

# **An Implementation Evaluation of the Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy: Agrarian Transformation and Food Security**

by

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## Abstract

It is more than six years since the launch of the Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy/Ilima Labantu (ECRDS) which was seen as a catalyst for rural development in the province. The ECRDS came as a response to national policy priority on rural development and it intended to align with all relevant key policy frameworks across all spheres of government in order to improve the lives of the rural communities. It became apparent that agricultural development and food security are the main drivers of rural development in the country and elsewhere in the world. Hence, the mandate of rural development in the Eastern Cape was given to the then Department of Agriculture which became known as the Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform. However, the implementation of the ECRDS still faces a plethora of challenges and, in turn, poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment remain glaring amongst the rural poor.

The study focused on the evaluation of the implementation of ECRDS, concentrating on the pillar of agrarian transformation and food security. Evaluation studies, by nature, determine project/programme or policy relevance, implementation, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. Based on the evidence gathered, it became apparent that agriculture plays a pivotal role in improving rural livelihoods and many rural communities benefited from these programmes. However, planning and credible budgeting are hampered by lack of a farmer database. Budget expenditure shows inconsistencies in the form of upward and downward trends. There has not been a significant budget increase to accommodate the rural development mandate. Therefore, rural development in the Eastern Cape remains an unfunded mandate.

A number of recommendations are made for improving the implementation of the ECRDS's agrarian transformation and food security pillar, namely creating jobs, dealing with poverty and ensuring improved sustainable rural livelihoods.

## Opsomming

Dit is al meer as ses jaar sedert die Oos-Kaap Landelike Ontwikkelingstrategie/Ilima Labantu (OKLOS), wat as 'n katalisator vir landelike ontwikkeling in die provinsie gesien is, van stapel gestuur is. Die OKLOS was 'n reaksie op die nasionale beleidsprioriteit van landelike ontwikkeling en dit het gepoog om belyd te wees met alle relevante beleidsraamwerke oor al die regeringsfere heen, om sodoende die lewens van die landelike gemeenskappe te verbeter. Dit het duidelik geword dat landbou en voedselsekureit die hoof dryfkragte van landelike ontwikkeling in die land en elders in die wêreld is. Sodoende is die mandaat vir landelike ontwikkeling in die Oos-Kaap aan die Departement van Landbou (later verander na die Departement van Landelike Ontwikkeling en Landbouhervorming) gegee. Die implementering van die OKLOS staar steeds 'n geweldige uitdaging in die gesig, en armoede, onderontwikkeling en werkloosheid steeds aan die groei onder landelike armes.

Die studie evalueer die implementering van die OKLOS met spesifieke fokus op landelike transformasie en voedselsekureit. Evalueringstudies bepaal van nature die relevansie van 'n projek/program of beleid, die implementering, doeltreffendheid, effektiwiteit, impak en die volhoubaarheid daarvan. Op grond van die bewyse wat verkry is, het dit duidelik geword dat landbou 'n kardinale rol speel in die verbetering van landelike lewensbestaan en vele landelike gemeenskappe het voordeel getrek uit hierdie programme. Nietemin, beplanning en werkbare begrotings word gekniehalter deur die tekort aan 'n boeredatabasis. Daar was ook nie 'n beduidende begrotingsverhoging om die landelike ontwikkelingsmandaat te akkommodeer nie. Om hierdie rede is landelike ontwikkeling in die Oos-Kaap steeds onbefonds.

'n Aantal aanbevelings word gemaak rakende die verbetering van die implementering van die OKLOS se landelike transformasie en voedselsekureit-fokuspunt, skep van werk, hantering van armoede en versekering van verbeterde volhoubare landelike lewensbestaan.

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I thank my wife Zolisa and my children Mihlali and Likhanye for their unwavering support and encouragement. You kept me focused by constantly reminding me not to lose sight on the broader goal – that of giving you a better life.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. INTRODUCTION

The majority of Eastern Cape citizens are living in the rural areas mostly in the former homelands, Ciskei and Transkei, where poverty is so rife. The homelands/Bantustans covering about 13 per cent of the land surface of South Africa were meant for Africans who were expected to reside there if they were not employed by the whites (Greenberg, March 2003: 2). For many Eastern Cape rural households, their livelihoods have been built around subsistence agriculture on the land administered by traditional authorities and they are merely given permission to occupy (PTO) with no title deeds. This land arrangement where people do not possess their own land also emanates from the wars of dispossession and subsequently the Natives Land Act No. 27 of 1913.

Over the years, agriculture has been the pillar of rural economy and livelihoods, hence one cannot talk of rural development without mentioning agriculture. However, agricultural activities among subsistence farmers have been declining with many migrating to urban areas in search of jobs and better education opportunities. These dynamics of urban migration in search of better opportunities illustrates that developing economies are dual economies with a traditional agricultural sector and a modern capitalist sector (industries). Productivity in agriculture is projected to be lesser than in the modern sector, triggering the labour force to move out of the agricultural, rural economy to the modern, urban sector, resulting in the growth of the urban economy while the rural economy keeps declining (World Bank, 2011: 6).

Communities are also hit hard by droughts, soil degradation, loss of livestock and HIV/AIDS-related deaths among the youth and family members who are the source of labour. Studies conducted reveals that HIV and AIDS has a glaring impact on agriculture and food security as they show decline in agricultural productivity, households losing incomes, more communities becoming increasingly food insecure, malnourishment resulting to poor health and extensive spread of poverty (Masuku, Kibirige & Singh, 2015: 2).

The current rural agricultural support, investment and land tenure in its current form has not made a major impact in changing the outlook of the rural areas and lives of rural communities. The reason for bias towards rural agriculture in this study is because urban agriculture aside from small domestic vegetable gardens is not a big issue in the province. Therefore, when discussing agriculture, the reference is to rural areas and commercial farming areas.

“The Eastern Cape remains by and large undeveloped, with economic activity well below economic potential. Currently, economic activity is concentrated in Port Elizabeth, East London and Mthatha. Notwithstanding economic growth, high levels of unemployment and poverty persist, particularly in the rural areas where two thirds of the population resides. The Province struggles to generate its own revenues: 98 per cent of provincial government revenue receipts are supplied by the national government” (Eastern Cape Socio Economic Review and Outlook, 2011: 19).

Given the picture depicted above, to advance rural development in the country and transform the Eastern Cape into a place marked by vibrant, rural livelihoods and a prospering rural economy and to successfully change the current rural trajectory in the province, the South African government understood that it had to accelerate its pace in uplifting rural life. Rural development subsequently became a priority for government. The election manifesto of the African National Congress (ANC) in 2009 and government’s Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) set out 12 national outcomes that reflect government-desired development impacts to be achieved. Out of the 12 outcomes, outcome 7: *vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities and food security for all* speaks to rural development and food security (The Presidency, 2010: 13). This outcomes-based methodology is established on four steps. The **first step** espouses key strategic outcomes with measurable outputs and activities informed by the policy priorities in the manifesto of the ANC. In the **second step** the President and the Ministers agree on performance agreements outlining high-level outputs and crucial undertakings for each output. The **third step** requires key partners to work together after the high-level outputs and metrics have been altered into a detailed delivery agreement. In the **fourth step** structures set up to coordinate the working

together of delivery agreement partners. The structures set up at this phase or step are expected to monitor and evaluate the achievement of the set outcomes and provide feedback (The Presidency, 2010: 7).

Agriculture and rural development as foundations of growth, employment and food security are elevated as key components of development. Although countries across the globe are focused on designing mitigating strategies aimed at improving agricultural competitiveness, it is believed that these strategies will not be adequate to address widespread rural poverty. Should interventions not be properly designed, households in the rural areas might be excluded from value chains, whilst being excluded from agricultural growth. Therefore, governments should carefully ponder policies and strategies aimed at addressing rural households or communities, which will otherwise fall further behind (Lampietti, Lugg, Van der Celen, & Branczik, 2009: xii).

In the Eastern Cape, the administrative responsibility of rural development was assigned to the then Department of Agriculture. The new assigned mandate necessitated the renaming of the Department to be the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development and was later renamed the Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform (DRDAR). The DRDAR derives its mandate from the Medium Term Strategy Framework (MTSF) (2009–2014 and 2014–2019) on rural development, land and agrarian reform, and food security. This mandate is to ensure the implementation of the following five key outputs which contribute to the achievement of outcome 7:

- ▶ “Output 1: Sustainable agrarian reform with a thriving farming sector”.
- ▶ “Output 2: Improved access to affordable and diverse food”.
- ▶ “Output 3: Improved services to support livelihoods”.
- ▶ “Output 4: Rural job creation and promoting economic livelihoods”.
- ▶ “Output 5: Enabling institutional environment for sustainable and inclusive growth”. (The Presidency, 2010: 4)

Should things be done right, on the intake side, a higher throughput in agriculture can generate income for the rural communities, thus making demand for domestically produced industrial output. According to the World Bank (2011: 7), “[s]uch linkage effects can increase employment opportunities in the rural non-farm sector, thereby

indirectly generating rural income,” and, “[m]oreover, agricultural goods can be exported to earn foreign exchange in order to import capital goods”. However, the spatial dispersion settlement of people living in rural areas increases the cost and makes it difficult to provide rural services and development effectively. This situation also worsened by poor economic conditions means fewer development opportunities for rural communities.

This introductory chapter provides historical background of the Eastern Cape rural livelihoods, land tenure and agriculture, demographics of the province as they relate to socio-economic development trends. The chapter further outlines the aims and objectives of the study, research questions and research problem. Finally, the ethical considerations and structure of the study are stipulated.

## **1.2. DEMOGRAPHICS OF THE EASTERN CAPE**

Eastern Cape Socio Economic Consultative Council (ECSECC) accounts that “a good demographic profile gives policy-makers the opportunity to make optimal decisions and that ignoring demographic trends can result in serious misallocation of resources and inappropriate policy interventions. If policy interventions are informed by sound demographic data, programmes to improve healthcare, education, skills development, human settlements, rural development and employment can be properly targeted and the appropriate services and infrastructure can be provided. Both public and private sectors can take full advantage of the province’s population profile to ensure that correct policies are designed and the potentials that the population offers are fully realised” (ECSECC, Demographic Indicators Census: 1996; 2001; 2011: 5-6).

The census results of 1996 indicated that the Eastern Cape had a population of 6 147 244. By 2011, the most recent census, this population had grown to 6 562 053, which illustrate an increase of 6.7% or 414 809 people. Population dynamics vary spatially across the province. As per the latest census of 2011, the population in the Eastern Cape was distributed as follows: OR Tambo district had 1 364 943 (20.8%); Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality had 1 152 115 (17.6%); Amatole district had 892 637 (13.6%); Alfred Nzo district had 801 344 (12.2%); Chris Hani district had 795 461 (12.1%); Buffalo City Metro had 755 200 (11.5%); Cacadu district 450 584

(6.9%); and Joe Gqabi district had 349 768 (5.3%) people of the Eastern Cape's population (ECSECC, Demographic Indicators Census: 1996; 2001; 2011: 5-6).

### **1.2.1. KEY FINDINGS OF 2011 CENSUS**

- ▶ It was established that the population of the Eastern Cape increased by 6.7% since the last census, which projected an immaterial growth compared to Gauteng's 60.9%.
- ▶ This census revealed that a total of 436 466 people left the province, while 158 205 people came to the province. This resulted into net out-migration of 278 261 people.
- ▶ When it comes to youth unemployment rate in the country the Eastern Cape Province became the second highest at 47.3% after Limpopo which was at 49.4%.
- ▶ Out of 100 people aged 14-65 almost 55 had no income and this demonstrates that the province is facing extreme poverty.
- ▶ The illiteracy rate of 26.5% revealed that the province had the highest levels compared with the rest of the country.
- ▶ "About 63.2% of households lived in formal dwellings (compared to 77.6% for South Africa); 28.2% of households lived in traditional dwellings (compared to 7.9% for South Africa); and 7.7% of households lived in informal dwellings (compared to 13.6% for South Africa)".
- ▶ In 2011 the number of people who used water from streams, rivers, boreholes, springs and dams have since dropped to 22.2% from 45.1% in 1996 and 36.8% recorded in 2001.
- ▶ All three censuses revealed that the Eastern Cape had very few households with access to flush toilets and the highest number of households with no access to a toilet facility.
- ▶ The 1996, 2001 and 2011 census, showed that many Eastern Cape households had the lowest access to electricity for lighting and the province had the second lowest number of households with access to electricity for heating and cooking.
- ▶ Even though, more than 80% of households in all provinces, had access to a cell phone, a total of three quarters of households in the Eastern Cape had no access to the Internet (ECSECC, 1996; 2001; 2011: 5-6).

The figures from 2011 census paint an image of a province that is behind in almost every developmental aspect. This is largely influenced by the rural nature of the Eastern Cape. Therefore, workable rural development solutions should be underpinned by complete understanding of rural areas and socio-economic dynamics at play. The statistical findings should be used as the basis for understanding the magnitude of problems in the province, particularly with regard to youth unemployment, rural poverty and lack of basic services. The Eastern Cape government should interpret these findings as a clarion call that rural disparities should be tackled swiftly. Should government fail to address issues of development in the Eastern Cape, the province will in the near future experience a massive protest around service delivery, as we have already seen violent protests all over the country. The challenges facing the Eastern Cape are not unique to those facing the rest of Africa, as it is reported that about 70% of Africans and approximately 80% of the continent's poor live in rural areas and most rely mainly on agriculture for their livelihood (United Nations, 2007: 7). Given this reality, this study acknowledges a link between rural development and agriculture in addressing rural poverty and keeping rural livelihoods vibrant.

These authenticities have prompted the South African government and governments across the world to develop a developmental agenda supported by policies and strategies aimed at improving rural livelihoods. Given the huge infrastructural backlog it is evident that for so long, rural communities were neglected with less or no access to economic opportunities. Development has always focused in the urban areas where economic activities are already favourable. Therefore, to bring rural areas on par with urban areas, there is a need for government to make significant policy shifts coupled with firm commitments and real implementation.

### **1.3. RURAL POVERTY**

The poor people from most developing countries are facing a plethora of global challenges, ranging from climate change, financial instability, which hinders their active participation in the broader local and national economic activities. They are socio-economic, political and technological marginalised as compared to their affluent counterparts who are living in the urban areas. Governments and global institutions have come up with policy interventions that seeks to alleviate these challenges. These

policies are seen as practical measures meant to promote rural livelihoods. And as such social protection, disaster risk reduction and climate change adaptation has become three prominent policy frameworks advocated globally (Arnal *et al.*, 2010: 345).

In the South African context where the black majority are poor and live in the rural areas, largely landless or own small portions of land that can never make any significant impact in changing their livelihoods. Extreme rural poverty is one of the most persistent social problems evident in the country. This is largely due to “urban bias” that can be traced back from apartheid separate development policies where rural communities were excluded from basic services, like water sanitation, subsidised housing, adequate healthcare and education. To depict the seriousness of this notion of ‘urban bias’, Csaki & de Haan (2003:2) argue that the greatest of the world’s poverty is concentrated in rural areas and will remain unchanged as long as there is still urban bias in most countries’ developmental plans and resource allocation. This is deliberately maintained because the rural people have little political clout to influence allocation of meaningful resources and rural investment.

Lipton in Jones & Corbridge (2010:10) argue that the poverty is so abject in the rural sector with little or no prospects of growth and leading their own development, whereas, the urban sector has power, organised and able to express itself. The urban sector is always advanced and are able to influence government to be more urban bias. With high levels of poverty in the rural areas than in the urban, government urban biased policies worsened they situation as resources were diverted from the rural poor to urban less poor (Jones & Corbridge, 2010:10). “These policies harmed the formation of human capital in rural areas (the development of better educated and more healthy rural workers), led to the draining away of such talents and wealth as could be accumulated in the countryside (the rural skills drain of educated younger workers), and represented poor value for money” (Jones & Corbridge, 2010:10).

The enormous backlogs in the rural areas, the country and the Eastern Cape in particular around health, education, water supply, access roads, electricity, housing and related infrastructure confirm the aforementioned theoretical perspective of “urban bias”. In order to address rural poverty, there is a need to transform rural areas into active economies. Therefore, the agricultural sector is said “to play a crucial role [in]

development, especially in low-income countries where the sector is large both in terms of aggregate income and total labour force” (World Bank, 2011: 2).

In spite of appreciation of the need for special approaches to deal with the widespread existence of rural poverty in developing countries, initiatives aimed at ensuring that the rural standards of living are transformed have achieved the desired constant impact on reducing poverty. Throughout the world, there are concerted efforts in pushing back the frontiers of poverty and as such the World Food Summit (WFS) made a firm assurance to reduce the number of undernourished persons by 50% in 2015. Malnutrition affects the health and well-being of people and has a negative effect on the fight of diseases across the globe. Worldwide, 45% of child mortality has to do with malnutrition particularly in sub-Saharan Africa. By providing nutritious food for household consumption and market through agriculture, physical health and wellbeing of people and children in particular can be improved. Therefore, agriculture enhances rural livelihoods for the poor and vulnerable as it provides nutritious food, support economic development (Griggs, Stevance, & McCollum, 2017: 36).

In 2008, South African government introduced the War on Poverty (WoP) programme which is premised on the understanding that poverty is rife in rural areas compared to urban areas and therefore its focus is on rural areas. Key to this programme is to make a positive impact on destitute South African citizens, address poverty and hunger, and ensure that people are determiners of their destiny. In the long term, WoP is meant to ensure that communities become self-reliant. When the programme was launched in 2008, it was piloted in seven provinces with the exclusion of the Northern Cape and the Western Cape. The WoP is ultimately a long-term campaign while rural development is a short-term strategy towards achieving this goal (South Africa Yearbook 2010/11: 410). This campaign was meant to aid government to better understand the plight of communities and households, particularly issues that relate to poverty status and required mediations for those households in dire need.

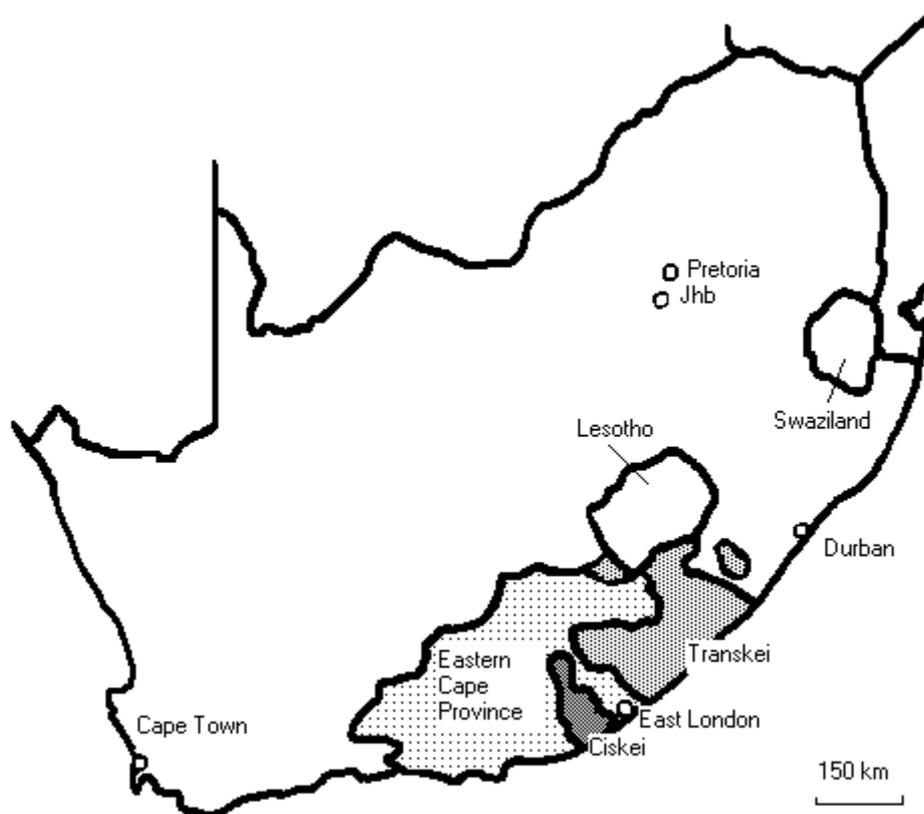
The enormous backlogs in the rural areas, the country and the Eastern Cape in particular around health, education, water supply, access roads, electricity, housing and related infrastructure confirm the aforementioned theoretical perspective of “urban bias”. In order to address rural poverty, there is a need to transform rural areas into active

economies. Therefore, the agricultural sector is said “to play a crucial role [in] development, especially in low-income countries where the sector is large both in terms of aggregate income and total labour force” (World Bank, 2011: 2). Another report by the World Bank (2008:28) argues that “the large and persistent gap between agriculture’s share in GDP and employment suggests that poverty is concentrated in agriculture and rural areas and that as non-agricultural growth accelerates, many of the rural poor remain poor”. Where non-agricultural growth has accelerated, rural-urban income disparities widen, thus there is a need to invest more in agriculture and rural development (World Bank, 2008: 28).

The South African government in its guide to the outcomes approach acknowledges that transformation is not happening as fast and effectively as envisaged and that regardless of all the achievements since 1994, democratic dispensation, excessive levels of poverty, unemployment and inequality are still dominant. Although the government has enhanced access to services and increased spending on service delivery, the desired outcomes are not being achieved in ensuring “a better life for all” and that has resulted in impatience amongst the most affected communities (The Presidency, 2010: 9).

To address rural poverty and poverty in general with a partnership of state departments and state agencies, DRDAR is supposed to address the absence of infrastructure and institutional support. In order to meet the minimum or basic human needs, decent shelter, food security, water and sanitation, electricity, social facilities and amenities and decent logistics system partnerships and integrated planning is crucial. All these shall attract small sustainable enterprises, industries, people with artisanal and other technical skills, entrepreneurs, rural-urban linkages, local markets and credit facilities. For these to be realised, government departments should start working together by adopting an integrated planning delivery approach, where they collectively utilise resources to make a meaningful developmental change in a given community, leaving behind trails of sustainable development (The Presidency, 2011: 3).

All these developments and a zeal to do things differently and better, i.e. “not business as usual”, resulted in the development and approval of the ECRDS in 2010. All the critical stakeholders and community representatives were consulted in establishing the ECRDS.



**Figure 1: South African map with emphasis on Eastern Cape and former homelands.**

The figure above shows how the Eastern Cape was demarcated with prominent homelands, Ciskei and Transkei. The map also demonstrate resource potential of the province and it has long coastal belt for shipment and goods and ocean comprehensive ocean economy.

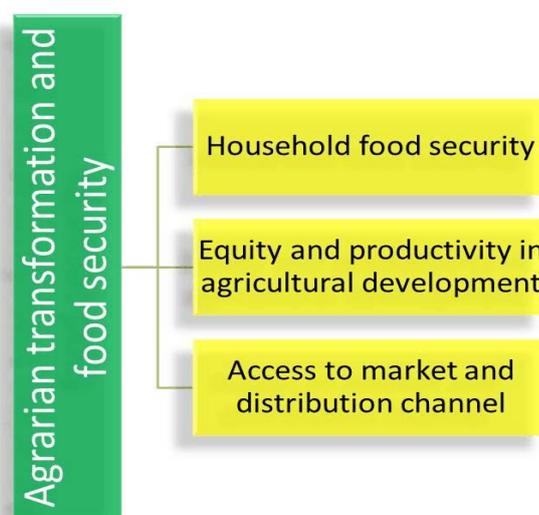
#### **1.4. MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

This study aims to review the implementation of the ECRDS since it was approved, as per its implementation framework. The ECRDS was formed around the following six (6) pillars:

- ▶ Land reform;
- ▶ Agrarian transformation and food security;
- ▶ Non-farm rural economy;

- ▶ Infrastructure;
- ▶ Social and human development; and
- ▶ Enabling environment (Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy, 2010: 21)

However, the current study only focuses on the pillar of agrarian transformation and food security which deals with household food security, equity and productivity in agricultural development, and access to market and distribution channel as illustrated in the figure below



**Figure 2: Agrarian Transformation and Food Security Strategic Objectives: DRDAR Service Delivery Model.**

According to the South African government, “agrarian transformation means the rapid and fundamental change in relations (systems and patterns of ownership and control) of land, livestock, cropping and community. This also includes, among other things, improving the productivity, economic viability and sustainability of small and large farm enterprises” (The Presidency, 2011: 7). Land is also understood as a guarantor for poverty alleviation, creation of jobs, entrepreneurship and food security. More than 6 million hectares of land have been reassigned through land reform (The Presidency, 2011: 7-8).

Communities in the rural areas are still antagonised by evils related to a lack of and/or limited resources for service delivery, lack of basic services and infrastructural backlogs. “For effective implementation and improvement of food security[,] the

integrated food security strategy needs to be reviewed to ensure that it addresses all aspects of food security[,] i.e. food availability, food accessibility, food utilization, and affordability” (The Presidency, 2011: 14-15).

Having acknowledged that poverty is so rife in the rural areas, the Eastern Cape being a largely rural province has a large number of its population being trapped in poverty with no access to basic services and adequate infrastructure. Twenty-three years subsequent to democratic dispensation, a resolute effort should be made to ensure the enhancement of rural livelihoods. This province largely contributes in shaping the national agenda and developing good policies and strategies. However, when it comes to implementation, not so much is done and as such the desired impact is not realised. Therefore, if checks and balances or review of the province’s Rural Development Strategy is not done, it might as well become one of those policies and strategies that are only good on paper while their impact is not felt on the ground by the needy and the poor.

## **1.5. RESEARCH PROBLEM**

In addressing the challenges facing the rural poor, rural development is seen a development catalyst that can change rural livelihoods. Rural areas are faced with challenges ranging from the lack or non-existence of basic services to the shortage of infrastructure. These realities has forced the government from 2009 to emphasise rural development in its policy priorities. That resulted, to the formation of a dedicated rural development department and its functions were also delegated to provinces. In response to this new function/mandate the Eastern Cape government developed the ECRDS. The strategy has since been approved aimed at accelerating change in the socio-economic and political conditions of the rural population which was previously marginalised. The implementation thereof is still faced with a plethora of implementation challenges and the needs experienced by the rural poor remain largely unresolved. The implementation challenges are resulting from the additional mandate of rural development that is not funded and the DRDAR has to work with the budget that has previously been allocated for agriculture. It should also be noted that government budget allocations are the main source for financing Rural Development (RD), as it is hard to mobilise enough resources to finance the components of RD. Most services provided for rural

communities, e.g. water, and sanitation are free of charge and charging municipal taxes and rates in rural areas might reduce already low levels of rural income.

## 1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study is based on the following research questions:

- ▶ Does agriculture and food security have an impact on rural development?
- ▶ What are the challenges and opportunities of rural development in South Africa and the Eastern Cape in particular?
- ▶ What policies and legislation has the South African government adopted to address rural development?
- ▶ To what extent has the pillar of agrarian transformation and food security been implemented through resource allocation in improving rural livelihoods in the province?

## 1.7. AIM AND OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The current research intends to determine how the ECRDS (Ilima Labantu), in particular the pillar of agrarian transformation and food security, has improved rural livelihoods and whether the objectives were achieved and implementation plan adhered to.

The specific objectives of the study are:

**Objective One:** To assess how agricultural development and food security can reduce rural poverty and unemployment and promote rural development.

**Objective Two:** To establish the availability of government frameworks that ensure that rural development is realised.

**Objective Three:** To assess the kind of support offered to farmers by the DRDAR, budget allocation and public spending trends by programmes in support of agrarian transformation and food security.

**Objective Four:** To evaluate how well the programme-implementing organisation (DRDAR) is able to meet its constitutional obligations and mandate in ensuring that Eastern Cape citizens are food secured.

## 1.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study has followed what many institutes have embraced in terms of specific codes, rules and policies relating to research ethics. All the work done in the study is declared to be researcher's own work. The research was conducted in a methodical manner based on tolerable morals and values and laws governing South Africa. The following ethical contemplations based on good research practice were adhered to:

- ▶ Objectivity and integrity in research;
- ▶ Participants remained anonymous;
- ▶ Data was treated confidentially;
- ▶ Participants were brought to understand the nature of the research and their involvement;
- ▶ Findings are reported fully with no misrepresentation in any manner;
- ▶ Participants had to consent voluntarily to take part in the study; and
- ▶ Obligation to free and open dissemination of research results.

## 1.9. STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

**Chapter 1** gives a historical background in terms of land use and ownership in the Eastern Cape, where mostly black communities are largely dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods. Factors that have led to waning of agriculture in the rural areas are discussed. To better emphasise the importance of agriculture as the contributor to rural development and in the fight against poverty, the demographics of the province and key census findings are presented. Rural poverty is discussed and defined. The chapter further provides motivation for undertaking the study, research problem is identified, research questions posed, aims and objectives of the study outlined. The chapter ends with ethical considerations that will guide the study and lastly the structure of the study.

**Chapter 2** deals with the literature reviewed throughout the study. The literature engaged entails sources on poverty as it relates to rural communities, the concepts of development, rural development and its relations to agriculture, agricultural development and food security as a solution to rural poverty and malnutrition.

**Chapter 3** presents rural development and agriculture policies and legislation that have since been approved, enacted and executed by the South African government in the quest of fighting landlessness and rural poverty. The policies and legislation are seen as enablers to achieve the end state of rural development. The chapter further gives insight into the formation of a dedicated department for rural development and land affairs. The ECRDS as a policy response to national government development initiatives is further summarised.

**Chapter 4** is about the research theory, presenting the research design applied in the study and the research approach used. The research methodology is highlighted in the chapter together with the sampling technique and data collection methods used in the study. Finally, the data is analysed.

**Chapter 5** details the research findings as they relate to the implementation of the pillar of agrarian transformation and food security as presented in the ECRDS. The findings are based on data engaged and analysed. Concluding remarks and recommendations in **Chapter 6** are based on findings in this chapter.

## 1.10. SUMMARY

The brief background of the province detailing the extent of problems faced by the province and its rural citizens demonstrated the magnitude of challenges facing the Eastern Cape. This chapter presented a brief synopsis of South Africa's past land ownership and tenure system where the most are still residing in the impoverished rural areas. Rural livelihoods of the black people in the rural areas pre-colonialism and post-colonialism up to the apartheid era were built around subsistence agriculture. Through the 1913 Land Act, the black people were dispossessed of their land and pushed into the reserves in the homelands in the land administered by the traditional authorities. Post 1994 dispensation, the South African administration developed a number of strategies and legislation aimed at addressing rural poverty and underdevelopment as it became clear that the agricultural sector had to be transformed, hence emphasis is placed on changing the land ownership status quo.

The 2011 census report tells of a dire situation in the Eastern Cape that should trigger immediate responses. As such, the current focus of the Eastern Cape government is on changing the socio-economic landscape of the rural areas by implementing rural development projects. Successful implementation of rural development will mean improvement of rural livelihoods by dealing with the challenges of poverty, unemployment and underdevelopment faced by the rural communities in the Eastern Cape. The chapter highlighted the motivation of the study, identified the research problem, formulated the research questions, presented the aim and objectives of the study, and discussed the ethical considerations under which the study was conducted and finally the structure of the study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1. INTRODUCTION**

The chapter explores literature relating to the study, as literature is a valuable source of knowledge. The documentation utilised for this study comprises sources on development, rural development, sustainable development, agriculture development and food security, integrated planning, government legislations on rural development and agriculture, strategic plans and policy speeches of the DRDAR.

#### **2.2. DEVELOPMENT**

According to Mabogunje, (2015: 35) “in literature, the primary role of economic forces in bringing about the development of society has often been taken as axiomatic, so that development and economic development have come to be regarded as synonymous”. It is further advanced by Mabogunje that in 1969, Seers broadened the concept of development to go beyond economic growth to also include food security, availability of employment opportunities, and that income inequality gap is reduced (Mabogunje, 2015: 35). Measuring country’s development was to be based on probing success on three aspect: poverty, unemployment, and inequality. In instances where the high levels have declined or are declining that means the country is developing (Mabogunje, 2015: 35).

The concepts of development (positive) and underdevelopment (negative) are has been existing and it keeps evolving over time as influenced by global developments. The concept development can be traced back to a speech presented by the then President of United States, Truman. Truman’s speech brought about a new paradigm shift in the world as he called for the United States to initiate a programme that will ensure that it shares its scientific breakthroughs and industrial evolution with the rest of the world in order to stimulate development of the underdeveloped countries (Kutor, 2014:15).

According to Todaro and Smith in Kutor (2014:15) “development must therefore be conceived of as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty”. Based on this definition of development, Kutor (2015: 16) then concludes that development in his personal opinion has to do with qualitative and quantitative development in all facet of human effort ranging from economic, political, cultural, environmental, and social factors. Later on as we still witness today, United States used its power and influence to dominate and impose its ethos to the rest of the world. Therefore one can argue that development was initially more about accumulating more wealth for the superpowers in the West and there was no consideration of the human or social aspect and that has since changed as we see more donor aid coming from the West. However these attempts have been met with huge resistance particularly by the Socialist bloc up until its collapse in the 1980’s.

For any development agenda to succeed, it should recognise cultural, ethnic and national diversity. The development intended for the rural poor should be done in consultation with the community structures and traditional authorities as there are cultural aspects that should be respected and observed. Therefore, for any development to succeed, it should be localised to embrace the socio-economic conditions of the community.

Another related development was the recognition of civil society organisations (CSOs) as important components in delivering social services and in social accountability. The demand of evident change in the lives of the people on the ground in development projects strengthens the significance of refining monitoring and evaluation systems, to improve accountability and transparency. Organised, active and participating citizens are able to influence service delivery by taking charge for delivery, contracting, or involvement in the governance of provision of services. Communities no longer want to be observers of their development as they are now taking charge and even holding government accountable in instances where they feel marginalised.

### 2.3. RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Rural development is a subset of the broader field of development, which has followed the general trends of development. Given the comparison of industrialisation with development in the 1950s and 1960s, the development assistance given during that time was predominantly more focused on growing hasty industrialisation, regardless of the economic or social context. However, in the 1970s, this approach was changing as natural resource endowments were becoming more important as means of outsourcing natural resource management and non-profitable elements of primary production (Greenberg, 2003: 6).

As with development in general, rural development began as a technology-driven and top-down imposition onto different culture and economies. Greenberg (2003: 7) states that “[t]he focus of World Bank interventions in rural areas was on the construction of large dams that often failed to provide water to local farmers, and that have a disastrous record of displacing people from their lands”. Notably, rural development is of great significance for agricultural growth as well as reducing poverty in developing countries. Rural development, goes beyond agricultural development it is about improving livelihoods of the rural poor. Rural development’s key focus is to ensure that rural poor generate household income and in turn uplift their livelihoods. Furthermore, rural development must facilitate resource allocation for rural communities, secure access to basic needs such as health, education and food security (World Bank, 2011: 31). Therefore rural development must be seen as an enabler in improving rural livelihoods.

Although rural development policies covers a range of objectives, ranging from environmental protection, the main focus in many countries is on the economic ability of rural communities. Within that context, successful rural development is measured by outputs and outcomes such as access to basic services, low poverty rates, high income levels and low unemployment rates, “[y]et, it is hard to put a weight on each” (Midmore, Partridge, *et al.* 2010: 25). At first, development and related assistance was focused on expanding industrialisation regardless of the economic or social context. However, in the 1970s, the attitude changed and during this period natural resource endowments

were considered crucial. This, in turn, prompted an emphasis on agriculture and rural development (Greenberg, 2003: 3).

South Africa has a dualistic agrarian structure that is divided along racial lines. This reality came as the result of the past legal-administrative and social division of rural areas into commercial farming owned by whites and communal areas owned by the state and administered by the then tribal authorities. Greenberg (2003: 13) sheds more light on this as follows:

“Before the re-emergence of popular resistance after the thrilling repression of the 1960s, little consideration was given to the basic needs of the black population. Official government commissions throughout this time identified extreme poverty and lack of resources for productive activity in the reserves as key threats to the continued functioning of the segregationist system” (Greenberg, March 2003: 13).

As a result of growing mass resistance in the 1970s, the South African government began to provide basic infrastructure and services to some areas of black people. All these efforts of gradually providing services to some areas with the aim of breaking resistance and opposition to apartheid rule had failed and by the end of apartheid most rural areas were still facing huge infrastructure backlogs and lack of basic services. “Cronyism and nepotism were rife, with white consultants and black administrators and politicians making huge profits off the imposition of large-scale infrastructure schemes particularly in agriculture and water supply” (Greenberg, 2003: 14). The beneficiaries these schemes never participated nor consulted in the planning and identification of their local infrastructure and services and that resulted to building of unsuitable and unwanted infrastructure (Greenberg, 2003: 14).

“Many rural development policies have focused on agriculture (or other primary sectors) with objectives of competitiveness, diversification, and food safety, or on land or resources, typically targeting environmental protection and land-use optimisation. However, a place-based rural policy focusing on rural communities and population would have a different focus – supporting entrepreneurship, providing rural infrastructure

(transportation, communication), adequate public services, promoting diversification, and facilitating access to markets and information flows in a way that is place appropriate” (Midmore, Partridge *et al.*, 2010: 25).

The kind of development required in the rural areas is a sustainable development that will have an impact on the lives of the people long after the development agencies and government have pulled out, thus benefiting generations to come. Sustainable development can be defined as “a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. [This] definition also highlights the need for the integration of the economic, ecological and social impacts of development” (Sharma & Ruud, 2003: 205). Therefore, any kind of rural development programme that is implemented must focus on embracing the key components of sustainable development. Sustainable development advocates for the involvement of those who are affected by or stand to benefit from a particular development during the design and execution of developmental programme.

While most rural households are engaged in farming activities for their survival, they are also largely influenced or affected by a range of economic activities that lie beyond the agricultural sphere. Therefore, within rural areas, there are other economic activities like commercial trading enterprises that serve immediate local needs as well as generate income for households through non-farm activities. The other source of income for rural communities is off-farm employment, usually outside the local communities in the small towns or in big cities working as migrant labours in the factories and mines, some stay in these other areas closer to work and only go home during vacations, while others commute on daily basis and there are those who never came back to their rural homes.

These migration patterns from rural areas have more and more become an important phenomenon of a livelihood strategy that often changes gender roles and responsibilities for those remaining behind as women bear increased labour. However, migration and extra work outside agriculture can also stimulate rural development and improve livelihoods and well-being of rural households and communities through remittances which can be used for household needs (e.g. purchase of fertilisers, pesticides, farm equipment, food, clothing, school fees, health fees and construction) (Hill, 2011: 14). According to Hill (2011: 14), “[r]ural men and women often migrate

in search of economic opportunities, better infrastructure, and for better chances of acquiring land and other assets”. Agriculture is therefore not the only backbone of a rural economy. Instead, there are other non-farm or off-farm activities that contribute to the rural livelihoods and economy. For the Eastern Cape government to address rural development, there is a need to support non-farm agriculture in the form of agri-parks and agro-processing industries within the value chain. As not all rural households partake in agriculture, non-farm and off-farm work is crucial to their survival.

Should rural areas be developed in terms of agricultural activities and a non-farm rural economy, they might serve as the source of employment to local communities and reduce urban migration and family disintegrations due to the migrant labour system. Other theories around rural development argue that within the rural development discourse and rhetoric, the building of a rural economy is frequently associated with the continual introduction of new, non-agricultural enterprises (Van der Ploeg, Renting, Brunari, Knickel, Mannion, Marsden, De Roest, Sevilla-Guzma'n & Ventura, 2000: 401). “There is an entrenched assumption that [the] agricultural sector is incapable of generating rural renewal. Rural development process[es] can involve many different actors[. W]e reject the notion that rural development can only proceed through the expropriation of agriculture” (Van der Ploeg, Renting, Brunori, Knickel, *et al.*, 2000: 401).

Van der Ploeg, Renting, Brunori, Knickel, *et al.*, (2000: 391) argue that in the recent theories, many scientists are finding it difficult to understand the new model of rural development that is emerging in both policy and practice. Rural development paradigm has replaced the modernisation paradigm that once dominated policy, practice and theory. Rural development is said to be a multi-level process rooted in historical traditions. At all levels, rural development has emerged as a chain of responses to the paradigm of modernisation (Van der Ploeg, Renting, Brunori, Knickel, *et al.*, 2000: 391-393). The first level is that of the global interrelations between agriculture and society, which advocates realignment of agriculture to meet fast-changing needs of society. Rural development is also understood as the new agricultural development model. Rural development is multi-faceted in nature and it occurs through many different and sometimes interconnected practices and it is inclusive of landscape management, the conversation of new nature values, agri-tourism, organic farming and

production of high quality products. In essence, rural development is about strengthening the rural economy by introducing non-agricultural enterprises and alignment of rural resources, land, labour, nature, eco-systems, animals, plants, craftsmanship, networks, market partners, and town-village relations (Van der Ploeg, Renting, Brunori, Knickel, *et al.*, 2000: 398).

After the second decade of democracy in South Africa, there are rural communities that have not yet experienced development of any kind, where children still walk long distances to schools, people share water with the animals in the streams, having travelled kilometres to fetch such water, and they do not have any recreational facilities or access to roads. It is in these rural areas where the sick are driven in wheel barrows to the nearest access roads and are still faced by long distances in order to access healthcare facilities. With these prevailing realities, one is tempted to argue that the majority of rural communities need services and that these services can be accessed easily through rural development initiatives.

After 1994, there was a move to transform the state and its institutions in order to provide comprehensive service delivery to all citizens of the Republic of South Africa, aimed at sustainable development and livelihoods. The critical question in addressing sustainable livelihoods is to assess how far we have advanced rural development through service delivery that is participatory. On that note, one is tempted to argue that for any development to be successful, there is a need for a broader consultation and participation by those communities for whom the development is intended. Development should be people driven, whereby communities are playing an active role in setting their own developmental agenda instead of seeking solutions from the state.

Since 1994, South Africa has been on the development path trying to reverse the imbalances created by the apartheid rule through development programmes aimed at creating sustainable livelihoods and eradicating poverty. Mubangizi, in Van Rooyen, & Peet. (1997: 6) argues that in the South African context “two macro-policy frameworks have shaped the environment within which social development and anti-poverty programmes have operated. These are [the] Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) as well as the Growth, Employment and Redistribution [Programme] (GEAR)”. The RDP’s policy framework acknowledges that development should be

people-centred, taking into consideration the need for popular participation in identification, planning, implementation and monitoring of community-level development programmes (ANC, 1994: 138-139). With the majority of people marginalised into underserviced areas out of the cities where they are excluded from the benefits of urban life, the government attention was to ensure that such imbalances are overturned and rural development is enhanced.

Rural Development is a combination of programmes meant to improve rural areas where the population is largely engaged in agriculture. Activities involved in rural development range from resource mobilization in the form of human and material in order to empower rural communities to be at the level where they are exposed to better living conditions. Packaged development schemes will enable them to break away from all structural disabilities posed by virtue of living in the rural periphery (Kakumba & Nsingo, 2008: 110). According to Kakumba & Nsingo (2008: 110), the poor tend to define their plight in terms of lack of basic needs such as food, housing, clothing, healthcare and education. Effective rural development interventions must be able to address the plight of the rural poor thereby affording them access to basic services and resources.

Wahl (1998: 103) attributes urban bias to the powerlessness of the rural communities relative to other groups who have access to essential information and basic services. He argues that intense rural poverty is one of the most continual social problems apparent in developing nations and other development scholars' believe that the distinctive pattern of international and domestic forces which demonstrates dependent capitalism has hindered the welfare programmes for the rural people as it favours urban dwellers (Wahl, 1998: 104). A workable rural development strategy should be based on multi-pronged, coordinated and effective government initiatives that are decisive enough to make a real difference to the capacity of disadvantaged rural people. No sudden, miraculous change can occur and the rural areas will remain relatively deprived for years to come. We therefore advocate that high priority should be placed on the effective delivery of services, health and education to rural people and that the ability of rural people to represent their interests be enhanced. Such interventions will allow rural people to become more productive members of society and give them a better chance of using the economic opportunities that come their way. However, expanding

the number and the quality of such opportunities remains the most important, and the most difficult, challenge for an effective rural transformation. A higher rate of economic growth and investment in labour-intensive production should be achieved nationally in order to expand both the employment and the accumulation opportunities available to rural people (Delius & Schirmer, 2001: 25).

#### **2.4. SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

Having discussed theories on development and rural development, it is worth outlining what kind of development is envisaged. “In 1920, Arthur Pigou noted that the presence of incidental, uncharged services act as a barrier to achieving equilibrium in the market” (Emas, 2015:1). Early theorists had argued that environment protection policies can in turn stimulate innovations and offer economic spinoffs. According to Micheal Porter and Claas van de Linde in Emas (2015: 1) pollution was identified as one of the environmental degradation acts, where resources are not used efficiently. These theorists called for production innovations that will reduce pollution and promote competitiveness. Suitable formulated environmental policies, where market rewards are offered for best practices can promote technological innovations yielding to pollution reduction (Emas, 2015:1).

As much as development lays the foundation for, improved infrastructure, employment opportunities, healthcare and active participation in the broader local economy, such development must be sustainable. The evolution of the concept of sustainable development can be traced back in 1987 in the World Commission on Environment and Development (WECD) also referred as Brundtland report. The theme of the report was “Our Common Future”, therefore, meaning sustainable development is the development that ensures the needs of the current generation are met without impacting on the needs of the future generations (Barcus, 2014: 129). Weinberg in Burcus (2014: 130) argues that sustainability is made up of three components such as, social equity, environmental stewardship, and economic vitality. “This development also, ideally, maintains the ecological or environmental integrity of an area and provides sufficient economic growth to benefit the community without impairing the environment or local people” (Barcus, 2014: 130). Therefore, given this definition one has to acknowledge that human species and animals are dependent of on earth and its resources for their

survival. However, biblically the human species was given the authority and power over everything that is on earth, and therefore has to take decisions that will ensure preservation of the natural resources by protecting environment and efficient ecological systems.

The inherent drive of sustainable development is to, over a long-term stabilise the economy and the environment by making policy decisions that consider the economic, environmental, and social apprehensions (Emas, 2015: 2). As we seek to transform and empower rural communities through agriculture and non-farm economy we should promote environmental friendly agricultural practises, soil and veld preservation methods.

## **2.5. AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND FOOD SECURITY**

Most of Sub-Saharan Africa's population lives in rural areas, where poverty and deficiencies are most glaring. Given the large contribution of agriculture to the overall economy this sector is expected to be a key factor of growth and development in rural areas as almost all rural households are directly or indirectly dependent on agriculture (Diao, Hazell & Resnick *et al.* 2007: 1). It is upon this background that one cannot talk of rural development without talking about agriculture. Agriculture ought to be the enabler for growth and development, but that is not the case in Africa and South Africa, and the Eastern Cape in particular. This is confirmed by Diao. *et al.* (2007: 1) where they state that "whereas agriculture[-]led growth played an important role in slashing poverty and transforming the economies of many Asian and Latin American countries, the same has not occurred in Africa. Most African countries have not yet met the criteria for a successful agricultural revolution, and factor productivity in African agriculture lags far behind [...] the rest of the world".

Agriculture's role in the development and improvement of rural livelihoods continues is in a downwards spiral in the Eastern Cape, and many households are no longer attracted to agriculture as they are now depended on employment in the cities and government pensions. This notion is supported by Henbinch & Lent (2007: 33) who argue that "the nature of land-based activities in the Eastern Cape has changed significantly during the past two centuries, [which is in] stark contrast to pre-colonial

times, when agriculture and other activities based on the utilisation of natural resources were at the centre of people's livelihoods. Nowadays, their livelihoods revolve largely around migratory labour, remittances and social pensions”.

For South Africa, the 1994 democratic dispensation laid the foundation for democracy and transformation of governance and government institutions. The tone for a transformative agenda was consequently set. The agricultural sector was not immune to this transformative discourse. The post 1994 political breakthrough marked a move from social, economic and political exclusion of the black majority and therefore, laid a potential platform for inclusion of the previous disadvantaged people (Viljoen, 2005: 2-3). The South African Constitution provides a legal framework for citizens to access sufficient and nutritious food as a basic human right. The constitution further mandates government to develop appropriate legislation and support mechanisms to ensure that the basic food needs of all people in South Africa are met. Based on these constitutional rights, government working with other role players is expected to play a meaningful role in ensuring that South African citizens are food secured. However, for this to happen, there is a need to redress the imbalances of the past, hence the government is now advocating agrarian transformation. There is a need for a transformed agricultural sector in the country with a maximum participation of subsistence farmers in the main agricultural economy.

The transformation of agriculture and rural areas should be based on the inclusion of black smallholder farmers in the mainstream economy. Industrialisation and massive investment in the agricultural sector could transform rural production through agro-processing. The end results will be the absorption of labour by increasing productivity in the sector. This transformation is important for rural communities, as it will bring about food security and change the outlook of this primary sector currently characterised by subsistence farming. Through these progressive initiatives, poverty can be decreased by decreasing expenditure on food, thereby increasing income (Eastern Cape Socio Economic Review and Outlook, 2011: 136).

The Eastern Cape is faced with a number of challenges such as underdevelopment, high unemployment, high dependency ratios, high poverty levels and a skewed economic structure. It is argued that the province is more than 60 percent rural and yet its economy

is driven by the tertiary sector, with a total contribution of more than 70 per cent to the economy, which poses a serious anomaly. Therefore, there is a dire need to streamline the provincial economy. For starters, the Eastern Cape should exploit its natural resource comparative advantage such as land endowment and favourable climatic conditions. The primary sector of the province should be revived and more investment is required in market-oriented agricultural infrastructure. The province's sector-related infrastructure programme should be the support of on-farm production (irrigation, energy, transportation, and pre- and post-harvest storage), ensure proficient trading and exchange (telecommunications and covered markets), add value to the domestic economy (agro-processing and packaging facilities), and support produce to move rapidly and efficiently from farm gate to processing facilities, and on to wholesalers (transportation and bulk storage) Eastern Cape Department of Economic Development and Environmental affairs and Eastern Cape Provincial Treasury, 2001: viii).

A transformed agriculture will lay a solid foundation for the implementation of food security interventions as advocated by the Constitution. This is confirmed by the Department of Agriculture (2002:15-17), in their definition of “[f]ood security policy [as] a set of government interventions, both direct and indirect, that are used to promote the agriculture and food sector objectives by influencing the organisational and economic environment within which the food system functions” and “[f]ood security ... as physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food by all South Africans at all times to meet their dietary and food preferences for an active and healthy life”.

High levels of poverty and number of food insecure households continues to escalate in Africa and that is also noticeable in the Eastern Cape, where the province is amongst the poorest provinces in the country with 55 people aged 14-55 out 100 having no income (ECSECC, Demographic Indicators Census: 1996; 2001; 2011: 5-6). “Food insecurity is one of the most important challenges of our times. While food insecurity is pervasive, it is highly concentrated and persistent in sub-Saharan Africa and South and Southeast Asian countries” (Triomphe, Waters-Bayer, Klerkx, Schut, Cullen, Kamau, & Le Borgne. 2014: 38). This demonstrates that the sub-Saharan Africa, South and Southeast Asian countries are the hardest hit by food insecurity amongst the nations of the world and there is a need to focus any aid and interventions in these countries.

Since the UN Millennium Development Goals were set, there has been a flow of global attention to international and national interventions, research, humanitarianism and development to improve agriculture and food systems aimed at promoting food security. As a result, important information about social, economic and environmental baselines, definitions of methodological approaches, implementation of field activities, refining of monitoring and evaluation systems as well as project impact reviews has been generated (Triomphe *et al.*, 2014: 38).

Food insecurity is directly linked to food availability and interrelated to income generation and ownership of capital assets. The dual agricultural support system fulfilled by the defunct regimes degraded the bulk of the agriculture land in the Eastern Cape, aggravated by nearly 80% of the country's population trapped on less than 13% of the country's land. Agrarian reform programmes implemented so far in the province are not radical enough and have not impacted significantly on poverty and food insecurity. The availability of food does not translate to poverty reduction and food secured households, people need to have access to land, get employment opportunities in order to generate income, buy food and agricultural inputs. Globally there is plenty of food being produced, surpassing the demand, however, hunger and malnutrition remains. In essence food availability or its abundance does not necessarily address hunger and poverty, there must be means to buy food in the form of household income (Csaki, & de Haan, 2003:6). Therefore, there is a need to support household food producers, smallholder farmers and developing farmers to access markets in an effort to derive livelihoods from farming activities so they can be able to generate income, provide job opportunities to locals who in turn will be able to buy food and become food secured. Those who are not producers should be able to secure employment related to production activities whether at production level or processing level.

Food security is also hampered by climate change that has over the past years been seen as a threat to agricultural output and food security, as less rainfall could damage rain-fed agriculture and cause droughts. In order to respond to challenges posed by climate change farmers need to explore various farming methods and use of drought resistant seedlings "Adapting to the changing climate is, hence, a necessity for African farmers. New crop varieties that are more draught resistant and greater investment in irrigation systems are needed" (World Bank, 2011: 20).

The current food security problems in South Africa consist of two dimensions, number one being to maintain and increase South Africa's ability to meet its national food requirements and number two being the elimination of inequalities and poverty among households that are made obvious by inadequate and unstable food production, lack of purchasing power, poor nutritional status and weak institutional support networks and disaster management systems. Therefore, in order to ensure sustainable food production there is a need to improve the living conditions of the rural communities by assisting especially small farmers in enhancing agricultural productivity and their incomes and to provide access to land (Department of Environmental affairs and Tourism, 2008: 10). According to Kenyon (2013:5) "reasons for the low levels of agricultural production in the former bantustan areas include very high population densities (120 persons per square km in OR Tambo DM compared to 7 in Cacadu) and the social issues arising from such densities, the breakdown of traditional institutions, skills and practices for village production, unreliable climatic conditions, and the availability of basic foodstuffs at competitive prices from major retail chains". Therefore access to sizeable land and government assistance will ensure that farmers produce optimally while ensuring that the Province is food secured.

A lot of farmers in the developing countries are small scale producers with little patches of land or hectares. In order to improve their income generated from agriculture production, there is a need to increase the farm size. Increasing farm size will ensure that they are able to access credit and in turn purchase modern mechanisation to enhance their production (World Bank, 2011: 24).

Although institutional progress has been made in ensuring that South Africa becomes a food secure nation, there are still some challenges that should be addressed through capacity-building initiatives. These challenges include:

- ▶ Mobilising civil society to implement agricultural projects;
- ▶ Ensuring that there is integrated planning among government departments in terms of project and programme implementation; and
- ▶ Improving institutional capacity to implement existing projects and programmes (Department of Environmental affairs and Tourism, 2008: 9-10).

## 2.6. INTEGRATED PLANNING

For any country to achieve economic growth, socioeconomic development, address service delivery and infrastructure backlogs in the rural areas, there is a need for a comprehensive and dynamic integrated planning and resource allocation process. All sectors contributing to socio-economic growth must be well managed and integrated through planning in order to reduce duplication and working in silos. In turn integrated planning can generate savings for the government. All government departments, state institutions, and other important role players must work together in order to realise sustainable development (CSIR, 2011: 4).

Successful implementation of government programmes requires concerted efforts by all role players in executing government plans towards rural development. In the context of rural development in 2001, the South African government introduced Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) aimed at transforming rural communities through empowerment and resource mobilisation. Notable, ISRDS calls for rural communities to be central in their development as masters and mistresses of their destiny, be able to participate and benefit in the economy country's economy.

At a local government level communities are required to participate in municipal activities, as well as preparing, implementing and reviewing the Integrated Development Plans (IDP's). Through Municipal Systems Act, IDP process is positioned a key strategic planning tool that must inform decision making, planning and management of development initiatives implemented by the municipality (Eglin & Ngamlana, 2015: 35-36). "The IDP is seen as the opportunity and platform to ensure that local interests are captured and acted on. Therefore, IDPs that appear generic replicas may be an indication that the participation process has not been successful" (Eglin & Ngamlana, 2015: 36)

Integrated planning, will ensure that resources are drawn together to facilitate development and service delivery while avoiding duplication. The success of the rural development strategy is dependent on integrated planning. Therefore, "service delivery in terms of expanding, improving and maintaining infrastructure such as houses, roads,

rail networks, health facilities and other facilities is a national priority and must be planned and achieved without forfeiting environmental sustainability” (CSIR, 2011: 4). “Given the complex and multi-faceted nature of rural poverty, the required interventions to address rural under-development are also complex, needing to be multi-sectoral and integrated in nature. The multi-sectoral nature of such interventions, however, raises real challenges of alignment and coordination at a number of levels and between different role-players” (The Public Service Commission, 2009: ii). It is worth noting that managing integration of various sectors towards unified rural development agenda requires zeal and determination due to its complex nature coupled with conflict of interests amongst role players and political dynamics.

Gwanya (1989: 5) argues that rural development planners and decision-makers should recognise that there are a number of actors in rural development spaces. Key to these actors are government departments, state entities, non-governmental organisations, the private sector and, most importantly, the rural communities themselves. For rural development to succeed, plans, policies, programmes and projects of the various actors should be coordinated at all levels. Permanent and continuing rural development will only take place where rural people are involved in the planning, implementation and evaluation of their own development.

The requirement for the development that caters for the best interest of a community in a democracy is a well-thought out policy. All stakeholders should be consulted in the development policies centred on the interest of the beneficiaries or communities and be resolute, implemented and upheld to the satisfaction of all the participants. Aziz (1980: 99) argues that “the main objective of rural development is to organise, develop and utilise the available resources in terms of land, water and manpower for the benefit of the entire rural population who are dependent on these resources and have an equal (or at least equitable) opportunity to meet, as a minimum, their basic needs for food, clothing and shelter with reasonable amenities for education and health and can live together in a positive and healthy social environment”.

Mutual and key to the approaches to rural development between extended and integrated rural development is participation by local people in their own rural development (Gwanya, 1989: 3). Community participation is a means of coping with

the problem of scale, resource scarcity and adaption of development efforts to the local socio-economic environment. For the implementation of extended rural development to succeed, it should be thorough in the use of resources, local information and local organisations. Gwanya (1989: 4) further argues that “[p]eople’s involvement and high quality of life is attainable only if Integrated Rural Development is considered as a continuous concern, commanding direct political support and day-to-day involvement of rural people”. The policy and strategies should be agreed upon at the national (head office) level, but even more so at the regional, district and local levels. The rural development actors should consider themselves “equal” and partners in rural development and at no stage should one feel superior to the other Gwanya (1989: 5).

Communities must play a leading role in shaping their development and therefore they should play an active role in programme initiation and implementation. Failure to involve the community can lead to a failure of that government initiative. In the end, by involving people in their own development ensures sustainability and acknowledgement of responsibilities and builds self-dependence. Therefore, for rural development to be sustainable and its objectives to be met, all stakeholders involved should work together and have a common vision. The activities and efforts of all role players in the rural development space who share the same vision and objectives should be coordinated as a means of preserving scarce resources.

## **2.7. PROGRAMME IMPLEMENTATION EVALUATION**

The theories on development discussed above, leads us to the next theory, that of implementation evaluation. Development is the end product of programme or policy implementation and it is only when such programmes achieve the expected outcomes that we may say development has taken place. Therefore, there is a need to continuously or periodical carry out implementation evaluation on developmental programmes and policies. The objective of an implementation evaluation is to find out how a policy, project or programme is working, and how it can be enhanced (DPME, 2014: 2).

According to DPME (2014: 1) the National Evaluation Policy Framework (NEPF, 2011) implementation evaluation as an analysis of programme delivery in terms of

processes, procedures, and strategies. Implementation evaluation is able shed light as to what is going on in practice, how, and why it is happening.

Implementation evaluation can be initiated at any given time during programme execution, as a stand-alone evaluation, as part of a number of evaluations, or as one element of an impact or economic appraisal (DPME, 2014: 1).

“Implementation can be generally defined as the ways a programme is put into practice and delivered to participants. In other words, implementation refers to what a programme looks like in reality compared with what a programme is conceived to be in theory” (Durlak, 2016: 334). Literature reveals that this differentiation is imperative because the level of implementation that is attained when programmes or policies are actual implemented is different from the envisaged (Durlak, 2016: 334). The deviation may result from a number of reasons ranging from new government priorities, non-availability of skills and expertise, politics, social dynamics, leadership, religious beliefs, availability of resources, and climate change. All these factors and others can affect the desired implementation in a major way. Durlak (2016: 335) argues that implementation is a multi-dimensional concept consisting of the following eight components:

- (a) “Fidelity: the extent to which the major components of the programme have been faithfully delivered.
- (b) Dosage: how much of the programme is delivered?
- (c) Quality of delivery: how well or competently is the programme conducted?
- (d) Adaptation: what changes, if any, are made to the original program?
- (e) Participant responsiveness or engagement: to what degree does the programme attract participants’ attention and actively involve them in the intervention?
- (f) Programme differentiation: in what ways is the programme unique compared with other interventions?
- (g) Monitoring of control conditions: in what ways might the control condition mirror or overlap with critical parts of the new programme?
- (h) Programme reach: how much of the eligible population participated in the intervention?” (Durlak, 2016: 335).

Given the eight components of implementation, highlighted above it is now clear that implementation determines programme outcomes, and therefore, we cannot precisely deduce any programme outcomes without establishing as to what degree was implementation accomplished. This is imperative in instances where programme has not yielded the desired outcomes because of poor implementation. The failure of a specific programme does not mean that, such a programme cannot be successful if it is effectively implemented in the same environment or elsewhere. Measuring implementation is equally important even on successful programmes, as findings may reveal the level of implementation that was needed to achieve the desired outcomes and further propose actions to be taken to better improve implementation (Durlak, 2016: 336).

## 2.8. SURMMARY

This chapter provided a review of the relevant literature and theory and sought to respond to the research questions of this study pertaining to the evolution of rural development in the Eastern Cape. Rural development and transformed agriculture are highlighted as pillars of improved sustainable rural livelihoods. From the literature engaged with in this chapter, it is evident that rural development can never be implemented in isolation to agriculture and that there is still a long way to go as the backlogs in the Eastern Cape are dire. Whilst promoting agriculture as means of ensuring households' incomes and food security in the province and the country, there is a need to promote other non-farm activities within the rural space. Such development should be sustainable and driven by the beneficiaries, namely the rural communities themselves.

Any development supported must carried out in such a way that it is sustainable through environmental and natural resource protection practices, in this way future generations will still be able to meet their own needs for survival and growth. Development should be a concerted effort, and therefore, all development agencies, state institutions, communities and NGO's must collectively plan development programmes in order to realise meaningful impact. Implementation evaluation is a tool best suitable for this study as it defines programme outcomes, and the study cannot quite gather any programme outcomes without establishing as to at what level was implementation achieved.

Finally, it is also evident that the successful implementation of the ECRDS requires mobilisation of resources, collective efforts from all state actors and the entire civil society, and continuous development review of developmental, environmental and land policies. These policies must promote and enforce integrated planning by all sectors in the development space.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RURAL DEVELOPMENT POLICY FRAMEWORK AND LEGISLATION CONTEXT**

#### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

As discussed in chapters 1 and 2, rural development and agriculture contribute towards poverty alleviation and creation of job opportunities for the rural poor. Rural development can only be realised fully through implementation of agriculture and food security programmes. The ECRDS pillar of agrarian transformation and food security is meant to reduce poverty and transform the agricultural sector. This chapter firstly unpacks rural development opportunities and challenges facing the country and the Eastern Cape. The government's response to these challenges has been through the creation of enabling legislative and policy frameworks. Finally, this chapter demonstrates how the Eastern Cape government has heeded the call of rural development by developing and adopting the ECRDS ("Ilima Labantu"). In doing this, the ECRDS and its objectives are summarised.

#### **3.2. CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA AND THE EASTERN CAPE IN PARTICULAR**

Productive economy is on the decline in the rural areas and that raises more concerns as rural areas are a home to 40 percent of South Africa's national population. According to National Planning Commission in Rogerson (2014: 213) rural areas cannot be relegated to places of social production and retirement, as they have a potential for growth and expansion particularly around transportation corridors. "The major challenges of rural areas are considered to be poor or lack of access to socio-economic infrastructure and services, public amenities and government services coupled with lack of access to water or lack of water sources for both household and agricultural development" (Rogerson, 2014 : 212).

The introduction of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is seen as a new policy direction since 1994 democratic dispensation, development paradigm for rural areas was based on the assumption that urban development would automatically

flow into the rural areas (Rogerson, 2014: 2011). This now tells why there has been a neglect of rural areas as they continue to experience infrastructure backlogs, poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment.

Rural development and policy design in South Africa are premised on the acknowledgment that South Africa is a country that was in the past racially segregated with policies favouring the white community at the time. The pre and post 1994 policy dispensation resulted in a dual agricultural sector, namely one white commercial sector and one black subsistence sector largely in the communal areas of the former homelands (Ciskei and Transkei). Therefore, any policy design should strive to redress the imbalances of the past. As stated in the literature review, the same can be said about urban areas that are much better off compared to rural areas. Both pre and post 1994 service delivery and development policies have largely benefited the urban population while rural communities were abandoned until recently. Therefore, policy interventions should be collective efforts by all sectors of our society and should be underpinned by integrated planning and stakeholder involvement.

The imbalances of the past have left a painful mark in the Province. These imbalances go beyond the racial issues, they are also determined by one's location within the Eastern Cape with people residing in the former homelands still facing abject poverty and underdevelopment. The province remains spatially imbalanced, with rural poor affected the most particularly in the rural east and north-east – the former homelands. The spatial disparity in the province and the glaring underdevelopment of its rural regions where the majority of Eastern Cape citizens live, the province's long-term plan prioritises rural development as key to sustainable development (Eastern Cape Planning Commission 2014: 6). The Eastern Cape provincial government together with its stakeholders drafted a Provincial Development Plan that is informed by consultations, research and diagnostic overview of the Eastern Cape), which came up with an exhaustive report that includes data and analysis describing the focal challenges facing the Eastern Cape, as well as aspects and accomplishments to build upon (Eastern Cape Planning Commission, 2014: 3).

This study identified the following challenges facing the Eastern Cape:

- ▶ **Too few people in the province work** and this largely affects the already socio-economically miserable rural areas.
- ▶ **The standard of education for most black learners is poor**, particularly affecting those from poor backgrounds.
- ▶ **Infrastructure is poorly located, under maintained and insufficient** to foster higher growth and spatial transformation. The shortages, or unavailability, range from access roads, health services, bulk infrastructure and energy. In turn, there is no growth in rural regions regardless of infrastructure budget increment from R2.3 billion in 2005/06 to R6.2 billion in 2011/12.
- ▶ **Spatial patterns exclude the poor from development.** Unequal land ownership arrangements stemming from Apartheid still persist and aggravate stresses on tenure arrangements and production levels in the province. The two metros in the province (Nelson Mandela Bay and Buffalo City municipalities) where white-owned farms make up the bulk of provincial agriculture output contribute 65.5 per cent of gross value added (GVA) in the Eastern Cape economy while combined the other thirty-seven (37) municipalities contribute 34.4 per cent.
- ▶ **The economy is overly and unsustainably resource intensive**, over-relying on the motor manufacturing and small manufacturing sector and as a result the province's economy largely relies on government's services surpassing the national average trend.
- ▶ **A widespread disease burden is compounded by a failing public health system**, resulting in noticeable low life expectancy and high maternal mortality. This is further complicated by low work ethos among healthcare workers, dispersed settlements, poor infrastructure, poverty and other hostile socioeconomic conditions facing particularly the rural poor. There is always a relationship between poverty and opportunistic diseases.
- ▶ **Public services are uneven and often of poor quality** due to poor administration, unprofessionalism, underperformance and a lack of integrated coordination of government services.
- ▶ **Corruption is widespread**, which continues to cripple the already poorly performing economy and public service.

- ▶ **South Africa remains a divided society**, many people are still landless and excluded from the economy. (Eastern Cape Planning Commission, 2014: 6-7).

### 3.2.1. Opportunities

- ▶ The Eastern Cape has immense resources that give it a competitive advantage. These include water, biodiversity and a widespread coastline area of over 800km along the Indian Ocean with huge potential for an ocean economy, as well as mineral and energy resources. The prospective for agriculture and forestry also remains underexplored. The province has arable, comparatively well-watered land that is not fully utilised. Arable fields, especially those under the hands of the previously disadvantaged farmers, are used mainly for grazing due to a lack of capital to make the necessary land improvements for lucrative farming. Although farming in the former homelands has been on the decline since the 1920s, there are still over 500 000 farmers who produce about 10 percent of their household food requirements in homestead gardens. Therefore, this is an opportunity that can be exploited as it indicates the existence of the culture of farming in the province, notwithstanding the fact that a substantial number of Eastern Cape citizens remain landless as a result of dispossession (Eastern Cape Planning Commission, 2014: 8).

Therefore successful implementation of Rural Development Strategy is expected to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities and food security for all. The success of rural development initiatives must be measured based on improved levels of food secured communities, sustained environment and sustainable and growing economy. Furthermore these communities must reach a level of self-reliant anchored by social stability and political maturity. The development in the rural communities must ensure that the communities grow intellectually and are able to claim their rights as enshrined in the bill of rights. Lastly must be able to live healthy lives and live in harmony through a forged social cohesion (South Africa Yearbook 2010/11: 410)

### **3.3. POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE ENVIRONMENT IN SUPPORT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND AGRICULTURE**

Changes in population and population structure provide a crucial macro indicator of the success of rural development policy, since individuals reveal the attractiveness of rural areas through migration patterns – whether inward or outward. Therefore Midmore, Partridge *et al.*, (2010: 29) argue that “by using additional data on the factors that attract people to rural areas, the targeting of rural development policy can be improved”. Policymakers need to consistently scrutinize specific policy initiatives in detail to determine their impact, if any, and how and why they attain their effects. It is further argued by Midmore, Partridge *et al.*, (2010: 24) that the metric that best mirrors the overall well-being (or success) of rural communities is population change or net migration.

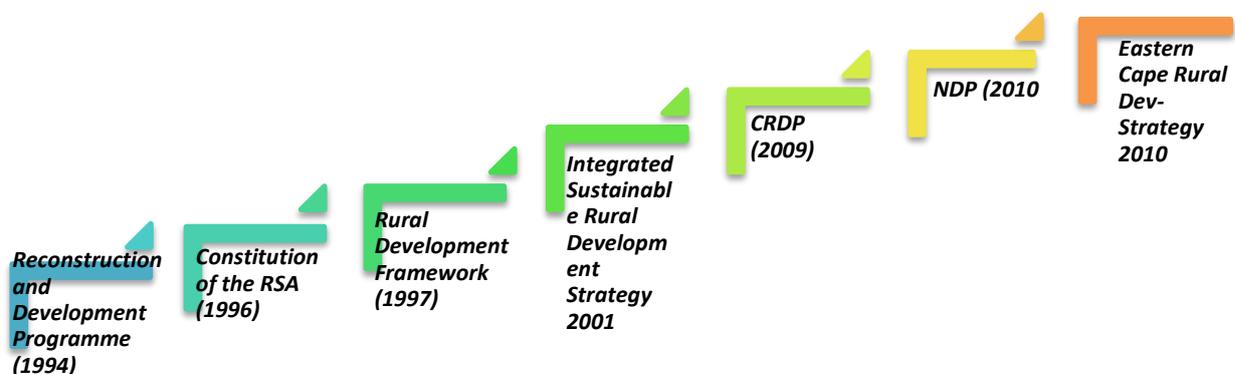
With government’s deployment of financial and human resources for public services in the past years, improved service delivery to many South Africans remains a pipedream. Through this assessment, government had to do more with less and make savings by improving efficiencies and reducing wastage. Developmental challenges and backlogs facing the country required government to continue improving on the foundation laid since 1994. There is a need to work harder in shaping a good state that is developmental and able to respond to the felt needs and aspirations of its citizens.

Looking at South Africa’s state transformation history since democratic dispensation. The first democratic government’s term of office was primarily centred on the restructuring of the apartheid state into a modern public service. The second term was focused on coordination and integration of government systems and services. The third term has a number of strategic priorities but key amongst these has been the task of increasing effectiveness, so that a greater developmental effect is made. Government is able to increase its effectiveness by focusing on the Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E). This is because monitoring and Evaluation is an area that has positive effects in improving performance, policies, strategies and plans and ensuring impact of government interventions (The Presidency, 2007: 9).

All these strides demonstrated that government was committed to accelerate change and it was not going to be business as usual. A successful rural development (RD) policy needs a framework that comprises clear goals, specific objectives, and laborious evaluation with well-defined metrics to justify sound policy. Evaluation can engage comprehensive indicators of impact (a macro approach) and/or more disaggregated information (a micro approach) (Midmore, Partridge, *et al.*, 2010: 24).

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, the South African government has adopted a number of strategies and policies that seek to reverse the past imbalances while giving better opportunities to those previously disadvantaged. The emphasis has been on promoting sustainable livelihoods for both urban and rural communities and in particular those in the rural areas as they were and are still faced with huge infrastructure and development backlogs.

This figure below unpacks some of the policies and legislations that have been introduced since 1994, aimed at promoting rural development and full participation of rural communities in determining their fate.



**Figure 3: Rural development legislation.**

### **3.3.1 RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (RDP) (1994)**

One of the underlining challenges of transformation was to develop an economic framework that would be responsive in addressing economic and social imbalances that were created by the apartheid government. Immediately after the unbanning of the ANC and other liberation movements or organisations, it became evident that South Africa

was not going to be the same again and there was a need for a smooth transition towards a democratic government that was going to advance socio-political and economic transformation. Pre and post 1994 marked significant challenges to the ANC, since it was clear that it was to govern the country. It had to draw up new social and economic policies that were to promote equal opportunities for all South Africans irrespective of gender and race with special attention to the previous disadvantaged groups.

In 1994, a base document was formulated and adopted by the ANC and its alliance partners. This based document was adopted as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and later the government adopted this document with amendments and it became known as the RDP White Paper. The RDP as an integrated, coherent socio-economic policy framework seeks to mobilise all people and our country's resources towards the final eradication of apartheid and the building of a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future (ANC, RDP, 1994: 1). The fundamental principles of RDP involve a massive expansion in welfare and service delivery by government to the vast majority of South Africans who have been disadvantaged on socio-economic basis by the apartheid regime. The RDP identified food security as a priority policy objective. As a result, the government reprioritised public spending to focus on improving the food security conditions of historically disadvantaged people. The RDP is composed of five key programmes that are interlinked. These are:

- ▶ Meeting basic needs;
- ▶ Developing our human resources;
- ▶ Building the economy;
- ▶ Democratising the state and society; and
- ▶ Implementing the RDP.

The RDP base document was later amended and then later replaced with GEAR (Growth Employment and Redistribution). The failure to implement RDP shows that “before 1994, the ANC had been unable to make proper study of how South Africa actually worked or how power was distributed and exercised in both state and society” (Turok, 1999: 2). In that instance, the ANC government was faced with a political question relating to whether political transition becomes transformation. Taking into account Turok's (1992: 2) assertions, one can conclude that the RDP was more of an ANC post-apartheid preparatory document that focused on political objectives of

emancipating the previously disadvantaged South Africans, focusing on a better life for all. The RDP's weakness stems from its openness and lack of specificity and has left it meaning all things to all people. It is in light of this background that the construction of very small low-cost houses for the poor have been justified as advancing the cause of the RDP (Tapscott & Thompson, 1998: 14). The RDP White Paper covered a number of issues ranging from reducing public expenditure, fiscal discipline, and restructuring or privatisation of state assets and parastatals. Through the RDP, a foundation of a transformed South Africa and performing economy was laid and the government has since implemented a plethora of policies that seek to ensure a better life for all.

### **3.3.2 CONSTITUTION, ACT 108 OF 1996**

The Constitution is the cornerstone of all the laws and policies of the Republic of South Africa and it is further stated that all laws in conflict with it must be rendered invalid. The constitution advocates for the Bill of Rights. Food security is part of the section 27 Constitutional rights in South Africa. Regarding these rights, the Constitution states that “every citizen has the right to have access to sufficient food and water, and that the state must by legislation and other measures, within its available resources, avail to progressive realisation of the right to sufficient food” (Constitution, 1996: 12).

Section 25 of the Constitution addresses issues of property ownership and expropriation of property for public purposes or in the public interest and appropriate compensation for this property:

For the purposes of this section-

- (a) The public interest includes the nation's commitment to land reform, and to reforms to bring about equitable access to all South Africa's natural resources; and
  - (b) Property is not limited to land.
- ▶ The state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis.
  - ▶ A person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided

by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress.

- ▶ A person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to restitution of that property or to equitable redress.
- ▶ No provision of this section may impede the state from taking legislative and other measures to achieve land, water and related reform, in order to redress the results (RSA, 1996).

Food security can only be realised through access to land, hence the Constitution is laying a foundation for acquiring land for public purposes or in the public interests also as a means of redress in terms of land ownership. Since agriculture and food production is in the public interest, land acquisition and tenure security become important for a transformed and inclusive economy.

The literature review has already highlighted that for rural development and development programmes to be implemented effectively there is a need for Integrated planning starting at government level. Chapter 3, section 40 of Constitution establishes Co-operative Government and acknowledges that South African government is composed of national, provincial and local government spheres. These three spheres of government are distinctive and yet they interdependent and interrelated. Section 41 (1) (h) further states that these spheres of government co-operate with one another in mutual trust and good faith by:

- (i) “fostering friendly relations;
- (ii) assisting and supporting one another;
- (iii) informing one another of, and consulting one another on, matters of common interest;
- (iv) co-ordinating their actions and legislation with one another;
- (v) adhering to agreed procedures; and
- (vi) Avoiding legal proceedings against one another” (RSA, 1996).

This chapter of the constitution lays foundation for cooperation and Integrated Planning within the three spheres of govern, in turn this will facilitate effective implementation

of government programmes while combining resources for a meaningful impact. Section 41 (2) calls for an Act of parliament to establish structures and institutions that will promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations (RSA, 1996).

### **3.3.3 RURAL DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK (1997)**

The rural development framework seeks to reverse the injustices of the past apartheid legacy. Among the key features of apartheid legacy was the 1913 Natives Land Act through which black people were dispossessed of their land and pushed into reserves occupying a mere 13 per cent of the total surface of South African land. Although before its introduction there were various other laws restricting ownership and use of land by Africans, this 1913 Act marked a bolder step of racial segregation (DRLAR, 2013). The 1913 Act highlighted a strong boundary between white and black land ownership by segregating Africans and Europeans on territorial basis. Through this Act, the African majority were pushed into the reserves deemed to be less productive and degraded land.

One of the most disturbing effects of the 1913 Natives Land Act was that African Agriculture did not receive any support and as such it was undermined. Through this Act Black South Africans experienced massive loss of land complemented by massive loss of assets such as livestock, crops, and dwellings due to the dispossession of land. Passing of 1913 Natives Land Act and loss of assets by Africans triggered migration of entire African communities to reserve areas (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2013: 4). Therefore, the rural development framework seeks to transform rural economy and rural agriculture in particular through land reform programmes.

### **3.3.4 INTEGRATED SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY (2001)**

The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) was introduced in 2001 focusing on the 15 poorest rural districts or nodes. Notably, four were in the Eastern Cape located in the OR Tambo, Alfred Nzo, Chris Hani and Ukhahlamba districts (The Public Service Commission, 2009: 3). The strategic intent of the ISRDS is to transform rural South Africa into an economically viable and socially stable and pleasant sector that makes a substantial contribution to the nation's GDP. The vision of the ISRDS is to guarantee socially organised and stable communities with viable

institutions, sustainable economies and universal access to social facilities. Successful implementation will ensure that skilled and knowledgeable people are attracted, communities empowered to contribute to their own growth and development, and that of the nation. The strategy is meant to benefit the rural poor in generally, but particular biasness will be made to target women, youth, and the disabled (The Public Service Commission, 2009: 3). Successful implementation of this strategy requires communities to work together with government and other state organs.

ISRDS is anchored in six objectives. The first three are termed the process objectives and the last three the developmental objectives. The expectation is that the last three objectives will be attained through implementation of the first three.

- ▶ Co-ordination and integration: to achieve integrated service delivery there must be co-coordinated planning, resource allocation and implementation by all spheres of government and other stakeholders.
- ▶ Efficient and effective local government: capacities of local government entities to be strengthened so as to facilitate the inputs of various stakeholders in order to deliver integrated services responsive to community priorities.
- ▶ Participation and empowerment: capacitate and empower communities up to a level whereby they are able to determine their priorities and participate in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of their Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and the ISRDP.
- ▶ Sustainable economic growth: all ISRDP nodes realise economic growth (including job and income creation and increased productivity) and equity, based on redistribution and empowerment.
- ▶ Sustainable social development: support social transformation that promotes the well-being and access to social services by rural communities.
- ▶ Environmental sustainability: implement programmes that protect, conserve and ensure sustainable use of natural resources (The Public Service Commission, 2009: 4).

The strategy to achieve the ISRDS vision is based on three key elements, namely “integrated”, “sustainable” and “rural” development. These elements are summarily described as follows by the Public Service Commission (2009:4):

- ▶ **Rural development:** Rural development is multifaceted and much broader than poverty alleviation through social programmes and transfers. The multifaceted nature of development stresses that in order for development to take place, various essentials, which might be the responsibility of many role players in the targeted rural area, must be in place. Rural development places the emphasis on changing rural livelihoods to enable [the] rural poor to participate in economic activities and improve their lives and those of communities.
- ▶ **Sustainable:** Sustainability results from increased local growth, enabling rural communities with access to resources to be self-reliant fully participate in the local economy.
- ▶ **Integrated:** This calls for collected efforts and co-ordination of all sectors and spheres of government so that the efforts of all role players contribute towards a comprehensive and cohesive development plan. This integration must start at a municipal level through [the] Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process.
- ▶ As there was no dedicated allocation or funding for the ISRDP, the programme was expected to attain its objectives through already allocated resources, including the municipal budget, the commitments of sector departments through the IDP process, commitments of donor organisations and NGOs, and public-private partnerships. In essence, state institutions were expected to do more with less, as existing resources were already targeted for specific projects promoted by the various stakeholders and the projects did not necessarily form an integrated development programme.

### 3.3.5 COMPREHENSIVE RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (2009)

The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) was conceptualised and developed in 2009. Initially, the programme was implemented at 21 sites throughout the country, targeting 160 sites by 2014. Key to the CRDP policy framework is ensuring an integrated programme that fosters rural development, land reform and agrarian change as vital strategic pillars focusing on social cohesion and development. Through the CRDP, the rural development pillar aims at improving economic, cultural and social infrastructure, public amenities and facilities, and information and communications technology (ICT) infrastructure (South Africa Yearbook 2010/11: 410).

The CRDP has set the country on a new course for postcolonial reconstruction and development. It is about changing rural people's lives and enabling them to take control of their destiny and enjoy the freedoms and dignity promised by the country's Constitution. People remain vital to development and, as such, the programme consciously places particular emphasis on empowering rural communities to take charge of their destiny. The strategic importance of rural development and land reform is improving the lives of the previously disadvantaged people in our country (RSA, 2009).

The CRDP was founded on three phases. Phase one is aimed at meeting basic human needs, phase two advocates for large-scale infrastructure development and phase three promotes the emergence of rural industries driven by small, micro and medium enterprises and village markets and mobilising credit financial sectors for required support. Through the CRDP, the government is acknowledging underdevelopment must be adequately addressed. Hence, the CRDP is premised on a holistic approach encompassing stakeholder partnerships where government departments, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), the private sector and communities who are the primary beneficiaries are brought together in improving rural livelihoods. The aim is to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities that are food secured. With development taking place right on the doorstep of rural communities, employment opportunities are availed and are aimed at employing at least one person per household located on the sites for a period of two years. The CRDP ensures that basic services like running water, sanitation, housing and development support that have been absent in the rural space for some time are being addressed. The programme acknowledges that its foundation is about changing the lives of the rural people and therefore their participation is paramount, as they should be leading and determining their destiny.

The CRDP is strategic objective number 3 (comprehensive rural development strategy linked to land and agrarian reform and food security) of the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009-2014. The MTSF is meant to improve the lives of all South Africans while contributing to building a better continent and the world. MTSF clearly states that the CRDP will include the following elements:

- ▶ Aggressive implementation of land reform policies;

- ▶ Stimulation of agricultural production with a view to contributing to food security;
- ▶ Rural livelihoods and food security;
- ▶ Improvement of service delivery to ensure quality of life;
- ▶ Implementation of a development programme for rural transport;
- ▶ Skills development;
- ▶ Revitalisation of rural towns;
- ▶ Exploration of and support for non-farm economic activities;
- ▶ Institutional capacity development; and
- ▶ Cooperative development (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009: 8).

The CRDP needs a coordinated strategy to address the different needs of the communities and therefore the participation of various sector departments across the different spheres of government, non-governmental organizations, research institutions and communities is very important (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2009: 4).

The figure below outlines pillars of rural economic transformation and agrarian transformation system needed as anchors of sustainable rural development. At the level of Community, social infrastructure, ICT infrastructure, amenities and facilities are needed to boost the economy and welfare of rural communities.

On Land, to ensure transformed agriculture there is a need to reform tenure system, redistribute strategic land, restitution and protection of land based resources. There are various players involved on the land question, and they should all be brought on board, ranging from rural cooperatives, National Rural Youth Service Corps, Valuer General and Land Management Commission.

Cropping and Livestock are at enterprise development phase. For cropping: economic infrastructure, inputs, extension support, fresh produce markets and credit facilities are essential support tools needed.

While livestock enterprises need to be supported with economic infrastructure, processing plants, small industries, abattoirs, animal handling facilities, feedlots, stock water, mechanisation, dip tanks, boreholes and windmills

**Figure 4: Rural Economy Transformation: Agrarian Transformation System.**

**Tenure System Reform**

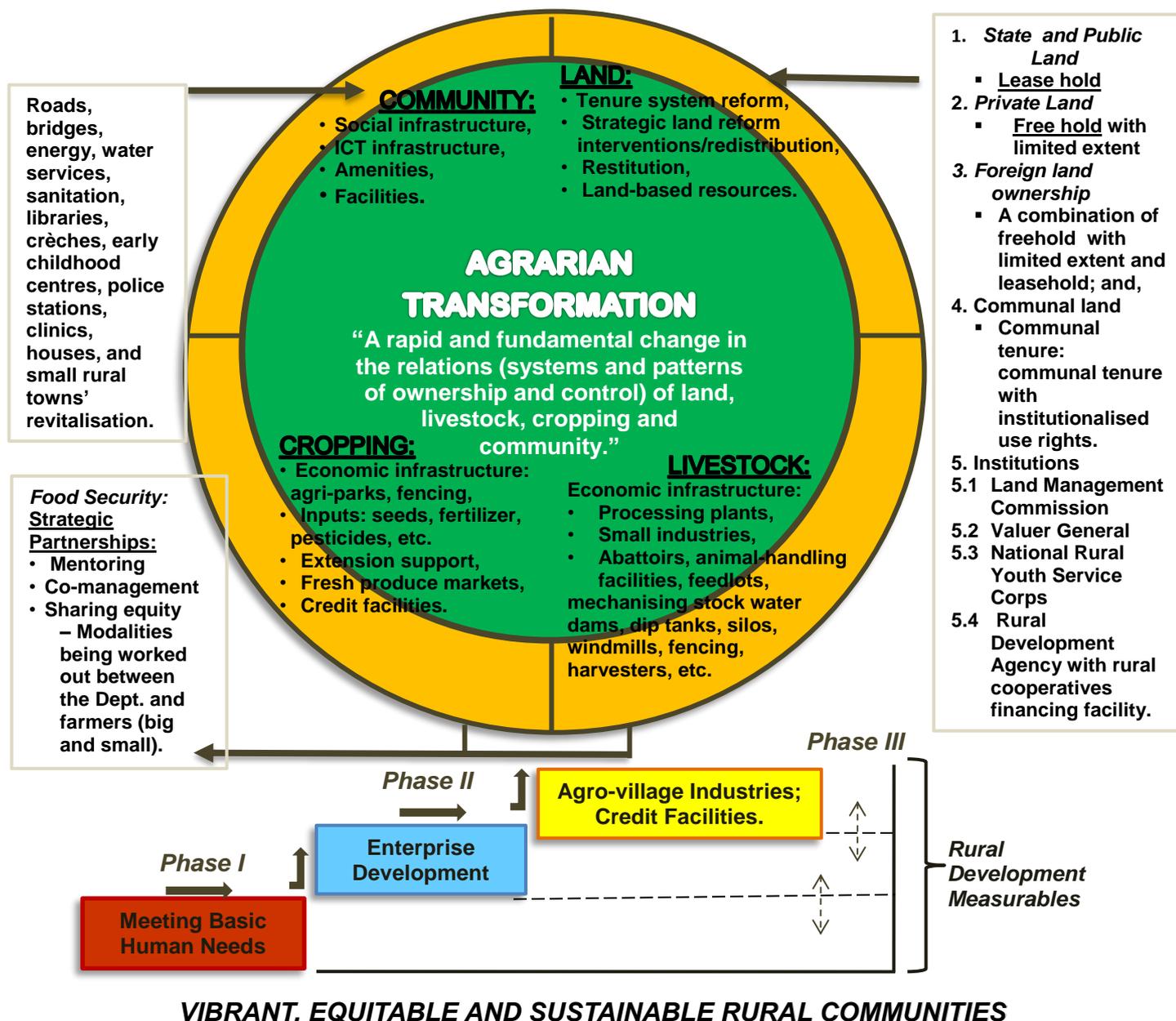


Figure 4: Source- Department of Rural Development and Land Reform: 2015: 17

### 3.3.6 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (2012)

Chapter 6 of the NDP on integrated and inclusive rural economy states that since 1994 the major challenge for rural development has been the need to fight exclusion of the poor in accessing resources. These resources range from access to and ownership of land, water, education and skills, rural infrastructure and other government services including participation in the mainstream economy (Presidency, 2009: 195). There is a noticeable progress in the fight against poverty and its alleviation and as such it is reported by the National Income Dynamics Study that the rural share of poverty fell from 70 percent in 1993 to 57 percent in 2008 and this improvement is attributed to a large number of rural households accessing social grants. Working conditions for farmworkers and tenants have gradually improved with better wages (Presidency, 2009: 195). Regardless of these strides, rural areas continue to be trapped in poverty and inequality as compared to their urban counterparts.

Vision 2030 of the NDP envisage that by 2030 South Africa's rural communities should be in a better place and be able to participate fully in the mainstream socio-political and economic activities, while seizing opportunities brought about by rural development. The lives of the rural poor ought to change, as they should have access to basic services enabling them to live healthy lifestyles and be skilled. With land reform, job creation and poverty alleviation as anchors, a basket of activities to stimulate growth and development is proposed, for example the expansion of irrigated agriculture, supported by dry-land production where practicable. In other less productive areas, quality education, healthcare, basic services and social security will enhance development of human capital. Non-farm economy is explored through expansion of agro-industries, tourism, small enterprises and fisheries (Presidency, 2009: 196).

According to The Presidency (2009: 197) agriculture is the primary economic activity in rural areas with a potential of creating close to 1 million new jobs by 2030. Therefore to fully support agriculture, there is a need to:

- ▶ Expand irrigated agriculture;
- ▶ Transform some underutilised land in communal areas and land reform projects into commercial production;

- ▶ Identify and support commercial agricultural sectors and regions that have the highest potential for growth and employment opportunities;
- ▶ Support the creation of jobs in the upstream and downstream industries;
- ▶ Find creative incorporations between opportunities, thereby picking the best performers and support areas and industries with great potential; and
- ▶ Develop strategies whereby resourced players in the sector are able to support new entrants to access product value chains (Presidency, 2009: 197).

Chapter 6 of the NDP (2009: 217-234) is entitled “An integrated and inclusive rural economy” and contains the following summary:



**Figure 5: Key Points of National Development Plan (Source – NDP).**

### **3.3.7 EASTERN CAPE RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY (2010)**

The Eastern Cape provincial government through a number of consultations with stakeholders initiated the development of the Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy (ECRDS/Ililma Labantu) in 2008. The ECRDS has been initiated to give effect to a national and provincial political mandate as well as the Provincial Growth and Development Plan and the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework for 2009–2014 for the Eastern Cape (Department of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2010: 9). Furthermore, the ECRDS is an agricultural development initiative that aims to revive

the rural economy and to encourage other areas of development in the Eastern Cape. In its full implementation, the ECRDS will ensure sustainable growth and development and improvement of the quality of life for all citizens, particularly the rural poor. The Eastern Cape possesses significant natural resources that can be used to help address its food security needs, expand its capacity to provide jobs, raise income levels and trigger development in allied industries and other sectors (Eastern Cape Planning Commission, 2014: i).

The ECRDS recognises the transformation of the rural areas as well as institutional development as critical to the ultimate goal to be pursued through six pillars covering the creation of the enabling environment; land reform; agrarian transformation and food security; non-farm rural economic development; infrastructure development; and social and human development (Department of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2010: 22). In the previous chapters of this study, it was acknowledged that underdevelopment characterises the province, particularly in the former Transkei and Ciskei.

Therefore the ECRDS aims to address these challenges of underdevelopment by organising communities, sector departments and entities across government to act in an intensive, integrated and coordinated manner in terms of various elements of the programme, including:

- ▶ **Research and development (R&D) institutions**, whereby it is advocated that appropriate technology should be developed to support production and related activities at various levels of the agricultural value chain.
- ▶ **Education and training institutions**, whereby capability of producers and producer organisations shall be built and improvements in the capabilities of state and non-governmental agents who work with communities supported.
- ▶ **Government**, whereby resources should be provided to drive the initiative and ensure that there is proper coordination of the programme and accountability for mandated actions. (Department of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2010: 29-30).

The ECRDS, while largely focused on reviving and growing the rural economy, also fosters a different pattern of mutually beneficial relationships between rural and urban

regions, while connecting the Eastern Cape to broader national and international economies. On the policy front, the ECRDS seeks to align and meritoriously synchronise all policy interventions in order to ensure that the strategy draws from, and is aligned with, all major policy frameworks from across all spheres of government.

### **3.3.7.1 Critical ECRDS Success Factors**

The ECRDS advocates that all government planning must reflect the essence and substance of the Rural Development Strategy; the implementation of the Strategy must be based on well-coordinated, properly aligned and fully integrated plans and programmes intended to advance the Strategy; critical indicators for rural development must be informed by the six pillars of the Strategy to ensure effective monitoring, evaluation and reporting; and institutionalisation of the RDS must reflect the transversal nature of rural development (Department of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2010: 22).

Therefore, ECRDS with its broader pillars must be implemented as they address developmental issues beyond agriculture. These pillars will realise comprehensive agrarian transformation, rural development and land reform and ensure positive spin-offs for socio-economic development. The envisaged rural development is a progressive step aimed at improving the lives of the rural poor. However, rural development should not turn rural areas into urban and, in turn, attract rates and taxes for these poor communities. The strategy should, however, be localised and adapted to material conditions on the ground and the surrounding environment.

### **3.4. SUMMARY**

Policy guidelines and a legislative framework are key and enablers that assist government to translate its vision and goals into programmes and projects for the benefit of its citizens and improving their political and socio-economic livelihoods. This chapter demonstrated government's concerted legislative efforts to transform agriculture, adhere to constitutional rights in terms of section 27, support rural development through agriculture, ensure sustainability and deal with poverty. The chapter further revealed government's efforts in ensuring integrated programmes that foster rural development, land reform and agrarian change as vital strategic pillars focusing on social cohesion and development. The chapter also considered government's plan which entails that by 2030 South Africa's rural communities should be in a better place and be able to participate fully in the mainstream socio-political and economic activities, while seizing opportunities brought about by rural development. Finally, the chapter provided insight into the objectives of the ECRDS and pointed out its critical success factors.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides a brief overview of the theory of research and the research design applied in the study. Also, key to this chapter is to highlight the research methodology, sampling and data collection methods used. Therefore, this chapter attempts to explain the study at hand in terms of the research design, the study area, the study units, population and sampling method used, and how the data was collected.

#### **4.2. THEORY OF RESEARCH**

This study falls within the broad discipline of social research. Social research is described as a social practice that aims to generate knowledge about the social world. Ultimately, all research is aimed at improving understanding by describing, explaining and evaluating phenomena in the social world (Mouton, 1999: 41-46). “This implies the following:

- ▶ Researchers are social beings with specific beliefs, values and interests.
- ▶ Researchers follow certain implicit and explicit rules.
- ▶ The activities of researchers are conducted within more or less organised and institutionalised frameworks, which impose certain constraints on what is acceptable
- ▶ Researchers stand in different relations of power to each other. This implies that access to resources differs across the research community” (Mouton, 1999: 41).

Mouton *et al.* (1990:156) state that research may be defined as a collaborative activity by means of which a given phenomenon in reality is studied in an objective manner, with a view of establishing a valid understanding of that phenomenon. It is further argued that it is possible to differentiate between two research approaches for social sciences, namely quantitative and qualitative approaches. One of these research approaches (qualitative) used in this study is explained below.

This is an Implementation Evaluation study which “aims to answer the question of whether an intervention (programme, therapy, policy or strategy) has been properly implemented (process evaluation studies), whether the target group has been adequately covered and whether the intervention was implemented as designed” (Mouton, 1999: 158). Brynard, & Hanekom (2006: 6) agrees that an evaluation research method refers to a research case where a particular programme or intervention has been applied and therefore the research identifies the weaknesses or effectiveness of the programme. Evaluation assists to keep the programme or intervention on track, however in between monitoring of implementation ought to occur throughout the programme’s life span. In essence, evaluation is carried out to determine the value of the programme or policy being implemented.

The evaluation approach used in evaluation studies usually consists of both formative and summative evaluation with the former aimed at assessing the implementation and impact of the agrarian transformation and food security pillar of the ECRDS. Following this, feedback is provided for internal improvement of the programme. The latter evaluation approach is meant to provide information on programme impact to external stakeholders. It is argued that “the best evaluation studies are those that combine both formative and summative assessment” (Andrews & Daily, 2002: 3). Besides the two approaches, the other approach that can be explored is prospective evaluation, which is defined as an evaluation of the possible outcomes of a planned project, programme or policy (Linda, 2009: 10).

Formative evaluations are meant to improve performance and are usually conducted during the implementation stage of a programme or project. These evaluations can also be conducted as part of broader government compliance or as legal required and they investigate the conditions and methods in which a programme or policy is implemented. Therefore, formative evaluation is the “evaluation of the ways in which a programme, policy, or project is implemented” (Linda, 2009: 9). On one hand, summative evaluation, often called an outcome or impact evaluation, is carried out at the end of programme implementation as a yardstick to measure the extent to which the projected outcomes were achieved (Linda, 2009: 10). Given all the explanation of the formative and summative evaluations, the researcher concluded that formative evaluation is the

most appropriate for this study as the ECRDS is an ongoing strategy that will be evaluated continuously.

In this case, using formative evaluation once a public policy/strategy has been implemented, it is necessary to investigate whether the policy has made the desired effects as intended by policy-makers and also whether it has had unintended effects, of a positive or a negative nature. The evaluation of policy/strategy impact is in the interest of both those who formulated and implemented the policy and those who are interested in public policies, such as economists, politicians, journalists, jurists and sociologists. Public policies are evaluated with a view of reviewing or terminating existing policies or formulating new policies (Hanekom, 1987: 88).

It is argued that the analytical, conceptual, and political framework of development is changing radically. The new development agenda advocates for broader appreciation of sectors, countries, development strategies, and policies. Learning and continuous feedback are emphasised at all phases of the development cycle (Linda, 2009: 1). The current trend by development evaluators is to move away from traditional implementation and output-focused evaluation models to result-based evaluation models as communities demand results and embrace the Millennium Development Goals (Linda, 2009: 1).

Evaluation is an integral part of programme implementation as it keeps the programme on track and further tells whether your programme achieved its intended goals and objectives. Programme evaluation is concerned with learning how well the programme-implementing organisation (DRDAR) is able to meet its constitutional obligations and mandate in ensuring that Eastern Cape citizens are food secured.

Evaluating poverty alleviation, globalisation and its impressions on the poor, the effects of global warming on weak countries, the structural inequalities of the global financial systems, and strategies to help post conflict countries are but few of the areas in which development evaluation is assisting to our understanding and formulation of appropriate responses to these pressing issues (Linda, 2009: xv).

Evaluation of development programmes is also enforced by a worldwide call for transparency and accountability by governments and implementing agencies. Therefore, for the DRDAR having developed a rural development strategy, it ought to do checks and balances and assure Eastern Cape citizens and the public at large of the effectiveness and performance of the programme. However, it should be noted that finding ways of evaluating government programmes is difficult given their weak data collection/storage systems or non-existent information and manipulation of information to fulfil political agendas (Linda, 2009: xv). With these information gaps, one cannot be sure that the information provided is trustworthy (Linda, 2009: xv).

### **4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design outlines the kind of study that will be conducted and the type of study that will best answer the question formulated for the study. In essence, the research design focuses on the logic of research, highlighting the kind of planned study and expected results with the research problem being the point of departure (Mouton, 2001: 15). Therefore, Mouton (2001:55) describes the research design as the plan or the blueprint that spells out how the research will be undertaken.

Mouton (1996: 107) further states that formulation of the research design flows from the research problem and that the main purpose of the research design is to aid the researcher to anticipate what related research decisions should be, so as to maximise the validity of the final results. The research design specifies the most adequate activities to be undertaken in order to test specific hypothesis under the given conditions (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006: 71).

Research design can also be broken down into empirical and non-empirical design. Empirical studies range from ethnographic research, case studies, participatory research/action research (PAR), surveys, comparative, cross-cultural and cross-national studies, and evaluation research such as implementation (process) evaluation, secondary data analysis (SDA), content analysis, historical studies, and life history methodology. Non-empirical studies explore conceptual analysis, theory or model-building studies, philosophical analysis and literature reviews.

According to Cotty (1998 in Conrad & Serlin, 2011: 148), research design has four key features of which the researcher should be mindful, namely the “epistemology that informs the research, [the] philosophical stance underlying the methodology in question, the methodology itself, and the techniques and procedures used in the research design to collect data”. In essence, the researcher should be clear on the approach they are using when framing a research design.

Research designs can be classified into qualitative and quantitative designs (Cant, Gerber, Nel & Kotze, 2005: 15). The chosen research design influences the quality of the research output and therefore for the purposes of this study the desired outcomes were achieved using the qualitative approach. With regard to the findings of this study, the researcher used both primary and secondary data collected throughout the study.

“The research design process in qualitative research begins with philosophical assumptions that the inquirers make in deciding to undertake a qualitative study. In addition, researchers bring their own worldviews, paradigms, or sets of beliefs to the research project, and these inform the conduct and writing of the qualitative study” (Lewis, 2015: 15). Five theoretical assumptions that influences an individual's choice of qualitative research are ontology, epistemology, axiology, rhetorical, and methodological assumptions (Lewis, 2015: 15).

#### **4.4. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACH**

As mentioned above, the study used a qualitative approach to analyse the implementation of the ECRDS in particular the pillar on agrarian transformation and food security. This was an ideal approach as it is flexible and, according to Sarantakos (2013: 37), it “involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them”. The qualitative research paradigm is described as the general research approach in social research in terms of which research takes as its point of departure the insider perspective on social action. It is further asserted that qualitative researchers always attempt to examine human action from the perspective of the social actors themselves. This is also referred to as the “emic” perspective by anthropologists. The basic aim of

these types of studies is describing and understanding rather than explaining human behaviour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001: 270).

According to Creswell (2003:18), a qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives or advocacy/participatory perspectives – or both. Creswell (2003: 18) further states that qualitative approach also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theory studies or case studies. Hair, Money, Page and Samouel (2007: 193) state that there are two broad approaches to qualitative data collection, namely observation and interviews.

It is argued that qualitative studies usually aim for depth of rather than quantity of understanding. The studies of this nature are conducted in settings that are bound by the theme of the enquiry and these cannot usually be extensive unless there is a large team of investigators. An example might be a scenario where one is investigating social realities and using a prepared questionnaire with specific items to which participants must respond by choosing a predetermined set of scaled responses (Henning, 2011: 3).

Considering the above definition, the qualitative research definition is exploratory and it is largely used when we do not know what to anticipate. It can assist researchers to define the problem at hand or develop an approach to the problem. It is also used to go deeper into issues of interest and explore despairs related to the problem at hand.

There is an important distinction between quantitative research and qualitative research. In qualitative research, emphasis is on the stated experiences of the participants and on the stated meanings they attach to themselves, to other people, and to their environment (Patton, 2002).

#### **4.5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

According to Hair, Wolfinbarger, Ortinau and Bush (2008), a research methodology refers to the body of methods used in a particular activity or research process. In general, a research methodology is a blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data in order to meet the objectives of a study (Kothari, 2004). Mouton (2001:56), in

turn, describes research methodology as a subject of the research process, the research tools and the procedure to be utilised in data collection.

#### **4.5.1. Data collection methods**

There are fifteen techniques of qualitative data collection and analysis that can be used as identified by Marshall and Rossman (cited in Yany & Miller, 2008: 156). These range from interviewing, ethnographic interviewing, elite interviewing, focus group interviewing, participant observation, document review, narratives, life history, historical analysis, films, questionnaires, proxemics, kinesics, psychological techniques and unobstructive measures. These techniques are grouped into the following three classifications:

- ▶ Observation;
- ▶ Interviewing; and
- ▶ Documentary analysis.

#### **4.5.2. Secondary data**

This study was primarily based on the collection of secondary data through document review as demonstrated in Chapter 2, dealing with the literature review for the study at hand, and Chapter 3, highlighting relevant legislation on rural development. The researcher chose not to develop primary data by sampling and conducting interviews as the study is focused more on performance for which information can be found in quarterly or annual reports by government departments as per legislative requirements, and other government documents.

The actual research was conducted by using available public documents in the form of the DRDAR Annual Reports for the financial years 2011/12–2015/16, DRDAR Strategic Plans, policy speeches and departmental policies where the performance report was analysed as part of the data collection. The latter gave the researcher a clear picture on how the Department has implemented the ECRDS through its programmes on agrarian transformation and food security. In essence, the study used documentary methods, as these were viewed as official public documents that account to the public on programmes implemented by the DRDAR in advancing agriculture in the province.

Accordingly Payne & Payne, (2004: 60) argues that “documentary methods are the techniques used to categorise, investigate, interpret and identify the limitations of physical sources, most commonly written documents, whether in the private or public domain (personal papers, commercial records, or state archives, communication or legislation)” . Documents are either personal, private or public and they are naturally occurring objects, as they are not deliberately produced by their authors for the purpose of social research, with a concrete and semi-permanent existence, thus telling us indirectly about the social world of the people who created them (Payne & Payne, 2004: 61). Written documents are physical artefacts that enable the researchers to access recorded knowledge, ideas and feelings of people or organisations we are studying.

However, when dealing with documents, four questions should be answered: 1) Are they authentic? 2) Are they credible? 3) Are they representative? and 4) Are they meaningful? The limitations of documentary methods can be when they fail to answer these four questions and such potential failures can be judged for each document based on its own merits. Notably, the physical existence of documents can allow researchers to cross-check findings. As opposed to people, documents do not react to being studied and when dealing with naturally occurring objects, documentary methods are less open to charges of bias on the part of the researcher. Finally, when documents do meet the four criteria or answer those four questions, they can be an important social scientific resource (Payne & Payne, 2004: 61-65).

The collected secondary data was able to address the objectives of the study, namely:

**Objective One:** To assess how agricultural development and food security can reduce rural poverty and unemployment and promote rural development.

**Objective Two:** To establish the availability of government frameworks that ensure that rural development is realised.

**Objective Three:** To assess the kind of support offered to farmers by the DRDAR, budget allocation and public spending trends by programmes in support of agrarian transformation and food security.

**Objective Four:** To evaluate how well the programme-implementing organisation (DRDAR) is able to meet its constitutional obligations and mandate in ensuring that Eastern Cape citizens are food secured.

### 4.5.3. Validity

Validity concludes whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how authentic the research results are. Validity in quantitative research is described as the construct validity (Golafshani, 2003: 599). Golafshani (2003: 599) argues that “the construct is the initial concept, notion, question or hypothesis that determines which data is to be gathered and how it is to be gathered”. Golafshani (2003: 599) state that quantitative researchers vigorously cause or affect the interplay between construct and data in order to authenticate their investigation, usually by the application of a test or other process. Therefore, the involvement of the researcher in the research process would significantly lessen the validity of a test. Golafshani (2003: 599) argues that the discussion about quality in qualitative research emanated from the concerns about validity and reliability in the quantitative tradition which “involved substituting new terms for words such as validity and reliability to reflect interpretivist (qualitative) conceptions”.

### 4.5.4. Reliability

Golafshani (2003: 599) specifically discusses the reliability and validity issues in qualitative research that reliability is often overlooked or misunderstood when it comes to qualitative research. While it is true that one cannot have a comparable measure of reliability in qualitative research, it is, however, possible to have similar but alternate dimensions. The source used in the qualitative research must be neutral, respectable, credible and trustworthy. Therefore, Wikipedia may not be a good research source, since the information is editable by anyone and can change. If, however, one does find information in such sites then one can look for the source that the information itself refers to, usually an article or news piece, and then cite and/or use that. Similarly, blogs and other social media may not be appropriate information sources due to doubts regarding trustworthiness and neutrality (Jalil, 2003:19). The extent to which results of the research are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, the research instrument is considered to be reliable (Golafshani, 2003: 599).

#### **4.6. SUMMARY**

This chapter presented the theory of research upon which the study was based as an evaluation study that seeks to assess whether the intervention of the ECRDS pillar on agrarian transformation and food security was properly implemented to achieve the desired outcomes. Formative evaluation was selected as the best tool that could be applied in this study and the selected research design was the qualitative method. With regard to research methodology, secondary data was collected and utilised and informed the findings of the study. The data collection methods used was based on validity and reliability of the data.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS**

#### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 5 presents the data collected during the study and gives an in-depth analysis of the data used during the study, based on the data collection methods already discussed in the previous chapter. The data collection method applied in the study was a document review technique where numerous public documents as outlined in Chapter 4 were analysed based on the research objectives of this study.

Fox and Bayat (2007: 104-110) wrote that the analysis of data is not restricted to the mass media, it can also cover, a wide range of areas such transcription of personal interviews, political documents and minutes of meetings. According to Mouton (2003:108), analysis involves “breaking up” the data into controllable themes, patterns, trends and relationships. Sarantakos (2013: 367), in turn, states that data should be collected, coded, conceptually organised, interrelated, analysed, evaluated and then used as a springboard for further sampling, data collection, processing and analysis until saturation has been achieved. During the process, the researcher refines, confirms and tests the validity of the conclusion drawn, establishes commonalities and eliminates negative cases that were leading to inconsistency and to a small-scale generalisation. The actual analysis was conducted after data gathering was completed.

#### **5.2. DRDAR FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMES**

It was evident that the Department provides support to its clients through eight functional programmes which are: Administration, Sustainable Resource Management, Farmer Support and Development, Veterinary Services, Research and Technology Development, Agricultural Economics Services, Structured Agricultural Education and Training, and Rural Development Coordination. These programmes are responsible for the implementation of the legislative, constitutional and policy obligations of the DRDAR. In the long term, these budget allocations and support are likely to be catalysts of transformed agriculture and food security towards sustainable rural development.

### **5.3. BUDGET ALLOCATION AND SPENDING TRENDS 2012/12–2014/15**

The premise of the study was to assess the performance of agriculture in the province as means towards a sustainable rural development by scrutinising budget outlook and expenditure trends of the DRDAR between 2011/12 and 2014/15. The Department's expenditure is composed of eight functional programmes.

Public funds are often not utilised as a form of long-term investments rather, they are used as agricultural subsidies. In most instances subsidies are not able to make the desired economic impact often lead to wasteful expenditure at a high cost to farmers in terms of predetermined growth and income. Where long-term capital investments have been made, there is often too few resources allocated to operations and maintenance to ensure the sustainability of these investments (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 114-115). Therefore, DRDAR must consider long term capital investments as means of achieving meaningful agricultural growth and rural development.

A hefty share of public spending has been used to provide private goods at high cost. Public expenditure reviews indicates that agricultural budget allocations to private goods are high: “37 per cent in Argentina (2003), 43 per cent in Indonesia (2006), 75 per cent in India (2002), and 75 per cent in Ukraine (2005). Transfers to parastatals and subsidies in Kenya in 2002/03 accounted for 26 per cent of total government expenditures in agriculture. In Zambia in 2003/04, about 80 per cent of nonwage spending went to subsidies to farmers for fertilizer and maize prices” (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 115).

Allocations to subsidies often divert funds from high-return investments in public goods. In Zambia only about 15 per cent of the 2003/04 agricultural budget was disbursed on research, extension services, and rural infrastructure investments that have presented high payoffs (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 115).

Understanding why public rural expenditures are allocated to fruitless interventions requires understanding the political economy of government policies at play.

Institutional, demographic and economic variables cooperatively shape the size and quality of public spending. One issue affecting quality is lack and quality of information (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 115). The unavailability of formal programme of expenditure evaluations combined with a lack of access to public information on expenditures and their beneficiaries weakens the effectiveness of any formal accountability mechanisms that might be achieved through political checks and balances, a free press, or well-intentioned civil society organisations. Where there are information gaps, public debates about public policies tend to be manipulated by special interest groups (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 115). However in South Africa we have good systems in the form of both national and provincial Treasury department that keep departments accountable for their expenditures.

It's worth noting that in Sub-Saharan Africa, agriculture yields and poverty remain challenges compared to South Asia. In the Sub-Saharan Africa given the low agricultural growth, rapid population growth and the high transaction costs in linking domestic and international markets, food security is a critical policy area that requires more attention (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008). In response to these similar challenges facing the African continent the Eastern Cape government should prioritise agriculture as an enabler for pro poor economic growth by utilising and allocating the available budget appropriately for improved agricultural performance and improved rural livelihoods. The Sub-Sahara Africa region, compared with other developing countries, is considered as the region that have invested less in agricultural development, hence its development goals that are meant to stimulate pro poor growth have not been realised. Bad policy choices do not assist developing countries in achieving their strategic macro policy outcomes (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 114).

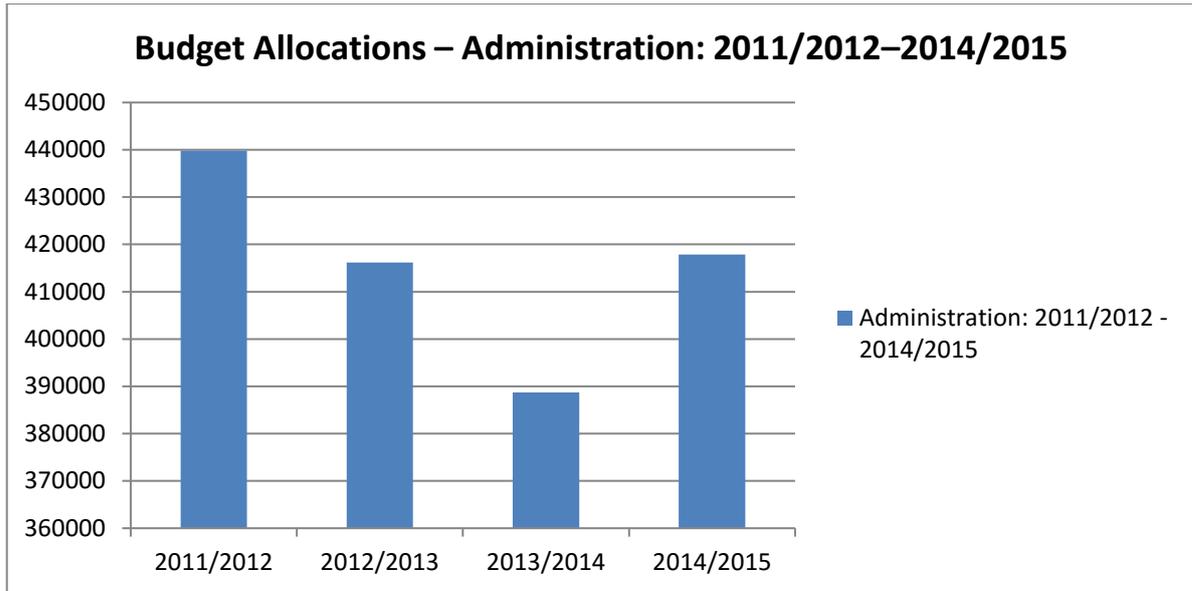
So for Sub-Saharan Africa to prosper in agriculture there is a need to efficiently and effectively manage resources and the budget. Governments must prioritise agricultural investment and in turn their economies will yield positive spin offs. There is a need to lay solid policy foundations that are in favour of the poor and thriving smallholder and subsistence farmers to ensure market penetration. However, the scale of smallholder supply reaction to trade and price policy reforms depends on factors like rural

infrastructure, rural finance and research (The Development Report, Agriculture for Development, 2008: 114).

**Table 1: Budget expenditure 2011/12–2014/15.**

	<b>2011/12</b>	<b>2012/13</b>	<b>2013/14</b>	<b>2014/15</b>
<b>Programmes</b>	R'000	R'000	R'000	
1. Administration	439 783	416 199	388 698	417 898
2. Sustainable Resource Management	122 050	138 948	142 127	127 538
3. Farmers Support and Development	425 269	453 797	562 160	571 866
4. Veterinary Services	214 708	230 709	245 408	254 696
5. Research and Technology Development	90 287	93 744	119 009	107 770
6. Agricultural Economics Services	90 083	67 945	33 324	37 573
7. Structured Agricultural Education and Training	102 253	99 601	107 414	117 179
8. Rural Development Coordination	-	116 151	133 063	218 248
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1 484 433</b>	<b>1 617 094</b>	<b>1 731 203</b>	<b>1 852 768</b>

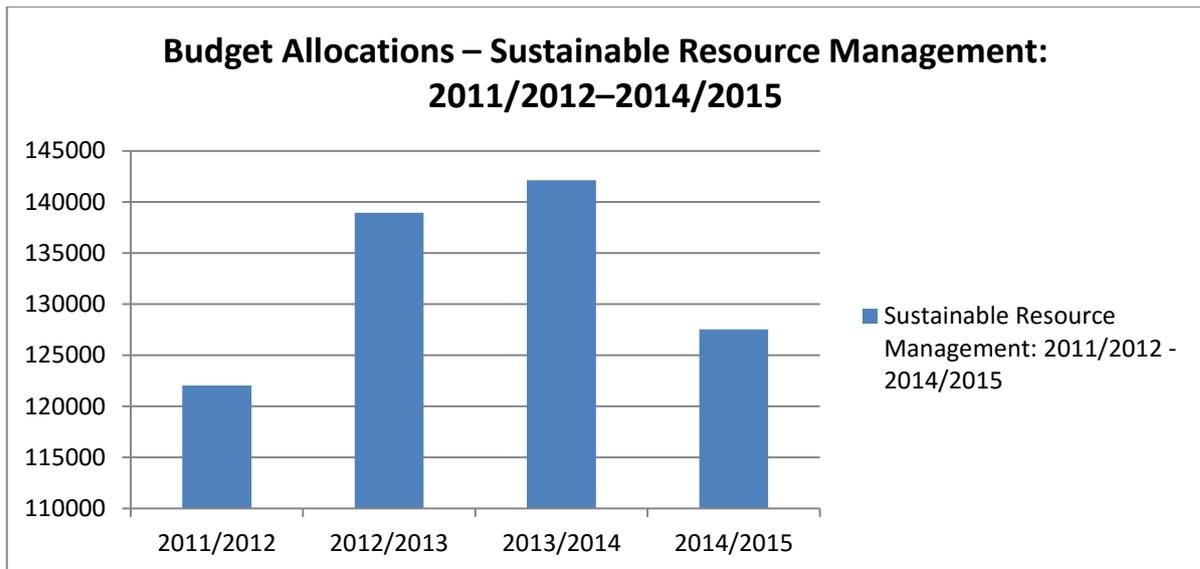
According to DRDAR Annual Reports (2011/12- 2014/15) table 1 above shows an increased budget expenditure from R1 484 433 in 2011/12 to R1 617 094 in 2012/13 (24% increase), R1 731 203 in 2012/13 (27.9% increase) and R1 852 768 in 2014/15 (32%). As revealed in the Estimates of Provincial Revenue and Expenditure (EPRE) 2015/16, increased attributes are due to an increase in equitable share and conditional grants aimed at ensuring an increased agricultural productivity (Estimates of Provincial Revenue and Expenditure, 2015/16: 404). At a glance, these allocations showed an overall increasing budget for the DRDAR. However, when the study zoomed into programme allocations, it revealed a different scenario of upward and downward budget allocation trends. The researcher subsequently considered each programme over the period under assessment or being studied in a chronological order as per budget allocations in table 1 above (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).



**Figure 6: Budget Allocations – Administration: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

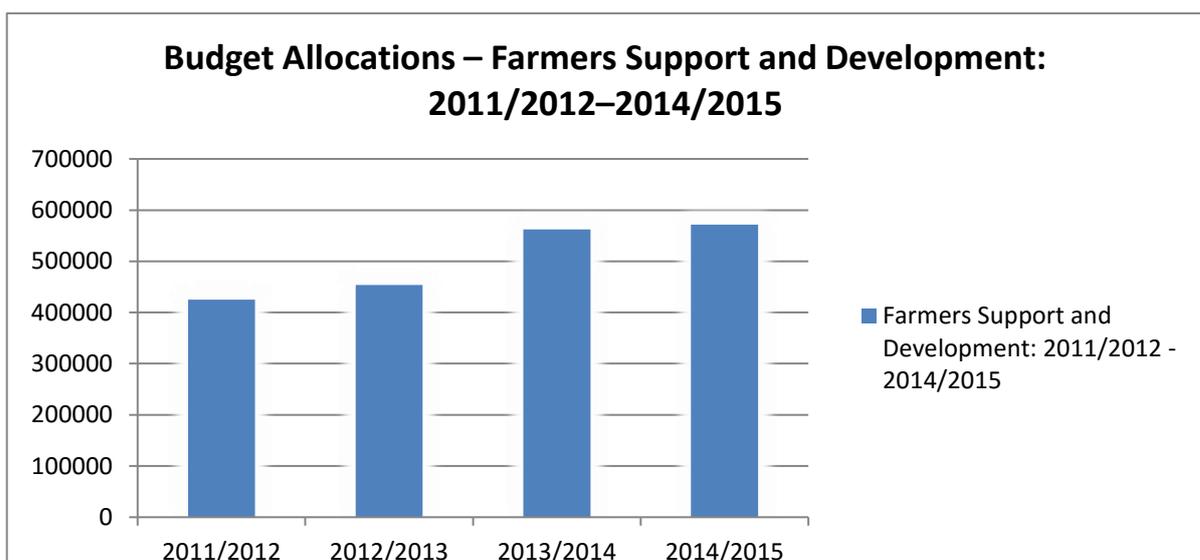
The role of Administration is to offer strategic leadership at the policy and overall implementation level by ensuring that departmental strategies and objectives are aligned with the broader governmental priorities and changes in the environment. Furthermore, the programme develops departmental strategy, planning, co-ordination, implementation, monitoring and communication, as well as overall organisational administration, governance, intergovernmental and international programmes and forging sector partnerships

The study revealed that there has been a downward budget allocation between the 2011/12 and 2013/14 financial years and in the 2014/15 financial year there was a sharp increase of R29.2 million as compared to the previous financial year (2013/14). It is notable that this programme being a support programme had a higher budget in the 2011/12 financial year than in previous years, followed by Farmers Support and Development. However, the trend changed from 2012/13 with Farmer Support and Development having the highest budget expenditure for the remainder of the financial years under review (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).



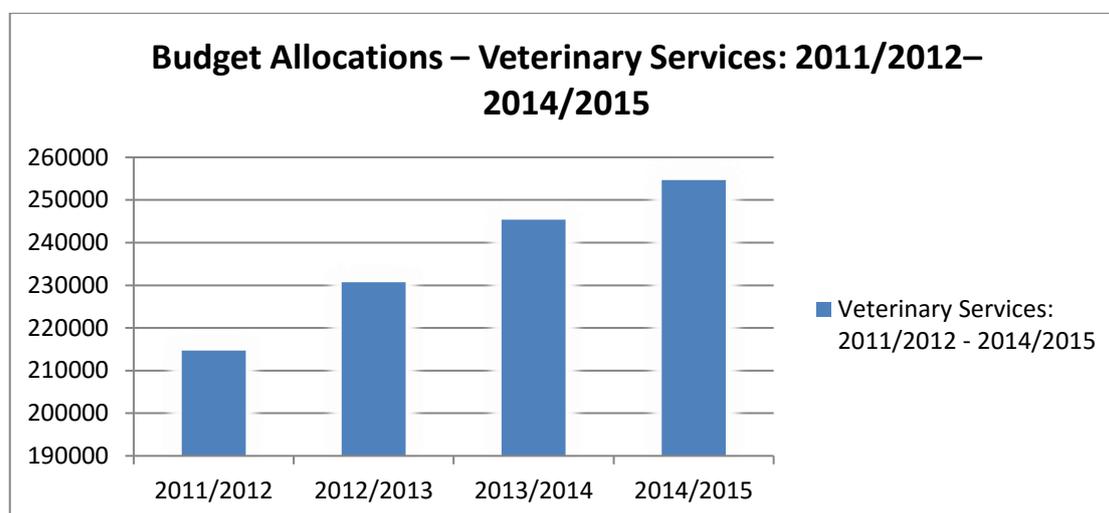
**Figure 7: Budget Allocations – Sustainable Resource Management: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

This programme is tasked to provide agricultural support services to farmers in order to ensure sustainable development and management of agricultural resources. Budget expenditure trends of the programme showed an annual increase from the 2011/12 up to the 2013/14 financial year, followed by a sharp decrease of R14 589 million in 2014/15. The expenditure decrease was due to expenditure of R4 million and savings of R6.416 million from compensation of employees (COE) realised from staff attrition. The funds were then shifted to other programmes with dire needs (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).



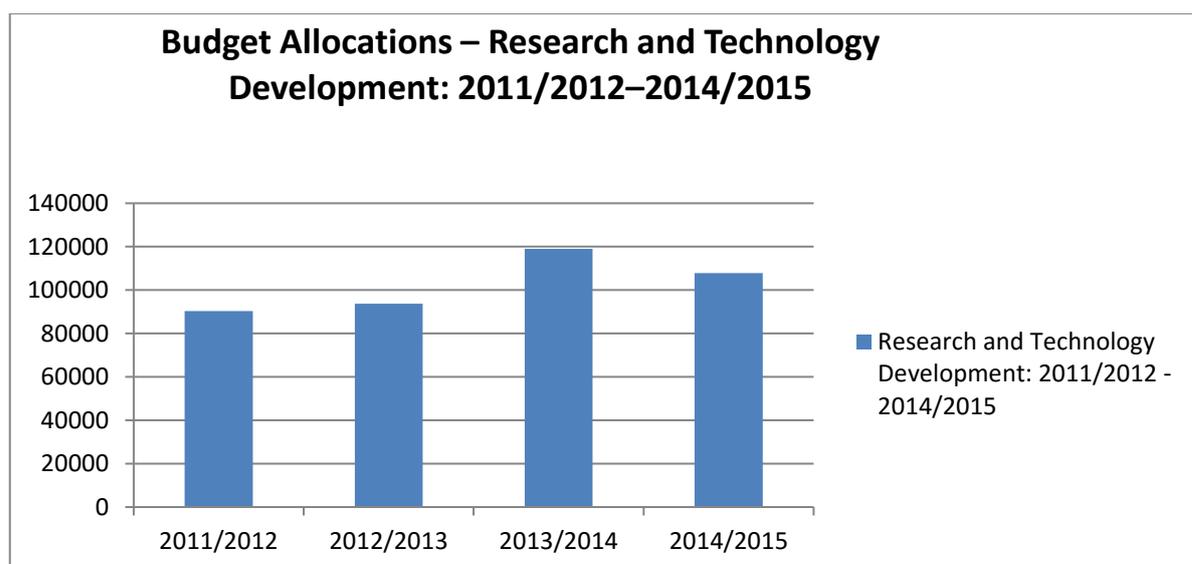
**Figure 8: Budget allocations – Farmers Support and Development: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

This programme provides support to farmers through agricultural programmes that include farmer settlement and development, extension and advisory services and food security. Figure 8 showed an impressive budget expenditure increase from R214 708 million in 2011/12 to R254 696 million in 2014/15 (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12-2014/15).



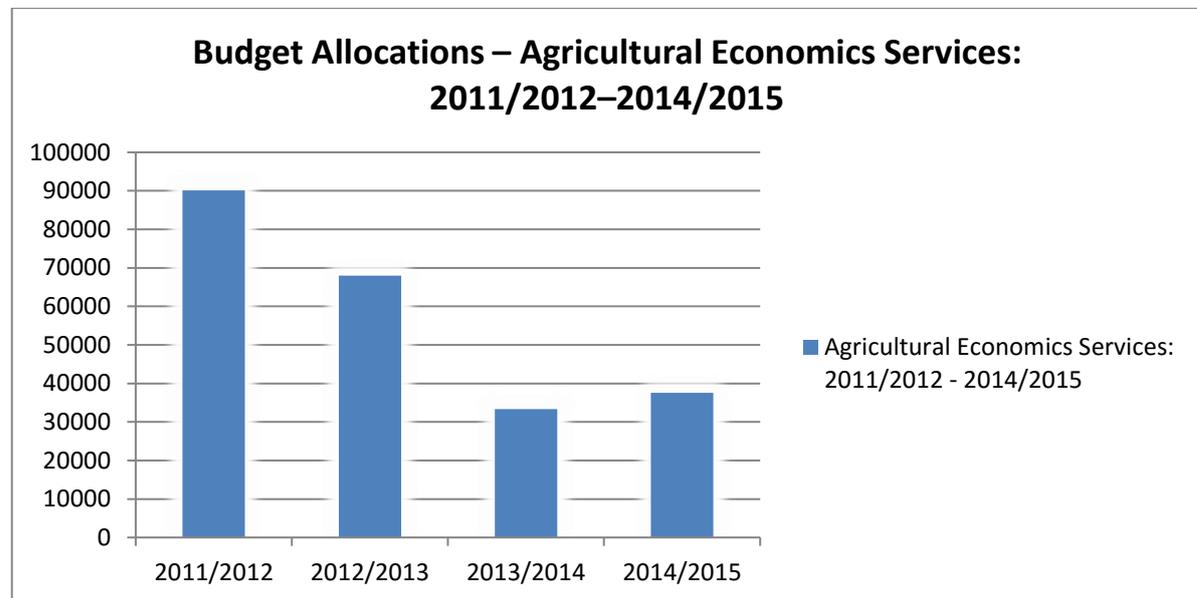
**Figure 9: Budget Allocations – Veterinary Services: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

Services of this programme are provided to clients in order to ensure healthy animals, safe animal products and welfare for the people of South Africa. The programme also showed an increase in budget expenditure, rising from R214 708 million in 2011/12 to R253 696 million in 2014/15 (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).



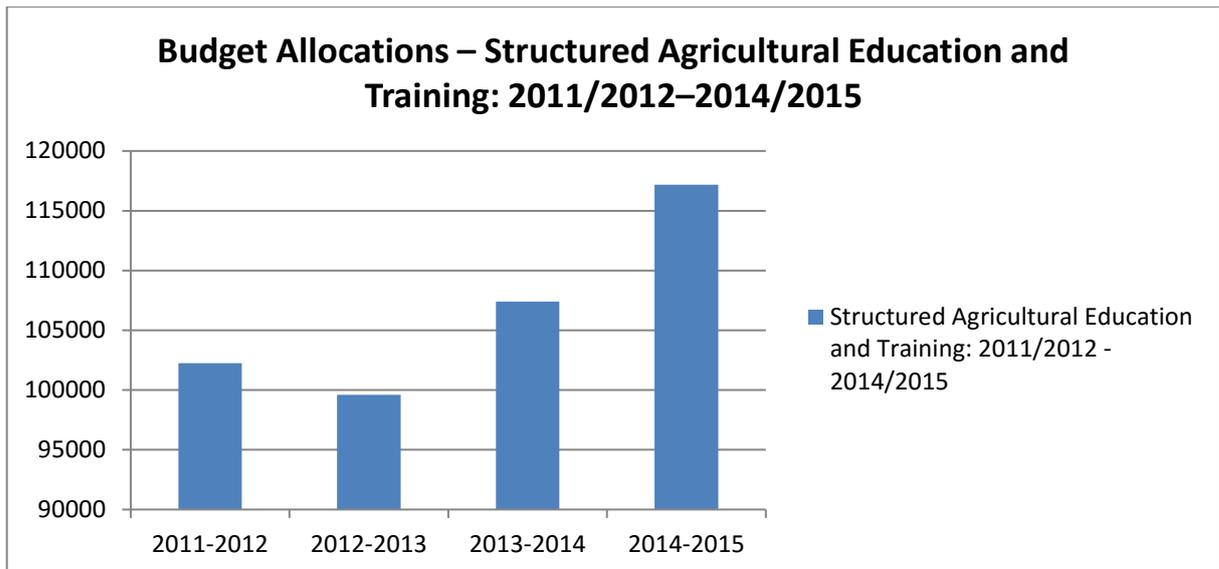
**Figure 10: Budget Allocations – Research and Technology Development: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

Research and Technology Development Services render expectation- and needs-based research, development and technology transfer services impacting on development objectives. There was an expenditure increase from 2011/12 up to 2013/14, which was followed by a decline in 2014/15 (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).



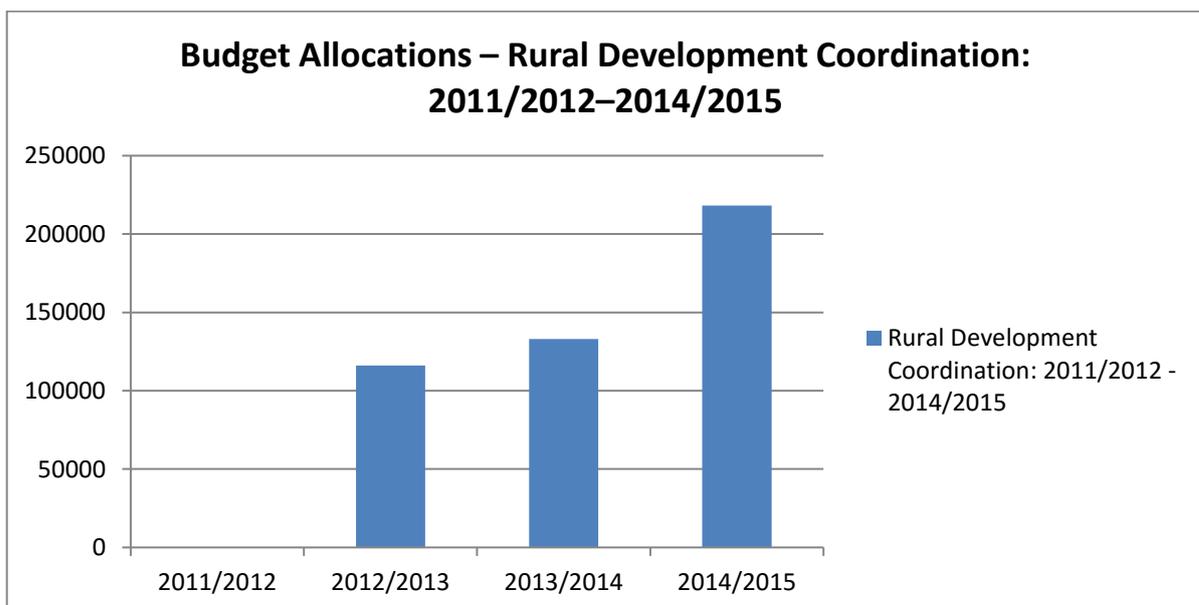
**Figure 11: Budget Allocations – Agricultural Economics Services: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

The objective of this programme is to make available timely and related agricultural economic services to the sector in support of sustainable agricultural and agri-business development aimed at increasing economic growth and participation. The programme experienced downward expenditure trends from R90 083 million in 2011/12 to R33 324 in 2013/14, slightly increasing in 2014/15 to R 37 573 million (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).



**Figure 12: Budget Allocations – Structured Agricultural Education and Training: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

The programme provides agricultural education and training in line with the Agricultural Education and Training Strategy to all participants in the agricultural sector in order to establish knowledge and a prosperous and competitive sector. An expenditure increase was demonstrated from the 2013/14 to 2014/15 financial years after a slight fall in 2012/13 compared to 2011/12 (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12-2014/15).

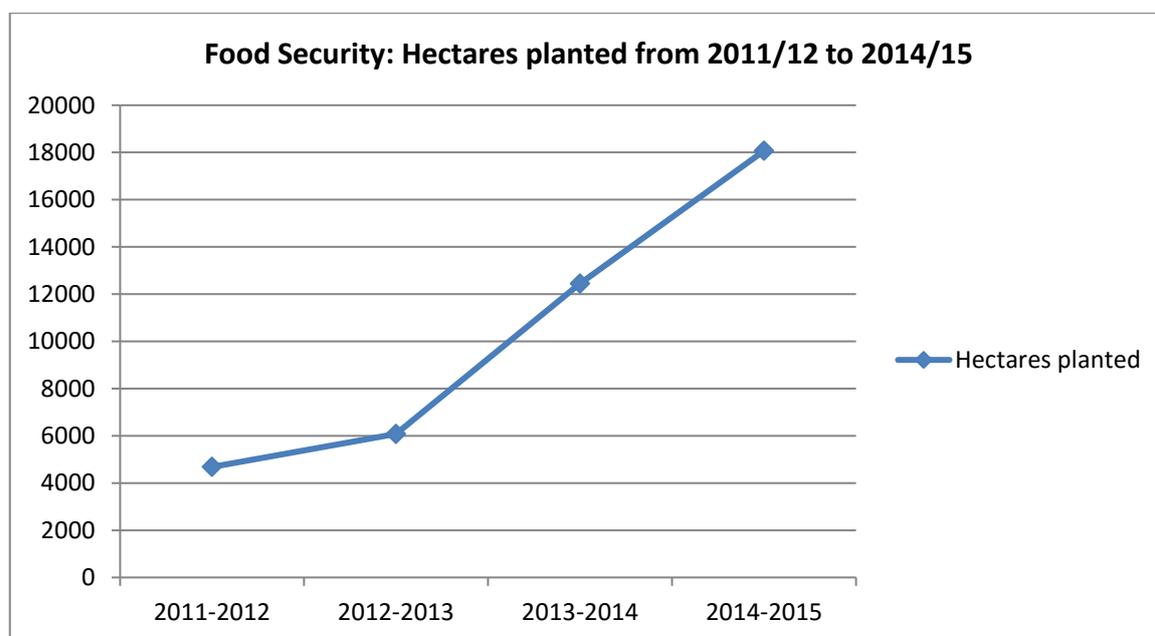


**Figure 13: Budget Allocations – Rural Development Coordination: 2011/2012–2014/2015.**

The rural development programme is mandated to develop, plan and monitor rural development coordination of various state departments and relevant entities in the province and, furthermore, organise social facilitation in relation to community priorities and organisational structures. When the programme was introduced in the 2011/12 financial year, it was an unfunded mandate, which perhaps explains expenditure decrease in some programmes, as reprioritisation had to be done in order to perform this mandate (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

### 5.3.1. Agriculture and Rural Development Programmes from 2011/12 to 2014/15

#### (a) Food Security



**Figure 14: Food Security: Hectares planted from 2011/12 to 2014/15.**

In order to advance the food security programme in the 2011/12 financial year, a total of 4 681 ha of field crop production was supported, benefiting 6 079 households. In 2012/13, with the provision of 72 tractors and their implements from the national Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries, the Department was able to expand the planting area of arable land amounting to 7 025 hectares of maize and other grain crops, benefiting subsistence farmers. In 2012/13, the Department was able to increase

in hectareage, whereby a total of 12 888 ha was planted in the province and increased to 18 068.5 ha in 2014/15 (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

All these efforts were meant to develop subsistence production from home gardens and provide assistance through production inputs and technical support to farmers to produce vegetables for processing by the two operational Agri-park (vegetable and food processing) facilities that were developed previously.

### **(b) Livestock improvement**

In the 2011/12 financial year, the Eastern Cape was reported to be home to 21% of South Africa's cattle, 28% of its sheep and 46% of its goats. The majority of these animals are in the hands of smallholder and subsistence farmers; however, the question remains, "Do they reach the markets?" Through its livestock improvement plan, the department distributed superior genetic material to various communities in the province (Nguni and Bonsmara bulls, Dohne Merino ewes and rams, Nguni heifers, Boer goats and Angora bucks). To ensure healthy provincial heard, a cattle dipping programme and vaccination and treatment of animals against zoonotic and diseases such as anthrax, rabies, Newcastle, brucellosis, African horse sickness and sheep scab were conducted (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

### **(c) Extension services**

Given the continued technological changes, to enable its extension officers to transfer relevant knowledge and skills to communal and smallholder producers, a total of 117 extension officers were trained through the Extension Recovery Plan in various technical programmes. Extension Suite-on-line, which is an internet-based system meant to assist farmers with up-to-date diagnosis of their problems was launched in the 2011/12 financial year and a total of 200 extension officers were trained in the utilisation of the system. The training of extension officers resulted in improved production and farming methods by small producers and communal farmers. Awareness campaigns on various farming matters were conducted across the province. The Department initiated a process of organising farmers into commodity groups and

farmer associations to ensure that the DRDAR is able to reach all farmers easily when they are organised (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

#### **(d) Irrigation Schemes**

According to DRDAR Annual Reports (2011/12- 2014/15) over the financial years under study, there is a noticeable government commitment in the revitalisation of irrigation schemes of which most were established under Bantustan governments in the former Transkei and Ciskei. A total of 5 irrigation schemes (Ncora, Qamata, Keiskamma, Zanyokwe and Tyhefu irrigation schemes) were revitalised. The number of irrigated land, provision of infrastructure and cows in milk continues to increase with government support. To strengthen operations in these schemes, there is a partnership between the irrigation schemes, Amadlelo Pty. Ltd. and COEGA as the major buyer of milk produced in the schemes – Ncora in particular (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

#### **(e) Agriculture Infrastructure**

Agriculture can never be complete and relevant without the provision and availability of agricultural infrastructure. This study was able to draw from some infrastructure projects implemented over the period under study. Infrastructure projects implemented ranged from fencing, renovation and new dipping tanks, animal-handling facilities, hydroponics, water systems (stock dams, boreholes and dam scooping), shearing sheds to production facilities in the form of poultry structures, piggeries and abattoirs (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

#### **(f) Land care and land use management**

The department promoted the application of sustainable use and management of natural agricultural resources through awareness campaigns to educate communities about proper use and management of agricultural land. The DRDAR assisted to handle complaints and disputes for agricultural land in the communal and farming areas. The programme extended to rehabilitating land (soil erosion), fighting invasive species and using land conservation methods. To avert or minimise the impact of disasters, farmers

were also provided with early warning advisory reports for adverse weather conditions (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

#### **(g) Farmer training and development**

It is reported that through farmer training and development, farmers were trained in various commodities (livestock production, plant production and home industry) and agricultural business enterprises. Both accredited and non-accredited training is offered. This training was extended to military veterans and farmworkers. To share knowledge gained in through practice, agricultural science educators were trained in current agricultural methods and participated in practicals. To encourage youth to participate in agriculture, the Department conducted career exhibition days throughout the period and bursaries were awarded to deserving students pursuing studies in veterinary science, civil engineering, soil science, plant pathology and entomology (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

#### **(h) Agricultural colleges**

The agricultural human capital development is important for the success of the agricultural sector. To respond to this need, the Department continues to support the two agricultural colleges, namely Fort Cox College and the Tsolo Agriculture and Rural Development Institute (TARDI), with budgets and expertise. These colleges are able to produce a pool of workforce much needed in the province and the country as a whole, especially with the reopening of TARDI (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

#### **(i) Agri-business**

As per the annual reports, various cooperatives were registered and business enterprises supported with agricultural economic services towards accessing markets. Macroeconomic reports were developed and disseminated. Farmers who received support were able to trade as legal entities enabling them to access markets and enter into contracts (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

## **(j) Rural Development**

Rural development in the province is premised on the implementation of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme and outcome 7 that seeks to improve the lives of the rural poor in a coordinated manner. The Eastern Cape Rural Development Agency (ECRDA) was established during the 2011/12 financial year and tasked to implement high-impact projects and to provide access to finance and enterprise development. The study revealed that there is a continued effort to improve the lives of the rural poor. The Department used the intergovernmental relations and stakeholder engagement to integrate the programmes of the rural development sector and monitor the implementation thereof.

Where there is no Eskom grid, renewable energy, such as solar panels and geysers, was installed in rural households, a highlight is that of a partnership between Rance Timber and the DRDAR that led to the construction of 7 km access road for the community of Lupindweni on the banks of the Kei River at Tsomo who were inaccessible for more than 100 years. As part of ensuring access to basic services, drinking water for rural communities was provided, whereby water tanks were distributed, proper sanitation, ICT and health facilities were provided, two preschools were built at Nyandeni Local Municipality and the promotion of organic farming saw an expansion of Elundini Organic Farming from 15 to 120 households. To further enhance the rural economy, 63 ha of forestry were planted at Sinawo and Mkambathi. These initiatives resulted in improved lives and job creation (DRDAR Annual Reports, 2011/12- 2014/15).

**(k) Jobs created**

According to DRDAR annual reports (2011/12- 2014/15) the following jobs were created.

**Table 2: Jobs created.**

<b>Programme/Project</b>	<b>2011/12</b>	<b>2012/13</b>	<b>2013/14</b>	<b>2014/15</b>
Land care green jobs	1 672	1 826	4 208	1 933
Ncora Irrigation Scheme	<b>120</b> temporal jobs were created during construction process.	375 jobs were created in the three schemes.	-	
Keiskamma Irrigation	<b>21</b> permanent jobs and <b>112</b> temporal jobs were created during construction phase.		-	
Thyefu Irrigation	<b>36</b> permanent jobs were created.		-	-
Rural Infrastructure Development	<b>851</b> temporal jobs were created.	1 419	964	1 930

#### **5.4. SUMMARY**

This chapter gave a comprehensive analysis of the data collected and analysed and interpreted the data as the basis of the study. Based on the data analysis, the researcher was able to reach research findings on budget allocations and spending trends and agricultural and rural development programmes between 2011/12 and 21014/15.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **SUMMARIES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1. INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter all relevant data sources were engaged and the analysis of the data helped the researcher to come up with the research findings. Based on the data engaged this chapter makes recommendation on the implementation of food security and agrarian transformation as one the pillars of Ilima Labantu. As discussed in chapter one, agriculture has been the pillar of rural economy and livelihoods, and therefore rural development in the context of the Eastern Cape and as envisaged in Ilima Labantu can only be realised through agriculture. Conclusions in this chapter will be framed based on each research objective. Lastly recommendations will be made and the list of sources consulted during this study will be listed.

#### **6.2. SUMMARIES OF CHAPTERS**

**Chapter one** gave the background of the Eastern Cape drawing a picture on how rural poor had lived on agriculture for their livelihoods. It was established that agriculture is key to rural economy and over the years there has been noticeable decline of agricultural activities in the rural areas due to many factors ranging from land dispossession, urban migration. The policy interventions implemented since the dawn of democracy has not yielded the much needed results and such more still to be done in reducing high levels of poverty in the province.

**Chapter two** engaged theory on the concept of development, that development means changing the lives of the communities for better, and that communities should be consulted and they must lead their development programmes. Having understood the broader meaning of development, rural development as the subset of development was probed. It became clear that for any rural development intervention to succeed they must embrace both farm and non-farm economy and be people driven. Theories on agriculture development and food security were presented. Having analysed and discussed literature it became apparent that the livelihoods of rural communities are dependent on agriculture as the source of food and income. Rural communities remain

destitute with no basic services and infrastructure as compared to urban areas. For development to succeed such development must be sustainable and consider all other factors like the environment, meet the current demands while preserving for future generations. Underdevelopment and infrastructure backlogs remains a huge challenge in the Eastern Cape and to address this challenge more integrated government planning and support is needed. Lastly the study is a programme Implementation Evaluation and it was through this theory that the research was able to establish analysis tool for the assessment of the implementation of the ECRDS.

**Chapter three** presented rural development policy framework and policies that have been implemented since 1994 such as Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), RSA Constitution (1996), Rural Development Framework (1997), Integrated Sustainable Development Strategy (2001), CRDP (2009), NDP (2010) and Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy (2010). Engagement of the legislative frameworks and policies revealed government's commitment in improving the lives of the rural poor by eradicating poverty, providing basic services and infrastructure.

**Chapter four** outlined the research design and methodology followed in the study. Since the study is based on the evaluation of a Strategy (ECRDS/Ilima Labantu) evaluation as a theory of research. Qualitative research method was selected as a research design and in terms of methodology, secondary data informed the findings of this study.

**Chapter five**, dealt with data presentation, analysis and findings. The data collection method applied in the study was document review technique, analysing various DRDAR annual reports. The chapter revealed that despite numerous developmental interventions and sizeable resource allocations, the Eastern Cape remains largely a poor province and is hit hard by underdevelopment, unemployment and poverty. Therefore, there is a need to do things differently. The study presented programmes implemented by the DRDAR and revealed the extent to which the Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy (ECRDS) pillar on agrarian transformation and food security has been implemented to address rural development, poverty and underdevelopment through agriculture.

**Chapter six** is the concluding chapter that summarises chapters presented in the study, further provides research findings and make recommendations.

### 6.3. CONCLUSIONS

The main conclusions of the study are responses to each objective as stated in Chapter One of this research and are as follows:

**Objective One:** To assess how agricultural development and food security can reduce rural poverty and unemployment and promote rural development.

In order to transform economies of rural areas, agriculture should be centre stage in any rural development. Rural poverty can only be successfully addressed through partnerships that should be forged between all relevant stakeholders (government, private sector, NGOs and communities). Therefore, through sustainable development, rural livelihoods, economies and poverty reduction can be achieved. Rural development should go beyond agriculture and tap into the non-farm rural economy and create more job opportunities for locals while curbing migration into urban areas. A total of 15 467 jobs were created over the period under study and that must have had an impact in improving the livelihoods of the benefiting households.

South Africa's agricultural sector is still untransformed with commercial farming dominated by white farmers while subsistence farming is dominated by black smallholder producers. It is only through a transformed agriculture that food security can be guaranteed for the rural poor, can decrease food prices and can generate income for them. Access to land will ensure increased farm size for smallholder farmers, permitting the use of mechanisation and yielding to higher profits per hectare.

The study concludes that for any development to succeed, it should take into account cultural and socio-political dynamics of that society and should be done in consultation with the affected role players. In the country and the Eastern Cape in particular, many people are still trapped in rural poverty.

**Objective Two:** To establish the availability of government frameworks that ensure that rural development is realised.

Over the years, from RDP to the adoption of the Constitution, the government of South Africa has adopted a number of policies and legislation aimed at enabling agriculture and rural development. These policies were designed to ensure broader consultation, stakeholder participation and redress and transformation in the agricultural sector. However, the study concludes that all these legislative efforts have not yielded the desired outcomes at an accelerated pace and there has been a minimum impact in changing the rural livelihoods. Therefore, despite a plethora of legislative interventions, South African people, in the Eastern Cape in particular, are still trapped in rural poverty and the agricultural sector is still untransformed.

***Objective Three:*** To assess the kind of support offered to farmers by the DRDAR, budget allocation and public spending trends by programmes in support of agrarian transformation and food security.

The study showed that farmers were supported through various programmes ranging from Sustainable Resource Management, Farmer Support and Development, Veterinary Services, Research and Technology Development, Agricultural Economics Services, Structured Agricultural Education and Training, and Rural Development Coordination. Detailed findings on programmes supported to benefit farmers and rural communities were presented in the previous chapter as per subparagraph 5.3.1.1 on agriculture and rural development programmes from 2011/12 to 2014/15 financial years.

Furthermore findings on budget allocations and spending per programmes were also dealt with in the previous chapter, however it worth noting that budget allocations has been inconsistent with some programmes experiencing budget cuts while other got an increase over the financial years under the study.

***Objective Four:*** To evaluate how well the programme-implementing organisation (DRDAR) is able to meet its constitutional obligations and mandate in ensuring that Eastern Cape citizens are food secured.

The study revealed that there are eight (8) functional programmes in the Department through which various service delivery programmes were implemented. Communal and

smallholder farmers are the major clients of the Department who benefited and relied on services rendered by the DRDAR. Support offered ranged from:

- a) Engineering services;
- b) Land care;
- c) Land use management;
- d) Disaster risk management;
- e) Farmers settlement and development;
- f) Extension and advisory services;
- g) Food security;
- h) Animal health;
- i) Export control;
- j) Veterinary public health;
- k) Research;
- l) Technology transfer;
- m) Agri-business Support and Development;
- n) Higher education and training;
- o) Agricultural skills development; and
- p) Rural development coordination.

Many households in the Eastern Cape, particularly in the rural areas, are dependent on agriculture for their livelihoods and therefore government must invest more on agriculture. The study revealed that despite numerous policy and programme interventions, the scourge of poverty remains rife in the rural areas and that:

- ▶ Given the huge support given to farmers, there is still no database of farmers in the province, as that should assist in planning and budgeting.
- ▶ Departmental programmes had ensured that farmers have access to information, adequate skills, modern infrastructure, technology and genetically improved livestock.
- ▶ The annual reports reflects that women and youth benefited from the programmes implemented by the DRDAR and in turn this will grow agriculture in the Province.
- ▶ Programmes were spread across the province and were based on resource suitability of the area.

- ▶ There is no deliberate programme to promote smallholder farmers to become commercial farmers and as such, since democratic dispensation, the progress has been very slow.
- ▶ Food Production policy where huge funding is allocated does not spell out exit strategy that outlines when the Department shall stop assisting a particular farmer or group of farmers as at some point they should have reached a certain level of self-sustainability. In turn, the same farmers end up receiving assistance over and over again with no cut-off time or set production expectations that should serve as performance indicators.
- ▶ There is no clear monitoring of projects after handover and, as a result, farmers are not held liable for the upkeep and sustainability of projects handed over.
- ▶ In some programmes, there have been inconsistent budget expenditure trends as shown and discussed in the tables in Chapter 4.
- ▶ Over the years, budget allocation for rural development has not increased considerably given the magnitude of development backlogs experienced by rural communities.
- ▶ The proposed funding mechanisms in the ECRDS where a rural development fund was to be established never materialised and rural development remains an unfunded mandate.
- ▶ Farmers were provided with financing facilities from the ECRDA.
- ▶ Programme implemented, be it crop production, livestock production, land care or infrastructure projects, were able to create jobs for the benefit of rural communities.
- ▶ Rural development in the context of the Eastern Cape can best be implemented through investment in agriculture.

#### **6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS**

The majority of people faced with poverty resides in the rural areas where they are landless or own small, less productive portions of land with yields that cannot make any impact in changing their rural livelihoods. Due to urban bias and neglect of rural areas in terms of development (infrastructure, basic services, healthcare and education) and potential job opportunities, the majority of residents, particularly young people, are migrating to urban areas in search of job opportunities. The recommendations made in

the study will further assist the DRDAR in its planning for agricultural and rural development programmes.

- ▶ There is a need to define who is a farmer, especially in the context of communal or subsistence farmers. There should be a measure in the definition and that should be in the form of number of livestock one owns, the scale of production and the number of hectares one utilises for production.
- ▶ Based on the defined farmer categories, a provincial farmer database for planning and resource allocation purposes should be developed.
- ▶ The farmer database should be clustered according to commodities (e.g. Maize, Red Meat, Poultry, Wool and citrus) and support given should be commodity based and that should also ease planning. There will subsequently be indicative figures of needy farmers.
- ▶ The Department should design an exit strategy in their service delivery policies so that the same farmers do not benefit from the same programme over and over again, leading to some farmers never getting an opportunity to receive government assistance.
- ▶ All relevant departmental policies should cater for an exit strategy determining the number of years for which support will be provided.
- ▶ To ensure accountability and maintenance of projects and infrastructure handed over to communities or farmers, there should be a determined farmers' contribution on a sliding scale over the agreed period of assistance.
- ▶ The Department should extensively monitor its programmes and projects handed over to communities to determine their socio-economic impact.
- ▶ In order to make major inroads into rural development, there should be a dedicated budget for rural development where provincial departments are compelled to budget a determined percentage for rural development projects.
- ▶ Government should invest more money in agricultural development as many households are dependent on it.
- ▶ The envisaged establishment of a rural development fund should be implemented.
- ▶ Co-operative Government and partnerships must be enhanced to ensure meaningful contribution to the development of the Eastern Cape farmers and rural communities.

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