. Therefore, there is a relationship between unstable family relationships and impaired financial capability.

6.6.3.5.1 Category 3.5.1: Conflict among married couples

The issue of conflict among married couples was raised by some of the participants. According to the narratives provided by the participants, these cases were reported to the social workers either as conflicts over management of finances or as mere marital problems that required social workers' intervention. Conflict over the management of finances often occurs when there is lack of communication and mutual planning about finances among couples. Sometimes, clients present themselves to social workers to seek their intervention when experiencing marital problems and upon assessment, it is discovered that the problems in the marriage stem from the partners' interaction with finances.

Table 6.24

Conflict among married couples

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Unstable marital and family relationships	Conflict among married couples	"Cases of financial vulnerability include those among married couples where one of the partners would spend money lavishly on wants and on things that were not budgeted for and they often result in domestic violence." (Participant SUP 9) "The cases include cases within marriage where there was no mutual agreement on how to spend money i.e. the source of marriage conflict was financial management." (Participant SUP 6)

The narratives of the participants point out that disagreement on how finances are supposed to be managed is often the source of conflict among married couples and may subsequently result in domestic violence. The above responses support the assertion by Papp and Cummings (2009) that conflict over money among married couples can occur due to many reasons, including levels of economic hardship. Low levels of economic wellbeing may exacerbate financial conflict as couples may struggle to make ends meet (Dew & Steward, 2012). Conflict may further be exacerbated by overexpenditure of funds, blaming or hostility among family members as a result of such expenditure or conflict regarding proposed spending that would be perceived by others as overexpenditure (Papp, Cummings & Goeke-Morey, 2009). Conflict among married couples over financial management, particularly those who are breadwinners, can be the source of financial vulnerability among families and households.

6.6.4 THEME 4: SOCIAL WORKERS' INTERVENTIONS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES

The purpose of this theme is to present the interventions that social workers develop in assisting the service users to alleviate the financial difficulties that they are faced with. Social workers implement these interventions through the different roles that they play during the process of implementing their interventions, and those roles depend on the nature of the cases of financial capability presented. These roles include that of an advisor, advocate, educator and enabler. These roles form the basis for the subthemes under this theme and are discussed below.

6.6.4.1 Subtheme 4.1: Advisor

There is an acknowledgement that some of the social workers perform this role frequently and that despite this, social workers do not talk about this important skill in social work practice (Haider, 2019). Advice in social work practice is what Hill, Ford and Meadows (1990) refer to as 'advisory counselling'. Advisory counselling is about giving advice through providing guidance in decision making whereby the emphasis is more on overcoming gaps in knowledge (Haider, 2019). In advisory counselling, the client is at the centre when it comes to making decisions and the social worker may offer insight, information and advice while the client is relatively free to accept or disregard what the social worker says (Hill *et al*., 1990). According to the current study, social workers often provide advice to service users because some of them have never been employed and therefore have no prior experience of receiving a regular income. Secondly, exposure to the competitive market for purchasing of goods flooded with retailers and traders competing for the same consumers' buy-in can be overwhelming for many service users and may render them financially vulnerable. This can be exacerbated by the lack of financial literacy among these service providers. Giving advice is part of the social worker's role, and competent advice can bring about positive outcomes while bad advice can create problems and cause serious harm (Haider, 2019). The service users were provided with advice on financial products, efficient and effective use of income, and exploration of alternative sources of income, which are the categories under this subtheme.

6.6.4.1.1 Category 4.1.1: Advice on financial products

It has been mentioned earlier that one of the causes of financial vulnerability of the households that are served by the participants is a lack of financial literacy, which is also characterised by a lack of knowledge about financial products. Service users are advised by social workers about the available financial products offered by both the formal and informal financial service institutions. Service users are advised about choosing the financial products that best suit their financial capacity and needs. In advisory counselling, questioning, motivation and exploration of choices and capacity may be appropriate and useful counselling techniques to apply (Hill *et al.*, 1990). Table 6.25 provides an illustration of how participants responded with supporting excerpts from the interviews.

Table 6.25

Advice on financial products

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Advisor	Advice on efficient and effective use of income	• "We advise the service about different options of funeral covers that can provide adequate cover without taking too many funeral covers." (Participant SW 8) • "The advice that we provide to clients about different financial institutions and their products that the clients can chose from is derived from our personal experience with the financial institutions." (Participant SW 11)

The participants’ narratives demonstrate that social workers advise service users on the appropriate use of available financial products such as funeral cover and other financial products offered by financial institutions. Loan sharks have been discussed above as one of the financial services from which the service users access credit. The social workers intervene through offering of advice on the available options of accessing credit. Participant SW 8 said, “We also advise service users to make use of established financial institutions such as commercial banks instead of loan sharks when in need of credit in order to avoid high interests.” Participant SUP 5 also commented on the advice given to service users: “We also advise them to compare borrowing from the loan sharks and the stokvels and weigh advantages of borrowing money that will also benefit them in the case of stokvels.” The advice given in this regard is not inconsiderate of the barriers that make it difficult for vulnerable households to access credit from formal financial institutions. The second type of advice seeks to make service users aware of better available financial services that service users can explore. The type of advice provided is what Garvin and Margolis (2015) conceptualise as advisory counselling, which seeks to explore options for a decision in which the desired outcome is a recommendation in favour of or against specific options. The advice provided by social workers enable the service users to be aware of different options of financial products and to make informed decisions about suitable financial products.

6.6.4.1.2 Category 4.1.2: Advice on efficient and effective use of income

Advice on the efficient and effective use of income is a way of intervention by social workers in order to ameliorate the misuse of income by social grant recipients and low-income earners. In has already been highlighted that the income especially from social grants is not utilised for the intended purpose and that as a result, the beneficiaries are unable to afford the essentials. The advice focuses on the financial management of the income regardless of how big or small for the optimal benefit of the entire household. It has transpired that in some households, different types of grants are received by a single or more than one recipient but due to the lack of financial management skills, those households are still in dire financial strains. The excerpts in support of this category are illustrated in Table 6.26 below.

Table 6.26

Advice on efficient and effective use of income

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Advisor	Advice on efficient and effective use of income	• "We advise the clients on how to equitably spend all the incomes derived from various social grants that are earned in the household for the benefit of all members of the household so that one social grant beneficiary does not carry the burden of the entire household. All members of the household who are the social grant beneficiaries contribute equitably towards the household needs." (Participant SUP 1) • "The clients are also advised about how to spend the total income from various social grants in the same household." (Participant SUP 8)

The participants' verbatim responses show that social workers advise service users on how to bring together various individual incomes from members of the households into a single household income for the benefit of the entire household. Advisory counselling helps those who are truly open to guidance to develop better solutions to problems than they would have on their own (Garvin & Margolis, 2015). Because of advisory counselling, those seeking advice add new meaning and texture to their thinking and in this process, the social workers exercise a soft influence by shaping important decisions while empowering people to act (Garvin & Margolis, 2015). Participant SUP 6 commented on how social workers advised clients:

> We often discover that one household receives many social grants by different participants in the same household and there is no collective financial planning and budgeting by the grant recipients and each one manages his or her own grant though they share food within the same household. In such instances we convene sessions with all of them and advise about better ways of managing

> the money from the social grant as a collective for the benefit of the entire household.

Participant SW 19 described why such advice was necessary:

> The hardship that these households sometimes face can be overcome because other household members receive regular remittances which if they were all included in the household budget would make a difference, hence we advise on bringing together all the income received in the household so that every income earner can have a share in the expenditure and at the end of the day remain with some money for his or her personal use.

The participants highlighted that they listened to the concerns of the household members in an attempt to understand the amounts earned and the different financial responsibilities that they had. The social workers attempt to deepen their understanding through enquiring about the root causes, potential consequences and other issues that might not have been mentioned explicitly at the beginning (Garvin & Margolis, 2015).The social workers utilise advisory counselling that is aimed at providing guidance in a complex or unfamiliar situation (Garvin & Margolis, 2015). The advice given by social workers improves the financial management skills of all those who earn an income in the household so that they contribute equitably to the household income for the benefit of the entire household.

6.6.4.1.3 Category 4.1.3: Exploration of alternative sources of income

As already discussed above, limited income and poverty are causes of financial vulnerability among low-income households. The advice provided by social workers seeks to improve the low income and to mitigate the negative impact of poverty on households. The advice further seeks to motivate service users to become economically active and not to depend on social grants alone so that they can have access to other economic opportunities. Through advisory counselling, decision making improves greatly when diverse options are made available to the advice seekers (Garvin & Margolis, 2015) and in this case, service users and social workers work together to come up with more than one possibility. The supporting excerpts from the interviews are presented in Table 6.27 below.

Table 6.27

Exploring alternative sources of income

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Advisor	Exploration of alternative sources of income	• "We advise our clients especially CSG recipients about <u>other ways of finding additional income through finding employment including odd jobs</u> where necessary." (Participant SW 18) • "We advise are our <u>clients to be part of income generating initiatives</u> in the community." (Participant SW 12)

The participants' verbatim responses point out that social workers advise service users on exploring other sources of income, which include finding employment and participating in income-generating programmes. Participant SW 1 gave an account of how some of the advice yielded positive gains for a group of CSG recipients:

> These mothers who had a common challenge of CSG not able to meet their household needs I advised them as a group start their own small businesses of selling refreshments such as fruit, snacks and juices to the nearby schools and communities and it went well for most of them as it helped to complement the income from CSG.

Participant SUP 5 commented, "There are also those who do not take part in the community initiatives such as stokvels for savings and we advise them how to get involved in them in a way that can benefit them as they benefit other people."

Due to a lack of both formal and informal employment, the advice has been based on exploring economic opportunities in the community such as informal trading. The type of advice provided in this category is coaching, which is aimed at enhancing skills, self-awareness and self-management (Garvin & Margolis, 2015). When a social worker gives advice, she or he provides choices rather than advice and let the service users decide and the social worker does this by presenting all the choices and promoting an understanding of the issues, concerns and problems that arise with a range of solutions, in other words choices (Haider, 2019). In the light of the inability of social grant recipients to access financial services and associated products, the social workers' advice is aimed at exploring other economic opportunities available within the informal economic sector in communities in order to augment the available income.

6.6.4.2 Subtheme 4.2: Educator

When rendering interventions in facilitating financial capabilities development of service users from vulnerable households, social workers also play the role of educators. The service users receive education by being provided with information that is lacking on various issues pertaining to finance and social grants in order to improve their limited financial knowledge. The educational role of social workers is largely focused on educating social grant recipients on the purpose of social grants and on financial literacy. These two focal areas therefore constitute the categories under this subtheme.

6.6.4.2.1 Category 4.2.1: Educating service users on the purpose of social grants

As widely documented, social grants are not spent for the intended purpose, which is the fulfilment of the basic needs of the beneficiaries who are the most vulnerable segments of the population. Most participants felt that it was essential to create awareness of the reasons for the existence of social grants and also of how to ensure that they are utilised for the intended goals for the optimum benefit of the beneficiaries and for their sustainable psychosocial and financial wellbeing. Table 6.28 provides an illustration with supporting excerpts on the education of service users on the purpose of social grants.

Table 6.28

Educating service users on the purpose of social grants

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Educator	Educating service users on the purpose of social grants	• "The foster care children <u>are educated about the purpose of the foster care grants</u> so that they can also take responsibility of

		ensuring that the portion of the grant is saved for their future needs." (Participant SUP 5) • "The social grant beneficiaries especially PWDs also receive financial literacy during awareness raising campaigns by social workers whereby they are taught to spend DG in a responsible manner." (Participant SUP 9)

The narrative from participants highlight that social workers educate service users targeting foster care children and persons with disabilities on the purpose of the FCG and the DG respectively. The role of educating service users on the purpose of social grants is implemented utilising case work, group work and community work. Through the casework method, social workers educate service users on the purpose of the social grants during the process of the implementation plan, which may be referred to as 'educative counselling'. In educative counselling, social workers provide more insight to service users into a situation, in this case mismanagement of the social grant due to the lack of insight into its purpose. The group work method is utilised targeting service users who are recipients of a specific social grant, in this case FCG recipients. Service users are also educated through outreach programmes in the communities. Social workers often conduct outreach campaigns wherein they educate communities through promotive and preventative programmes, and education on the purpose of social grants forms part of these programmes. The purpose of the promotive and preventative programmes is to induce and promote positive behaviour change in order to prevent social ills in communities.

The casework method has been applied for individual cases of misuse that have been reported and in many situations for prevention purposes, especially for FCG recipients. Participant SW 6 made a remark about the individual cases that had been reported: "During process of my interaction I start by educating him or her on the purpose of the social grant so that it is clear from the onset that the social grant is not like any other income it has a specific purpose." Participant SW 15 said regarding educating foster parents, “When the foster care placement has been finalised and on the day of foster care grant, I invite the client to talk about the foster care grant and its purpose.” Participant SW 5 said that prior to placement of foster children, “We convene sessions for all prospective foster parents where we educate them about the purpose of foster grants and how it is supposed to benefit children.” Participant SUP 5 said regarding education in the community, “We also educate about the purpose of the grant when we reach out concerning the promotion of our services and behaviour change.” Educating service users on the purpose of social grants is aimed at raising awareness of the intended purpose of social grants so that service users will utilise them appropriately for the intended purpose.

6.6.4.4.2. Category 4.2.2: Educating service users on financial literacy

Education on financial literacy is also carried out by social workers in this category. The educator role of social workers focuses on teaching service users, especially low-income earners, about basic financial concepts and their application in the financial sector and in their own lives, including budgeting, savings and credit. The excerpts from the participants are illustrated in Table 6.29 below.

Table 6. 29

Educating service users on financial literacy

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Educator	Educating service users on financial literacy	• “Educating the households about how to <u>survive without credit and its disadvantages</u>.” (Participant SW 8) • “Educating the service users about the <u>importance of saving.</u>” (Participant SW 17) • “We educate foster parents about the i<u>mportance of savings accounts for foster care grant savings</u> which should be opened in the names of the foster children so that in the event the foster parents die the savings account holders remain with the foster children.”. (Participant SUP 8)

The participants' narratives reflect on the social workers' educating services users on financial concepts, which include budgeting, credit and savings. About dealing with individual cases, Participant SUP 3 said, "During the process of helping the clients, social workers' interventions include educating service users on budgeting and savings."

Some of the social workers have received training on the Sinovuyo Parenting Programme, which empowers parents with parenting skills, and budgeting is one of its components. The participants who have received training on this programme have given it credit for empowering them with knowledge and skills that they have utilised for the benefit of financially vulnerable service users. Participant SUP 6 commented on the role of the Sinovuyo Parenting Programme in empowering social workers: "The social workers who have been training in Sinovuyo Parenting Programme have commended the usefulness of the training as it has improved the social workers interventions, especially on knowledge about budgeting." Participant SW 7 also said, "We conduct workshops to groups of prospective parents about parenting skills including budgeting skills before they are able to take the responsibility of foster parenting."

Participant SW 9 remarked on social workers' role of educating communities on financial literacy:

> We also conduct financial literacy programmes through community dialogues and door to door campaigns targeting foster parents with special emphasis on educating them about savings opportunities. These types of interventions are implemented in areas of the communities whereby clients are characterised by undesired common financial behaviour.

The role of educator in social work entails developing and teaching skills to clients and other systems by providing relevant information, giving advice, identifying and modelling alternative behaviour patterns and their consequences, imparting problem-solving techniques and clarifying perceptions (Engelbrecht, 1999; Oulette, 2003; Patel, 2015; Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997). For the social worker to be effective in his or her role as educator, the social worker must be knowledgeable and a good communicator so that the information is conveyed clearly and is understood by the client (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997). The role of educator in developmental social work is part of lifelong learning and builds human capabilities to strengthen livelihoods and improve social functioning (Patel, 2015). The educator role of social workers in financial literacy develop and teach financial skills and knowledge and impart problem-solving skills to service users that contribute towards the development of alternative financial behaviour patterns.

6.6.4.3 Subtheme 4.3: Advocate

The role of advocate of social workers is a result of exploitation of the DG by those whose who are entrusted with receiving the DG on behalf of the beneficiaries who are persons with disabilities. Some of the DG beneficiaries are exploited by loan sharks who use illegal means of lending to service users. The DG beneficiaries who most easily become the victims of exploitation and who are most vulnerable are those with severe disabilities. The cases of financial exploitation of the DG that are most reported involve beneficiaries with severe mental, intellectual and physical disabilities. The severity of the disabilities of the DG beneficiaries exposes them to a high risk of financial exploitation as they are entirely dependent on those entrusted with being their caregivers and procurators due to their limited ability to care for themselves. The financial exploitation of DG beneficiaries by carers, procurators and loan sharks deprives them of the right of benefiting from the DG, which they are entitled to it in terms of Section 27(1)(c) of the South African Constitution of 1996 and that has been allocated to them in terms of the Social Assistance Act of 1998. The exploitation of DG beneficiaries by those who receive the grant on their behalf and exploitation through illegal acts by loan sharks are the categories under this theme.

6.6.4.3.1 Category 4.3.1: Exploitation by carers and procurators

The exploitation of DG beneficiaries is perpetuated by procurators who receive the cash on behalf of the beneficiaries and either the social grant does not reach the beneficiaries, or it is misappropriated by the procurators whereby the money is spend for their personal benefit. Secondly, the exploitation is perpetuated by carers who in many situations are also the procurators. The carers also misappropriate the DG by not spending it in the best interests of the beneficiaries. In many instances, the money is spent without the consent of the beneficiaries and those who perpetuate the exploitation take advantage of the vulnerability of the beneficiaries. Table 6.30 below depicts the relevant excerpts from the interviews.

Table 6.30

Exploitation of disability grants by carers and procurators

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Advocate	Advocacy against exploitation of DG recipients	• "We play an advocacy role on behalf of DG especially <u>for the beneficiaries with mental disability </u>and when their DG is exploited by those who receive it on their behalf and/or loan sharks." (Participant SUP 5) • "We work in collaboration with SASSA for the change of beneficiary in the event of social grant misuse whereby we recommend the replacement of the procurator or if the <u>grant is misused by the initial procurator, we also</u> recommend appointment of a procurator." (Participant SW 1)

The participants' verbatim responses reveal that social workers play an advocacy role when the DG is abused by the procurators by advocating for the appointment of another procurator and replacement of the procurator who is abusing the DG. Advocacy against exploitation of the DG is implemented through protecting recipients from exploitation of their social grant and also through outreach programmes that raise awareness of the abuse of social grants by carers and procurators. The protection of the DG beneficiary from abuse takes place after an investigation by social workers discover that the primary caregiver is abusing the social grant. Section 26(1) of the Social Assistance Act stipulates that whenever SASSA appoints a person to receive a social grant on behalf of a beneficiary in terms of Section 19(2), it must ensure that the person acts in the best interest of the beneficiary. Section 26(5) stipulates that SASSA must terminate the appointment if a person is not acting in the best interest of the beneficiary. Based on the provisions of these sections, social workers make recommendations to SASSA regarding the appointment of procurators. Participant SUP 7's remarks on social workers' role in the implementation of these sections were as follows:

> When the cases of this nature have been reported to us and upon realising that the procurator has been doing this for a while and was aware of his or her action and beneficiary's grant is part of his or her personal expenditure and it has become the habit to misuse the grant, we are left without any option but make recommendations to SASSA for his or her immediate termination.

There are situations wherein the primary caregiver is not the procurator, but the grant is transferred to him or her by the procurator for the provision of the necessities, sometimes including the physical care of the beneficiary. In such situations, the beneficiary, the procurator and the members of the immediate and extended family where necessary are engaged by the social workers in the identification of an alternative primary caregiver. In support of this intervention, Participant SW 8 made this comment: "When the primary caregiver has failed to take care of the interests of the beneficiary a new primary caregiver is appointed with the consent of the beneficiary and in consultation with other people that are well known to the beneficiary." As mentioned earlier, social workers implement outreach programmes that include advocacy against the exploitation of service users by primary caregivers and procurators and Participant SW 17 remarked as follows:

> Through awareness campaigns in the community we make sure that the misuse of social grants by those entrusted with it becomes one of the topics when we conduct community dialogues because it is becoming a challenge faced by many vulnerable social grant beneficiaries.

Through the advocacy role of social workers, persons with disabilities are protected against abuse of their DG by primary caregivers and procurators.

6.6.4.3.2 Category 4.3.2: Exploitation by loan sharks

The way in which loan sharks conduct themselves when dealing with unsuspecting and vulnerable consumers such as social grant recipients has already been discussed. Central to perpetuating the exploitation of social grant beneficiaries is the loan sharks' modus operandi in the way that they lend money to vulnerable individuals. Social workers play an advocacy role in this regard through acting on behalf of service users when loan sharks use illegal mechanisms to recover money owed to them, which may include threats against the lives of service users and confiscation of identity documents and SASSA cards or bank cards as forms of surety for repayment of the debt. If loan sharks persist in their illegal actions despite social workers' intervention through negotiations, social workers refer clients to the nearest police stations or report the loan sharks on their clients' behalf so that the police can play their role in executing law enforcement. This category is illustrated in the table below with supporting excerpts from participants.

Table 6.31

Advocacy against exploitation by loan sharks

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Advocate	Advocacy against exploitation of service users through illegal acts of loan sharks	• "Play an advocacy role on behalf of DG especially for the beneficiaries with mental disability and when their DG is exploited by those who get paid on their behalf and/or by loan sharks." (Participant SUP 5) • "We get assistance from the police and SASSA when the clients' documents are confiscated by loan sharks and it is difficult for them to access those documents." (Participant SW 20)

The participants' narratives as expressed in the excerpts show the advocacy role of social workers against the exploitation of service users' social grants by loan sharks who employ illegal means to facilitate loan transactions and to recover money owed. Regarding physical threats, Participant SUP 9 said, "When clients receive threats from loan sharks, we advise them to report to the police." On the recovery of confiscated documents, Participant SUP 6 commented, "When we report the illegal act of confiscating the document by loan sharks to the police in many occasions the police act swiftly in intervening and in the case the confiscated documents include SASSA cards, SASSA also intervenes with the assistance of the police."

In advocacy, social workers champion the right of individuals and communities, either directly or through community action (Engelbrecht, 1999) with the goal of securing or retaining social justice (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997) and promoting fair and equal treatment (Kirst-Ashman, 2007). The social workers demonstrated to have championed the rights of service users through direct action. The social workers' role of advocacy is essential as it is about defending and upholding social rights (Patel, 2015). Through advocacy, social workers are able to facilitate interventions that rescue the most vulnerable social grant recipients from exploitation by primary caregivers, procurators and loan sharks.

6.6.4.4 Subtheme 4.4: Enabler

Social workers enable service users to perform activities aimed at achieving financial capabilities. Social workers also ensure that services users adhere to the action plans that have been agreed upon for implementation in order to realise financial capability. Enablement of service users is achieved through monitoring of financial capability action plans and provision of support in the implementation of service users' financial capability action plans, and these constitute the categories for this subtheme.

6.6.4.4.1 Category 4.4.1: Monitoring and implementation of action plans

In the process of intervention, social workers implement actions that have been agreed upon for implementation at the planning stage. The action plans include budgeting, saving and repayment of debts. Service users are expected to provide evidence for any task performed in pursuit of financial capability. For example, service users who have a task of starting to save are expected to provide evidence in the form of bank statements. Those who have been introduced to good financial management through wise expenditure are expected to submit slips that show that the money has been spent on buying essential goods for the household. In the monitoring of budget services, users are expected to attend a session with the social worker before the beginning of another expenditure term to evaluate whether there was adherence to the budget plan. For the payment of debts, service users must produce proof for any payment made until the debt is paid in full. The monitoring of financial capability actions plans is demonstrated in Table 6.32 below.

Table 6.32

Monitoring of financial capability action plans

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Enabler	Monitoring of service users' financial capability action plans	• "We monitor the savings from the foster care grant through monitoring of bank statements which they submit to the social workers on the dates agreed upon by the service users and social workers." (Participant SUP 10) • "I intervene through monitoring of the savings plan by ensuring that there are savings for foster care children for their future stage development needs." (Participant SW 1) • "I monitor the management of both the FCG and CSG until the situation improves." (Participant SW 13)

The participants' verbatim responses demonstrate the enabler role played by social workers in the monitoring of implementation action plans agreed upon by social workers and service users for the achievement of service users' financial capabilities development.

Regarding facilitating the role of monitoring savings, Participant SW 9 said,

> I reach an agreement with the clients on how much to be saved in every month and we also agree that a bank statement indicating that the money has been deposited must be shown to me and if the client is faced with any financial challenge that will make him or her unable to make the deposit, the client is expected to come and discuss that with me.

Regarding monitoring financial expenditure, Participant SW 14 commented,

> I sit down with the clients and work together in identifying the essential goods that must be purchased for the household consumption and on the date of

> buying groceries and other household essential items, the client is expected to produce slips from the supermarket.

Participant SW 12 even went to the extent of personally assisting the client by showing her which items to be bought: “On the first day I accompanied the client to the supermarket and assisted in identifying the essential items that must bought for the household.” Participant SUP 5 also used other measures that she indicated she knew were not the right thing to do but she had to do it that way because she wanted to help the client, and she said:

> When service users especially foster care parents are not co-operating social workers keep the SASSA card or bank cards so that on the payday they come and collect the card and after receiving payment present evidence of the savings deposited and return the cards back to the social workers.

The role of an enabler in social work is to encourage and facilitate self-sufficient action of clients, which promotes interaction between individuals and the environment (Engelbrecht, 1999). In his or her role as an enabler, the social worker conveys hope, reduces resistance and ambivalence, recognises and manages feelings, identifies and supports personal strengths and social assets, breaks down problems into parts that can be solved more readily and maintains a focus on goals and the means of achieving them (Barker, 1995). The role of enabler also facilitates empowerment whereby individuals’ personal and interpersonal power is strengthened so that they can take action to improve their life situation (Patel, 2015). The social worker’s role of enabler facilitates the monitoring of implementation action plans by enabling the service user to perform tasks aimed at achieving facilitation of financial capabilities development.

6.6.4.5 Subtheme 4.5: Negotiator

Social workers play the role of negotiator when negotiating with credit providers for affordable repayment of debt. Credit providers include loan sharks and grocery shop owners. Loan sharks are money lenders who provide financial credit to service users, and shop owners provide groceries on credit to service users. Negotiating with credit providers by social workers on behalf of service users constitutes the category of this subtheme.

6.6.4.5.1 Category 4.5.1: Negotiating with credit providers

Some of the cases that are reported to social workers include service users who are highly indebted to credit providers, which results in their being able to survive only by settling the debt and reborrowing in order to be able to put food on the table. Social workers approach loan sharks and shop owners and negotiate repayment of the debt in instalments until the debt is paid off. This helps to bring some relief to service users as they begin to have debt-free income. The money lenders and shop owners are advised by the social workers not to provide the service users with any form of credit again. The social workers continue monitoring the service users as some of them relapse into their old bad habits by seeking new credit providers. Table 6.33 depicts the role performed by social workers in negotiating with credit providers on behalf of service users with supporting excerpts and is followed by a discussion.

Table 6.33

Negotiating with credit providers on behalf of service users

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Negotiator	Negotiating with credit providers on behalf of service users	• "Social workers would negotiate repayment of the debt with Mashonisa on behalf of the clients when they are trapped in debt." (Participant MAN 1) • "I came across a case whereby a service user had too many garnishee orders on the pay slip of the client and I negotiated with courts for the reduction of the garnishee orders." (Participant SUP 3)

The verbatim responses of the participants demonstrate the social workers' role in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households through negotiating with service providers for repayment of debt on behalf of service users who are trapped in debt. Regarding negotiating repayment of debt to shop owners, Participant SUP 9 made this remark: "Social workers approach shop owners and negotiate an affordable option for debt repayment of the groceries and other goods purchased through credit from shop owners that leaves the service user with some income to afford the basic household necessities." Participant SUP 9 further said, "We also monitor repayment of the debt until it is paid off and we continue monitoring the service user from incurring other debts through buying on credit from other shop owners."

Regarding repayment of debt to money lenders, social workers negotiate with the money lenders, and this was expressed in the comment by Participant SW 18*:* "Although we experience challenges with loan sharks at the beginning as they often don't want to negotiate we keep on engaging them until they co-operate."

Negotiation involves finding a middle ground that all sides can agree to live with and achieving consensus that is acceptable to everyone (Engelbrecht, 1999; Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 1997). It is also a complex process that requires cognitive, behavioural and emotional competences (Kelly & Kaminskiene, 2016). The role of negotiator facilitates repayment of debts at affordable rates and thus leaves service users with finances to take care of their daily basic necessities. The role of negotiator contributes towards reducing the levels of financial vulnerability among vulnerable households.

6.6.5 THEME 5: SUCCESSFULNESS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF SOCIAL WORKERS' INTERVENTIONS

This theme examines the successfulness and effectiveness of the interventions that social workers implement in their role of facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The successfulness of the interventions can be measured by whether the professional working relationship between the social worker and the service user is able to sustain itself throughout all the phases from engagement to termination. The effectiveness of social workers' intervention can be determined by whether the working relationship between social workers and service users yields the desired results and achieves the intended goal. The successfulness of the intervention may be determined by the co-operation of the service user and that of key significant others or key actors. This is supported by Taber (2013) when he states that the success of social work services depends on the service user but also on a secondary cast of characters or key actors because social work practice intervention always involves others. Effective social work practice designs essentially produce changes in social functioning, and therefore it cannot be pretended that the social worker and client can act in isolation from other actors (Taber, 2013). Co-operation and improvement in the psychosocial and financial circumstances of service users are subthemes under this theme.

6.6.5.1 Subtheme 5.1: Co-operation

As said earlier, service users who access social work services for facilitation of financial capabilities development are both involuntary and voluntary and the majority are involuntary service users. Voluntary service users are likely to exhibit high levels of co-operation, while involuntary service users have the potential to resist the helping process. Co-operation is expected from service users and relevant stakeholders as they are key players in the facilitation of the intervention process, and these two aspects constitute the categories for this theme.

6.6.5.1.1 Category 5.1.1: Co-operation from service users

Co-operation was experienced from both those whose engagement with social workers was the result of self-referral and those who had been referred by family members, neighbours, community members and various institutions in the community. The co-operation from the self-referrals, who could be regarded as voluntary service users, was appreciated from the initial contact by the social workers. Based on the responses provided by most of the participants, the voluntary service users showed appreciation of each step taken by them and the social workers since they started working together. Involuntary service users often started with resistance as they questioned the need for social workers' engagement as they did not see anything wrong with their financial behaviour or started with antagonism against those who had referred them to social workers. For many involuntary service users, the resistance was caused by indulgence of their bad habits such as alcohol abuse and gambling, which was the cause for the referral. Some of the verbatim responses of the participants are depicted in Table 6.34 below.

Table 6.34

Co-operation from service users

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Co-operation	Co-operation from service users	• "Sometimes clients co-operate especially those who respect the officials or correspondence from officials." (Participant SW 3) • "Most service users begin to co-operate as they start realising the fortunes brought about by the social workers' interventions." (Participant SUP 1) • "Some of the service users are co-operative because they have a fear which is informed by the belief that if they don't co-operate may lose their social grant." (Participant SUP 4)

The participants' narratives reflect co-operation by both involuntary and voluntary service users. The reasons for co-operation included respect for and appreciation of the social workers' role and the fear of losing the social grant if they did not co-operate. Regarding the co-operation of voluntary service users, Participant SUP 6 remarked, "The clients who voluntarily consult us are highly desperate for help as their financial life is at standstill due to over-indebtedness." Participant SW 4 also said, "We rarely encounter challenges when trying to assist those who have voluntarily approached us, as a consequence they appreciate the suggestions that we make to them."

Regarding the co-operation of nonvoluntary service users, Participant SUP 9 mentioned an example of a service user who was an employed professional:

> One of the clients was reported to me by her daughter due to financial mismanagement of her income. During her first contact with me she was very angry towards her daughter' action of bringing her to social workers. As I continued engaging her on the potential negative effect of her behaviour on

> the relationship between herself and her daughter she eventually agreed to co-operate, and I worked with her until we completed the intervention planning.

Participant SW 19 even mentioned the use of threats towards nonvoluntary service users as a way of enforcing co-operation:

> Due to lack of co-operation from other clients from the onset I threaten them that I may recommend to SASSA for the stoppage in the payment their social grants and that compels them to co-operate as they don't want to lose their grant and as a result they end up co-operating throughout our working relationship.

The enforcement of co-operation through invoking fear in service users by social workers has ethical implications, taking into consideration the vulnerability of the service users. Secondly, there is no legislative provision that empowers social workers to take such actions against the service users. These kinds of techniques as applied by social workers may also mirror inadequate skills and techniques for engaging with nonvoluntary service users. Co-operation by voluntary service users is supported by the assertion of Rooney and Mirick (2019) that a voluntary client does not experience external pressure to participate in social work services and as a consequence is free to select service providers or fire them if not satisfied with the services provided. Nonvoluntary service users are unable or unwilling to accept responsibility for their actions (Rooney & Mirick, 2019). The difficulty of participating in engagement by nonvoluntary service users is due to the coercion of the legal system or significant others (De Jong & Berg, 2001). Jacobsen (2013) identifies resistance and reluctance as two concepts that pose major challenges for service users' engagement in the implementation of intervention plans. Reluctance is associated with service users' preferring not to see social workers or talk about their lives with social workers (Ritchie, 1986), while resistance is hostility towards change and is highly associated with noncompliance and noncompletion of the intervention plan (Smallbone, Crissman & Rayment-McHugh, 2009).

As demonstrated by the remarks of the participants above, social workers sometimes are left with limited options in counteracting reluctance and resistance due to inadequate skills and formal power of the profession (Cingolin, 1984). Cingolin (1984) argues that when social workers' skills are underdeveloped and their energy is spread all over due to a huge workload, they often use formal power inappropriately and ineffectively when engaging with nonvoluntary service users. However, the participants have also demonstrated that social workers have managed to use appropriate skills and techniques that have been useful in retaining service users within the working relationship and these include negotiation, task-oriented activities and behaviour modification. Cingolin (1984) suggests the utilisation of negotiation skills whenever possible and that when applied honestly, negotiations imply an exchange of benefit between the service user and the social worker, thereby recognising the service user's legitimate rights and competence to make decisions and agreements to live up to his or her end of the working relationship in the interest of both the individual and society. Taber (2013) also recommends that task-oriented counselling, which requires immediate tasks or activities by each person, be the first part of counselling. Behaviour modification techniques require the identification of consequences for certain types of behaviours, whether these consequences are positive or negative, and these consequences should be clear to both the service user and the social worker in order to define mutual expectations (Taber, 2013). Lastly, the value of identifying legitimate mutual obligations in the execution of the intervention plan is that the roles of both social workers and service users are seen to be mutual, interacting and reciprocal (Taber, 2013). Therefore, the expertise of social workers regarding the application of relevant practice skills and techniques during all phases of interventions when facilitating financial capabilities development is considered an essential competency for sustained and effective achievement of co-operation.

6.6.5.1.2 Category 5.1.2: Co-operation from other stakeholders

The success of service intervention plans in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households without the co-operation of other stakeholders or key actors as referred to by authors such as Taber (2013) remains elusive. The roles of some of the actors begin at the engagement stage when they take upon themselves the responsibility of referring the service user to the social worker. These stakeholders play different roles including the enforcement of some elements of the intervention plans in instances where other stakeholders do not co-operate or the service users themselves do not co-operate. These stakeholders include SASSA, the SAPS, schools, family members and money lenders. For example, co-operation from SASSA is required when there is a need for the appointment of a curator in instances where there is resistance to behaviour change in the case of a social grant beneficiary. Co-operation from the SAPS is required when a money lender or any other creditor operates outside the provisions of the law and does not want to co-operate when engaged with by social workers. Schools also play a role in the monitoring of the behavioural tasks assigned to service users in relation to the social wellbeing of children attending schools. Family members also co-operate through assisting in the behaviour modification of the service user through providing monitoring and support. Table 6.35 below illustrates the co-operation from these stakeholders with qualifying excerpts from interviews.

Table 6.35

Co-operation from other stakeholders

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Co-operation	Co-operation from other stakeholders	• "Work in collaboration with SASSA for the change of beneficiary in the event of CSG misuse." (Participant SW 1) • "Those who disappear with CSG social workers write to SASSA for the cancellation of the social grant and recommend that the CSG be changed to the new beneficiary. (Participant SW 11)

The participants' verbatim responses illustrate the working collaboration that social workers have with SASSA when they need its intervention when facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. Regarding the co-operation of other stakeholders, Participant SW 8 said on the role of the SAPS,

> One of the clients that I dealt with was more than willing to start a new financial life based on the proposal I made to her and one of the tasks was to pay off

> the debt which he had from a loan shark and when I approached the loan shark in order to negotiate the repayment, the loan shark responded with hostility and there was nothing we could do with the client as all the documents were with the loan shark. I then approached the SAPS for their intervention as it was illegal for the loan shark to keep those documents.

Regarding the role of schools, Participant SW 10 commented,

> The schools assist us a lot because of the huge work load on our shoulders it is difficult for us to monitor the intervention plan involving children who are CSG and FCG beneficiaries through conducting abrupt visits to schools and at homes, hence we request teachers to become our eyes on children beneficiaries in schools.

Participant SUP 9 said on the co-operation of family members, “For clients who were referred by their family members play an important role in the implementation of the intervention play and we also ensure that they have some tasks to perform.”

The findings on partnerships that social workers have with other stakeholders are congruent with Lombard’s (2014) assertion that the primary goal of partnership in social development is to contribute towards poverty reduction and address inequalities and social injustices through the redistribution of resources and through social and economic programmes. Despite the lack of a formalised partnership between social workers and the relevant stakeholders, good working relationships and networks amongst officials working for the government seem to be a vital requirement for social workers to receive co-operation from other stakeholders. The nature of the collaboration that exists between social workers and other stakeholders is supported by literature that states that the building of partnership is a process that develops on a continuum from a lower level of partnership and that the level of partnership depends on how deeply the sharing of resources goes, ranging from networking, co-operation, co-ordinating and collaboration to the formation of coalition (Lombard & Jansen van Rensburg, 2001). Lombard (2014) further affirms that there is no blueprint for partnerships. The findings demonstrate that social development at microlevel between social workers and other partners is of fundamental significance for effective and successful interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

6.6.5.2 Subtheme 5.2: Improvements in the psychosocial and financial circumstances of service users

Social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development have been proven to yield positive results for vulnerable households in the form of improvements in their psychosocial and financial situations. These benefits can be realised within a short period during the intervention and after the intervention plan has been completed. Other benefits can be realised later and can also be of long-term benefit for vulnerable households. Therefore, immediate and long-term benefits as a result of social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households constitute the categories of this subtheme.

6.6.5.2.1 Category 5.2.1: Immediate benefits

The immediate benefits for vulnerable households manifest themselves through affordability of essentials that were difficult for the household to access before the interventions by social workers. These essentials include the ability to buy food and the ability to face financial emergencies. Other benefits are realised through improvement in the social circumstances of children who are beneficiaries of the CSG and FCG and whose circumstances were reported as appalling prior to social workers' interventions. There is also improvement in the psychological wellbeing of income earners and household members who were faced with financial and economic difficulties. Social workers are able to notice these benefits during the process of implementing the intervention plans. Service users also provide feedback about the improvements in their financial and economic situation and express their appreciation of the role played by social workers towards the change in their financial circumstances. Feedback is also received from schoolteachers on the improvement in the social circumstances of children after social workers' interventions. The category of immediate benefits is depicted in Table 6.36 below through the comments by the participants.

Table 6.36

Immediate benefits

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Improvements in the psychosocial and economic circumstances of service users	Immediate benefits	• "As social workers we are effective and that is vindicated by the feedback we receive from the service users about the positive change they are experiencing." (Participant SW 1) • "We are effective and in certain occasions clients come and provide feedback about positive change in the way money has been managed that came as a result of social workers' interventions." (Participant SW 4) • "Our interventions are effective when we assist clients about how to do financial planning and budgeting and on how to complement the income through securing jobs. The clients do give feedback through expressing appreciation about social workers' interventions." (Participant SW 13)

The participants' verbatim responses refer to the effectiveness of social workers' interventions, which is expressed through the feedback from service users who appreciate the role of social workers in effecting change in their financial circumstances. Participant SUP 5, commenting on the effectiveness of social workers' interventions, said, "Most interventions are successful especially if service users have shown co-operation as a result they speedily benefit through our interventions." Participant SW 18 expressed how service users claimed to have benefitted from interventions by social workers: "The social workers who have been training in Sinovuyo Parenting Programme have commended the usefulness of the training as it has improved their way of managing finances, especially on budgeting." Participant SW 6 said, "My client came back to express how grateful she was as she was starting to feel that she was really in charge of her finances."

Feedback from service users can be used as a tool for evaluation of the effectiveness of social work practice. The findings of a study by Kiefer (2014) reveal that many social work practitioners are indeed evaluating their practice by using client feedback and dialogue along with feedback tools. The immediate benefit of social work intervention regarding CSG supports the assertion by the DSD, SASSA and UNICEF (2012) that the CSG generates a positive developmental impact that directly reduces poverty and vulnerability. The benefit of social workers' intervention fulfils the claim by SASSA (2012) that the CSG is having a significant impact on the alleviation of poverty by increasing children's access to food, education and healthcare. The role played by social workers in facilitating financial capabilities of OAG recipients enables them to have a better life with higher food security and, importantly, have a greater capacity to help children in their households who then enjoy higher food security and better schooling (Gomez-Olive *et al.*, 2010). The immediate benefit for OAG recipients also supports the evidence cited by Case (2004), Case and Deaton (1998) and Duflo (2003) that there are improvements in the health and wellbeing of adults and children living in households that are headed by OAG recipients. Social workers' interventions yield immediate benefit for vulnerable households as they are able to spend their money on essential goods that provide higher food security and better schooling, thereby significantly impacting on the alleviation of poverty.

6.6.5.2.2 Category 5.2.2: Long-term benefits

The long-term benefits for vulnerable households are realised when social workers' interventions contribute towards increased and permanent financial and economic wellbeing of households. The long-term benefits are mostly demonstrated by the study findings on the management of the FCG whereby long-term savings by foster parents in savings has desirable financial gains for utilisation in future. The indirect and long-term benefits of the CSG have also been widely documented. The long-term benefits of FCG savings are most achievable when foster children became beneficiaries at a young age. The savings play a crucial role in meeting the material needs that come with the developmental age of the children. The participants reported that the savings from the

FCG helped to assist with financial needs associated with foster children's enrolment in institutions of higher learning. The participants further revealed that savings from the FCG for certain occasions were used to pay expenses associated with cultural rites such as initiation schooling in the case of Xhosa-speaking male foster children. With the support of savings from the FCG, some foster care children are able to continue with their education until they obtain a tertiary qualification. Educational qualifications enable them to secure better paying jobs and professions, thus improving the social and economic conditions of households at large. Table 6.37 below depicts the long-term benefits of social workers' interventions with supporting excerpts from interviews, followed by a discussion.

Table 6.37

Long-term benefits

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Improvements in the psychosocial and economic circumstances of service users	Long-term benefits	• "Those clients who co-operate reap some good benefits in the long term as returns derived from savings have assisted some of the foster children in meeting the financial needs of foster children when commencing with higher learning." (Participant MAN 1) • "Social workers are effective in their intervention through providing counselling and offer advice on budget, financial planning and application problem solving skills and the financial situation of clients improves from time to time following social workers' intervention." (Participant SUP 6)

The participants' narratives in the excerpts show the long-term benefits of social workers' interventions in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The long-term benefits are associated with foster care children and other benefits that the clients begin to realise as the process of financial capability keeps on unfolding.

Participant SW 9 commented on the long-term benefit of the FCG:

> Despite the fact that some foster parents do not understand us at the beginning why we are so strict when it comes to make savings out of FCG they realise how important it is when request to make withdrawals for children's material needs when they become older.

Participant MAN 2 made this comment: "You know it becomes a matter of professional fulfilment on my part when I meet one of my former foster clients expressing appreciation about the role I have played in contributing to his or her success in life."

Participant SU 1 also said, "In most instances the FCG takes care of all the needs of foster children as there is no other financial support as a result even the expenses related towards their rite of passage to manhood are taken from these savings."

The research findings by Dhludhlu and Lombard (2017) show that saving through the FCG is possible when there is a commitment to do so by foster parents and that this has assisted foster children in the payment of their registration fees at universities; therefore, the FCG contributes positively to foster children's education. The FCG also plays an important role in poverty alleviation as it contributes indirectly to economic development by providing access to education, health, food security and protection (Midgley, 2010). Social workers' interventions in facilitating financial capabilities can have positive returns for many households' socioeconomic situation through breaking the cycle of poverty for future generations of vulnerable households.

6.6.6 THEME 6: CHALLENGES FACED BY SOCIAL WORKERS WHEN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT

The role of facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households by social workers is not without challenges. The challenges faced by social workers include lack of co-operation from service users, lack of financial skills and knowledge, and lack of policy and practice guidelines. These three aspects are the subthemes that underpin this theme.

6.6.6.1 Subtheme 6.1: Lack of co-operation from service users

The lack of co-operation from service users was most prevalent among those who abused alcohol and manifested in their failure to implement the activities agreed upon as part of the intervention plan with the social workers. Alcohol abuse and nonadherence to financial capability action plans are the categories that constitute this subtheme.

6.6.6.1.1 Category 6.1.1: Alcohol abuse

The spending of income on alcohol has already been discussed. The findings reveal that abuse of alcohol negatively affects service users in the implementation of intervention plans. Alcohol abuse is the reason why service users do not reach the termination stage of their working relationships with the social workers. Alcohol abuse can be defined as the continued use of alcohol irrespective of adverse consequences in one or more areas of an individuals' life (Fisher & Harrison, 2013). The findings reveal that abuse of alcohol negatively affects the relationship between the service user and the social worker. Service users sometimes do not adhere to their expected roles in the implementation of the intervention plan as a result of alcohol abuse. Service users sometimes fail to live up to what is expected of them because in many instances, their alcohol misuse is also linked to dependency or addiction. Consequently, while still bound to the implementation of the intervention plan, service users continue with their alcohol consumption, with alcohol often being made available on credit by tavern and shebeen owners. Service users are faced with a burden of paying debt on their pay date that was incurred as a result of alcohol obtained on credit. This leaves them unable to fulfil intervention tasks that carry financial obligations. As a result of their inability to fulfil the required tasks, service users often shun any further contact with social workers until they are followed up by social workers or are referred again by significant others. The other dimension of alcohol abuse concerns the consumption of alcohol on pay day by the service user who due to intoxication then fails to visit the social worker as agreed and subsequently reneges on his or her working agreement with the social worker. Table 6.37 below provides a depiction of this category with supporting excerpts from the interviews.

Table 6.38

Alcohol abuse

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of co-operation	Alcohol abuse	• "Service users abusing alcohol find it difficult to co-operate because they continue making deals of credit purchase with shebeen owners who wait for them to collect debts at the pay-points." (Participant SUP 10) • "Some of the service users especially those abusing alcohol do not co-operate and that requires social workers to become more severe." (Participant SUP 6) • "One of the challenges is that clients are not adhering to the social workers' advices more in particular those misusing alcohol and sometimes foster parents are defaulting on savings because as a result of their drinking habit." (Participant MAN 2)

The verbatim responses of the participants reveal that the abuse of alcohol by service users results in their not co-operating with social workers for the attainment of the intervention plans aimed at achieving financial capability. On the avoidance of social workers regarding the monitoring of a savings plan by foster parents, Participant SW 7 made the following comment:

> During the process prior to the finalisation of the foster care placement some of the foster parents do everything to convince us that they are the right people to become foster parents and they co-operate in every aspect. They only show us their true colours once the foster care grant gets paid and when the time for foster care review has come little money has been saved for foster care children due to their indulgence in alcohol.

Participant MAN 4 made this remark about the lack of co-operation caused by alcohol misuse:

> Alcohol misuse is really a problem among our clients. The clients would accept that their financial situation is a problem and also fully understands that something need to be done but come payday they no longer co-operate as start drinking before honouring their financial commitments made with the social workers.

The lack of co-operation caused by alcohol abuse among service user occurs in both voluntary and nonvoluntary service users. It is reported that South Africa has the highest rate of alcohol consumption in the Southern African region at 7.8% (Oladeinde, Mabetha, Twine, Hove, Van der Merwe & Byass, 2020). Alcohol abuse is associated with many social ills and adverse effects for individuals and communities. It is linked to domestic and interpersonal violence, intentional and irrational accidents and premature deaths, and it occurs simultaneously with similar patterns of addiction and harm (Oladeinde *et al.*, 2020). Poverty as one of the end results of unemployment is at a high level in South Africa, and it has to be noted that many communities are living below the poverty line and tend to spend the little money that they have on alcohol (Sentlalentoa, 2009). Alcohol abuse by service users remains a challenge to social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

6.6.6.1.2 Category 6.1.2: Nonadherence to financial capability action plans

Financial capability action plans are part of the intervention process by the service user and social worker for achieving financial capability for the service user. These action plans include all the tasks discussed under Theme 4 in Subtheme 4.4. Nonadherence is a situation in which the service user agrees to work with the social worker on executing certain tasks as part of the intervention plan aimed at achieving the service user's financial wellbeing, but the service user decides to renege on the working agreement. Nonadherence to financial capability action plans is often experienced among nonvoluntary service users. Nonadherence is demonstrated through inability to honour dates for appointments with social workers, disregarding any communication from social workers concerning obligatory tasks and sometimes failing dismally to perform any of the expected roles despite the mutual agreement with social workers. Table 3.39 illustrates this category based on the supporting excerpts from the interviews and is followed by a discussion of some of the reflections from the interviews.

Table 6.39

Nonadherence to financial capability action plans

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Lack of co-operation	Nonadherence to financial capability action plans	• "Sometimes we discover that some foster parents were <u>not saving when doing reviews of the placement orders.</u>" (Participant SW 13) • "Some of the clients would just <u>disappear and not come back</u> to social workers to report on progress made." (Participant SW 11) • "Men also have <u>some difficulty in co-operating</u> as they regard themselves as the heads of the family or households and therefore are entitled to have their own pocket money and/or to spend money on whatever they want." (Participant SUP 6)

The participants' narratives in the above excerpts point out the failure of the service users to co-operate by not adhering to the intervention plans as agreed upon with the social workers. Participant SW 1 expressed her disappointment about how the conduct of service users could frustrate the significant others who referred them:

> The non-co-operation by service users is very frustrating for those who are affected by the financial behaviour of the client. It becomes worse for the family members who were beginning to have some hopes that things are going to

> change and this is when we consider the identification of a procurator as the behaviour of the client continues to harm those who are close to him or her.

Another dimension raised by Participant SW 4 is that of older male persons who are more reluctant to co-operate and see nothing wrong with their financial behaviour:

> Most of the male older persons who are old age grant recipients are the ones who are more reluctance to co-operate. They are not always keen to reach consensus, they want to decide on their own about what to contribute to the household and also on how much must be left with them claiming that as heads of families they are entitled to do so.

Participant SW 1 also raised the issue of social workers' safety as some of the service users behaved violently in the social work offices and even threatened social workers outside the work environment*:*

> On one occasion a security guard was called in as the service user was very aggressive towards me and the family member who referred him. In other incident one social worker was threatened by a service user in a shopping mall accusing the social worker of colluding with family members in order to take away the social grant from him.

The definition of involuntary service users and the challenges associated with their engagement with social workers have already been discussed above. Dealing with nonvoluntary service users is not only a matter of engagement but is also an important and often difficult part of a social worker's day-to-day work routine (Alketbi, 2017). Cingolin (1984) highlights some of the conditions that are generally present when working with involuntary service users. The primary reason for contact is deviant or at least troublesome behaviour that is defined by someone other than the service user. It is further argued that the resistant behaviour of the service user reflects his or her different definition of the situation and the service user's attempts to protect his or her own interests and to enhance or protect his or her status (Cingolin, 1984). Involuntary service users may exert their freedom by refusing to accept services when their perceptions of their own needs do not reflect those of the referral source (Rooney, 2019). The resistant behaviour of an involuntary service user can occur at any point during the helping process (Cingolin, 1984). Nonadherence to financial capability action plans is most prevalent among nonvoluntary service users and remains a challenge for successful and effective implementation of social workers' interventions for successful and effective facilitation of financial capabilities development.

6.6.6.2 Subtheme 6.2: Lack of skills and knowledge by social workers

The subtheme refers to the appropriate practice skills that social workers ought to apply when facilitating financial capabilities. It also refers to their knowledge of financial management and financial capability. These two aspects are the categories that underpin this subtheme.

6.6.6.2.1 Category 6.2.1: Lack of appropriate practice skills

The lack of appropriate skills refers to the intervention procedures appropriate for facilitating financial capabilities development. When social workers intervene in areas of social work practice such as child abuse, domestic violence, marriage and family preservation and so forth, social workers apply intervention skills that sometimes are referred to as 'techniques'. The intervention skills that are applied depend on the nature of the approach that underpins social work intervention. It seems that social workers do not have the necessary skills for intervention when facilitating the financial capabilities development of service users. There are no clearly defined intervention approaches and intervention skills for facilitating financial capabilities development, and social workers use and apply whatever they presume is appropriate for a particular case. The gross inadequacy of the intervention processes, which are characterised by a lack of appropriate intervention skills, poses a challenge for the efficiency and effectiveness of social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. Table 40 below shows how this category found expression in the interviews with participants.

Table 6.40

Lack of appropriate skills

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of skills and knowledge	Lack of appropriate practice skills	• "We do not have the relevant skills and knowledge instead we use our own discretion when intervening in cases of financial vulnerability." (Participant SUP 2) • "The social workers do not have the necessary skills and knowledge and they utilise general knowledge and their own discretion." (Participant SUP 6) • "Social workers do not have the necessary skills and knowledge, but they apply their generic social work skills and little financial knowledge they have." (Participant MAN 4)

The above verbatim responses from participants clearly demonstrate that social workers do not have the necessary skills when facilitating financial capabilities development. The narratives show that social workers use their own discretion by applying the general knowledge at their disposal as there are no intervention guidelines. This finds expression in the remark by Participant SUP 4: "Social workers do not have the necessary skills and knowledge and as a result sometimes find themselves limited in their interventions of facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households." Theoretical knowledge of the skills that are relevant to a particular area of social work is important in informing how best to apply these skills during the intervention process. The findings in this category support the assertion by Sherraden (2013) that social workers and other helping professionals often lack the skills and knowledge to tackle the increasingly complex financial problems facing their clients. As a result, social workers are left to explore their own strategies for how best to support the individuals, families and communities that they serve (Birkenmaier *et al.*, 2013). In the South African context, Patel (2015) acknowledges that there is a limited recognition of this area in social development practice and that much work is needed in this area so that more lessons can be learnt from social development practice within the South African context.

6.7.6.2.2 Category 6.2.2: Lack of knowledge of financial management and financial capability

This category points out the lack of knowledge in the fields of financial management and financial capability. Despite the need for social workers' intervention in facilitating financial capabilities of vulnerable households, social workers did not have any knowledge of financial management and financial capability before their exposure to social work practice. All the participants interviewed highlighted the fact that their professional training in social work did not include these two aspects. None of the participants had any qualification or in-service training on these two aspects. This knowledge gap among social workers raises concern about the bedrock for their intervention strategies. Table 6.41 provides an illustration of the verbatim responses from the participants on the lack of knowledge of financial management and financial capability.

Table 6.41

Lack of knowledge of financial management and financial capability

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of skills and knowledge	Lack of knowledge of financial management and financial capability	• "Based on my understanding social <u>workers are not equipped on financial matters</u> which makes them not to have the necessary skills and knowledge." (Participant MAN 2) • "Social workers <u>do not have the necessary skills and knowledge in financial management</u> as they have only the general knowledge about financial issues." (Participant MAN 5) • <u>"We do not have adequate skills and knowledge in financial management,</u> and they apply knowledge that they have acquired from their own interaction with financial institutions." (Participant SUP 1)

The participants' narratives reflect the lack of knowledge and skills regarding personal financial management and demonstrate that their interventions are based on knowledge developed from their personal interaction with financial institutions. Knowledge of financial management is one of the key aspects of financial literacy. Therefore, the level of knowledge of financial management may reflect the level of financial literacy, which in turn may describe one's level of financial capability. In this instance, it can be affirmed that social workers have not been trained or oriented on basic financial management or to be exact on personal financial management, which is relevant for their interventions in facilitating financial capabilities. Participant SW 7 commented on the lack of training related to financial matters experienced by social workers: "Apart from the fact that we are also expected to monitor the management of finances of the organisations funded by the DSD which are far bigger than those of the clients, were have not received any financial management related training." The empirical investigation also revealed that though social workers intervened in cases that involved financially vulnerable households, they had no insight into the concept of financial capability. In essence, social workers render assistance to service users with financial challenges without any conceptual understanding of the development of financial capabilities as one of the areas of social work practice. This was demonstrated by Participant SW 11 who said, "It becomes clear that some of us as social workers are also not financially capable but we are expected to facilitate financial capabilities of clients but have no choice because they have confidence in us."

Even though the facilitation of financial capabilities is part of social workers' daily activities, few social workers have received education and training on helping clients with household finances (Sherraden, 2013). The study showed that social workers developed, whether knowingly or not, financial capabilities through their routine response to the financial circumstances of clients; however, their education did not prepare them for this (Gates *et al*., 2016). Students in most social work education programmes are not acquiring the financial literacy skills needed to grasp the increasingly complex financial challenges faced by low-income populations (Karger, 2015). Despite social workers' involvement in facilitating financial capabilities development, they have not been provided with training on financial management skills and knowledge pertinent to their interventions.

6.6.6.3 Subtheme 6.3: Lack of policy and practice guidelines for social workers

The lack of practice and policy guidelines remains another challenge for social workers in their role of facilitating financial capabilities development of financially vulnerable households. The practical execution of policy and practice significantly informs and determines the success and effectiveness of social work interventions. There is also a mutual interdependency between these two concepts as their monitoring and evaluation rely on the relevance, success and effectiveness of each other. The study showed that social workers intervened in facilitating financial capabilities development without any policy and practice guidelines.

6.6.6.3.1 Category 6.3.1: Nonexistent practice guidelines

Social work practice guidelines are a crucial component of social work professional practice as they help to provide strategies on how social workers should intervene at the micro-, mezo- and macrolevels (Zastrow, 2014). They are a set of systematically compiled and organised statements of empirically tested knowledge and procedures to help social work practitioners to select and implement interventions that are most effective and appropriate for attaining the desired outcomes (Rosen & Proctor, 2003). The practice guidelines are a guiding framework for social workers to initiate appropriate intervention strategies with determined possibilities of success. It has already been stated that social workers use their own discretion when dealing with cases of financial vulnerability. They use social work skills and intervention techniques without any guidance about which skills and techniques could be best applied when working with service users in this area of social work practice. Therefore, it is unclear where the needs of the service users have been met through the intervention of the social workers. Again, it is unclear whether the skills and techniques used by social workers were not detrimental to the wellbeing of the service users. Table 6.42 below presents responses by participants regarding the lack of practice guidelines.

Table 6.42

Nonexistent practice guidelines

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of skills and knowledge	Nonexistent practice guidelines	• "Social workers do not have the necessary skills and knowledge, as a result they use their own discretion as there are no policy or practice guidelines for facilitation of financial capabilities development." Participant MAN 4)

The participants' verbatim responses reflect the lack of practice guidelines for social workers to guide their interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development. Some of the responses that demonstrate the desperate measures applied by social workers during the process of intervention have already been cited above. These include threats and keeping of important documents such as bank cards and identity documents as desperate measures to enforce co-operation from service users. Howard and Jenson (1999) assert that practice guidelines for social workers will also promote more informed service user decision making, improve training in social work and encourage more effective and accountable practice. A social work practice without guidelines may be viewed by the public as largely dependent on the individual worker, and service users may be perceived as being without any clear protection from incompetence, unfairness and malpractice (Myers & Thyer, 1997). The lack of practice guidelines for social workers' interventions raises concern about the quality of their work and the ethical implications of these interventions for the professional working relationship between social workers and service users.

6.6.6.3.2 Category 6.3.2: Nonexistent policy guidelines

In Chapter 1 it was indicated that the ECDSD had no performance indicator or activity regarding the facilitation of financial capabilities; hence, it is not surprising that social workers apply their interventions without any policy guidelines. Policy guidelines enable social workers to be more effective in their practice and in influencing the policy development process that is ratified at a higher level (Ambrosino, Haffernan, Shuttlesworth & Ambrosino, 2012). Practice guidelines seek to achieve broader policy guidelines for the fulfilment of service users' specific needs. Policy guidelines provide a framework with a set of procedures to be followed during intervention processes in pursuit of broader social policy objectives. Table 6.43 provides some of the responses of the participants in this regard.

Table 6.43

Nonexistent policy guidelines

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Lack of skills and knowledge	Nonexistent policy guidelines	• "We do not have the necessary skills and knowledge, as a result they use their own discretion as there are no policy or practice guidelines for facilitation of financial capabilities development." (Participant SUP 2) • "There is no policy provision guiding the facilitation of financial capability." (Participant MAN 5)

The lack of policy guidelines is reflected in the participants' narratives about the policy issues that social workers are expected to consider when making decisions in their interventions of facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The lack of policy guidelines is a matter of serious concern, especially when it relates to management of income from social grants. It has been mentioned above that social workers expect service users who are FCG recipients to have savings every month, and when service users do not comply, social workers usually opt for harsh measures as a way of enforcing compliance. It has also emerged that due to the lack of policy guidelines, some of the behaviours of social workers may be in contravention of the Social Assistance Act of 1998, which makes provision for the payment of social grants. Participant MAN 5 remarked in this regard as follows:

> Though social workers are doing a good job on educating clients about savings, their insistence on savings from FCG could be challenged because the amount of FCG paid for each foster child is calculated based on the estimated costs of the essential needs of the child for every month, it does not have any provision for savings.
>
> Participant MAN 5 further said,
>
> The calculation for FCG is made in anticipation that the child also benefit from the bucket of services from no school fee policy, free health services and NSFAS when the child goes to tertiary and these bucket of services are not properly co-ordinated for the benefit of the child.

Financial capability development is one of the poverty alleviation interventions. However, unlike other poverty alleviation interventions as discussed in Chapter 2, it is implemented without any policy guidelines.

6.6.7 THEME 7: RELEVANCE OF THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT

Despite the lack of skills and knowledge in financial management and in the field of financial capability, social workers continue to assist people faced with financial challenges. It has been noted earlier that it is inevitable for social workers not to become involved in financial capabilities development because vulnerable households approach social workers when they need assistance to deal with socioeconomic challenges because social workers are particularly capable of helping people to achieve behavioural change in the financial area (Wolfsohn & Michaeli, 2014). This is because they have the necessary training, education and experience to help service users to modify their behaviour and because they have a long tradition of working with financially struggling, low-income and minority families (Birkenmaier & Curley, 2007; Sherraden *et al*., 2007). In modern society, money is part of everyday social life and therefore it is part of the social problems that people experience every day and thus needs the attention of social workers. Even though financial knowledge is important for everyone, it is especially critical for low-income families as small mistakes or miscalculations can be very costly and have a negative effect on their financial wellbeing (Sherraden *et.al*, 2018). Secondly, social workers have professional skills that have been acquired through professional training and that enable them to assist service users with financial challenges. Through these professional skills, social workers may assist clients to learn more about their finances and to gain appropriate skills through exploring their values, creating financial goals, developing and maintaining budgets, managing their financial resources, making basic financial choices, and building and maintaining good credit (Collins, 2010). The centrality of financial challenges in the lives of service users and social work professional skills are subthemes under this theme.

6.6.7.1 Subtheme 7.1: Centrality of financial challenges in every aspect of social life

The centrality of financial challenges in the social lives of individuals, families and communities suggests that social and financial challenges are inextricably linked**.** The centrality of financial challenges in the social lives of service users manifests when cases are referred directly as financial vulnerability or when financial vulnerability emerges as the cause of a social problem during assessment. Social workers may also come into contact with clients due to their financial challenges or psychosocial difficulties that may be connected to their financial situation and low-income status (Barczyk & Lincovn, 2010). This suggests that social and financial challenges are inextricably linked. A service user who is not financially stable may not be able to attain a state of psychosocial wellbeing. The interconnection between social and financial challenges faced by service users and the interconnection between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing are the categories of this subtheme.

6.6.7.1.1 Category 7.1.1: Interconnection between social and financial challenges faced by service users

The interconnection between social problems and financial vulnerability can manifest in two ways. In some situations, social problems occur as a result of financial vulnerability. While the case may involve financial vulnerability, the social worker in the process of intervention does not deal with financial capability in isolation from other social aspects associated with it. Other cases may concern general social problems and when the finance- related issues emerge, they become an integral part of the social issues that the social worker deals with during the process of intervention. Thus, during the intervention process, the social worker facilitates financial capability inclusive of the social and psychological causes and consequences of financial vulnerability. Table 6.44 below shows participants' reflections on the interconnection between social problems and financial vulnerability.

Table 6.44

Interconnection between social and financial challenges

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
The centrality of financial challenges in every aspect of social life	Interconnection between social and financial challenges faced by service users	• "Despite limited skills and knowledge on financial management, the role social workers are currently playing is crucial because the root cause of some of the social ills emanates from the financial problems." (Participant MAN 2) • "I think the role social workers are playing is important because all the social problems facing members of the community are referred to social workers and in the processes of intervening, issues of financial vulnerability emerge". (Participant SUP 10) • "I think the role played by social workers is essential because there is always an element of financial vulnerability in most problems facing individuals, families and communities." (Participant MAN 3)

The excerpts above demonstrate the linkage between social ills and financial vulnerability in that some of the social ills emanates from financial vulnerability while some financial vulnerability cases are caused by social problems. Participant SW 4 said, *"As social* workers we are the jack of all trades because clients bring to us all sorts of social problems as a result, we end up dealing with their financial challenges wittingly or unwittingly." Participant SW 18 also remarked, "Most of the marriage related problems that came to our attention emanate out of financial challenges. The responses of the participants confirm the assertion by Barczyk and Lincov (2010) that social workers may interact with service users directly due to their financial circumstances or indirectly due to their mental, emotional or physical health or relationship difficulties, each of which may be associated with their financial concerns and low-income status. There is a need for social workers to become involved in household financial capabilities development due to an increasing number of households in poverty and households that are struggling to make financial decisions within an increasingly complex financial environment (Sherraden, 2013). Facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households by social workers is inherent in their daily practice due to the linkage between social ills and financial vulnerability faced by service users.

6.6.7.1.2 Category 7.1.2: Interconnection between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing

Because money is an important aspect of life, it has a direct impact on the daily functioning of individuals, families and communities. Money is central to almost every person's life, and most of the activities that people perform involve elements of financial transactions. This implies that any financial instability in people's lives is likely to have a negative impact on how people manage their daily lives. The findings of the empirical investigation show that because of the relationship between financial wellbeing and psychological wellbeing, the involvement of social workers in financial capabilities development is becoming increasingly relevant. The verbatim responses of participants on promoting psychological wellness through facilitation of financial capabilities are shown in Table 6.45 below

Table 6.45

Interconnection between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
The centrality of financial challenges in every aspect of social life	Interconnection between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing	• "The role social workers play is key as money matters for the psycho-social wellbeing of families." (Participant SUP 1) • "The role social workers are playing is essential because financial capability leads to psycho-social well-being of clients and finances are at the centre of clients' life." (Participant SW 1) • "The role of social workers in financial capabilities is essential because money is a crucial aspect of human social life and social workers play a pivotal role towards the psycho-social wellbeing of individuals, families and communities." (Participant MAN 3)

The participants' narratives put emphasis on the importance of financial wellbeing and its significant impact on the psychosocial wellbeing of individuals due to the centrality of finances in individuals' social lives. The above verbatim responses from participants find expression in the assertion by Karger (2015) when he says that "the symptoms of financial stress can manifest themselves in various ways including anxiety, depression, domestic violence, eating disorders, insomnia, marital discord, child abuse and through other physical symptoms". According to Silverman (2018), relationship problems such as shame, guilt, poor communication, anger, resentment and lack of trust may develop from financial decisions. Families and communities may also be affected negatively when financial stress causes crime, divorce, and domestic violence (Wolfsohn & Michaeli, 2014). Since financial vulnerability is the cause of many negative psychological outcomes, facilitation of financial capabilities development by social workers is essential in order to curb the increase in psychosocial ills and to enhance their interventions in dealing with service users who are already suffering from psychosocial ills.

6.6.7.2 Subtheme 7.2: Social work professional skills

When families are in crisis, social workers as part of the human service professions are uniquely placed to provide basic financial guidance and support to vulnerable families by bringing their deep understanding of the realities of their clients' lives to bear on financial capability practice (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016). Their social work skills enable social workers to deal with different client groups and their diverse social and psychological needs. Social workers can also play a role in providing financial counselling to resolve conflicts in families about financial circumstances (Consumer Financial Protection Bureau, 2016). Social workers utilise their professional skills appropriately in all phases of the intervention process. The appropriate usage of their skills is determined by the nature of the problem that the social worker and service user are addressing and the theoretical approaches that underpin the intervention. Social work skills are also important in the facilitation of financial capabilities development as they enable social workers to interact with service users throughout all the phases of the intervention process. Social work skills include but are not limited to empathy, communication, active listening and persuasion skills, and these are the categories of this subtheme.

6.6.7.2.1 Category 7.2.1: Empathy

In many instances, service users meet social workers in an initial interaction characterised by high levels of stress, anxiety and frustration. The expression by social workers of understanding the service users' situation helps to restore emotional balance. The study discovered that the empathy skills applied by social workers helped the service users to develop more confidence in the social workers because they understood how the service users felt about their situation. The application of empathy skills is crucial in the engagement phase when service users are likely to have feelings of ambivalence about seeing social workers, especially nonvoluntary service users. Empathy skills can also be significant in the facilitation of financial capabilities development during the process of intervention as the service users are expected to perform certain tasks or activities that may come with great sacrifices. Table 6.46 below shows some of the responses of the participants regarding empathy skills.

Table 6.46

Empathy

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Social work professional skills	Empathy	• "The role social workers play is significant in the facilitation of financial capability because the vulnerable households rely on social workers because social workers can understand their situations." (Participant SW 18) • "The role social workers play is very crucial despite the fact that they are not financial advisors because service users have trust in social workers more than people working for financial institutions and are also free to disclose other personal issues related to the management of their financial affairs." (Participant SUP 1)

The participants' narratives demonstrate how the empathy skills of social workers enable service users to develop trust and confidence in social workers to deal with their financial challenges although they are not financial advisors. Participant MAN 1 responded by saying, "The reason that people come to us as social workers with all kinds of problems it is because of the understanding that we show empathy about how they feel and the situations they find themselves in." Participant SUP 6 also said, "Our empathy towards their situation inspires hope and trust in us." It is widely acknowledged that empathy is an important skill in social work (Grant, 2004) because of its vital role in developing the relationship between social workers and families (Forrester, McCambridge, Waissbein, Emlyn-Jones & Rollnick, 2008). Another role of empathy is expressed by Egan (2013) when he asserts that empathy is also a critical way of showing respect and it involves an understanding of and a feeling for the mental states and emotions of another person. Shulman (1999) divides empathy into three sections, namely reaching for feelings, which implies that social workers need to step into their clients' shoes by coming as close as possible to their experiences; displaying understanding of the clients' feelings by showing openness through words, gestures, physical posture and so forth; and putting the clients' feelings into words, particularly when the clients cannot find the right words or gestures to express themselves. Empathy is one of the most important skills that social workers should apply when facilitating financial capabilities development because when most service users reach out to social workers, they are already in dire financial circumstances.

6.6.7.2.2 Category 7.2.2: Active listening

Active listening is described as the act of hearing a speaker by avoiding premature judgement, reflecting, understanding and clarifying information through restating a paraphrased version of the speaker's message and by asking questions, summarising and sharing (Weger, Castle Bell, Minei & Robinson, 2014). Service users from vulnerable households may find it difficult to express themselves due to their emotional state and sometimes low self-esteem, which both emanate from financial vulnerability. Service users therefore require a good listener who is able to pay careful attention to everything that the service users say, including non-verbal communication. It is through active listening that social workers are able to intervene in cases of financial vulnerability. Some participants highlighted that the low levels of literacy among service users made it difficult for them to articulate their financial problems clearly through using appropriate and correct financial concepts. Active listening enables social workers to grasp the information expressed by service users and rephrase it in the proper context. Table 6.47 depicts participants' views on the use of active listening when facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

Table 6.47

Active listening

Subtheme	**Category**	**Qualifying excerpts from interviews**
Social work professional skills	Active listening	• "The role played by social workers is very essential because social workers are an entry point for vulnerable people and service users always feel at ease when they have to approach social workers." (Participant SUP 3) • "The role social workers play is crucial because it is the only profession that service users rely on when their needs were not met by other role players because of their ability to listen and communicate with poor people." (Participant SUP 2)

The participants' verbatim responses reflect how active listening as applied by social workers encourage service users to choose social work services when confronted with the challenge of financial vulnerability. Participant MAN 5 added to the excerpts above:

> It is only social workers who can carefully listen to what our people say and this sometimes is demonstrated when they go to other departments for services rendered by them but later come to social workers as they do not understand what was said to them by the officials in those departments.

Active listening is an important communication skill during the engagement phase or initial contact of interaction (McNaughton, Hamlin, McCarthy, Head-Reeves & Schreiner, 2007). It is a therapeutic microskill that involves listening attentively and responding emphatically so that a client can feel heard (Weger *et al.*, 2014). Five techniques of active listening that can benefit social workers' interaction with service users are identified by Tapornycky and Goliparian (2016), namely paying attention, showing that one is listening, providing feedback, deferring judgement and responding appropriately. Through active listening, social workers can maintain trust and strengthen their working relationship with service users during the process of intervention in facilitation of financial capabilities development.

6.6.7.2.3 Category 7.2.3: Communication

Communication is regarded as an element that plays an important part in direct social work practice to promote, enhance and ensure social welfare services for individuals, groups and communities with multiple problems across societies (Farukuzzaman & Mahbubur, 2019). Good communication is central to social work practice underpinning a wide range of social work activities (Reith-Hall & Montgomery, 2019), and it is a combination of skills and techniques including empathy, active listening and persuasion skills. Social workers have been able to intervene in cases of financial vulnerability by utilising communication skills across diverse types of financial capability among service users and in different phases of intervention processes. Table 6.48 below demonstrates the responses of participants on how communication skills enable them to facilitate financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

Table 6.48

Communication

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Social work professional skills	Communication	• "I think the role social workers play is important because it always easy to approach social workers and they <u>are able to communicate in a way that is easier for clients to understand</u>." (Participant SW 16) • "The role social workers play is crucial because it is the only profession that service users rely on when their needs were not met by other role players as the clients always find it <u>easier to communicate with them.</u>" (Participant SUP 10)

The participants' narratives show that it is easier for service users to communicate with social workers because of social workers' communication skills. The communication skills applied by social workers played a major role in enhancing the interaction between them and service users during the process of working towards achieving the goals of intervention plans, especially for implementations that were successful and effective. Participant SUP 4 remarked,

> You know if it wasn't for us not giving up, we would not have been able to help some of them because of the resistance we encountered from some of them. However, we try all the ways of communication in our disposal so that we can reach out to them.

Healy (2018) attests that even in diverse and challenging circumstances, effective communication can build constructive working relationships and enhance social work outcomes. Communication in social work interaction includes the following:

- Gathering the information needed to achieve the intervention plan.
- Exploring ideas, feelings and possible ways to meet the objectives of the intervention plan. It is underpinned by perceptual, cognitive, effective and behavioural operations.
- Expressing feelings and thoughts.
- Structuring actions or activities during the process of intervention plan implementation.
- Informing, advising, encouraging and giving the necessary directions.

Another important aspect of communication in social work practice is raised by Harms (2015) when he points out that in social work practice and education, the values of the profession and the specific social and cultural context in which social work practitioners operate influence the nature of interpersonal communication. Social work communication skills strengthen the intervention processes in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

6.6.7.2.4 Category 7.2.4: Persuasion

During the process of intervention, social workers apply skills and techniques in order to bring about behavioural change in service users. Through persuasion, service users are consistently motivated to change from an undesirable behaviour towards a desirable one. According to this study, social workers utilised techniques that facilitated persuasion of service users to refrain from undesirable behavioural practices and tendencies that caused financial vulnerability and to follow a new behavioural path aimed at achieving financial wellbeing. Social workers managed to achieve persuasion through encouragement, workable solutions and achievable tasks towards the accomplishment of the desired behaviour. Table 6.49 below shows participants' remarks on persuasion of service users towards desirable financial behaviour.

Table 6.49

Persuasion

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Social work professional skills	Persuasion	• "The role social workers play is very important because service users are more comfortable about presenting their problems to social workers because of the trust they have and also because social workers are easily accessible, <u>visit their homes and advices from social workers are easily understood and implementable</u>." (Participant SW 15) • "We <u>keep on motivating them that the best</u> option for them to come out of the financial situation they find themselves in is to do things differently by adopting new financial behaviour." (Participant SUP 6)

The above verbatim responses of participants demonstrate that social workers strengthen their interventions when facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households by applying persuasion. Social workers also become persuasive by ensuring that advice and options to service users are easily understood and implementable through the application of motivational techniques.

Commenting on the need for persuading service users, Participant SUP 7 remarked, “Despite the fact that clients do realise how unhealthy their situation is they are so accustomed to the way they have been doing things as if it is the only way to conduct their financial life, hence we keep on motivating them towards change.”

Motivational interviewing is viewed as an alternative model to direct persuasion for facilitating behaviour change (Wahab, 2012). The overall objective of motivational interviewing is to support people to move along a continuum of behavioural change by creating a supportive, nonjudgmental, directive environment to facilitate the exploration of service users’ motivation, readiness and confidence levels for change as well as ambivalence to change (Miller & Rollnick, 2002). The application of persuasion skills by social workers is essential for the facilitation of financial capabilities development as service users need a great deal of support to be able to move along a continuum of financial behaviour change.

6.6.8 THEME 8: CAPACITATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS

In Theme 6, the lack of knowledge of financial management and the field of financial capability was identified as one of the challenges besetting social workers in the facilitating of financial capabilities development. A lack of appropriate social work knowledge and practice skills also emerged as impeding efficient and effective facilitation of financial capabilities development. A lack of policy and practice guidelines was also highlighted as an impediment to efficient and effective interventions against financial vulnerability. To remedy the absence of knowledge and skills and guidelines, the participants proposed capacitation of social workers through training and reorientation of social workers on financial capabilities and development of policy and practice guidelines; hence, these proposals are the subthemes under this theme.

6.6.8.1 Subtheme 8.1: Training and reorientation of social workers

In Chapter 4 and Theme 6, the shortcomings in social work education regarding financial knowledge and financial capability were highlighted. These shortcomings exist despite the vital role of the social work profession in the facilitation of financial capabilities development, particularly for vulnerable households. In consideration of the crucial role of the social work profession, participants made suggestions about training and reorientation of social workers on facilitation of financial capabilities, and these include inclusion of financial capability in the social work curriculum and in-service training on facilitation of financial capabilities for practising social workers.

6.6.8.1.1 Category 8.1.1: Inclusion of financial capability in the social work training curriculum

Despite the role played by social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households, few social workers received education and training on helping clients with household finances (Sherraden, 2013). As already mentioned under Theme 6, none of the participants received training on financial matters and/or financial capability as part of their professional training. Table 6.50 below provides verbatim responses of participants regarding the inclusion of financial capability in the social work training curriculum.

Table 6.50

Inclusion of financial capability in the social work training curriculum

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Training and reorientation of social and development of policy and practice guidelines	Inclusion of financial capability in the social work training curriculum	• "<u>Training on facilitation of financial capabilities should form part of the professional training</u> as social workers with individuals and families require holistic approach in intervention." (Participant SW 14) • "Social workers' intervention in the <u>facilitation of financial capabilities should</u>

		be part of professional training." (Participant SW 8) • "I suggest that there must be a module on facilitation on financial capabilities in social work professional training." (Participant SUP 9)

The participants' narratives express the need for student social workers to be equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge by ensuring that financial capability is part of social education. The participants' view is supported by Karger (2015) when suggesting that social work education programmes can take the lead by providing academic training, field placement experiences, research opportunities and continuing education that promote and support financial literacy. The much-needed financial training for social workers can provide them with the skills to help clients to avoid dangerous debt traps, steer clients to healthier choices and help clients to examine barriers to financial health and stability (University of Maryland, 2014). The financial literacy training that needs to be infused into the social work curriculum includes training on basic financial literacy such as the fringe economy, a range of community and national alternatives to predatory lending, the credit industry including credit scoring and reporting, credit counselling agencies, bankruptcy laws and laws governing lending, and other financial services (Karger, 2015). Patel (2015) also suggests that how to best incorporate financial capability in social work education in the South African context is a matter that needs to be explored.

6.6.8.1.2 Category 8.1.2: In-service training for practising social workers

Participants also reflected on what needed to be done about capacitating social workers who were already in practice. All participants supported the view that there was a need for professional development-based training for practising social workers in order to bridge the gap between knowledge and skills acquired through their professional training and role expectations in practice within the area of financial capabilities development. Participants' reflections on the capacitation of social workers already in practice are presented in Table 6.51 below.

Table 6.51

In-service training for practising social workers

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Training and reorientation of social workers on facilitation of financial capabilities	In-service training for practising social workers	• "The social workers must be capacitated through in-service training as each household uses money on a daily basis and money therefore becomes part of their social lives." (Participant SW 20) • "Social workers must be trained so that they develop more knowledge and skills in the field of financial capability." (Participant SUP 5) • "The Department of Social Development should provide capacitation through in-service training as they do in other fields so that social workers can be better equipped to assist clients." (Participant MAN 2)

The above verbatim responses of participants emphasise the need for in-service training of social workers already in practice. Participants SW 19 and SUP 1 respectively commented as follows: "The SACSSP must ensure that the social workers are capacitated and the DSD must ensure that those already in the field are capacitated" and "The social workers must be capacitated through in-service training as each and every household uses money on daily basis and money therefore becomes part of their social lives."

In support of the above responses from the participants, Karger (2015) states that academic training through field placement experiences, research and continuing education that promote and support financial literacy can also be accompanied by professional development courses in financial literacy for social work practitioners. The additional training for human service professionals including social workers will also need additional resources such as assessment modes and practice tools for serving specific populations that would facilitate financial practice (Sherraden *et al.*, 2019). The need for inclusion of financial capability development in the social work curriculum and reorientation of social workers on financial capability is supported by the interconnection between psychosocial and financial challenges facing service users, which was discussed in Theme 7.

6.6.8.2 Subtheme 8.2: Policy and practice guidelines

Some of the participants highlighted the need for the development of policy and practice guidelines regarding the facilitation of financial capabilities by social workers.

6.6.8.2.1 Category 8.2.1: Development of policy and practice guidelines

As already pointed out under Theme 6, without practice and policy guidelines, it will remain difficult to measure the efficiency and efficacy of social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities. Rosen and Proctor (2003) assert that adherence to guidelines for desirable practice is intended to promote the effectiveness of practice, reduce variability in implementing practice, increase the predictability of practice behaviour and enhance confidence in intervention planning and meeting professional standards. Table 6.52 below shows some of the reflections of participants on the need for development of policy and practice guidelines.

Table 6.52

Policy and practice guidelines

Subtheme	Category	Qualifying excerpts from interviews
Training and reorientation of social and development of policy and practice guidelines	Development of policy and practice guidelines	• "The subdirectorate must develop norms and standards for the facilitation of financial capability in order to serve as guidelines for social workers' interventions as social workers apply their own discretion when facilitating financial capabilities." (Participant MAN 3) • "There must be policy and ethical guidelines as social workers do not know how to handle financial issues to guide

		their behaviour when intervening to avoid acts such as keeping bank cards or handling cash that belongs to service recipients." (Participant MAN 5)

The above verbatim responses of participants reflect the need for policy and practice guidelines as a strategy for developing and enhancing the capacity of social workers for an effective role in the facilitation of financial capabilities development. Guidelines are key in any social work practice because practice guidelines can increase empirically based practice and improve clients' outcomes (Howard & Jenson, 1999) while policy guidelines enable social workers to be more effective in their practice and in influencing the policy development process, which is ratified at a higher level (Ambrosino *et al*., 2012). The development of practice and policy guidelines will ensure effective and efficient interventions and that professional standards are adhered to when facilitating financial capabilities development.

6.7 CONCLUSION

The conceptual understanding of social workers is in line with the theoretical conceptualisation of financial vulnerability. The majority of service users who are financially vulnerable who utilise social work services are social grant beneficiaries. The causes of financial vulnerability emanate mainly from a lack of financial literacy and poverty. Social workers play an important role in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households despite fundamental challenges that include lack of co-operation by service users, lack of appropriate skills and knowledge in social workers, and lack of practice and policy guidelines. However, social workers' interventions were successful and effective in benefitting most service users due to the relevance of social work skills and knowledge. Suggestions were put forward by participants regarding the capacitation of social workers for the improvement of their role in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The goal of the study was to gain an in-depth understanding of the role that social workers played in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. Chapter 6 presented the findings of the empirical study, and this chapter draws on the previous six chapters with specific reference to Chapter 6 from which it seeks to make conclusions and recommendations based on the empirical findings. This chapter therefore fulfils objectives four and five of the study that are as follows:

Objective 4

To empirically investigate the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

Objective 5

To present conclusions and offer recommendations to the DSD, the nonprofit social welfare sector and the SACSSP regarding the findings of the study.

These objectives have been achieved through the implementation of other objectives that include the following:

Objective 1

To provide an overview of the socioeconomic context of households in South Africa and more in particularly in the Eastern Cape Province.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of households in South Africa and their socioeconomic characteristics, which include poverty, high unemployment, large household size, food insecurity, high debt rates, low savings, financial exclusion and lack of access to basic infrastructure and services; the majority of these households have members who are beneficiaries of social grants. Chapter 2 subsequently describes these features and their role in the vulnerability of households in South Africa.

Objective 2

To describe and analyse poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa.

Chapter 3 explores, describes and analyses various poverty alleviation interventions in South Africa since the advent of democracy in 1994. The poverty alleviation interventions initiated and implemented include strategies such as economic growth, infrastructure development, creation of economic opportunities for previously excluded groups, empowerment and employment creation for the previously disadvantaged, and poverty alleviation interventions directed at vulnerable sectors of South African society, especially children, the elderly, persons with disabilities, youth and women.

Objective 3

To analyse theories on the facilitation of vulnerable households' financial capabilities within a social development perspective.

Chapter 4 outlines the capability approach and essential elements thereof, namely financial literacy, financial inclusion, financial behaviour, economic opportunities and income generation. Chapter 3 further synthesises the capability approach from the perspective of a developing economy and in the context of South Africa. It also discusses financial capability in relation to the capability approach as articulated by Sen (1993; 2003) and the relevance of financial capability as a strategy to achieve social development goals, financial social work and the essential role of the social work profession in the facilitation of financial capability within the social development paradigm.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This section presents conclusions and recommendations based on the empirical findings in Chapter 6. The conclusions seek to answer the research questions as outlined in Chapter 1, which are as follows:

- What is the nature of the financial challenges that often face vulnerable households in the Eastern Cape?
- How do social workers perceive their role in the day-to-day facilitation of the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?
- Based on the findings of the study, what can be done to improve the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?

The conclusions and recommendations are presented in a similar format as the empirical findings in Chapter 6. Thus, the conclusions and recommendations are presented according to themes, subthemes and categories. The profile of the participants is presented in relation to the years of experience and geographical areas of operation. Some of the findings consolidated the literature review, particularly themes on challenges faced by social workers, relevance of the social work profession for financial capability and capacitation of social workers.

7.2.1 PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS

The profile of the participants indicates that all the participants have professional experience of more than three years in their different categories of practice, namely frontline social workers, social work supervisors and social work policy managers. Those with the longest period of experience are social work policy managers. With respect to the geographical areas where these practitioners operate, the findings show that they are all involved in rendering services in rural areas. The findings also show that half of the participants render services in rural areas only.

From these profiles, it can be concluded that all participants meet the criterion for the study, which was a minimum period of three years of social work practice in their respective categories. It can also be concluded that the perspectives of the participants are reflective of the rural, semiurban and urban experience. The profile of the geographic operation of the participants mirrors the population demographics in relation to the composition of the population of the Eastern Cape Province where the study was conducted.

7.2.2 THEMES

7.2.2.1 THEME 1: CONCEPTUAL UNDERSTANDING OF FINANCIAL VULNERABILITY

The literature review and empirical study are congruent regarding the concept of financial vulnerability even though participants only heard of the concept for the first time during the study. It was essential for the researcher to unpack the topic of the study when introducing the study to the participants so that they could better understand the question about their own conceptual understanding. However, the conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability by the participants highlighted the most pertinent features of financial vulnerability in their own context, which went beyond those that described financial vulnerability in the literature. Three subthemes emerged from the empirical findings with regard to conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability, namely lack of financial knowledge, lack of financial skills and undesirable financial behaviour. The fact that these three aspects emerged as subthemes in the empirical findings and featured prominently in the literature review confirmed that the conceptual understanding of social workers was congruent with the widely accepted conceptualisation of financial vulnerability.

The findings indicate that lack of financial knowledge is the cause of households' financial vulnerability. These findings are in line with the literature as discussed in Chapter 4, namely that consumers of financial services, especially vulnerable groups, exhibit inadequate knowledge of financial instruments and principles. Intrinsic to the lack of financial knowledge, the findings reveal that vulnerable households lack knowledge of differentiating between wants and needs in the way they spend money. This finding resonates with the literature presented in Chapter 4 that indicates that when people have lower levels of financial literacy, they often make unproductive financial decisions by spending their money in less desirable ways. The study reveals that vulnerable households lack knowledge about available financial products and services from formal financial institutions. The lack of knowledge about available financial products and services from formal financial institutions prevents vulnerable households from accessing appropriate financial products and services, which leaves them financially excluded. There is also a lack of knowledge about financial concepts among social workers, which is key in the understanding of financial transactions and communication. These findings are in line with the literature as discussed in Chapter 4 that indicates that a lack of knowledge about financial concepts may reflect a person's minimal knowledge about financial terms such as money, inflation, interest rate, credit and others.

The findings indicate that a lack of financial skills also underpins financial vulnerability among vulnerable households. This finding is congruent with the literature as discussed in Chapter 4 that indicates that a lack of financial skills limits the ability to act on the opportunity provided by financial products and financial institutions and that both the ability and the opportunity to act contribute to personal financial wellbeing and improved life chances. Vulnerable households suffer from a lack of budgeting skills that include making money available to a person and planning how it will be spent over a period of time. The lack of budgeting skills among vulnerable households results in an inability to spend money within the available income and leaves them without any money to afford essentials. Some of the vulnerable households lack personal financial management skills, which are vital for the application of financial concepts in the handling of personal finances. Because of the lack of personal financial management skills, vulnerable households struggle to manage their finances properly.

Some of the vulnerable households also display undesirable financial behaviour. It is confirmed in Chapter 4 that financial behaviour can be the result of emotions, instinct, previous experience and quick decisions aimed at shortcuts and is sometimes aimed at achieving a hedonistic lifestyle. This often results in errors that are manifested through financial mismanagement. Vulnerable households display undesirable financial behaviours through financial mismanagement. The study indicates that some of the vulnerable households are unable to manage their personal finances as a result of a lack financial management skills. Some of the vulnerable households do not have the ability to manage their personal finances and thus do not spend their money judiciously. These vulnerable households exhibit behaviour that is not compatible with financial literacy. This finding confirms the role of psychological characteristics such as procrastination, regret, risk aversion, compulsiveness, generosity, altruism and peer pressure in the financial decisions of households. Apart from the inability to spend money wisely due to a lack of financial skills, some of the vulnerable households mismanage finances as a result of psychological factors independent of their level of financial literacy.

In conclusion, service users' lack of financial knowledge, lack of financial skills and undesirable financial behaviour emerged prominently as factors that informed participants' conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability.

Based on the above discussion on conceptual understanding of financial vulnerability, it is recommended that the DSD provide a conceptual framework for financial capability in order to develop more insight among social workers to enable them to align it to practice. The development of a conceptual framework could be a step in the right direction for developing a theoretical framework for practice guidelines that are currently not in existence.

7.2.2.2 THEME 2: SOURCES OF REFERRAL FOR CASES OF FINANCIAL VULNERABILITY

As stressed in Chapter 6, it is important to establish the sources of referral for the cases of financial vulnerability that receive social workers' attention. The sources of referral for cases of financial vulnerability include self-referrals, next of kin, members of the community, and local authorities and government institutions in the community.

The findings reveal that service users take it upon themselves to approach social workers and, failing to do so, family and community members refer the service users. Some of the cases of financial vulnerability are brought to social workers through informal referrals from service users themselves and family and community members. Family members refer service users to social workers when they have tried everything to assist the service users without any success. This conclusion is in line with the literature presented in Chapter 6 that indicates that some service users access social work services due to external pressure from significant others such as spouses, siblings and so forth. Therefore, the findings indicate an element of responsible citizenship among family and community members that is shown by their ability to seek help when they discover that the financial behaviour of one of their members affects his or her wellbeing.

It has been stated that service users make self-referral by approaching social workers after having acknowledged that they are faced with particular financial challenges and find it difficult to deal with these challenges on their own. Some of the members of the vulnerable households voluntarily approach social workers and are not subjected to any external pressure to participate in intervention plans.

The findings show that members of the community who become concerned about the socioeconomic situation of financially incapable households refer them to social workers. It can be concluded that some of the service users from vulnerable households manage to have access to social work services involuntarily due to external pressure that come from significant others such as community members and neighbours.

The findings further reveal that local authorities and government institutions in communities serve as sources of referral. Government institutions such as clinics, SASSA and the SAPS were reported as important sources of referral for cases of financial vulnerability for the attention of social workers. Local authorities in the form of ward councillors and members of ward committees approach social workers and report cases of financial vulnerability, especially when the economic and social wellbeing of the individual or of the entire household is negatively affected. It can be deduced that there is collaboration between ward councillors and members of ward committees and social workers in relation to the attainment of the psychosocial wellbeing of vulnerable households and that this is manifested through referrals for social work services. It can also be concluded that there is intersectoral collaboration between government institutions and social workers at local level regarding the rendering of services to vulnerable households. The working relationship between social workers and local authorities and government institutions demonstrates the significance of social development partnership in the facilitation of financial capabilities development.

In the light of the above discussion, it is recommended that the DSD and the NPO social welfare sector increase awareness about financial social work services and further strengthen social bonds that exist within families and communities for continuous referral of cases. It is further recommended that the DSD and the NPO social welfare sector continuously embark on awareness-raising campaigns in communities about the role of social workers, specifically in terms of the facilitation of financial capabilities and the services rendered by social workers in order to enhance the self-referral of cases. It is recommended that the DSD strengthen partnerships with local authorities and other government institutions at community level in order to enhance social development partnership focussed on financial social work, specifically in the facilitation of referrals and attainment of effective interventions.

7.2.2.3 THEME 3: CAUSES OF FINANCIAL VULNERABILITY

The causes of financial vulnerability include misuse of social grants, addictive social behaviour, unscrupulous financial lenders, illiteracy and poverty. The findings indicate that social grants have not achieved the intended objective of alleviating poverty as they are misused for nonessentials instead of being spent on basic necessities. The money earned from social grants and wages is spent on social and other personal activities and not for the intended purpose of the income. The findings also show misuse of the CSG by the biological mothers of children who are beneficiaries of the CSG who are not staying with the children.

The use of income on addictive social habits such as alcohol abuse and gambling by service users is another cause of financial vulnerability. The findings show that misuse of social grant money on alcohol and gambling cuts across all four most prevalent types of social grants, namely the OAG, DG, FCG and CSG. The findings have found that there is misuse of social grant money on gambling and alcohol by social grant recipients of the four most prevalent types of social grants, thus OAG, DG, FCG and CSG.

Service users from vulnerable households are excessively indebted to unscrupulous loan sharks and do not have the funds to repay their debt due to irresponsible borrowing as they live beyond their financial means. Loan sharks act outside the provisions of the National Credit Act of 2005 by lending money irresponsibly to vulnerable households through unlawful means. Vulnerable households use loan sharks for accessing financial credit due to difficulty in accessing credit from formal financial institutions. Irresponsible lending often results in excessive borrowing. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that vulnerable households utilise unscrupulous loan sharks for accessing financial credit and that leaves them financially vulnerable due to excessive borrowing.

Furthermore, the findings indicate that illiteracy and low levels of literacy and low income contribute towards financial vulnerability. Illiteracy and low levels of illiteracy make it difficult for vulnerable households to navigate the complex financial systems and transactions. The lack of understanding of monetary terms and the inability to engage in activities that require a solid base of literacy, numeracy and critical thinking limit the capacity of households to make optimal financial decisions and to use the available financial services. The findings show that the insufficient income of vulnerable households makes it difficult for them to become financially capable. As a result of pressure for consumption on their low income, vulnerable households are left with no funds for investments and savings. It can be deduced that vulnerable households are subjected to poverty and remain exposed to financial vulnerability because illiteracy and low levels of literacy serve as barriers to the attainment of financial capability due to the complex nature of financial concepts, products and services in the modern financial sector. It can further be concluded that the low income of vulnerable households makes it difficult for them to explore the available avenues such as savings and investments for attaining financial capability as their income can only sustain consumption for basic necessities.

Unstable marriages within households are an additional cause of financial vulnerability as this instability affects the management of household finances. The breakdown in communicating about finances and the lack of a household financial plan driven by a lack of mutual objectives contribute towards household financial instability. Marital conflicts are often at the centre of household financial instability. This instability occurs whether the source of marital conflict is financially related or emanates from psychological factors. Financial instability is experienced due to the breakdown of communication including communication about personal and household finances. Based on these findings, it is concluded that vulnerable households are characterised by unstable marital and family relationships and experience negative household financial wellbeing; consequently, they remain exposed to financial vulnerability.

Based on the above discussion, it is recommended that the DSD in collaboration with SASSA and the NPO social welfare sector develop educational programmes targeting communities with the purpose of raising the levels of awareness of social grants misuse and the purpose of social grants. The DSD in collaboration with the NPO social welfare sector and the Eastern Cape Gambling Board should roll out prevention programmes against alcohol abuse and involvement in gambling activities, targeting social grant recipients. It is recommended that the DSD in collaboration with SASSA, financial services institutions and the NPO social welfare sector initiate financial literacy programmes to educate vulnerable households about issues pertaining to personal finances. Furthermore, it is recommended that the DSD and SASSA work in collaboration with the National Credit Regulator regarding the prohibition of unlawful and irresponsible lending by loan sharks to vulnerable households. The DSD should work specifically in collaboration with other relevant national departments such as the Department of Small Businesses, Trade and Industry and provincial departments such as Rural Development and Agrarian Reform, Economic Development and Environmental Affairs, Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs and relevant state agencies responsible for creation of economic opportunities. Lastly, it is recommended that the DSD in collaboration with the NPO social welfare sector enhance the implementation of the current marriage and family preservation programmes with a specific focus on the facilitation of financial capabilities.

7.2.2.4 THEME 4: SOCIAL WORKERS' INTERVENTIONS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES

The findings show how social workers have intervened in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households for them to attain financial wellbeing. The roles of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development include those of advisor, advocate, educator, enabler and negotiator.

In the role of advisor, social workers provide advice on financial products, efficient and effective use of income and exploration of alternative sources of income, which are the categories under this subtheme. The study reveals that due to a lack of knowledge about financial products, service users are advised by social workers about available financial products offered by both the formal and informal financial services institutions and are also advised about how to choose the best financial product for their financial circumstances. The advisory counselling provided by social workers focuses on financial management of income regardless of how big or small for the benefit of the entire household and is aimed at providing guidance on a complex or unfamiliar situation. Advisory counselling helps those who are truly open to guidance to develop better solutions for problems than they would not have been able to find on their own. The advice provided by social workers also seeks to improve low income and mitigate the negative impact of poverty. The advice by social workers further seeks to motivate service users to become economically active and not depend on social grants alone so that they can be exposed to other economic opportunities available within the formal and informal economic sectors in communities. The findings indicate that social workers provide advice to vulnerable households on other economic opportunities available within the formal and informal economic sectors in communities in order to complement low income and to mitigate the negative impact of poverty. From the above discussion, it can be concluded that social workers provide advice to vulnerable households on efficient and effective financial management of the available household income, available economic opportunities and financial products offered by formal and informal financial services institutions so that they can make informed decisions in choosing financial products.

The study shows that vulnerable households are educated by social workers through creating awareness about the objectives of social grants and on how to ensure that they are utilised for the intended goals in order to yield optimum benefit for the beneficiaries for their sustainable psychosocial and financial wellbeing. The study findings indicate that social workers teach service users, especially low-income earners, about basic financial concepts and their application in the financial sector, including budgeting, savings and credit. The educator's role in social work includes developing and teaching skills to service users by providing relevant information, giving advice, identifying and modelling alternative behaviour patterns and their consequences, imparting problem-solving techniques and clarifying perceptions. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that social workers educate vulnerable households on various issues pertaining to finances in order to increase financial knowledge and awareness about the objectives of social grants and to ensure that they are utilised for the intended goals in order to yield optimum benefit. Furthermore, it can be concluded that social workers educate vulnerable households about financial concepts and their application in the financial sector and in their own lives.

The study reveals that through the role of advocacy by social workers, vulnerable social grant beneficiaries are protected against abuse by caregivers, procurators and unscrupulous loan sharks. Exploitation of DG beneficiaries by procurators and carers and by loan sharks are the categories under this theme. Advocacy against exploitation of the DG is implemented through recommendations to SASSA regarding the appointment of procurators. Advocacy by social workers is also done through community outreach programmes that are aimed at raising awareness of the abuse of social grants by carers and procurators. Social workers also play an advocacy role by acting on behalf of service users when loan sharks use illegal mechanisms to recover money owed to them. Social workers negotiate repayments on behalf of service users, or when the loan sharks do not co-operate, service users are referred by social workers to police stations or social workers report the loan sharks on the behalf of the service users so that the police can play their role in enforcement of the law. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that through the advocacy role by social workers, vulnerable social grant beneficiaries are protected against financial exploitation by caregivers, procurators and unscrupulous loan sharks.

The role of enabler is performed by social workers through monitoring of financial capability action plans and provision of support in the implementation of service users' financial capability action plans. Through the enabling role by social workers in monitoring the implementation of actions that have been agreed upon for implementation at the planning stage, service users are expected to provide evidence for any task performed in pursuit of financial capability. Social workers' role in the monitoring and implementation of action plans is to convey hope, reduce resistance and ambivalence, recognise and manage feelings, identify and support personal strengths and social assets, break down problems into parts that can be solved more readily and maintain a focus on goals and the means of achieving them. Based on these findings, it can be deduced that social workers enable vulnerable households to become financially capable by monitoring the implementation of financial capability action plans that are aimed at attaining financial capability.

Social workers play the role of negotiator by negotiating with credit providers, including loan sharks and grocery shop owners, for affordable repayment of debt. Social workers approach the money lenders and shop owners and negotiate on behalf of service users who experience financial difficulties for the repayment of debt in instalments until the debt is paid off. Money lenders and shop owners are advised by social workers not to grant any form of credit to service users during the period of debt repayment. The conclusion is that social workers negotiate repayment of debt on behalf of vulnerable households for whom it is difficult to adhere to the terms of payment agreed on with credit providers.

The role performed by social workers in the facilitation of financial capabilities is congruent with the theoretical undergirding of the capability approach in that it provides a conceptual framework that considers financial inclusion in terms of wellbeing and agency by exploring the ways in which people manage their money and wider resources and how they relate to their goals for wellbeing and agency.

In the light of the above discussion, it is recommended that the DSD develop a practice manual that stipulates and clearly defines the roles of social workers and specific parameters for these roles when facilitating financial capabilities development. The practice guidelines must become an integral part of the theoretical toolbox that informs social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development.

7.2.2.5 THEME 5: SUCCESSFULNESS AND EFFECTIVENESS OF SOCIAL WORKERS' INTERVENTIONS

The success of the interventions depends on the complete implementation of the intervention plans. The effectiveness of the social workers' intervention is determined by whether the intervention plans yielded the desired outcomes of the intended goals. Co-operation and improvement in the psychosocial and financial circumstances of service users are the major determinants of success and effectiveness respectively. The success of the intervention plans is made possible by co-operation of service users and relevant stakeholders. The findings show that service users, especially voluntary service users, co-operate throughout the processes of implementing intervention plans. Co-operation is also experienced from those referred by significant others, and this is made possible by the social work practice skills applied during the processes of engagement and intervention plan implementation. There is co-operation in the implementation of social workers' interventions by voluntary service users and by some involuntary service users. There is also co-operation in the implementation of social workers' interventions by different stakeholders who work in collaboration with social workers. The findings show that co-operation of stakeholders in the form of government institutions and local authorities through their different roles starts with the engagement process and continues throughout the implementation of the intervention processes. The conclusion is that the success of social workers' interventions is made possible by a combination of factors, namely co-operation by service users and relevant stakeholders and social work practice skills applied during the course of intervention.

Social workers' interventions in the facilitating of financial capabilities have yielded positive results for vulnerable households in the form of improvements in their psychosocial and financial situations. These benefits are realised within a short period, and other benefits can be realised by both service users and social workers on a long-term basis. The immediate benefit for vulnerable households as a result of social workers' interventions is affordability of basic necessities by the households, which includes the ability to buy food and the ability of the income earner to face financial emergencies. Other benefits are realised through improvement in the social circumstances of children who are beneficiaries of the CSG and FCG and in the psychological wellbeing of income earners and household members who are faced with financial and economic difficulties. The long-term benefits are realised when social workers' interventions contribute towards increased and permanent financial and economic wellbeing of households. The long-term benefit is mostly demonstrated in the management of the FCG whereby there is consistency in savings for utilisation in future. The FCG savings contribute towards funding education to attain qualifications that enable children to secure better paying jobs and professions, which in turn will assist them in future in improving the social and economic conditions of the households at large.

The conclusion indicates that social workers' interventions yield immediate benefits for vulnerable households through affordability of basic necessities and improvement in the social circumstances of social grant beneficiaries. The long-term benefits of social workers' interventions for vulnerable households are realised through increased and permanent financial and economic wellbeing of households.

Based on the above discussion and conclusions, it is recommended that the DSD develop a monitoring and evaluation framework that will serve as a yardstick for scientific measurement of the successfulness and effectiveness of social workers' interventions in relation to both short-term and long-term benefits. The development of a monitoring and evaluation framework may also assist in facilitating ongoing improvements in the intervention strategies that are applied. This approach is also based on a review of living as a combination of various doings and beings with quality of life to be assessed in terms of the capability to achieve valuable functioning (compare Clarke, 2006; Ingrid, 2003; Sen, 1989; 2003). The successfulness and effectiveness of social workers' intervention have demonstrated that service users have managed to shift from the means of living such as income to the actual opportunities that they have, namely their functioning and capabilities. Service users have been able to realise their functioning by being able to manage their finances and have been able to realise their capabilities through the achievement of financial wellbeing and being able to afford things that they have not been able to afford in the past.

7.2.2.6 THEME 6: CHALLENGES FACED BY SOCIAL WORKERS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT

The challenges faced by social workers when facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households include lack of co-operation by service users**,** lack of financial skills and knowledge, and lack of policy and practice guidelines.

The findings show that the lack of co-operation by service users is characterised by abuse of alcohol and failure to implement the activities agreed upon as part of the intervention plan with social workers. The findings show that abuse of alcohol negatively affects service users in performing tasks in the implementation of intervention plans. Therefore, alcohol abuse is the cause of service users' being unable to reach the termination stage of their working relationship with social workers. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that alcohol abuse by service users hampers the successfulness and effectiveness of social workers' interventions in the facilitation of financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

Nonadherence to financial capability action plans often occurs among nonvoluntary service users through their inability to honour dates for appointments with social workers and through disregarding any communication from social workers concerning their obligatory tasks. Sometimes, they fail dismally to perform any of the expected roles despite mutual agreement with social workers. Therefore, the conclusion is that there is nonadherence to the implementation of financial capability action plans especially by nonvoluntary service users due to lack of commitment to the intervention plans.

The study findings also show a lack of appropriate practice skills that social workers ought to apply when facilitating financial capabilities development and knowledge of financial management. The findings show that social workers do not have the necessary clearly defined intervention skills and intervention approaches when facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. The gross inadequacy in the intervention process which is due to lack of appropriate intervention skills poses a challenge for the efficiency and effectiveness of social workers' interventions

The findings show that social workers do not have any knowledge of financial management and financial capability before starting to practise as social workers. It has been stated that professional social work training does not encompass these two aspects. None of the social workers have received any posttraining qualification or in-service training on these two aspects. These findings lead to the conclusion that social workers do not acquire theoretical knowledge of financial management and financial capability as part of their professional training and consequently they are inadequately equipped to intervene in cases of financial vulnerability.

The lack of practice and policy guidelines remains a challenge for social workers in their role of facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households. Practice and policy guidelines are needed to inform and determine the successfulness and effectiveness of social work interventions. The findings show that social workers use their own discretion without any practice guidelines when dealing with cases of financial vulnerability. Social workers apply social work skills and intervention techniques without any guidance on the skills and techniques that are most suitable when working with service users in facilitating their financial capabilities development. The lack of policy guidelines makes it difficult to assess, monitor and evaluate social work interventions due to the lack of a framework with a set of procedures that ought to be followed during intervention processes in pursuit of broader social policy objectives. Therefore, it can be concluded that there are no practice and policy guidelines that guide the interventions of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development and this makes it difficult to apply evidence-based evaluations of social workers' interventions. Furthermore, it can be concluded that because there are no policy guidelines that inform social workers' interventions, social work practice interventions in facilitating financial capabilities development have no influence on the policy development process to be ratified at a higher level.

Based on the above discussion and conclusions, it is recommended that the DSD capacitate social workers by promoting training on intervention skills and techniques in dealing with involuntary service users. Some of the recommendations for themes 2 and 5 regarding educational programmes for ending child abuse and strengthening social development partnerships could also serve as recommendations for the conclusions under this theme.

7.2.2.7 THEME 7: RELEVANCE OF THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT

The role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development is relevant due to the centrality of financial challenges in the lives of service users and the inherent social work professional skills in dealing with human beings and their social environment. The centrality of financial challenges is embedded in the interconnection between social and financial challenges and the interconnection between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing. The findings suggest that social and financial challenges are inextricably linked, and this implies that financial challenges encompass social challenges. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that the role played by social workers in the facilitation of financial capabilities development is relevant because financial challenges are an integral part of the social challenges faced by individuals, families and communities.

The findings indicate that because of the relationship between financial wellbeing and psychological wellbeing, the involvement of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development is crucial as it enhances the psychosocial wellbeing of vulnerable households. Based on this finding, it can be deduced that the role played by social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development is relevant because it contributes towards financial wellbeing, which culminates in psychosocial wellbeing.

The findings show that social work skills play an important part in the facilitation of financial capabilities development as they enable social workers to interact with service users throughout all the phases of the intervention process. The social work skills that have been identified include empathy, communication, active listening and persuasion.

The findings indicate that the empathy skills applied by social workers help service users to develop more confidence in social workers because they understand how the service users feel about their situation. The application of empathy skills is crucial in the engagement phase when service users, especially nonvoluntary service users, are likely to have feelings of ambivalence about seeing social workers. The conclusion is that social workers apply empathy skills in their interaction with service users in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households especially during the engagement phase.

The findings also show that social workers apply active listening skills as a way of paying detailed attention to everything that service users say, including nonverbal communication. Active listening enables social workers to grasp the information expressed by service users and rephrase it in its proper context, especially for those who find it difficult to articulate their financial problems clearly through using appropriate and correct financial concepts. Therefore, it can be concluded that social workers apply active listening skills during their interaction with service users in facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

The findings show that social workers intervene in cases of financial vulnerability by utilising communication skills across diverse types of financial capability among service users and in different phases of intervention processes. Communication skills play a major role in enhancing the interaction between social workers and service users during the process of working towards achieving the goals of the intervention plan. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that social workers apply communication skills across diverse forms of financial vulnerability during their interaction with service users in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

The findings indicate that social workers persuade service users by motivating them to change from undesirable to desirable behaviour. It is reported that social workers utilise techniques that facilitate persuasion of service users to refrain from undesirable behaviour and tendencies that underpin financial vulnerability in order to achieve financial wellbeing.

The recommendations suggested regarding the findings under Theme 8 are also applicable to the findings under this theme as the infusion of social work skills and knowledge with financial capability could be part of the capacitation of social workers.

Specific vital microskills that should be included in any training on financial capability development are empathy, communication, active listening and persuasion.

7.2.2.8 THEME 8: CAPACITATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS

The findings propose capacitation of social workers through training and reorientation of social workers on financial capability and development of policy and practice guidelines. Because of the role played by the social work profession, the findings suggest training and reorientation of social workers on facilitation of financial capabilities development through inclusion of financial capability in the social work curriculum and in-service training. The findings are congruent with the literature in Chapter 4 that shows that there is a need for student social workers to be equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge by ensuring that financial capability is part of social work education, and it is suggested that the social work curriculum should include training on basic financial literacy. The findings are also in support of the literature presented in chapters 4 and 6 that supports the need for professional development based on training for practising social workers in order to bridge the gap that exists between knowledge and skills acquired through professional training and role expectations in practice within the area of financial capabilities development. In the light of the lack of policy and practice guidelines for facilitation of financial capabilities development by social workers, the findings suggest the development of such policy and practice guidelines. The findings furthermore indicate the need for policy and practice guidelines to serve as a framework that will develop and enhance the capacity of social workers for effective role in the facilitation of financial capabilities development.

It can be concluded that the inclusion of financial capability in the social work curriculum needs greater attention for social workers to possess the necessary financial capability skills and knowledge. There is a gap between the knowledge and skills acquired through professional training and the skills and knowledge required in facilitation of financial capabilities development. There is also a need for the development of a framework for practice and policy guidelines to develop and enhance the capacity of social workers so that they can become effective in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households.

It is recommended that the SACSSP in partnership with institutions of higher learning work towards development of a social work curriculum that will encompass knowledge of financial literacy, fundamental knowledge of the field of economics, knowledge of mainstream financial institutions and informal financial service institutions and knowledge of relevant social work practice interventions in facilitating financial capabilities development. It is further recommended that the DSD in partnership with institutions of higher learning work towards infusing social work skills and knowledge with financial capabilities development for practising social workers. Lastly, it is recommended that the DSD and institutions of higher learning capacitate social workers through in-service training and continued education on financial literacy and relevant social work practice interventions on the facilitation of financial capabilities development.

7.3 FURTHER RESEARCH

In the light of the findings of the study on the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development, the following areas have been identified for further research:

- Since there is limited literature on financial capability that reflects the socioeconomic context of South Africa and developing economies, there is a need for further research on the application of financial capability theories in South Africa in order to expand the literature on the findings derived from the experiences of developing economies.
- Further research could be undertaken on the experiences of service users with regard to social work services that they have received on facilitation of financial capabilities development.
- The study found that the lack of financial literacy among services users was one of the causes of financial vulnerability. A study could be undertaken to determine the appropriate financial literacy interventions for social grant recipients as most of them are semiliterate or illiterate.
- A study could be undertaken to examine the accessibility and appropriateness of the current financial literacy interventions to service users, especially those who are poor, semiliterate and illiterate.

- Another area that could be considered for future research is the exploration of specific social work theoretical and practice knowledge, skills, values, methods, techniques and resources that may be necessary in the facilitation of financial capabilities development.
- The key recommendation regarding this study is that the development of a curriculum for social work students and practitioners alike on the facilitation of financial capabilities development (financial social work) is vital within the context of South Africa's social development approach towards social work service delivery.

7.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The facilitation of financial capabilities development is one of the roles that social workers play in their daily implementation of generic social work. However, this role remains unacknowledged and unnoticed by those responsible for social welfare planning and social work education. This is confirmed by the absence of performance indicators that relate to financial capability in DSD plans and also noninclusion in the social work curriculum in South Africa. Consequently, financial capabilities development is implemented by social workers without any policy and practice guidelines. This is despite the high levels of financial vulnerability among vulnerable households, especially social grant recipients who rely on social work services, and the country's focus on social development as a welfare approach. Based on the correlation between financial wellbeing and psychosocial wellbeing, the role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development is an essential part of the social work profession.

Despite the limitations highlighted above, there were also some successes that have shown that financial capabilities development of vulnerable households by social workers contributes towards the goals of social development. The participant social workers' interventions have shown that they indeed endeavour to promote social and economic inclusion through enhancing of personal functioning and strengthening of human capital, wellbeing and livelihood capabilities of individuals, groups and communities, thus contributing to social justice and social development.

REFERENCES

Abdu, K.A., Raheem, S.H. & Worth, S. 2011. Household food security in South Africa: Evaluating extension's paradigm relative to the current food security and development *goals. SAfr. Tydskr.LAndbouvoorl.sAfr.J. Agric.Ext*., 39(2):91–103.

Abel, M. 2013. *United labour supply effects of cash transfer programmes: Evidence from South Africa's old age pension*. SALDRU working paper no. 114. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Adato, M. & Basset, L. 2012. *Social protection and cash transfers to strengthen families affected by HIV*. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute.

Aidoo, R., Mensah, J.O. & Tuffour, T. 2013. *Determinants of household food security in the Sekyere-afram plains district of Ghana*. Annual International Interdisciplinary Conference: 514-521.

Aliber, M. 2009. *Exploring Statistics South Africa national household surveys as sources of information about food security and subsistence agriculture*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Alketbi, R. 2017. Successful strategy for working with involuntary clients: A systematic review. *Journal of Contemporary Scientific Research*, 1(6): 1-5.

Allen, E. Demirguc-Kunt, A., Klapper, L. & Peria, M.S.M. 2016. The Foundation of Financial Inclusion: Understanding Ownership and Use of Formal Accounts. *Journal of Financial Intermediation*, 27(c): 1-30.

Altman, M. 2003. *Household and unemployment: The state of unemployment and employment in South Africa.* The State of the Nation 2003-2004.

Altman, M., Hart, J. & Jacobs, P. 2009. *Food security in South Africa*. Pretoria: Centre for Poverty Employment and Growth, Human Sciences Research Council.

Amaoteng, A.Y. & Heaton, T.B. 2007. *Families and households in post-apartheid South Africa: socio-demographic perspectives*. Pretoria: Human Science Research Council.

Amaza, P., Abdoulaye, T., Kwaghe, P. & Tegharu, A. 2009. *Changes in household food security and poverty status in PROSAB area of Southern Borno State, Nigeria*. International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth.

Ambrosino, R., Heffernan, J., Shuttlesworth, G. & Ambrosino, R. 2012. *Social work and social welfare*: An Introduction. 4th Ed. Canada. Brooks/Cole.

American Association for marriage and family therapy. 2014. *Financial Distress and the Family.*

Anderloni, L., Bayot, B., Błędowski, P., Iwanicz-Drozdowska, M. & Kempson, E. 2008. *Financial services provisions and prevention of financial exclusion*. Brussels: European Commission.

Anema, A., Vogenthaler, N., Frongillo, E.A. Kadiyala, S. & Weiser, S.D. 2009. *Food insecurity and HIV/AIDS: Current knowledge, Gaps and Research Priorities.* Current HIV/AIDS Reports, 6(4): 224-231.

Anfara, V.A., Brown, K.M. & Mangoire, T.L. 2002. Qualitative research on stage: Making the research process more public. *Educational Researcher*, 31(7):28–38.

Aportela, F. 1999. *Effects of Financial Access on savings by Low-Income People*. Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Mimeo.

Ardington, C., Barninghausen, T., Case, A. & Menendez, A. 2013. *Social protection and labour market outcomes of youth in South Africa.* SALDRU working paper no. 96. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Ardington, C., Case, A. & Hosegood, V. 2009. Labour supply responses to large social transfers: Longitudinal evidence from South Africa. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 1(1):22–24.

Ardington, C., Case, A., Islan, M., Larn, D., Leibbrandt, M., Menendez, A. & Oligiati, A. 2010. The impact of aids on intergenerational support in South Africa: Evidence from the Cape Area Panel Study. *Research on Aging*, 34(1):97–121.

Ardington, E. & Lund, F. 1995. Pensions and development: Social security as complementary to programmes of reconstruction and development. *Development Southern Africa,* 12(4):557–577.

Arnold, J. & Rhyne, E. 2016. *A change in behaviour: Innovations in financial capability.* Accion: Centre for Financial Inclusion.

Aron, J. & Muellbauer, J. 2000. Personal and corporate saving in South Africa. *The World Bank Economic Review,* 14(3): 509-544.

Association for Savings and Investments South Africa. 2019.

Atkinson, A. & Kempson, E. 2008. *Measuring and improving financial capability: Designing an approach for Kenya.* Bristol: Personal Finance Research Centre, University of Bristol.

Atkinson, A., Mckay, S., Kempson, A. & Callard, S. 2006. *The baseline survey of financial capability in the United Kingdom.* Financial Service Authority.

Atkinson, D. 2014. Rural-Urban Linkages: *South Africa Case Study. Working Paper Series, No 125. Working Group. Development with Territorial Cohesion. Territorial Cohesion for Development Programme*. Rimisip, Santiago, Chile.

Attanario, O., Maro, V., Lechena, V. & Phillips, D. 2013. Welfare consequences of food price increases: Evidence from rural Mexico*. Journal of Development Economics*, 104(4):136–151

Babbie, E. 2010. *The practice of social research*. Twelfth edition. Belmont, MA: Wadsworth

Babbie, E. 2011. *Introduction to social research*. Fifth edition. Belmont, MA: Wadsworth.

Bachas, P., Gertler, P., Higgins, S. & Seira, E. 2016. *Banking on Trust: How Debit Card Enable the Poor to Save More.*

Bachelder, E., Alexander, E.K., Yu, L., Bellows, C., Stanton, J., Rumble, J. & Barr, M.S. 2008. *Banks efforts to serve the unbanked and underbanked for the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation* (Final Report). Bostom, MA: Dove Consulting.

Bachmans, S.S. & Gonyea, J.G. 2012. Improving healthcare delivery to ageing adults with disabilities: Social work with dual eligible in a climate of health care. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, 55(2):191–207.

Bandura, A. 1997. *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. WH Freeman/Times Books/Henry Holt & Co.

Banking Association of South Africa. 2019.

Barbour, K.S. 2001. Checklist for improving rigour in qualitative research: A care of the tail wagging the dog. *British Medical Journal (Clinical Research Edition)*, 322:1115–1117.

Barczyk, A.N. & Linconve, J.A. 2010. Cash and counselling: A model for self-directed cash programmes to empower individuals with serious mental illnesses. *Social Work in Mental Health*, 8(3):209–224.

Barker, R. 1995. *The Social work dictionary*. Third edition. Washington DC: National Association of Social Workers Press.

Bariantos, A. & Llyod-Sharlock, P. 2002. *Non-contribution pensions and social protection.* Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Barnes, R. & Gillingham, R. 1984. Demographic effects in demand analysis: Estimation of the quadratic expenditure system using micro data. *The Review of Economics and Statistics,* 66:591–601.

Barrientos, A. 2003. *Non-contributory pensions and poverty prevention*. A comparative study of Brazil and South Africa. Help Age International.

Barr, M. 2008. *Financial Services, Savings and Borrowing Among Low and Moderate-Income Households: Evidence from the Detroit Area Household Financial Services Survey.*

Barsky, A. 2020. Ethics alive, respect in social work advocacy. *The New Social Worker: The Social Work Career Magazine*, 4th April. Retrieved from URL [Accessed 9 April 2020].

Bauer, J.W., Brawn, B. & Olson, P.D. 2005. Welfare to Well-being: Framework for Research Education and Outreach. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 34(1):62-51

Baumaan, T. 2001. *Micro-finance and poverty alleviation in South Africa.* Bay Research and Consultancy Services.

Baurbour, R. 2008. *Introducing qualitative research: A student guide to the craft of doing qualitative research.* London: Sage.

Beesley, P., Watts, M. & Harnison, M. 2018. *Developing your communication skills in social work.* London: Sage.

Bel, S. & Eberlein, J. 2019. *Why financial literacy matters for development*. Observer. Organisation for Economic Development and Development
www.oecd.org.

Berg, B.L. 2004. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Bergdall, T.D. 2000. Monitoring and evaluation of projects to promote self-reliant and participatory development within rural communities. University of Wales. Swansea. (PhD Dissertation).

Bertram, C. & Christiansen, I. 2014. *Understanding research: An introduction to reading research.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Bhattacherjee, A. 2012. *Social science research: Principles, methods and practice.* Second edition. Tampa, Florida: University of South Florida.

Birkenmaier, J., Callahan, C., Frey, J.J. & Sherraden, M. 2017. Social workers are partners in professional financial practice: The professionalising field of financial counselling and coaching. In J. Mintz (ed.). *A journal of essays from expert perspectives in the field.* New York: Cities for Financial Empowerment Fund, 11-13.

Birkenmaier, J. & Curley, J. 2009. Financial credit: Social workers' role in empowering low-income families. *Journal of Community Practice*, 17(3):251–268.

Birkenmaier, J., Loke, V. & Hagemen, S.A. 2016. Are graduating students ready for financial aspects of social work practice? *Journal of Teaching in Social Work,* 36(5):519–536.

Birkenmaier, J., Sherraden, M. & Curley, J.C. (Eds.). 2013. *Financial capability and asset development: Research, education and practice.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Birkenmaier, J., Sherraden, M., Frey, J.J., Callahan, C.L. & Santiago, A.M. 2016. Financial capability and asset building: Building evidence for community practice. *Journal of Community Practice*, 24(14):357–336.

Biyase, M. & Fisher, B. 2007. Determinants of access to formal credit by the poor households in South Africa*. Oeconomica, 62(1):* 50-60.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C. & Sithole, S.E. 2013. *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African perspective.* Fifth edition. Cape Town: Juta.

Bowling, A., Seetai, S., Morris, R. & Ebrahim, S. 2007. Quality of life among older people with poor purchasing: The influence of perceived control of life. *Age and Ageing*, 36(3):310–315.

Brown, C. & Robinson, L. 2016. *Breaking the cycle: From poverty to financial security for all.* PolicyLink.

Brenes-Canacho, G. 2011. Favourable changes in economic well-being and self-rated health among the elderly. *Social Science & Medicine,* 72(8): 1228-1323.

Burger, R. & Christian, C. 2018. Access to healthcare in post-apartheid South Africa: Availability, affordability and acceptability. *Health Economic, Policy and Law, 15(1):* 1–13.

Business Tech. 2017. *Gambling revenues in South Africa show modest increase.*

Business Tech. 2019. *This is how much money the poorest are living on each month in South Africa*. 01 August 2019.

Buzzelli, C.A. 2015. The capabilities approach: Rethinking agency, freedom, and capital in early education. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood,* 16(3): 203–213.

Callahan, C. 2009. *What is financial social work?* Maryland, New York: Maryland CASH Campaign.

Capuano, A. & Ramsay I. 2011. *Financial literacy and financial behaviour*. Financial Literacy Project, Melbourne Law School, The University of Melbourne. Retrieved from http://cclsv.law.unitmelb.edu.au/go/centre/activities/research/financial literacyproject//index.cfm [Accessed 09 April 2019].

Capuano, A.R. 2016. *What causes suboptimal literacy and financial behaviour? An explanation of financial literacy, social influence and behavioural economics*. Financial Literacy Project. Melbourne: University of Melbourne Legal Studies Research Paper.

Carlson, J.A. 2010. Avoiding traps in member checking. *The Qualitative Report,* 15(5):1102–1113.

Carter, M. & May, J. 2001. One kind of freedom's poverty dynamic in post-apartheid South Africa. *World Development*, 29(12):1987–2006.

Caskey, J.P. 2005. "Reaching out to the Unbanked" In Sherraden. *Inclusion in the American Dream: Assets, Poverty and Public Policy*. Oxford University Press, 81-92 http://works.suarthmore.edu/fac-economics/238

Case, A. 2004. Does money protect health status? Evidence from South African pensions. In D.A. Wise (Ed.) *Perspectives on the economics of aging*: 287-305. University of Chicago.

Case, A. & Deaton, A. 1996. *Large cash transfer for the elderly in South Africa*. Cambridge: Working Paper No 53721. Economics of Aging, Public Economics.

Case, A. & Deaton, A. 1998. Large cash transfers to the elderly in South Africa. *Economic Journal,* 108:1330–1363.

Centre for Financial Social Work. 2019*. Financial social work: What it is, what it does, why it matters in all economic times.* School of Social Work, University of Maryland. Centre for Financial Inclusion.

Chagunda, C.A. 2006. '*An outline and brief analysis of ASGISA'*. Briefing Paper, No 156, South African Catholic Bishops' Conference: Parliamentary Liaison Office.

Chambers, R. 1994. The origins and practices of participatory rural appraisal. *World Development*, 22(7):953–969.

Chambers, R. 1997. *Whose Reality Counts: Putting the First Last.* Intermediate Technology Publication.

Chambers, R. 2006. *What is poverty? Who asks? Who answers?* In *Poverty in focus: What is poverty? Concepts and measures*. New York: International Poverty Centre, UNDP, 3-4.

Chetty, K.S. 2007. *Equity promoting health care policies in South Africa: A literature review commissioned by Health Systems Knowledge Networks*. New York: WHO Commission on the Social Determinants of Health.

Chitiga, M., Mabungu, R., Fotana, I., Abidoye, B. & Mbanda, V. 2014. *Assessing the general equilibrium effect on social grants in South Africa*. Submission for 2015/16 Division of Revenue.

Chiumia, S & Van Vyk A. 2015. *Has South lost R700 billions to corruption since 94*? Africa Check. 30 September 2015.

Cingolin, J. 1984. Social conflict perspective on work with involuntary clients*. Social Work,* 29(5):442–446.

Clarke, D.A. 2006. *The capability approach: Its development, critiques and recent advances.* New York: Global Poverty Research Group.

Cloete, F. 2000. *Sustainable public services delivery: Lessons from South East Asia*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Cole, S., Paulson, A. & Shastry, G.K. 2013. *"Smart money": The effect of education on financial outcomes*. Manchester, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School.

Collins, D. & Morduch, J. 2010. *Reimagining the unbanked: Perspectives from South Africa.* Insigths from the financial management of low-income households.

Collins, D., Morduch, J., Rutherford, S. & Ruthven, O. 2010. *Portfolios of the poor: How the world's poor live on $2 a day*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Collins, D., Zollmann, J. & Maina, B. 2008. F*inancial capability in Kenya: Nairob, Kenya*. FSD, Kenya.

Collins, J.M. & Birkenmaier, J. 2013. Building the capacity of social workers to enhance financial capability and asset development. In J. Birkenmaier, M. Sherraden & J. Curley (eds.). *Financial capability and asset development: Research, education, policy and practice.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 302–322.

Consumer Financial Protection Burea. 2017. Financial exclusion and predatory practices.

Cooney, R. 2010. Workplace Training in a Deregulated Training System: Experiences from Australia's automative industry: *Economic and Industrial Democracy* 31(3): 389-403

Corbin, J. & Strauss, A. 2008. *Basic of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Third edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Corey, G., Corey, M.S. & Callanan, P. 1993. *Issues and ethics in the helping professions.* Pacific Groove, CA: Brookes/Cole.

Crocker, D.A. 2008. *Agency, functioning and capabilities. London: Cambridge University Press; 2008 Jul 10.*

Crocker. D.A. & Robeyns, I. 2009. *Capability and Agency*. Cambridge University Press, University of Maryland, 60-69. https://doi.org/10/1017/CB09780511.005

Crotty, A. 2019. WELFARE: Helping to break the poverty cycle. *Financial Mail.* 21 February.

Crotty, M. 2003. *The foundation of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process.* London: Sage.

Cullinan, K. 2018. Eastern Cape poverty – the state is also captured by incompetence. *Daily Maverick*, 05 February. Retrieved from dailymaverick.zo.za/article/2018-0205.health-e-news-eastern-capepoverty.the-state-also-captured-by-incompetence/ [Accessed 30 August 2018].

Curtin, M. & Fossey, E. 2007. Appraising the trustworthiness of qualitative studies: Guidelines for occupational therapists. *Australian Occupational Therapy Journal*, 54:88–94.

Dallimore, A. & Mgimet, M. 2003. *Democratic banking in the new South Africa: Challenging contemporary banking practice at grass roots*. Unpublished report. Durban: Development Research Africa.

Dasgupta, P. & Weale, M. 1992. On measuring the equality of life. *World Development*, 20(1): 119-131.

Deacon, R.E. & Firebaugh, F.M. 1988. *Family resource management: Principles and applications.* Toronto: Allyn & Bacon.

De Jong, P. & Berg, I.K. 2001. Co-constructing Co-operation with mandated clients. *Social Work*, 46(4):361-374.

Delany, A. & Storchi, S. 2012. Savings and credit groups and small enterprise development: Understanding strategies and opportunities to promote livelihoods strategies and small enterprises development, including agriculture, through savings groups in a rural setting. Paper presented at Towards Carneige 111, University of Cape Town, 3–7 September.

Delport, C.S.L., Fouche, C.B. & Schurink, W. 2011. Theory and literature in qualitative research. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 297-306.

Delport, C.S.L. & De Vos, A.S. 2011. Professional research and professional practice. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 45-60.

Demirguc-Kunt, A & Klapper, L. 2013. Meaning Financial Inclusion: Explaining Variation in Use of Financial Services Across and Within Countries. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity* (1): 279-342

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. 2003. Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (eds.). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials.* Second edition. London, CA: Sage, 1-44.

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.). 2008*. Strategies of qualitative inquiry*. Third edtion. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Department of Agriculture and Land Reform. 2002. *Integrated food security strategy for South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Agriculture and Land Reform. 2009. *Comprehensive Rural Development Programme*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Basic Education). 1998a. *The national norms and standards for school funding.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Basic Education). 1998b. *The exemption of parents from payment of school fees regulations.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs. 2000a. *Integrated sustainable rural development strategy*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs. 2000b. *Urban renewal programme for South Africa:* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs. 2005. *National framework for municipal indigent policies.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Economic Development. 1996. *Growth, employment, and redistribution strategy*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Economic Development. 2003. *Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Strategy. Pretoria*: Government Printers.

Department of Economic Development. 2011. *The New Growth Path*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Economic Development. 2014. *Infrastructure Decelopment Plan*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Finance. 1996. *Growth Employment and Redistribution*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Education. 1994. The Primary School Nutrition programme. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Health. 1994. *Integrated Nutrition Programme*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Higher Education and Training. 2001. *National skills development strategy*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Higher Education and Training. 2016. *National Student Financial Aid Scheme.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Labour. 2003. *National Skills Development Strategy*. Pretoria: Government Printers

Department of Labour. 2008. *Learnsership Programme.* Pretoria: Government Printers

Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation. 2016. *The National Development Plan 2030.* Pretoria: Government Printers

Department of Public Works. 2004*. Expanded Public Works Programme.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Social Development). 2016. *Report on the review of the White Paper of 1997.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Department of Social Department. 2017.

Department of Trade and Industry. 2004. *Co-operative development strategy.* Pretoria*:* Government Printers.

Department of Trade and Industry. 2005. *The Integrated Strategy on the Promotion of Enterpreneurship and Small Enterprise*. Pretoria*:* Government Printers.

Department of Trade and Industry. 2006. *Accelarated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa. Pretoria:* Government Printers.

Department of Water and Sanitation. 2002. *Free basic water implementation strategy. Version 2.* Pretoria*:* Government Printers.

Department of Water and Sanitation. 2003 *Strategic Freamework for Water Services*. Pretoria*:* Government Printers.

Dermirguc-Kunt, A., Klapper, L., Singer, D. & Van Oudheusden, P. 2014. Measuring financial inclusion around the world. The World Bank Working Policy Research Paper 7255. The Global Index Data Base.

Despard, M.R. & Chowa, G.A.N. 2010. Social workers' interests in building individuals' financial capabilities. *Journal of Financial Therapy*, 1(10):23–41.

Despard, M.R. & Chowa G.A.N. 2012. Personal financial problems: Opportunities for social work intervention. *Journal of Social Research*, 38(3):342–350.

Despard, M.R., Chowa, G.A.N. & Hart, L.J. 2011. Personal financial problems: Opportunities for social work interventions? *Journal of Social Work Research*, 38(3):342–350.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H. Schulze, S. & Patel, L. 2011. The science and the professions. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 3-26.

De Vos, A.S. Strydom, H. 2011. Scientific theory and professional research. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 28-44.

Dew, J.P. & Steward, R. 2012. A financial issue, a relationship issue or both? Examining the prediction of marital financial conflict. *The Journal of Financial Therapy,* 3(1): 43-61.

Dey, S., Djoudad, R. & Terajima, Y. 2008. *A tool for assessing financial vulnerabilities on the household sector*. Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe.

Dhludhlu, S. & Lombard, A. 2017. Challenges of statutory social workers in linking foster care services with socio-economic development programmes. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 53(2):165–185.

Djankov, S., Miranda, P., Seira, E. & Sharma. 2008. *Who are the unbanked?* World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No WPS4647

Doyle, S. 2007. Member checking with other women: A framework for negotiating meaning. *Healthcare for Women International*, 28:888–908.

DSD, SASSA & UNICEF (Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency & United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund). 2012. *Removing barriers to accessing child support grants: Progress in reducing exclusion from South Africa's child support grant*. Pretoria: UNICEF, South Africa

Duflo, 2003. Grandmothers and granddaughters: Old age pension and intra-household allocations in South Africa. *World Bank Economic Review*, 17: 1-25

Du Toit, D.C. 2011. *Food Security*. Directorate Economic Services. Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries.

Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council. 2012. *Income assets and poverty in the Eastern Cape.* Working paper No. 16.

Ebrahim, A., Leibbrandt, M. & Woorland, I. 2013. *Unemployment and household formation.* Working paper no. 126. Cape Town: Southern African Labour and Development Research Unit

Ebrahim, A., Leibbrandt, M. & Woorland, I. 2016. *Strategies of the unemployed in South Africa.moving allow the unemployed to get ahead?*

Edmonds, E., Mamen, K. & Miller, D. 2004. Re-arranging the family? Income support and elderly living arrangements in a low-income country. *Journal of Human Resources,* 40(1): 186-207.

Ellis, K., Lemma, A. & Rud, J. 2010. *Investing the Impact of Access to Financial Services on Household Investment.* London: Overseas Development Institute.

Egam, G. 2013. *The skilled helper: a problem management and opportunity development approach to helping*. Tenth Edition. Brooks/Cole, Centage Learning.

Engelbrecht, L. 1999. *Introduction to social work*. National Book Printers, Goodwood. Cape Town.

Engelbrecht, L. 2008a. Economic literacy and the war on poverty: A social work challenge*? International Journal of Social Welfare,* 17(2):166–177.

Engelbrecht, L. 2008b. The scope of financial literacy education: A poverty alleviation tool in social work? *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 44(3):253–262.

Engelbrecht, L. 2009. Indebtedness of financially vulnerable households: What do social workers do*? Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 45(2):111–127.

Engelbrecht, L. 2011. The global crises: Response of social workers to the financial capability of vulnerable households in South Africa. *Journal of Social Development: Theory and Practice*, 20(2):41–53.

Engelbrecht, L.K. 1999. *Introduction to social work.* Goodwood: National Book Printers.

Esowe, S.L., Cho, M.N. & Iso, A.V.N. 2017. The Contribution of Financial Literacy towards Poverty Alleviation. Business management and strategy, Macrothink Institute, 8(2): 94-105.

European Union. 2012. *Effectiveness of the European Union development aid for food security in sub-Saharan Africa*. Luxembourg: European Court of Auditors.

Faboyede, O.S., Be-Caleb, E, Oyeno, B. & Faboyede, A. 2015. Financial literacy education: Key to poverty alleviation and national development in Nigeria. *European Journal of Accounting and Finance Research*, 5(1):20–29.

Fakunda-Parr, 2020. What Does Feminisation of Poverty Mean? If Isn't Just Lack of Income. *Journal of Feminist Economics,* 5(2):99-103.

Farukuzzaman, A.H.M. & Mahbubur, R. 2019. Communication patterns in social work practice: A conceptual framework. *International Journal of Research in Sociology and Anthropology*, 5(2):32–43.

Fatoki, O. & Oni, O. 2014. Financial literacy studies in South Africa: Current literature and research opportunities. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Science,* 5(20): 408-414.

Fas, S. 2011. Major Food *olicy Developments in 2011. Global Food Policy. International Food Policy Research Institute.

Feleke, S., Kilmer, L. & Gladwin, C.H. 2005. Determinants of food security in Southern Ethiopia. *Agricultural Economics*, 33(3) 351-363.

Festus, L., Kasango, A., Moses, M. & Yu, D. 2016. The South African labour market 1995-2015. *Development South Africa,* 33(5): 579-599.

Financial Industry Regulatory Authority. 2017.

Financial and Fiscal Commission. 2012. Policy Brief: *Myths and Facts about the Economic Impacts of Child Support Grants.*

Financial Services Consumer Education Foundation. 2019.

FinScope South Africa. 2015.

FinScope South Africa. 2017. *Financial services excluding the poor?* Media release. Johannesburg Finmark Trust.

Firli, A. 2017. Factors that influence financial literacy: A conceptual framework. IOP Conference Series: *Materials Science and Engineering*, 180(1): 1-5.

Fisher, G.L. & Harrison, T.C. 2013. *Substance Abuse: Information for School Counsellor, social workers, therapists and counsellors*. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

Flick, V. 2007*. Designing qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Flick, V. 2009. *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*. Fourth edition. London: Sage.

Flick, V., Von Kardoff, E. & Steinke, I. 2004. *A companion to qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Fonta, A.B., Berkowitz, B., Khumalo, J., Mutsonziwa, K.K., Maposa, O. & Ramsay, P. 2017. *Digitisation of social grant payments and financial inclusion of grant recipients in South Africa: Evidence from FinScope surveys.*

Food and Agriculture Organization. 2003. *The state of food insecurity in the world 2003. Monitoring progress towards the world food summit and Millennium Development Goals.* Rome.

Food and Agriculture Organisation. 2011. *Lessons from the world food crises of 2006-2008*. Rome.

Food and Agriculture Organisation. 2010. *The state of food insecurity in the world 2010. Monitoring progress towards the world food summit and Millennium Development Goals.* Rome.

Food and Agriculture Organisation. 2011. *Lessons from the world food crises of 2006-2008.*

Forrester, D., McCambridge, J., Waissbei, C., Emlyn-Jones, R. & Rollmick, S. 2008. Child risk and parental resistance: Can motivational interviewing improve the practice of child and family social workers in working with parental alcohol misuse? *British Journal of Social Work*, 38(7):1302–1319.

Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2011. Introduction to the research process. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 61-76.

Fouché, C.B. & De Vos, A.S. 2011. Selection of a researchable topic. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 79-88.

Fouché, C.B. & Schurink, W. 2011. Qualitative research designs. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 307-327.

Friedman, I. & Bhengu, L. 2008. *Fifteen-year review of income poverty alleviation programmes in the social and related sectors*. Health Systems Trust.

Frye, I. 2017. *A reflection on poverty and inequality in South Africa.* Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute.

Garvin, D.A. & Margolis, J.D. 2015. The art of giving and receiving advice. *Harvard Business Review,* 93(1-2): 60-71.

Gary, B., Sebstad, J., Cohen, M. & Stack, K. 2009. *Can financial education change behaviour? Lesson from Bolvia and Sri Lanka*. Washington, DC. Microfinance Opportunities.

Gates, L.B. & Koza. 2012. Meeting the demands of work and responsibilities of caring for a child with asthma: Consequences for caregivers' wellbeing. *Journal of Social Science Research,* 38(5): 656-671

Gates, L.B., Koza, J. & Akabas, S.H. 2016. Social work's response to poverty: From dependence to economic self-sufficiency. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 53(1):94–117.

Gathergood, J. 2012. Self-control, financial literacy and consumer over-indebtedness. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 33(3):590–602.

Gillen, M. & Loeffler, D.N. 2012. Financial literacy and social work students. *Journal of Financial Therapy*, 3(2): 28-38.

Gillespie, S., Haddon, L. & Jackson, R. 2001. *HIV/AIDS, food and nutrition security: Impacts and actions.* Nutrition policy discussion paper 20. Geneva: United Nations Standing Committee on Nutrition.

Gilson, I. & McIntyre, D. 2004. Post-apartheid challenges: Household access and use of health care in South Africa. *International Journal of Health Services*, 37:373–691.

Government Information and Communication Services. 2001. *Government offers major incentives to boost skills and jobs*. Retrieved from http://www.info.gov.za/speeches/2001/010627 [Accessed day month year].

Gomez-Olive, F.X., Thorogood, M., Clark, B.D., Kahn, K.R. & Tollman, S.M. 2010. *Assessing health and well-being among older people in rural South Africa*. Global Health Action 3(1) http://doi.org./10.3402/gha.v3i0.2126

Grant, L. 2004. Hearts and minds: Aspects of empathy and wellbeing in social work students. *Social Work Education: The International Journal*, 33:338–352.

Gray, M. 1996b. The role of social work in developmental social welfare: Is there a place for them? *Social Work Practice*, 2 :8-13.

Gray, D.E. 2018. *Doing research in the real world*. Fourth edition. London: Sage.

Gray, M. 2006. The progress of social development in South Africa. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 15(1):53–64.

Greef, M. 2011. Information collection interviewing. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 342-374.

Green, D. 2008. *From Poverty to Power. How active citizens and effective states can change the world*. Practical Action Publishing. OXFAM International.

Green, D. 2012. *From Poverty to Power. How active citizens and effective states can change the world*. Secon edition. Rugby, UK: Practical Action Publishing. OXFAM International.

Green, J & Thorogood, N. 2011. *Qualitative Methods for Health Research*. Fourth edition. London: Sage.

Green, S. & Nieman, A. 2003. Social Development: Good Practice Guidelines. *Social Work /MaatskaplikeWerk*, 39(2):161-181.

Grinspun, A. 2016. *No small change: The multi impacts of child support grant on child and adolescent well-being*. South African Child Gauge. UNICEF, South Africa

Grobbler, C & Sekhampu, J. 2012. *Determinants of of Household Food Expenditure among Households Receiving Government Grants in South Africa.*

Gustafson, D.J. 2013. Rising food costs and global food security: Key issues and relevance for India. *Indian Journal of Medicine.*, 138(3):398–410.

Hafford-Letchfield, I., Thom, B., Herring, R. & Bayley, M. 2017. Delivering information and brief advice on alcohol (IBA) in social work and social care setting: An exploratory study. *Journal of Drugs, Education, Prevention and Policy* 26(2019): 40-49.

Haider, S. 2019. Despite the importance of giving advice in social work, we rarely talk about the skills. Workforce. Accessed on 06/07/2020

Hall, A. & Midgley, J. 2004. *Social policy for development*. London: Sage.

Hall, C. 2017. *Fragmenting the family? The complexity at household migration strategies in post-apartheid South Africa*. Draft paper for the UNU-WIDER & ARUA

Development Conference on Migration and Mobility. Cape Town: Children's Institute, University of Cape Town.

Hall, K. & Sambu, W. 2015. *Children's access to services.* http://www.childrencount.uct.ac.za

Hall, K. & Sambu, W. 2016. Income poverty, unemployment and social grants. South African Child Gauge. In Delay, A., Jehoma, S., & Lake, (eds). *South African Child Gauge.* Children's Institute, University of Cape Town. UNICEF, South Africa.

Hanass-Hancock, J. & Mckenzie, T.C. 2017. People with disabilities and income related social protection measures in South Africa. Where is the gap? *African Journal of Disability*, 6:1–11.

Haotanto, A.V. 2016. *Financial effects of alcoholism: Why drinking is bad for your finances.* The New Savvy.

Harms, K. 2015. *Working with people: Communication skills for reflective practice*.

2nd ed.: South Melbourne: Oxford University Press

Harper, M. & Cole, P. 2012. Member checking: Can benefits be gained similar to group therapy? *The Qualitative Report*, 17(2): 510-517.

Hart, C. 1998. *Doing a Literature Review: Releasing the Social Science Research Imagination.* London: Sage.

Heady, D & Fan, S. 2008. Anatomy of a crises: "The causes *ans consequences of surging food prices"*. IFPRI Discussion Paper 831, International Food Policy Research Institute.

Heady, D & Fan, S. 2010. *Reflections on the global food crises*. Research Monograph 165, International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, DC.

Healy, K. 2018. *The skilled communicator in social work: The art and science of communication in practice*. London: Palgrave.

Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W. & Smit, B. 2004. *Finding your way in qualitative research.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Hesser, S.N. 2007. *Handbook of feminist research: Theory and praxis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hill, M., Ford, J. & Meadows, F. 1990. The plase of counselling in social work practice. *Social Work in Action*, 4(3): 156-172.

Hick, R. 2012. The capability approach: Insights for a new poverty focus. *Journal of Social Policy,* 41(2): 291-308.

Hilgert, M.A., Hogarth, J.M. & Berley, S.G. 2003. Household financial management: The connection between knowledge and behaviour. *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, 9:309–322.

Hola, Z. 2018. *Vulnerability of old age pensioners to micro-lending schemes*: *The case of Mlungisi location in Lukhanji Municipality in Queenstown.* Unpublished MA thesis. Alice: University of Fort hare.

Holzman, R. 2010. B*ringing Financial Literacy and Education to Low- and Middle-Income Countries.* Pension Research Council Working Paper. Pension Research Council: University of Pennsylvania.

Hoos, K. 2010. *Saving behaviour in Cebu City.* Unpublished MA thesis. Utrecht: Utrecht University.

Hopf, C. 2004a. Interviews: An overview. In V. Flick, E. von Kedorff & I. Steinke (eds.). *A companison to qualitative research*. London: Sage, 282-289.

Hopf, C. 2004b. Research ethics and qualitative research. In V. Flick, E. von Kedorff & I. Steinke (eds.). *A companion to qualitative research*. London: Sage, 334-340

Howard, M. & Jenson, J.M. 1999. Clinical practice guidelines: Should social workers develop them? *Research on Social Work Practice*, 9(3):283–301.

Huang, J., Nam, Y. & Sherraden, M.S. 2013. Financial knowledge and child development account policy: A test of financial capability. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 47(1):1–26.

Huffstertler, E. 2019. Distinguishing between wants and needs

Human Rights Commission. 2017. *Human rights impact of unsecured lending and debt collection practices in South Africa.* South African Human Rights Commission

Human Science Research Council. 2010. *Government Funded Programmesand services for vulnerable children in South Africa*. Pretoria.

Hunter, N., May, J. & Padayache, V. 2003. *Lessons for PRSP from poverty education strategies in South Africa*. Working Paper, No 39. Addis Ababa: Economic Commission for Africa.

International Federation of Social Work. 2014.

International Food Policy Research Institute. 2011.

Jacobs, P. 2009. *Identifying targets for household food security in South Africa*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Jacobs, P.T., Baiphethi, M., Ngcobo, N. & Hart, T. 2010. *Investigating the potential to promote local economic development and job creation through social grants and expenditure.* Pretoria: Centre for Poverty, Employment and Growth, Human Sciences Research Council.

Jacobsen, C.A. 2013. *Social workers reflect on engagement with involuntary clients*. Unpublished Master of Social Work clinical paper. St Paul: St Catherine University.

Jain, C.S. 2015. A study of Banking Sector. Initiatives tpwards Financial Inclusion in India. *Journal of Commerce and Management Thought,* 6(1):55.

Jenkins, N.H., Stanley, S.M., Bailey, W.C. & Markman, H.J. 2002. *You paid how much for that? How to win at money without losing at love*? San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Johannesburg Stock Exchange. 2017. Get in the Game and register for the 2017 Johannesburg Security Exchange Investment Challenge.

Johl, S.K. & Renganethan, S. 2004. Strategies for Gaining Access in Doing Fielwork: Reflections of two researchers. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods,* 8(1): 42-50.

Johnson, E. 2013. Debt, over-indebtedness and wellbeing: An exploration. In Guerin, T. Movant, S. Roux & M. Villarreal (eds.). *Microfinance, debt and over-indebtedness: Jiggling with money.* University of Bath: Routledge.

Johnson, E. & Sherraden, M.S. 2006. From financial literacy to financial capability among youth. *Journal of Sociology and Welfare*, 34(3):119–146.

Karger, H. 2015. Curbing the financial exploitation: Financial literacy in social work education. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 51:425–438.

Karlan, D. & Morduch, I. 2010. Access to Finance: Ideas and Evidence. The Economics of Saving. *Handbook of Development Economics*, 5, Amsterdam: North Holland.

Kehler, J. 2001. Women and poverty: The South African experience. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 3(1):41-53.

Keleher, L. 2014. Agency and Capability Approach. *Ethics and Economics, 11(2)*

Keller, S. 2004. Household formation, poverty and unemployment: The case of rural South Africa. *South African Journal of Economics*,72(3): 437–483.

Kelly, K. 2011. From encounter to text: Collecting data in qualitative research. In M. Terre Blanche, K. Durrheim & D. Painter (eds.). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences.* Second edition. Cape Town: UCT Press,

Kelly, E. & Kaminskiene, N. 2016. *Importance of emotional intelligence in negotiation and mediation*. International Comparative Jurisprudence, 1-6. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.iej.2016.07.001

Kempson, E., Perotti, V. & Scott, K. 2013. *Measuring financial capability: A new instrument and results from low and middle-income countries*. Financial Literature and Education Russia Trust Fund.

Khosa, P. & Kaseke, E. 2017. The utilisation of the child support grant by caregivers: The case of Ba-Phalaborwa Municipality in Limpopo province. *Social Work*, 53(3): 356-367.

Kiefer, L. 2014. *How social work practitioners evaluate their practice*.

Kindle, P.A. 2013. The financial literacy of social work students. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 49:397–407.

Kingdom, G. & Knight, J. 2004. *Unemployment in South Africa: the nature of the beast* 32(3) 391-408 DOI: 1016/J.WORD DEV.2003.10.005

Kirst-Ashman, K.K. 2007. *Introduction to social work and social welfare. Critical thinking perspectives.* Second edition. Belmont: Thompson Brooks/Cole.

Kirst-Ashman, K.K. 2016. *Introduction to social work and social welfare. Critical thinking perspectives.* Fifth edition. Boston: Cengage Learning.

Kishor, N.R. 2013. Micro insurance in India. Protecting the Poor. *Journal of Business Management and Social Science Research*, 2(3):39-44.

Klasen, S. & Woolard, I. 2008. Surviving unemployment without state support: Unemployment and household formation in South Africa. *Journal of African Economies,* 18(1):1–51.

Koch, J. 2011. *The food security policy context in South Africa*. Country Study, International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth.

Kottikoff, L.J. 2008. Economics approval to financial planning. *Journal of Financial Planning*, 21(3):42–52.

Kowal, S. & O'Connel, D.C. 2004. The transcription of conversations. In V. Flick, E. von Kedorff & I. Steinke (eds.). *A companion to qualitative research*. London: Sage, 248-253.

Kreuger, L.W. & Newman, W.L. 2006. *Social work research methods: Qualitative and quantitative applications.* Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Laufer, H.V. 2015. Does financial knowledge lead to financial capability?

LeCray, C.W. & Stinson, E.L. 2004. *The public perception of social work: Is it what we think it is?* Arizona: National Association of Social Workers.

Leibbrandt, M. & Woolard, J. 2010. *Employment outcomes in South Africa*.

Leibbrandt, M., Woolard, I., Finn, A. & Argent, J. 2010. *Trends in South African income distribution and poverty since the fall of apartheid.* OECD Social, Employment and Migration. Working paper no. 101. Cape Town: OECD.

Le Roux, R. 2017. South Africa's gross rate of saving at shocking 3%. *Fin 24, The Savings Issue*, 06 July.

Levanthal, I. & Newman, S. 2010. Housing and child development. *Children and Youth Review Services*, 32:1165–1174.

Lobello, C. 2013. How drinking too much sabotages your finances*. The week.*

Loke, V., Watts, J.L. & Kakoti, S.A. 2013. Financial capabilities of service providers in the asset building field. In Birkenmaier, J., Curley, J. & Sherraden, M. (eds). *Financial Education and Capability: Research, education, policy, and practice*, 251-277.

Lombard, A. & Jansen Van Rensburg, A. 2001. Coalitions: A practice framework for sustainable development. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 37(4):325-342.

Lombard, A. & Warira, G.G. 2010. Developmental social work in South Africa and Kenya. *The Social Work Practitioner-Researcher*, Special Issue: 98-111.

Lopes, P. 2008. Credit card debt and default over the life cycle. *Journal of Money, Credit and Banking*, 40(4):769–790.

Lubis, A.W. 2018. *Exploring the importance of financial literacy within the capability approach.*

Lusard, A., Michaud, P.C. & Mitchel, O.S. 2017. Optimal financial knowledge and wealth inequality. *Journal of Political Economy*, 125(2):431–477.

Mabugu, R., Chitiga, M., Fotana, Abiyode, B. & Mbanda, V. 2014. *Assessing the general equilibrium effects of social grant in South Africa.* 17th Annual Conference on Global Economic Analysis "New Challenges in Food Policy Trade and Economic Vulnerability"

Mabugu, R., Fotana, I., Chitiga, M. & Abidoye, B. 2015. *Scaling-up development impact: The economy-wide effects of South Africa's child support grant.* Financial and Fiscal Commision.

Mabule, J.B. & Ping, H.D. 2019. Financial literacy position in developing economies: A review of studies and open issues. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research*, 196: 277-281

Macdonald, D. 2017. *Financial social work.*

Mail and Guardian. 2014. Loan Sharks "eat up social grants". 26 June 2016

Manyamba, C., Hendricks, S.L., Chilonda, P. & Musaba, E. 2012. *Factors contributing to inequalities in food security in South Africa: Implications for agricultural policy.* Conference: Towards Carneigie III. Cape Town, South Africa.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. 1999. *Designing qualitative research*. Third edition. Thousands Oak, CA: Sage.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. 2011. *Designing qualitative research.* Fifth edition. Thousands Oak, CA: Sage.

Mashigo, M.P. 2007. *Extending credit to the low-income and poor households in South Africa: A system of principles*. Unpublished thesis. Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg.

Mashigo, P. 2006. The debt spiral in the poor households in South Africa. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship, Advancement, Strategy and Education*: 1-21.

Mashigo, P. & Kabir. 2016. Village banks: a financial strategy for developing the South African poor households. *Bank and Banking Systems,*11(2):8-13. http://11dx.doi.org.10.21511/b59.11(2).2016.01

Master Card Foundation. 2011. Master Card Foundation Report.

Mathur, H.M. 1986. *Administering development in the Third World: Constraints and choices*. New Delhi: Sage.

Matt, E. 2004. The presentation of qualitative research. In V. Flick, E. von Kedorff & I. Steinke (eds.). *A companion to qualitative research*. London: Sage, 326-330.

Matuku, S. & Kaseke, E. 2014. The role of stokvels in improving people's lives: The case in Orange Farm, Johannesburg, South Africa. *Social work/Maatskaplike werk*, 50(4): 504-515

Matul, M. 2009. *Financial behaviours and vulnerability to poverty in low-income households in transition context*.

May, J. 2000. *Poverty and inequality in South Africa*: *Meeting the challenge*. Cape Town: David Phillip Publishers.

May, J. 2003. *Chronic poverty and older people in South Africa*. Poverty Research Centre. Working Paper 25.

May, J. & Norton, A. 1997. "A difficult life": The perceptions and experience of poverty in South Africa. *Social Indicators Research*, 41:95–118.

May, J. & Nzimande, N. 2012. *Income, assets and poverty in the Eastern Cape*. Working paper no. 16. East London: Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council.

Mayosi, B.M., Flisher, A.J., Lallo, U.G., Sita, F., Tollman, S.M., Bradshaw, D. 2009. The burden of non-communicable diseases in South Africa. *The Lancent*, 374(9693): 934-947.

McDonald, L. 2014. *Coconut trees in a cyclone: Vulnerability and resilience in a Melanesia context.*

McEwen, H. & Woolard, I. 2012. The fiscal cost of child grants in the context of high adult mortality in South Africa: A stimulation to 2015. *Development Southern Africa*, 29(1):141–156.

McKean, L., Lessem, S. & Bax, E. 2005. *Money management by low-income households: Earning, spending saving, and accessing financial services*. Centre for Impact Research.

McNaughton, D., Hamlin, D., McCarthy, J., Head-Reeves, D. & Schreiner, M. 2007. Listening to listen: Teaching an active listening strategy to preserve education professionals. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*. 27:223–231.

Merten, M. 2017. *StatsSA Poverty Report 2017. Policies fail people of South Africa. Daily Maverick,* 23 August 2017. Retrieved from [Accessed 30 August 2018].

Messy, F. & Monticone, C. 2012. *The status of financial education in Africa*. OECD Working Papers on Finance. Paris: OECD.

Meyer, D.F. & Nishimire-Niyimbanira, R. 2016. The impact of household size on poverty: An analysis of various low-income townships in the Northern Free State region, South Africa. *African Population Studies,* 30(2): 2283-2295.

Midgley, J. & Tang, K. 2001. Social Policy, economic growth and developmental welfare. *International Journal of Social Welfare*, 10:244-252

Midgley, J. 2008. Social security and the economy: Key perspectives. In J. Midgley & K.L. Tang (eds.). *Social security, the economy and development*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan, 51-82.

Midgley, J. 2009. The institutional approach to social policy. In J. Midgley & J. Livermore (eds.). *Handbook of social policy*. Second edition. Thousands Oak, CA: Sage, 181-194.

Midgley, J. 2010. The theory of practice of developmental social work. In J. Midgley & A. Conley (eds.). *Social work and social development: Theories and skills for developmental social work*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Midgley, J. 2012. Social protection and social policy: Key issues and debates. *Journal of Policy Practice*, 11(2):8–24.

Midgley, J. 2014. *The social development: Theory & practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Midgley, J. 2017. *Social welfare for a global era: International perspective on policy and practice.* Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Midgley, J. 2018. Social development, asset building and social investment. The historical and international context. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare,* 45/4:11-33.

Miller, W.R. & Rollnick, S. 2002*. Motivational interviewing: Preparing people for change.* Second edition. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Mishi, S., Vacu, N.P. & Chipote, P. 2012. *Impact of financial literacy in optimising financial inclusion in rural South Africa: Case study of the Eastern Cape Province*. African Development Finance, USB, 7–8 August.

Mitchel, J.W. & Abusheva, M.E. 2016. *The actual challenges of financial literacy*. SHS Web of Conferences. [Accessed 07 April 2019].

Mitra, S. 2014. Disability cash transfers in the context of poverty and unemployment: The case of South Africa. *World Development*, 38(12):692–709.

Moletsane, R., Reddy, V., Ntombela, S., Dayal, H., Wiebesiek, L., Munthree, C., Kangolo, M., Kangolo, M. & Masilela, T. 2010. *Gender poverty reduction: Voice, dialogue and targeting.* Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Moller, V. & Sotshongaye, A. 1996. "*My family eat this way too": Pension sharing and respect among Zulu grandmothers*. University of Natal: Centre for Social and Developmental Studies.

Moller, V. & Devey, R. 2003. Trends in living conditions and satisfaction among poorer older South Africans: Objective and indicators of quality of life in the October Household Survey. *Development Southern Africa*, 20(4):457-476. Taylor and Francis Ltd.

Momentum. 2017. Momentum/Unisa-Household Financial Wellness Summary report 2017 [Accessed 03 March 2019].

Morel, N., Palier, B. & Palme, J. 2012. *Towards a social investment welfare state? Ideas, policies and challenges*. Bristol: Policy Press.

Morris, T. 2006. *Social work research methods*: *Four alternative paradigms*. London: Sage.

Moser, C. 1998. *The* asset vulnerability framework reassessing urban poverty reassessing urban poverty reduction strategies. *World development*, 26(1): 9-19

Mouton, J. 1996. *Understanding social research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mouton, J. 2001. *How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies*: *A South African guide and resource book.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Mubangizi, B.C. 2009. Poverty alleviation and service delivery-developing a conceptual framework for South Africa' service delivery system. *International NGO Journal*, 4(10):446–455.

Mundy, S. 2011. *Financial capability: Why is it important and how can it be improved?* Nairob: CfBT Education Trust.

Mutesasira, L., Sempangi, H., Hulme, D., Rutherford, S. & Wright, G.A.N. 1998. *Use and Impact of Saving Services among the Poor in Uganda*. MicroSave, Africa Research Report, Nairob.

Mutesasira, L. 2016. "The Relative Risks to Poor People's Savings". *Journal of Small Enterprise Development,* 12(3): 33-45.

Muthur, H.M. 1986. A*dministering development in the Third World: Constraints and choices:* New Delhi: Sage.

Muizzuddin, M., Taufik, R.G., Putri, L., Adam, M. 2017. Financial Literacy Strategies and Concepts in Understanding the Financial Planning with Self Efficacy Theory and Goal Setting Theory of Motivational Approach. *International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues*, 7(4):182-188.

Mullainathan, S. & Shafir, E. 2010. *Savings, Policy and Decision making in Low-Income Households.* Policy Brief. National Poverty Centre.

Myers, L.L. & Thyer, B.A. 1997. Should social work clients have the right to effective treatment? *Social Work*, 42(3):288–298.

Nanziri, L.E. & Leibbrandt, M. 2018. Measuring and profiling financial literacy in South Africa. *Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 21(1):1–17.

Nanziri, L.E. & Olckers, M. 2009. *Financial literacy in South Africa*. Working paper series 242, Discussion paper 2019/19. Cape Town: South African Labour and Development Research Unit.

National Treasury. 2011. *A safer financial sector to serve South Africa.* Pretoria: Government Printers:

Nascimento, L.D. & Steinbruch, F.K. 2019. "*The interviews were transcribed", but how? Reflection on management research*. *RAUSP Management Journal,* 54(4): 413-429.

Ngo, S. 2017. *The real difference between needs and wants most people ignore*

Nhlanhla, N. 2011. *Financial Education for All*. Paper presented at the OECD-FSB Conference on Financial Literacy: Financial Literacy for All. 27–28 October, Cape Town.

Nicolson, G. 2020. Coronavirus lockdown & hunger. Hunger numbers: Millions, millions need food. *Daily Maverick*, 08 May. Retrieved from [Accessed 8 May 2020].

Nussbaum, M.C. 2011. *Creating capabilities: The human development approach*. Cambridge, MA: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Nwosu, D. & Ndinda, C.N. 2018. *Female households headship and poverty in South Africa: an employment based analysis*. Economic Research Southern Africa, Working Paper, 761.

Oanea, D.C. & Dornean, A. 2012. Defining and measuring financial literacy: New evidence from Romanian's students of the Master's in finance*. Scientific Annals of Economics and Business, 59(2): 113-139.*

OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2009. *Improving financial literacy: Analysis of issues and policies*. Paris: OECD Publishing.

O'Hagan, K. 2019. *Five ways to completely revamp your personal budget.*

Office of the Presidency. 2001. *Urban renewal Programme and Integrated Rural development Programme.* Pretotia: Government Printers.

Okumus, F., Alitay, L. & Roper, A. 2006. *Gaining Access for Research: Reflections from Experience.* University of Central Florida, United States of America.

Okurut, F.N. 2006. *Access to the credit by the poor in South Africa: Evidence from Household Survey Date 1995 - 2000*". Working paper no. 13/2006. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

Oladeinde, O., Mabetha, D., Twine, R., Hove, J., Van der Merwe, M. & Byass, P. 2020. Building co-operative learning to address alcohol and other drug abuse in Mpumalanga, South Africa: A participatory action research. *Global Health Action*, 31(1).

Olen, H. 2012. Pound Foolish: Exposing the dark side of the Personal Finance. Penguin, New York: Portfolio.

Olowu, D. 2013. *Gender aspects of food security in Lesotho: Implications for an integrative rights-based approach.* Ill-Ife: Centre for Psychological Studies.

Omonona, B.T & Agoi, G.A. 2007. An analysis of food security situation in Nigeria urban households: Evidence from the Lagos state, Nigeria. *Central European Agriculture*, 8(3):397–407.

Organisation for Economic Co-opration and Development. 2016.

Oudersma, C. 2014. A human rights framework for debt relief. *Journal of International Law*, 36(1): 269-351.

Papp, L.M., Cummings, E.M. & Goeke-Morey, M.C. 2009. For richer, for poorer: Money as a topic of marital conflict in the home. *Family Relationships*, 58(1):91–103.

Parahoo, K. 2006. *Nursing research principles, processes and issues*. Second edition. Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Patel, L. 1992. *Restructuring Social Welfare: Options for South Africa*. Ravan Press.

Patel, L. 2005. Social development practice. In L. Patel (ed.). *Social welfare and social development in South Africa.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press, 159-195.

Patel, L. 2015. *Social welfare and social development*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Patel, L. 2018. Social protection in Africa: Beyond safety nets. *Journal of Sociology and Welfare*, 45(79): 79-103.

Patel, L., Hochfield, T., Moodley, J. & Mutwali, R. 2012. *The gender dynamics and impact of the child support grant in Doornkop, Soweto.* Johannesburg: Centre for Social Development in Africa, University of Johannesburg.

Paxton, J & Young, L. 2009. *Liquidity and Profiles of Poor Mexican Households: The Role of Economic Shocks and Banking*. Unplished research paper. Ohio: Ohio University.

Peterson, S.B. 1997. “Hierarchy versus Networks: Alternative Strategies for Building Organisational Capacity in Public Bureaucracies in Africa” in Menles, S.G. (ed) *Getting Good Governance: Capacity Building in the Public Sector of Developing Countries,* Cambridge: Havard University Press.

PolicyLink. 2016. Breaking the cycle: From poverty to financial security for all.

Porter, K. 2012. The damage of debt. *Washington and Law Review*, 69(2): 979-1022.

Pope, N.D. & Kang, B. 2011. Social work students, attitudes about working with involutary clients. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work*, 31, 442-456.

Posel, D., Fairburn, J.A. & Lund, F. 2006. Labour migration and households: A reconsideration of the effects of the social pension on labour supply in South Africa. *Economic Modelling*, 23(5):836–853.

Posel, D & Casale, D. 2006. "Internal migration and household poverty in post-apartheid South Africa". In Kanbur, R & Bhorat, H. (eds). *Poverty and Policy in Post-Apartheid South Africa.* Pretoria: Human Science Research Council Press, 351-365.

Posel, P. & Van der Stoep, G. 2008. *Co-resident and absent mothers: Motherhood and labour force participation in South Africa*. School of Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Potts, R. 2011. Social Welfare in South Africa. Curing or causing poverty. *Penn State Journal of International Affairs*: 74-92.

Proctor, E.P. 2017. The pursuit of quality for social work practice: Three generations and counting. *Journal of Social Social Work*, 8(3):335–353.

Punch, K.F. 2005. *Introduction to social research*: *Quantitative and qualitative approaches.* Second edition. London: Sage.

Ralston, M., Schatz, E., Menken, J., Gomez-Olive, F.X. & Tollman, S. 2015. Who benefits – or does not – from the South Africa's old age pension? Evidence from characteristics of rural pensioners and non-pensioners. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health. 13(85):*1-14

Ramos, M. 2017. Analysis of South Africa's savings culture. *Business Report*. 29 June:

Refera, M.K., Dhaliwa, N.K. & Kaurj, J. 2016. Financial literacy for developing countries in Africa: A review of concepts, significance and research opportunities. *Journal of African Studies and Development*, 8(1):1–12.

Reith-Hall, E. & Montigomery, 2019. PROTOCOAL: Communication skills training for improving the communicative abilities of student social workers: A systematic review. *Campbell Systematic Reviews*, 15(3): 1-9.

Resnic, D.B. 2007. What is Ethics in Research and Why is it Important. *National Institute of Health*, 8(8):1-5.

Ritchie, M.H. 1986. Couselling the Involuntary client. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 64(8), 516-518

Roberts, B., Struwig, J., Gordon, S. & Radebe, T. 2018. *Financial literacy in South Africa*: *Results from 2017 South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASAS) round*. Report prepared for The Financial Sector Conduct Authority. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Robeyns R. 2003. *The capability approach: An interdisciplinary introduction.* Revised version. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam.

Robeyns, I. 2005. The capability approach and relevant capabilities: A theoretical survey. *Journal of Human Development*, 6(11): 93–117.

Robeyns, I. 2013. Sen's Capability approach and gender inequality: Selecting relevant capabilities. *Feminist Economics*, 9(2-3):61- 92.

Ronen, T. 1995. The social worker as an educator for self control. *International social work,* 38(4): 387-394.

Rooney, R.H. & Mirick, R.G. 2019. *Strategies for working with involuntary clients*. Third edition. New york: Columbia University Press.

https://doi.org/10.1177/002087289503800407

Rosen, A. & Proctor, E.K. 2003. Practice guidelines and the challenge of effective practice. In Rosen, A. & Proctor, E.K. 2003. *Developing practice guidelines for social work intervention: Issues, methods and research agents.* Washington: Columbia University Press.

Rousseau, G.G. & Venter, D.J.L. 2016. Financial insight and behaviour of household consumers in Port Elizabeth. *South African Review*, 20:236–258.

Roussouw, J. 2017. My social grants matter in South Africa: They support 33% of the nation. *The Conversation*: 16 February 2017.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1994. *White Paper on Water Supply and Sanitation Policy of 1994.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1995. *White Paper on Housing of 1995*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1996a. *Constitution of the Republic Act No.108 of South Africa.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1996b. *Small Business Act 102 No. of 1996*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1996c. *South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1997a. *The Non-profit Organisation Act No. 71 of 1997*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1997b. *White Paper for the Transformation of the National Health System for South Africa of 1997.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1997c. White Paper on Integrated Disability Strategy of 1997. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1997d. Water Services Act No.108 of 1997. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998a. *Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998b. *National Empowerment Act No 105 of 1998.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998c. *National Skills Act No. 99 of 1998.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa). 1998d. *Water Services Act N0. 108 of 1998.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998e. *The National Norms and Standards for School Funding of 1998.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998f. Exemption of Parents from Payment of School Fee Regulations of 1998

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1998g. *White Paper on Local Government of 1998.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 1999. *National Student Financial Aid Schemes Act No. 56 of 1999.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2000a. *Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2000*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2000b. *Preferential Procurement Policy Act No 5 of 2000.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2001. *White Paper on Basic Households Sanitation of 2001.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2003. *National Health Act No. 61 of 2003*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2004a. Social Assistance Act No. 13 of 2004. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2004b. Co-operative Development Policy for South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2005a. *Education Laws Amendment Act No. 24 of 2005*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2005b. *National Credit Act No. 30 of 2005*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2005c. South African Policy for Older Persons of 2005. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2006a. *Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2006b. *Older Persons Act No. 13 of 2006*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2008. *National Youth Development Agency Act No. 54 of 2008.* Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA (Republic of South Africa). 2014*. Infrastructure Development Act No. 23 of 2014*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Saal, P. 2017. Many people leaving Eastern Cape in search of better living conditions. *Times Live*, 20 December. [Accessed 30 August 2018].

10.1080/03670244.2017.1416361

SADC (Southern African Development Community). 2009. *Update on the impact of the global economic crises on SADC*. Gaborone: SADC Secretariat.

Sadie, Y. & Loots, E. 1998. RDP Projects in South Africa – A Gender Perspective Analysis. In Solomon, H. & Schoeman, M (eds). *ISS Monograph No 27: Security Development and Gender in Africa*.Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.

Samson, M. 2009*. Social cash transfer and pro-poor growth, in promoting pro-poor growth social protection.* Paris: OECD.

Samson, M., Lee, V., Ndlebe, A., MacQueene, K., Van Niekerk, I., Gandhi, V., Harigaya, T. & Ebrahim, C. 2004. *The social and economic impact of the South African social security system.* Pretoria: Department of Social Development.

Sanders, D.S. 1982. *The developmental perspective in social work*. Honolulu: School of Social Work, University of Hawaii.

Satgar, A. & Mtati, R.Z. 1999. Practice of pension sharing in urban South Africa. *Ageing and Society*, 19(4):393–416.

Scalon, E. & Sanders, C.K. Financial Capability and Asset Building: A Transformational Practice Framework. *Advances in Social Work,* 18(2):543-562.

Schatz, E. 2007. Caring and contributing in multi-generational household in the HIV and AIDS era. *World Development*, 35(8): 1390-1400.

Schatz, E. & Ogunmefun, C. 2007. Caring and Contributing: *The Role of Older Women in Rural South African Multi-generational Households in the HIV/AIDS Era.*

Schatz, E., Madhavan, S. & Williams, J. 2011. Female -headed households contending with HIV/AIDS related hardships in rural South Africa. *Health and Place*, 17(2): 598-605

Schmidt, C. 2004. The analysis of semi-structured interviews. In V. Flick, E. von Kedorff & I. Steinke (eds.). *A companion to qualitative research*. London: Sage, 253-258.

Schultz, T. 1962. Reflections on investment in man. *Journal of Political Economy*, 70(5):1–8.

Schurink, W., Fouché, C.B. & De Vos, A.S. 2011. Qualitative data analysis and interpretation. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 397-423.

Sebstad, J. & Cohen. 2000. *Microfinance, risk management and poverty*. AIMS paper. Washington, DC: Management Systems International.

Seefeldt, K.S. 2015. Constant consumption smoothing, limited investments, and few repayments: The role of debt in the financial lives of economically vulnerable families*. Social Service Review*, 89(2): 263-300.

Sekhampu, T.J. 2012. Socio-economic determinants of household expenditure in a low-income township in South Africa. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 3(3): 449-453.

Selepe, B.M., Mtyingizana, S.S. & Masuku, M.M. 2015. Factor contributing to the household food insecurity in Mhlonthlo area, Eastern Cape, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality Tourism and Leisure,* 4(1): 1-11.

Sen, A. 1984. *Capability and wellbeing: The quality of life*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Sen, A. 1989. Development and capability expansion. *Journal of Development Planning,* 19:41–48.

Sen, A. 1993. *The quality of life.* In A. Sen & M. Nussbaum (eds.). A study prepared for the World Bank Initiative for Economic Research (WIDER) of the United Nations University. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Sen, A. 1999. *Development as freedom.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sen, A. 2003. Capacity and wellbeing. In M. Nussbaum & A. Sen (eds.). *The quality of life.* Oxford Scholarship Online. DOI:10.1003/0198287976.001.0001

Sen, A. 2009. *The idea of justice*. Boston: Harvard University Press.

Sen, A. 2011. *Peace and democratic society.* Cambridge: Open Book Publishers.

Setlalentoa, B.M., Pisa, P.T., Thekisho, G.N., Ryke, E.H. & Du Toit, L. 2010. The social aspects of alcohol misuse or abuse in South Africa. *South African Journal of Clinical Nutrition,* 23(5). Suppl. 1: 11–15.

Shapiro, M. 2007. Money: A therapeutic tool for couples' therapy*. Family Process*, 46:279–329.

Sherraden, M. 2003. *From the Social Welfare State to the Social Investment State*. Shelterforce.

Sherraden, M. 2013. Building blocks of financial capability*:* In Bierkenmaier, J., Curley, J. & Sherraden, M. 2013 (eds) *Financial Capability and Asset Development, Research, Education, Policy and Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sherraden, M. 2018. Asset building as social investment. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 35(45): 35-54.

Sherraden, M.S. 2010. Financial Capability: What is it, and how can it be created. Centre for Social Development. Working Paper No 10-17, University of Washington in St Louis.

Sherraden, M.S., Bierkenmaier, J. & Collins, J.M. 2018. Financial capability for all: Training human service professional to work with vulnerable families. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 53(3): 869-876

Sherraden, M.S., Huang, J., Frey, J.J., Birkenmaier, J., Callahan, C., Clancy, M.M. & Sherraden, M. 2015. *Grand challenge for social work initiatives*. Working paper no. 13: American Academy of Social Work and Social Welfare.

Sherraden, M., Kaufman, C. & Laux, S. 2007. Financial education for social workers. *Journal of Community Practice,* 15(3): 35-54.

Sherraden, M., Birkenmaier, J., Mclendon, G.G. & Rochelle, M. 2016. Financial capability and asset building in social work: It is “the big piece missing?”. *Journal of Social Work Education*, 53(1):132–148.

Sherraden, M., Birkenmaier, J., Rochelle, M. & McClendon, G.G. 2015. *Financial capability and asset building in social work education: The big piece missing?* St Louis, MI: Centre for Social Development, Washington University.

Sherraden, M.S. 2010. *Financial capability: What is it and how it can be created?* Working paper no. 10-17. Missouri, CS: Centre for Social Development, University of Missouri.

Shim, J.K. & Siegel, J.G. 2005. *Budgeting Basics and Beyond*. Second edition. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Shipson, P. 2010. *Credit between cultures: farmers, financiers, and misunderstanding in Africa.* New Haven, Conn. London Yale University Press.

Shisana, O., Labadarious, D., Rehle, T., Simbayi, L. & Zuma, K. 2014. *South African National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (SANHANES-1*). Cape Town. HSRC Press.

Shulman, L. 1999. *The skills of helping individuals, families, groups and communities*. Fourth edition. Belmont: F.E. Peacock.

Shung-King, M., McTntyre, D. & Jacobs, M. 2005. *Healing Inequality: Targetting health care for children. Children’s Institute*. University of Cape Town.

Sibanda, S. & Sibanda, T. 2016a. *Financial education in South Africa: Overview of key initiatives and actors.* Geneva. International Labour Oragnisation.

Sibanda, S. & Sibanda, T. 2016b. *Innovative finance for social justice*. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Silverman, D. 2005. *Doing qualitative research*. Second edition. London: Sage.

Silverman, Y. 2018. *Financial social work: A growing speciality in clinical social work*. New York: The National Association of Social Workers.

Sinyolo, S., Mudhara, M. & Wale, E. 2016. The Impact of Social Grants on the Prospensity and Level of Use of Inorganic Fertilizer Among Smallholders in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa. *Ecology of Food Nutrition,* 57(5):21-23.

Smallbone, S., Crissman, B. & Rayment-McHugh, S. 2009. Improving therapeautic engagement with adolescent sexual offenders. *Behavioral Sciences and the Law*, 27(6):862-877.

Smeeding, T. and Weinberg, D. 2001. Towards a uniform definition of household income. *Review of Income and Wealth*, 47(1): 1-24.

Social and Enterprise Development Initiatives. 2004. *Financial capability and poverty.* Discussion paper, July.

South African Social Security Agency. 2012.
www.http://sassa.gov.za

SA Yearbook (South African Yearbook). 2016. Government Communication and Information System.

Ssebabagala, R. 2016. *What matters more for South Africa African households' debt re-payment difficulties.* CSSR working paper No 367. Cemtre for Social Science Research, University of Cape Town.

Staatz, J.M., Boughton, D.H. & Dovovan, C. 2009. *Food security in developing countries*. MI: Department of Agriculture, Food and Resources Economics.

StatsSA (Statistics South Africa). 2011. *Poverty trends in South Africa: An examination of absolute poverty between 2006 and 2011*. Report no. 03-10-06. Pretoria: Government Communication and Information System.

StatsSA (Statistics South Africa). 2014. *Poor households spend a third of their income on food*. Pretoria: Government Communication and Information System.

StatsSA (Statistics South Africa). 2015. *Poverty trends in South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Communication and Information System.

StatsSA (Statistics South Africa). 2017. *Poverty on the rise in South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Communication and Information System.

StatsSA (Statistics South Africa). 2018. *Statistics release P02 11: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 4:2017*. Pretoria: Government Communication and Information System.

Steward, H., Blisard, N., Byuyan, S. & Nayge, R. 2004. *The demand for food from home. Full service or fast food.*

Storchi, S. 2018. *Impact evaluation of savings groups and stokvels in South Africa: The economic and social value of group based financial inclusion*. Bath: Department of Social and Policy Sciences, University of Bath.

Storchi, S. & Johnson, S. 2015. *Financial wellbeing: An alternative perspective from the capability approach.* Bath: Centre for Development Studies, University of Bath.

Storchi, S. & Johnson, S. 2016. *Financial capability for wellbeing: An alternative perspective from the capability approach*. Bath paper no. 1: International Development and Wellbeing.

Streak, J. 2004. Did gear fail or move South Africa forward? *Development Southern Africa* 21(2): 271-288.

Strydom, H. 2011. Ethical aspects of research in the social sciences and human service professions. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 113-129.

Strydom, H. & Delport, C.S.L. 2011. Samplin and pilot study in qualitative research. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C.S.L. Delport (eds.). *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions.* Fourth edition. Pretoria: Van Schaik, 390-396.

Stuart, G. 2013. *Financial Literacy to Financial Capabilities: Implications for Practioners*. Centre for Financial Inclusion.

Taber, K. 2013. *Classroom-based Research and Evidence-based-Practice. An Introduction*. Second edition. Cambridge: Sage

Tanga, P. & Gutura, P. 2013. The impact of child support grant on participation in the labour market in rural Eastern Cape. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk*, 49(1):128–140.

Tapornycky, J. & Golparian, S. 2016. Balancing Openness and Interpretation in Active Listening. *Collected Essays on Learning and Teaching*, 9: 175-184

Taylor, M., Jenkins, S. & Sacker, M. 2011. Financial capability, income and psychosocial wellbeing. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 32(5): 710-723.

Tenai, N.K. 2016. Is poverty a matter of perspective? Significance of Amartya Sen for the church's response to poverty: A public practical theoretical reflection. *HTS Theological Studies,* 72(2):1-10.

The Global Findex Data Base. 2014. *Measuring Financial Inclusion around the World*. World Bank Group.

The World Bank. 2002. "*Voices of the Poor from Many Lands".* The World Bank Agenda 21.

The World Bank. 2010. *Food price increase in South Africa: National responses and regional dimensions.* Washington, DC: The International Bank Reconstruction and Development.

The World Bank. 2011. *Inadequate services combined with unemployment and continued poverty.*

The World Bank. 2013. *Financial capability surveys around the world: Why financial capability is important and how surveys can help.*

The World Bank. 2014. *Global financial development report: Financial inclusion.* Washington, DC.

The World Bank. 2017. *Six challenges to financial inclusion in South Africa.* Washington DC.

The World Bank. 2018. *Overcoming poverty and inequality in South Africa: An assessment of drivers, constraints and opportunities*. Washington DC.

Thosago, M.O. 2018. *The savings behaviour of informal settlement households with social grant recipients.* A case study of Freedom Park, Soweto. Southern Africa-Towards Inclusive Economic Growth, Working Paper 17.

Tibesigua, B. & Visser, M. 2015. *Small scale subsistence farming, food security, climate change and adaptation in South Africa: Female headed households and food insecurity.* Working paper no. 527. Economic Research Southern Africa.

Tissington, K. 2011*. Basic sanitation in South Africa: A guide to legislation, policy and practice.* Socio-Economic Rights Institute of South Africa.

Triegaardt, J.D. 2006. *Poverty and inequality in South Africa: Policy considerations in an emerging democracy.*

Triegaardt, J.D. 2012. *Reflections on Poverty and Inequality in South Africa: Policy Considerations in an Emerging Democracy*. University of Johannesburg, South Africa.

Tsheletsane, I. & Fourie, D. 2014. Factors hindering public financial management and accountability in South Africa. African *Journal of Public Affairs.* 7(4): 42-56

Tshoose, C.I. 2010. The impact of HIV and AIDS regarding informal social security: Issues and perspectives from a South African context. *Electronic Law Journal,* 13(3):407–447.

United Nations. 1989. Demographic Yearbook. United Nations: New York.

United Nations Development Programme. 1997. *Human Development Report of 1997*. Oxford University Press. New York.

Van der Berg, S., Siebritz, K. & Kekezwa, B. 2010. *Efficiency and equity effects of social grants in South Africa*. A working paper of the Department of Economics and the Bureau for Economic Research at the University of Stellenbosch.

Van Vyk, S.C.A. 2015. Graft sum a hidden figure: Has South Africa lost R700 billion to corruption since 1994. Africa checks and explain why the calculation is wrong. *Daily News*, 30 September 2015*.*

Van Vyk, K. & Dlamini, C. 2018. *The impact of food prices on the welfare of households in South Africa*. University of Stellenbosch Business School.

Wahab, S. 2012. Motivational interviewing and social work practice*. Journal of Social Work,* 5(1):45–60.

Weger, H., Castle Bell, G., Minei, E.M. & Robinson, M.C. 2014. The relative effectiveness of active listening in initial interacts. *International Journal of Listening*, 28:13–31.

Wentzel, A. 2016. Financial literacy in South Africa. Handbook of Financial Literacy.

Westaway, A. 2012. Rural poverty in the Eastern Cape province: Legacy of apartheid or consequences of contemporary segregationism? *Development Southern Africa*, 29(1):115–125.

Williams, M. 2007. *The social and economic impacts of social grants in South Africa*. BA dissertation. Williams College. Retrieved from http://www.williams.edu/Economics/Honors/2007/Williams_thesis.pdf [Accessed 22 July 2019].

Wolfsohn, R. 2012. *Financial social work basics and best practice*.: Centre for Financial Social Work.School of Social Work, University of Maryland

Wolfsohn, R. 2015. Financial wellness as a social work speciality [Webinar] Retrieved from http://naswwa.inreach.com/search/Results?searchType=category=b5d0f68-fcd3-4e82-be6f-8947f4ce2573 On 07/02/2019.

Wolfsohn, R. & Michaeli, D. 2014. *Financial social work: Couples and families, Clinical and Direct Practice, Human Behaviour.*

World Literacy Foundation. 2018. *The economic and social cost of illiteracy: A White Paper by the World Literacy Foundation*. World Literacy Summit, 25–27 March, Oxford United Kingdom.

doi: 10.1093/acrefore/9780199975839.013.923

Woolard, T. & Leibbrandt, M. 2010. *The evolution and impact of unconditional cash transfers in South Africa*. Working paper series 51. Cape Tonw: SALDRU, University of Cape Town.

Yu, D, Kasongo, A & Moses, M. 2016. Examining the Performance of the South African Economics Departments, 2005-2014. South African Journal of Economics. 85(1): 138-158

Xiao, J.J. 2008. Applying Behavioural Theories to Financial Behaviour. In Xiao, J.J. (ed.). *Handbook of Consumer Finance Research. Springer*, 69-81

Xiao, J.J. 2016. *Consumer financial capability and well-being*. Handbook of consumer finance. New York, NY: Springer.

Xu, L. & Zia, B. 2012. *Financial literacy around the world: An overview of the evidence with practical suggestions for the way forward.*

Yu, D., Kasongo, A. & Moses, M. 2016. How two crucial trends are affecting unemployment in South Africa. *The Conversation*, 11 April 2016.

Zastrow, C. & Kirst-Ashman, K. 1997. *Understanding human behaviour and social environment*. Eighth Edition. Canege Learning.

Zastrow, C. 2014. *Introduction to Social Work and Social Welfare: Empowering People*. Eleventh Edition. International Edition: Brooks/Cole.

Zhan, M., Anderson, S.G. & Scott, J. 2006. *Financial knowledge of the low-income households.*

Zwane, T., Greyling, L. & Maleka, M. 2016. The determinants of household savings in South Africa: A panel data approach. *International Business and Economics Research Journal, 15(4)*: 209-218.

ANNEXURES

Annexure 1: Interview schedule for social workers

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

1. How do you define people as financially vulnerable?
2. How are financially vulnerable people usually referred to you?
3. What types of interventions have you rendered to service users?
4. How did you implement these interventions?
5. Did you make any referrals to external agencies?
6. Were there any service users to whom you were unable to render interventions?
7. What were the expectations of the service users when they approached you?
8. What was the level of cooperation of the service users when you implemented the interventions?
9. Were the interventions effective in ameliorating the financial vulnerability of the service users?
10. Do you think that you have the necessary knowledge and skills for facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?

11. What do you think are challenges that limit you from effectively facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?
12. What is your view on the current role that social workers play in facilitating the financial capabilities of vulnerable households and poverty alleviation?
13. What do you think should be the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities of vulnerable households?
14. What do you think could be done to capacitate social workers to enhance their professional role of facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?

Annexure 2: Interview schedule for social work supervisors

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SOCIAL WORK SUPERVISORS

1. How do you define people as financially vulnerable?
2. How are financially vulnerable people usually referred to social workers?
3. How effective are social workers' interventions in facilitating the development of vulnerable households' financial capabilities?
4. What challenges do social workers face in facilitating the development of vulnerable households' financial capabilities?
5. Do you think you have the necessary skills and knowledge to supervise social workers in facilitating the development of vulnerable households' financial capabilities?
6. What is your view on social workers' current role in facilitating the development of vulnerable households' financial capabilities, as well as in poverty alleviation?
7. What do you think should social workers' role be in facilitating the development of vulnerable households' financial capabilities?

What do you think could be done to capacitate social workers to enhance their professional role of facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?

Annexure 3: Interview schedule for social work policy managers

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SOCIAL WORK POLICY MANAGERS

1. How do you define people as financially vulnerable?
2. How are financially vulnerable people usually referred to the sub-direcorate?
3. What is the sub-directorate’s role in poverty alleviation?
4. What is the sub-directorate’s role in facilitating the development of vulnerable households’ financial capabilities?
5. What is the sub-directorate’s role in poverty alleviation through facilitating the development of vulnerable households’ financial capabilities?
6. What is the sub-directorate’s role in using policy interventions to improve the way in which the development of vulnerable households’ financial capabilities is facilitated?
7. What challenges does the sub-directorate face in formulating such policy interventions?
8. What is your view on social workers’ current role in facilitating the development of vulnerable households’ financial capabilities, as well as in poverty alleviation?
9. What do you think should social workers’ role be in facilitating the development of vulnerable households’ financial capabilities?
10. What do you think could be done to capacitate social workers to enhance their professional role of facilitating the financial capabilities development of vulnerable households?

Annexure 4: Permission to conduct study from ECDSD HOD

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Beacon Hill Office Park - Corner of Hargreaves Road and Hockley Close – Private Bag X0039 – Bhisho – 5605 – REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: +27 (0)43 605 5237 Fax: 043 605 5612 - Email address: linda.saki@ecdsd.gov.za Website: www.ecdsd.gov.za

02 AUGUST 2019

Mr.N.Bambeni
No.C11New Northcrest Flats
John Beer Drive
North Crest
Mthatha
5100

Dear Mr.Bambeni

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN FACILITATING FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES OF VULNERABLE HOUSEHOLDS

The Department considered your application for permission to conduct a research study in O.R.Tambo and Buffalo City Districts. The application is hereby approved.

You are requested to adhere to the following conditions:

1. You will liaise with
   - Ms.Linda Saki: Assistant Director: Population Policy Promotion, Provincial Office to keep her abreast of progress and any issues that might arise when conducting your research. Contact details are.lindasaki93@gmail.com/0718814249
   - Ms Afika Siziba,District Director Buffalo City, to facilitate access to the identified respondents. Contact her at afika.siziba@ecdsd.gov.za
   - Ms.Nomsa Titus, District Director O.R.Tambo,to facilitate access to the identified respondents. Contact her at nomsa.titus@ecdsd.gov.za
   - Mr.Tembisile Toyiya,Chief Director Programme 2&3,Provincial Office, to facilitate access to the identified respondents. Contact him at tembisile.toyiya@ecdsd.gov.za

2. Interviews with the identified respondents must be conducted with the least disruption of service delivery.

3. The Department must be afforded a fair opportunity to respond to any issues that might arise from the research before publication.

4. After completion of your research, you must provide the Department (Population Policy Promotion Unit) with a written research report. The report will be used to inform Departmental programmes.

5. The research be undertaken for academic purposes only.

6. Strictly adhere to ethical standards to make sure no harm comes to participants in the study.

APPROVAL LETTER FOR MR.BAMBENI Building a Caring Society Together.

7. You avail yourself should the need arise, to make a presentation of the findings and recommendations to the Department.

Please acknowledge and sign this document to indicate that you agree to and accept the conditions as stated above. Return the signed document via e-mail to the Assistant Director: Population Policy Promotion E-mail, lindasaki93@gmail.com

I wish you well with the research and look forward to the findings and recommendations.

Yours sincerely

MS.N. BAART
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
DATE: 12/08/2019

Mr. N.Bambeni
PhD CANDIDATE: UNIV.OF STELLENBOSCH
DATE: 12/08/2019

Annexure 5: Ethical clearance letter

UNIVERSITEIT
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (SBER) - Initial Application Form

26 November 2019

Project number: 10619

Project Title: The role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households

Dear Mr Ntobeko Bambeni

Your response to stipulations submitted on 7 November 2019 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following for your approved submission:

Ethics approval period:

Protocol approval date (Humanities)	Protocol expiration date (Humanities)
23 July 2019	22 July 2022

GENERAL COMMENTS:

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (10619) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary)

Included Documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Research Protocol/Proposal	Research Proposal for ethical clearance	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Budget	PHD RESEARCH BUDGET	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Informed Consent Form	CONSENT FORM	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Data collection tool	BIOGRAPHY OF PARTICIPANTS AND THEMES INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH SOCIAL WORKERS	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Proof of permission	Ltr for pmission	12/06/2019	12/06/2019
Default	Permission letter to conduct study	19/07/2019	
Default	Permission letter to conduct study	02/08/2019	

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

UNIVERSITEIT
STELLENBOSCH
UNIVERSITY

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (SBER) - Initial Application Form

26 November 2019

Project number: 10619

Project Title: The role of social workers in facilitating financial capabilities development of vulnerable households

Dear Mr Ntobeko Bambeni

Your response to stipulations submitted on 7 November 2019 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Humanities.

Please note the following for your approved submission:

Ethics approval period:

Protocol approval date (Humanities)	Protocol expiration date (Humanities)
23 July 2019	22 July 2022

GENERAL COMMENTS:

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (10619) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary)

Included Documents:

Document Type	File Name	Date	Version
Research Protocol/Proposal	Research Proposal for ethical clearance	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Budget	PHD RESEARCH BUDGET	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Informed Consent Form	CONSENT FORM	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Data collection tool	BIOGRAPHY OF PARTICIPANTS AND THEMES INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH SOCIAL WORKERS	11/06/2019	11/06/2019
Proof of permission	Ltr for permission	12/06/2019	12/06/2019
Default	Permission letter to conduct study	19/07/2019	
Default	Permission letter to conduct study	02/08/2019	

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number: REC-050411-032.
The Research Ethics Committee: Humanities complies with the SA National Health Act No.61 2003 as it pertains to health research. In addition, this committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research established by the Declaration of Helsinki (2013) and the Department of Health Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes (2nd Ed.) 2015. *Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.*

Investigator Responsibilities

Protection of Human Research Participants

Some of the general responsibilities investigators have when conducting research involving human participants are listed below:

1.Conducting the Research. You are responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC approved research protocol. You are also responsible for the actions of all your co-investigators and research staff involved with this research. You must also ensure that the research is conducted within the standards of your field of research.

2.Participant Enrollment. You may not recruit or enroll participants prior to the REC approval date or after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials for any form of media must be approved by the REC prior to their use.

3.Informed Consent. You are responsible for obtaining and documenting effective informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents/process, and for ensuring that no human participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their informed consent. Please give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents. Keep the originals in your secured research files for at least five (5) years.

4.Continuing Review. The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period.** Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is your responsibility to submit the progress report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur.** If REC approval of your research lapses, you must stop new participant enrollment, and contact the REC office immediately.

5.Amendments and Changes. If you wish to amend or change any aspect of your research (such as research design, interventions or procedures, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material), you must submit the amendment to the REC for review using the current Amendment Form. You **may not initiate** any amendments or changes to your research without first obtaining written REC review and approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

6.Adverse or Unanticipated Events. Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to Malene Fouche within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. You must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants. The only exception to this policy is that the death of a research participant must be reported in accordance with the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee Standard Operating Procedures. All reportable events should be submitted to the REC using the Serious Adverse Event Report Form.

7.Research Record Keeping. You must keep the following research related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence from the REC

8.Provision of Counselling or emergency support. When a dedicated counsellor or psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

9.Final reports. When you have completed (no further participant enrollment, interactions or interventions) or stopped work on your research, you must submit a Final Report to the REC.

10.On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits. If you are notified that your research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, you must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.

Annexure 6: Informed consent to participate in the research

CONSENT FORM (SOCIAL WORKERS, SUPERVISORS, SOCIAL WORK POLICY MANAGERS)

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

THE ROLE OF SOCIAL WORKERS IN FACILITATING THE FINANCIAL CAPABILITIES DEVELOPMENT OF VULNERABLE HOUSEHOLDS

THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Ntobeko Bambeni, a doctoral student from the Social Work Department at Stellenbosch University. The results of this study will be part of a research report. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a social worker in one of the four selected service offices of the Department of Social Development.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to gain an in-depth understanding of the role social workers play in facilitating financial capabilities of vulnerable households in the Department of Social Development.

2. PROCEDURE

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we will ask you to do the following:

- Be available to participate in an one on one interview at a convenient time determined and agreed upon by you and the researcher.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

No harm is foreseen during or after the research, as all interviews are regarded as confidential and no names of participants will be included in the narrative of the research.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The research will be available on the public domain and will be beneficial to similar organisations wishing to understand the role of social workers in facilitating the financial capabilities of financially vulnerable households.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The cost of the research will be borne by the researcher and no costs will be incurred by the participants or the Department of Social Development.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information obtained in connection with this study that may be connected to you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. The data will be stored in a locked cabinet at the home of the researcher, thus ensuring confidentiality. The names of participants will not be used in the research narrative, and neither will the service offices be mentioned by name, as information provided during the interviews will be kept in the strictest confidence.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You may choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

Should you need further information about the research, contact the researcher at telephone 073 217 8839 or via email at ntobeko.bambeni@webmail.co.za.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact the supervisor, Prof L. Engelbrecht, Department of Social Work, Stellenbosch University, at telephone 021 8082073 or via email at lke@sun.ac.za

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Malene Touché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; tel. 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me, the participant, in ______________________________________ Afrikaans/English/Xhosa/other, and I am in command of this language, or it was satisfactory translated to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study.

Name of Participant____________________________________

Signature of Participant_________________________________

Date_______________________________

SIGNATURE OF THE INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to ____ (name of participant). He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in both English and Xhosa and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator______________________________

Date___________________________