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## Peer review history for:

Ned LY. The creation of debility and disability in South Africa: Colonial and apartheid encounters. S Afr J Sci. 2025;121(5/6), Art. #19140. <u>https://doi.org/10.17159/sajs.2025/19140</u>

#### HOW TO CITE:

The creation of debility and disability in South Africa: Colonial and apartheid encounters [peer review history]. S Afr J Sci. 2025;121(5/6), Art. #19140. <u>https://doi.org/10.17159/sajs.2025/19140/peerreview</u>

The original manuscript for review is appended below.

**Reviewer 1: Round 1** 

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Reviewer 2: Round 1

Date completed: 01 November 2024

**Recommendation:** Accept / **Revisions required** / Resubmit for review / Resubmit elsewhere / Decline / See comments

Conflicts of interest: None

Does the review fall within the scope of SAJS?

Yes/No

Is the review written in a style suitable for a non-specialist and is it of wider than only specialist interest? **Yes**/No

Do the Title and Abstract clearly and accurately reflect the content of the review?

Yes/No

Does the review provide a significantly novel perspective or significant recent advances in the field? **Yes**/No

Is the objective of the review concisely stated?

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Is appropriate and adequate reference made to other work in the field?

Yes/No

Do current debates and points of contention receive appropriate coverage?

Yes/**No**/Not applicable

Are gaps in the literature adequately identified?

Yes/No/Not applicable

Does the review provide direction for future research?\*

Yes/**No**/Not applicable

Are the methodology and statistical treatment appropriate?

Not applicable/Yes/No/Partly/Not qualified to judge

Are the interpretations and recommendations aligned with the objective?

Yes/Partly/No

Please rate the manuscript on overall contribution to the field

Excellent/Good/Average/Below average/Poor

Please rate the manuscript on language, grammar and tone

Excellent/Good/Average/Below average/Poor

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Is the supplementary material relevant and separated appropriately from the main document? Yes/No/Not applicable

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Yes/No

Are you willing to review a revision of this manuscript?

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#### Yes/No

### Comments to the Author:

The paper addresses a highly relevant and intellectually stimulating research topic that has generated considerable interest across multiple disciplines within the social sciences, including critical disability studies, crip theory, disability anthropology, and the sociology of health. Furthermore, the authors aim to trace how violent historical, political, economic, and socio-cultural events have shaped contemporary ideas and surrounding non-normative bodyminds discourses in present-day South Africa. While the analysis offers a fresh perspective on genealogies of disability in South Africa during colonization and apartheid—drawing effectively on decolonial theories and approaches—several general and specific issues need to be addressed to further strengthen the article. Consequently, I consider the article suitable for publication, pending major revisions. Below, I provide broad suggestions and queries that I hope will help refine the manuscript.

The authors should clearly define terms such as "disability" and "debility," referencing relevant fields like critical disability studies, crip theory, disability anthropology, and the sociology of health. Scholars such as Julie Livingston (on Botswana) and Jasbir Puar (on disability in the context of the Israel-Gaza conflict) have provided nuanced definitions of debility and explored how colonial institutions produce and reinforce this state alongside broader social inequalities. Additionally, the article would benefit from a definition of disability that extends beyond the social model. I recommend consulting works by scholars such as Faye Ginsburg, Rayna Rapp, Herbert Muyinda, Susan Reynolds Whyte, and Benedict Ingstad, who clarify distinctions between ailments, diseases, impairments, and disabilities, particularly in the context of (colonial) biomedicalization in the Global South.

The authors should provide more information on chronic, acquired, and congenital disabilities. Throughout the article, phenomena such as land dispossession, labor exploitation, and food desertification are presented as causes of secondary, acquired disabilities. If the focus is limited to acquired disabilities, it would be useful to specify that congenital disabilities are excluded from the analysis. If congenital disabilities are indeed included, the authors should clarify how they fit into the argument.

The authors are advised to avoid generalizations regarding the social status of people with disabilities in pre-colonial Africa. Historical written sources are often biased, as they were primarily authored by white explorers, travelers, and missionaries from the Global North, who tended to project their socio-cultural preconceptions onto their observations, if they indeed observed such phenomena accurately. To balance these sources, the article could benefit from incorporating oral histories. Additionally, the authors should clarify the point that the concept of disability, as understood today, did not exist in pre-colonial Africa; instead, various terms described different forms of non-normative bodyminds. Scholars like Silla, Ingstad, and Whyte note that the concept of disability only became widespread in Africa with the influence of disability rights movements in the West, especially following the UN's declaration of the International Year of Disabled Persons in the 1980s as well as the imposition of ideas about medi-calized ways (see lliffe on

this) to address non-normative bodyminds came from religious and bi-omedical institutions (e.g., camps for people with leprosy).

The article would benefit from a clearer temporal framework. For example, issues such as obesity are not solely a result of historical colonialism and apartheid but are also linked to modern neo-colonial and neoliberal systems that foster unemployment, food deserts, and other socio-economic challenges. By clarifying these distinctions, the authors can better contextualize how historical and contemporary forces shape disability in South Africa today.

The authors should consider dedicating a section to the analytical framework, where the intersections of Critical Disability Studies, Crip Theory, and decolonial approaches are more explicitly articulated. While there may be epistemological tensions, incorporating references to works on necropolitics and the postcolony by Achille Mbembe would enhance the decolonial perspective. Additionally, including insights from African scholars such as Elvis Imafidon could provide further depth and regional specificity to the analysis.

I hope these comments help sharpen the article's argument and enhance its overall approach. Thank you for your work on this important and timely topic.

#### Author response to Reviewer 2: Round 1

The authors should clearly define terms such as "disability" and "debility," referencing relevant fields like critical disability studies, crip theory, disability anthropology, and the sociology of health. Scholars such as Julie Livingston (on Botswana) and Jasbir Puar (on disability in the context of the Israel-Gaza conflict) have provided nuanced definitions of debility and explored how colonial institutions produce and reinforce this state alongside broader social inequalities.

AUTHOR: I have expanded the section on "theoretical framing" on pages 4 and 5 to clearly define debility and I have referenced the above mentioned fields.

Additionally, the article would benefit from a definition of disability that extends beyond the social model. I recommend consulting works by scholars such as Faye Ginsburg, Rayna Rapp, Herbert Muyinda, Susan Reynolds Whyte, and Benedict Ingstad, who clarify distinctions between ailments, diseases, impairments, and disabilities, particularly in the context of (colonial) biomedicalization in the Global South.

AUTHOR: I have expanded the definition of disability on page 3 and 4.

The authors should provide more information on chronic, acquired, and congenital disabilities. Throughout the article, phenomena such as land dispossession, labor exploitation, and food desertification are presented as causes of secondary, acquired disabilities. If the focus is limited to acquired disabilities, it would be useful to specify that congenital disabilities are excluded from the analysis. If congenital disabilities are indeed included, the authors should clarify how they fit into the argument.

AUTHOR: I have added an example of congenital disabilities such as FASD on page 6 to reflect that the argument remains the same across congenital or acquired disabilities.

The authors are advised to avoid generalizations regarding the social status of people with disabilities in pre-colonial Africa. Historical written sources are often biased, as they were primarily authored by white explorers, travelers, and missionaries from the Global North, who tended to project their socio-cultural preconceptions onto their observations, if they indeed observed such phenomena accurately. To balance these sources, the article could benefit from incorporating oral histories.

AUTHOR: I note this important point. Due to the limited time of responding, I could not source oral histories for this paper. I will certainly incorporate this in following papers.

Additionally, the authors should clarify the point that the concept of disability, as understood today, did not exist in pre-colonial Africa; instead, various terms described different forms of non-normative bodyminds. Scholars like Silla, Ingstad, and Whyte note that the concept of disability only became widespread in Africa with the influence of disability rights movements in the West, especially following the UN's declaration of the International Year of Disabled Persons in the 1980s as well as the imposition of ideas about medicalized ways (see Iliffe on this) to address non-normative bodyminds came from religious and bio-medical

institutions (e.g., camps for people with leprosy).

AUTHOR: This is an important point. While a different source is used, I have expanded paragraph 2 of page 5 to make this more clearer.

The article would benefit from a clearer temporal framework. For example, issues such as obesity are not solely a result of historical colonialism and apartheid but are also linked to modern neo-colonial and neoliberal systems that foster unemployment, food deserts, and other socio-economic challenges. By clarifying these distinctions, the authors can better contextualize how historical and contemporary forces shape disability in South Africa today.

AUTHOR: Thank you for pointing this out. I have added two sentences on page 6 to make this distinction clearer.

The authors should consider dedicating a section to the analytical framework, where the intersections of Critical Disability Studies, Crip Theory, and decolonial approaches are more explicitly articulated. While there may be epistemological tensions, incorporating references to works on necropolitics and the postcolony by Achille Mbembe would enhance the decolonial perspective. Additionally, including insights from African scholars such as Elvis Imafidon could provide further depth and regional specificity to the analysis.

AUTHOR: The new paragraph on page 4 has considered this request.

Please note that, due to word limits, I could not elaborate comprehensively. I also could not add further references. However, I will consider developing a follow-up paper which further unpacks these nuances.

Appendix 1: Original manuscript for review

The creation of debility and disability in South Africa: Colonial and 1 apartheid encounters 2 Abstract 3 4 The global legacy of colonialism has historically been studied in disciplines ranging from sociology, development economics, human geography, political sciences and international 5 6 relations. However, over the years, the field of public health has also seen an emergence of 7 research on the impacts of colonialism on the health outcomes of populations in the Global 8 South. Operating at the nexus of the field of disability studies and decoloniality, I critically 9 historicise South Africa's colonial and apartheid encounters, with specific reference to how 10 they created debility and disability. I argue that, while disability existed in pre-colonial African 11 societies, including in South Africa, it was not deemed as impairment that erodes the 12 humanity and value of persons with disabilities. The construction of disability as an 13 impairment, and the consequences related to this construction, emerged out of colonial and 14 apartheid encounters. Both epistemologically and through layered forms of violence, 15 colonialism and apartheid created debility and disability. Situating discourse in the field of 16 disability studies within the context of colonial and apartheid encounters in the Global South 17 in general, and South Africa in particular, is crucial. It is especially necessary that such 18 discourse be anchored in decolonial theorisation in order that the particularities of the 19 experience of disability in post-colonial and post-apartheid societies can be understood 20 within this context.

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## Significance

22 Research and theoretical orientations of disability studies remain profoundly skewed towards 23 accounts from the Global North. One approach to correcting this bias is that of engaging with 24 debility and disability in the context of colonial experience. Operating at the nexus of the field of disability studies and decoloniality, I critically historicise South Africa's colonial and 25 26 apartheid encounters, with specific reference to how they created debility and disability. The 27 analysis lays the foundation for theorising the interconnected systems of post-colonial violence 28 and oppression, as well as the interlocking systems of power that continue to marginalise 29 persons with disabilities.

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## Introduction

The global legacy of colonialism has historically been studied in disciplines ranging from sociology, development economics, human geography, political sciences and international relations. However, over the years, the field of public health has also seen an emergence of research on the impacts of colonialism on the health outcomes of populations in the Global South. In works such as Alison Bashford's *Imperial Hygiene: A Critical History of Colonialism, Nationalism and Public Health*<sup>1</sup>, racial imaginings emerging from the empire that have shaped the subjects and spaces of public health are critically analysed, drawing the link between colonial encounters and public health systems in developed and developing countries. While research into this link is undoubtedly important given the centrality of health in determining the overall outcomes of a society, there is a paucity of research focusing specifically on this link in the subject of debility and disability.

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44 Despite the complex experiences that persons in the Global South have with debility and 45 disability, and the particularities that define these experiences, the field of disability studies has historically been dominated by Global North thinking.<sup>2</sup> The implications of this are two-46 47 fold. Firstly, with 80% of persons with disabilities worldwide being situated in the Global South<sup>3</sup>, 48 the disproportionate scholarship reproduces layered forms of epistemic and ontological 49 violence. This exclusion, of both disability scholars and persons with disabilities, enables the 50 erasure of important concepts developed in the Global South.<sup>4</sup> This silencing and suppression 51 of Global South disability research universalises approaches to policy and resource 52 interventions, disregarding the specific needs confronting the developing world. Secondly, the 53 negation of experiences of those in the Global South sets parameters for an ahistoric 54 engagement with the subject of disability. Specifically, it erases the impact of the colonial 55 experience on the creation of debility and disability.

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57 One approach to centring the conceptualisation of disability in the Global South is to engage 58 with the subject in the context of colonial experience. This approach is valid, despite debates 59 about the differences in the cultural traditions, spatial constructions, economic trajectories, 60 administrative structures and geo-histories of countries in the Global South, due to colonialism 61 being a universalising encounter. According to Grovogu<sup>5</sup>, this colonial experience gave birth 62 to the anti-colonialism struggle and to the Global South as a symbolic designation that has 63 significant political implications. In critically engaging with debility and disability in the context of the colonial experience, interlocking systems of power that extend to the public health 64 65 sphere are explored, laying the foundation for a nuanced understanding of debility and 66 disability as colonial creations in the Global South. Characteristic of the Global South, the 67 impact of colonialism has left a lasting impact on South Africa and its people. Ngcukaitobi<sup>6</sup> 68 contends that the colonial experience, at the centre of which is the violent and systematic 69 dispossession of land from indigenous people, has irrevocably shaped modern South Africa, 70 and that the imperial ambitions that the British exercised on the eastern frontier set the 71 blueprint for the country, spatially and otherwise. Established in the 19th century, these 72 ambitions crystalised during the apartheid era and later shaped the democratic dispensation.

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# Defining disability in the context of South African society

75 The implications of the dominance of Global North research on disability scholarship extend to the very question of how disability is defined. Global South countries, including South Africa, 76 77 have struggled to construct a country-specific definition of the term "disability". While there is 78 an understanding that disability is best defined with the balancing of the approach between 79 the medical model and the social model<sup>7</sup>, there is limited discourse on how the particularities 80 of the colonial experience in the Global South necessitate a more nuanced definition of the 81 term. In South Africa, it was only in 2006 that Cabinet approved the currently accepted 82 definition of disability as "the loss or elimination of opportunities to take part in the life of the 83 community equitable with others that is encountered by persons having physical, sensory, 84 psychological, developmental, learning, neurological, or other impairments, which may be 85 permanent, temporary, or periodic in nature, thereby causing activity limitations and 86 participation restriction with the mainstream society" (p.17).8

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88 Charles et al.<sup>9</sup> contend that while this definition of disability outlines some key characteristics 89 of disability, it has limitations in failing to consider that barriers to accessibility is key to the 90 inability of many persons with disabilities to participate in community life. Another definitional 91 limitation is the absence of the geohistory of South Africa, which informs some important 92 particularities of its disability context. While the White Paper on the Rights of Persons with 93 Disabilities addresses the interrelated barriers experienced by persons with disabilities, 94 namely, psychological barriers such as fear for personal safety; social barriers such as 95 communication difficulties and lack of disability awareness; and structural barriers such as limited infrastructure and information (p.17)<sup>8</sup>, there is no sense that the colonial and apartheid 96 97 context of disability in South Africa is considered. This specific context is important as it 98 illustrates the intersectionality of disability, race, gender, class and geography, demonstrating 99 the complex ways in which disability is experienced on the basis of South Africa's colonial and 100 apartheid history. Thus, this article considers the official definition of disability in conjunction 101 with the roots of the structural limitations arising from colonial and apartheid encounters. This 102 definitional approach is relevant not only for South Africa, but for all societies that have 103 experienced colonial and apartheid encounters. In the field of disability studies there is need 104 for a decolonial sociological imagination, or what Bhambra<sup>10</sup> (p.21) aptly articulates as "a more 105 thoroughgoing analysis of the underlying assumptions upon which discourses and practices 106 come to be premised".

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# Methodology and theoretical framing

109 The prevailing public health system in South Africa, with its structural limitations, particularly 110 for persons with disabilities, is reflective of the dehumanisation and exclusion that persons 111 with disabilities faced during the colonial and apartheid eras. The aim of this article is to 112 critically historicise South Africa's colonial and apartheid encounters, with specific reference 113 to how the disruption and dispossession of indigenous people from their lands has created 114 debility and disability. The article employs a qualitative approach and uses secondary data 115 (official and unofficial) to provide deeper insights into the link between colonialism, debility and 116 disability.

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This article operates at the nexus of the field of disability studies and epistemological decoloniality. A decoloniality lens is particularly important to serve not only as the guiding theoretical framework, but as a prism through which critique of the limitations of disability studies in the Global South is constructed. Precisely because the field of disability studies is dominated by Eurocentric knowledge forms, despite the experiences of disability being most pronounced in the Global South<sup>2</sup>, there is need for challenging the very histories that inform these knowledge forms and this macro-history.

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# Creating debility and disability through disruption and dispossession

128 This section explores the complex ways in which debility and disability were created through 129 dispossession. In this context, dispossession refers not only to the systematic and violent theft 130 of the lands of indigenous people, which forms part of the geographical or spatial 131 dispossession of the colonised, but also to intellectual dispossession, giving rise to epistemic 132 erasure. In this regard, Harris<sup>11</sup> (p.165) contends that "the legitimation of and moral justification 133 for dispossession lay in a cultural discourse that located civilization and savagery and 134 identified the land uses associated with each". Though dispossession has always been central 135 to the function of colonialism, and in particular, settler colonialism<sup>12</sup>, it is important to state that 136 African history does not begin with colonialism. Ndlovu-Gatsheni<sup>13</sup> (p.2) posits that: "As a people, Africans were always there in human history. They were never creatures of 137 138 "discovery". Africans were always present. Africans were never absent. Africa was never a 139 tabula rasa (Dark Continent). Africans always had their own valid, legitimate and useful 140 knowledge systems". African history does not begin with colonialism, thus the Africa before 141 the colonial encounter did not resemble the one that emerged out of that experience. In that 142 respect, it would not go amiss to state that rather than birthing African history, colonialism 143 interrupted it. This is especially true in the pre-colonial African conceptions of disability.

145 Pre-colonial African societies conceptualised disability differently to the dominant Eurocentric 146 conception of disability as bodily impairments. According to Ojok and Masenze<sup>14</sup>, in pre-147 colonial Africa disability was not always perceived as a handicap, and persons with disabilities 148 were accepted and well-integrated into their communities, where their human value was not 149 negated by their disabilities. According to Gallagher<sup>15</sup>, the people of Dahomey in West Africa 150 believed that infants born with disabilities possessed supernatural powers and symbolised 151 good luck. As they grew into adults, they were appointed to important roles, such as state 152 constables. Obermann<sup>16</sup> contends that the Chagga people in East Africa believed that children 153 with disabilities were protectors of their communities. Thus, African spiritualism consecrated 154 persons with disabilities in profound ways.<sup>2</sup>

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156 In South Africa, pre-colonial KhoiSan communities co-existed with persons with disabilities 157 and utilised their own psychosocial health practices, the therapeutic merits of which are under-158 researched. In their study on psychosocial health management practices of the KhoiSan in 159 the Northern Cape Province of South Africa, Mahlatsi et al.<sup>17</sup> demonstrate that the said community has, since long before the dawn of colonialism, conceptualised ill-health as a 160 161 manifestation of the interruption of the connectedness of life, rather than as individual 162 pathology. This theorisation of ill-health, and of disability, were systematically delegitimised by 163 colonial and apartheid governments, primarily legislatively, with the promulgation of Section 1 164 of the Witchcraft Suppression Act (Act no.3 of 1957)<sup>18</sup>, which suppressed and criminalised 165 indigenous African health systems. The impact of this has been devastating to the health 166 outcomes of Black people.<sup>19</sup> Ndlovu-Gatsheni<sup>20</sup> characterises this as the direct result of Euro-167 North American centric modernity, and colonialism, as it were, creating modern problems for 168 which it has no modern solution, and argues that the imposition of Euro-North American centric 169 knowledges and theories have impeded on the understanding of contemporary challenges of 170 the Global South.

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172 Beyond the dispossession of African indigenous knowledges and theories of disability, colonial 173 and apartheid encounters created debility and disability through physical and violent 174 dispossession of land and the economy in South Africa. According to Ohenjo et al.<sup>21</sup>, people dispossessed of land, and without security of tenure, have poorer health outcomes in 175 176 comparison to those who own and control the land. Several factors were at play. Firstly, land 177 dispossession initiated food insecurity in urban and rural South Africa. Achieved through 178 systematic violence and the creation of institutions that legitimised draconian laws facilitating 179 the annexing of land and forced removals, land dispossession meant that indigenous Black people could no longer produce their own food.<sup>22</sup> This assault on subsistence farming forced 180

them into the segmented labour market where wages were too low to afford even the mostbasic nutrition.

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184 Secondly, and interrelated, with the inability to produce their own food and to afford nutritional 185 food, Black people were compelled to consume adulterated food as substitutes.<sup>22</sup> This gave 186 rise to a myriad of health-related problems, including the rise in obesity levels. Obesity has 187 been linked to debility and disability<sup>23</sup>, with Black people having the highest prevalence of 188 obesity than other racial groups in South Africa, particularly in urban areas.<sup>24</sup> The same study 189 noted the prevalence of overweight in rural women being significantly higher than that of 190 women in urban areas. While poor diets contribute to the obesity and overweight challenges 191 in Black communities, another important factor, linked to landlessness, is imposed sedentary 192 lifestyles.

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194 In the South African context, sedentary lifestyles are not a question of moral failure or lack of 195 desire for healthier living. Rather, they are a function of the consequences of colonial and 196 apartheid spatial planning. According to the African Centre for Obesity Prevention, 197 environments that lack neighbourhood sidewalks and recreational spaces do not support 198 active, healthy lifestyles, and are usually the cause of obesity.<sup>25</sup> Shackelton and Gwedla<sup>26</sup>, in 199 their study on the effects of colonialism and apartheid on urban greening and sustainability, 200 contend that the contemporary urban form, with green spaces that do not reflect African 201 identities, needs and perspectives on the natural and built environments, is reminiscent of 202 colonial and apartheid spatiality. Furthermore, in a South Africa where contact and violent 203 crime occurs mainly in townships<sup>27</sup>, where African races reside, the implication is that 204 sedentary lifestyles have been imposed on Africans, as the fear of crime leads to confinement. 205 Additionally, this highlights the difficulties regarding mobility and productive existence for 206 persons with disabilities.

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In *The Wretched of the Earth*, Fanon<sup>28</sup> discusses mental health pathologies in colonised 208 209 people. He contends that colonialism as a system gave rise to mental health pathologies in 210 Black people, who have had to negotiate their existence in violent societies, with violence 211 being both structural and institutionalised. According to Fanon, colonialism, in alienating 212 colonised people from themselves, created a world in which they were in a permanent state 213 of discombobulation from their very humanity and their ways of being. The impact of 214 colonialism and apartheid continues to find expression in post-apartheid South Africa, and to impose upon the colonised mental health pathologies. Wa Azania<sup>29</sup> traces these mental 215 216 pathologies to Black students in institutions of higher learning, contending that they battle with 217 debilitating mental illnesses that are both structural and generational. In this regard, she 218 situates the mental health problem among Black students to the apartheid encounter of their 219 parents and the systemic violence in post-apartheid South Africa. This encounter is punctuated by the persistent legacy of coloniality, which Ndlovu-Gatsheni<sup>30</sup> (p.181) describes as "an 220 221 invisible power matrix that is shaping and sustaining asymmetrical power relations between 222 the Global North and the Global South". This power matrix continues to shape and define post-223 apartheid South African society. It is on this basis that [Author]<sup>31</sup> (para.10) insists that: "The 224 rates of suicide, mental distress and violence mean we need to look at how mental health is 225 influenced by effects of landlessness and the continuing stressors of colonisation, imposed 226 sedentary lifestyles and inferior self-image all of which leave landless people with very little 227 autonomy over their lives".

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229 Finally, an equally salient cause of debility and disability arising from disruption and 230 dispossession is the uneven and separate development that made it possible for rural areas 231 and townships to be neglected, while historically White-only areas were prioritised for 232 development and investment. Magubane<sup>32</sup> contends that the deliberate institution of policies of separate development led to limited or non-existent infrastructure for Black people, including 233 health infrastructure. According to Coodavia et al.<sup>33</sup> (p.817), the roots of South Africa's 234 235 dysfunctional health system, and the collision of the epidemics of communicable and non-236 communicable diseases, is the direct result of policies beginning from colonial conquest to 237 apartheid dispossession, and ultimately, the post-apartheid dispensation where a two-tier and 238 unequal health system is in place. Significantly, under apartheid spending on healthcare in 239 former White provinces was R172 average per capita, in contrast to only R55 in the homelands and townships.<sup>34</sup> This uneven spending has continued in the post-apartheid dispensation 240 241 where we continue to see large racial differentials existing in social determinants of health, 242 particularly housing and sanitation for the poor, who are predominantly Black.<sup>35</sup> And while 243 there is no data on current government expenditure on average per capita on persons with 244 disabilities, we can infer from statistics on the under-funding of the public healthcare system, 245 which the majority of poor Black South Africans rely on, that the challenges of poor access 246 persist.

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## Disability, debility and the migrant labour system

The migrant labour system formed the backbone of the political economy of the colonial and apartheid states. Magubane<sup>36</sup> posits that the incorporation of Black South Africans into the evolving settler society through proletarianisation, initially into agriculture and then into mining, is one of the key events that have an explanatory value for the development of South Africa's socio-economic order. This incorporation was not geared towards equalising the colonisers 254 with their colonised subjects, nor to equalise the metropole with the colony. Rather, it sought 255 to facilitate the creation of a Black reserve army of labour. According to Vosloo<sup>37</sup> (para.1), the 256 migrant labour system is "an historical system, manipulated by capitalist, colonial and 257 apartheid powers as a means of reconciling the conflicting needs for cheap labour in the mines 258 and cities of 'White' South Africa, with the desire to restrict Black people to rural areas far away 259 from the 'White' cities". The creation of Bantustans, or homelands, which Evans<sup>38</sup> 260 characterises as an extension of the patterns of colonial segregation that were already in 261 existence, was facilitated through the devolution of political structures that would be replaced 262 by putative independence in the native homelands. Thus, Bantustans were not only intended 263 to segregate Black South Africans by confining them in ethnic, poverty-stricken enclaves, but 264 were also an effective means of "influx control". This system impacted not only the nature of 265 work in South Africa, but also the profile of the worker – mainly Black, male and able-bodied. 266

267 Linking the migrant labour system to debility and disability is important, as "inequality of 268 revenue and wealth is not only an economic fact; it implies inequality of life chances"<sup>36</sup> (p.2). 269 Furthermore, the development of the capitalist mode of production necessitated the 270 deprivation of the immediate producers of the means of production, this being especially 271 pronounced in people with disabilities. While Black people experienced collective deprivation, 272 marginalised groups within the Black community, particularly persons with disabilities, suffered 273 far more. With colonialism and apartheid functioning spatially, Black settlements were 274 established in under-developed rural areas and in townships on the outskirts of towns and 275 cities. For persons with disabilities living in these segregated spaces, access to the already 276 limited healthcare and social services was very difficult, resulting in Black persons with 277 disabilities not receiving the necessary and appropriate medical attention.<sup>39</sup>

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279 That exploited Black labour built the South African economy has been established.<sup>36,40,41</sup> The 280 colonial and apartheid states were built on cheap labour, largely in the agricultural and mining 281 industries that served as the backbone for their economies. Black men, in particular, forced 282 into wage labour by centuries of dispossession and landlessness, provided a reserve army of 283 labour in the metropole. On the diamond fields of Kimberley, in the gold mines of 284 Johannesburg, and in the platinum mines of the North West, they toiled for low wages and 285 were concentrated in hostels on the outskirts of central business districts, and isolated from 286 the urban fabric, where they lived in conditions that were unfit for humans.<sup>37</sup> It was in these 287 hostels, under these conditions, that disease spread. Specifically, workers' compounds in the 288 gold mines of Johannesburg became the epicentre of tuberculosis outbreaks, caused by poor working and living conditions.<sup>42</sup> But tuberculosis was one of several devastating diseases that 289 290 plagued Black workers, families and communities in the 20th century, and these created a backlog of diseases that were worsened by the lack of development of effective public health
 measures for treatment.<sup>42</sup> The outcome of this was a heavy disease burden in Black
 communities<sup>33</sup>, which contributed significantly to debility and disability.

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295 The intersection of the migrant labour system and the spread of HIV/AIDS is observable in 296 South Africa. According to the International Organization for Migration Position Paper on 297 HIV/AIDS and Migration, in Africa, migration has emerged as the strongest single predictor of the prevalence and risk of HIV.<sup>43</sup> The study contends that men who work far from home and 298 299 live in men-only camps are more vulnerable to HIV infection. This is significant because under the apartheid regime, hostels were constructed as men-only dwellings<sup>37</sup> as a means of 300 301 controlling the movement of Black labourers. But migrant workers were not the only group that 302 was at risk of infection. The International Organization for Migration<sup>43</sup> contends that the 303 partners of migrant workers are also shown to be at a particularly high risk of infection when their partners return from countries or cities with high prevalence of HIV. This is aptly 304 305 summarised by Lurie (cited in Nicholas et al.<sup>44</sup>, para.19) who states: "It is not hard to see how migrant labour plays a major role in the spread of the HIV/STI epidemic in Southern Africa: 306 307 take millions of young men, remove them from their rural homes, house them in single-sex 308 hostels, give them easy access to sex workers and alcohol and little or no access to condoms, 309 and pretty soon, you will have a major HIV/STI epidemic". With the spread of sexually 310 transmitted diseases in hostels built for male migrant workers, the parameters for debility and 311 disability were set, and they persist in the post-apartheid dispensation.

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## Debility, disability and violence in post-apartheid South Africa

314 Structural inequalities that persist in modern South Africa, rooted in colonial and apartheid 315 histories, continue to shape economic and social practices and outcomes, impacting on the 316 lives of persons with disabilities. These inequalities created and reproduced a toxic paradigm 317 of difference whereby the "other", in this case persons with disabilities, were deemed not only 318 unfit for work, but were also seen as non-human. In their study on enhancing the public 319 sector's capacity for inclusive economic participation of disabled youth in rural communities, [Author and Author]<sup>45</sup> contend that in post-apartheid South Africa, young persons with 320 321 disabilities face bleak prospects for skills development and securing employment. While South 322 Africa's official unemployment and youth unemployment rates are very high, at 32.1% and 44.3%, respectively, in the fourth quarter of 2023<sup>46</sup>, the rate is significantly higher for persons 323 324 with disabilities. According to Morwane<sup>47</sup>, unemployment rates for persons with disabilities are 325 as high as 80% to 90%.

327 The implications for the low participation rates of persons with disabilities in the South Africa 328 labour market are far-reaching. According to Braithwaite and Mont<sup>48</sup>, these low participation 329 rates are a key pathway from disability to poverty. This is evidenced by findings which indicate 330 that households headed by persons with disabilities experienced higher rates of poverty, with 331 more than half not having access to a flush toilet, as well as a significant number lacking basic 332 sanitation and electricity, thereby relying on wood for cooking and candles for light.<sup>49</sup> Disability 333 thus becomes both a cause and a consequence of poverty<sup>50</sup>, as persons with disabilities, 334 encountering tougher barriers to the labour market, as well as education and skills 335 development, have limited income owing to unemployment, and reduced earnings owing to 336 the disability pay gap, which is used to measure pay gaps between disabled and non-disabled people and for different groups of disabled persons (p.x).<sup>51</sup> These inequalities cause poverty 337 338 for persons with disabilities. In terms of consequence, poverty limits access to healthcare, preventative healthcare and social services.<sup>50</sup> In the context of South Africa, these limitations 339 are often a result of uneven development – spatially and economically – linked to our colonial 340 341 and apartheid encounters.

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343 In post-apartheid South African society, debility and disability are often the direct consequence 344 of violence and violent crimes. This is especially true of disability in young Black men, who 345 experience the highest levels of violent crime, including homicide, attempted murder and 346 assaults with intent to cause grievous bodily harm. According to Langa et al.<sup>52</sup>, Black South 347 Africans in general are more likely to be victims of violent crime than their White counterparts. 348 While White South Africans make up just over 8% of the population, they account for less than 349 2% of murder victims, with Black people accounting for a significantly higher and 350 disproportionate number.<sup>53</sup> There is clear statistical evidence that Black men in particular are 351 victims of this violent crime. Yet, according to van Niekerk et al.<sup>54</sup>, Black men receive less 352 prioritisation as victims of violent crimes. The invisibilisation of Black men in post-apartheid 353 South Africa is a continuation of the colonial and apartheid practice of locating them in what 354 Fanon<sup>55</sup> describes as a "zone of non-being", which he describes as "an extraordinarily sterile and arid region, an utterly naked declivity"<sup>55</sup> (p.2) where Black people are simultaneously 355 356 problematic and inhuman. This colonial process of dehumanisation, made possible precisely 357 because the very construction of being, in the eyes of Whiteness, depends on non-being<sup>56</sup>, is at the heart of why, under colonialism, Black people in general were rendered invisible in law 358 and beyond. Cock<sup>39</sup> asserts that the invisibilisation was especially pronounced for Black 359 360 persons with disabilities - a practice that continues today.

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Ratele<sup>57</sup> posits that the highest rates of interpersonal violence-related fatalities in South Africa
 occur within African race groups in poor and low-income neighbourhoods. Specifically, these

364 occur largely in metropolitan areas, mainly Cape Town. This is a significant finding given that 365 the city served as the bedrock of colonial and apartheid administrations.<sup>58</sup> Black men are 366 particularly rendered vulnerable to homicidal victimisation and violence due to interlinked 367 dynamics located at individual and societal levels.<sup>59</sup> These interconnected dynamics are in great part the direct result of "a past marked by apartheid racism and segregation, state 368 369 repression, arbitrary detentions, political unrest and violence, and a struggle for national 370 liberation<sup>757</sup> (p.249–250). Significantly, this violence contributes significantly to the debility and 371 disability that is experienced in Black communities.

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## 373 Conclusion

374 While disability existed in pre-colonial African societies, including in South Africa, it was not 375 deemed as impairment that erodes the humanity and value of persons with disabilities. The 376 construction of disability as an impairment, and the consequences related to this construction, 377 emerged out of colonial and apartheid encounters. Both epistemologically and through layered 378 forms of violence, colonialism and apartheid created debility and disability. The migrant labour 379 system in particular, which emerged out of the colonial and apartheid encounter as a means 380 to dispossess, disenfranchise, dehumanise and de-civilise Black people, played an important 381 role in the legislation and practice of the exclusion of persons with disabilities. This exclusion 382 continues in post-apartheid South Africa, evidenced in the social, economic, cultural and 383 structural impediments that have been imposed on persons with disabilities.

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385 Situating discourse in the field of disability studies within the context of colonial and apartheid 386 encounters in the Global South in general, and South Africa in particular, is crucial. It is 387 especially necessary that such discourse be anchored in decolonial theorisation in order that 388 the particularities of the experience of disability in post-colonial and post-apartheid societies can be understood within this context. And while decoloniality may not be the panacea to 389 390 erasing the experiences and prevailing perceptions, as well as consequences of coloniality 391 towards persons with disabilities, it provides us with the opportunity to seek epistemological and ontological justice. It also lays the foundation for theorising the interconnected systems of 392 393 post-colonial violence and oppression, as well as the interlocking systems of power that 394 continue to hurl persons with disabilities to the margins.

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