Poverty, inequality and social exclusion in South Africa

A systematic assessment of how key policies, strategies and flagship programmes address poverty, inequality and equity issues

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<td>BBBEE</td>
<td>Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment</td>
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<td>CSDA</td>
<td>Centre for Social Development in Africa</td>
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<td>DAFF</td>
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<td>Expanded Public Works Programme</td>
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<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
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<td>Medium Term Strategic Framework</td>
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<td>Reconstruction and Development Programme</td>
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1. Introduction

Poverty, inequality and social exclusion have received global attention in the post-2015 development agenda. Despite significant progress in poverty reduction in many parts of the world, social and economic inequalities persist and vulnerable groups continue to confront barriers that prevent them from fully participating in economic, social and political life. In this context,

“[I]nclusiveness and shared prosperity have emerged as core aspirations of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. A central pledge contained in the 2030 Agenda is to ensure that no one will be left behind and to see all goals and targets met for all nations, peoples and for all parts of society, endeavouring to reach the furthest behind first.” (UN, 2016)

The United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) focus on equity specifically identifies those who are excluded because of their age, gender, race, ethnicity, disability or migrant status, lack opportunities, resources and influence. With regard to South Africa, the SDGs find expression in the Africa Agenda 2063 and in national monitoring targets, with a focus on the most vulnerable and the extreme poor (StatsSA, 2017).

In line with global development agendas, for more than two decades, South Africa has sought to address poverty and inequality with a wide range of initiatives (World Bank, 2018). As stated in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994) and reiterated in the National Development Plan (NDP) (2012), "no political democracy can survive and flourish if the mass of our people remain in poverty, without land, without tangible prospects for a better life…attacking poverty and deprivation must therefore be the first priority of a democratic government". For example, the ‘social wage’ has been used as a redistributive mechanism of the government budget deliberately aimed at improving the lives of the poor and reducing their cost of living. This has been achieved through several interventions including free primary health care, no-fee paying schools, old age and child support grants, housing, and free basic services (water, electricity and sanitation) to poor households.

Although these policy frameworks have resulted in notable gains in poverty reduction since 1994, the country continues to face the challenge of high poverty, high inequality and high unemployment. Figure 1 gives a ‘Scorecard’ summarizing progress over a five (2011-2015) and a ten year (2006-2015) period. Many indicators have improved over the 10 year period but worsened or stagnated over the 5 year period. Income inequality levels are among the highest in the world. South Africa has made progress in reducing poverty over the past two decades, but high inequality acts as a brake on poverty reduction, and poverty rates remain high. South Africans remain sharply divided along racial and socioeconomic lines, even though discriminatory laws have been abolished (David et al., 2018). In the past five years, poverty has increased and over half the population are poor (Statistics South Africa, 2017). Child poverty rates are disproportionately high. In 2014, the top 10% of the population received two thirds of national income, while the top 1% received 20% of national income (Alvaredo et al., 2018).
Towards the promotion of greater inclusiveness and equity in access to services, resources, and opportunities; greater empowerment of disadvantaged and marginalized groups to participate in social, economic, and political life; and greater security to cope with chronic or sudden risks, especially for poor and vulnerable groups, this project is premised on the understanding that policies matter and can make a real difference, and are a significant component of efforts to address poverty and inequality. For discrimination to be reversed, barriers including legislation and policies that prevent participation need to be addressed. This project therefore examines whether the commitments expressed in key policy documents to address poverty and inequality have been endorsed across social and economic policies, strategies and programmes. The study assesses whether these are inclusive and adequately address and prioritise reduction of poverty and inequality; and provide a basis for mainstreaming equity and poverty reduction in South Africa’s policies, strategies and programmes. For each policy, strategy and programme across socio-economic sectors, this project seeks to determine whether poverty, inequality and equity considerations are recognized, and for each sector whether targets are set, and whether the realization of these targets is actively and routinely monitored.

The project is aligned with the realisation of the National Development Plan, and with the strategic outcomes of the Medium Term Strategic Framework 2014-2019 (Republic of South Africa, 2014).
2. Poverty, inequality and social exclusion in South Africa: a review of the literature

2.1 Definitions

Although they are related, poverty and inequality are distinct concepts, centred on deprivation (for poverty) and disadvantage (for inequality). Poverty describes a state in which individuals or households show significant deficits in wellbeing (Barrientos, 2010). Inequality, on the other hand, is a situation of disadvantage vis-à-vis others. While poverty focuses on those whose standard of living falls below a threshold, inequality is related to variations in living standards across a whole population (McKay, 2002, Soudien et al., 2018). Both concepts operate with narrow definitions that focus on a singular measure of deprivation/disadvantage (usually income) and broad definitions, which include a wider range of aspects considered important to capture fully the experience of being poor or disadvantaged (Plagerson and Ulriksen, 2016). Broad definitions recognise that both poverty and inequality are complex and multi-dimensional.

One-dimensional poverty is income poverty (or lack of money) measured by an income-related variable, such as a US$1.25 cut-off (as in MDG1). Income-based definitions assume that people require a minimum level of consumption of food, shelter and clothing to survive and that these minimum needs can be quantified and linked to prices, in order to construct poverty lines (Hall and Midgley, 2004). While a one-dimensional definition does not deny other dimensions of poverty, it assumes that an increase in incomes naturally leads to a reduction in all aspects of deprivation. In South Africa, StatsSA employs three poverty lines, the food poverty line (FPL)(the rand value below which individuals are unable to purchase or consume enough food to supply them with the minimum per-capita-per-day energy requirement for adequate health), the lower-bound poverty line (LBPL)(below which individuals cannot purchase or consume adequate food and non-food items), and the upper-bound poverty line (UBPL)(able to purchase both adequate levels of food and non-food items)(StatsSA, 2017).

Multi-dimensional poverty is a composite variable that understands poverty to be caused and experienced as a complex range of related deprivations in areas such as living standards, work, health, income, nutrition, education, services, housing and assets, power and security, among others. The South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI) uses four dimensions, namely education, health, living standards and economic activity to measure poverty (StatsSA, 2017).

One-dimensional inequality is measured between individuals within a population, for example, using a Gini coefficient (a measure of inequality in which 0 represents perfect equality and 1 represents total inequality). Comparative studies on inequality tend to focus on income inequality with the Gini coefficient being used as the primary source of data.

Multi-dimensional inequality understands inequality to be caused and experienced as a complex range of related inequalities. Inequalities (in employment, health, nutrition, education, services, housing and assets, power, security, etc.) intersect with categorical
inequalities (in gender, class, caste, geography, ethnicity, etc.), generating multiple layers of disadvantage (Spicker, 2014). Multi-dimensional inequality encompasses both inequality in opportunities and inequality in outcomes (McKay, 2002).

Social exclusion can be defined as “a state in which individuals are unable to participate fully in economic, social, political and cultural life, as well as the process leading to and sustaining such a state” (UN, 2016). Social exclusion describes a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against on the basis of their gender, age, ethnicity, religion, disability, migrant status, where they live or other dimensions. People can be excluded from many domains of life, including social, economic, political, civic or spatial spheres and discrimination may occur in public institutions, such as the legal system or education and health services, as well as social institutions like the household and in communities (DFID, 2005). Social exclusion is closely related to inequality, since trends in inequality suggest that prosperity has not been equitably shared. Improvements in income inequality may not automatically translate into improved welfare outcomes for all marginalized individuals or groups (UN, 2016). Excluded groups often experience disadvantages on several fronts in ways which reinforce each other. Lower levels of health and education go hand in hand with higher levels of poverty and unemployment, as well as less voice in political and civic life. The inequalities observed have historical roots but tend to persist even after the structural conditions that created them change. Therefore overcoming poverty and inequality may pose greater challenges for some segments of the population, who face social exclusion, therefore policies need to specifically address excluded groups.

2.2 Poverty in South Africa

There has been substantial progress in reducing poverty in South Africa since the end of apartheid. Nearly 2.3 million South Africans escaped poverty between 2006 and 2015. During this period, the poverty rate (using the national lower-bound poverty line of ZAR 758 per person per month - April 2017 prices), fell from 51 percent to 40 percent (World Bank, 2018. However, while there has been progress in reducing the incidence of poverty, this has been slow, and poverty rates remain extremely high for an upper middle-income country ). In 2017, Statistics South Africa reported that in 2015, 55.5 percent of the South African population could not afford to meet their basic needs – down from 66.6 percent in 2006, but up from 53.2 per cent in 2011 (Zizzamia et al., 2019, StatsSA, 2017). The reversal in the trajectory of poverty reduction between 2011 and 2015 has threatened to erode some of the gains made since 1994. Consistent with these trends, the depth and severity of poverty has significantly improved overall between 2006 and 2015, with positive effects for the welfare of those living under the poverty line, but has worsened again in the last 5 years.

One of the NDP’s targets for 2030 is for South Africa to reduce poverty-induced hunger to zero percent. Food insecurity occurs when people do not have sustainable physical or economic access to enough nutritious and socially acceptable food for a healthy and productive life. Hunger leads to malnutrition, high rates of diseases and mortality, it limits the development of children, and can reduce productivity, creating a vicious cycle in which poor workers are unable to make enough income to obtain adequate calories to be productive. According to the General Household Survey, between 2002 and 2007, the number of people
vulnerable to hunger was cut in half, dropping from 29.3% in 2002 to 13.7% in 2007. Between 2007 and 2011, during which the global financial crisis occurred, the number of persons vulnerable to hunger increased, and then returned to pre-crisis levels at 13.1 percent. However, progress since 2011 has been almost stagnant and in 2016, the number of people vulnerable to hunger was measured at 13.4% of the population (StatsSA, 2017).

Notable progress has been made in reducing multidimensional poverty since the end of apartheid in 1994. An estimation of the South African Multidimensional Poverty Index (SAMPI) shows a notable decline in multidimensional poverty between 2001 and 2016. The major reduction in multidimensional poverty took place between 2001 and 2011, but stagnated between 2011 and 2015. Driving the overall progress, access to basic public services has been significantly broadened. With regard to access to opportunities, access to primary education is almost universal. There has also been a dramatic increase in access to electricity, water and sanitation services (StatsSA, 2016b, StatsSA, 2016a). Comparing South Africa to other countries and regions in terms of the proportion of the population with access to electricity, improved water sources, and improved sanitation facilities suggests South Africa lags behind an average upper middle-income country but performs better than an average country in Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank, 2018).

The analysis of poverty dynamics adds a layer of understanding, since households may move in and out of poverty over time, remain trapped in poverty, or succeed in escaping poverty. Using data from five waves of the National Income Dynamics Survey researchers distinguish between the chronic poor, the transient poor and the vulnerable poor (Zizzamia et al., 2019, Schotte et al., 2017). The chronic poor are trapped in poverty, the transient poor are classified as below the poverty line but with above average chances of escaping poverty, and the vulnerable are classified as above the poverty line but with above average chances of falling into poverty. Chronic poverty experienced as a persistent state still dominates the overall poverty landscape, with close to 50 percent of the population trapped in chronic poverty and highly unlikely to escape poverty. Persistence is a clear dimension of poverty, with thirty-six percent of all panel members remaining consistently below the poverty line in all five waves of the study (2008-2017). The chronically poor are characterised by low levels of education as well as geographical isolation from markets and employment opportunities. Race, household size, and labour market insertion are important determinants of poverty status (Finn and Leibbrandt, 2017) and persistent poverty affects primarily African, single-parent, female-headed, and rural households (World Bank, 2018).

Combined, the transient poor and the vulnerable groups also represent a considerable share of South Africa’s population, estimated at 27 percent of the population (Zizzamia et al., 2019). They are typically more urban, better educated and rely more heavily on income earned in the labour market than the chronically poor. However, their vulnerable position in the labour market is linked to economic instability, since many rely on precarious and irregular forms of employment (Zizzamia et al., 2019). Combining the chronic poor and transitory poor suggests that for three quarters of the population, poverty is a constant threat in their daily lives.

### 2.3 Inequality in South Africa

Despite policies that have led to improvements in income poverty, South Africa has become a more unequal society after 1994, rather than a more equal one. Post-apartheid South
Africa inherited very high levels of income inequality. The Gini coefficient rose from 0.66 in 1993 to 0.72 in 2006. Despite a decrease since 2006 to 0.68 in 2015, South Africa is the most unequal country in the world (StatsSA, 2017). The World Inequality Report 2018 relates that in 2014 the richest 10 percent of the population received two thirds of national income, while the top one percent received 20 percent of national income (Alvaredo et al., 2018).

Wealth inequality is even greater than income inequality, with a Gini coefficient of 0.93 in 2015, and is an important source of intergenerational inequality (Mbewe and Woolard, 2016, World Bank, 2018). Analysis of wealth inequality between 2008 and 2015 found that the top ten percent of households had 71 percent of the wealth and the bottom 60 percent had 7 percent of net wealth (World Bank, 2018, Mbewe and Woolard, 2016).

South Africa is also characterized by extreme wage inequality. The number of workers with highly skilled jobs is low, while a large proportion of the working population is employed in very low paid jobs. For instance, top end jobs earn nearly five times the average wage for low-skill jobs yet represent less than 20 percent of the total working population. Wage inequality increased significantly between 1995 and 2014. The wage Gini coefficient rose from 0.58 to 0.69 between 1995 and 2014. At the same time, the Palma ratio (the share of the top 10 percent of earners’ wages to the share of the bottom 40 percent) has almost doubled, from 5.1 to 10.1 (World Bank, 2018). While wages have risen for skilled workers, the stagnation of wages for semi-skilled workers has fuelled the increase in wage inequality (World Bank, 2018).

Several related factors underlie and perpetuate the persistent levels of inequality. Labour markets have been driven by a growth path which is skills- and capital-intensive, and reinforce the polarisation between a small proportion of high paying jobs in large companies in the formal sector, and a large number of insecure and poorly paid jobs in the informal sector (Hundenborn et al., 2017). High levels of unemployment have exacerbated the variance. In a context of slow job creation and sluggish growth, unemployment rose to 27.6 percent in the first quarter of 2019 (narrow definition) and to 40.9 percent (using a broad definition including discouraged work-seekers)(StatsSA, 2019). More broadly the World Inequality Report 2018 suggest that the policies of trade and financial liberalization that occurred after the end of apartheid, and the slow progress towards redistributing land equally, may contribute to explaining income inequality dynamics (Alvaredo et al., 2018).

Inequality of opportunities presents a more mixed picture. Some opportunities, such as school attendance by children under the age of 16, school instructors, adequate teachers, and access to electricity are now nearly universal. Access to telecommunications has greatly increased. There are still considerable levels of inequality in the distribution of indicators such as quality of education, and improved access to water and sanitation. The distribution of health insurance, housing conditions without overcrowding, access to tertiary education and school attendance among youth is highly unequal across the population (World Bank, 2018).
2.4 Social exclusion in South Africa

The previous section highlighted vertical inequalities, across the population as a whole. The focus in this section is on the ‘horizontal’ inequalities, between groups. On one hand, South Africa has a rich and celebrated diversity in terms of race, ethnicity, gender and language. However, these markers also highlight deep inequalities that characterise relations across groups, despite constitutional protections and guarantees.

Longitudinal measures of social cohesion provide mixed results. Analysis of the NIDS data suggests that over time, social cohesion has been improving, although the gains have been small. These gains have been driven primarily by improvements in perceived trust, and more recently, by reduced perceptions of inequality. Progress made in the provision of basic services (such as access to water and electricity in the home, ownership of household assets, street lights, refuse collection) contribute positively to building social cohesion. However, researchers investigating the relationship between social cohesion and inequality using data from the South African Reconciliation Barometer Surveys, showed that despite progress in access to assets and services since 2008, subjective inequality has not improved. They found that about 70 percent of South Africans perceive that the extent of inequality (the gap between the poor and the rich) has not changed much or has even worsened over time. They also showed that although there is some improvement in the extent of inter-racial interactions over time, less than a third of South Africans often or always talk or socialize with someone from a different racial group. Similarly, an international comparison of social polarization using the Duclos-Esteban-Ray index (which measures the extent to which groups of individuals within a country feel alienated from each other even when this alienation takes place alongside a strong within-group identity) shows that South Africa has the highest value of the index and that the value has stayed quite constant over a ten year period (2005-2015).

As was noted earlier, poverty, income, wealth, wage and opportunities often intersect directly with race, gender, age, disability and spatial distributions.

Women make up a large percentage of the poor, particularly in rural areas (StatsSA, 2018). The proportion of females living below the poverty line is consistently higher than for men and has remained so in times of decreased and increased poverty (StatsSA, 2017). Poverty is consistently higher among individuals living in female-headed households compared to those living in male-headed households. In 2015, the poverty headcount among female-headed households was 51.2 percent compared to 31.4 percent among male-headed households. Gender disparities are still predominant in South Africa’s labour market with unemployment at 29.5 for women and 26.1 for men (StatsSA, 2019).

With regard to age, children experience higher levels of poverty and account for the largest share of poor persons in South Africa, with 66.8 percent of children under the upper-bound poverty line in 2015 (StatsSA, 2017). Children up to age 5 consistently register the highest poverty rates. The youth (18–24) had the second highest proportion of people living below the LBPL in 2015, with more than two out of every five (43.6%) youth living below this line. Between 2011 and 2015, this proportion increased by 2.9 percentage points or roughly 0.73 percentage points per annum. The fastest decline in poverty was experienced by the elderly, aged 65 and above, from 64.7 percent in 2006 to 44.0 in 2015.
Disparities between population groups by race are still very marked. In post-apartheid South Africa, affluence has been de-racialised, but poverty has remained stubbornly racialised. Black South Africans consistently exhibit the highest poverty rates. Not all black Africans remain poor, but the great majority of the poor remain African. In 2015, average incomes in households with a black African head were a fifth of those for households with a white head (StatsSA, 2016). Unemployment rates are 30.5 percent for black Africans and 8 percent for whites. Race still affects the ability to find a job, as well as the wages received once employed (World Bank, 2018).

Persons with disabilities have much lower personal incomes when compared to non-disabled people, with women particularly disadvantaged (Kidd et al., 2018). Children with disabilities are at higher risk of living in households with inadequate access to water and sanitation, in informal settlements, and are less likely to attend school than non-disabled children. Only 63.9 percent of young people with severe functional limitations (age 12-17) were attending school compared to 96.1 percent of young people without disabilities (Kidd et al., 2018).

Poverty and inequality have a strong spatial dimension, by province and rural/urban location. Poverty is higher in rural than in urban areas, and the gap between rural and urban poverty rates widened between 2006 and 2015. In 2006, 60.3 percent of the poor were in rural areas. This decreased marginally to 59.7 percent in 2015. In 2015, though poverty rates have improved overall, 65.4 percent of the rural population lived below the poverty line, compared to 25.4 percent in urban areas. Not only is the poverty headcount ratio higher in rural areas compared to urban areas, poverty is deeper and more unequal in rural areas as well. However, the depth and severity of poverty fell faster in rural than in urban areas between 2006 and 2015. Whether a child lives in a township or rural area as opposed to an urban area, also contributes to inequalities of opportunity, particularly with regard to access to infrastructure (World Bank, 2018).

There is also variation by province with Limpopo and the Eastern Cape reporting the highest levels of poverty (StatsSA, 2017). Provincially, the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, and Limpopo were consistently the three poorest provinces between 2006 and 2015. At 59.1 percent, Eastern Cape had the highest poverty rate in 2015 and recorded the lowest reduction in poverty levels. Limpopo had the highest poverty headcount ratio of 67.1 percent in 2006, 52.7 percent in 2011, and 57.0 percent in 2015. Gauteng consistently has had the lowest poverty rate (19.0 percent in 2015). Not only do poverty and inequality vary cross provinces, they vary across districts and municipalities, and the variation in poverty levels between the richest and poorest municipalities is high and has been widening. Overall, the spatial distribution of poverty shifted from the central areas of the country in 1996 to the borders and remote areas in 2011.

### 2.5 Key socio-economic strategies

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, South Africa has sought to address poverty and inequality with a wide range of initiatives (Alvaredo et al., 2018, World Bank, 2018, Soudien et al., 2018). Several redistributive social policies have been implemented and/or extended. The social wage – which refers to the government’s investment in education, health services, social development including social assistance to vulnerable households and individuals as well as contributory social security, public transport, housing, and access to
basic services – has played a notable role in the government’s efforts to reduce poverty and inequality. The extensive cash transfer system benefits over 17 million low-income South Africans.

The achievement of redistributive goals has also been pursued through several channels including changing patterns of ownership, training programmes, tax collection and redistribution, and compliance with BBBEE legislation (Webster, 2013). The state has increased its capacity to collect taxes and efficiently expanded its ability to spend revenues on pro-poor social assistance programmes (NPC 2011, World Bank 2014). Effective regulation and compliance of the labour market has increased. Active labour-market policies have been instituted to remove discrimination based on race, gender and disability, and to nurture opportunities and access to employment, with tax incentives for companies to invest in skills development (Patel, 2015). Specific government structures and institutions have been created to safeguard and promote the country’s national development goals, such as the Department for Social Development, the Department for Women, the South African Social Security Agency and the National Development Agency, to name a few.

Strong legislative frameworks and policy initiatives have underpinned these efforts towards inclusive development and deepening democracy and are the focus of this study (Sections 3-7). The 1993 Reconstruction and Development Programme identified poverty reduction as a central goal. Internationally acclaimed, the South African Constitution promotes and protects social and economic rights, and gender equality (R.S.A., 1996). These provisions in South Africa have transformed the previously discretionary and discriminatory policy framework of the apartheid regime. Overall, over the past two decades the state has overseen important shifts in the promotion of a transformative agenda.

The National Development Plan 2030 (NPC, 2011) established poverty and inequality reduction as central aims for public policy with a mandate to accelerate growth, create decent work and promote investment in a competitive economy. The subsequent Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) was developed as the government’s strategic plan for the 2014-2019 electoral term, as part of realising the state’s commitment to deepening transformation and implementing the NDP. The MTSF sets out the actions that government will take and targets to be achieved, in particular to contribute to establishing “a non-racial, non-sexist, united and prosperous South Africa, and for a society based on fundamental human rights, equality and unity in diversity”. The NDP also focuses on eliminating gender and racial disparities and addressing inequalities that emanate from other identity markers, such as disability, across various levels of society.

### National Development Plan 2030 – quotes on poverty, inequality and social exclusion

*The National Development Plan aims to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030. (p.24)*

No political democracy can survive and flourish if the mass of our people remain in poverty, without land, without tangible prospects for a better life...attacking poverty and deprivation must therefore be the first priority of a democratic government (quoted from the Reconstruction and Development Programme, 1994, p.24)

The plan presents a long-term strategy to increase employment and broaden opportunities through education, vocational training and work experience, public employment programmes, health and nutrition, public transport and access to information. While there are “quick wins” to be achieved in each of these areas, the strategies will take time to have a large-scale effect on poverty. (p.28)

In nearly every facet of life, advances are being made in building an inclusive society, rolling back the shadow of history and broadening opportunities for all. South Africa has been able to build the institutions necessary for a
democratic and transformative state. The Constitution enshrines a rights-based approach and envisions a prosperous, non-racial, non-sexist democracy that belongs to all its people. Healing the wounds of the past and redressing the inequities caused by centuries of racial exclusion are constitutional imperatives. (p.24)

Eighteen years into democracy, South Africa remains a highly unequal society where too many people live in poverty and too few work. The quality of school education for most black learners is poor. The apartheid spatial divide continues to dominate the landscape. A large proportion of young people feel that the odds are stacked against them. (p.24)

Uniting South Africa is both an essential input into the process of reducing poverty and inequality and a direct outcome of successful poverty reduction. To build a socially cohesive society, South Africa needs to reduce poverty and inequality by broadening opportunity and employment through economic inclusion, education and skills, and specific redress measures; promote mutual respect and inclusiveness by acting on the constitutional imperative that South Africa belongs to all who live in it, and that all are equal before the law; and deepen the appreciation of citizens’ responsibilities and obligations towards one another. (p.35)

Women make up a large percentage of the poor, particularly in rural areas. The plan takes gender – along with race and geographic location – into account, proposing a range of measures to advance women’s equality. (p.43)

Disability and poverty operate in a vicious circle. Disability often leads to poverty and poverty, in turn, often results in disability. People with disabilities face multiple discriminatory barriers. Disability must be integrated into all facets of planning, recognising that there is no one-size fits-all approach. In line with the priorities of the plan, people with disabilities must have enhanced access to quality education and employment. Efforts to ensure relevant and accessible skills programmes for people with disabilities, coupled with equal opportunities for their productive and gainful employment, must be prioritised. (p.52)

South Africa has a urbanising, youthful population. This presents an opportunity to boost economic growth, increase employment and reduce poverty. The Commission, recognising that young people bear the brunt of unemployment, adopted a “youth lens” in preparing its proposals. (p.30)

Yet the persistence of these challenges, more than two decades after the end of apartheid, raises deep and searching questions. This study provides an opportunity to systematically assess policies across the breadth of public policy to examine whether these values mandated by the National Development Plan, have been mainstreamed across the span of policies in every sector.

3. Aims and objectives of the study

The overarching aim of this project is to assess whether the key social, economic, environmental and administrative policies, strategies and programmes adequately address and prioritise reduction of poverty and inequality; and whether they inclusively provide a basis for mainstreaming equity considerations.

The study responds to the following questions:

- **THE STATE OF POVERTY AND INEQUALITY IN SOUTH AFRICA.**
  - What does the available statistical literature show regarding current levels of income poverty and inequality in South Africa?
  - What does the available statistical literature show regarding disparities by gender, race, disability, province and urban/rural spatial dimensions in South Africa?
• **ASSESSMENT CRITERIA.**
  o What are appropriate quantitative and qualitative assessment criteria to evaluate whether policies, strategies and programmes adequately address poverty and inequality?
  o What are appropriate quantitative and qualitative assessment criteria to evaluate whether policies, strategies and programmes adequately address issues of inclusivity by gender, race, disability, province and urban/rural spatial dimensions?

• **POLICY, STRATEGY AND PROGRAMME ANALYSIS.**
  o Are poverty and inequality mainstreamed across national socio-economic policies, strategies and programmes?
  o Are equity considerations (gender, race disability status, province and rural/urban spatial dimension) mainstreamed across national socio-economic policies, strategies and programmes?
  o What factors hinder or promote effective mainstreaming of poverty, inequality and equity issues cross policies, strategies and programmes?

• **RECOMMENDATIONS.**
  o What factors could be developed to ensure that equity issues are mainstreamed and fast-tracked in policy so that no-one is left behind?

### 4. Methodology

#### 4.1 Research design

The study employs a policy document analysis research design (*Table 1*). The research design delineated in this section is designed and underpinned by several key criteria. Firstly it is understood that the study should be located within a broad theoretical understanding of poverty, inequality and social exclusion, familiarity with international evidence and built on the platform of existing evidence in South Africa. Secondly, the study is informed by the historical, geographical, social and economic contours of the South African policy context. These key points have shaped the design of this study in a manner that can ensure that funds are deployed efficiently to build on existing knowledge, in ways pertinent to the South African context.

#### 4.2 Literature review

The literature review (Section 2 in this report) has summarised major international and national statistical reports on poverty, inequality and social exclusion trends in South Africa. Searches have been conducted for literature produced between 2017 and 2019. Current
levels of inequality and poverty, as well as changes in these levels since 1994 are of interest.

Data is also reviewed regarding levels of poverty and inequality disaggregated by gender, age, race, disability status, province and urban/rural spatial dimension.

4.3 Assessment criteria development

A brief survey of international methodological literature and comparable studies has been conducted to determine the best qualitative and quantitative criteria to assess whether policies, strategies and programmes adequately incorporate poverty, inequality and inclusivity (by gender, race, disability status, province and urban/rural spatial dimension) considerations. The criteria have been determined to ensure breadth and depth of the data collected, as well as robustness and replicability. Drawing on relevant poverty and social exclusion literature (DFID, 2005, ADB, 2012, Hills and Stewart, 2005), indicators have been selected which relate to:

(i) Recognition (are poverty, inequality and equity across vulnerable groups acknowledged)

(ii) Targets (have targets been established and which targets have been omitted/nature of targets in relation to study question)

(iii) Monitoring (is data routinely gathered and reported on to monitor progress against poverty, inequality and equity targets).

The primary focus of the report is on the first of these, for which quantitative and qualitative indicators are presented in Section 4.4.

4.4 Policy, strategy and programme analysis

Policy database

A database of currently applicable national legislative, policy and strategy documents has been developed and organised under the headings listed in Table 1 which relate to the MTSF 2015-2019 Outcomes. The policy database draws from the South Africa Yearbook 2017/18; from the DPME’s Medium Term Strategic Framework: 2014-2019; and from national departmental annual reports. For each MTSF Outcome, all relevant laws, policies and strategy documents identified in these documents are collated. Where possible, all documents are then located using the UCT and WITS University South African Government Policy Library Guides, as well as departmental websites.

Standardised templates for data collection have been designed to support the systematic and comparative analyses across policy documents and across policy sectors. For each document listed in the databases the following information is recorded: document title, policy type (law, policy, strategy), government department, year of publication. The details of the researcher conducting the search are also included, as well as quality control checks (each

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1 https://www.poa.gov.za/Pages/MTSF.aspx
2 https://www.gcis.gov.za/content/resourcecentre/sa-info/yearbook
3 https://www.dpmepg.gov.za/keyfocusareas/outcomesSite/Pages/default.aspx
database is randomly cross-checked by a second researcher to ensure replicability of findings).

For each MTSF outcome, separate databases are also compiled for all flagship programmes and sub-programmes listed in departmental Strategic Plans (most recent), the relevant MTSF chapter and the South Africa Yearbook 2017/18.

**Data collection, document analysis and assessment criteria**

Once databases were completed for each MTSF outcome, quantitative and qualitative document analysis (Cardno, 2018) was conducted for each policy, strategy and programme document. Quantitative and qualitative analyses are conducted as follows for each document:

**Quantitative analysis:** Quantitative analysis supports the evaluation of ‘Recognition’ of the indicators of interest in each document. Frequency analysis was conducted for each of the following key words:

**Poverty:** POVERTY, IMPOVERISHED, POOR, DEPRIVED, DEPRIVATION, HUNGER

**Inequality:** EQUALITY, INEQUALITY/IES, EQUAL, UNEQUAL, EQUITABLE, INEQUITABLE, DISPARITY/IES, UNJUST, INJUSTICE, SOCIAL JUSTICE, IMBALANCE, UNFAIR.

**Social Exclusion:** EXCLUSION, INCLUSIVE, INCLUSION, VULNERABLE, VULNERABILITIES; DISCRIMINATION, DISCRIMINATED, MARGINALISED, DISADVANTAGED, COHESIVE, COHESION, AFFIRMATIVE, EMPOWERMENT.

Social exclusion is further disaggregated according to the following markers of inequality which were found in the literature review to be relevant in the South African context:

**Gender:** FEMALE; GENDER; WOMAN, WOMEN

**Race:** RACE; RACIAL; ETHNIC; BLACK

**Disability:** DISABLED, DISABILITIES, SPECIAL NEEDS, IMPAIRED, IMPAIRMENT

**Unemployed youth:** UNEMPLOYED YOUTH; NOT IN EDUC; NEET

**Spatial:** RURAL, SPATIAL INEQUALITY/IES, SPATIAL DISPARITY/IES.

**Qualitative analysis:** Content analysis was carried out for each citation of key words in relation to poverty, inequality and equity (gender, race disability status, province and rural/urban spatial dimension). Text is examined to establish the quality of **Recognition** (Hills and Stewart, 2005), i.e. whether each document refers to poverty, inequality and social exclusion indicators in a 1. Contextual-generic (general reference to poverty for example as an issue, but no direct engagement); 2. Contextual-specific (engagement with poverty for example as a problem to be specifically addressed by the policy/law/strategy); 3. Strategic-generic (general mention of the need for the issue such as poverty to be addressed); 4. Strategic-specific (tailored responses elaborated in the document to the issue such as poverty). Quotes are selected to represent each of these categories, with particular attention to category 4.

Qualitative analysis is also conducted with regard to all flagship programmes included in the study to assess their level of recognition how they relate to poverty, inequality and social
exclusion in their aims, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation (as specified within Yearbook chapters, and recent departmental strategic plans).

Finally qualitative analysis is conducted to examine whether targets are set and monitored in relation to Poverty, Inequality and Social Exclusion within the relevant MTSF chapter. For all of these, the qualitative analysis establishes whether reference is made to the NDP; whether specific targets are established in relation to Poverty, Inequality and Social Exclusion (gender, race, disability, unemployed youth, province, rural/urban) and whether there is evidence that these targets are being regularly monitored/evaluated.

The policy document analysis methodologies are summarised in Table 1, according to the research aims. These build on the literature review (detailed in Section 4.2) and follow the assessment criteria developed by the researchers (Section 4.3). The results are grouped according to the MTSF Outcomes. To avoid duplication, each National Department is considered only once under the Outcome that is most relevant.

Table 4.1: Socio-economic policy analysis. Summary of data sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-economic sector (NDP/MTSF)</th>
<th>Data sources</th>
<th>National Departments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education (MTSF Outcome 1)</td>
<td>SA Yearbook 2017/18 Education part 1 (Basic Education)</td>
<td>1. Basic Education (DBE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health (MTSF Outcome 2)</td>
<td>SA Yearbook 2017/18 Health</td>
<td>1. Health (DoH)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Safety and security (MTSF Outcome 3) | SA Yearbook 2017/18 Justice and Correctional Services; SA Yearbook 2017/18 Police, Defence and Intelligence | 1. Justice (DoJ)  
2. SAPS  
3. Defence (DoD)  
4. Corrections (DoC) |
| Economic growth and employment (MTSF Outcome 4) | SA Yearbook 2017/18 Economy; SA Yearbook 2017/18 Finance; SA Yearbook 2017/18 Mineral Resources; SA Yearbook 2017/18 Tourism | 1. Labour (DoL)  
2. Economic Development (DED)  
3. Small Business Development  
4. Public Works (DPW)  
5. Tourism (DoT)  
6. Mineral Resources (DMR)  
7. Finance (Treasury)  
8. Trade and Industry |
| Skills (MTSF Outcome 5)          | SA Yearbook 2017/18 Education part 2 (Further Education); SA Yearbook 2017/18 Science and Technology | 1. Higher Education  
2. Science and Technology |
| Infrastructure (MTSF Outcome 6)  | SA Yearbook 017/8 Energy; SA Yearbook 2017/18 Transport; SA Yearbook 2017/18 Water and Sanitation | 1. Energy  
2. Transport  
3. Water and Sanitation  
4. Public Enterprises |
2. Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries |
| Human settlements (MTSF Outcome 8) | SA Yearbook 2017/8 Human Settlements                                        | 1. Human Settlements                                                              |
| Local government (MTSF Outcome 9) | SA Yearbook 2017/8 Government systems (p.1-12)                              | 1. Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs                                  |
Research Synthesis

The quantitative and qualitative analysis identifies overall patterns (by sector and over time) of quantitative and qualitative findings in relation to recognition, targets and monitoring of poverty, inequality and social exclusion. The analysis also develops recommendations for the standardisation of poverty, inequality and equity issues across socio-economic policies, strategies and programmes. Recommendations on the need to revise and strengthen relevant socio-economic policies will also provide guidelines on how to ensure that future socio-economic policies are inclusive.

4.5 Limitations

The proposal has been designed in response to the NDA call, to ensure depth and breadth of the findings. However several limitations and risks are mentioned here:

- The study addresses important aspects of a nation’s efforts to address poverty, inequality and inclusion, namely whether these issues are adequately addressed within policy, strategy and programme documents, and whether targets are set and monitored over time. It is however acknowledged that these factors alone are not sufficient and other actions regarding implementation stakeholders and processes are also important for effective change to be realised. These aspects of delivery are beyond the scope of this proposal. Nonetheless the analysis proposed for this project is a vital and significant piece of work which will contribute to the ongoing effectiveness of inclusive interventions.

- In order to operate within budget and time constraints, the study is focused primarily on policy documents listed in the selected documents (yearbook and departmental annual reports) and on programmes listed under MTSF systems. This means that we may miss some of the smaller and possibly innovative programmes and those at the provincial and local level, all of which are beyond the scope of this study given the time limitations. Draft policy documents are also excluded from the analysis. A future project would benefit from analysis at the devolved levels of government, where consideration to poverty, inequality and equity issues may present further challenges.

- Analysis of policy documents is dependent on public access them.
- In developing assessment criteria with which to conduct the analysis, not all categories of social exclusion have been considered. For example asylum seekers and migrants are not included in the analysis. Age is also included in the literature review but not in the analysis, due to the challenges of disentangling the specific age-related policies from their social exclusion-related dimensions. However the primary dimensions of exclusion identified in the literature as relevant in the South African context, which are relevant across the spectrum of socio-economic policy sectors are taken into account in the analysis.
- The focus of the study is not on impacts. Therefore primary data collection does not include impact analysis.

5. Findings. Mainstreaming of poverty, inequality and social exclusion in South Africa’s policy documents

5.1 Document analysis overview

In total, five hundred and twenty five documents were identified, across thirteen MTSF Outcomes and 32 National government departments (Table 5.1). Of these, 501 documents were located and reviewed. Numbers in brackets indicate documents which were not accessed. Documents included laws, policy and strategy documents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy sector (NDP/MTSF)</th>
<th>Laws</th>
<th>Policies and Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education (MTSF Outcome 1)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8 (1)</td>
<td>16 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health (MTSF Outcome 2)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>22 (2)</td>
<td>33 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security (MTSF Outcome 3)</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic growth and employment (MTSF Outcome 4)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills (MTSF Outcome 5)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure (MTSF Outcome 6)</td>
<td>48 (3)</td>
<td>23 (5)</td>
<td>71 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural development (MTSF Outcome 7)</td>
<td>30 (1)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>40 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human settlements (MTSF Outcome 8)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12 (4)</td>
<td>23 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local government (MTSF Outcome 9)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment (MTSF Outcome 10)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10 (4)</td>
<td>33 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public service (MTSF Outcome 12)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7 (3)</td>
<td>20 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social protection (MTSF Outcome 13)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10 (1)</td>
<td>24 (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.2 summarises the quantitative results. The aim is to gauge to what extent the overarching goals identified in the National Development Plan to reduce poverty, inequality and social exclusion are recognised and addressed in sectoral laws, policies, strategies and programmes.

For each document, the number of references to poverty, inequality, social exclusion, gender, race, disability, youth unemployment and spatial inequality was calculated. Table 5 lists the average number of references under each MTSF Outcome for laws and policies/strategy documents respectively. These are also differentiated according to whether there were published before or after 2011, the year in which the National Development Plan was promulgated.

In each cell, the average and the range of results (in square brackets) is indicated. Results are categorised as follows:

- **High level of recognition** - when the majority of documents (≥50%, at least >2) have ≥3 references.
- **Medium level of recognition** - when there are a small number of documents with ≥3 references or a frequent number of documents with a low number of references
- **Low level of recognition** - when there are no references or very few (<2 references in less than 50% of documents)

Overall, policy and strategy documents tend to be more sensitive to issues of poverty, inequality and social exclusion than legislation. In some sectors there is some evidence of increased attention to poverty, inequality and social exclusion as cross-cutting issues since the introduction of the NDP as a guiding policy document.
Table 5.2. Summary of results. Average numbers of references to poverty, inequality and social exclusion across selected laws, policy and strategy documents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policies and Strategies</th>
<th>Poverty</th>
<th>Inequality</th>
<th>Social Exclusion</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Disability</th>
<th>Unemployed Youth</th>
<th>Spatial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education (MTSF Outcome 1)</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Laws</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-2011 (8)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.7 [0-4]</td>
<td>0.5 [0-2]</td>
<td>2.3 [0-12]</td>
<td>0.8 [0-6]</td>
<td>0.5 [0-4]</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.4 [0-3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-2011 (0)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All (8)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Policies and Strategies</td>
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<tr>
<td>pre-2011 (3)</td>
<td>28.3 [3-63]</td>
<td>33.7 [14-71]</td>
<td>57.3 [8-152]</td>
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<td>12.0 [3-23]</td>
<td>47.3 [3-133]</td>
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<tr>
<td>post-2011 (5)</td>
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<td>8.4 [3-18]</td>
<td>1.6 [0-3]</td>
<td>2.2 [1-6]</td>
<td>27.4 [0-112]</td>
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<tr>
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<td>15.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<td><strong>Health (MTSF Outcome 2)</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td>post-2011 (0)</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>pre-2011 (3)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7.9</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Safety and security (MTSF Outcome 3)</strong></td>
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<td>0.2</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.3</td>
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<td>Policies and Strategies</td>
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<tr>
<td>pre-2011 (1)</td>
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<td>1.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>post-2011 (7)</td>
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<td>18.1 [0-60]</td>
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<td><strong>Economic growth and employment (MTSF Outcome 4)</strong></td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>1.5 [0-9]</td>
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The survey of selected laws, policies and strategies in South Africa demonstrates quite a varied level of recognition of poverty, inequality and social exclusion. Generally there is a much higher level of recognition in policy and strategy documents, both before and after 2011, in comparison with legislative documents. In recent departmental and inter-departmental policy and strategy documents, there are widespread references to the National Development Plan and its identification of poverty, inequality and social exclusion as central issues to be addressed in every sector. In some cases (Health, Human Settlements, Nation-Building and Social Cohesion) there is an indication that consideration for these themes has increased since the dissemination of the NDP. In other cases (such as Education and the Environment), engagement with earlier policy mandates such as the Constitution, meant that there was already a high level of sectoral engagement with national development goals. It is important to note that many documents do not mention these overarching themes but that the analysis focuses on drawing examples of the many different ways in which policy documents do engage with poverty, inequality and social exclusion. Overall, the survey highlights that high numbers of references are not necessarily an indicator of a thorough engagement with the issues of poverty, inequality and social exclusion, therefore in the analysis below we seek to highlight the different ways in which references are made and to highlight illustrative examples.

There are clear synergies between poverty, inequality and social exclusion, and the level of recognition for each is often similar across the themes. This in part is a reflection of their natural alignment and overlap. The qualitative analysis shows that in-depth engagement within policy documents involves differentiated analyses for poverty, inequality and social exclusion respectively, as well as an appreciation for the linkages between them in a particular sector. High quality references to these themes are also both situational (displaying an understanding of different ways in which they affect a particular sector) and strategic (developing detailed approaches and interventions to address them). Several policy and strategy documents in the Health sector provide strong examples of this qualitative type of engagement. Additionally strategy documents by the Department of Science and Technology provide an example of commitment to working cross-sectorally for the achievement of national development goals. The analysis below highlights other examples across the spectrum of government policy, with direct quotes from a broad selection of legislative, policy and strategic documents. The Policy for the Small Scale Fisheries Sector in South Africa (2012) is highlighted as a positive example of a policy which comprehensively addresses issues related to poverty, inequality and social exclusion.

With regard to the recognition of vulnerable groups, the survey shows the need both for policy documents which directly promote the needs of particular groups and for their mainstreaming across public policy. Attention to gender and spatial inequalities is quite widespread in some sectors, but not all. Disability is addressed specifically in Education, Health and Nation-building. There is only sporadic consideration given to youth not in education, employment or training.
5.3 Poverty

There is scant reference to poverty in legislative documents. But there is quite a high level of recognition of poverty in policy and strategy documents, both before and after 2011. Policy and strategic documents under the MTSF Outcomes for Human Settlement, Local Government, Environment and Social Protection have the highest number of average references to poverty, indicating a high level of recognition of poverty.

In terms of quality of engagement with issues of poverty, documents under the Department of Health are the most strategic and thoughtful in their recognition of how poverty interacts with health contexts, systems, outcomes and intersectoral linkages. Several documents which fall under Education, Human Settlements, the Environment and Social Protection also seek to address poverty in varied strategic ways, proposing both generic and specific interventions. The quality of references to poverty which fall under the Economy, Local Government, Public Service and National Cohesion is quite varied.

Laws

Despite low levels of recognition in legislative documents, there are some sporadic examples which recognise the impact of past policies on poverty affecting areas of the economy, housing, local government, the environment and social protection. In several of these areas, there are also examples where laws are designed to specifically address and tackle issues of poverty. Firstly, several documents locate legislation within the context of poverty, typically in the opening Preamble. In relation to Economic Growth and Employment (Outcome 4), in the Consumer Protection Act (No 68, 2008), the Preamble states that: “The people of South Africa recognize — That apartheid and discriminatory laws of the past have burdened the nation with unacceptably high levels of poverty, illiteracy and other forms of social and economic inequality; That it is necessary to develop and employ innovative means to—(a) fulfil the rights of historically disadvantaged persons and to promote their full participation as consumers[;]”. Under Outcome 12 (Public Service), a generic and contextual reference to poverty is contained in the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005: “one of the most pervasive challenges facing our country as a developmental state is the need for government to redress poverty, underdevelopment, marginalisation of people and communities and other legacies of apartheid and discrimination.”

Other Acts specifically consider how poverty affects and is in turn affected by a particular sector. Under Outcome 10 (Environment), there are several examples of references to poverty and its relationship with the environment. Several Acts related to environmental management acknowledge the disproportionate impacts for the poor. The National Environmental Management Air Quality Act, No 39, 2004 states that “the burden of health impacts associated with polluted ambient air falls most heavily on the poor; And [...] air pollution carries a high social, economic and environmental cost that is seldom borne by the polluter”.

The National Environmental Management Act (No 107, 1998) asserts that the “the State must respect, protect, promote and fulfil the social, economic and environmental rights of everyone and strive to meet the basic needs of previously disadvantaged communities; inequality in the distribution of wealth and resources, and the resultant poverty, are among the important causes as well as the results of environmentally harmful practices”.

25
Legislative responses include the consideration of the poor as a vulnerable group, prioritization of resources to the poor, and specific policies to address the needs of the poor. The Government Immovable Asset Management Act (2007) provides a framework for the management of immovable assets held or used by a national or provincial department specifies that: “in relation to a disposal, the custodian must consider whether the immovable asset concerned can be used […] (ii) in relation to social development initiatives of government; and (iii) in relation to government’s socio-economic objectives, including land reform, black economic empowerment, alleviation of poverty, job creation and the redistribution of wealth”.

In relation to Local Government (Outcome 9) poverty is in a couple of instances acknowledged as a contextual issue and one that can be addressed through municipal legislation. In its Preamble, the Municipal Structures Act, 1998, recognises that “past policies have bequeathed a legacy of massive poverty, gross inequalities in municipal services, and disrupted spatial, social and economic environments in which our people continue to live and work”. The Municipal Property Rates Act, No 6, 2004 (Section 3), specifies that a rates policy must: “take into account the effect of rates on the poor and include appropriate measures to alleviate the rates burden on them[;]”.

In some cases legislation established specific institutions or policies to address poverty. The National Development Act (1998) established “a National Development Agency aimed at promoting an appropriate and sustainable partnership between the Government and civil society organisations to eradicate poverty and its causes; to determine the objects and functions of the Agency; to determine the manner in which it is to be managed and governed; to regulate its staff matters and financial affairs; and to provide for connected matters”. With regard to Human Settlement (Outcome 8), the Social Housing Act (No 16, 2008) acknowledges the “dire need for affordable rental housing for low to medium income households which cannot access rental housing in the open market”. In the more recent Rental Housing Amendment Act (No 35, 2014), the law states that “The Minister must— (a) monitor and assess— (i) the impact of the application of this Act on landlords and tenants, and more specifically the impact on poor and vulnerable tenants[;]”.

Policies and strategies

There is a high and relatively consistent level of recognition of poverty within policy and strategy documents across the departmental spectrum of government policy, both before and after 2011.

In Education (Outcome 1) the recent Action Plan Action Plan to 2019 -Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2030 (2015) is an example of strong analytical engagement with issues of poverty and its impacts on education. The report recognizes the “Frustrations that many teachers experience with the system within which they work, and difficulties teachers have dealing with socio-economic problems in the community such as poverty and substance abuse, should not be under-estimated” (p.37). The Plan also acknowledges that progress has been made: “We have made progress in securing access and participation of our children to schools […]. Completion rates are edging up; performance rates of our learners are increasing, especially for learners from poorer households; and retention rates have improved, especially in earlier grades” (p.2). Finally the report engages with solutions which address poverty-related concerns: “In particular, in poorer communities it is important
that the school allocation money and goods purchased with this money should reach schools on time each year to prevent pressure on poor households to make contributions they cannot afford.” (p.47)

Health policy documents show a remarkable and widespread level of recognition that poverty affects health outcomes and access to healthcare. The National Health Promotion Policy and Strategy (2014) asserts that “In South Africa income inequality and poverty continue to undermine the health outcomes of the majority of the population. The spread of communicable diseases such as HIV and TB is not only owing to a lack of knowledge, attitudes or social and cultural norms but also to structural issues such as poor living conditions (e.g., the lack of ventilation within homes) that facilitate the spread of TB, or gender and income inequalities that impede the ability of women to negotiate safe sex”. (p.12). the National Health Insurance Policy (2017) is strongly motivated by poverty and equity concerns: “The country is facing an increasing burden of diseases that negatively affects the health of the population and has negatively impacted on the poorest groups of the population.” (p.10); “A key element of financing for UHC is that the health costs for the poor and vulnerable are shared by the whole of society.” (p.36)

With regard to access, the Breast Cancer Prevention and Control Policy (2017) recognizes that “Poor referral systems and problems with transport: In some cases where a woman has access to a primary healthcare facility for screening, the referral to the next level of care is delayed due to poverty or financial challenges”.

A document that falls under Public Service (Outcome 12), the Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy (2002) refers to an example of how a national focus on poverty, also affects bureaucratic and administrative decisions: “Risks involved in establishing a new single agency include the addition of another layer of bureaucracy to the law enforcement sector and the diversion of already scarce resources from existing agencies and other government priorities including job creation, poverty alleviation and HIV/AIDS programmes.”

There are abundant examples of strategic and specific engagement with poverty across the different sectors of policy. These are some examples:

Under Safety and Security (Outcome 3), the White Paper on Corrections (2017) demonstrates understanding of poverty as a cause of crime and of the potential to engage offenders in poverty alleviation initiatives: “The White Paper underscores the need for inmate-involvement in poverty alleviation projects […]. The Department advances the following objectives and principles for its poverty alleviation / social development projects: (i) projects should be designed in such a way so that they build close relationships with the community, and in particular seek to undo the stigmatisation of offenders; (ii) communities identified for such projects should mainly fall into the category of high risk, poor communities of origin of offenders; (iii) the projects should not be DCS hand-outs to the community, but should contribute to sustainable development.”

Policies included in this review under Outcome 4 do not highlight a consistent commitment to developing strategies for direct poverty eradication across economic sectors, however we mention some of the numerous documents which do acknowledge the context of poverty. For example, the Industrial Poverty Action Plan 2018/9 – 2020/21 recognizes poverty as a barrier to growth and notes that “The South African economy is exhibiting welcome signs of
recovery after experiencing relatively subdued and declining growth for a number of years. Over the period 2010 to 2017, real GDP growth averaged 2.0% per year, well short of the desired rate of around 5% deemed necessary on a sustained basis in order to meaningfully address the triple challenge of poverty, unemployment and inequality." (p.17).

Under Rural Development (Outcome 7), several areas are identified as essential for poverty alleviation: farming and food security, forestry and fisheries as well as land reform. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Strategic Plan 2015-2020 recognises that "Rural communities require greater social, economic and political opportunities to overcome poverty". With regard to food security, the DAFF Strategic Plan 2015-2020 records that "While the 2013 General Household Survey report indicated that between 2002 and 2013 the percentage of households that experienced hunger decreased from 29,3% to 13,4% and while households with inadequate to severely inadequate access to food decreased from 23,9% in 2010 to 23,1% in 2013, the need to ensure increased availability and affordability of food for all South Africans remains critical".

In the case of Housing, the Breaking New Ground Strategy, 2004 demonstrates an understanding of the multi-dimensionality of poverty, and the contribution of housing to its alleviation: “Poverty manifests itself in different ways. […] A composite analysis of indicators […] assists in compiling a broad picture of the experience of poverty in terms of deprivation of basic needs and the vulnerability, powerlessness and experience of exclusion which accompanies lived poverty. Housing primarily contributes towards the alleviation of asset poverty. This contribution is to be strengthened in the new human settlements plan through supporting the development of sustainable human settlements and the development of housing assets”(p.16).

The Policy on the Small Scale Fisheries Sector illustrates the complexity of balancing poverty reduction with the sustainability of natural resources: "In situations of economically or institutionally restricted access to other capital (e.g. financial capital such as credit) or production factors (such as private land) the relatively easy and free access to fishing grounds allows the poor to rely more heavily on the local common resources to obtain the goods and services they need to sustain their livelihoods, or to gain access to remunerated employment" and that "Small Scale fisheries should also provide a critical safety net for vulnerable small scale fisher households (even those which were not previously poor) when they face a sudden decline in their income". The Participatory Forestry Policy and Strategy, 2004 finds that "The rural poor are not benefiting sufficiently from forest resources and their poverty is threatening the sustainability of the resource base, while more sustainable and unexploited potential exists in many cases for forests to contribute to livelihoods and local economical development".

Several environmental policies and strategies further unpack the trade-offs and complexities of a focus on poverty reduction. The National Framework Strategy for Sustainable Development (2008) sets out that “A commitment to sustainable development means recognising there is now a third challenge facing the nation, namely: How to decouple economic growth and poverty eradication from rising levels of natural resource use and waste per capita over time. If we fail to deal with the third challenge, we will undermine the preconditions required for boosting growth and eradicating poverty”, and that “Increased household consumption for the poor majority and sufficient rather than over-consumption for the rest is a pre-condition for sustainable living in the longer-term." The National Strategy for Sustainable Development (2011) also notes that "[T]he poorest and most vulnerable are
likely to be affected most by climate change. For this reason, it is imperative that active and urgent interventions are taken to deliver on social objectives, while ensuring that the natural resources on which a decent quality of life depends are managed to ensure their longterm sustainability”.

There are many clear examples where the NDP has galvanised concerted efforts across government departments to address poverty. In some cases references are cursory. For example while there are common references to addressing ‘the triple challenges of poverty, unemployment and inequality’. However in several other cases, there is a deep level of engagement. For example, the Department of Science and Technology Strategic Plan 2015-2020 highlights its involvement in cross-sectoral projects and efforts to ensure that the NSI [national system of innovation] contributes to the reduction of inequality, poverty and unemployment: “The DST is also involved in initiatives to enhance the standard of living in previously marginalised communities. It works with the Department of Basic Education, using innovative technologies to improve access to basic education for children who are visually and hearing impaired. The DST also has a partnership with the Eastern Cape Department of Education, the Department of Water and Sanitation and the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation to provide innovative and appropriate off-grid sanitation technologies for rural and peri-urban areas”, “The DST champions innovation-enabled local economic development and runs pilot projects to see how STI can help achieve sustainable livelihoods. Pilot projects include community-based processing of traditional medicines, cosmeceuticals and nutraceuticals, which should be completed by 2016.”

Similarly, the White Paper on Science Technology and Innovation (2019) tracks the linkages between global trends, including widening inequalities and the need to pro-actively address these: “Drivers of global change are socio-economic and geopolitical (e.g. demographic shifts, urbanisation, rising inequality and youth unemployment, and the rise of China and India as economic powers), scientific and technological (e.g. the blurring of lines between the physical and digital spheres as a result of information and communication technologies and the 4IR), and environmental (with climate change having serious consequences for the world’s most vulnerable people)”, “Understanding the likely impact of the 4IR, both positive and negative, and preparing for these collectively and strategically will be key to South Africa’s future resilience. […] Technological progress might also leave many people behind, increasing the premium for present and future workers to acquire special skills or education. Retraining and educating today’s workers will be crucial to prevent skills mismatches, mass unemployment and growing inequality. Increased investment will be required to drive STI in response to these changes.”

Social protection (Outcome 13) also offers several examples of how an overarching focus on poverty serves to direct policy. The National Youth Policy 2015-2020 asserts that “South Africa has the potential and capacity to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality over the next two decades. This requires a new approach – one that moves away from passive citizenry towards a socially and economically included society in which people are active champions of their own development, supported by an effective government”. The White Paper on Families (2012) aims to “establish a family-focused, rather than individual-focused approach in national development and poverty reduction policies and programmes”.

Lastly, the National Strategy for Developing an Inclusive and a Cohesive South African Society (2012) reflects on the positive effects of policies in reducing poverty between 2001 and 2006: “In a drive to eradicate extreme poverty, as the basis for creating a caring society
and secure the material well-being of its members, comprehensive measures have been taken which combine cash grants with a range of social wages related to free primary health care for all, subsidised housing, electricity, water, sanitation, refuse removal and transportation, including the transfer of home ownership to renting residents in urban communities historically segregated and designated as township. These interventions have resulted in the decline of absolute poverty from 11.3% in 2000 to 5% in 2006, dropping continuously” (p.13).

5.4 Inequality

The profile of recognition for inequality is very similar to that of poverty (previous section), with low numbers of references in laws and a varied distribution of references in policy and strategy documents. The highest numbers of references to inequality or equity concerns fall under the Local Government, Social Protection and Nation-building Outcomes. Excerpts from several documents from Education, Health and the Economic sectors demonstrate some of the varied ways that policy can and has engaged with inequality.

In many instances references to inequality are combined with references to poverty (and social exclusion), due to the overlap between each of these themes.

References to inequality, equity and disadvantage take many forms. Some legislative and many policy/strategy documents state clearly that apartheid era injustice has caused inequalities in the distribution of income, resources, services and opportunities, in ways that sectoral policy needs to take into account and address. There is a broad understanding of the multi-dimensionality of inequality, and its political, social and economic dimensions. Because inequalities in South Africa are deeply rooted in the discriminatory policies of the past, there is a lot of overlap between references to inequality and to social exclusion (Section 5.5) Particularly in more recent documents, there is a realization that reducing inequality is a deeply complex process, and has proved hard to dislodge. Past, present and future challenges are seen to derive from the reproduction of systematic imbalances in access to power, resources and services and the quality thereof.

In terms of strategically addressing inequality, examples cited below include housing strategies, systems to ensure equitable access to health, social grants and BBBEE requirements. In terms of the economy, several sectors have sought to develop strategies that reduce inequalities without suppressing growth. The analysis highlights that a comprehensive engagement with inequality and its outcomes within policy documents involves: (i) an in-depth analysis of trade-offs required for the achievement of sustainable inequality reduction; (ii) a set of priorities to guide the integration of the aim to achieve equality for all with the aim to redress structural inequalities through targeted measures; (iii) a process of developing policy which is inclusive and relevant.

Laws

The principles of equality in access to services and resources and the denunciation of unjust inequality are clearly laid out in several laws introduced after 1994, in sectors such as Education, Health and Water and Sanitation (Outcomes 1, 2 and 6). The Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) Act (No 52 of 2000) affirms “the values which underlie an open and democratic society based on human dignity, equality and freedom”. The National Health Act 2003 recognises “the socio-economic injustices, imbalances and inequities of
health services of the past”. The National Water Act (1998) opens by “Recognizing that water is a scarce and unevenly distributed national resource which occurs in many different forms which are all part of a unitary, inter-dependent cycle; Recognizing that while water is a natural resource that belongs to all people, the discriminatory laws and practices of the past have prevented equal access to water, and use of water resources; Acknowledging the National Government’s overall responsibility for and authority over the nation’s water resources and their use, including the equitable allocation of water for beneficial use”.

The need for local government to play a central role in ensuring equity in the allocation of services is also established within legislation. The Municipal Property Rates Act (2004) states that “It is essential that municipalities exercise their power to impose rates within a statutory framework than not only enhances certainty, uniformity and simplicity across the nation, but also takes into account historical imbalances and the rates burden on the poor”.

In the economic realm, the Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (No 28 of 2002) is an example of legislation which claims to be centred around a vision for equitable distribution of resources, which aims: “To make provision for equitable access to and sustainable development of the nation’s mineral and petroleum resources; and to provide for matters connected therewith.” The Act established clear steps to intervene to address inequalities in the sector: “To ensure the attainment of Government’s objectives of redressing historical, social and economic inequalities as stated in the Constitution, the Minister must within six months from the date on which this Act takes effect develop a broad-based socio-economic empowerment Charter that will set the framework, targets and time-table for effecting the entry of historically disadvantaged South Africans into the mining industry, and allow such South Africans to benefit from the exploitation of mining and mineral resources.”

Other examples demonstrate the concurrent principle of equality coupled with a prioritisation of those previously disadvantaged. The Land and Agricultural Development Bank Act (2002) established that “The objects of the Bank are the promotion, facilitation and support of […] equitable ownership of agricultural land, in particular the increase of ownership of agricultural land by historically disadvantaged persons”. The National Credit Act (2005) asserts that “The purposes of this Act are to promote and advance the social and economic welfare of South Africans, promote a fair, transparent, competitive, sustainable, responsible, efficient, effective and accessible credit market and industry, and to protect consumers, by […] 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 under sustainable market conditions”.

Policies and strategies

The nascent democratic era was marked by policy frameworks which foregrounded inequality as a concern to be addressed, with particular attention to the distribution of resources and services. The White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa White Paper (1995) testified that “The unique pattern of South African inequality and under-development has been laid down over the generations of minority rule and ethnically-based economic, labour and social development policies. The gradations between rich and poor, articulate and voiceless, housed and homeless, well-fed and malnourished, educated and illiterate, therefore mirror South Africa’s complex racial and ethnic hierarchies. By every index, African communities, followed by Coloured communities, have the highest deficits in the
provision of basic services, and lowest level of access to the means of providing a better quality of life. There must be special emphasis on the redress of educational inequalities among those sections of our people who have suffered particular disadvantages, or who are especially vulnerable, including street children, out-of-school youth, the disabled and citizens with special educational needs, illiterate women, rural communities, squatter communities, and communities damaged by violence. “As a result it laid out that “The state’s resources must be deployed according to the principle of equity, so that they are used to provide essentially the same quality of learning opportunities for all citizens. This is an inescapable duty upon government, in the light of this country’s history and its legacy of inequality, and it is a constitutional requirement. There must be purposeful strategies for ensuring that the system protects the rights of teachers and students to equitable treatment. Fair opportunities for training and advancement in the education service, including an affirmative action policy, are essential, in order to ensure an effective leadership cadre which is broadly representative of the population they serve.”

More recent documents in the Education and Skills sectors reflect on the progress made but also recognise the challenges in realising equity aims. The Department of Basic Education Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20 recounts that “Our pro-poor policies have helped bridge the inequalities in the system and have also enabled the retention of learners in the system. More than 9 million learners benefit from the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP), while approximately 8.7 million learners benefit from the No-Fee Schools policy. The state will continue to intervene in trying to make education more equitable in view of the triple challenges that face the country, which are unemployment, poverty and inequality”. However it also notes that “Despite Government’s considerable investments in schools, our pro-poor funding and targeting mechanisms, and the considerable amounts of investment in the sector, it is clear that low performance still characterises too many of our schools.”

Similarly, the National Policy on Community Education and Training Colleges (2015) reflects that “Notwithstanding the achievements in education over the first twenty years of democracy, it is observed that the system still produces and reproduces inequalities through gender, class and racial divide. These inequalities continue to undermine the vision of the South African Constitution of a prosperous, democratic, non-sexist, non-racist and equal society”, “The challenges of inequalities based on gender, class, race, disability, geographic location, age and health status persist with regard to access to educational opportunities in the adult education and training sector”, “The provision of education and training alone is not sufficient to significantly reduce these inequalities but the commitment to establish pro-poor institutional structural frameworks and funding modalities are key elements that can assist to accelerate the attainment of the vision of the National Development Plan’s (NDP) 2030 agenda that of an egalitarian and prosperous society”.

Within the Health sector (Outcome 2) policy and strategy documents draw attention to several aspects of inequality. The White Paper on National Health Insurance (2017) promotes Universal Health Coverage (UHC) since it “embodies three related objectives: (1) equity in access to health services – those who need the services should get them, not only those who can pay for them; (2) that the quality of health services is good enough to improve the health of those receiving health services; and (3) financial risk protection ensuring that the cost of using care does not put the people at risk of financial hardship”. The Policy on Quality in Health Care for South Africa (2007) unpacks the implication of a focus on equity with regard to distribution or resources, regulation and monitoring of outcomes: “Equity
means ensuring that the whole population has access to quality health care. This means addressing the uneven distribution of health care resources across the country, as well as the wide variation in the quality of care throughout the health care system. In particular, there is a need to focus on the needs of historically disadvantaged individuals and communities and the most vulnerable sectors of society, i.e. women, children, older people and people with disabilities. Equity requires:

- Redistributing health expenditure to achieve equity - those with equal need should receive the same level of funding;
- Redistributing health resources, in particular doctors and nurses;
- Setting national norms and standards to judge that all people receive an acceptable quality of care; and
- Monitoring progress.”

The Integrated School Health Policy (2012) highlights equity as an important indicator to measure progress: “Provision of school health services not only responds to a need, but also increases the efficacy of other investments in child development, ensures better educational outcomes, achieves greater social equity and is a highly cost effective strategy” (p.6). More specifically, the South African National Oral Health Strategy (2005) monitors widening inequalities in a particular area of health “Oral disease levels appear to be increasing in major sectors of the South African population, especially the underserved, disadvantaged and urbanising communities” (p.1).

The Breast Cancer Policy 2017 appeals to the NDP and to international documents as a basis for making equity central to policy, and for its claim that power dynamics need to be addressed in order for inequalities to be tackled: “In recognising that health and development of the country are integrally linked, health reform in South Africa is firmly embedded in the country’s National Development Plan 2030 Our Future – make it work. The NDP aims for an inter-connectedness with the World Health Commission on the Social Determinants of Health which are considered key to any equitable health service delivery platform and includes the need to: improve the conditions of daily life, tackle inequitable distribution of power, money and resources and measure the problem, evaluate actions and expand the knowledge base”.

The role of language, and the impact of the dual private/public system, and of high levels of donor funding on inequalities are discussed in health documents. These are important examples of how sector-specific policies can align themselves with national development goals. The National Department of Health Language Policy (2015) aims to “facilitate equitable access to the services and information”. The National Policy Framework and Strategy on Palliative Care (2018) notes that “Donor funding has been instrumental to support palliative care services, but often is restricted to disease specific initiatives and outcomes (e.g. HIV), which can result in inequitable and uneven service provision” (p.13). “The provision of palliative care as outlined in the resolution is also aligned to the NDP principles of overcoming inequity and poverty” (p.28). “All South African citizens should have access to the essentials of palliative care, both in the public and private health sectors and across all service levels. Patients should have access throughout the continuum of care, from diagnosis through treatment, and over the course of their life” (p.52).

The relationship between access to housing and inequality is tackled in several documents. The New Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa White Paper (1995) clearly stated that “For a wide range of historic reasons the housing market in South Africa currently is
distorted and abnormal. It is incumbent on government, on a short term temporary and longer term permanent basis, to intervene to ensure that the imbalances, distortions and anomalies in the housing market are overcome.” Twenty years later, the Integrated Urban Development Framework (2016) confirmed that “The high levels of inequality in income and access to services and opportunities are a legacy of apartheid education and the (migrant) employment system. Since 1994, income inequality has remained stubbornly high, as a result of very high unemployment and the growing wage gap between skilled and unskilled labour. This inequality reinforces economic marginalisation and produces spatial poverty traps. A large number of households do not have access to services and are concentrated in informal settlements and townships in cities and in peri-urban areas. Approximately 1.25 million households lived in informal settlements in 2012” (p.24), “Government’s efforts at reforms to address inequalities in access to land have been slow and difficult to implement. Overall, the country’s racially discriminatory and fragmented land tenure system is proving difficult to dismantle” (p.78). The National Strategy for Sustainable Development (2011) also denounced the extreme disparities: “There are also enormous inequalities between the lifestyles of those living in informal settlements (where there are limited or no basic services) and the high consumption levels characteristic of the wealthy suburbs”. “The Department of Human Settlement’s Towards a Policy Foundation for the Development of Human Settlements” (2015) documented a “clear shift away from the previous breadth and numbers based approach to a more demand driven quality-based policy. It also reinforced the vision of achieving a non-racial, integrated society through the development of sustainable human settlements. Policies and programmes shifted from only being concerned with redress, equity, and redistribution to utilising housing as a key element in building assets for the poor. It has been the understanding that through these assets the poor will be able to enter the formal property market and financial market” (p.5-6).

Also with regard to access to services and resources, the extension of water, sanitation and electricity continues to be viewed as key to redressing inequalities. The White Paper on Energy Policy (1998) put forward that “The provision of basic household infrastructure is seen as a relatively low-cost and effective form of public intervention in favour of the poor, and consistent with the policy of reducing income inequalities”. The Department of Water and Sanitation reiterated in its Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20 “We seek to deliver public services to the many South Africans who do not have access to them and to rectify inequalities in the distribution of existing services” (p.15). The increasing urgency is also raised as a matter of concern: “A number of issues further define the socio-economic delivery environment including, among others, inequality in water allocation and access to water services and sanitation; the growing impatience of communities as reflected by increases in service delivery protests; the affordability of water against the constitutional right to water; unemployment; and the unique circumstances that rural communities face” (p.31).

The necessity of land distribution for tackling multi-dimensional inequalities is considered in the White Paper on Land Policy (1997): “Land reform aims to help in redressing the appalling inequality of incomes and to provide the largely impoverished black rural population with basic needs and more secure livelihoods. For the urban poor, access to land, secure tenure and phased provision of services is a key means of avoiding land invasions and resultant instability” (p.34).

The Department of Social Development also sets forth the crucial contribution of social grants in mitigating inequality reduction. Its Strategic Plan 2020, confirms this role:
“Ultimately, the DSD is at the very centre of this fight against poverty, unemployment and inequality and the work of the department serves to mitigate the negative impact of these social issues on future generations of this country” (p.2). “The grants aim to boost the income of poor households, which are hit the hardest by the unemployment, poverty and inequality that persists in the South African society” (p.12).

Government policy documents also state that the manner in which policies are enacted is an important component of efforts to redress injustices of the past. In the Batho Pele White Paper (1997) it is asserted that “Improving the delivery of public services means redressing the imbalances of the past and, while maintaining continuity of service to all levels of society, focusing on meeting the needs of the 40% of South Africans who are living below the poverty line and those, such) as the disabled, and black women living in rural areas, who have previously been disadvantaged in terms of service delivery. Improving service delivery also calls for a shift away from inward-looking, bureaucratic systems, processes and attitudes, and a search for new ways of working which put the needs of the public first, is better, faster and more responsive to the citizens’ needs. It also means a complete change in the way that services are delivered. The objectives of service delivery therefore include welfare, equity and efficiency.” Similarly, the Department of Home Affairs Strategic Plan 2015 states that “to establish real equality, given a history of racial exclusion, the Constitution also insists on achieving equity through redress. This principle has, for example, guided the DHA in deciding to expand its footprint to cover remote and marginalised communities.”

With regard to its approach to tackling crime, the White Paper on Safety and Security 2016 illustrates how linkages can be made between inequality and a particular sector: “Drawing a simple causal relationship between crime, violence and poverty, […] is misleading, as the relationship between crime, violence, poverty, deprivation and inequality, is more complex. Although there is little evidence demonstrating poverty causes crime, there is substantial evidence demonstrating that those who live in poverty are more vulnerable to, and affected by, crime and violence. This is evident in the risk factors for crime and violence. People living in communities characterised by a lack of services, with little or poor access to water and sanitation, childcare and health facilities, educational and employment opportunities, or who are marginalised or excluded, are at the most vulnerable to falling victim to crime violence and most at risk in engaging in crime. They are also the least able to access the criminal justice system or victim support services, and are therefore, most at-risk, most vulnerable to, and most affected by high levels of crime and violence.”

Different economic sectors have engaged in different ways with issues of inequality. Early post-apartheid policies identified the radical changes that needed to occur. The White Paper on Tourism (1996) asserted that: “A great deal of work has to be done by both the government and tourism private sector to redress previous imbalances, to win back the support of the previously neglected groups and to demonstrate that tourism in the new South Africa can benefit all South Africans”.

The Policy on Small Scale Fisheries (2012) is an example of a multi-pronged and strategic engagement with the exigencies of inequality: “The Department recognizes that the transformation of society, skills development and secure access to land, basic services and the resources on which livelihoods are dependent, are critical in alleviating poverty and redressing past inequalities. These fishers and communities must be assisted, where appropriate, to access mechanisms and policies aimed at redressing the past. The Department recognises that in order to achieve this, the policy must:
a) ensure the sustainable consumptive use of marine living resources in a manner that ensures equitable access to resources to reduce and eliminate the barriers experienced by Small Scale fishers;
b) introduce a range of appropriate mechanisms that will promote an integrated approach in the future and address possible conflicts in the intervening period;
c) provide a dispensation that will contribute to efforts to eradicate poverty, ensure food security and promote equity without endangering the ecological sustainability of marine living resources;
d) accommodate traditional/subsistence fishers effectively, secure the socio-economic rights of traditional/subsistence fishers as well as provide equitable access to marine living resources; and
e) provide for the upliftment of these communities by using appropriate support mechanisms, education and training, infrastructure and participatory management practices."

The Agricultural Policy Action Plan (2015) affirmed both the policy-making process and the identification of focused policy actions reached with regard to the Fisheries subsector: “The Small Scale Fishing Policy was painstakingly developed in a democratic collaboration with all social partners - business, community, labour and government - over the past several years at the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC). The successful implementation of the Small Scale Fisheries Policy approved by Cabinet in 2013 will free previously deprived coastal community fishers from the triple challenges of, poverty, financial inequality and unemployment in a rational manner. […] The allocation of commercial fishing rights in the past negatively impacted on the traditional fishing of communities and their lifestyles, as a large percentage of these fishing communities did not receive any allocations. These inequitable allocations resulted in the large companies fishing inshore, contributing to Illegal Unregulated Unreported (IUU) fishing, blaming communities and traditional fishers for depleting stocks. The Marine Living Resources Amendment Bill will give recognition to and enable the allocation of fishing rights to identified fishing communities who have previously been excluded from the commercial fishing rights allocation process in South Africa, thereby redressing the inequalities wrought by past fisheries systems. The development of the Small-Scale Fisheries Policy has taken place within a very challenging and complex commercial and policy environment attempting to address:

(a) The fact that small-scale fishing is not recognised in the legislation that regulates access to, and the consumptive use of, marine living resources
(b) Unfairness of past decisions to allocate marine living resources in an exclusive way (that is for commercial and recreational purposes only) and without due consideration to the vulnerability that most Small-Scale fishers would face if forced to compete within a commercial environment
(c) The global economic recession
(d) Lack of gender equity
(e) Increasing concern about the state and sustainability of marine living resources
(f) High levels of poverty and food insecurity, not only within the affected coastal communities, but in the Southern African region as a whole, and
(g) Equality Court Orders that compelled the state to finalise a policy framework that will effectively accommodate traditional and subsistence small-scale fishers within the allocation of fishing rights by securing the socio-economic rights of traditional subsistence fishers and ensuring equitable access to marine living resources for these fishers”.
“The Department recognises that the allocation of fishing rights is only part of the process of uplifting marginalised fishing communities, however it is the most important tool Government has to effect efficiency and to ensure equity in the South African Fishing Industry. On-going and cross-sectoral support is required to fully achieve this.”

More broadly, the Agricultural Policy Action Plan (2015) recognises national development goals as the overriding objective of economic policy: “a prosperous and food secure South Africa requires that all of its farming, forestry and fisheries subsectors, large and small, are supported to become competitive and resilient. There is also a recognition, however, that we do not seek competitiveness for its own sake, but in so far as it can contribute to resolving national challenges such as unemployment, inequality and social exclusion”. (P.36). The document recognises that not all policies have reflected this focus: “The liberalisation of agricultural and food markets was premised on the expectation that deregulated market outcomes would be more efficient and would increase access to all market participants, benefitting producers and consumers alike. However, although some efficiencies have arisen, so have unanticipated problems, such as the proliferation of onerous private regulations, and high levels of concentration in some agro-processing subsectors. The high level of concentration among input suppliers raises concerns about South Africa’s food sovereignty”.

5.5 Social exclusion

The concept of social exclusion is very broad, and encompasses the themes of exclusion, inclusion, social cohesion, discrimination, marginalization, empowerment and affirmative action. There are many areas of overlap with inequality (particularly horizontal inequalities between groups), given that in many cases inequalities in South Africa are the result of past discriminatory policies. In this section examples are drawn from laws and policies that focus on the exclusion that results from discrimination.

Table 5.1 shows that there is quite a high level of recognition of social exclusion. There is a high number of references particularly in Education (Outcome 1), Economic Growth and Employment (Outcome 4), Skills (Outcome 5), Human Settlements (Outcome 8), Local Government (Outcome 9), Social Protection (Outcome 13) and Nation-building and Social Cohesion (Outcome 14). It is significant that an entire MTSF Outcome (No 14) is devoted to Social Cohesion. Overall, the number of references included in this study has increased since the promulgation of the NDP, though in the sectors of Education and the Environment the number of references has decreased considerably (from a high level post-1994).

Several important themes emerge from the discussion and examples in this section:
- The Constitutional mandate against discrimination of any kind needs to be embedded across public policy sectors.
- The dual agenda to combat discrimination in all its forms and to promote social cohesion must both be pursued concurrently. This requires a fine balance between universal and targeted interventions.
- In each sector, there may be particular excluded groups that require targeted attention (for example farm workers in the agricultural sector)
Employment equity legislation plays an essential role in combating social exclusion in South Africa, where economic exclusion and identity-based inequalities reinforce each other in the labour market.

Consideration for participatory and inclusive processes are an important component of laws and policies that seek to promote social cohesion (examples are included below).

**Laws**

Several legislative documents included in the study establish principles of non-discrimination and affirmative action to different sectors of policy.

The Civil Union Act (2006) refers to the Constitution in affirming that “the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth”.

Labour laws are essential in giving protection to vulnerable workers, especially those in temporary arrangements to provide greater equity in the labour market and to promote fair treatment. The Employment Equity Act 1998 clearly prohibits ‘unfair discrimination’: “Every employer must take steps to promote equal opportunity in the workplace by eliminating unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practice”. “No person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth”. The Act also specifies that “It is not unfair discrimination to-(a) take affirmative action measures consistent with the purpose of this Act; or (b) distinguish, exclude or prefer any person on the basis of an inherent requirement of a job”.

The Employment Equity Amendment Act (No 55 of 2018) restricts the extremes of income inequality, establishing a link between extreme inequalities and discrimination: “Every designated employer, […] must submit a statement, as prescribed, to the National Minimum Wage Commission on the remuneration and benefits received in each occupational level of that employer's workforce. Where disproportionate income differentials, or unfair discrimination […], a designated employer must take measures to progressively reduce such differentials […]. The measures […] may include collective bargaining […].

The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act (No 53 of 2003) was established in direct response to the racially discriminatory policies that skewed the economy and institutionalized exclusion (resulting in severe economic inequalities). The Act aimed to “promote the achievement of the constitutional right to equality, increase, broad-based and effective participation of black people in the economy and promote a higher growth rate, increased employment and more equitable income distribution; and establish a national policy on broad-based black economic empowerment so as to promote the economic unity of the nation, protect the common market, and promote equal opportunity and equal access to government services”. While focused on racial inequalities, the policy is also sensitive to social exclusion more broadly: “broad-based black economic empowerment” means the
economic empowerment of all black people including women, workers, youth, people with disabilities and people living in rural areas through diverse but integrated socio-economic strategies”.

In 1998, the National Empowerment Fund Act (1998) established the National Empowerment Fund “to facilitate the redressing of economic inequality which resulted from the past unfair discrimination against historically disadvantaged persons by- providing historically disadvantaged persons with the opportunity of, directly or indirectly, acquiring shares or interest in State Owned Commercial Enterprises that are being restructured or in private business enterprises; encouraging and promoting savings, investments and meaningful economic participation by historically disadvantaged persons; promoting and supporting business ventures pioneered and run by historically disadvantaged persons; promoting the universal understanding of equity ownership among historically disadvantaged persons; encouraging the development of a competitive and effective equities market inclusive of all persons in the Republic […].”

A selection of examples highlight how these principles are applied directly and indirectly addressed within legislative documents, with reference to both the public and private sectors.

The Competition Act (1998) states that its purpose is “to promote and maintain competition in the Republic in order- (e) to ensure that small and medium-sized enterprises have an equitable opportunity to participate in the economy; and (f) to promote a greater spread of ownership, in particular to increase the ownership stakes of historically disadvantaged persons”. The Consumer Protection Act (2008) protects against discriminatory marketing: “A supplier of goods or services must not unfairly exclude any person or category of persons from accessing any goods or services offered by the supplier; […] exclude a particular community, district, population or market segment from the supply of any goods or services offered by the supplier, on the basis of one or more grounds of unfair discrimination […].” The Lotteries Act (1997) specifies that National Lottery applicants “will for the duration of the licence show a clear and continuous commitment to the social responsibility programme contemplated in section 10(g) and to the advancement, upliftment and economic empowerment of persons or groups or categories of persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination”.

In terms of applying employment equity and social inclusion principles to employment processes, the Infrastructure Development Act (2014) lists the function of the Council of the Presidential Infrastructure Coordinating Commission 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, in so far as it relates to infrastructure and any strategic integrated project”. The MPRDA (2002) states that one of the aims of the Act to “substantially and meaningfully expand opportunities for historically disadvantaged persons, including women, to enter the mineral and petroleum industries and to benefit from the exploitation of the nation’s mineral and petroleum resources”.

Representation is another dimension that features in legislation in relation to social exclusion. For example, the Community Schemes Ombud Service Act (2011) notes that
“The nomination committee, in making a recommendation to the Minister, must consider […] the need for representation of historically disadvantaged persons.”

**Policies and strategies**

This section details and gives examples of ways in which policy and strategic documents promote targeted measures and attention to vulnerable groups, a focus on process and participation and an awareness of social cohesion as a national goal.

Examples of policies which engage with the notion of vulnerable or designated groups across the spectrum of public policy are varied. Only a few examples are included here since specific references to women, persons with disabilities and unemployed youth are also discussed in further detail in later sections. We are interested here to note examples where attention to vulnerable groups is mainstreamed into generic policies.

In Health, the Policy Framework and Strategy for Ward Based Primary Healthcare Outreach Teams 2018/19 - 2023/24 states that “Formalising WBPHCOT teams will increase the number of much needed healthcare workers, as well as contribute to human resource development in the health sector. It is anticipated to lead to visible improvements, not only in equity and access to care, but also in managing the quadruple burden of disease with a strong focus on fostering the well-being of mothers, children and other vulnerable groups” (p.3). The National Health Promotion Policy and Strategy 2015 also underlines that “Marginalised and vulnerable groups have specific health needs that should be identified and provided for, when planning and implementing health promotion interventions. The health promoters should design specific interventions to meet the needs of the following population groups:

- Refugees or migrant workers.
- Homeless people.
- Key populations at high-risk for HIV infection (e.g., injecting drug users, men who have sex with men and sex workers).
- People with disabilities (i.e., physical, intellectual, sensory, emotional)

The SAPS Strategic Plan 2014-2020 (2014) comments on the need for multiple stakeholders to work in partnership to effectively protect vulnerable groups: ‘Crime is a social phenomenon that cannot be prevented by the police alone – hence partnership is critical in the fight against crime. To this end not only the community at large but other stakeholders within government, municipalities, businesses, civil society and other interest groups are needed to establish safe communities inter alia through community safety centres and safety programmes aimed at the protection of vulnerable groups”.

The Department of Transport Strategic Plan (2015) notes that “Improving service delivery, especially services that improve the lives of poor marginalized people, remains a government priority”. The Policy on Small Scale Fisheries (2012) states that “Vulnerable groups in the context of small scale fisheries policy means women, children, disabled and elderly persons who have (historically) been marginalized by others in the fishing sector” or any person who can show that his/her equal enjoyment of rights and freedoms is affected in a serious manner comparable to any woman, children, disabled or elderly persons.”
The White Paper on Arts, Culture and Heritage (1996) establishes that “Cultural and creative industries must facilitate the mainstreaming and inclusion of marginalized sectors of society such as women and people with disabilities, in the main and sub-sectors of the Cultural and Creative Industries”.

It is also important that each sector identifies vulnerable and/or excluded groups that are related to that sector. The White Paper on National Health Insurance Policy (2017) sets out that “Priority will be given to the population that is in greatest need, including vulnerable groups, and must include those experiencing the greatest difficulty in obtaining care. The unemployed, vulnerable groups will be prioritised. The identification of the population with the greatest need will be based on criteria consistent with the principles of NHI”. The White paper on Families (2012) refers to SASSA stating that “As the Agency mandated with ensure the provision of comprehensive social security services against vulnerability and poverty within the constitutional and legislative framework, SASSA will ensure that all eligible families, family members, and caregivers have access to the various social security and social assistance programmes aimed at strengthening and protecting the family in South Africa”. Several documents recognise the plight of farm labourers and small scale farmers. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Strategic Plan (2015) observes that ‘The acceleration of the pace of land reform and the protection of vulnerable communities including farm labourers and people living on farms is another important focus area in this financial year’. Similarly the Agricultural Policy Action Plan (2015) acknowledges that ‘Strategic interventions are required to integrate smallholder and struggling smaller commercial farms to participate in the mainstream economy and take advantage of both domestic agro food chains and international markets’. The White Paper A New Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa (1995) also finds that “Farm workers are effectively excluded as secure tenure is rarely achievable and because of the linkage between employment, the place of employment and the home”, “Specific areas of concern include the exclusion of rural housing needs from the mainstream of housing policy approaches, as well as the continued marginalisation of workers and families effectively trapped within the hostels, especially those within the public sector”.

The concept of economic inclusion is widely applied to job creation and bridges the inclusion of vulnerable or previously disadvantaged groups with the notion of social cohesion. The Framework for South Africa's Response to the International Economic Crisis (2009) “One million unemployed youths, women and disabled people will be targeted in public employment programmes directed at socially useful activities, including home-based care, crèches, school cleaning and renovation, community gardens, removal of alien vegetation, tree planting and school feeding”. The Black Industrialist Policy (2015) notes that “The Government has embarked on a number of developmental policies that form the basis for addressing unemployment, poverty and equality to promote inclusivity and shared economic growth. It is against this background that the Black Industrialists Policy has been identified as an instrument to enhance transformation in the economy and ensure meaningful participation of black people in the mainstream of the South African economy. The democratic South African Government has always placed economic inclusion at the centre of its economic programmes. In this respect, the implementation of policies such as the National Development Plan (NDP), IPAP, Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) and Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (PPPFA) represents milestones in the State’s bid to restructure the economy in such a manner that it reflects South Africa's demographics".
There are also several ways in which policy and strategy documents relate to the national goal of social cohesion and the need for inclusive policies.

With regard to human settlements, the Breaking New Ground Strategy (2004) is cognisant of the link between housing and social integration: “Informal settlements must urgently be integrated into the broader urban fabric to overcome spatial, social and economic exclusion. The Department will accordingly introduce a new informal settlement upgrading instrument to support the focused eradication of informal settlements”. Along similar lines, the Enhanced People’s Housing Process Framework for Inclusionary Housing Policy 2007 reflects that “the objective of inclusionary housing is primarily to promote greater social inclusion/integration and to break with the highly segregated processes of built environment creation in South Africa. Boosting the supply of affordable housing is a secondary objective but an important one’. Specifically it is noted that ‘The key objectives of inclusionary housing in South Africa [are] to make a contribution towards achieving a better balance of race and class in new residential developments [and to] provide accommodation opportunities for low income and lower middle income households in areas from which they might otherwise be excluded because of the dynamics of the land market’.

The Integrated Social Crime Prevention (2011) links the department’s actions to social cohesion objectives: “Social Development sector defines social crime prevention as a way of strengthening social cohesion and social fabric, by encouraging and empowering individuals, families and communities to participate in their development and decision-making”.

Inclusion and cohesion are also applied in several ways to the economy. The New Growth Plan 2011 refers to the need for consensus and solidarity: “The stakeholder commitments require a national consensus on wages, prices and savings in order to ensure a significant increase in the number of jobs in the economy while addressing the concerns of vulnerable workers and reducing income inequality. The commitments involve shared solidarity, sacrifice and partnership to shift society to the New Growth Path and achieve the goal of five million new jobs” (p.38). This is confirmed in the Department of Arts and Culture’s ‘National Strategy for Developing An Inclusive and a Cohesive South African Society’ (2014) which states that “This high correlation between national development policies and social cohesion and nation-building also applies to the New Growth Path and the Industrial Policy Action Plan. It therefore confirms the fundamental social imperatives of development”.

There are several examples of direct engagement and ownership of the mandate to promote social cohesion. The National Strategy for Social Cohesion 2012 references the Constitution’s ‘founding principles of human dignity, democracy, freedom, non-racialism and non-sexism’ and unpacks the concept of social cohesion based on these principles: “In these iconic documents, social cohesion and nation-building are not conceptualised in any rigid homogenising terms. In an innovative and reasoned departure, the well-known homogenising precepts of social cohesion associated with mono-cultural societies, are abandoned. At the same time, the colonial practice of enlisting cultural diversity as a justification for inequality, exclusion and the systematic division is rejected as conceptually inappropriate and ethically undesirable”(p.28). The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development Strategic Plan 2017-2020 signals its commitment in line with this mandate,
“Transforming society and uniting the country In line with the NDP, the Department will substantially contribute towards the transformation of our society. The following initiatives have been included in the Strategic Plan: [...] Promoting social cohesion, creating actively engaged and critical citizens with a culture of human rights and tolerance, continuing with the implementation of the recommendations of the TRC” (p35).

Within this framework of embracing diversity the promotion of cultural and sporting activities are thus viewed as important components of nation-building. The Department of Cooperative Governance Strategic Plan 2015 promotes “Cultural and heritage activities of traditional communities that promote Ubuntu, Nation Building, Social cohesion and socio economic development receiving more exposure”. Similarly the Department of Traditional Affairs Strategic Plan aims to “provide anthropological research for the department and traditional affairs entities, research support for entities, develop and maintain traditional affairs information management systems, implement national frameworks and strategies for coordination of social cohesion within the sector, interfaith, Khoisan Affairs and for the promotion of progressive cultural and heritage practices of traditional and Khoisan communities”. The Sports and Recreation Strategic Plan 2015-2020 also establishes these principles as underlying its mandate, “At the heart of the NSRP is a Transformation Charter and Scorecard that is intended to bring about the establishment of a competitive and demographically representative sport system guided by a value set based on the following key principles:

• Equal opportunity
• Redress
• Fairness and just behaviour
• Equitable resource distribution
• Empowerment and affirmation”.

A further way in which policy and strategy engage with social cohesion is by affirming that fair and transparent processes are crucial. Inclusive access to services, participatory, representative and transparent processes are all key components of inclusive strategies.

The participatory and time-consuming nature of change processes which are inclusive is explained clearly in the White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa (1995) “Change must now be managed by the new education authorities in a systematic, inclusive and fully participatory way. Education departments must lead but not dictate. If radical change is imposed on schools by top-down direction in the absence of participation by those whose interests and identities are at stake, the result will be predictably disastrous. The Ministry of Education accepts that change will not be an overnight process but continuous over a period of time. In many parts of the country, local organisational capacity among stakeholder groups has been poorly developed and in some cases actively discouraged by previous authorities. It will take time for local leadership to emerge and engage with the new Departments of Education. The departments should be prepared to act flexibly while local capacity is being built, and to aid and facilitate that process. […] The Ministry of Education is therefore committed to an inclusive process of negotiated change toward the full democratisation of school organisation and governance, and the following proposals are made in that spirit” (p.75). The Integrated Pollution and Waste Management 2000 is another example which underlines the need for participation of stakeholders in the provision of services, “Government must encourage the inclusion of all interested and
affected parties in environmental governance with the aim of achieving equitable and effective participation” (p.71). The National Youth Policy 2020 includes participation and inclusion as core principles, affirming that “Service providers must design policies, strategies and programmes for and with young people by sharing information, creating opportunities and involving them in decision-making as active participants in their own development. Young people should own the outcomes of the development process and view human rights as fundamental to development. Government will provide the enabling environment.” […] “Youth development interventions should promote the inclusion of young people as a significant part of societal structures by involving them in democratic and nation-building activities”.

The mechanisms required to ensure participatory requirements are met are outlined in detail in the Batho Pele White Paper (1997), “There are many ways to consult users of services, including customer surveys, interviews with individual users, consultation groups, and meetings with consumer representative bodies, NGOS and CBOS, including bodies representing previously disadvantaged groups. The method or methods adopted must be chosen to suit the characteristics of the users and consumers concerned. Whatever method is chosen, consultation must cover the entire range of existing and potential customers. It is essential that consultation should include the views of those who have previously been denied access to public services. Particular effort must be made to include the views of those who have been previously disadvantaged or who, due to geography, language barriers, fear of authority or any other reason, have previously found it hard to make their voices heard. The consultation process should be undertaken sensitively; for example, people should not be asked to reveal unnecessary personal information, and they should be able to give their views anonymously if they wish. Often, more than one method of consultation will be needed to ensure comprehensiveness and representativeness”.

Formal identification is a pre-requisite for an inclusive democracy. The Department of Home Affairs Strategic Plan 2015-2020 affirms that “The inclusion of all citizens in democracy and development is enabled by providing them with a status and an identity that gives them access to rights and services”. The notion of ensuring universal access as key to inclusion is addressed in the MTSF Health (2014) ‘Private health insurance is not an effective financing mechanism, due to the fact that it is voluntary, uses risk rating and may exclude many people from access, and contributions required are not linked to income. Payroll taxes, which are used in some countries to fund NHI, have diminishing advantages as coverage becomes universal. The NDP 2030 views user fees or out-of-pocket payments as a regressive form of health financing, which can retract from access to health services. Table 11 below reflects the specific actions required from the health sector and other relevant sectors during the MTSF cycle 2014-2019. The NDP 2030 emphasizes that meaningful public-private partnerships in the health sector are important, particularly for NHI” (p.4)

Corruption is recognized as anti-cohesive in several documents. The Policy on Management of Financial Misconduct 2006 highlights that corruption undermines inclusion “Financial misconduct, amongst others, violates the social and economic rights of the poor and the vulnerable, undermines democracy, retards development, and deprives the people from getting services that are due to them. The money that is supposed to be spent on public welfare, roads, transport, health, education and so on is gradually slipping into private coffers in pursuance of self-enrichment and ultimately deprives the poor of their basic
needs”. The Public Service Anti-Corruption Strategy (2002) states that “South Africa’s complex political economy has given rise to several forms of corruption. These have many causes including the fact that the new social forces governing South Africa have historically been excluded from the economy, but now control state power in a context where the state is a major mechanism of accumulation. Anxious to deliver services to previously excluded and marginalized people, the new administrative cadre finds itself stifled by a bureaucratic, rule-bound public system. The state should not be bulldozed into panic reactions but it should, when appropriate, root out corruption through swift decisive action”.

Finally, language and public communication by government are also seen as contributing to social cohesion. The Department of Communications Strategic Plan 2015-2020 comments “Communication plays an important supportive role in the realisation of government strategic objectives as outlined in the NDP and the MTSF. It energises and mobilises economic transformation, which addresses poverty, unemployment and inequality. It is a catalyst in promoting nation-building, unity and social cohesion. It protects and defends the image of government by proactively communicating government messages and showcasing delivery successes, challenges and corrective action plans. As government programmes are a product of extensive consultation disabilities and civil society, communication serves as a glue that sustains the sense of inclusion and ownership by these stakeholders” (p.12). The promotion of languages also supports the goals of social cohesion. The Incremental Introduction of African Languages policy (2013) aims to “promote social cohesion by expanding opportunities for the development of African languages as a significant way of preserving heritage and cultures. The IIAL policy will be implemented incrementally commencing in Grade 1 in 2015 and will continue until 2026 when it will be implemented in Grade 12” (p.5), “Multilingualism is an important tool for social cohesion, and for individual and social development” (p.6).

5.6 Social exclusion - Gender
The section above on Social Exclusion has touched on several ways in which references to women are included in considerations of vulnerable groups, and references to gender more broadly fall under broad approaches to counter discrimination. In this section we refer to some of the different ways in which gender is approached within legislative and policy documents. Specifically we give examples in which (i) policy draws on gender-differentiated situational analyses, (ii) progress towards gender equality is noted as a marker of progress, (iii) organizational governance requires gender representation, (iv) policies respond to gender-specific needs, (v) policies apply principles of non-discrimination to sector-specific policies and to redress past gender-inequities,(vi) gender-responsive policies are promoted, (vii) strategies take into account the positive social and economic contribution of women.

Gender-differentiated situational analyses inform policies in several cases. For example, the White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa: First Steps to Develop a New System (1995) relates that ‘within the education system there are worrying disparities between girls and boys, and many girls and women suffer unfair discrimination and ill-treatment’, ‘boys and young men drop out of school at a far higher rate than girls and young women’ and that ‘women are overwhelmingly represented in the teaching service, but are
poorly represented among the ranks of school principals, and are barely visible in middle and senior management positions in education departments’ (p.46). The National Strategy for Non-Communicable Chronic Conditions in Children (2013) expresses “deep concern that women bear a disproportionate share of the burden of care-giving and that, in some populations, women tend to be less physically active than men, are more likely to be obese and are taking up smoking at alarming rates”. In the White Paper on Energy Policy (1998) it is noted that “Although most household consumers are women, past energy policy has largely ignored their needs”. The White Paper on Land Policy (1997) finds that “Much of the country’s most severe poverty is located in rural areas, where the poorest ten per cent of the people are Africans and where women-headed households are particularly impoverished” and that “A key contributing factor to women’s inability to overcome poverty is lack of access to, and rights in, land”.

Cultural and demographic trends are commented on, with regard to their gender implications. The Department of Traditional Affairs Strategic Plan (2015) states that “As noted above, the sector is male dominated at all levels and we acknowledge that it is still a long way to go to achieve gender equity within the sector. The sector is also inherently culture-oriented, with both progressive cultural practices that need to be revived and promoted and those harmful and discriminatory cultural and interfaith practices in conflict with the Bill of Rights which should be condemned or adapted to be in line with Constitutional principles”. Changing migration patterns are taken into account in the White Paper on International Migration (2017) “Young men have constituted a major proportion of those migrating annually, but increasingly women and children are migrating. The overall number of migrants has been increasing steadily owing to opportunities offered by rapid transport, accessibility to communications as well as “push” and “pull” factors”.

Progress towards gender equality is relayed as a marker of progress in other instances. The DBE Strategic Plan 2015-2020 reports that ‘Pre-school education and Early Childhood Development (ECD) have expanded massively; there is gender parity in school enrolment; and retention and through-put ratios have improved substantially up to Grade 9’. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development Strategic Plan 2017 – 2020 reports that ‘Courts have, over the years, made a significant positive contribution to the fight against gender-based violence by granting protection orders and imposing serious and firm sentences against offenders’.

Policies which respond to gender-specific needs are advocated for in several policy documents. The National HIV Testing Services policy (2016) finds that ‘[Testing services] for female sex workers is important because female sex workers across developing countries are not aware of their HIV status and are less likely to get tested as they lack the knowledge about HIV/AIDS, HTS services available to them, and the fear of being seen accessing HIV services, which can result in the loss of clients’. The Department of Energy Strategic Plan 2015-2020 acknowledges how electrification many have disproportionate benefits for women and commits to “[leveraging] the benefits of the massive investment in the energy sector by ensuring that our departmental programmes display a greater degree of responsiveness to the needs of our people, such as the empowerment of women and the youth, whether it is through the Integrated National Electrification Programme (INEP), the implementation of the National Solar Water Heater Programme (NSWHP), the IPP Programme or the transformation of the liquid fuels sector”. The White Paper for Social
Welfare (1997) highlights particular challenges faced by women: 'Women can claim support for themselves and their children through the law courts. The system, however, is complex and unreliable. There is a high rate of defaulting by fathers'.

Several policies seek to apply principles of non-discrimination and to redress past gender-inequities in sector-specific ways. The Department of Women Strategic Plan 2017/2018 recognises a leading role for the department in this, ‘The Department has a dynamic role to play in the enhancement of the implementation of Vision 2013 as set out in the NDP, by ensuring that its implementation is gender mainstreamed and responsive to the needs of South African women’. Other sectoral policies also affirm the need for mainstreaming gender. The National Development Research Strategy (NRDS) (2002) “Centres of excellence must include a strong gender-inclusive policy”. The National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS III) states that “Priority must be given to access to skills by women, especially black women, and skills development initiatives must contain within them specific programmes and strategies to promote gender equality”.

Mainstreaming gender means ensuring services and opportunities are available to women and addressing barriers that prevent their equal access. The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA)(No 28 of 2002) sets out to “substantially and meaningfully expand opportunities for historically disadvantaged persons, including women, to enter the mineral and petroleum industries and to benefit from the exploitation of the nation’s mineral and petroleum resources”. The New Growth Plan (2011) “highlight[s] the heavy impact of unemployment on women and people with disabilities. We are developing a barometer to measure the number of women who will benefit from the five million jobs that we seek to create in the next 10 years. We will also ensure that women participate in the Green Economy projects in the country”. The Department of Public Works Strategic Plan gives priority to previously disadvantaged groups including women in particular, ‘As part of this process, emerging black and female contractors, SMMEs that function as property practitioners and Cooperatives, will be prioritised to reflect the demographics of our country. Twenty years later the Department of Small Business Strategic Plan (2015) reports the particular challenges for SMMEs in rural areas and owned by women owned. It also sets a target to measurably increase support for black women’s enterprises. Similarly the Department of Public Works Strategic Plan (2015) “As part of this process, emerging black and female contractors, SMMEs that function as property practitioners and Cooperatives, will be prioritised to reflect the demographics of our country”.

Cultural values which are not aligned with gender equality are addressed in other instances. The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (2007) “regards gender training as a crucial aspect of rehabilitation, particularly that of young offenders, whose personal and social development has been interrupted by incarceration and amongst whom issues of gender equality, particularly in personal relationships, may not be well internalized”. The White Paper on Families (2012) also sets out that “traditional leaders will be trained and engaged around issues of gender equality and human rights including training on the Constitution and provisions of family-related regional and international human rights instruments that South Africa had signed and ratified”. The Education White Paper on Early Childhood Development (2000) highlights the impacts of ECD programmes for women: “In this regard, it is widely acknowledged that by freeing women, even somewhat, from the chores of early childhood
development will result in raised incomes for women and families, especially for families living in poverty”.

Particularly encouraging are policies and strategies (post 1994 and post-2011) which recognise the existing and potential positive social and economic contribution of women. The Industrial Policy Action Plan (2018) proposes the “development of energy efficiency experts in industry with special focus on increasing the number of women capacitated and empowered as experts in industrial energy efficiency”. The White Paper on Tourism (1996) affirmed that “Women, especially in rural communities, have a particularly important role to play in the development of responsible tourism. The employment of women can be a fundamental determinant of the development impacts of the tourism industry. In a survey conducted among women farm workers in the Lowveld, it was demonstrated that a strong correlation exists between salaries and household welfare among employed women”. The National Environmental Management Act (No 107 of 1998)”The vital role of women and youth in environmental management and development must be recognised and their full participation therein must be promoted”. The Department of Transport Revised Strategic Plan 2015-2020 emphasises women’s role in the country’s development, “These initiatives will advance the government’s programme to empower women such that they are able to contribute to the socio-economic growth and development of our country. This will also ensure that the women of our country are afforded opportunities to showcase their potential in the creation of wealth and realization of the objectives of our NDP”. The Small-Scale Fisheries Policy (2012) asserts that “Women have always played a major role in the pre and post fishing activities in South Africa, and in some communities women are the primary harvesters of intertidal resources”, ”Women must be empowered to exercise their rights to participate in the management of the marine resources. This is particularly important because women generally give high prioritization to socio-economic issues and food security”. The White Paper on National Climate Change Response (2011) aims to “Empower local communities, particularly women who are often primary producers, in the process of designing and implementing adaptation strategies”.

The requirement for gender representation within organizational governance is another way that gender inequities are addressed. The Municipal Structures Act (1998) “Every party or councillor must seek to ensure that fifty per cent of the candidates on the candidates list are women and that women and men candidates are evenly distributed through the list’. The International Trade Administration Act (2002) requires that ‘the members of the Commission must [...] be representative of broad cross-section of the population of the Republic, including women”. The Strategic Plan for the Department of Environmental Affairs 2015/16-2019/20 (2015) ”The transformation imperatives include among others 50% representation of women in the organisation, not only in lower positions but also in leadership and senior management level, and ensuring employment of 2% people with disabilities in line with the employment equity requirements”. The Framework for the Development of a National Science and Technology Expenditure Plan (2002) established “The formation of the Women’s Reference Group in Science and Technology will strengthen women-led initiatives in all phases of participation in science and technology, from school to career achievement”.

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5.7 Social exclusion - race

The primary source of references to race are as one of several discriminatory factors. However, several affirmative laws and policies, a number of which have been frequently referenced in this report, such as the BBBEE Act 2003. We also mention some of the specific way in which racial disparities are addressed in which (i) policy draws on race-differentiated situational analyses, (ii) policies seek to apply principles of non-discrimination to sector-specific policies and to redress past race-based inequalities.

In-depth analyses of the extent and implications of race-based discrimination preface several policies and laws, across the breadth of sectors. The Department of Home Affairs Strategic Plan (2015) records how “Under apartheid, identity systems were fragmented between 11 different racial and ethnic departments and only the births of persons classified as “Whites, Coloureds and Indians” were systematically recorded. Whites received a level of service comparable with more advanced economies while Black South Africans were effectively denied citizenship and were subjected to colonial legislation and administration”. The Black Industrial Policy (2015) addresses “The underdevelopment of black South Africans took the form of systematic destruction of their productive assets, deliberate denial of access to skills and jobs and a range of interventions to prevent self-employment and entrepreneurship. In combination, these policies restricted and suppressed the wealth and skills endowments in black communities, thereby structurally inhibiting their participation in a legislatively race-based economy”. The National Emergency Care Education & Training Policy (2017) fundamentally redresses previous policies: “Prior to 1994, ambulance services were racially segregated and resources were unequally distributed in favour of the white population”. In the media industry, the Department of Communications Strategic Plan (2016) observes that “The print media was also seen to be white-owned and dominated” and that “small commercial and community newspapers have black owners (57%) but while transformation has therefore been seen, this is still not in line with the population demographics of the country”.

Several education documents summarise the inequalities highlighted by racially disaggregated data. The Education White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education (2001) needs to tackle “the results of decades of segregation and systematic underresourcing are apparent in the imbalance between special schools that catered exclusively for white disabled learners and those that catered exclusively for black disabled learners”. The White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa: First Steps to Develop a New System (1995) “The basis of financial allocations to different categories of state and state-aided schools must be equitable and transparent, aimed at eliminating historical disparities based on race and region and ensuring an acceptable quality of education”. The Education White Paper on Early Childhood Development (2000) builds on evidence that “White children have access to ECD services of considerably higher quality than Coloured, Indian or African children, while in poverty-stricken rural and informal areas ECD provision for African children from birth - 5 year old is far lower than in formal urban areas, both in terms of quality and quantity”. Even in recent years, the Strategic Plan Basic Education 2015/6- 2019/20 finds that “The current situation is that the quality of education for black children is still largely poor, meaning employment, earning potential and career mobility is reduced for these learners”. The White Paper on Conservation and Sustainable Use of Biodiversity (1997) ’The situation is further aggravated by the fact that the recruitment of black South Africans to the
conservation sector has been poor, largely as a result of previous discriminatory policies, and the restricted career opportunities offered by the sector’.

Legislative and policy responses are closely linked to these findings. In response to the “third key contextual consideration, and one that is a major concern for government, [...] that processes of built environment creation in South Africa are still extremely segregated in race and class terms”, the Inclusionary Housing Policy (2007) asserts that “Inclusionary housing has the potential to be one of a range of tools used to help address our current highly segregated processes of built environment creation it has been used with some success to help address racial exclusion in the USA It cannot be the only tool but it has a place’. The Land and Agricultural Development Bank Act (2002) was established in response to the recognition that “ racially discriminatory practices and laws of the past and apartheid deprived historically disadvantaged people of land resulting in their exclusion from the agricultural sector and racially skewed patterns of ownership of land in South Africa”. The BBBEE Act 2004 sets out that “The objectives of this Act are to facilitate broad-based black economic empowerment by promoting economic transformation in order to enable meaningful participation of black people in the economy; achieving a substantial change in the racial composition of ownership and management structures and in the skilled occupations of existing and new enterprises”. The Mineral and Petroleum Resources Development Act (MPRDA)(No 28 of 2002) lays out that “In determining just and equitable compensation all relevant factors must be taken into account, including [...] the State’s obligation to redress the results of past racial discrimination in the allocation of and access to mineral and petroleum resources”. Similarly, the Mining Charter (2018) aims to “deracialise ownership patterns in the mining industry through redress of past imbalances and injustices”. The Industrial Policy Action Plan (2018) summarises some of the key guiding principles: “Defined as radical economic transformation, the key thrust of this economic reorientation is to start tackling the long-standing structural fault-lines in the economy head-on – systematically eliminating race-based economic ownership and control [...]”. The National Skills Development Strategy 3 (2011) specifically clarifies that “Priority must be given to providing opportunities to previously (and currently) disadvantaged South Africans with focused attention on skills provision for blacks in general and Africans in particular to help in reducing racial inequalities in our economy and skills profile”.

The process of de-racialising institutions is extremely challenging, as emerges in the White Paper on Local Government (1998), “The process of amalgamating the old race-based municipal administrations, initiated by the Local Government Transition Act, proceeded very differently in different municipalities. In many cases the structures and systems of better established municipal administrations (usually former white municipalities) were adopted and extended to “absorb” staff from the smaller administrations (usually former black local authorities). While this approach minimized administrative disruption, it did not result in new, more effective or more equitable ways of working. Minimal changes were made to organisational structure. In many instances amalgamation disadvantaged the staff of former black local authorities as they were “slotted in” to job evaluation systems which weighted formal qualifications above job experience. The process reproduced inequity and made little attempt to enhance performance. All the inherited weaknesses of the old administrative system remained intact”.

The Department of Public Service and Administration Strategic Plan (2015) celebrates some of the progress achieved in the face of these challenges: “We are proud of the
achievements the Public Service has had, over this 20 year period, which include, among others, the rationalisation of our administration into one national system as opposed to the racially and ethnically divided systems of the apartheid era, the development of sound policies to facilitate efficient and effective administration, transforming the composition of the Public Service to ensure that it is representative of the people of this country (as required by the Constitution), and improve access to government services for the majority of our people”.

More seldom, policies are designed to bridge the divides that have been created out of discriminatory policies. The Sports and Recreation Strategic Plan 2015-2020 (2015) sets out that “The NDP proposes that every ward should have adequate facilities for basic exercise and sporting activities and suggests improving public services and spaces as well as building integrated housing and sports facilities in communities to ensure sharing of common spaces across race and class”.

5.8 Social exclusion - Disability

As in the previous section, the most frequent references to disability are as one of several vulnerable groups. There are also a few comprehensive policy documents focused on disability, particularly in the Education and Health sectors, such as the White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education (2001) and the National Mental Health Policy Framework and Strategic Plan (2013). We also mention some of the specific ways in which disability is addressed in which (i) policy identifies particular implications of a policy for persons with disabilities, (ii) policies seek to apply principles of non-discrimination to sector-specific policies.

Disability is taken into consideration most consistently in the education sector. The Action Plan to 2019: Towards the Realisation of Schooling (2015) observes that “the level of skills amongst teachers in schools in the area of special needs education is relatively high. In many schools, the challenge is to ensure that the capacity that exists is properly utilised, partly by ensuring that the principal allocates time to special needs activities, and the necessary structures and physical resources are available’, ‘But it also emphasises that the need for treatment in areas such as visual impairment, mental health and HIV and AIDS must be established early, through the schooling system, so that the relevant referrals to health services can be made”. The Education White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education (2001) analyses the various ways in which education intersects with disability “The manner in which the physical environment, such as buildings and grounds, is developed and organised contributes to the level of independence and equality that learners with disability enjoy”, “It is essential to acknowledge that the learners who are most vulnerable to barriers to learning and exclusion in South Africa are those who have historically been termed ‘learners with special education needs’, i.e. learners with disabilities and impairments”. The Learner Transport Policy (2015) identifies several specific needs “The current learner transport system does not make sufficient provision for the transportation of learners with physical disabilities to ensure the attainment of universal access to transport services”. The Strategic Plan Basic Education 2015/6- 2019/20 comments on the balance between targeted and mainstreamed interventions "The Department is expected to implement policies and programmes that are geared towards the protection and promotion of the rights of people with disabilities, continuing to mainstream learners with disabilities in schools, establishing
full service schools but also prioritising the establishment of special needs schools for specific disabilities’. The National Integrated ECD policy 2015 – 2020 (2015) established that “An effective and holistic early childhood development programme for children with disabilities is required to ensure that these children are guaranteed equal opportunities to access comprehensive early childhood development services necessary to ensure their rights to survival, growth, development and protection to their full potential”. The White Paper 6, Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System (2001) sets out plans for a “targeted outreach programme, beginning in Government’s rural and urban development nodes, to mobilise disabled out-of-school children and youth”. The National Youth Policy 2015-2020 asserts that “All post-school institutions should be inclusive, making sure learners with disabilities are catered for. TVET colleges in particular should be made accessible to people with disabilities. Reading material in post-school institutions should cater for visually impaired students, including library material. The Department of Basic Education should accelerate implementation of the White Paper on Special Needs Education to ensure equal and sustained access to education for youth with disabilities”.

In Health, documents refer to the causes of physical and mental disability and access to services for persons with disabilities. The Policy on Quality in Health Care for South Africa (2007) points to the importance of injury prevention: “While health care is important, many other factors contribute to the health status of the population. For example, injuries are the single greatest cause of disability and death, so injury prevention is essential to preventing avoidable disability and death”. The National Department of Health Language Policy (2015) engages with communication needs of the hearing or sight impaired “The NDOH will facilitate South African sign language interpreting and conversion of text into Braille or alternatively audio on request”. The National Mental Health Policy Framework and Strategic Plan (2013) encourages advocacy efforts “The Department of Health will engage with a range of stakeholders who lobby for political support for mental health on the public agenda. This will include discussion regarding the importance and place of mental health within the broader disability agenda, and within other development priorities and public concerns will be better articulated”.

Across other sectors, there are examples of policies which seek to engage with disability in several ways. The White Paper on Corrections in South Africa 2007 considers the needs of disabled offenders “With regard to disability, the Department will operate within a human rights model. Correctional institutions should be designed to cater for the needs of disabled offenders and should be consistent with the national policy framework on persons with disabilities. The policy should reflect both the equality of rights of disabled offenders and the particular needs that disabled offenders have. The provision of appropriate facilities must not be limited to the physical accommodation needs, but must include the provision of appropriate facilities for the enhancement of rehabilitation amongst these offenders”. The SAPS Strategic Plan 2014 – 2020 addresses representation within the service: “The SAPS recruitment drive for Public Service Act personnel should be utilised to enhance the representation of people with disabilities”. The Consumer Protection Act (2008) protects persons with disabilities “it is unconscionable for a supplier knowingly to take advantage of the fact that a consumer was substantially unable to protect the consumer’s own interests because of physical or mental disability […]”. The National Environmental Management: Integrated Coastal Management Act, 2008 (No 24 of 2008) addresses infrastructural
considerations “where appropriate and within its available resources, provide facilities that promote access to coastal public property, including parking areas, toilets, boardwalks and other amenities, taking into account the needs of physically disabled persons”. The National Environmental Impact Assessment and Management Strategy (EIAMS) (2014) seeks to "Ensure digital documents are accessible by people with impairments, using document formats that are ‘electronically readable’.

5.9 Youth not in education, employment or training

The focus on youth as an excluded group is stronger in the NDP than in previous national blueprints, though the number of references is low overall. The National Youth Policy 2015-2020 takes its cue from the NDP and the ‘youth lens’ it proposes “The National Development Plan provides an aspirational vision of South Africa in 2030 and the context within which all youth-oriented programmes should be located”. Several proposals draw from this mandate, for example to “Create a tax incentive for employers to reduce the initial cost of hiring young labour-market entrants, provide a subsidy to the placement sector to identify, prepare and place matric graduates into work; expand learnerships and make training vouchers directly available to job-seekers; introduce a formalised graduate recruitment scheme for the public service to attract highly skilled people; and expand the role of state-owned enterprises in training artisans and technical professionals”.

Job creation as well as training opportunities for youth is a particular focus in several policy documents. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development Strategic Plan 2017–2020 commits the Department to “implement the government’s youth development programme by recruiting 900 and 920 unemployed youth for the 2017/18 and 2018/19 performance cycle respectively. HRD will embark on a mentorship, coaching and training programme to support the various internship and learnership projects”. The Division of Revenue Act (2016) refers to the Infrastructure Skills Development Grant which aims to “recruit unemployed graduates into municipalities to be trained as per the requirements of the relevant statutory councils within the built environment”. The Employment Services Act (2014) establishes with regard to the Promotion of employment of youth and other vulnerable work seekers that “The Minister may, after consulting the Board, establish work schemes for the purpose of enabling youth and other vulnerable work seekers to enter employment, remain in employment or be placed in opportunities for self-employment”. The National Framework Strategy for Sustainable Development (2008) envisages “a massive campaign for creation of self-/employment through micro-enterprises and co-operatives by organising and training women particularly in rural areas. In addition to work being done through SETAs, FET institutions, EPWP and NIPF/IPIP, facilitate entry into labour market for young people through ‘massification’ of learnerships and special PWP programmes for youth will also be implemented, under the responsibility of the economic cluster”.

5.10 Spatial exclusion

There is clear recognition in many documents, extending well beyond the confines of the Department of Rural Development, that spatial disparities are a major cause and component of exclusion and uneven development. Examples included in this report refer to rural/urban disparities, provincial disparities and spatial integration. We include examples where disparities are recorded (for food security, access to infrastructure, services and employment), where progress is celebrated and where targeted policies are put forward.
References to the past and present multi-dimensional spatial imbalances show that this affects many areas of policy in complex ways. In health, the Cervical Cancer Policy (2017) finds that “Women who live in rural areas are disadvantaged regarding access to appropriate information and access to services. Even in some cases where a woman has access to a primary healthcare facility for screening, her referral to the next level of care is delayed due to poverty or financial challenges”. The National Emergency Care Education & Training Policy (2017) reflects on the historical roots of spatial inequalities “This fragmentation of ambulance services stems back to the South Africa Act, 1909 […].. The subsequent State Health Plan and promulgation of Section 16(b) of the Health Act, 1977 (Act 63 of 1977) placed the responsibility for ambulance services with the then four provinces; whilst the former black homelands were excluded”.

Urban bias is reported in the housing and environmental sectors. The Breaking New Ground Strategy (2004) finds that “The existing supply-side and commoditized housing programme reflects a significant and inherent urban bias. There is a need to address this through a stronger focus on rural housing instruments, whilst acknowledging that rural housing interventions are likely to be strongly directed towards the installation of infrastructure rather than the development housing”. The White Paper on National Climate Change Response (2011) “Rural areas are under-represented in the climate monitoring network despite the fact that they are likely to be the soonest and most greatly negatively affected by climate change”.

Food security in rural areas is a major concern. The National Strategy for Non-Communicable Chronic Conditions in Children (2013) documents “a shortage of healthy low-fat food and little fresh fruit and vegetables in most townships and in many rural areas and the majority of local shops sell cheap fatty foods rather than healthy goods”. The Agricultural Policy Action Plan (2015) similarly finds that “Notwithstanding the aim of the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) of 2002 to streamline, harmonise and integrate the diverse food security programmes, food insecurity still remains a challenge for the country, especially at local household level. The problem is especially acute in deep rural areas, because rural dwellers tend to pay higher prices for staples and other foods, even while there may be under-utilised arable land nearby that could in principle be meeting at least a share of local food needs”.

While the Industrial Policy Action Plan (2018) concludes that “Apartheid spatial geography continues to constrain the economy in terms of worker travel time and costs”, the Department of Transport Revised Strategic Plan 2015-2020 also finds that “The DoT has made significant progress in making a difference to the lives of the people in rural areas”.

Policy responses include a wide range of approaches – some consider how to use resources most effectively and efficiently, others aim to redress past imbalances either with specific targeted interventions, or by extending services and opportunities equitably across rural regions, poorer provinces and underprivileged urban and peri-urban areas. In some cases the potential of developing disadvantaged or under-resourced areas is emphasized.

The Education White Paper on Early Childhood Development (ECD) (2000) prioritises rural areas “For it is especially the children of our poor rural and poor urban communities who are most likely to benefit from and who most urgently need investment in early childhood development”. The National Treasury Strategic Plan 2015-9 (2014) outlines that “apartheid spatial planning dominates the urban landscape. Over the next three years, government will expand investment in the urban built environment, using resources more effectively to
transform human settlements, and drawing in private investment to support more dynamic and inclusive economic growth”.

The Black Industrial Policy (2015) specifies that “Additional support will be prioritised for projects located in underdeveloped and rural areas”. The Integrated School Health Policy (2012) recognizes that “The number of school health nurses needs to be increased in order to deliver school health services in all areas; to greatly improve coverage and to reduce the current inequities between urban and rural areas”. The Policy Framework and Strategy on Community Health Workers of South Africa (2018) promotes “Context-specific implementation to ensure effectiveness, equity with a special focus on rural underserved areas and sustainability, context specific factors such as the needs of rural communities should be considered”. The National Mental Health Policy Framework and Strategic Plan (2013) endorses “Providing equitable, cost-effective and evidence based interventions and thereby ensure that mental health is available to all who need it, including people in rural areas and from disadvantaged communities”. In the Policy Framework and Strategy for Ward Based Primary Healthcare Outreach Teams (2017), the need for particular attention to rural areas is noted “WBPHCOTs will bring healthcare closer to communities, families and individuals, even in the most rural and underserved areas”.

The Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, 2013 (No 16 of 2013) aims to mainstream planning frameworks “The national and provincial spheres of government and each municipality must prepare spatial development frameworks that include previously disadvantaged areas, areas under traditional leadership, rural areas, informal settlements, slums and land holdings of state-owned enterprises and government agencies and address their inclusion and integration into the spatial, economic, social and environmental objectives of the relevant sphere”. “The norms and standards must promote social inclusion, spatial equity, desirable settlement patterns, rural revitalisation, urban regeneration and sustainable development”. Principles of spatial representation were also embedded in documents post-1994. The Organised Local Government Act (1997) “The Minister must, in determining the criteria contemplated in subsection (1), take into account all relevant factors, including: (a) political inclusiveness; (b) provincial representiveness (c) a balance between urban and rural municipalities”.

Specific interventions are outlined in several policy documents. The Policy on Quality in Health Care for South Africa (2007) sets out that “In [rural] areas, there needs to be targeted development efforts and new methods of delivering quality health care. For example, good quality care cannot be provided without high-quality doctors, but in many remote rural areas there are too few doctors. One approach is to limit new private medical practices in areas where there is already an oversupply […]”. The National HIV Testing Services (2016) confirms that “Mobile and outreach HTS are provided through vans or tents within the community to increase access to hard-to-reach populations such as rural communities, men, mobile populations, or key populations”. The SAPS Strategic Plan 2014 – 2020 (2014) has a Rural Safety Strategy “to address rural safety as part of an integrated and holistic day-to-day crime prevention approach. It is based on the principles of sector policing and aims to address the needs of the entire rural community, including the farming community”. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) addressed the issue that “At present no person without formal legal title to land is able to qualify for a subsidy under the national housing programme. This has excluded people living on communal land in rural areas from
accessing the subsidy. The Department of Housing is exploring a new instrument with the Department of Land Affairs which may allow people in rural areas to use existing access to a portion of land as a qualified title for the purposes of receiving a subsidy”. The Department Arts and Culture Strategic Plan 2011-2016 provides a motivation for conditional grants: “The disparities in service provision across provinces have not been addressed. This grant is intended to address backlogs that have accumulated over the years as a result of past discriminatory practices”.

There are also a variety of sectors which recognise the potential of investment in rural areas for economic development. The New Growth Plan (2011) “The poorest regions of the country, with the highest unemployment rates and most vulnerable workers, are the former Bantustan and commercial farming areas. Areas considered rural today developed historically as impoverished labour reserves for the urban economy, and not as viable economic zones. Still, the agricultural value chain offers major opportunities in these areas for employment creation through smallholder schemes and the processing and sale of agricultural products. Improvements in livelihoods for rural dwellers are possible by upgrading farmworkers’ conditions and organisation and helping rural households increase production”. The Industrial Policy Action Plan (2018) states “The forestry, timber, pulp, paper and furniture sector not only has the potential to create more jobs and growth in marginalised areas of South Africa; it is also emerging as a sustainable future sector incorporating bio-refinery and transformative technologies”. The White Paper on Tourism (1996) aimed to include marginalised communities “Communities are also expected to play a vital role in the development of tourism. Many communities and previously neglected groups, particularly those in rural areas, that have not actively participated in the tourism industry possess significant tourism resources”. The Mineral Resources Strategic Plan 2015-2019 (2015) “For example, providing electricity to the rural poor can increase the productivity and economic output in rural areas, with a positive impact on GDP”. The Department of Science and Technology Strategic Plan 2015 – 2020 aims to ‘Commercialise indigenous knowledge systems technologies (traditional medicines, cosmeceuticals and nutraceuticals) by 2017, resulting in broad-based empowerment and job creation, especially in rural areas’. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform Strategic Plan 2015-2020 reports that “Government has identified agriculture as one of the sectors that presents very promising possibilities for substantial job creation and the revival of the rural economy” and that “There has been an increased demand from the rural communities for water, sanitation, information and communications technology and agricultural services”.

Importantly, the need for linkages is addressed in the Integrated Urban Development Framework (2016): “For example, small- and medium-sized towns link rural and urban areas through consumption, production and employment (see rural-urban interdependency cross-cutting issue). They are where rural households purchase and sell their goods. Functional rural economies are equally important for the sustainability of these small- and medium-sized towns. Existing small-town development programmes should be integrated with the various rural development initiatives, particularly the land reform initiatives and the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme”.

5.11 Programmes
There is a huge variety in the range of programmes encompassed by the South African government in terms of their size and scope, level of funding, geographical location, intended
beneficiary group, public/private involvement, duration, and integration with broader government activities. The survey of programmes doesn’t permit an in-depth analysis of individual programmes individually, but gives a sense of the spread and patterns across the breadth of programmes highlighted in departmental and MTSF documents.

In our assessment of how the various key socio-economic flagship programmes address poverty, inequality and equity issues across various government departments we found that there is widespread engagement with important strategic documents such as the National Development Plan (NDP) and with the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF), which sets out the actions that government will take to implement the NDP.

Some national departments engage critically and thoroughly with issues of poverty, inequality and social exclusion, whereas others could be more specific about the ways in which their key programmes can address these issues. While it cannot be concluded that flagship programmes across government systematically relate to poverty, inequality and social exclusion in their aims, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, there are many notable examples of programmes specifically designed in response to the developmental goals of South Africa. We also list examples of programmes which though not directly designed with these aims in mind have nonetheless sought to establish how programmatic components can engage with poverty, inequality and social exclusion (for example through job creation). In some cases, positive impacts are assumed but the connections are not explicitly justified. In other cases, programmes which clearly could have an impact on poverty, inequality and social exclusion do not establish these linkages, and may therefore fail to optimise on their potential.

Furthermore, there is widespread recognition across various data sources within all departments that the monitoring of such programmes could be done better so that programmes can be better informed by evidence generated through research. This will be important in being able to better understand what works best for which individuals or groups and to make it clear how, i.e. through which mechanisms, certain programmes create these changes. The link between policy, programmes and their implementation as well as consistent and rigorous monitoring which not only tracks whether targets are met, but also the quality in which programmes were delivered and their impact, is important to enable government to track positive changes over time.

Poverty and Inequality

The establishment of programmes within all national departments that engage critically with the issues of poverty and inequality and that are oriented towards alleviating poverty and reducing inequality through a targeted and deliberate approach is critical. A rapid survey of flagship programmes across government clearly highlights that the NDP and MTSF have increased a broad sense of alignment around poverty and inequality as overarching goals to be pursued. What also emerges is that within the breadth of the NDP as a guiding document, there are many different ways in which programmes engage with poverty and inequality. These include:

Clusters of programmes within a department with poverty and/or inequality as a primary focus. In the case of the Departments of Basic Education, Human Settlements and Social Development (Under Outcomes 1, 8, and 13), the majority of active programmes are primarily aimed towards poverty and inequality reduction. The Department of Basic Education,
for example, through some of its key programmes is an example of interventions aimed at ending the poverty cycle and in some ways preventing or slowing down the negative impacts of poverty on children but also increasing their life chances. To specify, the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) as well as the Early Childhood Development Programme are large-scale programmes extended to all socio-economic levels and particularly to the poor, ensuring that they too have access to quality basic education as well as to a nutritious meal which improves learning and school attendance. In these cases, programmes emerge as a channel to directly accelerate and promote a focus on poverty and inequality.

Large-scale standalone programmes with a primary focus on reducing disadvantage and improving equity. Some departments (or clusters of departments) oversee major programmes which are directly designed to improve equity and reduce poverty and inequality. The National Health Insurance aims to provide access to quality, affordable personal health services for all South Africans based on their health needs, irrespective of their socio-economic status. The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) is a nationwide programme under the auspices of government and state-owned enterprises, which aims to create job opportunities and income transfers to poor households in the short to medium term. However, departments involved in the oversight of these programmes may also manage programmes which are not explicit in their focus on poverty. For example, the Anti-Substance National Plan of Action is not framed primarily in terms of its socio-economic impacts.

Programmes which include multiple aims linked to poverty and inequality. Several complex multi-departmental projects recognise the multi-pronged ways in which a particular programme can engage with poverty and inequality, even when this is not their primary focus. The Renewable Energy Independent Power Producer Procurement Programme, a flagship programme of the Department of Energy, established in 2010, seeks to contribute to job creation across the energy value chain, to supply electricity to indigent households at lower cost (recognising the impacts of rising costs of living) as well as embracing local community development as well as socio-economic and enterprise development. The Strategic Integrated Projects, headed by different departments, are divided into geographic, energy, spatial and social infrastructure development project and cover more than 150 specific infrastructure interventions in rail, road and ports, dams, irrigation systems, sanitation and electricity. The potential to address poverty is referenced in several ways: through addressing backlog projects, rehabilitating, upgrading and existing water and sanitation infrastructure; priority investment in townships and rural areas and job creation. While these inter-related strategies are important, an in-depth analysis of each programme would be needed to reveal if there is sufficient strategic planning to ensure their effective implementation.

Programmes with indirect linkages to poverty alleviation via job creation and economic growth. The broad mandate established by the NDP enables programmes to be associated with poverty and inequality reduction measures via several indirect linkages. Programmes within the economic sector (Outcome 4) are often framed as contributing to sustainable long-term development via higher growth, exports and labour-intensive, value-adding economic activity in the productive sectors, led by manufacturing. As a result, programmes such as the Special Economic Zones, the Automotive Investment Scheme, the Clothing and Textiles Competitiveness are described as contributing to national development goals. Job creation and skills development are frequently included at the sub-programmatic level, even when poverty and inequality reduction are not the central objective of a programme. This is often
the case in programmes falling under the economic, environment, energy and infrastructure sectors. Examples of programmes which deliberately include job creation targets include the Oceans Economy and Biodiversity Economy South Africa streams of Operation Phakisa, the Innovation for Inclusive Development programme (under the Department of Science and Technology), the mine rehabilitation programme (Department of Mineral Resources) and many others. The Square Kilometre Array project provides bursaries and scholarships to students to learn the necessary cutting-edge science, technology, mathematics and engineering skills to support the project.

**Programmes which strengthen accountability mechanisms.** It is also important to note how some government programmes (particularly those which fall under Outcomes 9 and 12) seek to invest in accountability mechanisms as a route to poverty reduction, such as the Back to Basics Programme which seeks to increase accountability mechanisms between citizens and municipal leadership structures, towards cooperative governance. The Thusong Service Centre Programme was established to ensure quality access to information and services of government in an integrated manner and closer to citizens that reside in outlying areas. Operation Phakisa is a cross-sector programme which aims to bring together key stakeholders from the public and private sectors, academia as well as civil society organisations to accelerate the delivery of priority programmes according to development priorities for public accountability and transparency. Project Mikondzo (Department of Social Development) brings together office-bound and frontline officials to interact with communities in wards prioritised for additional support in a bid to tackle social problems such as poverty, malnutrition, violence against women and child-headed households.

**Programmes which seek to minimise negative socio-economic impacts.** While there are not many examples in this category, the National Responsible Gambling Programme (NRGP) aims to educate gamblers, potential gamblers and society as a whole about responsible gambling, and the negative socio-economic impact of the gambling industry on society. In addition, in the case of programmes which fall under Safety and Security (Outcome 3), potential linkages to poverty reduction are mentioned in the MTSF, but have little profile in the programme descriptions.

Overall, these examples suggest that attention to poverty and inequality is being mainstreamed to some extent across government programming. It is also crucial however, that the design of such components is clearly linked to a theory of change that can effectively contribute to national development goals in a tangible way. While the NDP is broad in its mandate, it is essential that each programme clearly defines in what ways its components tangibly contribute to the national development goals of poverty and inequality reduction.

**Social exclusion**

The NDP has served to bring social inclusion closer to the centre of public policy programming. We comment in this section on the patterns that emerge through a rapid survey of key programmes supported by the government across its departments.

**A convergence of programmes towards social cohesion under Outcome 14.**

Programmes which fall under the Departments of Communication, Arts and Culture and
Sports and Recreation have aligned themselves around the theme of inclusivity, especially for those previously marginalized in line with the goal of MTSF 14 – Transforming society and uniting the country. Programmes include the Public Art Development Programme, the Mzansi Golden Economy Strategy, the Art Bank, arts and cultural festivals, the South African Traditional Music Achievement Awards and the School Sport Programme and the National Sports Volunteer Corps. The programmes engage with nation building and social cohesion through activities that aim at fostering greater interaction of people together through cultural and sports activities. The MTSF 14 recognizes the power of sports and states that these interactions will be promoted effectively when South Africans share more public spaces, as was the case briefly during the 2010 soccer World Cup. What is however absent from the programmes are activities aimed at directly lessening prejudice and racism. Furthermore specific mention of gender, race disability, unemployed youth, and spatial exclusion is sporadic rather than consistent across the programmes comprised in these departments. The Incremental Introduction of African Languages in schools (Outcome 1) is another example that directly seeks to address issues of social cohesion.

A number of programmes focus on spatial exclusion directly or indirectly. References to spatial inclusion within cities, or across urban-rural divides are frequent within programme mandates. Economic, labour, transport and infrastructural barriers to spatial inclusion are directly addressed by several programmes. The Agri-Parks programme supports rural enterprises, develops rural industries and facilitates the efficient movement of rural produce to markets. Smallholder farmers own 70% of an agri-park, while the remainder is owned by Government and commercial farmers. The National Rural Youth Service Corps is a skills development initiative, which recruits unemployed youth from rural areas, and equips them with business and entrepreneurial skills. The One Household, One Hectare initiative is a key mechanism used to provide landless people access to land and promote agrarian transformation, focusing on the poorest districts in the country and other sites in densely populated areas. Several transport schemes are seen as crucial to social cohesion as well as spatial inclusion. As part of government’s commitment towards rural development, the S’hamba Sonke Programme addresses road maintenance on secondary roads and rural roads, with particular emphasis on repairing potholes, using labour-intensive methods of construction and maintenance. The scholar transport programme seeks to respond to the challenges confronting learners who attend school far away from their homes. The Shova Kalula (“Pedal Easy”) National Bicycle Programme aims to improve mobility and access to basic needs as well as social and economic opportunities for people especially in rural, remote and poorly resourced areas, including learners.

Vulnerable groups are mentioned in some programmes. Programmes outlined in the various departmental documents do target women, previously disadvantaged persons, those living with a disability and unemployed youth particularly in relation to the creation of job opportunities. Several programmes in the economic sector directly address racial exclusion, for example through the Black Industrialist Programme, the Black Business Supplier Development Programme and the South African Emerging Black Filmmakers Incentive Scheme. However, women and persons with disabilities are under-represented as a key focus of flagship programmes. One of many examples which promote job creation for excluded groups is the Working for Energy Programme, a social programme intended to provide energy services from renewable resources to rural and urban low-income houses, which aims to facilitate job creation, skills development, community-based enterprise development and the
emancipation of youths, women and people with disabilities. Youth employment is a key focus in many programmes. However, it is not always clear whether programme documents engage strategically with how the programmes will create sustainable results. In order to have a significant improvement in poverty eradication, people who live in poor households would need long-term involvement in these jobs.

Programmes in the Education, Health and Safety and Security departments address inequalities in opportunity by making services accessible to vulnerable groups. The Department of Basic Education recognises the importance of programmes that will enhance social inclusion by increasing access, participation and gender equity. The Department of Higher Education and Training for example, targets women, youth and the disabled and sets clear targets in terms of transformation in staff and numbers of students graduating who are part of these vulnerable groups. Programmes under Safety and Security, such as the Visible Policing Programme, the Social Crime Prevention Programme which manages crimes against vulnerable groups, sexual offences, human trafficking, domestic violence and victim empowerment, as well as the Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences investigation service, are all topical measures. However, they may lack preventative measures and tend not to deal with the root causes of safety and security issues. As a result, while they provide access to services to vulnerable groups, their impacts on individuals’ outcomes may be limited and may not adequately reflect on how outcomes can be improved.

5.12 Targets and monitoring
The NDP has served to make poverty and inequality central to sectoral documents under each MTSF. References to the actions recommended by the NDP preface the documents, and frame the selection of MTSF sub-outcomes and impact outcomes. While it is clear that the NDP has established a broad and multi-sectoral base of policies required to achieve poverty and inequality reduction by 2030 and to increase social cohesion, in many cases the permeation into sectoral policies is uneven. There are clear challenges in setting targets for poverty, inequality and equity which are broad enough to make a difference and specific enough to ensure they are realistic and measurable. There is great variation between sectors in terms of scope, scale, number and detail, ambition, accuracy, measurability and linkages to baseline data of monitoring targets and indicators.

Several comments can be made from a survey of the MTSF documents:

The NDP establishes a broad mandate that creates a common monitoring framework across the different sectors of government. The MTSF documents draw clearly on the NDP and its national as well as its sectoral mandates. This provides continuity across all sectors and ensures that poverty and inequality are mentioned in relation to each Outcome’s sectoral vision. Because of the NDP’s broad mandate, the approaches to addressing poverty and inequality are multidimensional and require cross-sectoral collaboration. The NDP’s proposed strategies are translated into a wide array of Sub-Outcomes. Each section concludes with a set of impact indicators and targets. Drawing on the NDP, each Outcome includes a range of strategies for strengthening systems and programmes, developing new initiatives, improving accountability as well as ensuring improved outcomes. For example the MTSF Outcome 1 Quality Basic Education sets out actions and strategies to achieve both
enrolment (improved learner retention) and quality (improved outcomes) targets. Outcome 2 (Health) includes longterm health goals to improve the health and wellbeing of the population as well as health systems strengthening. However, as the following points show, there is also considerable scope for variation in the scale and specificity of the range of indicators selected under each MTSF Outcome.

National development goals can be integrated in different ways: in the overall vision, in the selection of Sub-Outcomes, in the Indicators under each sub-Outcome and in the Impact Indicators. MTSF documents vary in terms of whether the emphasis on poverty and inequality and equity is more upstream (e.g. Sub-Outcome headings) or downstream (setting of specific indicators targets under each sub-Outcome). The Outcome 4 MTSF document is a positive example in which each Sub-Outcome is clearly related to reducing poverty and inequality and promoting vulnerable groups while seeking to promote sustainable growth. Impact Indicators include a direct measure of inequality (the share in household income of the poorest 60% of households), and a target which specifically addresses spatial inequality (the percentage of adults working in rural areas). However Sub-Outcome indicators and targets remain vague and tend to be delegated to Departmental strategies. Outcome 7 (Vibrant, equitable, sustainable rural communities contributing towards food security) translates the NDP’s policy imperatives into six Sub-Outcomes with a strong holistic focus on integrated development in rural areas, including land allocation, tenure security, food security support for smallholder producers, access to services and public transport, and job creation. Impact indicators and targets are all directly related to poverty reduction, rural unemployment rate and increased ownership of land by previously disadvantaged individuals. These suggest a high level of mainstreaming of poverty and spatial inclusion in the targets for Rural Development. Under Outcome 8 (Sustainable Human Settlements and Improved Quality of Household Life), the Sub-Outcomes are directly related to social and economic outcomes established in the NDP, with priority to lower income households. Several Impact Indicators relate directly to poverty alleviation, for example ‘Improved housing conditions of households living in informal settlements). However, some Targets under each Sub-Outcome remain ‘to be determined’ or vague and therefore hard to measure and monitor. Outcome 9 (Responsive, accountable, effective and efficient developmental local government system) demonstrates the challenges of ensuring both a comprehensive and measurable set of targets. This includes specific impact targets, for example for access to adequate water and sanitation services to increase from 85% to 90% as well as vague Sub-Outcome Indicators such as ‘Cost of doing business lowered by reducing red-tape in municipalities’. In the case of Outcome 10 (Protect And Enhance Our Environmental Assets And Natural Resources) the targets reflect a complex relationship between ensuring the protection of environmental resources and promoting socio-economic development. The majority of targets (including Impact targets) are within the environmental arena, though Sub-outcome 3 ‘An environmentally sustainable, low-carbon economy resulting from a well-managed just transition’ includes targets for the creation of work opportunities (including for youth) and learnerships and the use of SMMEs. Outcome 13 ‘An inclusive and responsive social protection system’ has poverty reduction as a central focus, which facilitates alignment with the NDP’s central mandate. The MTSF reviews a broad range of direct interventions, including social assistance, social security and ECD services. The linkages to other Outcomes which together contribute to the social wage are mentioned. However, the Impact Indicators are mainly programme-related rather than linked to overall
poverty-reduction outcomes (with the exception of a reduction in stunting levels among children).

In several cases, sectoral MTSF documents rely on the NDP to justify the linkages between targets and poverty, inequality and exclusion. The path to poverty and inequality reduction is complex. A reference to pathways of change anticipated in the NDP is at times deemed sufficient, without clear evidence of engagement with these pathways within Outcome-specific documents. For example in Outcome 3 (All people in South Africa are and feel safe), the vision put forward in the NDP is repeated, to the effect that if crime is reduced, business will thrive and poverty will decrease. Once these indirect links are established, indicators and targets are seemingly only weakly related to poverty and inequality. Impact indicators are primarily related to subjective perceptions of safety and do not relate to social inclusion outcomes. Similarly in Outcome 5 (A skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path), pathways to poverty and inequality reduction are implicitly assumed but are not clearly evident from the list of Outcome and Impact targets, which are quite narrowly defined. Outcome 6 (An efficient, competitive and response economic infrastructure network) clearly established the provision of basic services as a key function, as well as the need for infrastructure to support industrial and commercial needs. However, socio-economic goals are not directly reflected in the Sub-Outcomes or Impact indicators (with the exception of the National Water Resource Strategy 2, which makes a direct link with poverty and inequality reduction under the Sub-Outcome 4 ‘Maintenance and supply availability of our bulk water resources infrastructure ensured’). Outcome 12 (An efficient, effective and development-oriented public service) established in the introduction that the NDP highlights the need for well-run and effectively coordinated state institutions with skilled public servants who are committed to the public good while prioritizing the nation’s developmental objectives. The rest of the document does not engage with poverty and inequality as cross-cutting issues and there are not direct references or clear linkages to poverty and inequality in the determination of targets. But presumably it is assumed that its actions at national, provincial and municipal government levels contribute to the national goals, on the strength of the NDP’s mandate. When the linkages between impact indicators and poverty, inequality and social exclusion reduction are mostly indirect and not always clear, it suggest a lower degree of custodianship sectorally for the reduction of poverty and inequality and a weaker mandate to engage with their root causes and to test whether expected linkages do lead to intended outcomes.

Specific references to vulnerable groups (children, women, persons with disabilities, racial inequalities and spatial disparities) are not consistent. Under Outcome 1, disparities between rich and poor communities and by population group are referred to in the introductory summary, but they do not feature strongly in the Sub-Outcome Indicators and targets and not at all in the Impact indicators. Indicators to monitor Sub-Outcome 2 (Improved quality of teaching and learning through provision of infrastructure and learning standards) such as the percentage of learners with access to the required textbooks is not disaggregated by gender, race or province. With regard to children with disabilities, there is one indicator under Sub-Outcome 1 which aims to strengthen inclusive education and to be assessed by the percentage of learners in schools with at least one educator with specialist training on inclusion and the target for this to increase from the baseline of 70% (2011) to 95% in 2018/19). Under Outcome 2 (Health) impact indicators are closely linked to poverty alleviation targets, are derived from a review of evidence and past gains and are
disaggregated by gender and focused on vulnerable groups (women and children). Under Outcome 3, it is acknowledged that crimes are disproportionately experienced by vulnerable groups such as women and children. Targets are established to reduce levels of serious crime against women and children, but targets are very modest and there is little engagement with root causes. Impact indicators for ‘Changes in awareness, attitude and behavior towards violence against women and children’ are unspecific. Under Sub-Outcome 3 (Increase access to high-level occupationally directed programmes in needed areas) of Outcome 5, specific targets for women and Black academics and new entrants into the higher education workforce are specified. There is no mention of vulnerable groups under Targets for Outcome 6 on Infrastructure. The most progressive and consistent consideration to overcoming gender, race and disability based discrimination occurs under Outcome 14. Several strategies are designed to foster non-sexism and non-racialism and to ensuring gender, child and disability responsive policies and representation. Impact indicators are selected to monitor the number of women in legislative bodies, the Disability and Gender Inequality indexes, decreases in the percentage of racism related to complaints to the equality court, as well as other measures of social cohesion.

**Evidence of monitoring across MTSF documents varies.** Some documents show a strong reliance on data in their baseline evaluations and setting of targets. In other cases, the lack of baseline data is a concern (for example under Outcome 8, Sub-Outcomes 2 and 3 where many baseline indicators simply state ‘to be determined’). Data sources are not always mentioned. This does not preclude that more specific targets and data sources are included in departmental strategic plans and other documents. But from the MTSF there is only intermittent evidence of engagement with available and this does not always link to overall targets. In the Basic Education MTSF document, racially disaggregated data is referred to but impact indicators are only determined at a population level. Where existing sources of data are indicated this gives a reassuring sign that there will be continuity between the setting of targets and their monitoring going forward.

### 6. Discussion

This study has summarised available evidence of the state of poverty, inequality and social exclusion by gender, race, disability, and spatial disparities. The study has also reviewed 501 documents across a wide range of social, economic, environmental and administrative laws, policies, strategies and flagship programmes, to assess their commitments to reducing poverty, inequality and social exclusion.

In this section, the findings are summarised and discussed under four headings: (i) poverty, inequality and social exclusion – reviewing the evidence; (ii) the guiding role of the NDP; (iii) Variation in the frequency and quality of engagement with poverty, inequality and social exclusion across legislative, policy and strategic documents, (iv) the gap between policy and outcomes and (v) lessons that can be learned from the review.

**Poverty, inequality and social exclusion – reviewing the evidence.** The literature shows that there has been substantial progress in reducing poverty in South Africa since the end of
apartheid. Nearly 2.3 million South Africans escaped poverty between 2006 and 2015. However, poverty rates remain extremely high for an upper middle-income country. In the past five years, poverty has increased and over half the population are poor and cannot afford to meet their basic needs. Child poverty rates are disproportionately high. The reversal in the trajectory of poverty reduction between 2011 and 2015 has threatened to erode some of the gains made since 1994.

South Africa has become a more unequal society since 1994, with a Gini coefficient of 0.68 in 2015, among the highest in the world. Wealth inequality is even greater than income inequality, with a Gini coefficient of 0.93 in 2015. The wage inequality coefficient rose from 0.58 to 0.69 between 1995 and 2014. While wages have risen for skilled workers, the stagnation of wages for semi-skilled workers has fuelled the increase in wage inequality. There have been significant improvements in reducing inequalities of opportunities. School attendance and access to electricity are now nearly universal. Access to telecommunications has greatly increased. However, there are still considerable levels of inequality in the distribution of indicators such as quality of education, and improved access to water and sanitation.

With regard to social exclusion, despite constitutional protections and guarantees, poverty and inequality often continue to intersect with gender, race, disability and spatial distributions. The proportion of females living below the poverty line is consistently higher than for men and has remained so in times of decreased and increased poverty. In post-apartheid South Africa, affluence has been de-racialised, but poverty has remained stubbornly racialised. Black South Africans consistently experience the highest poverty rates. In 2015, average incomes in households with a black African head were a fifth of those for households with a white head. Unemployment rates are 30.5 percent for black Africans and 8 percent for whites. Persons with disabilities have lower personal incomes when compared to non-disabled people, with women particularly disadvantaged. Children with disabilities are at higher risk of living in households with inadequate access to water and sanitation, in informal settlements, and are less likely to attend school than non-disabled children.

Poverty and inequality have a strong spatial dimension. Poverty is higher in rural than in urban areas, and the gap between rural and urban poverty rates widened between 2006 and 2015. In 2015, 65.4 percent of the rural population lived below the poverty line, compared to 25.4 percent in urban areas. Provincially, the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, and Limpopo were consistently the three poorest provinces between 2006 and 2015.

It is within the context of this picture of the current state of poverty, inequality and social exclusion that the study’s findings about legislative, policy and strategic documents need to be interpreted, together with the implications for policy going forward.

**The guiding role of the National Development Plan.** The ‘National Development Plan 2030: Our future make it work’, published in 2011, established poverty and inequality reduction as central aims for public policy with a mandate to accelerate growth, create decent work and promote investment in a competitive economy. The NDP also focuses on eliminating gender and racial disparities and addressing inequalities that emanate from other identity markers, such as disability, across various levels of society. The subsequent Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) was developed as the government’s strategic plan for the 2014-2019 electoral term, as part of realising the state’s commitment to
deepening transformation and implementing the NDP. Each sector’s MTSF translates the NDP’s proposed strategies into a wide array of Sub-Outcomes, which set out the cross-departmental actions that government will take and targets to be achieved. Each section concludes with a set of impact indicators and targets.

Prior to the dissemination of the NDP, legislative and policy documents formulated in the immediate post-apartheid era, notably the Constitution, also established a strong normative commitment to redistributive and non-racial goals, in order to redress the skewed distribution of social and economic opportunity and to begin the process of reintegrating South Africa into the global economy, with a special emphasis on the needs of the most disadvantaged.

Overall, legislative and policy documents from the past two decades reveal how South Africa has sought to address poverty and inequality with a wide range of initiatives. Several redistributive and affirmative social and economic policies have been implemented and/or extended. The social wage – which refers to the government’s investment in education, health services, social development including social assistance to vulnerable households and individuals as well as contributory social security, public transport, housing, and access to basic services – has played a notable role in the government’s efforts to reduce poverty, inequality and social exclusion. The achievement of redistributive goals has also been pursued through several channels including policies to change patterns of ownership, tax collection and redistribution, and compliance with BBBEE legislation. Regulation of the labour market has increased. Active labour-market policies have been instituted to remove discrimination based on race, gender and disability, and to nurture opportunities and access to employment, with tax incentives for companies to invest in skills development. New institutions such as the South African Social Security Agency and the National Development Agency have been established through legislation in line with specific national development goals.

Despite considerable variation in levels of recognition of poverty, inequality and social exclusion across sectors in the policy landscape and between different types of documents, this document review has shown that the NDP does establish a broad mandate that encompasses its sectoral mandates and that the MTSF creates a common planning and monitoring framework across the different sectors of government. This provides some continuity across all sectors and ensures that poverty and inequality are integral to each Outcome’s sectoral vision. However, this is not sufficient to ensure that all social, economic, environmental and administrative documents adequately engage with relevant dimensions of poverty, inequality and social exclusion to establish a clear platform for action.

**Variation in the frequency and quality of engagement with poverty, inequality and social exclusion across legislative, policy and strategic documents.** As was noted above, many documents in the survey do recognise poverty, inequality and/or social exclusion in some way. Unsurprisingly, there is a much higher level of recognition in policy and strategy documents, both before and after 2011, in comparison with legislative documents. In recent departmental and inter-departmental policy and strategy documents, there are widespread references to the National Development Plan and its identification of poverty, inequality and social exclusion as central issues to be addressed in every sector. It is important to note that many documents do not mention these overarching themes but that this analysis focuses primarily on drawing examples of the many different ways in which policy documents do engage with poverty, inequality and social exclusion. Basic Education
and Social Protection are the sectors with the most consistent levels of recognition of poverty inequality and social exclusion. In some cases (Health, Economic Growth and Employment, Human Settlements, Local Government and Nation-Building and Social Cohesion) there is some indication that consideration for these themes has increased since the dissemination of the NDP. In other cases (such as Basic Education and the Environment), sectoral engagement with earlier policy mandates such as the Constitution, meant that there was already a high level of sectoral commitment to national development goals. Under categories of social exclusion, references to gender and spatial disparities are most common, but they are not systematically integrated into policy documents. References to disability and youth not in education, employment or training are infrequent and inconsistent across policy documents.

Overall, the survey highlights that high numbers of references are not necessarily an indicator of a thorough engagement with the issues of poverty, inequality and social exclusion, therefore in the qualitative analysis below we seek to highlight the different ways in which references are made and to highlight illustrative examples, which if combined can contribute to a more systematic engagement going forward.

There are clear synergies between poverty, inequality and social exclusion, and the level of recognition for each is often similar across the themes. This in part is a reflection of their natural alignment and overlap. However, there are also indications of cursory references rather than detailed engagement. The qualitative analysis shows that in-depth engagement within policy documents involves differentiated analyses for poverty, inequality and social exclusion respectively, as well as an appreciation for the linkages between them in a particular sector. High quality references to these themes are also both situational (displaying an understanding of different ways in which they affect a particular sector) and strategic (developing detailed approaches and interventions to addressing them). Several policy and strategy documents in the Health sector provide strong examples of this qualitative type of engagement. Additionally strategy documents by the Department of Science and Technology provide an example of commitment to working cross-sectorally for the achievement of national development goals. The Policy for the Small Scale Fisheries Sector in South Africa (2012) is highlighted as a positive example of a policy which comprehensively addresses issues related to poverty, inequality and social exclusion.

With regard to the recognition of vulnerable groups, the survey shows the need both for policy documents which directly promote the needs of particular groups and for their mainstreaming across public policy. Attention to gender and spatial inequalities is quite widespread in some sectors, but not all. Disability is addressed specifically in Education, Health and Nation-building. There is only sporadic consideration given to youth not in education, employment or training. There is also considerable variation in the scale and specificity of the range of indicators selected under each MTSF Outcome, and only rarely are indicators disaggregated to take vulnerable and disadvantaged groups into account.

The gap between policy and practice. While South Africa benefits from a robust intersectoral post-apartheid legislative and policy framework, and progress has been made in several areas, significant challenges remain. There is a clear discrepancy between a raft of policies which are to some extent sensitive to national socio-economic mandates, and the glaring levels of poverty and inequality that persist in South Africa. This gap is even recognised within some policy documents reviewed in this study. The Agricultural Policy Action Plan (2015) confirms these challenges, noting that “Notwithstanding the aim of the Integrated Food
Security Strategy (IFSS) of 2002 to streamline, harmonise and integrate the diverse food security programmes, food insecurity still remains a challenge for the country, especially at local household level. The Department of Basic Education Strategic Plan 2015/16-2019/20 laments that “Despite Government’s considerable investments in schools, our pro-poor funding and targeting mechanisms, and the considerable amounts of investment in the sector, it is clear that low performance still characterises too many of our schools.”

This project is premised on the understanding that policies matter and can make a real difference, and are a significant component of efforts to address poverty and inequality. It is however acknowledged that these factors alone are not sufficient and other actions regarding implementation stakeholders and processes are also important for effective change to be realised. These aspects of delivery are beyond the scope of this study, and may have a whole host of explanations ranging from the complexity of reversing decades of discriminatory policies, the time required to effect sustainable change, institutional capacity, resource constraints, the need for sustained political commitment, the need for trust between stakeholders as well as evolving global political and economic trends.

Nonetheless, this study does draw on the breadth of examples that have been cited, to propose a range of factors which combined can serve to strengthen and systematise the way in which the span of laws, policies and strategies engage with poverty, inequality and equity.

Lessons learned. The review conducted in this study provides a bird’s eye view of documents across different social, economic, environmental and administrative sectors of government policy. The analysis has distilled a broad range of specific contextual and strategic examples, which combined can give insight into how poverty, inequality and social exclusion can be better addressed in legislative and policy documents. Taken together, these can be considered as multiple components of a more systematic approach to mainstreaming poverty, inequality and social exclusion as central themes in public policy, at the sectoral departmental and programmatic levels. The important range of factors to be included which emerge from the review are:

Statement of values: The pervasive repetition within legislative, policy and strategic documents of key principles, particularly around non-discrimination (including non-sexism and non-racism), equality, social cohesion and sustainability serves to embed and apply the mandate of the Constitution and NDP at sectoral and programmatic levels.

Situational analysis: It is important for legislative, policy, strategic and programmatic documents to consider the ways in which poverty, inequality and social exclusion affect their context and content. The review has shown this to be possible for every type of policy document, and to be relevant even for laws and policies which are not directly related to socio-economic development in an obvious way. According to the different subjects of each legislative or policy document the situational analysis may consider:

- The specific and multidimensional ways in which poverty, inequality and social exclusion affect and are affected by the subject of the document (e.g. how TB rates are higher in poorer urban areas or how lack of access to educational resources leads to frustration among teachers), This may entail a complex non-linear analysis, as in the case of the relationship between crime, violence and poverty.
- How past and present policies may perpetuate poverty, inequality and social exclusion
- How global trends (e.g. recession or the fourth industrial revolution) may affect the subject of the policy
- Unequal distribution levels of access to services, opportunities or representation and unequal outcomes which inform the particular policy or law
- Statistics which denote the scale of aspects of poverty, inequality or equity that are related to the subject of the document (e.g. percentage of food insecure households in a rural development document);
- How specific vulnerable groups are differentially impacted in the sector (e.g. disabled children in transport policy)
- Spatially differentiated situational analysis at provincial;, intra-urban, rural/urban and municipal levels (e.g. provincial distribution of funds in a particular sector)
- How current administrative and funding systems affected by the subject of the law, policy or strategy affect poverty, inequality and social exclusion outcomes

Strategic responses: In response to the situational analysis, each policy document may then demonstrate the ways in which the law, policy, strategy or programme specifically responds to the identified poverty or inequality or equity related issues. This can be the case even in policies which are not overtly guided by a redistributive or developmental agenda. This includes the following considerations:

- What are the specific ways in which it is anticipated that the law or policy will interact with the aspects of poverty, inequality and social exclusion identified in the situational analysis? This may involve a complex analysis, of positive and negative, short-term and long term, intended and unintended outcomes.
- What are the specific ways in which it is anticipated that the law or policy will correct the imbalances caused by past and present policies which served to perpetuate poverty, inequality and social exclusion?
- What are the specific ways in which it is anticipated that the law or policy will capitalise or mitigate the effects of global trends in order to achieve national development goals?
- How will the law, policy or strategy promote improved access to services and opportunities in order to leave no one behind?
- What are the specific targets and how do these relate to the situational analysis? (see point below on targets)
- How does the law, policy or strategy engage directly or indirectly with specific vulnerable groups (women, persons with disabilities, youth not in education, employment or training)?
- How does the law, policy or strategy intersect with spatial inequalities at provincial;, intra-urban, rural/urban and municipal levels?
- What are the institutional, administrative and funding implications of the law or policy, in order to contribute to sustained poverty and inequality reduction?
- How does the law, policy or strategy strengthen or undermine other social, economic, environmental or administrative strategies to address poverty, inequality and social exclusion?
**Detailed consideration of trade-offs.** A careful consideration of potential trade-offs is an indicator of effective engagement with poverty, inequality and equity as issues of serious concern. Several examples where such trade-offs have been considered within policy documents are included in this review. The dual agenda to combat discrimination in all its forms and to promote social cohesion must both be pursued concurrently. Detailed deliberation is required about how to optimise both economic growth and poverty eradication; the sustainability of environmental concerns with the short and long term needs of poorer communities; a regard for how to balance giving priority to disadvantaged groups while promoting equity for the population as a whole; a celebration of cultural diversity combined with a strong value of social cohesion. These evaluations require in-depth sectoral expertise as well as development practitioner knowledge.

**Holistic approaches to making policy for vulnerable groups.** As the review has shown there is a very wide range of approaches to engaging with vulnerable groups. It is suggested that all the following factors should concurrently be present (where relevant) in laws, policies and strategies in order to comprehensively promote social inclusion: application of principles of non-discrimination in sectorally-relevant ways (as in the case of employment equity legislation); protection of vulnerable groups (e.g. against gender-based violence); provision of services of adequate standards for vulnerable groups; promotion of opportunities for vulnerable groups (e.g. recognition of potential of women to develop rural economies); application of targeted or affirmative action to redress inequalities (as in the case of Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment in the Mining Charter or rural development interventions); promotion of social cohesion through sensitive policies which seek to reduce barriers and promote integration (such as sports and arts events or programmes which strengthen rural-urban linkages); representation of vulnerable groups at all levels of governance relevant to the policy or strategy. In each sector, there may be particular excluded groups that require targeted attention (for example farm workers in the agricultural sector).

**Strategic use of flagship programmes.** Programmes vary enormously in their size, scale, geographic scope, target population, and technical nature of their objectives. Overall, the examples in the review suggest that attention to poverty and inequality is being mainstreamed to some extent across government programming. It is also crucial however, that the design of such components is clearly linked to a theory of change that can effectively contribute to national development goals in a tangible way. While the NDP is broad in its mandate, it is essential that each programme clearly defines in what ways its components tangibly contribute to the national development goals of poverty and inequality reduction. Understandably, given the iterative way in which programmes are commissioned and designed over time, there is little sense of an overarching framework for how programmes are initiated cross-sectorally. The review gives a sense of programmes’ potential for addressing specific poverty, inequality and equity related priorities. The NDP’s call for poverty and inequality reduction could become more central to the systematic planning of sectoral and cross-sectoral programmes. There is a need for more consistent and holistic attention to vulnerable and disadvantaged groups within programmes, especially women, persons with disabilities, and youth not in education, employment or training (see point above).
**Participatory processes.** Consideration for participatory and inclusive processes of policy making and policy implementation are an important component of laws and policies that seek to promote social cohesion as well as strengthen accountability mechanisms. Consultative policy processes are likely to strengthen the links between policy development and their realization. Several examples are included in the review which record consultative processes as essential components of policy-making, as well as guidelines for ensuring representation and participation in the law or policy’s enactment.

**Target-setting and consistent use of data.** Within MTSF documents, national development goals can be integrated in different ways: in the overall vision, in the selection of Sub-Outcomes, in the Indicators under each sub-Outcome and in the Impact Indicators. MTSF documents vary in terms of whether the emphasis on poverty and inequality and equity is more upstream (e.g. Sub-Outcome headings) or downstream (setting of specific indicators targets under each sub-Outcome). The scope and specificity of the indicators, targets and impact indicators also varies enormously. Some documents show a strong reliance on data in their baseline evaluations and setting of targets. In other cases, the lack of baseline data is a concern. Data sources for baseline data and ongoing monitoring data are infrequent. Indicators are not routinely disaggregated by age, gender, disability status and province. It is not always straightforward to work out from an MTSF document, which documents one would need to access in order to track progress of the indicators. This also needs to be clearly indicated. Overall there is scope for a greater lead in the setting of targets that can inform and guide sectoral documents, and a blueprint that can help to effectively cascade the targets into sectoral and programmatic documents as well as to provincial and municipal levels of policy.

### 7. Recommendations

Twenty-five years into democracy, the facts on poverty (over 50 percent), inequality (highest in the world) and social exclusion (severe imbalances by age, gender, race and spatial distributions) are stark. While progress has been made, the five years between 2011 and 2015 were marked by worsening indicators and a reversal in the direction of previous gains.

This review has south to examine what role can laws, policies, strategies and flagship programmes play in contributing to a sustained effort to achieve the National Development Plan’s aim to “eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030 through uniting South Africans, unleashing the energies of its citizens, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capability of the state and leaders working together to solve complex problems”?

The plan is ambitious and complex. It requires laws, policies, strategies and programmes across the spectrum of its social, economic, environmental and administrative departments which are simultaneously realistic, ambitious, progressive, cross-sectoral, sustainable, enforceable and monitorable.
The NDP has served to make poverty and inequality central to sectoral documents under each MTSF. References to the actions recommended by the NDP preface the documents, and frame the selection of MTSF sub-outcomes and impact outcomes. While it is clear that the NDP has established a broad and multi-sectoral base of policies required to achieve poverty and inequality reduction by 2030 and to increase social cohesion, in many cases the permeation into sectoral policies is uneven. There are clear challenges in setting targets for poverty, inequality and equity which are broad enough to make a difference and specific enough to ensure they are realistic and measurable. There is great variation between sectors in terms of scope, scale, number and detail, ambition, accuracy, measurability and linkages to baseline data of monitoring targets and indicators.

Recommendations to strengthen the engagement of legislative and policy documents with poverty, inequality and social exclusion include:

**Greater ownership of the pathways to poverty and inequality reduction.** This study has argued that it is essential that each policy-making institution across social, economic, environmental and administrative sectors takes custodianship of the national mandate, not simply relying on the NDP to identify and address sectoral linkages with poverty, inequality and social exclusion, but seeking to go beyond it by applying both sectoral expertise and social developmental evidence, to identify specific pathways to poverty reduction. It is important to avoid cursory references to poverty, inequality and exclusion. The broad mandate established by the NDP enables programmes to be associated with poverty and inequality reduction measures via several indirect linkages. For example, programmes within the economic sector (Outcome 4) are often framed as contributing to sustainable long-term development via higher growth, exports and labour-intensive, value-adding economic activity in the productive sectors, led by manufacturing. In economic, environment, energy and infrastructure sectors, job creation and skills development are frequently included at the sub-programmatic level, even when poverty and inequality reduction are not the central objective of a programme. Youth employment is a key focus in many programmes. However, it is not always clear whether programme documents engage strategically with how the programmes will create sustainable results. In order to have a significant improvement in poverty eradication, people who live in poor households would need long-term involvement in these jobs. These examples highlight that each policy and strategy document needs to directly engage with the anticipated pathways to poverty and inequality reduction and social cohesion, in ways that are informed by a theory of change and which relate to the sector in a detailed way, and clearly link to outcomes which can be routinely monitored.

**A toolkit to support a more systematic approach to mainstreaming poverty, inequality and social exclusion within public policy.** The review conducted in this study provides a bird’s eye view across different social, economic, environmental and administrative sectors of government policy. The analysis has distilled a broad range of specific contextual and strategic examples, which combined can give insight into how poverty, inequality and social exclusion can be better addressed in legislative and policy documents. Taken together, these can be considered as multiple components of a more systematic approach to mainstreaming poverty, inequality and social exclusion as central themes in public policy, at the sectoral departmental and programmatic levels. Developing a toolkit based on good practice across the spheres of government, can help to ensure that documents comprehensively engage with situational analyses, strategic responses, consideration of
trade-offs, holistic approaches to making policy for vulnerable groups, strategic use of flagship programmes, participatory processes, target-setting and consistent use of data. Access to skills and expertise in the social development field which can assist policy-makers in mainstreaming the national development goals may be necessary.

**Target-setting and monitoring.** It is recommended that in a future compilation of MTSF documents, a set of guidelines for target-setting is established which can move towards greater consistency and harmonisation of targets in the overall vision, in the selection of Sub-Outcome, in the Indicators under each sub-Outcome and in the Impact Indicators. These guidelines can indicate how poverty, inequality and social exclusion should be addressed directly or indirectly, and the scope and specificity of required indicators, targets and impact indicators. Indicators should routinely be disaggregated by age, gender, disability status and province. The link between policy, programmes and their implementation as well as consistent and rigorous monitoring which not only tracks whether targets are met, but also the quality in which programmes were delivered and their impact, is important to enable government to track positive changes over time so that policies and programmes can be better informed by evidence generated through research. Overall there is scope for a greater lead in the setting of targets that can inform and guide sectoral documents, and a blueprint that can help to effectively cascade the targets into sectoral and programmatic documents as well as to provincial and municipal levels of policy.

The indication of data sources for baseline evaluations and ongoing monitoring evaluations should be routinely included in any document which establishes targets. It is recommended that all policy and strategy documents include a specific monitoring strategy in which data sources are clearly indicated, as well as cross references to other documents in which monitoring and evaluation findings will be disseminated. These can help to strengthen the linkages with implementation processes and to overcome the gap between policy and practice.

9. References


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