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Topic:

Sustainable Community Development Programmes and Rural Poverty Eradication in the Eastern Cape: The case study of Buffalo Municipality.

A dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for Master of Social Science in Development Studies.

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DECLARATION

I **Emmison Muleya,** declare that this dissertation is the product of my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Signed…… **Date: December 2013**

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It is with relief that I have come to this point, as this study has taken a rather lengthy period to complete. I received a lot of support from the following people whom I want to acknowledge for their role:

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ABSTRACT

Community development programmes as livelihoods strategies have been central to rural poverty eradication, development thinking and practice in the past decade. But where do such perspectives come from, what are their conceptual roots, and what influences have shaped the way they have emerged? This study offers a historical review of key moments in debates about sustainable community development programmes and rural poverty reduction, identifying the tensions, ambiguities and challenges of such approaches. A number of core challenges are identified in this study, centred on the need to inject a more thorough-going analysis into the centre of livelihoods perspectives. The study was done as a first step to identify, at a local level, evidence of the contribution of such programmes designated to tackle poverty in rural areas in Buffalo Municipality and to establish the challenges faced in providing sustainable livelihood outcomes. This will enhance the capacity of livelihoods perspectives to address key gaps in recent discussions, including questions of knowledge, politics, scale and dynamics. It is of utmost importance to note that funds per see cannot bring the rural poor out of their situation, rather as the study posits, continued support, empowering locals with ongoing training on marketing and how to run business, a culture of savings as well as the development of participatory monitoring and evaluation mechanisms can bring about reduction in poverty through sustainable community development programmes and eventually leading to eradication.

ACRONYMS

ANC African National Congress

BCLEDS Buffalo Municipality Local Economic Development Strategy

BCM Buffalo Municipality

BCDS Buffalo Municipality Development Strategy

CDP Community Development Programmes

DSD Department of Social Development

DFID Department for International Development United Kingdom

DTI Department of Trade and Industry

ESAP Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes

FAO Food and Agriculture Organisation

GEAR Growth Employment and Redistribution

IDPs Integrated Development Plans

IGPs Income Generating Projects

IDS Institute of Development Studies

ISDRS Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

NGO Non Governmental Organisation

PIR Poverty Inequality Report

PRA Participatory Rural Appraisal

RDP Reconstruction and Development Programme

SEDA Small Enterprise Development Agency

SLA Sustainable Livelihood Approaches

SLF Sustainable Livelihood Framework

SMME Small Medium and Micro Enterprises

UNDP United Nations Development Fund

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CHAPTER ONE - GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

In recognising South Africa as a developing country, one's attention turns to new methods and approaches of mobilising change and development. To address development problems and concomitant mass poverty, it is necessary to note that three tiers of government, which are national, provincial and local levels, have all different roles to play in eradicating poverty. This study was done as a first step to identify, at a local level, evidence of the contribution of the Sustainable Community Development Programmes designated to tackle poverty in rural areas in Buffalo Municipality and to establish the challenges faced therein in rendering sustainable livelihoods. Two community development programmes in rural Buffalo Municipality were used as case studies. This chapter introduces the background, problem statement and the main objectives addressed by the study. The significance and delimitation of the study will be discussed. A brief background of the research methodology is presented; even though, a comprehensive discussion of the research methodology will be given in chapter three. To this end, the following section presents the background to the study.

The Republic of South Africa (RSA) occupies the southern tip of the African continent. According to the Encyclopaedia of the World (2010), South Africa stretches latitudinal from 22 degrees to 35 degrees South and longitudinally from 17 degrees to 33 degrees East with a surface area of 1 219 090 square kilometres. The country shares boundaries with Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Swaziland. There is also the republic of Lesotho which is completely enclosed by

South Africa. The other parts of the country are bordered by the coastline with the Indian Ocean on the South and East and Atlantic Ocean to the West. South Africa is further divided into nine provinces, with their own legislature, executive councils and premier. These provinces are KwaZulu Natal, Northern Cape, Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Gauteng, North West, Limpopo and Mpumalanga.

This research took place in the Eastern Cape Province (ECP) which comprises of the former homelands Transkei and Ciskei. The province lies in the south eastern coast of South Africa and is divided into six district municipalities, namely: Alfred Nzo, Amatole, Cacadu, Chris Hani, O.R. Tambo, and UKhahlamba, and metropolitan areas called Nelson Mandela Bay and most recently Buffalo Municipality which previously fell under Amatole District. The province has approximately 6 829 958 according to according to Statistics South Africa (2011). Its provincial capital is Bhisho, and isiXhosa is the main language used by 83, 4% of the provincial population. The Eastern Cape Province is the second-largest province in terms of land size after Northern Cape, taking up 13, 9% of South Africa's area.

Source: BCM GIS Department

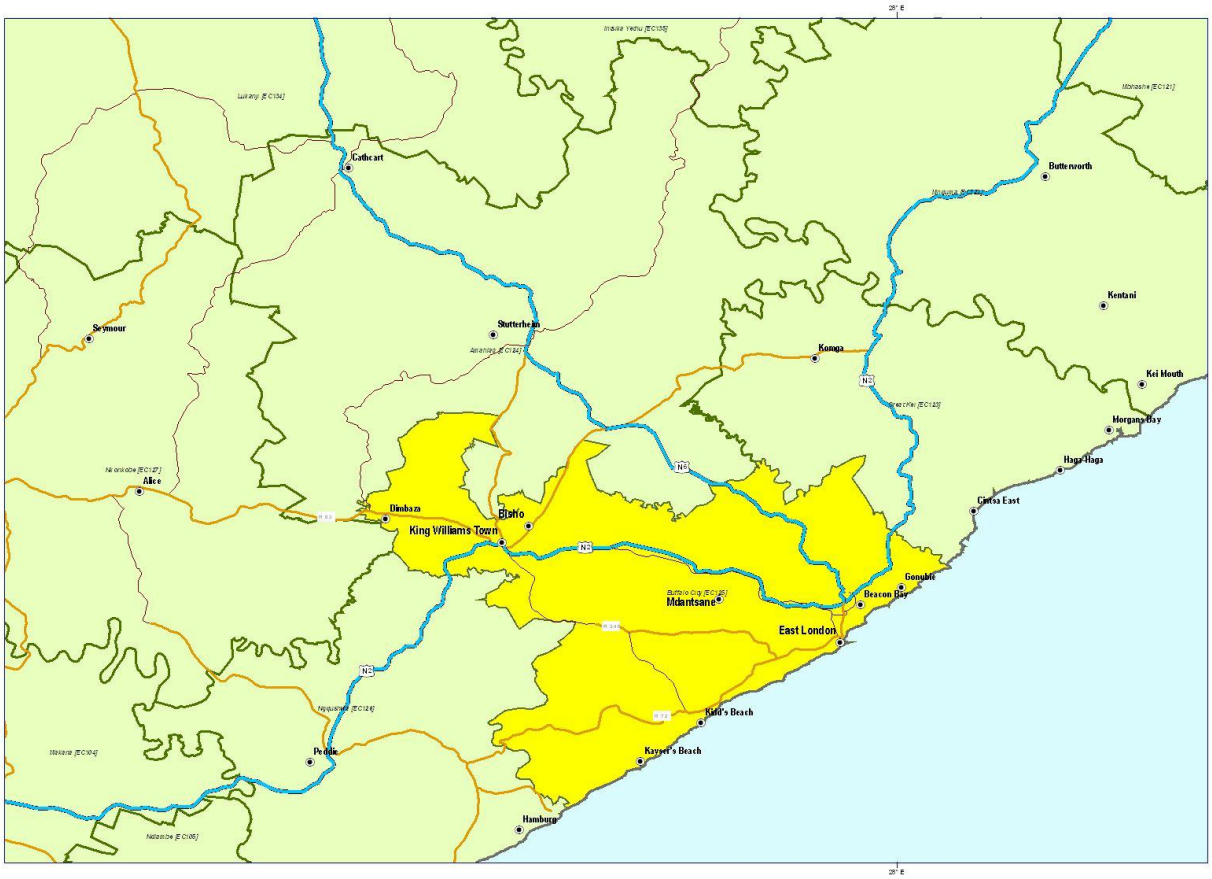


Figure 1: BCM Boundaries and Key Urban Centres

Buffalo Municipality is the key urban centre of the eastern part of the Eastern Cape. It consists of a corridor of urban areas, stretching from the port city of East London to the east, through to Mdantsane and reaching Dimbaza in the west, (BCM, 2008) It should be noted that Dimbaza de-industrialised after the end of Apartheid. East London is the primary node, whilst the King Williams Town (KWT) area is the secondary node. It also contains a wide band of rural areas on either side of the urban corridor (See Figure 1 above). Buffalo Municipality's land area is approximately 2,515 km2, with 68km of coastline (Buffalo Municipality, 2008).

Both King William's Town and East London have important functions. KWT functions as a Regional Service Centre and together with Bhisho, is the Provincial

Administrative Centre and contains the seat of the Provincial Government of the Eastern Cape Province, whilst East London is the dominant economic centre. Buffalo Municipality is broadly characterised by three main identifiable land use patterns. The first has been described above, that is, the dominant urban axis of East London - Mdantsane-KWT, which dominates the industrial and service sector centres and attracts people from throughout the greater Amathole region in search of work and better access to urban service and facilities. The second is the area comprising the fringe peri-urban and rural settlement areas, which, whilst remaining under the influence of the urban axis, is distinct in character and land use patterns. These include the Newlands settlements, those settlements that previously fell within the former Ciskei Bantustans, and the Ncera settlements located west of East London. Thirdly, the commercial farming areas form a distinctive type of area. These areas are dominant in the north-eastern and south-western (coastal) sectors of the Municipality and are characterised by extensive land uses, with certain areas making use of intensive farming (irrigation-based), therefore the commercial farms.

The South African rural areas like throughout the world, tend to have similar characteristics. Populations are spatially dispersed. Agriculture is often the dominant, and sometimes the exclusive economic sector, and opportunities for resource mobilisation are limited. These characteristics mean that people living in rural areas face a set of factors that pose major challenges to development. The spatial dispersion of rural populations often increases the cost and difficulty of providing rural goods and services effectively. The specific economic conditions in rural areas result in fewer opportunities than in non-rural locations. Consequently, rural areas are rarely able to mobilise sufficient resources to finance their own development programmes, leaving them dependent on transfers from the centre. Factor markets

in rural areas often operate imperfectly, rendering the search for efficient outcomes an extremely challenging one. Furthermore, rural areas are often politically marginalised, leaving little opportunity for the rural poor to influence government policies. In many developing countries, policies have also consistently discriminated against agriculture through high levels of taxation and other macroeconomic policies that have adversely affected agricultural performance and the rural tax base. A net transfer of resources out of rural areas has resulted (ISRDS, 2000).

Most of the poor live in rural areas: while 50% of the population of South Africa is rural, the rural areas contain 72% of those members of the total population who are poor (May, 1998:6). She further adds that the poverty rate (which is the proportion of people in a particular group or area falling below the poverty line, and which measures how widespread poverty is) for rural areas is 71%. The poverty gap (which is the annual amount needed to uplift the poor to the poverty line by means of a perfectly-targeted transfer of money, and which measures how deep or intense poverty is) was about R28 billion in 1995, and 76% of this was accounted for by the rural areas (May, 1998:6).

In South Africa, Poverty is distributed unevenly among the nine provinces. Provincial poverty rates are highest for the Eastern Cape (71%), Free State (63%), North-West (62%), Northern Province (59%) and Mpumalanga (57%), and lowest for Gauteng (17%) and the Western Cape (28%) (May,1998:7-8). Furthermore, poverty is *deepest* in the Eastern Cape, Free State and Northern Province, which together make up 36% of the population but account for 51% of the total poverty gap. Poverty is not confined to any one race group, but is concentrated among blacks, particularly Africans: 61% of Africans and 38% of coloureds are poor, compared with 5% of Indians and 1% of whites. Three children in five live in poor households, and many

children are exposed to public and domestic violence, malnutrition, and inconsistent parenting and schooling. The child risk of poverty varies widely by province: in the Eastern Cape 78% of children live in poor households, compared with 20% in Gauteng, May (1998:7-8).

There is little doubt that the poorest of the poor in South Africa are rural dwellers (Mago, 2008: 204). Whilst the majority of rural South Africa was, and still is, held under white control, in the former Black reserves or Homelands the majority of the population only had access to 13% of the land surface of the country (Nel and Binns, 1999). These areas are characterized by severe poverty, disempowerment, dependency and the outmigration of the able. Given the relatively more healthy state of the economy of South Africa, with its better infrastructure, resources and human capital, the country has not experienced economic debilitation to the same degree as other countries in the continent. This broad statement does, however, mask the reality that South Africa remains a highly unequal society as a result of its apartheid legacy. Decades of enforced spatial, social and economic segregation on the grounds of race have left a legacy which is only gradually starting to disentangle.

With growing awareness of the limitations of traditional "top down" approaches for poverty reduction, interest has increasingly shifted to the potentially powerful role of the participation of communities in the planning and management of public sector service delivery at the local level. The focus here is on the sustainable community development programmes. The essence of these programmes lies in activities to be carried out by rural people organised within their own communities. Groups of people should be established in nodal poverty points, rural areas and tourist corridors. These groups are expected to embark on programmes such as handicraft, large-

scale sewing and knitting, services such as catering and the production of goods such as poultry and confectionery products (Department of Social Development, 2008).

The focus of the provincial government since 2003 on the eradication of poverty has seen a renewed interest in community development as an intervention to contribute to the eradication of poverty. In the Buffalo Municipality, the community development programme supported by the provincial department of Social Development is believed, will eventual lead to poverty eradication (*Social Development*, 2007). Given the magnitude of the poverty problem, eradication will be a gradual rather than instantaneous process. Scholars and commentators have been advocating for community development as alternative poverty eradication strategy based on its principle of people-centred development (Kadozo, 2009; Scoones, 1998; Khanya, 2007; Department of Social Development, 2007). Poverty in rural areas is a multidimensional problem that demands numerous solutions to be considered fully in bid to address its implications to socio-economic development. In as much as there are global and many national interventions to the problem of poverty in rural areas, there has been limited attention to the extent to which community development programmes address contextual or rural communities challenges. Community projects play numerous roles that help in terms of income, employment and food that is convenient to the community. What is more alarming is that at global level, challenges to development of rural areas to eradicate poverty are being exacerbated by the brain drain due to rural-urban migration, rising food prices, growing population, profit-focused markets and growing levels of illiteracy in the rural areas.

Rural communities have a much steeper developmental and rural poverty eradication challenges in the country if compared with their urban counterparts. As such, they are an important target group for the implementation of programmes or projects to counter poverty. Community development programmes appear to be playing an important role in this regard, as a result of the extent to which these programmes meets the practical needs of everyday life. Endorsing this view is the EC Provincial DSD (2008) which advised that it is of utmost important to carry out studies to determine the impact of community development programmes at community level since the DSD has invested heavily in a number of community development programmes at community level.

Community development is considered a national priority and the National Department of Social Development in South Africa developed a policy on community development that is relevant to the democratic context of the country (Social Development, 2007). To get a better insight on community development it is important to contextualise it. Community development is not a new concept. From time, communities have engaged in activities designed to improve the well being of their members and have been taking the initiative and responsibility for such activities. According to De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:126-127), the origin of community development, as it is practised and understood today, is traceable to certain specific occurrences and periods. They further add that in the third world, community development became a popular development approach in the 1950s and early 1960s. In addition, the experience gained from community improvement and social welfare programmes in the United States and Britain in the 1930s contributed to the ideology of community development. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:126-

127), further state that other influences on the character of community development in the third world came from the experience of India in rural development in the 1920s and 1930s as well as in 1940s. Although the use of community development programmes has been widely used in rural areas of the third world, it should be noted that it is not only a rural development strategy. Its principles are applicable in the urban areas as well.

However as already stated, when community development was introduced in the Third World of which South Africa included, most people there lived in rural areas and poverty was more pronounced in these areas, and it still is even today. Thus attempts to deal with poverty in rural areas have tended to characterise community development as a rural development strategy. Most government interventions in rural areas through social security grants have resulted in dependence syndrome which has not worked in eradicating poverty in this area. Therefore there is need for an alternative integrated way to address poverty in rural areas. According to Chambers (1983:141), an indirect approach to setting priorities and strategies of the rural poor, may help, drawing on social science research especially case studies of social anthropologists, agricultural economists and well as social workers. On the basis of such evidence something can be said about what the poor in rural areas want, inferring their priorities from what they do as much as, or even more than, from what they say. Chambers (1983:141), suggests two strategies that poor people in the rural areas can take to take address the challenge of persistent poverty, namely - those who contrive a living out of a repertoire of different petty enterprises and activities which may include small scale farming and - those who have only one enterprise or activity such as substance farmers or single-species pastoralists. In the

study, the sustainable community development programmes are used as an example to illustrate the above point through programmes aimed at eradicating poverty and generating income. The essence of these programmes lies in activities to be carried out by rural people organised within communities. Groups of people should be established in nodal poverty points, in rural areas and these groups are expected to embark on programmes such as handicraft, large-scale sewing and knitting, services such as catering and the production of goods such as poultry and confectionery products (Department of Social Development, 2008).

In addition, it worth noting that despite the fact that the African National Congress (ANC) liberation movement emphasised much on eradication of poverty in the rural areas since coming into power in 1994, this has not happened. It is against this backdrop that the study wants to assess the contribution that community development programmes make with regards to reduction and eventually eradication of poverty in rural areas. The Sustainable Community Development Programme rendered by Department of Social Development aims to eradicate poverty and promote sustainable livelihoods through increased household food security among poor and vulnerable, income generation and asset building activities (Department of Social Development, 2008). In spite of all this, however, rural poverty is still rife in the Eastern Cape, including in Buffalo Municipality. The case studies of two rural areas are used to examine the role of community based development programmes in addressing poverty in rural communities of the Eastern Cape in general and particularly in the Buffalo Municipality.

1.2 Problem Statement

Chronic poverty, high unemployment levels and low standards of living characterize most rural areas in sub Saharan Africa. The noted characteristics may result in families failing to meet their food requirements. To address this problem, community development programmes (CDPs) have been suggested as a possible remedy in African countries such as South Africa. In South Africa, CDPs aim to address food insecurity through basic food provisions and employment creation. Despite these notable initiatives and the evident advantages, most residents in rural areas of Buffalo Municipality, South Africa have not taken part in the local CDPs and there is little evidence that CDPs have addressed food insecurity and created sustainable employment. This study seeks to investigate the reasons that have resulted in the lack of notable progress in addressing food insecurity and creation of employment in local CDPs. Highlighting these reasons will contribute to better designed CDPs that will ease the levels of food insecurity and increase employment.

In particular, against the backdrop of this recently implemented community development projects, question arises as to how has these projects impacted on the food security status and access to job opportunities? How exactly are the programmes performing in the light of addressing food security and lack of job opportunities challenges? Are there any other factors inhibiting these community programmes from realising the goal of uplifting the well-being of the beneficiaries of the two case study areas? From the problem articulated here, the objectives of the study follow below.

1.3 The Objectives of Study

According to De Vos *et. al* (2005:104), there is some confusion about the exact meaning of the concepts "goal" and "objective" regarding their use. They define the objective or goal of research in social science as the end toward which an effort or ambition is directed. They further add that the goal of research implies the broader, more abstract conception of the end toward which effort or ambition is directed while objective denotes the more concrete, measurable and more steadily attainable conception of such an end toward which effort or ambition is directed.

The objectives of the study are:

- To assess the impact of the sustainable community development programme to determine whether food security and access to job opportunities have been achieved and ;
- To find out the challenges in the implementation of the sustainable community development programmes in the two villages and their causes.

1.4 The Significance of the Study

The rationale of undertaking this study was to assess community development as an intervention strategy in two rural areas of Buffalo rural areas in order to provide information on how implementation can be improved in the future, so that programmes fit the community's view of needs. It has been observed that the living standards of the rural people have not improved, as would have been anticipated through local government‘s LED programmes as well as the sustainable livelihoods programme. The profits they make are not substantial enough to bring about any change. Further, this study was prompted by the continual prevalence of poverty facing the majority of South African rural communities amidst the various

programmes and initiatives that are in place in South Africa. Kadozo (2009) presented an interesting argument for sustainable livelihoods approaches as the future for income generating activities in different communities in Gauteng Province. Her study, although advocating for community development as a programme that can eradicate poverty whilist creating job opportunities, dwells more on urban areas. This study will take a different view of community development in rural areas with specific reference to provision of sustainable food security as well as increased job opportunities. In that way the study will add knowledge especial to the rural areas were progress has not been evident. In addition a lot of money has been invested in the two programmes, with little if any tangible outcome. Hence, if the study is able to establish why this has been happening and why other sustainable livelihoods programmes have been successful, the implementing organisations and agencies can review their strategies with the view to incorporating the best practices from other programmes. One such successfully programme is the case of Phillippi community in Cape Town (Majija, 2009). It is therefore imperative to carry out an assessment of the sustainable community development programmes to ascertain why their success has been limited and why the rural poor who participate in the programmes have been failing to sustain themselves.

To understand household food security status in South Africa, it is necessary to investigate how food production in the community or household level can be enhanced so as to reduce both food insecurity and poverty. Ideally, poverty and food insecurity should be addressed by intensifying production by smallholder farmers as well as by expanding employment opportunities in the agricultural sector so as to enhancing food security on the one hand and household incomes on the other.

Taking advice from the lessons from Ndlovu (2012) who did a study at Zanyokwe Irrigation Project in Stutterheim, the link between poverty and household food security is not at all clear since there have only been a handful of studies on community development projects and food security within Amatole District Municipality, especially those trying to link the two with poverty issues. Although food insecurity is inevitably bound up with agricultural production, it should be considered within the broader context of poverty. This study sought to fill this gap specifically by looking at the linkages in the main between food security and poverty especially in the community level. Small-scale and subsistence agriculture might be one option to contribute to incomes and/or savings, as well as to encourage food diversification. While household production of food is prevalent, opportunities and threats need to be better understood and appropriate interventions developed to support household-level production.

It is important to also note that although various studies have been done on tackling poverty in rural areas of the Eastern Cape, and most have focused on the role of LED and Micro-finance in poverty eradication for instance (Mamutse, 2012, Mbeba 2011 and Rogerson 2003). This study will look at an alternative view of development, in which Government Departments like the Department of Social Development play a crucial role in dealing with shocks and vulnerabilities of everyday life by assisting rural people improve livelihood strategies for sustainable outcomes, thus focusing on grassroots development. This study sought to fill this gap specifically by looking at the linkages in the main between community development programmes and poverty especially in the rural community level. Small-scale and subsistence agriculture might be one option to contribute to incomes and/or savings, as well as to encourage livelihoods diversification.

1.5 Methodology

Research is essentially a thought process on accumulated facts and data in order to determine what the facts "say" and what the data means (Leedy, 1980:4-7). Hutchinson (1992:51) contended that research is a scientific investigation and study to establish facts to help reach new conclusions. It can be distinguished from other human activities by its systematic nature. Research methodology is referred to as the research strategy or methods of collecting data; it necessitates a reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the research to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity. It clearly indicates the methods of data collection as well as the techniques used for such data collection.

There are two common research methodologies/frameworks within social sciences, namely; qualitative and quantitative research methodology. *Qualitative Research Methodology* refers to research which produces descriptive data; generally people's own written or spoken words (Leedy, 1980:52-53). In qualitative research methodology questionnaires, survey research technique, scrutiny of the relevant literature, interviews, published and unpublished literature, government policies, strategies and observations are used as techniques for data collection. These techniques will assist the researcher to explore a phenomenon bounded by time and activity (a programme, event, process, institution or social group) and collect detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time (Leedy, 1980:195-200).

The Quantitative Research Methodology is based on placing "emphasis on quantification of constructs…. [that] the best, or only, way of measuring the

properties of phenomena is through quantitative measurement, such as assigning numbers of perceived qualities of things…[and] the central role of variables in describing and analysing human behaviour" (Babbie and Mouton, 2002:281).

This study adopted a qualitative approach to research. The reason for choosing this type of research methodology lies in that this study seeks to get an in depth understanding of the role that the community programmes in Ilitha and Kuni rural communities have played in addressing the plight of the participants and the community at large. In this respect, qualitative research methodology is known to play a key role as it allows researchers to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern such behaviour.

Moreover, the qualitative research methodology is advantageous in that it is often used for policy and program evaluation in research since it can answer certain important questions more efficiently and effectively than quantitative approaches. This is particularly the case for understanding how and why certain outcomes were achieved not just what was achieved. It also answers important questions about relevance, unintended effects and impact of programs such as: Were expectations reasonable? Did processes operate as expected? Were key players able to carry out their duties? Were there any unintended effects of the program? Qualitative approaches have the advantage of allowing for more diversity in responses as well as the capacity to adapt to new developments or issues during the research process itself (Babbie, 2001).

This study employed a case study design, which is an intensive description of a particular social unit such as an organization or community, and in this study, the

case is that of two rural villages in Buffalo municipality. This design was undertaken with the intention of uncovering significant factors characteristic of this case with the hope of finding principles that can be extrapolated to similar cases.

The targeted population comprised of both men and women who reside in the two rural villages and are directly involved in the programmes. The study focused on the impact of Sustainable Community Development Programme in poverty eradication in Buffalo municipality and these two villages were chosen because there are diversified livelihoods opportunities that balance food production and income production. A sample of two focus groups and individual indepth interviews from respondents in two case study rural areas where the programme have been implemented and officials (Community Development Practitioners and Supervisor) was used.

The study used target sampling in which the odds of selecting certain individuals are not known. Target sampling is one of the non-probability sampling techniques and in this case the Department of Social Development Community Development Workers working in the two case study areas were approached to provide a list of Community leaders together with people participating in the programme. The advantage of target samples is that they are less complicated and more economical (in terms of time and financial expenses) than probability samples. De Vos *et. al*(2005:203), further state that target sampling is mainly a strategy for obtaining systematic information when random sampling is impossible and when accidental sampling cannot be strictly implemented as a consequence of the hidden nature of the problem. A purposive sampling technique was used in this study so as to find out the views of Community

Development Workers on the impact of the programme in the two rural villages. Purposive sampling technique was chosen specifically to ascertain the views of the Department of Social Development Community Development Workers as expert informants.

The study made use of focus group interviews with the villagers in Kuni and Ilitha rural communities who were directly involved in the programmes and a semi-structured interview with the community members and community development workers and supervisor facilitating the sustainable livelihood programme to find out their views on its impact as well as the challenges they experience in implementing the service as a poverty eradication strategy.

An interview guide was used, which entailed a set of questions written down to guide the interview. The researcher handed the interview guide to the participants and then read the guide together and giving room for the participants to answer questions as we went along. The process of conducting the semi-structured interview has been summed up quite nicely by De Vos *et. al* (2005:297), who further state that not every question has to be asked and the interview may well move away from questions on the schedule. The advantages, are that: interviews are a useful way of getting large amounts of data quickly and are an effective way of obtaining in-depth data. However, interviews also have limitations and De Vos *et. al* (2005:299) mention that personal interaction and cooperation are essential and therefore some participants may be unwilling to share and some respondents tell the researcher what they think they want to know.

In-depth data analysis involved using appropriate qualitative data analysis techniques and this involved providing empirical facts on each sub-section followed by an exhaustive analysis of that section. According to De Vos *et. al*. (200:333), analysis of data brings about order, structure and meaning to the mass of data collected. The data in the study was interpreted by combining individual perceptions in a way that reveals meaning and coherence, while at the same time looking out for issues that could relate to policy as a contextual frame for this particular programme. The method of Thematic Content Analysis was used to interrogate the data obtained. This involved formulating two theme categories for each group of subjects. The final stage of the research involved using these findings to answer the main research question of impact of Sustainable Community Development Programme on eradicating poverty and improving the socio-economic lives of the rural people in Kuni and Ilitha. A detailed discussion on the methodology is provided in Chapter three.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

By definition, delimitations of a study are those characteristics that limit the scope (define the boundaries) of the inquiry as determined by the conscious excluding and including some issues or individuals that is usual made throughout the development of the study. Among these are the choice of objectives and questions, variables of interest, alternative theoretical perspectives that could be take on. Correspondingly, Ellis (2000) stated that while not always possible for reasons of resources and time pressures; accurate livelihood research should involve repeated visits to the same households at different points across the calendar year, both to verify and recall data

collected previously, and to gain an insight into the seasonality characteristics of livelihood strategies.

The sample size used in this study was particularly small as was anticipated at the beginning. Thus, a research with a much larger sample size would produce slightly more different findings that can be generalized to other contexts. The study relied largely on qualitative methodology which made it restrictive that if it could have possibly utilized both quantitative and qualitative approaches. However constrains of time, resources and the difficulty in accessing the research participants made qualitative research more appropriate and realistic for this study.

The other challenge and limitation is related to the reduction in the numbers of membership in both programmes. The original number of research participants from the two programmes was forty; only fourteen members are still active in the programme and participated in the study. The reduction in numbers limited the scope of the study. Another challenge was that the interview schedule was developed in English but questions were asked in Xhosa for the focus group members and that consumed time and disturbed the flow of the process as the researcher himself is used to using the development terms in English.

Another challenge was that the senior officials of the Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Social Development, Community Development and Research Directorate referred the researcher to junior officials. This indicated that the directorate did not see the importance of the study or did not consider that the recommendations and lessons learnt from this study would contribute to improving the current status of rural people.

Another challenge was the lack of archival records to serve as secondary data for the study. This meant that the programme did not have the essential documents required to effectively run the programme. Again the accuracy of some of the information provided by the participants could not be verified by the researcher.

The other limitation of the study is on Sustainable Community Development Programme as a tool to eradicate rural poverty within the Buffalo Municipality locality, in the Eastern Cape. The study was confined to those sustainable community development programmes that were initiated by the Provincial Department of Social Development. This excludes the study from focusing on other livelihoods programmes within the Province of the Eastern Cape that could have made valuable contributions towards poverty eradication.

1.7 Ethical Considerations

The conducting of research requires not only expertise and diligence but also honesty and integrity. This is done to recognize and protect the human rights of respondents. To render the study ethical, the rights to self-determination, anonymity, confidentiality and informed consent was observed. The general ethics of a research study were adapted to form a critical part of the study as the researcher requested consent to visit the programmes. Programme documents were also requested and the reason for their request was explained to the members so that they could make an informed decision about issuing programme records or not. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 102) states that participants have the right to choose not to participate. It is the researcher's obligation to respect the rights, needs, values and desires of the research participants (Creswell, 1994: 56).

The aim of the research was fully explained to the respondents and to the Department of Social Development local office responsible for monitoring and funding the programmes. The study used the interview schedules to collect data from the research participants and the information was recorded by hand. The names of the participants were not written on the interview schedule in order to protect the participant from unacceptable behaviour by researchers. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) concur with this process as the authors emphasize that the names of participants can be removed at all and identified participants by numbers. The researcher was guided by research ethics to ensure confidentiality, protection as well as the rights of the participants not to be taken advantage of. The Head of Development Studies Department also wrote a support letter highlighting the title of the study as well as explaining the purpose of research and motivating for the researcher to be given access to the study areas helped facilitated the whole process of conducting the study ethically.

Confidentiality was maintained by preserving the privacy of the information obtained, which was to be used strictly for academic purposes. Respondents' consent was obtained before administering the interviews. The respondents' consent was obtained through asking for their willingness to participate voluntarily in the study. Burns and Grove (1993:776) define informed consent as the prospective subject's agreement to participate voluntarily in a study which is reached after assimilation of essential information about the study. The respondents were informed of their rights to voluntarily consent or decline to participate at any time without penalty. Respondents were also informed about the purpose of the study and were given the assurance that there were no potential risks or costs involved.

1.8 Organization of the Study

Chapter one of the study covers an overview of the background to the proposed study, problem statement as well as objectives of the study, delimitations of the study and the ethical consideration of the study. In Chapter two the conceptual, theoretical and empirical literature guiding the study will be reviewed. Chapter three will contain the methodology, research design and, location of the study and research sample, data collection process, data analysis and ethical consideration, value of study and the conclusion. Chapter four will have an introduction followed by the findings and analysis of the findings of the study. Finally, Chapter five will provide the conclusion, the recommendations and the concluding remarks of the study.

CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW

2. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter as alluded to in chapter one, is to examine the literature that is relevant to the researcher's study. The key concepts underpinning the study are clarified and articulated and community development is explored first. It will also present the theoretical framework guiding the study as well as the argument for and against the theories discussed. The chapter further cite examples of analogous studies done elsewhere.

2.1 Defining Community Development

There are a number of definitions of community development as there have been many scholars on the concept. The fact that there is uncertainty about what constitutes community development has been mentioned in the previous chapter on general introduction. This uncertainty is reflected in the literature, which inevitably leads to community development practitioners not only being confused about what is involved in community development, but also about how it should be applied. Community development has been on the scene for many decades and has enjoyed mixed support. This notion is supported by De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:ix) who state that views on community development have also been altered over the years mostly because practice has shown the necessity for such changes . As a point of departure in this study, it is necessary to know and understand definition of community development in general.

The study defines the concepts of community and development to provide a common platform for conceptual framework for understanding community

development. Community is defined in terms of a group of people who share some things that bind them together. These could be physical location, or sociocultural such as heritage, common experience or common visions, values and expectations, (Chile, 2004: 10-11). On the same line of thinking but a precise definition is given by (Wright, 2000: 89) who defines a community as "a collective group of people who share an identity on the grounds of common characteristics and shared beliefs." Lombard (1991: 63-64) explicates a community as "a structure of relationships through which a localized population provides its daily requirements." She states that a community is made up of subsystems. Such subsystems are social welfare, education, health, economy, local government and religion. A critical element of a community is that it should be functional. To be functional the subsystems need to work together. Weyers (1997: 23), also notes the importance of relations in his definition of a community, and defines it as a social system which originates when a population of individuals, localized in a specific area, establishes and utilizes structures and relationships to deal with impediments, and develops a sense of communal thinking, feeling and activities. The given definitions evidently communicate a need for cohesion and a sense of belonging to those who live in community.

The concept of community is critical in the understanding of the practice of community development for community well-being. Chile (2004:11) identifies two important levels showing how critical the concept of community is in the understanding of community development, namely, the personal group and the political level. At the personal-group level, community fulfils three principal needs, namely the need for self awareness and self-identity, those things that make a

community distinct and give it pride in itself; and the need for collective active to protect and promote self and collective identity and meet both current needs and work towards creating a common vision and attaining desired future expectations. At the political level community becomes the locale for conscientization and action, understanding power, power relations and the distribution of power and how these may be used to attain the goals of well-being of the individual and the community. The needs at the political level are for the community to be effectively organised and managed internally to enhance the capacity of the members and groups in the community to operate in the political arena, to relate to each other, with other groups within the community and outside of the local community; for the community to develop internal capacity to undertake necessary actions for effective social change; and to develop civil society to lead the process of social change.

Development is defined in many different ways by various sources. However, the researcher chose to discuss two relevant meanings to develop a context aligned with the researcher's arguments in the study. Development as defined by Coetzee, Graaf, Hendricks and Woods (2001: 120), is about growth and positive change in the communities. They add that development is a comprehensive consultation, joint decision making, satisfaction of basic needs and living a better life. Winberg *.et .al*. (1997: 79) support this definition when they emphasize that development is not only about improvement of people's quality of life but should also enable people to regain control of their own lives. Nevertheless, Jeppe (1985:35), gives a better and more humanistic version of development. At the core of development lies the role of the people as the people are the main target of development and their well-being been the purpose of development.

According to Jeppe (1985:35), "development broadly includes the following:

i) Economic growth to better provide for the material needs of the people, mainly through diversification of the production process and expanded opportunities for the people to participate and contribute to the process of economic growth.

ii) Political development, i.e. the creation and strengthening of institutions and the provision of opportunities for the people to participate in the process of decision-making at the national, regional and local levels.

iii) Social development, i.e. to improve the quality of life of the people at the educational, cultural, spiritual and recreational levels."

This study aligns itself with Jeppe (1985)‘s definition of development as all the three aspects highlighted above allude to the fact that at the core of development lies the role of the people.

As a term, community development is defined as "a movement designed to promote better living for the community with active participation and if possible, on the initiative of the community" (Jeppe, 1985: 25). According to Midgley (1995: 117), "community development is about partnership between external agencies and local people where the community contributes labour and community resources while technical expertise and external resources are provided by the community development agency." In most cases the community development agency would bring finances and knowledge on how to go about implementing the programme and the community would bring community resources, community knowledge and their efforts for the success of the programme. Community development is defined as an emphasis on social change through the empowerment of individuals, community

action and community-based organisational development, with a view to achieving social and economic equity (Kenny; 1998:123; Doyle, 1998:50).

Authors such as Jeppe (1985: 25) and Gray (1998: 59) agree that community development is a primary intervention strategy for social development especial for rural areas in South Africa. Social development utilizes community development as a tool to develop communities that is move communities out of poverty to independence. Gray (1998: 56) emphasized that community development is an appropriate intervention strategy to combat poverty in rural by stating that it is also a process implemented in the community and involves community members in improvement of their own lives. As a strategy it seeks to improve the socio-economic and cultural conditions of communities through programmes designed to achieve a wide mix of specific improvement, Jeppe (1985:35).

The sustainable livelihoods programme pilot project (2006: 10) adopts the United Nations (1963) definition of community development as a process by which efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of the communities and to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable the m to contribute fully to national progress. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996: 9) defines community development as a strategy to address basic material, physical needs and social needs and to encourage voluntary participation in social and community programmes. Lombard (1991: 109) states that community development is a process by which unexpected skills and expertise of the people are unleashed and utilized.

Communities are thus permitted to identify their needs and derive solutions to their

challenges. The success and the impact of community development is dependent on the extent of the communities' participation. Community development should be people-centered through active and voluntary participation of the community. *The Commission on Community Development Policy* (2007:26) defined community development as an integral, holistic empowering process leading to change and growth based on participation and ownership for collective sustainable development. Further the commission defined sustainable livelihoods as a process of economic growth targeting individuals, families and communities through sustainable revenue generating activities/venture for the well being of communities. This is the definition that will be adopted for this research.

It is worth noting as a stepping stone the fact that there are linkages between the sustainable livelihoods approach in community development and eradication of poverty in rural areas. An in-depth understanding of the endowment, functioning and interaction of institutional and organisational mechanisms of rural society is therefore of paramount importance for eradication of poverty in rural areas through community development and poverty alleviation efforts. According to Baas (1998:2) an institutional approach to community development and rural poverty reduction outlines ways and means on how to improve given institutional constellations - to identify the rules and patterns of behaviour and collaboration which reconcile and/or optimise rationality on the part of individuals with rationality on the part of society. Social capital formation then can be promoted and/or built up by the way of a participatory institutional development approach at local level.

An important aspect in poverty eradication in rural areas identified by Baas (1998:2) is participatory community development, which in its broadest sense, is a process which mobilises locally co-ordinated collaborative action of small groups of rural (poor) populations and establishes collaborative linkages between these groups and other local and higher level institutions. Since the poor in rural areas generally lack economic and physical capital, focusing on strengthening their social capital makes sense as it is a pre-requisite for achieving sustainable collective action and useful in acquiring all other forms of capital. This focus implies the strengthening local populations to better plan, manage and monitor their access to assets. As a basic principle participatory community development is demand driven since the rural people themselves, with appropriate organisational and technical assistance, are the best sources for information necessary to identify their problems and the solutions that will suit them and belong to them.

Participatory community development for rural areas strengthens localised social capital accumulation processes by mobilising self-help capacities, progressive skills development, and local resource mobilisation (savings, indigenous knowledge) in order to improve ultimately the group member's human, natural, and economic resource base and their political power. The approach reduces costs at both ends: the service delivery costs of governments, NGOs and the private sector, and the access costs of the poor in obtaining these services. Yet since local level self-help initiatives often require support from higher decision making levels, the establishment of a two-way system of communication connecting the bottom to top and the top to bottom is essential.

Refocusing on community development requires well informed processes, such as inclusive decision-making, community vision and collaborative partnerships between the private and the public sector organisations and institutions, establishing and nurturing local community networks to sustain diverse local perspectives by fostering trusting relationships and understanding between community members, groups and agencies. It must also effectively address and link issues at all three levels that community development operates namely, the individual and family (the micro level) who are at the centre of all development initiatives, the groups and immediate community (meso level), and the larger society and policy framework at the macro level. Emphasizing on the above issue, Chile (2004:13), stated that development intervention must deliver on creating partnerships between governments at local, regional and national levels, community groups and community based agencies; linking local leadership at the community level, bringing people, resources and commitment together to address the felt in local communities, support and enhance the building of broad-based involvement of the appropriate communities of interest in the development process, thereby increase in inclusion and minimise marginalisation.

Community development has principles that guide the effective implementation of community development processes. Cormack (1993: 56) states that principles are social norms and rules aiming to attain the ultimate objective. Coetzee *et. al.* (2001) explain that a principle articulates what is required or not including what should be avoided or not. The researcher reviewed these principles because they influence the strategies utilized by the Community Development worker to implement community development in various communities and in working with rural communities.

The principles are clearly discussed by Jeppe (1985), Midgley (1995) and Swanepoel (1997: 2-12) as follows:

The principle of human orientation

This principle addresses basic human needs. Midgely (1995) in summing up this principle mentions the deprivation trap where people have physical and abstract needs that are not met or fulfilled. The most important abstract need of a human being is dignity as communities, especially youth, women and the elderly; have to be treated with dignity because they are human beings who can make decisions for themselves. Respect for the community is important no matter how poor the community is or how illiterate the people are. Most often, cooperatives or any programmes implemented in the rural area is composed of illiterate people who do not have formal skills. They should be treated with dignity, respect and processes should be facilitated according to their level of understanding.

The principle of participation

According to De Beer and Swanepoel (1998:17-18) through participation solid local knowledge is used for development as participation is crucial to development. The involvement and active participation of communities in their own development is a very important process of development, as communities are able to share information and resources. Furthermore, Swanepoel (1997: 27) regards community participation as the right of the poor to prioritize their needs and make decisions on how they should be addressed. It is about the empowerment of the people to bring about change and have access to resources in an attempt to alleviate poverty. Coetzee *et. al.* (2001: 125) state that participation takes place when people are consciously involved in decision making. Participation gives community members

control of their development, resources and their lives. Community participation in development is crucial as this will ensure that rural people's needs are addressed effectively.

According to Midgley (1995: 55), community development projects lead to further development as further needs are identified and additional projects are established through active participation of communities. In addition, community participation encourages collective self reflection on their experience and problems (Burkely, 2000: 56). Participation as a critical element of community development, should take place at all levels of development and communities should be allowed to participate at a very early stage to enable the community to learn and to own their development.

The principle of empowerment

Swanepoel (1997) explains empowerment as a process that includes information, knowledge and experience that brings confidence to the people in their own abilities. On the same line of thinking but with a vivid way of putting it, Midgley (1995). Stated that empowerment is about the acquisition of power and the ability to give it effect. Empowerment is a natural result of participation. Rural people especially women do not participate in community development programmes in most cases because they are not given the opportunity to participate and they lack knowledge, resources and skills to give them power to be actively involved.

The principle of ownership

Jeppe, (1985) states that this principle seeks to entrench ownership of development where it belongs in the community. Women and men in the communities have a

responsibility to sustain development in their communities and women have a good reputation for looking after their children's benefits. Dryer and Bruce (1988) cited in Ellis (2000: 143) noted that women are more likely than men to spend cash resources under their jurisdiction on household needs. This principle is very important to South African communities, who according to the researcher's experience, some of whom destroy assets or property they view as belonging to the government when their demands are not met. It is very crucial therefore, to see to it as development practitioners that communities take ownership of their development as early as possible and are encouraged to understand that government only provides financial and technical support for what the community has initiated. When people take ownership of their development they protect and appreciate their programmes and assets.

The principle of release

Swanepoel (1997) states that the principle of release emphasizes a holistic approach to development and the sustainability of a project. The principle aims at releasing people from the deprivation trap of poverty to independent communities. The goal of development is to eradicate poverty and release the people from poverty in a sustainable manner. The damage of distorted development in South Africa cannot be changed in fourteen to twenty years as it is not only about providing financial support to the communities but of establishing a change of mind set and attitude so that thus understand that they should be responsible for their lives and their own development.

The principle of learning and adaptiveness

Swanepoel (1996) state that while people strive to fulfil their needs they become better at it as they learn in the process. By striving to fulfil their needs, people realize their objectives easily and are able to adapt to their situation. This leads to the development of other programmes as communities are able to further identify their needs. The community development worker should also be open to learning from the community in order to provide assistance to that community. The researcher agrees with Starkey (1996: 289) when he states that learning organizations are leading organizations as learning communities are able to access resources, identify their needs and network to address their challenges. When communities learn they will gain additional knowledge about their development and will be able to cope better with their circumstances.

The principle of simplicity

This principle encourages simplicity in projects should ensure that people realize their potential of learning and participation in their development (Swanepoel, 1997: 14). The principle of simplicity encourages the implementation of programmes that are understood by the community as people centred and people driven programmes. The past/history of the majority of rural people should be kept in mind as they are illiterate and lack the skills needed to effectively steer their own development. With skilled facilitation, communities can become equipped with skills and knowledge towards self reliance. Community development has been proved by Gray (1998) and Jeppe (1985) to be a suitable strategy for the improvement of livelihoods of rural communities.

The implementation of community development programmes and projects in developing has been marred by different problems (De Beer and Swanepoel, 2000:130). The widespread failure of community development programmes due to financial problems, mainly caused by aid withdrawal, has already been alluded to. Another problem at the project level was that most of the benefits of development tended to go to the rich and not the poor because insufficient steps were taken to ensure the participation of the latter, a fact supported by Chambers (1983:145-150). The failure of governments to decentralise decision-making power was another factor.

In spite of the fact that community development projects were implemented in local communities, many operational decisions were taken in national capitals. In fact, even decisions about the designs of the projects were not in the hands of local communities. This means that the fundamental principle that people should define their own needs was violated. So, communities never really took a keen interest in ensuring the success of these projects which they saw as government projects. Other problems in implementing community development as identified by De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:130), were caused by the failure of governments to provide properly trained community workers to organise community development projects. This was partly due to financial constraints but also because of lack of understanding of the significance of the role played by community development workers. As a result of these problems community development never quite fulfilled its promise of helping to eradicate poverty.

Nonetheless, studies have been done on the role of community development in South Africa but nothing was ever done in Buffalo Municipality context. This study, therefore, investigates the impact of community development in Buffalo Municipality rural areas with the aim of providing specific solutions and alternatives in eradication of poverty. For this to be achieved the study took into consideration various theoretical perceptions. Based on the above understanding of community development, a review of three theoretical approaches to rural development; modernisation approach, basic needs approach and the sustainable livelihoods approach (SLA) and their contributions to the study will provide more insight into the subject under study.

2.2 Theoretical perspectives on community development in rural areas

This section discusses the three theoretical approaches underpinning community development and rural poverty eradication. A theoretical framework for a study of this nature is of critical importance, because it will serve as a fulcrum for the gathering and analysing of data. Because of the wide-ranging circumstances and workings of communities, content from almost all of the disciplinary theories at times may be relevant in community development.

2.2.1 The modernisation approach to community development and rural poverty reduction

This approach emerged in the 1950s and 1960s were considerable emphasis was placed on the transfer of significant amounts of aid and the provision of extensive technical assistance to developing countries(Ellis and Briggs, 2001). This period

was accompanied by systematic national planning in concert with bilateral and international agencies, (De Beer and Swanepoel, 2000:32). Large scale industrial projects were seen as central components in the promotion of rapid economic growth and on development aid and technical assistance in improving socio-economic conditions on a range of fronts.

The modernisation theory generally places a strong emphasis on values De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:36). Economic change is seen as affecting values, but more crucially, a change in values is seen as leading to qualitative changes in the economy of the society or societies concerned. In addition, industrialisation is seen as a cause and effect of the modernisation processes ushering in new societal arrangements appropriate to the running of modern industry and the application of new technologies. Such arrangements would reinforce the growth and expansion of the middle class.

According to modernity, policies intended to raise the standard of living of the poor often consist of disseminating knowledge and information about more efficient techniques of production. For instance, the agriculture modernisation process involves encouraging farmers to try new crops, new production methods and new marketing skills (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). In general, modernization led to the introduction of hybrids, the green house technology, genetically modified (GMO) food, use of artificial fertilizers, insecticides, tractors and the application of other scientific knowledge to replace traditional agricultural practices.

The above view is endorsed by De Beers and Swanepoel (2000:37), who pointed out that modernisation is about exchanging of older agriculture practices with something more recent. The modernisation theory views underdevelopment as an original condition of backwardness and proposes that for developing countries to draw level with the developed countries there is need of great penetration of modern economic principles and institutions. Rural societies can therefore be regarded as modern when they display specific characteristics. The extent to which these characteristics are exhibited gives an indication of the degree of modernity that has been reached. The characteristics are cited succinctly by Coetzee et al. (2007: 31) as:

(i) Readiness to accommodate the process of transformation resulting from changes.

(ii) Continuous broadening of life experiences and receptiveness to new knowledge.

(iii) Continuous planning, calculability and readiness towards new experiences.

(iv) Predictability of action and the ability to exercise effective control.

(v) High premium on technical skills and understanding of the principles of production.

(vi) Changing attitudes to kinship, family roles, family size and the role of religion.

(vii) Changing consumer behavior and the acceptance of social stratification.

Broadbent (1990:49), further adds different phases over which the approach and means of application have been altered. During the 1950s to early 1960s, the community development movement which rapidly expanded during this period implemented national or regional community development programmes. Due to failure to deal with agrarian issues and for not reforming the rural power structure, the community development movement lost cause to be replaced by the green revolution between 1963-73 (Broadbent, 1990:49).

The modernisation approach to community development and eradication of poverty in rural areas can be further exemplified in the Green revolution. The goal of the Green Revolution approach to rural development was the promotion of agricultural productivity through the delivery of modern, effective packages of inputs and services. It consisted on use of high-yield varieties of food grains, the combined effects of which were thought to bring about a transformation of rural areas. The need to improve food production in order to meet the demands of a growing population led to the establishment of various initiatives, one of which was the green revolution (Alusala, 2009:52-55). An increase in population is equated with an increase in demand for food. In order to meet this growing demand, new techniques in food production had to be introduced. The 'green revolution' strategy was formulated in the 1940s, and was mostly funded by the Ford Foundation, which sought to improve the quality and quantity of agricultural production in an effort to meet the demands associated with a growth in human population. In order to achieve this objective, the green revolution strategy prioritised the use of advanced agricultural technology, pesticides. The green revolution also promoted the use of hybrid seeds to ensure maximum yields, which included the use of farmer extension services, fertilizers and pesticides. The green revolution also promoted the use of hybrid seeds to ensure maximum yields.

In addition Alusala (2009: 53) stated that, the advent of the green revolution was marked by an introduction of new varieties of hybrid crops and modern technology in terms of farm equipment and machinery. This new approach yielded positive results in the agricultural sphere, and the new varieties increased crop yields. The most remarkable aspect of the green revolution is that while yields increased per given

unit, the future of the large majority of poor households still hung in the balance, with most of them unable to afford basic foods and commodities, hence limiting their access to food. This was because the implementation of the green revolution policy meant that small-scale farmers, who formed the majority in developing countries, could not actively participate. The reason for this was that this category of farmers did not posses the necessary capital to purchase inputs and machinery needed for capital-intensive agriculture.

During the 1970s, in an effort to extend the benefits of development to rural people, a regional or area-based approach was developed and adopted by many countries and by many international agencies(ISRDS:3). The approach aimed to tackle rural poverty in a cross-sectoral manner through integrated rural development projects (IRDPs). But the mixed experience with IDPs led to the development of a detailed critique, which, among other things, highlighted the failure to involve local people properly in a participatory process and the failure to build capacity as major shortcomings. In addition, an overly centralised, blueprint approach to programmes design left implementation agencies unable to respond to the demands of local people.

The subsequent retreat of national governments and the development agencies from an integrated approach back to more traditional, single -sector approaches left development practitioners looking for new opportunities to support rural development. Recent experience from a number of developing countries suggests that programmes of decentralisation accompanied by parallel efforts to promote

greater power and autonomy in decision making for local communities can offer genuine opportunities to improve outcomes.

Growing evidence suggests that appropriately empowered and trained rural local governments can make an important contribution to rural development. In this context, it is important that centrally-designed systems of inter-governmental fiscal transfers provide appropriate incentives for local governments. These incentives can be supported by ensuring that budgetary flows are transparent, predictable and autonomous. From the perspective of central governments, the institutional dimensions of decentralisation often centre around defining which formal governmental institutions are to be involved and establishing an appropriate legal framework to define relationships between different levels of government. Central governments have not generally sought to define a role for non-governmental institutions. Such institutions are often perceived to be technically backward and managerially incompetent, or to pose a direct threat to the government through political opposition. From the perspective of rural people, however, the institutional situation they confront is likely to be far more complex and varied, comprising a whole range of central and sub-national governmental agencies, parastatal organisations, as well as the full complement of nongovernmental institutions, such as religious, cultural, political, social welfare and economic organisations all with their own "rules of the game" and individual objectives.

For a decentralised system to work effectively, co-operation is required at the local level between formal governmental institutions and the range of less formal non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs).

The involvement of NGOs and CBOs, as well as individuals themselves, is increasingly being seen as an indispensable part of a participatory process that fosters consensus building. It is at the interface between these formal and informal institutions that the practical implementation of decentralisation effectively takes place. Institutional capacity plays a central role in any decentralisation process. Failure of local governments to take advantage of the opportunities provided by decentralisation because of a lack of capacity will result in poor outcomes. Local governments and other institutions that cannot adequately administer and account for grants or effectively mobilise local resources will find those powers swiftly taken back. NGOs and other CBOs that lack managerial capacity or, alternatively, focus on furthering their organisation's own ends at the expense of the broader community will undermine successful outcomes.

The theory is criticized, for instance (Coetzee *et. al*., 2007: 101), for failing to consider the poor as the centerpiece in poverty reduction initiatives. By ignoring the involvement and participation of the target community, modernity achieves the marginalization of their commitment, creativity and support of the intervention strategies. The intervention strategy becomes an imposed strategy and such a strategy fails to construct adequate notions of both the causal powers of social structures and the role of human agency in shaping social relations in general. Perhaps the most crippling weakness of the modernization theory is its oversimplified view of social change (Coetzee *et. al*., 2007: 101). Human nature has a propensity to resist change in favour of the status quo. Change is resisted because it brings in elements of uncertainty.

A major criticism of the modernisation theory as noted by De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:38) was the inability or reluctance of the modernisation theory to take the global situation fully into account. Obstacles to change were seen as primarily internal, and the advanced industrial societies as the champions of industrial development; it was assumed that the process of industrialisation and modernisation was inevitable and that newly developing countries have a good chance or better of industrialising.

The other intriguing weaknesses of the modernisation theory is that it is based on deterministic reason which states that within the linear model of socio-economic development, changes are initiated externally (Coetzee *et. al*., 2001:.40-41). The determinist reason gives little room for the reciprocal relationship between causation from within the developing region and from outside the developing region. The premise encourages the foreign powers to prescribe the route to Africa's development.

It should be noted that although growth encouraged development in some segments of the economy, it left large portions of the population untouched as pointed by Crosswell, (1981:2) cited in Mukozho (2011: 29). Discontentment with the modernization theory of the 1950s precipitated new strands of thinking which resulted in the realization that this theory will not bring about rural development. According to Alusala (2009: 53-54), despite years of a successful green revolution, household food security has not yet been achieved in Sub-Saharan Africa. This is partly because women, who are usually at the forefront in terms of household food production, have not had access to the factors of production, especially land. Alusala

(2009:55), further added that the green revolution has been responsible for things such as an increased loss of biodiversity, compromised food quality, increased pollution from the use of chemical fertilizers, loss of jobs due to mechanisation, and land degradation. This realization resulted in the emergence of a notion which focused not only on production but also on the question of the fulfillment of basic needs.

2.2.2 The basic needs approach (BNA)

The BNA was developed after the dependency theory and modernization theory could not meet the expected results of addressing poverty (Davids *et. al,* 2005: 17). This approach dominated development discourse in the 1970s and shifted from industrialization and trickle down to the rural sector and redistribution. It was based on a bottom-up blue print model and according to Broadbent (1990:49), it introduced two important ideas to rural development strategy, firstly, the idea that there was a target group - the rural poor- on which whom rural development should focus on. Secondly, that rural development should be integrated based on the understanding that poverty results from a series of causes and that necessitating rural development involved the interaction of a large number of interrelated activities. This was a great step towards initiating change in the life of the poor rural communities previously neglected by the previous perceptions of rural development. Consequently, one can argue that this approach is more people-centred compared to the modernisation approach looked at above.

The approach was developed as a strategy focusing on people-driven and human-oriented development. Development of a community should be based on the needs

of the people in the community. The BNA believes that human beings have the right to live in a world that is meaningful to them and be able to contribute actively. Development should allow communities to live their lives in their own way. There is a shift from macro theories to focusing on people and communities (Jeppe, 1990: 62).

This approach upholds human rights and ensures that people are treated as human beings, irrespective of gender (Reconstruction and Development Programme, 1994). The current government believes and requires people-driven and people-centred approaches in developing South African communities. This is compulsory for any development agency, especially government departments. The human needs approach means that communities will be developed from where they are and at their own pace. This approach exposes and allows participation of poor rural people in development projects and makes them active participants in their communities and in their own development. The human-centred approach emphasises a holistic understanding of poverty that reflects the understanding of poverty from the poor's perspective as indicated in the definition of poverty by the poor. Davids *et.al* (2005:40) add that this approach incorporates most of the key elements of other perspectives in a human-focused manner. It includes the absence of or limitation on choice of basic human needs such as access to education, isolation and lack of opportunities for a better life which have been prioritised in addressing poverty in the Ilitha and Kuni rural areas.

Chambers (1983) as cited in Nicholas *et. al* (2010), views poverty in rural areas as entrapment because poor households are trapped in clusters of disadvantages through isolation, material poverty and vulnerability. An example is isolation leads to

poverty because of lack of money and access to services. He therefore emphasises the participation of the poor in facilitating development. This approach largely dwells on poverty as unmet fundamental human needs like in situations where there is inadequate income water, food and unreliable protection systems against crime and where there is poor access to good education and health and recreational facilities, (Nicholas *et.al*, 2010:360-361). That is when people are in awe and shock due to failure to meet basic needs then government chips in to help through poverty relief programmes.

However, during the late 1970s and early 1980s there was concern over the potential hypocrisy of using such a strategy and suspicion about the intentions of aid-giving governments and international agencies. Authors such as, Streeten, (1982:17) cited in Mukozho (2011: 30) argue that concerns and suspicions are justified because some donors have misinterpreted and abused the concept. These misconceptions have taken several forms. To start with the approach has been interpreted as a substitute for growth, modernisation, industrialisation and self-reliance. Industrialisation brought wealth and power to the North, yet it was felt that the rich wanted to prevent the developing countries from following the same path. Others felt that the slogan of basic needs has been used to justify reduced foreign aid for lack of projects and absorptive capacity in the poorest countries. It is important to note that these interpretations come from the developing countries which were the ones to benefit from the approach. Misconceptions have been that the developing countries did not see how they were to benefit from the implementation of this concept and thus they failed to embrace it altogether.

Wiggins (2004) states that although ‘improving’ agriculture alone will not lead to a reduction in hunger and food insecurity, agriculture has played and will continue to play a fundamental role. Most commentators and policy makers frame agriculture’s contribution in two key criteria, that is increasing the availability of food at prices that poor people can afford as well as providing improved job opportunities and incomes that will give poor people the means to access food. These two criterion address food availability and food access which are important component of food security. Incomes generated in agriculture projects also provide the money to access other forms of food. Thus, increasing productivity in a community help impact the following three components: increased incomes of farmers, increased rural employment; that is employment opportunities and rural wages for other people in the non-farm rural economy and it has wider implications to wider economic growth and poverty reduction.

Another benefit of expanding agriculture is increased employment opportunities and higher wages in rural areas. Accelerated agricultural development, particularly increasing agricultural productivity typically creates more jobs and, depending on levels of employment and underemployment, pushes up wage rates both on- and off-farm. Since community driven development rises mostly because of hunger, agricultural growth increases the demand for labour in preparation, planting, weeding and harvesting and can result in higher wage rates. While intensification may involve some labour-economising measures, the ability to double- and even triple-crop the land has been shown to consistently increase the demand for labour, even if unit labour use falls (Ndlovu, 2012). All this has been witnessed in India in the 1970s and 1980s and in Bangladesh in the same period. It later led to increased food security in the respective countries in years to follow. In addition, it has been established that as

farmers become richer, they are increasingly inclined to substitute hired labour for household labour, thus creating greater employment opportunities(Wiggins, 2004). Dev (1998), cited in Wiggins (2004) provides more evidence from India and suggests that increases in agricultural productivity led to 125% increases in average incomes of the landless. Agricultural development also generates new and better-paid jobs off-farm for the poor through linkages between agriculture and the wider rural economy. The combination of extra jobs within and outside farming can have strong effects on rural labour markets, pushing up wages and improving the ability of the poor to buy food. This rise in incomes helps to provide incomes that people can use to purchase food in difficult circumstances.

Leavy and White (2000) note that in rural Africa, employment opportunities exist not only on large commercial farms but also in the smallholder sector in which there is an active labour market. Alusala (2009:76) contends that like its predecessors (economic growth, economic development and sustainable development), the MDGs are faced with critical challenges in their implementation, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. Contrary to the situation existing in developed countries (of which most have a sustainable welfare system for their citizens), developing countries continue to grapple with the most basic human needs. In addition, inability of most developing countries to keep up with MDG goals stems from the inability of these countries to coordinate resources in order to implement these goals. Many developing countries responded to the call by world leaders to embrace MDGs by incorporating them into their national strategies. As of today, many developing nations still fall short of achieving the MDGs. The reason why Sub-Saharan Africa countries are grappling with the implementation of MDGs, with very limited success is embedded in a spiral

of factors, the primary of which is the realisation that Sub-Saharan Africa countries lack sufficient capacity in their national budgets to meet the MDG goals, since in most cases, national budgets are overstretched by most of the basic priorities (Alusala, 2009:77-78).

However, it is important to note that the this approach thus failed to explain how these fundamental unmet needs will have to be met in practice. It is true that if most fundamental human needs are met poverty can be reduced and eventual eradicated but the trickle down approach only covers the face of poverty and development delays reaching the poor people. It also leaves the sole responsibility of tackling poverty on the State and poverty eradication should be everyone‘s responsibility from the state and civil society and the participation of the poor themselves in decisions that will lead to poverty eradication.

In addition to the above criticisms of this approach, the critics argued that the BNA was nothing new and that rural development efforts have been concentrating on issues like employment, income distribution for quite some time hence it emerged as simply a different label attached to the same product. It can therefore be acknowledged that BNA has content but that the approach views policies for meeting basic needs as unfavourably to growth.

In additions to the many criticisms, the other area of concern was that although the approach was meant to be a bottom-up approach, the implementation process ended up being top-down because the poor meant to benefit were never involved in the formulation of the projects but only involved in the implementation stage. There

was also fear that the projects for the poor would end up profiting the rich even more at the expense of the poor who continued to suffer. Consequently, the critique of this approach led to the emergence of yet another theoretical framework to rural development, the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach.

2.2.3 Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

The livelihoods approach originates in the development of richer understandings of the dimensions of poverty, such as the sustainable human development approach adopted by UNDP, and the concept of capitals and capabilities of Amartya Sen. In some quarters (notably FAO) this is now being referred to as people-centred development. Scoones (1998: 5), defines a 'sustainable livelihood' as: "*a livelihood that comprises of capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future".*

This definition is the one that is currently used by most international agencies. The definition does not only look at livelihoods but it goes on to show what a sustainable livelihood encompasses, which is an aspect that is left out by some definitions. As a result this is the definition that will be adopted for the purposes of this study because it is realistic and covers most the aspects that the literature on sustainable livelihoods looks at. A sustainable livelihood is defined by Chambers and Conway (1992) as comprising of the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from shocks and stresses and maintain and

enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, whilst not undermining the natural resource base.

The sustainable livelihood concept surfaced in the *Brundtland Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development* in 1987. The report put the concept of sustainable development firmly on the global political agenda. It defined sustainable development as: "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". It contained within it two key concepts: the concept of needs‘, in particular the essential needs of the world‘s poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and the idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organisation on the environment‘s ability to meet present and future needs (*World Commission on Environment and Development 1987a:43).* Soon after the commission, Chambers at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) is credited for furthering work on sustainable livelihood as a concept and emerged from rural development.

Since then, the terminology of sustainable livelihoods has been widely adopted. Initially, though, it was mostly used in water and sanitation programmes in the rural areas. It followed on the heels of the concepts and methods, such as participatory approaches, that have been successfully adapted to the needs of providing water supplies and sanitation. Gilling *et. al* (2001:305) state that the premise of the SLF is that the poor rely on a complex range of assets, and that differential access to and returns from these assets has a major impact on their livelihoods.

Following the strong advocacy for sustainable livelihoods approaches in development from the 1990s (Chambers and Conway 1992 and later Scoones 1998, Ashley and Carney 1999, Carney, 2002), many development agencies started to advocate livelihoods approaches as central to their programming, and even organisational structures. According to Scoones (2009:72), yet the simple, rather obvious, argument for a livelihoods perspective, as discussed further below, is not so easy to translate into practice, with inherited organisational forms, disciplinary biases and funding structures constructed around other assumptions and ways of thinking.

Over the last two decades or so ‘livelihoods' has thus emerged as a boundary term, something that brings disparate perspectives together, allows conversations over disciplinary and professional divides and provides an institutional bridging function linking people, professions and practices in new ways. Sustainable livelihoods in one community can contribute to net benefits of other livelihoods at both local and global levels and both short and long term range.

Sustainable livelihood incorporates the notion of complexity, change, and uncertainty. As a result, emphasis is on adaptive strategies at local or community levels. The significance of this theory to the study is that it seeks to empower the capacity if people to earn incomes to meet the current and future economic and social needs, and minimise their vulnerability to external stresses. The approach helps to identify and develop assets, strategies and strengths of people across all various sectors to meet the goals of community. In the case of community development and rural poverty eradication, focus is on ensuring that all community members and households are able to attain sustain livelihoods outcomes.

The Principles of Sustainable Livelihood Approaches

According to Carney (2002:13), Hussein (2002:14), Cooper, Goldman, Marumo and Toner (2002:25) and Khanya (2007:1) poverty-focused development activity should include the following principles:

People-centred: Sustainable poverty elimination requires respect for human freedom and choice. People, rather than resources, facilities or services they use, are the priority concern. This may mean supporting resource management or good governance, for example, but the underlying motivation of supporting livelihoods should determine the shape and purpose of action.

Empowering: Change should result in an amplified voice, opportunities and wellbeing for the poor. According to Cooper *et. al* (2002:25), empowerment should also entail building on strengths, while addressing vulnerabilities.

Responsive and participatory: Poor people must be key in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Outsiders need to listen and respond to the poor.

Sustainable: There are four key dimensions to sustainability: economic, institutional, social and environment. All are important and a balance must be found between them.

Multi-level and holistic: The realities at the micro level should inform the development of policy and an effective governance environment. Macro and meso level structures and processes should support people to build upon their strengths.

Conducted in partnership: Partnerships can be formed with poor people and their organisations, as well as the public and private sector. Partnerships should be transparent agreements, based upon shared goals. Goldman, Franks, Toner et al (2004:4) argue that it is important to understand the nature of the partnership and the real locus of power as some interventions exhibit equal partnerships‘.

Disaggregated: It is vital to understand how assets, vulnerabilities, voice and livelihood strategies differ between disadvantaged groups as well as between men and women in these groups. Khanya has successfully utilised the stakeholder and gender analysis as key tools in determining these differences.

Long-term and flexible: Poverty reduction requires long-term commitments and a flexible approach to providing support.

Hussein (2002:11) states that some of the principles of sustainable livelihoods such as people-centred development had long been applied in practical development work, such as food security operations, by organisations such as DFID and FAO. Singh and Gilman (1999:539) also highlight that the issue of food security was central to the development of the sustainable livelihood concept. It was recognised that food security required attention to a range of factors found in areas of poverty.

Rakodi (2002:7) states that these principles or strategies may be ineffective if, in the long term, consumption declines or assets are lost permanently, or if successive calls on particular strategies deplete the natural, social or financial resources on which households or communities call. Therefore, the poorest and most vulnerable

households are forced to adopt strategies which enable them only to survive, but not to improve their welfare or that of their environment.

In South Africa the Sustainable Livelihood Approaches (SLA) have largely been utilised by development agencies such as CARE-South Africa, DFID and Khanya, in partnership with community-based organisations with significant success. Cooper *et .al* (2002:9) note that of all the international donors in South Africa, DFID has invested the most in a sustainable rural livelihoods approach. It should be noted that the government departments are funded by these international agencies to carry out their projects.

Sustainable Livelihood Framework (see below)

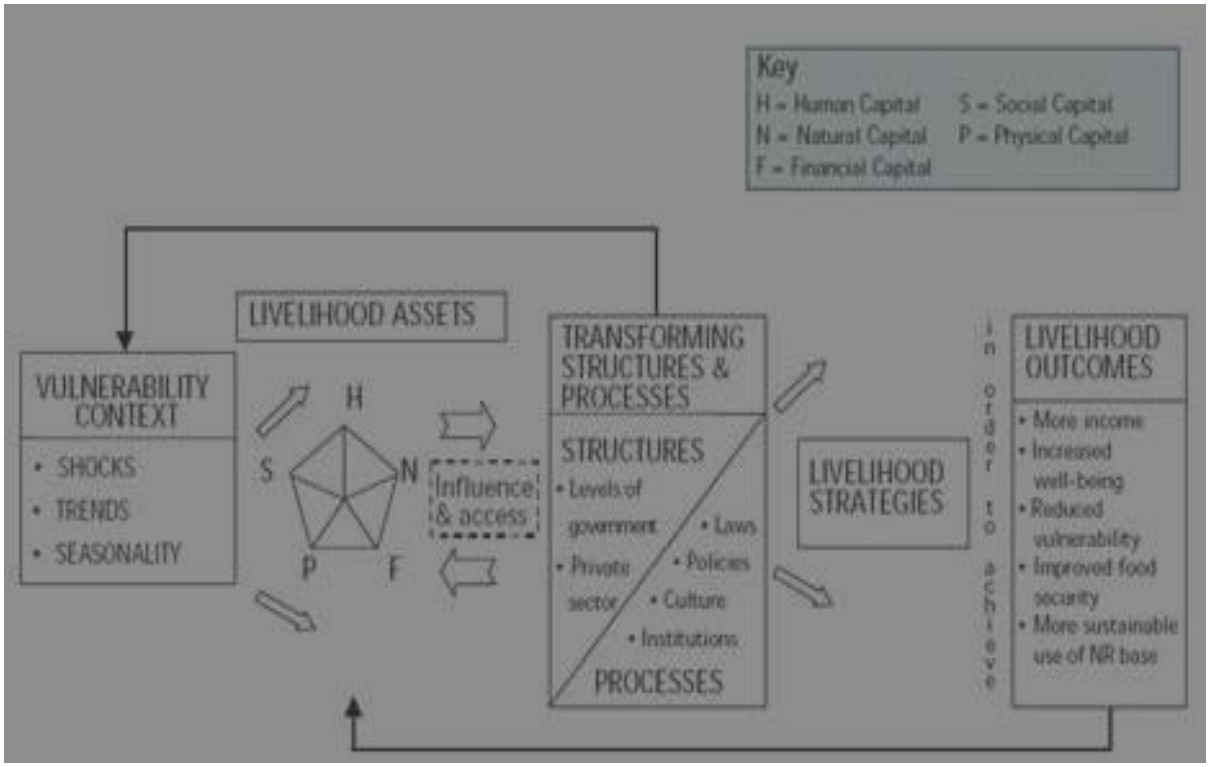
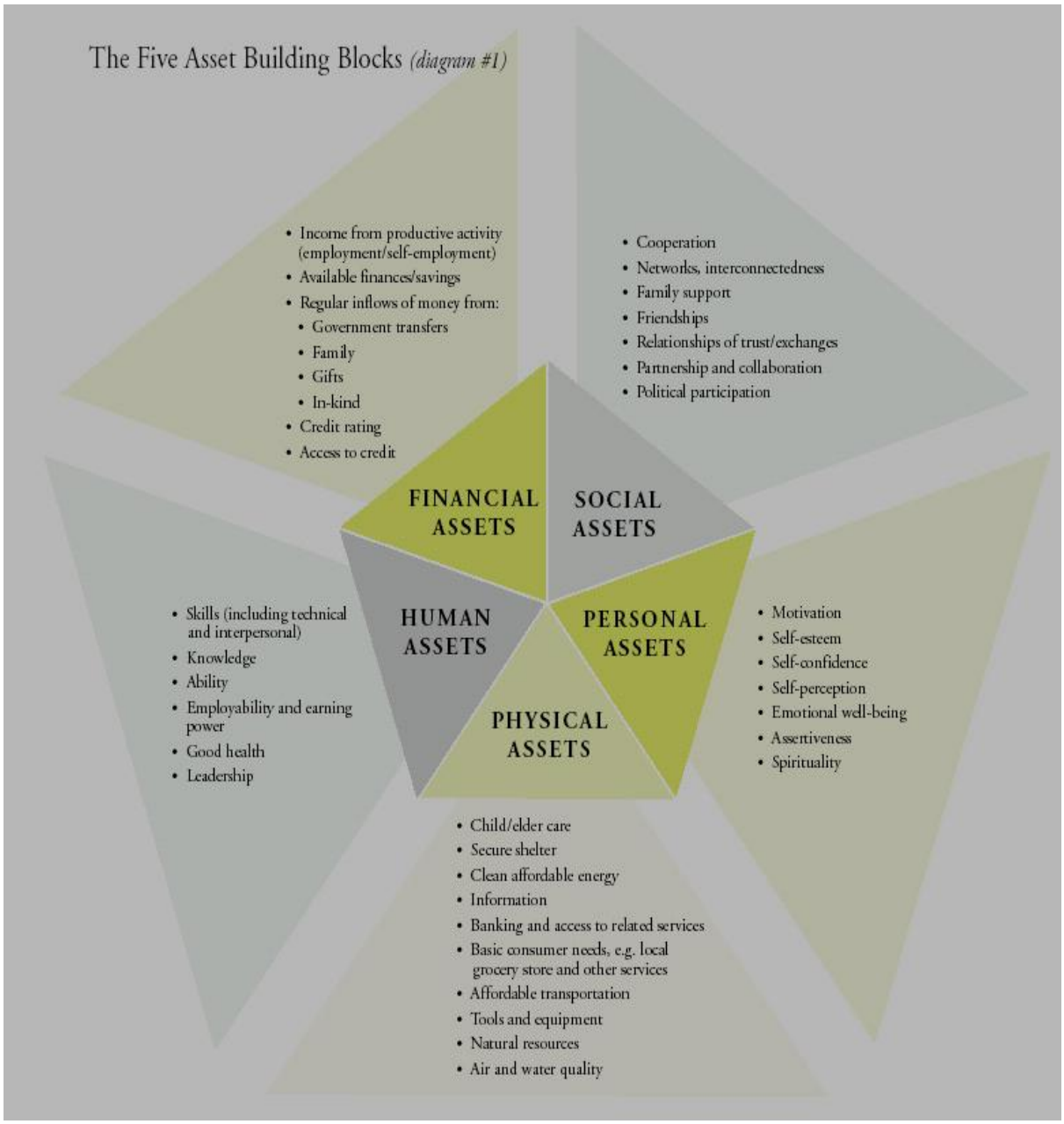


Figure 2. The sustainable livelihoods framework. Adapted from DIFID (www.livelihoods.org).

Figure .3 The Five Asset Building Block.



Adapted from DIFID (www.livelihoods.org).

The sustainable livelihoods framework as expressed in Figure 2 above is essentially people centered and aims to explain the relationships between people, their livelihoods, resource endowments, policies and institutions. The framework contains feedback arrows that suggest flows between categories of the framework. Livelihood

outcomes will usually have a strong influence not only on how resources are built up, but also on how they are substituted for one another. It is important to note that livelihood strategies have been made to overlap with policies, processes and structures indicating an intimate and direct relationship between people's strategies, social and public institutions and public policies. The feedback arrows from policies, processes and structures to vulnerability context (as shown in the illustration) suggest that whereas people cannot directly influence this context, some inroads can be made through policy change and the collective actions of government and other role players in respect to non-natural trends and shocks.

The sustainable livelihood approach deals with five kinds of capital or assets (Rakodi 2002:11 and Carney, 1998:8), which are:

1. Human capital which refers to the skills and knowledge base that people possess. Our knowledge, skills and ability to labour. It refers to the labour resources available to households, which have both quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Quantitative aspects refer to the number of household members and time available to engage in income-earning activities. Qualitative aspects refer to the levels of education and skills, and the health of household members.

2. Social capital which refers to the social networks and social groups that people belongs to. These include friends, family, churches, NGOs and local government structures. These are social resources on which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods or can rely on in a crisis

3. Financial capital which refers to money that people have access and control over and includes access to money including wages, pensions, credit and things that can be sold such as cattle, cars, furniture, providing them with livelihood options. Rakodi (2002:11) notes that livelihoods are dependent on one‘s assets and capabilities.

4. Physical capital which refers to the physical infrastructure and physical resources that are available to the people like roads, schools clinics, roads and electricity or farming implements.

5. Natural capital, which refers to natural resources that communities are endowed with like water, minerals and land.

The sustainable livelihoods approach advances that assets should ideally be nurtured in a manner that maximizes their potential and their convertibility into other kinds of capital assets. Social and human capital, in particular, has the potential to improve livelihoods in innovative ways in that it improves the skills base and nurtures a social support system which can mobilize physical resources and use natural capital to increase the financial assets in a community.

The questions development facilitators should therefore ask are: do household members have the capacity to use their available assets to make a living? Who lives in the household and what is their potential contribution? Its been emphasised that an analysis needs to be done to establish the activities that contribute to the livelihood of the household. This includes income generating work as well as domestic labour (child-care, cooking, maintenance), and maintaining links with the

wider community. When a household is confronted with a crisis, it devises coping strategies to protect its social reproduction and enable recovery

The vulnerability context includes shocks, trends or seasonal issues that have a negative impact on the poor. Shocks include illness, floods, earthquakes, sudden shifts in prices, war and other violent disputes, as well as crop and livestock diseases. Trends are, for instance, increasing population pressure, declining commodity prices, the disappearance of markets or the rise of new ones, soil erosion, deforestation, increasing government accountability and more efficient production techniques (Carney, 1998:8). Within such a context, pro-poor extension could select and provide support in some of these areas as part of making poor people's lives more secure.

Both public and private organizations are examples of structures. Processes pertain to "how things are done" (Carney, 1998:10). They are to be observed in the policy papers, laws and cultural and institutional procedures that perpetually determine how people interact. Policy and practice within pro-poor extension must be coherent and mutually complementary; they should be designed to help the poor achieve their objectives. Much as it provides a useful tool for examining a particular development issue, the sustainable livelihoods framework has been criticized on the grounds that it makes people appear invisible; that it requires more recognition of socio-economic, historical and cultural factors; that it is insufficiently flexible and that the overall concept is ethnocentric and not easily transferable (DFID/FAO, 2000). In addition and specific to this discussion, the framework does not capture the internal dynamics of institutions and how they enable or impede planning for coordination of activities in policy implementation.

Table 1 Application of Sustainable Livelihood Approaches in South Africa

NGO	Programmes Implemented
DFID	Supports sector-wide projects in forestry, land affairs and coastal marine management and uses SLA principles. Also has a local partner Khanya
Khanya	Addo Tourism Project has generated income for its members, reduced poverty and inequality, and regenerated the environmental resource base
DANIDA	Supports land reform and rural water supply programmes to enhance the livelihoods of the rural poor and raise living standards.
CARE-SA	Uses SLA framework in relief and development Mvula Trust Northern Province Household Water Project, which addressed a wider package of economic measures, including: Micro-credit to allow women to make productive use of their time Saved transporting water

Source;Kadozo:2009

In the study, Sustainable Livelihoods outcomes refer to those objectives that people want to achieve by operationalising their Sustainable Livelihoods strategies and often based on their interpretation of poverty and vulnerability. For example, people in Kuni, (Kuni Business Plan, 2010), understand poverty in terms of food insecurity and want to achieve the livelihood outcome of increased knowledge and skills. Their livelihood strategies will include planting vegetables for household consumption and for sale, farming with chickens and cows. In this case, the Sustainable livelihood outcome would be to achieve food security. In the second instance to achieve increased knowledge and skills, the Department of Agriculture and Department of Trade and Industry will be involved in Kuni for Skills training and development, (Kuni Business Plan, 2010). By achieving this livelihood outcome, they will also directly increase their Human Capital, which in turn also increases their range of options available to them to make a living, in case they need to obtain higher paying jobs.

The sustainable livelihoods programme, in its broadest sense mobilises locally co-ordinated collaborative action of small groups of rural (poor) populations and establishes collaborative linkages with higher level institutions, a matter supported by the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. Baas (1998:2), states that sustainable rural livelihoods programmes strengthens localised social capital accumulation processes

by mobilising self-help capacities, progressive skills development, and local resource mobilisation (savings, indigenous knowledge) in order to improve ultimately rural people ‘s human, natural, and economic resource base. The above assertion has been supported by Jacobs (2009:ii) in his study on the role of social capital in sustainable livelihoods in Cape Town. It was found that this programme reduces costs at both ends: the service delivery costs of governments, non-governmental organisations and the private sector, and the access costs of the poor in obtaining these services. This is a huge advantage in poverty eradication in rural areas as local people come together and develop initiatives and can still access at ease the resources that better their own lives and this study will investigate and prove this assertion.

Jones (2004) did a study on poverty eradication through sustainable livelihood programme in Southern Africa, concentrating on natural resource management and concluded that sustainable livelihoods can be achieved if natural resources are managed efficiently. This form of assert-based community development is important in providing sustainable livelihoods but his study did not indicate how the poor‘s socio economic lives were improved. This study will then focus on the role of the sustainable livelihood programme on rural people's diversified livelihoods.

Majija (2009) did a study on sustainable livelihoods in Phillippi, Cape Town, and concluded that poverty in small communities can be tackled through assert building programs offered within a Sustainable Livelihood Framework. This framework has worked in other areas, and will be adopted in this study. Kadozo (2009) did a study on the role of income generating projects in Johannesburg on poverty eradication

and recommended that sustainable livelihoods programmes are the future of income generating projects. Her recommendation was that income generating projects could be successful if implemented within the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework and therefore, the Provincial Department of Social Development sustainable community development programme is rendered within the Sustainable Livelihood Framework and should therefore eradicate poverty.

It has been noted earlier by Pickering *et. al* (1996:56) that households drawing on multiple livelihood strategies tend to be more resilient than households dependent on one source of income, are better equipped to cope with threats such as unemployment, and can adapt to changing circumstance. According to Rakodi (2002:7), our livelihoods also need to be sustainable over time. For example, overgrazing today can lead to poverty in the future.

Research by Owusu (2001:388) in Ghana shows that 'households seek to mobilise resources and opportunities and to combine these into a livelihood strategy which is a mix of labour market involvement; savings; borrowing and investment; productive and reproductive activities; income; labour and asset pooling; and social networking.' Grown and Sebstad (1989: 942) quoted in Rakodi (2002:7) argue that households and individuals adjust the mix according to their own circumstances (age, life-cycle stage, educational level, tasks) and the changing context in which they live. They state that economic activities form the basis of a household strategy. To these may be added migration movements, maintenance of ties with rural areas, urban food production, decisions about access to services such as education and housing, and participation in social networks. Rakodi (2002:7) and Owusu (2001:387) conclude

that only a few households in poor countries can support themselves through one business activity (farming or non-farming) or full-time wage employment. Given the inadequate capital and skills, a poor person's capacity for developing an enterprise with ample profit margins is limited and, in any case, the risk of relying on a single business is too great. Wages have often fallen way below the minimum required to support a family, as recession and structural adjustment policies have bitten.

According to Carney (2002:18), Cooper et al (2002:23) and Jones (2002:274),
SLAs have several contributions to make and in assessment of these two case studies these important contributions will be used for analysis :

- allowing for flexibility of design which is appropriate to different country contexts;
- giving due emphasis to the coping strategies that make poor people's lives work; demanding a detailed consideration of the assets of poor households;
- providing an analysis of needs from people's points of view;
- putting the initial focus on demand rather than on supply;
- showing the need and scope for multi-dimensional action and trying to ensure that everyone involved in a project agrees on the diagnosis and approach to be adopted;
- focusing on enhancing household assets, acknowledging that access to resources may be constrained by the wider economic, physical and social contexts and;
- identifying a way in which impact assessment can be included in projects more systematically by focusing on livelihood outcomes.

Various criticisms have been raised regarding sustainable livelihoods and are discussed below:

Underplaying of Vulnerability, Gender and Markets

Carney (2002:22) notes that while SLAs draw on a range of analytical tools, they are not intended as replacements for other approaches. SLAs, however, have been criticised for underplaying the importance of critical factors such as vulnerability, gender and markets. For instance, Carney (2002:23) argues that it is often easy to overlook unfamiliar areas such as household financial flows, even though they are crucial to people's livelihoods. To use SLAs, one needs to have an understanding of economics, markets and the private sector, as lack of this background can result in the downgrading of market and economic issues. This is unfortunate because economics is as much a part of SLAs as other dimensions. Carney (2002:24) argues that markets are critical in helping poor people meet their consumption needs. The majority of the poor in urban areas are net buyers of food and therefore require food markets that are efficient, accessible and provide a degree of price stability and predictability.‘ For instance, when members of a food garden cultivate one crop rather than another or a dressmakers group decide to sew uniforms, they are making economic decisions, set within social and cultural contexts and constraints. How well markets function depends on many factors related to trust, information, contract enforcement, application of the rule of law, freedom of movement of goods and people and the market structure. According to Hamilton (1989:1523) and Harrison (1997:79), the vulnerability of poor people's livelihoods in developing countries has increased because globalisation has helped to integrate the local markets with new forms of competition, volatility and influence by larger actors with a devastating effect on livelihoods. However, experience has shown that unqualified reliance on market

forces as advocated by globalisation to allow the benefits of economic growth to 'trickle down' to the poor is not effective where the underlying institutional context has remained the same. In South Africa, while many of the institutional requirements for efficient markets are present, institutional discrimination has meant that many markets remain strongly influenced by existing positions of power and influence.

Lack of Clear Policies

Jones (2002:273) argues that the practical implications of utilising SLAs are complicated because of the range of debates about poverty responses and their effectiveness. This is because there is no clear policy guidance and the livelihoods debate is an evolving one. Krantz (2001:4) further argues that the SLAs do not address the issue of how the poor are identified. This is important because the way in which resources and other livelihood opportunities are distributed locally is influenced by the informal structures of social dominance and power within communities.

Sustainability

The principles of SLAs emphasise four types of sustainability: economic, institutional, social and environmental. Ashley and Carney (1999:4), however, observe that little attention has been paid to integrating sustainability with other concerns. According to them this is of concern as much of the original thinking around sustainable livelihoods was explicitly directed at finding ways to balance concerns about poverty reduction and the environment.

Ling (2005:10) highlights that two debates are ongoing about the sustainability of cities. On one hand are those who argue that cities rely on imports of food and energy supplies from outside their borders, hence can never be sustainable. Those opposing argue that even though cities cannot be fully sustainable, this should not stop cities from exerting themselves to organise and manage their resources sustainably so as not to deprive future generations. This argument makes sense as it motivates cities to think about themselves and the wider environment.

Superficial Use of SLAs

SLAs aim to achieve poverty reduction through inclusive people-centred development, but the process has often been reduced to a set of rules. Carney (2002:23) observes that in the worst cases SLAs have been used to justify existing development activities, instead of being of a process of working with poor people to identify their strengths and build on these. Loughhead and Rakodi (2002:225) state that in India for instance, while the infrastructural improvements on the slums made a significant impact on the poor people's lives, they were less successful in meeting the needs of particular vulnerable groups. The benefits which were targeted at these groups, such as vocational training did not reach them, as the local elite had control over slum-based organisations. It was also observed during the study that because people-centred development was time consuming and as a result of the lack of skills, it was easier for the volunteers and the community workers to identify the community‘s needs and then decide as the experts‘ which interventions would be implemented and how and when. Singh and Gilman (1998:543) concur that it is difficult to work with development stakeholders who are used to working with local

communities, while essentially ignoring the larger environments impinging on these communities.

Despite differences in emphasis by different practitioners, the livelihoods framework is adopted as the basis main guiding framework for the study as it helps us to identify (and value) what people are already doing to cope with risk and uncertainty. Secondly it helps us in making the connections between factors that constrain or enhance their livelihoods on the one hand, and policies and institutions in the wider environment. Thirdly, they help us identify measures that can strengthen assets, enhance capabilities and reduce vulnerability.

The Sustainable Livelihoods approach work with people, supporting them to build upon their strengths and realise their potential, while at the same time acknowledging the effects of policies, institutions, external shocks and trends. The approach affords the basis for identifying the constraints to livelihoods development and poverty reduction in a particular context. This approach can be helpful in identifying the complexity of community development and rural poverty eradication outlined earlier in this chapter. Thus, enhancing or building upon the community's portfolio in terms of the five capitals; physical, human, natural, social and financials capital. In short, increase in livelihood security, arguably means increase in adaptability and mechanism to eradicate poverty in rural areas.

In closing the arguments on theoretical framework behind the study, it is appropriate to cite Carney (2002:11) who argues that SLA have been proven to add value to efforts in reducing poverty. Attention should now therefore centre on identifying

where SLF are most effective, addressing the gaps in SLA, and acknowledging and addressing the implications that SLA hold for institutional and organisational change. The traditional approaches to poverty reduction, such as income generating activities and employment schemes, have paid little or no attention to how people live, the assets they have, or the human and financial costs associated with implementation of national programmes. According to Singh and Gilman (1998:541) Sustainable Livelihoods can close these gaps as one‘s focus is to examine how macro and sectoral policies affect the micro level livelihood options available to a particular community or individual.

The study acknowledges the limitations of the SLA, however, it is the approach adopted by this study because it places the rural poor at the centre of development and it improves the understanding of their livelihoods. It also organizes the factors that constrain or enhance livelihood opportunities and shows how they relate.

2.3 The contribution of community development to the eradication of poverty in rural areas

Worldwide, the pervasiveness of poverty and poor delivery of basic services in rural areas of developing countries continue to constrain development efforts. The prevalence of rural poverty provides major challenges to governments, organisations of civil society and developmental agencies. Understanding what poverty is makes it easier to understand the role community development has made towards eradication of poverty in rural areas.

The failure of many community development projects during the last four decades has led those involved to consider in more detail the factors that undermined successful outcomes (ISRDS, 2000). Prime among these are the issues of inadequate local capacity and the excessive centralisation of decision-making. As part of a global phenomenon, many developing countries (as well as transition economies and even some western industrialised countries) are now discovering that rural (and urban) communities, *if appropriately empowered*, can often manage their own local development efforts, and sometimes considerably better than any agency of the state. A properly worked through system of participation and decentralisation holds the promise to provide mechanisms for empowering communities appropriately, though this process is by no means guaranteed.

Growing evidence suggests that appropriately empowered and trained rural local governments can make an important contribution to rural development. In this context, it is important that centrally-designed systems of inter-governmental fiscal transfers provide appropriate incentives for local governments. These incentives can be supported by ensuring that budgetary flows are transparent, predictable and autonomous. From the perspective of central governments, the institutional dimensions of decentralisation often centre around defining which formal governmental institutions are to be involved and establishing an appropriate legal framework to define relationships between different levels of government. Central governments have not generally sought to define a role for non-governmental institutions. Such institutions are often perceived to be technically backward and managerially incompetent, or to pose a direct threat to the government through political opposition. From the perspective of rural people, however, the institutional

situation they confront is likely to be far more complex and varied, comprising a whole range of central and sub-national governmental agencies, parastatal organisations, as well as the full complement of nongovernmental institutions, such as religious, cultural, political, social welfare and economic organisations all with their own "rules of the game" and individual objectives.

For a decentralised system to work effectively, co-operation is required at the local level between formal governmental institutions and the range of less formal non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs). The involvement of NGOs and CBOs, as well as individuals themselves, is increasingly being seen as an indispensable part of a participatory process that fosters consensus building. It is at the interface between these formal and informal institutions that the practical implementation of decentralisation effectively takes place. Institutional capacity plays a central role in any decentralisation process. Failure of local governments to take advantage of the opportunities provided by decentralisation because of a lack of capacity will result in poor outcomes. Local governments and other institutions that cannot adequately administer and account for grants or effectively mobilise local resources will find those powers swiftly taken back. NGOs and other CBOs that lack managerial capacity or, alternatively, focus on furthering their organisation's own ends at the expense of the broader community will undermine successful outcomes. Community development has certainly undergone an evolution and is still at the heart of the latter-day paradigm shift towards a human orientation.

According to Davis (2003) rural community development through agriculture stands out as the most obvious activity with potential to increase rural incomes due to the

sheer number of people directly involved in this activity and its production linkages. The question of agriculture's role towards food security in Africa has been of much debate especially given the background of widespread poverty, food insecurity and undernourishment facing the continent Ndlovu (2012). Similarly, for a continent facing perennial food shortages, persistent poverty and limited financial resources, meeting the challenge of food insecurity and poverty reduction presents a daunting challenge for most African governments. Accordingly, the Committee on Agriculture (2010) cited in Ndlovu (2012) underscored that agriculture lies at the heart of the development process where smallholders are often seen as the driving force of economic growth, poverty reduction and food security. This is because smallholder farmers are a defining feature of African agriculture whose livelihoods is derived from smallholder agriculture and they are mainly found in rural areas where poverty is rife as well as food insecurity. Agriculture is the backbone of Africa's economy, contributing about 30% of the continent's GDP and about 50% of the total export value (IPNI, 2007 cited in Ndlovu, 2012). About 70% of Africans and roughly 80% of the continent's poor live in rural areas and depends mainly on agriculture for their livelihood (World Bank, 2008).

Despite rapid urbanization proceeding at the annual rate of 4.9 % over the past decades, the agricultural sector still provides a great part of the total employment (World Bank, 2008). Correspondingly, growth in agriculture is widely seen as the means to address global food crisis and simultaneously alleviate poverty, hunger and malnutrition particularly in Africa (NEPAD, 2003). Promoting community development in rural communities through agriculture also remains crucial for meeting the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of halving poverty and hunger by 2015. It is not only how much growth occurs but whether it is based on rapid

agricultural growth that counts for poverty reduction. The World Bank Report of 2008 states that agriculture operates in three distinct worlds: agriculture based, transforming and urbanised. A detail of these three worlds, according to the World Bank Report (2008) is as follows: In the agriculture based which includes most of sub-Saharan Africa, agriculture and its associated industries are essential to growth and to reducing mass poverty and food insecurity. Using agriculture as the basis for economic growth in the agriculture based countries requires a productivity revolution in smallholder farming. When it comes to transforming countries such as the South and East Asia, rapidly rising rural urban income disparities and continuing extreme rural poverty are major sources of social and political tensions.

Addressing income disparities in transforming countries requires a comprehensive approach that pursues multiple pathways out of poverty shifting to the high value agriculture, decentralising nonfarm economic activity to rural areas and providing assistance to help move people out of agriculture. In urbanised countries, which include most of Latin America and much of Europe, agriculture can help reduce the remaining rural poverty if smallholder agriculture becomes direct suppliers in modern food markets, good jobs are created in agriculture and agro industry and markets for environmental services are introduced. While the worlds of agriculture are vast, varied and rapidly changing, with the right policies and supportive investment at local, national and global levels, today's agriculture offers new opportunities to hundreds of millions of rural people to move out of poverty (WDR, 2008). Community development in particular has been identified as the most efficient sector when it comes to poverty alleviation as well as household food security for the rural people.

2.4 Towards a theory of sustainable development: Governance for sustainable development

The hard core of what constitutes the essence of community development in rural areas will emerge as the strength, scope and impact of current rural development practices become clear. Much will depend on the capacity of scholars to develop an empirically grounded theory. With this special issue the study intends to contribute to the elaboration of new theories that adequately reflect and represent the new networks, practices and identities embodied in community development practices in rural areas. The section below examines and elaborates on the central elements of sustainable development and governance, considering their interrelations as they have emerged from the core themes in sustainable development discourses over the past. Kemp, Parto and Gibson (2005:12-25) presents an interesting argument about sustainable development which this study looks at in a critical review of the theoretical frameworks underpinning community development in the rural areas.

Sustainable development

The concept of sustainable development arose from two main sources: increasingly evidence of ecological degradation and other biophysical damage, both despite and because of the greater means provided by economic growth, and the largely disappointing record of post-WWII ‘development' efforts, particularly the persistence, poverty and desperation in a period of huge overall global increases in material wealth. The United Nations and associated agencies worried about these matters separately for some decades before appointing the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) to address them jointly.

The Commission's conclusion was that the ecological and social failures had common causes and demanded a common response. Its final report, *Our Common Future* (WCED, 1987), initiated a flood of interest in, debate about and experimentation with sustainable development, which was renewed after the publication and subsequent adoption of *Agenda 21*, the *Rio Declaration on Environment and Development*, and the *Statement of principles for the Sustainable Management of Forests* by more than 178 governments at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, in June 1992.

Over the more than two decades since publication of *Our Common Future*, the idea of sustainable development has been widely, if ambiguously, embraced by a great variety of institutions around the world. There has been much dispute about the meaning and implications of the concept and much criticism of the actual behaviour of bodies that have claimed devotion to it. Gradually, however, some basics have become clear.

Sustainability is about protection and creation

Sustainability is often seen as being about protection of amenities (including cultural diversity), but it is equally about continued advancement or *creation*: a better and more just world. Both the protection of amenities and creation of new and better services for more people require innovation in institutions of governance and socio-technical systems (Kemp, Parto and Gibson, 2005:13-14). Innovation can help to ease the adverse effects of some trade-offs posed by existing technology. But

innovation is not without problems: it also brings risks, which should be anticipated and dealt with.

Requirements of sustainability are multiple and interconnected

The main dimensions as advocated for by Kemp, Parto and Gibson (2005:14), consist of maintaining the integrity of biophysical systems, better services for more people, and freedom from hunger, nuisance and deprivation. To these, one may add choice, opportunity and access to decision making - aspects of equity, within and across generations. In addition Gibson (2001) states that sustainability is about intermediate and long-term integration: the pursuit of all the requirements for sustainability at once, seeking mutually supportive benefits.

Core requirements and general rules must be accompanied by context specific elaborations

What is most needed, appropriate and workable always depends heavily on the context. The detailed elaboration of sustainability requirements, and the determination of appropriate procedures for accepting or rejecting options and trade-offs must respect the place and time of application, and involve those who will live with the results. The blessing is that approaches designed to recognise local specificity can mobilise and foster local knowledge, building greater understanding of, and commitment to, sustainability objectives. As suggested by Kemp, Parto and Gibson (2005:15) one could say that sustainability is about locally suited options that are globally sustainable. But it is also about local awareness and behaviour that shares the larger agenda. Further Rosenau (2003) adds that a conflict is likely to occur between localism and globalism, characterised by different mindsets and

different logics for action. The tensions are difficult to reconcile as the controversy over globalisation shows.

Diversity is necessary

The importance of context means not only that there are different good answers for different situations, but also that there are many different ways of designing and strengthening the various foundations and practices of governance to respect the principles of sustainability. While this can be administratively inconvenient, diversity offers positive benefits for sustainable development. Diversity is a source of learning and the fuel of evolution and can help transform rural areas. It is important to safeguard diversity in all dimensions, including socio-cultural, economic and technological. Diversity is a source of learning and a resource base for adaptation and reorganisation (Lister and Kay 2000; Rammel and van den Bergh, 2003). Diversity in product offerings is also needed for meeting heterogeneous preferences and local circumstances.

Transparency and public engagement are key characteristics of decision making for sustainability

The importance of context, the benefits of diversity and the inevitability of surprise all suggest that transparency and active public engagement are necessary qualities of governance for sustainability. Openness and participation are favoured by the emphasis of sustainability on lively citizenship, which is seen not just as a means of building understanding and commitment, but also as an end in itself - an aspect of the necessary and richer alternatives to lives centred on material consumption.

The end is open

According to Kemp, Parto and Gibson (2005:16) the final characteristic with implications for governance is that sustainable development is an open-ended process. It is not usefully conceived as a particular specified or specifiable target. Pursuit of sustainability is a long-term, indeed never-ending process. It suggests that the problem of sustainable development can be ‘solved' whereas in reality only specific issues can be resolved and managed. In addition Rammel and van denBergh (2003) contends that there always will be ‘problems' and needs for change.

Implementing a commitment to sustainable development entails a substantial transition not just to a broader understanding and a more ambitious set of objectives, but also to more coherently interrelated institutional structures and processes of planning, administration, markets, tradition and choice at every scale (Gibson, 2001; Parto and Doloreux, 2003 as cited by Kemp, Parto and Gibson, 2005:16). Clearly, this is not a transition that can be accomplished quickly or easily. The challenge is to show how such a transition can be accomplished and to develop a core set of tools that would make governance for sustainability manageable.

Governance

Like sustainable development, governance is a concept that was first widely explored and embraced in the late 1980's. Also, like sustainable development it was attractive because it encompassed a broad set of factors that were increasingly important and insufficiently recognised in conventional thinking and because it encouraged a more integrated understanding of how these factors were, or should

be, linked. Governance scholars viewed the political system as a complex of formal and informal arrangements that were ill-defined and unstable. This was in direct contrast to the conventional view of governments as formal, clearly identifiable, and static entities. Whereas government conjured up an image of formal structures ruling over people, the notion of governance highlighted the increasingly important role of formal and informal arrangements in the political economy (Kemp, Parto and Gibson, 2005:16).

Governance, understood as a mode of social coordination, is different from *governing;* which is an act, a purposeful effort to steer, guide, control and manage (sectors or facets of) society (Kooiman, 1993:2). Governance is how one gets to act, through what types of interactions (deliberation, negotiation, self-regulation or authoritative choice) and the extent to which actors adhere to collective decisions.
It involves the level and scope of political allocation, the dominant orientation of state, and other institutions and their interactions. Governance structures organise negotiation processes, determine objectives, influence motivations, set standards, perform allocation functions, monitor compliance, impose penalties, initiate and/or reduce conflict, and resolve disputes among actors (Eden and Hampson 1997:362). The effective exercise of power is through a network of interconnected actors, in which all actors hold power, through knowledge resources, money and rights granted to them.

The notion of governance fits in with complex systems approaches to understanding the workings of the political economy through the inter-relationships among identifiable parts (e.g., social, economic and ecological), rather than just the parts

themselves. A complex systems approach to governance also implies clear appreciation of complexity and uncertainty, likelihood of surprise and need for flexibility and adaptive capacity. That said, governance has been defined and used in many ways in different contexts. Often the concept is given normative as well as descriptive weight. It is presented as a means of serving democratic pluralism - defined as the structured ways and means in which the divergent preferences of inter-dependent actors are translated into policy choices to allocate values, so that the plurality of interests is transformed into coordinated action and the compliance of actors is achieved (Eising and Kohler-Koch, 2000:5). This overlooks the authoritative role of government as seen by citizens, something that is still very prominent in countries such as Germany and France in Europe and most Asian countries. Arguably, since the early 1980's, authoritative control of social relations has been increasingly exercised through quasi- and non-government entities rather than just formal governments and government institutions. In several ways, citizens have become more powerful with respect to how governing is exercised (through rights of information and co-determination) and with respect to how business activity is conducted (consumer boycotts). The shift from government to governance spells a change in decision making and numerous opportunities for the pursuit of sustainability. In the South African situation local government through municipalities shows a clear example of the above point.

Despite an ideological shift over the past two decades toward liberalisation, government has remained, and is likely to continue to remain, a powerful actor with a major role in discourses on governance for sustainability. This should not be understood as an argument against citizen involvement or stakeholder engagement,

both of which are important for at least four reasons: it enhances the legitimacy of policy, helps to reduce the risk of conflict, offers an additional source of ideas and information; and through their involvement, people and organisations learn about environmental problems (Coenen, 2002).

The most significant challenge is to ensure that multi-player governance regimes embody capacity for sustainability-oriented coordination, direction and re-direction. It is clearly reasonable and appropriate to recognise that business organisations, civil society groups and citizens, as well as formal governments have roles to play and are already important actors. Finding ways to ensure that all these players act coherently, effectively and with some efficiency in the pursuit of sustainability demands much higher ambitions and underlines the crucial role of informal institutions. A variety of tools are available including development of explicit common objectives, targets and indicators; use of multi-stakeholder deliberation and decision mechanisms; and creative application of tax and regulatory instruments to foster cost internalisation and other adjustments to business and consumer behaviour in the market place. But all of these rely, more or less heavily, on a continuing central (and formal) role for governments in coordinating and often initiating action, and in legitimising and entrenching the decisions.

Governance for sustainability: key components

Better governance is a prerequisite for, and probably also a product of, steps towards sustainability. For sustainability, other requirements include means of internalising external costs and ensuring integration of policy considerations, evaluation of options and dealing with trade-offs. Because a major portion of

sustainable development is ultimately about radical changes in the systems of production and consumption, governance for sustainability is, by implication, about working through formal and informal institutions to bring about societal change (Kemp, Parto and Gibson, 2005:17-18).

Effecting change in informal governance institutions, such as habits and routines, requires identifying the levels at which the change is desired, the territorial scale at and through which the desired change is to be implemented, and the systems which are likely to be affected due to the desired change. The challenge will be to find ways of establishing governance regimes that have reasonable coherence of vision and commitment, enjoy trust and are accountable, and have sufficient capacity for coordination, direction and re-direction.

Policy integration

An important ‘interrelations' issue is the coordination of government policies and the corresponding and complementary positions and initiatives of other governance actors. The evolution of the modern state has been towards an increasing degree of sectoral specialisation to deal with differentiated problems. Specialisation has helped develop valuable responses to particular problems, but it has also led to neglect of broader considerations and to partial solutions that are inadequate or damaging from a broader sustainability point of view. Cost-increasing end-of-pipe solutions transferring a pollution problem at the site into a waste problem elsewhere are a good illustration.

Sustainability requires policy integration, along with improved interaction between government and non-government institutions and the creation of a longer-term view in government. Policy integration is not the consolidation of policies to create a single integrated policy dealing with everything. There remains a need for specialised policies. Effective integration for practical decision making centres on acceptance of common overall objectives, coordinated elaboration and selection of policy options, and cooperative implementation designed for reasonable consistency and, where possible, positive feedbacks.

Policy integration is a long and difficult process in which political will is important. Full policy integration may not be achievable but significant gains can be made at vertical and horizontal integration. For vertical integration he recommends specification of major environmental impacts of policies and activities, establishment of a system of dialogue and consultation, sectoral strategies for change, action plans, budgets and monitoring programmes. For horizontal integration, use of long-term sustainability strategies for sectoral domains, specific governing bodies entrusted with overall coordination and supervision of the integration process, communication programmes, and national action plans with targets and ongoing programmes for assessment, feedback and revision and conflict resolution procedures are suggested.

Common objectives, criteria, trade-off rules and indicators

Experience with environmental and other policy integration efforts indicates that in large organisations, including national governments, only limited gains are possible through structural measures (creation of inter-ministerial committees, establishment

of new cross-sectoral agencies and the like). Some further improvements can be won through structural changes tied to mandatory reporting and monitoring requirements that impose a sustainability-oriented framework for justification and make institutional behaviour more transparent. Certainly multi-stakeholder decision making, co-management, advisory round tables and other mechanisms engaging multiple governance institutions can contribute to effective Kemp, Parto and Gibson (2005:19).

But most of these are useful only for particular cases or a few priority concerns. For more general application, a suite of additional, process-related tools are needed. Four such tools as recommended by Kemp, Parto and Gibson, (2005:17-18), are shared long-term objectives, common criteria for planning and approval of significant undertakings, specified rules for making trade-offs and compromises, and widely accepted indicators of needs for action and progress towards sustainability. Versions of all of these have been developed and applied by particular governance institutions for limited purposes. Sometimes they have even been designed and adopted by coalitions of governance bodies with broad sustainability ends in mind. Nevertheless there remains considerable potential for more general and comprehensive application in governance systems:

Sustainability-based criteria for planning and approval of significant undertakings

It is now common for governments at the national, provincial/state, and even municipal levels, to impose environmental assessment or planning approval requirements on proponents of major public and private sector undertakings.

Environmental assessment, in particular, is widely applied, often at the strategic level of policies, plans and programmes, as well as at the level of physical projects. In many areas, the assessments cover a comprehensive agenda with ‘environment' defined to include social, economic and cultural as well as biophysical aspects and their interrelations. And in a growing number of cases, the test of approval is an obligation to show that the purposes are sound and that the proposed undertaking is the most desirable of the potentially reasonable options and will make a positive overall contribution to sustainability (Gibson, 2000). Similar approval requirements, with explicit sustainability criteria, are also now applied in a variety of other venues including non-government product certification programmes, in investment rankings of ethical corporations, and in progressive building standards. While practice in this area is still primitive, the imposition of such ‘higher test' criteria in approval processes may be expected to expand pressures for the development of generic sustainability-based evaluation criteria, better processes for specifying these locally and more frequent and advanced of associated modelling and other analytical techniques in integrated assessment and related areas (Gibson, 2001)

Widely accepted indicators of needs for action and progress towards sustainability

A great deal of effort has already gone into the identification and elaboration of sustainability indicators. Perhaps this is partly because for many institutions, work on indicators seemed less threatening than actual interventions for change. But indicator development remains valuable as a way of clarifying what is important (thereby also contributing to objective setting), and well chosen and focused indicators can be powerful devices of education, empowerment and agitation.

Taken as a set, these tools could provide a well integrated, reasonably clear and yet flexible and locally adjustable foundation for sustainability-focused decision-making. For all four tools, the core applications may be in more or less formal institutional decision-making. But the underlying idea is to establish habitual expectations and entrenched practices that would spread to choices and activities outside the realm of formal deliberation and approval.

Information and incentives for practical implementation

By itself, a foundation for sustainability-based decision making is insufficient. Governance for sustainability also needs means of spurring and guiding appropriate action. Policy instruments of many kinds are available - tax reforms regulations, procurement rules, liability laws, education programmes, tenure arrangements, power-sharing processes and many combinations are possible. Because market-based or influenced decision making will necessarily continue to play a major role in governance at all levels, a key challenge will be to make prices more accurate indicators of embodied costs - social and ecological as well as economic.

But simple means are rarely available. Identifying, evaluating and monetising externalised costs is often frustrated by limited knowledge, competing methodologies and moral dilemmas. And resistance to imposition of cost internalising measures is common even in simple cases involving the well-accepted ‘polluter pays' principle. Here again it seems that carefully integrated, monitored and adjusted application of multiple tools will be necessary.

Programmes for system innovation

Many sustainability benefits may be obtained immediately through the use of currently available technologies. In the longer run, however, sustainability requires transitions involving system innovation. Policymaking on sustainability has relied on performance standards or the prescription of certain solutions. The solutions adopted help to secure partial sustainability benefits especial in rural communities. Governance for sustainability requires policymaking frameworks that actively seek to identify, nurture, and coordinate action for more sustainable technological niches. And since technological innovations promise only some of the needed improvements, governance initiatives must ensure that they are accompanied by co-evolving societal processes characterised by continuous changes in formal and informal institutions. For this, governance for sustainability has to be more anticipatory, oriented towards the long-term, using visions of sustainability, and concerned with learning, innovation and adaptation.

Substantial improvement of the current trajectories of development requires ‘system innovation', a fundamental change in the systems of goods provision, by using different resources, knowledge and practices. System innovation in the socio-technical realm constitutes change beyond the level of the technical components. It is associated with new linkages, new knowledge, different rules and roles, a new ‘logic of appropriateness', and often new organisations. In the vision of integrated mobility, users use different transport modes (collective ones and individual ones such as cars).

Transition management

Change towards sustainability in a world of complex and dynamic human-ecological systems, is an unending process of transformation. In both government and corporate sectors, visions of sustainability are rarely used as a compass for policy, and sustainability-centred policy integration remains an ideal to which policy makers are committed only in words. Transitions involving system innovation cannot be managed in a controlling sense but they can be aimed and guided in an interactive, forward-looking, adaptive manner, using markets, institutions and hierarchy (the three basic forms of coordination. According to Kemp and Loorbach (2003), in managing transitions, four basic rules require special attention:

• *Be careful not to get locked into sub-optimal solutions.* This calls for anticipation of outcomes and the use of markets for coordination and context control instead of planning. A second way of circumventing lock-in is by exploring different configurations through portfolio-management - a common strategy in finance is to hedge risks. One should not bet on one horse, but explore a wide variety of options, both incremental and radical.

• *Embed transition policy into existing decision-making frameworks and legitimise transition management.* Transition management should be politically accepted and be a joint concern for different policy makers and society at large. Long-term goals chosen by society should guide policy, including responses to short-term concerns.

• *Take the long view of a dynamic mechanism of change.* Make sure that the process does not come to a halt when positive results do not immediately materialise due to setbacks. One way of keeping the process on track is to view and institute learning as a policy objective.

• *Engage in multi-level coordination.* Coordinate top-down policies with bottom-up initiatives (engage in vertical coordination besides horizontal coordination). Local experiments should inform national policies and there should be strategic experimentation for system innovation; two things that did not happen in the past.

There should be more and better coordination between top-level policies and local policies and also among various horizontal policies. National policies should be coordinated with international policies, because go-it-alone policies can be economically harmful unless there are clear first-mover advantages.

Gibson (2001) added that a last transitional consideration is *fairness*. As noted above, even many of the most desirable sustainability-oriented initiatives will involve trade-offs, bringing the danger of inequitable distribution of gains and losses. Such inequities are particularly worrisome where the losses may be borne by those who are already disadvantaged (a sadly common feature of past development assistance projects). Preparing for just transitions (Burrows, 2001) that avoid adding to disadvantages, and provide satisfactory compensation when all else fails, is crucial.

Transition management is a form of process management performed against a set of goals set by society whose problem-solving capabilities are mobilised and translated into a transition programme, which is legitimised through the political process. Transition management does not aim to realise a particular path at all costs. It engages in the exploration of promising paths, in an adaptive manner with exit strategies. It does not consist of a strategy of forced development, going against the grain, but uses bottom-up initiatives and business ideas of alternative systems, offering sustainability benefits besides user benefits. Such elements have been supported through the use of PRA techniques in both study areas as seen in Kuni

Business Plan (2010) and Ilitha Business Plan (2012). Key elements of transition management are:- development of sustainability visions and setting of transition goals; establishment, organisation and development of a transition-arena (for innovative actors) besides the normal policy arena; use of transition-experiments and programmes for system innovation; monitoring and evaluation of the transition process; creating and maintaining public support; use of learning goals for policy and reliance on circles of learning and adaptation.

With all the considerations of sustainability described above and incorporates the key components of governance for sustainability above as well namely policy integration, common objectives and criteria, internalisation of external costs, and programmes for system innovation. It puts government policies in a different, longer-term perspective and tries to better align specific policies. It is not based on blueprint thinking. No choice is made about ideal future functional systems. Different visions and routes are investigated through adaptive policies: decisions are made in an iterative way and support is temporary. To ensure flexibility, the goals and policies towards these are continuously re-assessed and adapted.

By being adaptive and anticipatory, transition management helps to deal with the tension between creative change and conservation, between innovative experiments and maintaining the integrity and stability of functions (Rammel *et. al*., 2004). Transition management is best understood as an attempt at goal-oriented modulation or directed incrementalism (Grunwald, 2000), offering a model for policy integration. This discussion has attempted to unpack and integrate the very large notions of sustainability and governance to make a case for transition management

as the framework of analysis to devise pathways to a more sustainable future. In making this case, it underlined the centrality of system innovation as a policy approach. It further draws attention to the necessity of a multi-dimensional perspective on institutions through which governance is exercised. Governance for sustainability presents an enormous but unavoidable challenge. Continued unsustainability is not a viable option. For progress towards sustainability, one needs to establish governance structures and practices that can foster, guide and coordinate positive work by a host of actors on a vast complex of issues, through webs of interconnection and across multiple levels and scales, with sensitivity to their contexts and respect for uncertainties. Such a conception has considerable advantages and can be beneficial for community development of rural areas in the World, Africa and South Africa.

It encompasses the multiple and diverse strengths, motives and capabilities, not just of conventional government agencies and business interests, but of the full set of public, private and civil society players, collective and individual, plus their myriad interrelations. The challenge is to achieve sufficient integration of understanding, direction and action to achieve the desired transition. In the establishment of effective governance for sustainability, one must incorporate and also reach beyond the powers of commerce and command - a task best accomplished through understanding, guidance and process.

No broad transition can be accomplished quickly or easily, and the human record in consciously designed and directed transitions is not good. If the transition to sustainability is to be successful, it must be pursued with as much humility as

commitment, as much diversity as direction, and as much creative experimentation as resolute protection. Necessarily, much will depend on the credibility of the decision makers and the decision-making process. In governance for sustainability, a host of quite different players must be involved. They are unlikely to work together easily, which is why there should be a commitment to transitions and why government, as a democratic authoritative power is important (even when government is part of the problem). There is no single best form of governance for sustainability. The details must vary, respecting the specifics of context from case to case. Nevertheless, the deliberations on governance for sustainability so far, do point to a basic foundational outline and strategy, and there is reason to believe that we can clarify and specify much more without compromising respect for particular circumstances. The quest for sustainability may be the quest for an elusive ‘Holy Grail' of integrated understanding and action that is not fully possible, and will never be found in a single pure form. But a good deal can be done and progress is possible.

2.5 Conclusion

This Chapter provided a comprehensive description of the historical development of community development in the rural areas since the 1950s and how they have evolved up to this present day. The Chapter also looked at the ISRDS and its contributions to the concept of rural development in South Africa in particular. The three theoretical approaches to rural development namely the modernization approach, the basic needs approach and the sustainable livelihoods approach was discussed. The criticisms of each approach led to the development of the other approach and subsequently the SLA was adopted was the basis of study based on

its successes in a range of different programmes discussed above. In addition, the SLA places the rural poor at the centre of development and it improves the understanding of their livelihoods. It also organizes the factors that constrain or enhance livelihood opportunities and shows how they relate as discussed above.

The application of the SLA analysis in this study will assist in identifying the types of assets that the rural poor have, and as well as their vulnerabilities. It will establish how policies, institutions and processes support and hinder their access to those assets. The focus will also be on their preferred outcomes, not deciding for them, but building on them, as well as on the livelihood strategies they use and how they can be enhanced (Carney 2002:13; and Hussein 2002:14). The chapter ends with a brief case for sustainability and governance for transition management leading to a sustainable future.

CHAPTER THREE - METHODOLOGY

3. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to give a detailed description of the study area and research methodology. First, the chapter starts by providing a description of the study area, within a broader context and the municipality in which the case studies falls under. The history of the two programmes is also rendered. This chapter will then move on to giving a detailed discussion on the different research methodologies. This helps in justifying why the researcher ended up adopting one research methodology over another. A comprehensive discussion of the research methods that support the adopted research methodology will be rendered as well. This includes objectives of the study, research sample, data collection, data analysis, challenges and delimitations, ethical consideration and value of the study.

The study focused on an identified lack of or limited progress on community development programmes funded by the Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Social Development with specific focus on rural areas. The overall objective of the study was to explore the impact of the Sustainable Community Development Programme on rural communities. In achieving the objectives of the study, a clear picture of the Programme's impact and their contribution to community development will be provided.

3.1 Description of the study area

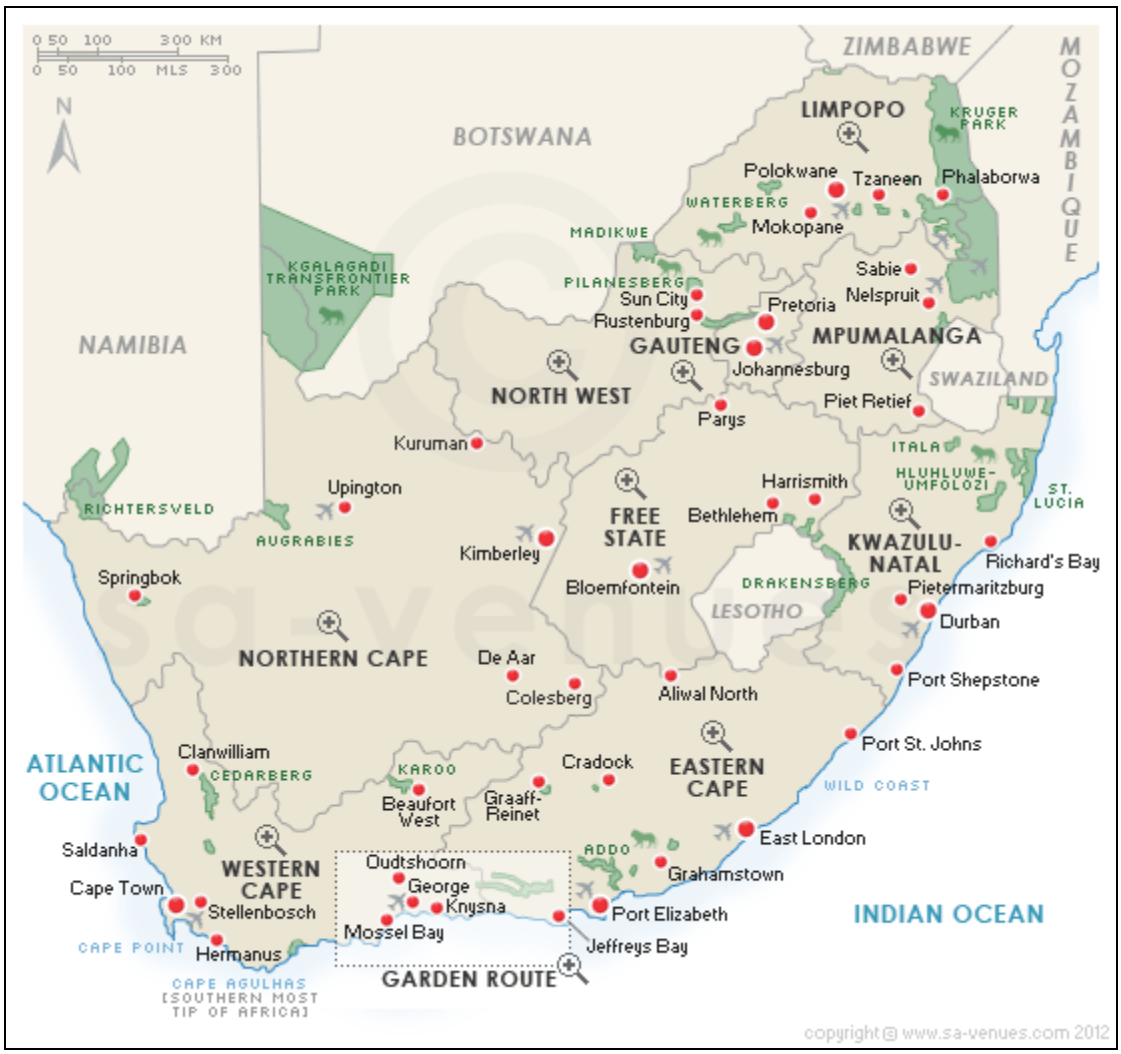


Figure 4: Map of South Africa (Google Maps)

According to the Encyclopedia of the World (2010), South Africa is further divided into nine provinces, with their own legislature, executive councils and premier. These provinces are KwaZulu Natal, Northern Cape, Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Gauteng, North West, Limpopo and Mpumalanga. From the map in figure 4 it can

also be seen that the neighbours are the Atlantic and Indian oceans, which meet at the south-western corner of the continent.

Although the country is classified as semi-arid, it has considerable variation in climate. Being in the southern hemisphere, the seasons in South Africa are opposite to those of Europe and North America. The country also falls squarely within the subtropical belt of high pressure, making it dry with an abundance of sunshine.

3.2 Profile of the study area

The Eastern Cape province lies in the south eastern coast of South Africa and is divided into six district municipalities, namely: Alfred Nzo, Amatole, Cacadu, Chris Hani, O.R. Tambo, and UKhahlamba, and a metropolitan area called Nelson Mandela Bay. The province has approximately 6 829 958 according to according to Statistics South Africa (2011). Its provincial capital is Bhisho, and isiXhosa is the main language used by 83, 4% of the provincial population. The Eastern Cape Province is the second-largest province in terms of land size after Northern Cape, taking up 13, 9% of South Africa's area. The Eastern Cape Province map is presented in figure 5.

Figure 5: Map of the Eastern Cape Province (Google Maps)

Eastern Cape Province is largely rural with more than 60 % of its populace residing in the rural areas. Agriculture is an important pillar of the Eastern Cape economy and although it has been deteriorating of late (Eastern Cape Economic Profile and Outlook, 2010). Rural households in the Eastern Cape Province eke out a living mainly from remittances and social grants, and minimal households from subsistence farming that is embedded with its short comings.

3.3 Buffalo Municipality

The study was located in the Eastern Cape Province and the programmes situated in the Buffalo Municipality in Kuni and Ilitha villages. These two programmes were

chosen because they are based in the rural areas of Buffalo municipality were levels of poverty are high and different stakeholders - government and NGOs have in recent years juggled to render development programmes that are aimed at eradicating poverty. One such stakeholder is the Department of Social Development of the Eastern Cape Province who render the community development programme under study here.

Buffalo Municipality is the key urban centre of the eastern part of the Eastern Cape. It consists of a corridor of urban areas, stretching from the port city of East London to the east, through to Mdantsane and reaching Dimbaza in the west. East London is the primary node, whilst the King Williams Town (KWT) area is the secondary node. It also contains a wide band of rural areas on either side of the urban corridor. (See Figure 1 in Chapter 1). Buffalo Municipality's land area is approximately 2,515 km2, with 68km of coastline, (Buffalo Municipality, 2008).

Both King William's Town and East London have important functions. KWT functions as a Regional Service Centre and together with Bhisho, is the Provincial Administrative Centre and contains the seat of the Provincial Government of the Eastern Cape Province, whilst East London is the dominant economic centre. Buffalo Municipality is broadly characterised by three main identifiable land use patterns. The first has been described above, that is, the dominant urban axis of East London - Mdantsane-KWT-Dimbaza, which dominates the industrial and service sector centres and attracts people from throughout the greater Amathole region in search of work and better access to urban service and facilities. The second is the area comprising the fringe peri-urban and rural settlement areas, which, whilst remaining under the influence of the urban axis, is distinct in character and land use patterns.

These include the Newlands settlements, those settlements that previously fell within the former Ciskei Bantustans, and the Ncera settlements located west of East London. Thirdly, the commercial farming areas form a distinctive type of area. These areas are dominant in the north-eastern and south-western (coastal) sectors of the Municipality and are characterised by extensive land uses, with certain areas making use of intensive farming (irrigation-based).

According to the (ISRDS, 2000:2), rural areas throughout the world tend to have similar characteristics. Populations are spatially dispersed. Agriculture is often the dominant, and sometimes the exclusive economic sector and opportunities for resource mobilisation are limited. These characteristics mean that people living in rural areas face a set of factors that pose major challenges to development. The specific economic conditions in rural areas especial in buffalo municipality result in fewer opportunities than in non-rural locations. Consequently, the rural areas are rarely able to mobilise sufficient resources to finance their own development programmes, leaving them dependent on transfers from the centre. Furthermore, factor markets in rural areas often operate imperfectly, rendering the search for efficient outcomes an extremely challenging one. Furthermore, rural areas are often politically marginalised, leaving little opportunity for the rural poor to influence government policies. In many developing countries, policies have also consistently discriminated against agriculture through high levels of taxation and other macroeconomic policies that have adversely affected agricultural performance. The Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Social Development has funded more than fifty sustainable livelihoods community development programmes in rural areas of the Eastern Cape. The focus of the research was on two such programmes of the

Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Social Development in the Western Buffalo Municipality rural areas and each area s background profile is given below.

3.3.1 Thembisa Farmers Association: Kuni Village

According to the Kuni Business Plan (2010:2), the core objective of the programme was the establishment of the Thembisa Farmers Association involving communities, broader stakeholders and provincial Government. To secure community involvement in the development of food security programmes and to also identify relevant focus areas for these programmes, a participatory Rural Appraisal was hosted on the 18th of November 2008 before the business plan was compiled. It emerged that the programme was established in 2005 with forty-six members aiming to address hunger and malnutrition which is prevalent in the area. The programme seeked to provide opportunities for food production, poverty alleviation and job creation.

Twenty-five Thembisa community members are direct beneficiaries of the food security programme and two hundred and ten households will be the indirect beneficiaries. The Department of Social Development provided funding, renders facilitation and monitoring of the Programme, the Department of Agriculture provides technical support in terms of soil testing and the Buffalo Municipality links the programme with market opportunities, LED and IDP.

The problems to addressed included shortages of adequate skills present at Kuni Village, ineffective means of food production for sustainable livelihoods, unemployment and poverty alleviation. It was reported that the main sources of income in this community were social security grants, money lenders, spaza shops,

selling goats and chickens whereas others cultivate soil for small gardens and sells vegetables.

The population of the area was estimated to be between approximately three thousand males and females ranging from ages of zero to seventy-five years. According to Kuni Business Plan (2010:3) forty per cent of people matriculated whilst the remaining sixty per cent is illiterate. The programme is led by an executive elected by the Community and there are traditional and political leaders that also provide support to the executive.

3.3.2 Ilitha Development Ilitha Poultry Project

Ilitha Community is situated in King Williams Town in Ward 45 under Buffalo Municipality. The core objective of the programme was the establishment of the Ilitha Development Poultry Programme involving Communities, broader industry stakeholders and provincial government as well as securing community involvement in the development of food security programmes and also to identify relevant areas for these programmes.

According to the Ilitha Business Plan (2012:3), the programme was established in 2004 aiming to address hunger and malnutrition which is prevalent in the area. The programme seeks to provide opportunities for the unemployed create job and alleviate poverty. The programme was started by twenty-three women who contributed R50 each with the aim of selling chickens.

The village has approximately one thousand eight hundred and eighty households and education and literacy is very low in the area as most of the educated leave the area for urban centres. It has two primary and two high schools. The community is

reportedly faced with a high rate of crime due to unemployment and poverty. Most people rely on state social security grants for a living.

The problems to be addressed by this programme are insufficient income, inadequate skills and limited job opportunities. Eight Ilitha Development Poultry Programme are direct beneficiaries. Ward forty-five comprises of one hundred and six households who will be indirect beneficiaries. The Department of Social Development provided funding, renders facilitation and monitoring of the Programme, the Department of Agriculture provides technical support, educational workshop on farming and preparation and extension services and the Buffalo Municipality Municipality links the programme with market opportunities, LED and IDP.

3.4 Research Methodology

Research is essentially a thought process on accumulated facts and data in order to determine what the facts "say" and what the data means, Leedy (1980:4-7). Hutchinson (1992:51) contended that research is a scientific investigation and study to establish facts to help reach new conclusions. It can be distinguished from other human activities by its systematic nature.

Research methodology is referred to as the research strategy or methods of collecting data; it necessitates a reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the research to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity. It clearly indicates the methods of data collection as well as the techniques used for such data collection. There are two common research methodologies/frameworks within social sciences, namely; qualitative and quantitative research methodology. Research

methodology is generally classified along the lines of being quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodology or triangulation. Triangulation uses both that both qualitative and quantitative.

Quantitative and qualitative research methodologies are different in many ways, such as the research output they produce also tends to be different. As such it is important to consider these differences between the research methodologies so as to adopt the relevant one for the phenomenon under study.

According to Dawson (2002) qualitative research explores attitudes, behaviours and experiences through such research methods as interviews or focus groups. The qualitative methodology attempts to get an in-depth opinion or response from the respondents by means of giving importance to the behaviour and experiences. On the same line of thinking, (Leedy, 1980:52-53) defined qualitative research methodology as research which produces descriptive data; generally people's own written or spoken words. As a result of giving importance to the behaviour and experiences of the respondents which takes a long time to acquire fewer respondents take part in qualitative research however the contact with the respondents tend to last a lot longer as compared to quantitative research. These techniques will assist the researcher to explore a phenomenon bounded by time and activity (a programme, event, process, institution or social group) and collect detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time (Leedy, 1980:195-200).

The merit of qualitative methodology lies in the fact that it is holistic, flexible and is more suited for a deeper understanding of phenomena. To underscore this point, it is regarded as valid for understanding of the subject as could be achieved through a

more rigid approach (Duffy, 1986). It also allows subjects to raise issues and topics which the researcher might not have included in a structured research design, adding to the quality of data collected. However, a weakness of qualitative methodology is the possible effect of the researchers' presence on study subjects. As a result, the relationship between the researcher and participants may actually distort the findings. It is imperative to underline that a research methodology comprises of, population sample, sampling procedure, data collection and data analysis techniques used to conduct the study.

This study employed a qualitative research methodology. The main reason for adopting this methodology is that it solicits rich information about the community projects from various sources. Qualitative research makes it easier for the researcher to flexibly explore the field with the aim of assessing specific information to come up with accurate results. Qualitative inquiry employs different knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry, and methods of data collection and analysis.

According to Burns & Grove (1987) the other type of research methodology is quantitative. The quantitative methodology describes, tests, and examines cause and effect relationships, using a deductive process of knowledge attainment. Babbie and Mouton (2002:281) further state that the quantitative research methodology is based on placing emphasis on quantification of constructs, that the best or only way of measuring the properties of phenomena is through quantitative measurement, such as assigning numbers of perceived qualities of things and the central role of variables in describing and analysing human behaviour.

In addition, quantitative research mainly generates statistics through the use of large survey research, using methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews

(Dawson, 2002). Dawson also notes that the quantitative type of research reaches many more people that the qualitative research, however, the contact with those people is much quicker than it is in qualitative research.

Quantitative methodology deals with numerical descriptions of research data. It is basically used for empirical studies for it is associated with ‘empiricism' and ‘positivism' (Burns and Grove, 1987). According to Cresswell (2003) a quantitative research procedure uses post-positivist claims for developing knowledge. Tewksbury (2009) posit that quantitative research is typically considered to be the more "scientific" approach to doing social science than the qualitative approach. Tewksbury goes further to say that, the focus of quantitative research is on using specific definitions and carefully operationalizing what particular concepts and variables mean.

The history of quantitative methodologies can be traced from natural sciences. It is predicated upon the argument that things should be measured and the relationship between cause and effect is easily discernible. In other words, it argues that research should be objective, systematic and replicable under the same conditions. The outcome should be depicted by numerical data that shows the relationship between variables in a clear way. In other words, quantitative methodology does the following: describes tests and examines case and effect relationships (Burns and Grove, 1987). The other characteristic of quantitative methodology is that it tests a theory deductively. That is, it deduces a theory from existing knowledge. Deductive logic is used and the design is suitable for phenomena that have been well developed with regard to theory and concept.

The strengths or advantages of quantitative research methodology are numerous. Firstly, it is a widely used methodology because according to Worrall (2000: 354) it has strength in its predictive advantages that the qualitative approach lacks (as cited in Tewskbury, 2009). One significant advantage of the quantitative methodology is that it reduces personal implication of the researcher into a study to a negligible minimum. Since it seeks to be scientific like what is done in natural sciences, quantitative research has very little intrusion into the findings of the research by the researcher. Even more important that methodology has understandable methods and logical structure that makes it replicable with a significant degree of confidence.

Secondly, Worral (2000) underlines this by saying that the ability of the approach to make correct predictions is an outstanding characteristic of the quantitative methodology. Thirdly, a quantitative methodology is more suitable for studies that require quantitative answers. That is to say, when people need to know a phenomenon in terms for figures, it is a more suitable approach than a qualitative approach because it does not yield figures. In short, qualitative approach cannot give us quantitative answers. Quantitative approaches are also succinct and parsimonious relative to qualitative approaches. Fourth, quantitative approach is stronger than a qualitative approach for testing a hypothesis because it emphasises on the relationship between variables, the quantitative approach can easily help us approve or disapprove a hypothesis. Fifth, quantitative approaches are relatively fast and economical as a whole compared to qualitative approaches. This is because they are specific and bounded unlike qualitative approaches. Thus, when resources are limited for an empirical study, quantitative methodologies tend to be cheap.

Quantitative methodologies are not without criticism. First, they are not suitable for in-depth studies that seek to unpack people's opinions and perceptions of the

people. This is because it is limited to focusing on few variables, whereas in a real world, more than two variables might be interacting at a time. In other words it does not pay attention to other variables that may emerge during a research study. Put differently, quantitative approach is inflexible and relatively artificial. Because it provides very little understanding of a phenomenon it is weak for generating theories. Further, the emphasis by the approach on objectivity and detachment from the research by the researcher is particularly challenging. It is difficult for a researcher to carry out a study dispassionately and with no bias. The argument is that regardless of its emphasis on objectivity all research is somewhat subjective epistemologically speaking.

Thirdly, the quantitative approach is ill-suited for addressing tough and complex research questions. Because it needs to start with an existing theory it is not suited for exploratory research. In the same line, its assumption of a linear understanding of reality pays a lip service to the complexity of certain phenomena. Furthermore, because it is highly structured it is thus not well suited for studying highly unstructured issues. Thus highly structured processes limit the flexibility which is necessary in social science studies. The quantitative approach is not strong in capturing an array of factors relating to human interaction. In other words it does not give richer perspectives. Cohen (1987) contends that quantitative research is research that employs empirical methods and empirical statements which are expressed in numerical terms.

Quantitative and qualitative research methodologies are not the only methodologies that can or are adopted by researcher when collecting data. Gaining an understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative research methodology was done so as to put a researcher in a position to mix or

combine strategies and to use what Johnson and Turner (2003) call the fundamental principle of mixed research. Thus, the third research methodology is a mixture of the quantitative research methodology and qualitative research methodology hence the name mixed method or triangulation. According to this mixed approach researchers should collect multiple data using different strategies, approaches, and methods in such a way that the resulting mixture or combination is likely to result in complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach to a research in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings. This mixed method approach is becoming a rapidly developing field of social science methodology. As a result of the weaknesses inherent in both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, it is the mixed-method approach that can compensate for their mutual and overlapping weaknesses. Basically, when social scientists are faced with the problem of generalising and understanding ideas, they are better off incorporating both approaches whenever possible. In other words, this is a robust approach that credible social science research recognizes the benefits of gaining the best of both research worlds through the combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques. The results from the qualitative study can then be the basis for the questionnaire's development that leads to the quantitative study. The understanding of both paradigms helped in identifying the ways these divergent approaches complement each other.

The strength of the approach is that it generates quantitative and qualitative data. It employs both flexible and controlled designs. What is more, it adopts both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative approach might be used to understand the meaning of the numbers produced by quantitative approach. In this regard, the

mixed approach can help address the central challenge of using a either qualitative or quantitative approach, because reality is complex, thus a mixed approach is credible. This study could not adopt the mixed approach because of the paucity of resources for carrying out such a study.

This following section delves on the instruments or tools used for data collections commonly known as research methods. The difference between research methodology and research methods lies in that research methodology is the overall approach to studying a certain topic whereas research methods are tools that a researcher uses to collect data. The next section delves on discussing these tools that were used for data collection.

This study utilized a qualitative methodology as it aims to elicit citizens' own views and gain an understanding on the issue of sustainable livelihoods programme and its impact on their lives. According to Samson. *et al*. (2002:19), in order to understand and measure the impact of programmes designed to achieve socio-economic development, it is believed that the use of a scientifically based research process is of utmost importance to obtain credible results from questioning techniques, ensuring that the resultant data are both valid and reliable and in most cases a qualitative approach is ideal. Qualitative research describes and analyzes people's individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions. This is in contrast to quantitative research which assumes that social facts exist with the single objective reality that is divorced from feeling and beliefs of an individual. The study therefore adopted a qualitative approach because of its appropriateness and feasibility in conceptualizing and analyzing the data that was collected through semi-structured interviews, (Glaser and Strauss, 1998: 32).

3.4.1 Research design

De Vos *et.al.* (2005:132) defines research design as a plan or blueprint of how the examiner intends to conduct the research. Research design offers a means on how to investigate either the research hypothesis or question in the most economical manner. According to Creswell (1998:61), a case study can be regarded as an exploratory or in-depth analysis of a bounded system (bounded by time and/or place) or a single or multiple case, over a period of time'. For the purpose of this study, the bounded system refers to an in-depth analysis of the processes and activities of the group. The exploration and description of the case took place through detailed, in-depth data collection methods, involving multiple sources of information that were relatively rich in context. The data collection methods utilised in this primary analysis of the study included interviews: these being semi-structured one-to one and focus group discussions. The secondary analysis entailed literature review involving researching at the libraries and on the Internet, as well as discussions with other practitioners on the subject of concern. The literature review enabled the researcher to enter the field with knowledge of the relevant literature before conducting the field research.

Creswell (1998:2) cited in De Vos *et.al.* (2005:268), defines design in the qualitative context as the entire process from conceptualizing a problem, to writing the narrative. De Vos (2005:269) note that, those undertaking qualitative research have an amazing choice of designs. This will enable the study for instance to adapt the interview guides to the literacy levels of all the respondents.

The strength of the case study approach is its depth, rather than its breadth. The weakness of the case study is its lack of breadth. The dynamics of one individual or

social unit may bear little relationship to the dynamics of others. The case study approach involves finding typical subjects that exemplify some relevant trait.

3.4.2 Population and sample

Babbie (2001) defines a population as people or items with the characteristic one wish to understand, while a sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole. In other words, a population consists of all those people with the characteristics a researcher wants to study. Most populations are too large and inaccessible to collect information on all members and for this reason, a sample is often drawn. A sample is a representative sub-population of limited number of cases drawn from the larger population. The sample must be selected carefully if it is to have the same basic characteristics as the population from which it is drawn, the survey findings cannot be used to make generalisations about the entire population.

The main function of the sample is to allow the researchers to conduct the study to individuals from the population so that the results of their study can be used to derive conclusions that will apply to the entire population. However, caution was taken when sampling to avoid choosing respondents without the necessary characteristics needed so as to eliminate the misrepresentation of the results and findings from this study.

The population under study comprised of both men and women who reside in the Kuni and Ilitha rural villages. The study focused on the impact of community development programmes in poverty eradication in Buffalo Municipality and these two villages were chosen because there are rural communities who offer diversified

livelihoods opportunities that balance food production and income production. The non-probability sampling method was utilised as this type of sample is based entirely on the judgment of the researcher, De Vos *.et .al* (2005:328) highlight that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population, as was evident in the selection of programme members. In total the sample was made up of forty-six respondents. The focus-groups participants were twenty-four from the two rural areas and an addition of twenty members from both rural areas were interviewed. Two DSD Community development practitioners were also interviewed. The numbers dropped from the original number of forty for focus group discussions due to various reasons of which one of those reasons was the lack of financial incentive for programme members.

Sampling is utilised in qualitative research, though it is less structured, less measurable and less strictly applied than in quantitative research. De Vos *.et .al* (2005:328) state that there are no rules to the sample size: the size is determined by what the researcher wants to know, the purposes of the inquiry, what will have credibility and what will be useful hence the rationale for going ahead with the study despite dropped numbers from the focus groups. In addition the sample was effective in that there were variations in the sample chosen as evidenced by the participants who took part in the focus groups and were actively involved in the day to day running of the programmes. Furthermore, community members interviewed to gain more insight on the effectiveness of the programmes and they added more views with regards to the implementation of the CDPs in their communities. Community development practitioners also participated in the study and their views were important to this study as they are government officials who monitor these

programmes. Therefore all these respondents are a representative of the entire population.

3.4.3 Sampling Technique

As mentioned in the research methodology section, this study adopted a case study research design. Qualitative research typically, although not exclusively employs nonprobability sampling techniques (Murphy et al., 1998). This means that it is not usually intended that the findings of a particular study will be generalizable, but will apply only to the specific population under investigation. The two types of sampling techniques that were utilised in the non-probability sampling method to select the respondents were purposive/judgmental sampling and the target sample.

The selection of respondents took into consideration the key elements in qualitative data gathering, as stated in Babbie and Mouton (2004:288). These are enculturation, current involvement and adequate time. The three elements were important for the study, as it required respondents who had worked in the programmes for a considerable time and were knowledgeable about the historical background and current programme activities. The researcher hoped that all respondents would give their time for the interviews.

The study used target sampling in which the odds of selecting certain individuals are not known. Target sampling is one of the non-probability sampling techniques and in this case the Department of Social Development Community Development Workers working Kuni and Ilitha was approached to provide a list of communities where sustainable community development programme is implemented together with

people participating in the programme. The advantage of target samples is that they are less complicated and more economical (in terms of time and financial expenses) than probability samples. De Vos *et. al* (2005:203), further state that target sampling is mainly a strategy for obtaining systematic information when random sampling is impossible and when accidental sampling cannot be strictly implemented as a consequence of the hidden nature of the problem. In this study, the Department of Social Development was approached to provide a list of the areas in Buffalo Municipality were the sustainable community development programmes are been rendered and Kuni and Ilitha programmes have been chosen due to the fact that they focus on diversified livelihoods strategies and were rural areas in Buffalo Municipality.

A purposive sampling technique was also used in this study so as to find out the views of Community Development Workers on the impact of the programme in Kuni and Ilitha rural villages. Purposive sampling technique is chosen specifically to ascertain the views of the Department of Social Development Community Development Workers as expert informants. The strength of the purposive sampling procedure lies in that it permits the selection of respondents whose qualities and experiences gives way to an understanding of the phenomenon in question making it valued. In addition, this sampling procedure is helpful in that in obtaining a detailed and rich understanding of the aspect under study. Additionally, purposive sampling helped the researcher to focus on people with expertise and rich insight into issues under study, like in the case of this study

The sampling frame comprised the list of all programme members in both groups and the Department of Social development Supervisor and Community Development Practitioner. The key informants included the officials from the Department of Social Development who was responsible for monitoring the programmes. These were selected using the purposive technique. The researcher selected the programme members with the assistance of the community worker, who had a better knowledge of the group processes, so as to enable the researcher to obtain and verify data about past performances from those who were directly involved. According to Welman *.et .al* (2005:69) and De Vos *.et .al* (2005:328), this would ensure that a representative sample of the population was obtained.

3.4.4 Data Collection

The study made use of focus group interviews with the villagers participating in the Programmes in Kuni and Ilitha rural communities and a semi-structured interview with the community development workers and officials facilitating the sustainable livelihoods programme to find out their views on its impact as well as the challenges they experience in implementing the service as a poverty eradication strategy. Semi-structured interviews were also used for community members who were randomly met at the community. An interview guide used in the study, entailed a questionnaire written down to guide the interview. The researcher handed the interview guide to the participants and then read the guide together with them and giving room for the participants to answer questions as we went along.

3.5 Data collection Instruments

The process of conducting the semi-structured interview has been noted by De Vos *.et. .al* (2005:297), who further state that not every question has to be asked and the interview may well move away from questions on the schedule. The advantages, according to De Vos *.et al* (2005:298) are that: interviews are a useful way of getting large amounts of data quickly and are an effective way of obtaining in-depth data. However, interviews also have limitations and De Vos *et. al* (2005:299) mention that personal interaction and cooperation are essential and therefore some participants may be unwilling to share and some respondents tell the researcher what they think they want to know.

The key informants did not have the same interview guide, as their areas of focus were different. The aim was to establish what the government was doing at meso and macro levels to ensure services/resources were available for the community through interviews with the Department of Social Development. It was also to find out how the information regarding these services/resources was disseminated. This enabled the researcher to find out whether the groups were aware of the resources available in their communities and utilising them as suggested by (De Vos *.et .al*, 2005:209). The other community members were used to verify (triangulation) the existence of these services and find out how they as communities had knowledge of resources within their communities, as well as how communities mobilised these services to improve their situations (Welman *.et .al*, 2005:143).

The researcher can speak Zulu, Xhosa and Ndebele, but had difficulties in comprehending deep Xhosa, thus had to enlist the help of an assistant who was

fluent in Xhosa. Welman *.et .al* (2005:200) argues that language is a very important aspect in the South African context because of the eleven official languages. To manage this problem, the researcher made use of an assistant during the first focus group interview to clarify issues and ensure that there was a common understanding of the data been gathered.

3.5.1 Semi-structured Interviews

The researcher used interviews to gain a detailed picture of the community members' perceptions or accounts of the subject under discussion. Bailey (1987:174) says that this method gave the researcher and participant a great deal of flexibility as the researcher was able to follow up particular interesting avenues that emerged in the interview and the participant was able to give a fuller picture. The interviews were also used to validate observations made during programme monitoring visits. The researcher had a set of pre-determined questions on an interview schedule, but De Vos *.et .al* (2005:296) emphasise that the interview should be guided by the schedule, not dictated by it. This enabled the participants to share more closely in the direction the interview was taking and they also introduced issues the researcher had not thought about. The interview schedule was developed beforehand so that the researcher could think explicitly about what he hoped the interview would cover. It also forced the researcher to think of the difficulties that might be encountered, for example in terms of question wording or sensitive areas. The one-to-one interviews were used for only the respondents randomly picked within the communities, and the focus group discussions were used for those directly involved in the programme.

3.5.2 Focus Group Discussions

Two groups participated in the study and included all the members of each group. The group sizes ranged from seven to ten members. The group with seven members (Kuni) had experienced high member turnover because of members'expectations not being met. Only seven from the twenty-five that started the programme remained from the original group twenty five.

The focus group interviews were a means of better understanding how the participants felt or thought about an issue, product or service. The group interview allows each participant to discuss his or her views until group consensus is reached. The groups were focused, as the members are involved in collective activities. All the members of the Sustainable Livelihoods programme participated, some more than others because of group dynamics. The groups were manageable in number as they did not exceed ten in each group. The researcher tried to create a tolerant environment in the focus group that would encourage participants to share perceptions, points of view, experiences, wishes and concerns without pressurising the participants to reach consensus. The researcher was able to maintain a favourable atmosphere as even though there were some disagreements, they were resolved amicably. The researcher also ensured that information obtained from the groups was accurate by cross-checking it with interviews from the Community Development Practitioners during the entire process of data gathering.

3.5.2.1 Advantages of Utilising Focus Groups

According to De Vos *.et .al* (2005:296) and Welman *.et .al* (2005:203-4):

The method is a friendly and a respectful one and conveys a willingness to listen without being defensive because of the following reasons;

- they produce concentrated amounts of data on the topic of interest;
- They do not require any literacy, just the ability to listen and analyse;
- They rely on the interaction in the group to produce the data;
- The comparisons the participants made between one another's experiences and opinions were a valuable source of insight into complex behaviours and motivation;
- They created a fuller understanding of the phenomenon being studied;
- They stimulated spontaneous exchange of ideas, thoughts and attitudes in the 'security of being in a crowd'.
- Multiple viewpoints or responses were obtained in a shorter period of time than in individual interviews.

3.5.2.2 Limitations of Utilising Focus Groups

According to Weyers (2001:128) and Welman *.et .al* (2005:203), the limitations are that:

- Some of the participants provide the researcher with the official account‘, which is not necessarily valid, especially where the leader was autocratic.
- They require a researcher who is skilled in group process so that passive participants may not be unduly influenced or inhibited by active participants. This was observed especially among participants who were talking before the focus group but quiet during the focus group interview.
- Participants' social posturing or desire to be polite inhibits them from expressing their views. For instance, in one Ilitha where the leader was dominant, the other members did not respond to questions, but looked at the leader so that she could answer.

During the focus group discussions, participatory assessment techniques were utilised. According to Weyers (2001:129-131) the rationale for using these techniques is:

- They are based on a reversal of learning, as advocated by the SLAs. The researcher learns directly from the people in a face-to face manner and without preconceived ideas of the content of the data that will be collected.
- They emphasise the sharing of information and ideas between the participants and between the participants and the researcher.
- They seek diversity and, instead of seeking averages, the focus is on identifying contradictions and anomalies.

They focus on visual instead of verbal communication. This was essential, as most of the group members are semi-illiterate.

3.5.3 Document Study

This took the form of analysis of the programmes' documents at the offices in Kuni and Ilitha, which involved an investigation into the business plans, agendas and minutes of meetings, financial records and literature review on the subject matter. The researcher discovered that the programmes did not have any records of progress reports and income and expenditure records; hence it was not possible to know whether they were making a profit or running below their costs.

3.5.3.1 Advantages of Document Study

Bailey (1987:292) states that the advantages of document studies are:

It is relatively low cost and more affordable than one-to-one interviews

Non-reactivity: unlike other methods of data collection where participants are aware that they are being studied, the contents of documents are not affected by the activities of the researcher

3.5.3.2 Limitations of Document Study

According to De Vos *.et .al* (2005:318) and Bailey (1992:291), the limitations of document study are:

Reports or statistical records are often incomplete, which means there are gaps in the database that cannot be filled in any other way. For instance, groups did not submit any reports to the office. The community development worker was responsible for submitting the bi-annual progress report, which did not have any information of management value. Written documents become illegible over time and at times there is no standardised way of writing reports. The groups had no standard way of doing things, such as report writing or filing financial records in the programmes, thus making comparisons difficult. Both programmes did not even have records of their income and expenditure.

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis is a critical step after collecting research data. It basically entails the structuring and analysis of the vast amounts of data into sensible and logical output for easy understanding. According to Creswell (1998:139) and Welman *.et .al* (2005:211), qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. This process involved reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significance from trivia, identifying significant patterns and themes, and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data revealed. The analysis involved a search for general

statements about relationships among categories of data. Creswell (1998:143) also notes that in qualitative research the fluid and emergent nature of the inquiry makes the distinction between data collection and analysis far less absolute.

Welman *.et .al* (2005:212) emphasise that as the data is being collected, the researcher should be undertaking ongoing fine tuning to generate the most fertile array of data. During the data collection process the revisions yielded new data that was subjected to new analysis. A process of reading and making notes to establish patterns, themes and categories then began. The researcher also searched for other plausible explanations for these data and the linkages among them. The analysis was done manually, using two theme identification methods.

In-depth data analysis involved using appropriate qualitative data analysis techniques and this would involve providing empirical facts on each sub-section followed by an exhaustive analysis of that section. According to De Vos .*et. al*. (200:333), analysis of data brings about order, structure and meaning to the mass of data collected. The data in the study was interpreted by combining individual perceptions from interviews and themes emerging from focus group discussions in a way that reveals meaning and coherence, while at the same time looking out for issues that could relate to policy as a contextual frame for this particular programme. The method of Thematic Content Analysis was be used to interrogate the data obtained as data was first analysed using sustainable livelihoods assets assessment and later the thematic analysis involving information gathered from interviews and focus group discussions. The final stage of the research involved using these findings to answer the main research question of impact of Sustainable community

development programmes on eradicating poverty and improving the socio-economic lives of the people in Kuni and Ilitha.

3.7 Conclusion

In this study the researcher adopted the qualitative research methodology to be the methodology that underpins this study. The reasons for adopting the qualitative methodology are: this methodology helps a researcher to gain a more detailed understanding of the phenomena of interest than with quantitative research. In addition, qualitative research is known to be helpful in bringing new light or explaining unusual situations that could not be identified through large scale quantitative methods. Lastly, in a qualitative study there is flexibility in that the researcher is able to adjust data collection procedures during the data collection process as new issues may arise when collecting data. Various aspects of collecting and collecting detailed information based on, the research design, population, sample, methods of data collection and ethical considerations were also discussed. This chapter has highlighted some of the challenges encountered. It has explained the rationale for the specific design and the methodologies utilised in the research as well as how data was analysed. Research design and methodology, objectives of the study, location of study and research sample and data collection was discussed with a clear explanation as to how the information was processed in the study. Focus groups, individual interviews and interview schedules were utilized to provide data required by the study to answer the research question. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4 - PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA.

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses primary data collected from the research area. Findings were analysed and interpreted in relation to the research objectives and questions. The information to be discussed in this chapter include the empirical data presented in deciding the objectives of the study. The data is analyzed based on the following: assessment of sustainable livelihoods using the SLF and secondly information gathered based on the following themes so as to answer the research question: community awareness and participation; impact of programme on poverty eradication; stakeholder involvement and funding; and the challenges they faced and recommendations. These themes were done with the following research objectives in mind: to assess the impact of the community development programmes on poverty eradication in Buffalo Municipality and to find out the challenges in the implementation of the sustainable community development programmes and their causes and; to derive recommendations for future interventions that will attempt to integrate existing community development strategies with the sustainable rural poverty eradication programmes to contribute to community development in the Buffalo rural areas hence playing a long way to eradicating poverty in rural areas.

4.2 Sustainable Livelihoods Assessment

The concept of sustainable community development programmes have recently proved to be a livelihood strategy that can help sustain rural communities and empirical evidence in the literature review in Chapter two shows its contribution towards rural development. Even though this is the case, not much is known about

sustainable community development programmes in Buffalo Municipality were there is lack of substantial progress in the socio-economic development of the rural poor were the situation has remained stagnant. Sustainable livelihoods assessment analyses data gathered based mainly on the management of assets as per the guiding framework of the study that is the sustainable livelihoods approach. The section to follow discusses management of assets in Kuni community development programme followed by Ilitha community.

4.2.1 Management of Assets: Kuni Farmers association

Financial

The group did not have financial records to account for all its income and expenditures, even though the Programme Chairperson said they recorded everything down. As there were no records, it was difficult to determine how much profit they made and they could not remember anything. The women know what resources are available, as well as how they can mobilise them. They have accessed resources from the Department of Social Development funding, which bought them a generator as well as a water storage tank, wheel barrows and fencing material. They have also been trained in organic farming by another non profit organisation, and have a section dedicated to organic farming. All the members have never been employed before and relied either on Social Security Grants or proceeds from the garden.

Physical

The group have all the necessary garden equipment which they got from the Department of Social Development funding. It is everyone‘s responsibility to ensure that the equipment is used properly, and kept in a storeroom after use.

Human

The group members'ages ranged from twenty-two to sixty-eight years. All the members were generally in good health although they were partially able to carry out their tasks as evidenced by their struggle to weed. They had access to health facilities. However, only one member had finished Matric and the reason given for less educational level was that their parents could not afford to send them to school. This confirms Chambers'(1983:111) vicious circle of poverty theory that poverty can become generational. Because the participants' parents had no education, it had a bearing in them sending children to school.

The group had a meeting every Friday to discuss how much income had been generated, as well as their challenges, absenteeism and plans for the following week. There was consensus in the delegation of tasks.

Social

They had social support from their families and also supported each other during a crisis like funerals. The school governing board and Political head in the community were identified as another vital social support network.

Natural

They have access to municipal land, which they have permission to use and thus natural asserts were readily available.

4.2.2 Management of Assets: Ilitha Development Poultry Project

Financial

The group had only recently started to record their sales in a book, but admitted that not everything was accounted for. Hence, neither the group members nor the research team were able to calculate how much profit, if any, the group had made. They stated, however, that in the past they had not made a profit. They said they could not remember how much profit they had made in other years as there were no records.

The group are aware of and are able to call up resources in their community. The group mobilised resources from the Department of Agriculture and Social Development. They entered food garden competitions to raise money for their programme, which they won but the Programme Leader reported that they had not been given the money that was accompanying the reward.

As a result of the networking meetings they attend, they were trained in mixed farming, which they have tried to implement. They complained, however, of the non-responsiveness of the development centre at the local council when they approach it for skills training. Their local councillor was aware of their activities and of their contribution to the community, but could not assist them to mobilise resources to expand their programme. This finding is similar to the findings of Carney (2002:23) that officials abuse their authority for their own benefit at the expense of the poor.

The most difficult time economically is winter as it is too cold to work outside, and the vegetables are blighted with the frost and do not grow fast. The household income-raising strategies that sustain them during this time include selling chickens. They

are also eligible for social grants, which included pensions and foster care allowances.

Physical

The group has all the necessary garden equipment and fowl runs for their chickens. It is everyone‘s responsibility to ensure that the equipment is used properly and kept in the tool shed.

Human

In October 2012 the group had eight members and their ages ranged from forty-three to seventy-three years. Two other members were volunteering. All the members were generally in good health and were able to carry out their tasks despite many of them in the late ages. They also had access to health facilities to improve their human capital.

The group had a meeting every week to discuss how much income had been generated, their challenges, absenteeism and plans for the following week. The group leader was responsible for delegating tasks and for making sure that all tasks assigned had been carried out. She indicated that the leadership style was sometimes autocratic, especially if there were targets to meet, such as removing weeds and not feeding chickens in time.

Social

The members had support from their extended families, which they could rely on. Some of members also constituted support systems for their children and siblings

who had passed away, leaving their children in their care. The church was another vital social support structure for the group, especially if there was death in the family.

Natural

The group had access to land and water at the site and therefore could implement the CDP.

4.3 Thematic Content Analysis

According to Leedy (1980:58), data analysis can be in the form of words, images or physical objects. In addition there are three forms of data analysis which are, data filtering, mind mapping and integration of the points of view of authors and a researcher can use interpretational analysis. Leedy (1980:67) defined interpretational analysis as examining the data for constructs, themes and patterns that can be used to describe and explain the phenomenon studied. Because the data analysis and interpretation process will influence the development of the research recommendations, both the data analysing as well as the interpretation processes have to be conducted objectively. The interpretation and analysis of data provides the researcher with ways of discerning, examining, comparing, contrasting and interpreting meaningful patterns or themes and hence thematic content analysis will be used below as per emerging themes from the data as gathered through focus group discussions and one on one interviews.

4.3.1 Kuni Farmers Association

Community awareness and participation

The members were quite aware of how the programme started. Each of the members in the programme alluded with the community leader who had said the

programme started in 2005 by community members as a small garden and in 2008 saw the need to widen the gap and make a huge farming plot. This goes hand in hand with information from the Kuni Business Plan, (2010: 2-3) that forty-six members started the program aiming to address hunger and alleviate poverty. When the Department of Social Development came into the picture in 2008, twenty-five members were tasked with working in the programme on behalf of all the community members. Every community member participated in the PRA as per the SLF. As Jacobs (2009:51) noted, PRA methods highlight the importance of connectors in empowering people. and ensures that the principles of SLF on community awareness and participation are put in practice. The group had a meeting every Friday to discuss how much income had been generated, as well as their challenges, absenteeism and plans for the following week. There was consensus in the delegation of tasks and minutes kept of meetings.

Further interviews with community members who are not directly involved in the programme gave an indication that every community member was aware of the programme but just fell short of knowing the details on how to participate in the programme.

Impact of Programme on Poverty eradication

The programme members in Kuni Farmers' Association defined Poverty as any situation when one does not have food or anything cook and this definition served as a point of analysis for the programme outcome. This is also in line with (May, 1998:38-48) ‘s general assertion that there are many definitions of poverty and as such people in rural areas should define poverty in their own terms. The programme

members have all said the programme has made a significant step in reducing poverty in their own terms. They consider the programme to have helped them in terms of bringing food to the table for their families which is one of the main objectives in the Kuni Business Plan 2010. They have also gained skills in Agriculture through trainings by the Agricultural Extension Officers and self reliance. Some of the elderly women have commented on the health benefits of the vegetables they have derived from participating in the programme. Self-worth has increased as well as their social networks as they support one another.

The programme members went on to add that the programme has even helped community members because they send vegetables during funerals and people in the community buy within their community and that is a saving in terms of money that could have been used for transport to go buy vegetables in town.

In addition sixty percent of the interviewed community members have concurred with those actively involved in the programme in that the community benefits when there are funerals and it is within close proximity to them and as such saves money to go to town. The other forty percent have not seen any reduction in poverty either on their lives or those directly involved in the programme but showed signs of enthusiasms that this programme can influence other development initiatives in the community.

Stakeholder Involvement in funding and sustainability

The programme on its own is sustainable as shown by the fact that the Kuni community development has been in existence since 2008 but the worrying factor

was the dropout rate in the members directly involved in the programme. According to the Kuni Business Plan 2010, twenty-five members were directly involved in the programme when DSD funded in 2008 but in October 2012 only seven members were involved and eighty per cent been the elderly forty-two and above. The programme leader was quick to point out that farming takes time and energy to reap out the rewards. That has led to many people dropping out of the programme because they are not paid and most youths move to urban cities in search of paying jobs leaving the elderly to do farming which on its own is a challenge. The only funder has been Department of Social Development who funded the programme with R750 000 and money which was mostly used in fencing, buying engine, gates, roofing materials for hall, tanks, toilets and sprinklers. The members did not see any challenges with this funding and they reported that they encouraged to be sustainable by the Department of Social Development practitioner responsible for overseeing their activities. This is done through writing minutes of meetings and any decisions taken are communicated regularly with Community Development Practitioner and he assists them with quotations and delivery of any items they require. Agriculture Extension Officers have most often assisted with advice on Agriculture through trainings.

Another way of making sure the programme is sustainable is that money made from the produce is banked and profit is shared during December. It however emerged that the programme has not made any profit and there were no records available as the person responsible for money was not available due to illness.

Challenges and recommendations

Many challenges were highlighted by the Kuni Farmers Association members and community members interviewed and these included:

lack of cohesion within the community was discussed during the focus group discussion as the reason for high dropout rate from the programme ; no transport to the garden and poor access in general which means when its raining members cannot grow to the garden, there are too many natural weeds and insects which destroys agriculture products and no market for the vegetables as wholesale and retailer shops have established farms to buy from meaning they have to reduce their prices which leads to loss and high fuel prices.

The above factors have either directly or indirectly affected production at Kuni and the community as well as programme members and the Department of Social Development community development practitioners had the following recommendations to ensure there is sustainability and profitably production:-

- community solidity through public education to ensure community members are united and participate in local self help initiatives to eradicate poverty.
- programme members want a bakkie and their own tractor as they waste a lot of money in hiring these for land cultivation and delivery of products to market or buying of inputs (fertilizers, seedlings etc) to their garden.
- extensive training needed on all members to on agriculture and business principles so they can know and deal with market-related forces.
- involvement of the economical active age group(thirty-five and younger) in the programme to ensure sustainability as well as capacity to deal with weeds as most of the people involved in the programme five of them are over sixty-five

and beyond their active age groups hence affecting productivity which can ensure profitable agriculture.

- more funding needed to ensure programme members can employ and pay people to work in the programme.

It should be noted there was one break in where diesel was once stolen but that did not affect production and as such the community members don't see a need to hire a security guard which to them would further waste money that they could have banked.

4.3.2 Ilitha Community Development Poultry Project

Community awareness and participation

Most members were quite not aware of when the programme started except for the three founding members including the Chairperson. The programme started in 2003 with eleven members who used a back yard from their homes for poultry production. This is in contrast with information from the Ilitha Business Plan, (2012:3) that the programme started in 2004. Eleven members started the program aiming to address unemployment and alleviate poverty and it comprised of five old age pensioners and six unemployed youths who contributed money to buy the chickens and feeding. With time they went to the Municipality to look for land and money so they could do poultry production on a much bigger scale. They got the land and a Company called Sinqobile from Gauteng gave them R40000 which they used for building fowl runs and fencing and Eskom helped with extension of electricity into their site. When the Department of Social Development came into the picture in 2008, they built two fowl

runs and diversified their production to include gardening. The DTI donated a bakkie to them to use for travelling to buy inputs as well as selling their produce. The group had a meeting every Friday to discuss how much income had been generated, as well as their challenges, absenteeism and plans for the following week. There was consensus in the delegation of tasks and minutes kept of meetings.

Further interviews with community members who are not directly involved in the programme gave an indication that every community member was aware of the programme and are very supportive of the initiative. The programme has actually employed three members who are male and young and are paid on a monthly basis.

Impact of Programme on Poverty eradication

The programme members in Ilitha Community Development Poultry Project defined poverty as any situation when one does not have food to eat or lack of opportunities to make a living and this definition is also in line with (May, 1998:38-48)'s general assertion that there are many definitions of poverty and as such people in rural areas should define poverty in their own terms. It has been defined in terms of lack of access to opportunities for a sustainable livelihood. These opportunities can be characterized in terms of income, skills, knowledge, self confidence and access decision-making (Buthelezi, 2008:203). It is in this way that rural poverty is seen as a lack of something others have, and which a particular community feels entitled to have. The programme members have all said the programme has made a significant step in reducing poverty in their own terms. They consider the programme to have helped them in terms of bringing food to the table for their families which is one of the main objectives in the Ilitha Business Plan 2012. They also distribute profits

among themselves at the end of the month and to the three members employed it is actually their only source of income which helps them meet household responsibilities like buying food and clothes. The programme has a Constitution which stipulates how profits are shared, for instance, if one member does not participate in the production for two months or more s/he will not get their share of the produce.

They have also gained skills in Agriculture as well as Poultry production through trainings by the Agricultural Extension Officers. They have also learnt to be self reliance than to depend on only old age grant which is not enough to ensure sustainable livelihoods. All of the elderly women have commented on the health benefits of the vegetables they have derived from participating in the programme. Self-worth has increased as well as their social networks as they support one another.

The programme members went on to add that the programme has even helped community members because they send vegetables during funerals and people in the community buy within their community and that is a saving in terms of money that could have been used for transport to go buy vegetables in town. They also donate vegetables to an Old Age women within the community and also donates vegetables to an association of people living with HIV/Aids once a week which is an important contribution the programme has made to the community.

In addition all of the interviewed community members have concurred with those actively involved in the programme in that the community benefits when there are

funerals and it is within close proximity to them and as such saves money to go to town. Although it will be difficult for them to notice reduction in poverty either on their lives or those directly involved in the programme but they were happy that this programme can influence other development initiatives in the community.

Stakeholder Involvement in funding and sustainability

The programme on its own is sustainable and they have a small number which is manageable. According to the Ilitha Business Plan 2012, eleven members were directly involved in the programme when Department of Social Development funded in 2008 but in October 2012 only eight members were involved and of which three are employed. The programme leader was quick to point out that the small number has ensured cohesion as it is easy to manage even meetings that larger groups. The main funder has been Department of Social Development who funded the programme with R250 000 and money which was mostly used in fencing and tanks, DTI helped with buying engine for borehole and the bakkie and loaned them money which they have used to upgrade their fowl runs and Agriculture gave them R17000 to start up gardening. There seemed to be a lot of stakeholder involvement in this programme than the one at Kuni. The members did not see any challenges with this funding and they reported that they have been encouraged to be sustainable by the Department of Social Development practitioner responsible for overseeing their activities. This is done through writing minutes of meetings and any decisions taken are communicated regularly with community development practitioner and he assists them with quotations and delivery of any items they require. Agriculture Extension Officers have most often assisted with advice on Agriculture through trainings. Money made from the produce is banked and profit is shared at the end of the

month. It however emerged that the programme has not made much profit and there had only recently started recording their daily sales.

Challenges and recommendations

The programme members and community members interviewed highlighted the following as challenges:

fluctuating prices for chickens and feeding meant that most of the profits went to buying inputs than savings, too much break ins and theft have resulted in them using the money to hire a part time security, low market for chicken have resulted in them reducing prices because their produce is perishable and no market for the vegetables as wholesale and retailer shops have established farms to buy from meaning they have to reduce their prices which leads to loss and high fuel prices. Insufficient funds to employ more people and ensure increased productivity for sustainable livelihood outcomes.

The above factors have either directly or indirectly affected production at Ilitha and the community as well as programme members and the Department of Social Development community development practitioner had the following recommendations to ensure there is sustainability and profitably production:-

- community cohesion through public education to ensure community members are united and participate in local self help initiatives to eradicate poverty.
- sponsors needed for promotional materials and marketing of their produce so as to compete with established business.

- extensive training needed on all members to on agriculture and business principles so they can know and deal with market-related forces.

- more funding needed to ensure programme members can employ and pay people to work in the programme.

4.4 General Findings

As proposed by Scoones (1998:6), livelihood adaptation, vulnerability and resilience means the ability of a livelihood to be able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks is central to the definition of sustainable livelihoods. Such resilience in the face of stresses and shocks is key to both livelihood adaptation and coping. Those who are unable to cope (temporary adjustments in the face of change) or adapt (longer term shifts in livelihood strategies) are inevitably vulnerable and unlikely to achieve sustainable livelihoods. Assessing resilience and the ability to positively adapt or successfully cope requires an analysis of a range of factors, including an evaluation of historical experiences of responses to various shocks and stresses. Different types of shock or stress, in turn, may result in different responses, including avoidance, repartitioning, and resistance or tolerance mechanisms. Thus, despite the respondents seeing the programmes as having met some of their expectations, it is safe to suggest that there is very limited progress made to sustaining livelihood outcomes and poverty eradication. The information from the findings have indicated that both groups have not made profit which can be transferred into savings which according to the SLF is important in tolerance during times of shocks.

The respondents were asked about the role the Department of Social Development played in their programmes. Their response was that Department of Social Development had helped them with start-up equipment and raw materials. As a result of their dependence on the Department of Social Development, they feel that the organisation should continue to support them with material resources. Even Ilitha Poultry Production still feels they could be supported more by Department of Social Development and thus despite all the large sums of money pumped into these programmes, they still want to be dependent.

There was consensus on the importance of Ilitha programme, which the community development practitioner felt was going to take them to greater heights by working together and sharing skills. But Ilitha say they were disappointed as their expectations were not met. Promises had been made to assist the groups with drawing up business and marketing as well as frequent visits to their programmes to give guidance and support, but these were not fulfilled. The Department of Social Development had also promised to arrange study tours to other programmes, but this did not materialise. Weyers (2003:54) warns about starting something with a group/community and then abandoning it. He states that this harms their attitude, and the next development practitioner who enters their community will bear the repercussions

The Department of Social Development does not give cash, but makes purchases on behalf of the groups to ensure that the funds requested are used for the purpose outlined. They have blamed lack of progress in poverty eradication on illiteracy. Only three respondents from the groups had completed Grade 10, and this concurs with

Due‘s (1990:81) cited in Kadozo (2009:110) study of small-scale entrepreneurs with limited or no formal education in Botswana, where he found that a lack of education can limit entrepreneurs‘ ability to venture into complex programmes or to expand activities to more remunerable productive levels. His study revealed that they did not want to take risks by taking on complex ventures.

None of the groups had a tangible marketing strategy, other than word of mouth. There are many other poultry production and vegetable selling groups in the Province, hence competition is very stiff, but they do not seem to be endeavouring to gain a competitive edge. The food gardens‘marketing is much easier because the vegetables market themselves (everyone passing by can view the garden through the fence). The major customers are the people in the surrounding community. The competitive edge is that the vegetables are picked fresh from the garden, unlike the vegetables at the corner stalls and at major vegetables markets in Ilitha and nearby Berlin. The groups have also made the price affordable, thus attracting more customers. They have been supplying vegetables and chickens to one of the aftercare centres. Meikle (2002:39) argues that diversified lifestyles have become a vital strategy for the rural poor to cope with household food insecurity and malnutrition that have resulted from negative global impacts. The study confirmed this, as the poultry production and gardening have fared much better than the Kuni group which does gardening only.

The groups did not have effective marketing strategies, hence sometimes failed to sell all their produce, resulting in losses. Hurley (1990:49) concurs that most IGPs begin production without really testing the market, so that when they try to sell their

products, their prices are not acceptable to the community and the quality of the finished product is not very good. He argues that marketing finished goods is one of the most difficult areas for IGPs operations. However, programmes do not have the financial resources to undertake such marketing.

The groups did not keep reliable records of their incomes and expenditures. In the Kuni Farmers' Association group, this can be attributed to the low levels of literacy among the members. Because there were no records, it was not possible to estimate the actual losses and profits made by the groups. None of the groups could remember the profits they made from the time they started. In future, the Department of Social Development should look at developing a monitoring strategy to make sure that record keeping is part of the culture that people in programmes develop.

The groups do not seem to have a strategic plan. For instance, the Kuni Farmers Association food garden members let the weeds grow to an unmanageable level, instead of removing them while they were still small. During the December holidays, the food gardens resemble a jungle as they all go on leave‘, with no plan about who will water the plants or do the weeding. The Kuni group spend a lot of money on transport when they go to buy their raw materials from the wholesalers, who are cheaper. This erodes almost all their profits. They also cannot transport their vegetables to the market; hence some of their vegetables perished as there was no demand in the surrounding community. Hurley (1990:49) also found this challenge in Rwanda where carpenters had been trained and were making furniture which they could not transport to the market.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented data collected through focus group discussions and interviews. Despite the respondents seeing the programmes as having met some of their expectations, it is safe to suggest that there is very limited progress made towards sustaining livelihood outcomes and poverty eradication. The information from the findings has indicated that both groups have not made profit which can be transferred into savings which according to the SLF is important in tolerance during times of shocks. Other challenges that have attributed to this lack of progress have been highlighted in the Chapter for instance, lack of marketing strategy, a culture of dependency on funders and failure to keep records for evaluation purposes. The next chapter will provide conclusions of these research findings and provide recommendations for the two groups that participated in the study.

CHAPTER 5 - CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine whether community development programmes have made significant inroads into the persistent big issue of poverty challenges facing the rural communities of the Eastern Cape. The chapter focuses on the themes emerging from the investigation into the apparent reasons for limited progress in sustainable livelihoods programmes in Kuni and Ilitha discussed in the previous chapter and makes recommendations, based on the sustainable livelihood framework discussed in chapter two.

Participatory community development, in its broadest sense is a process which mobilises locally co-ordinated collaborative action of small groups of rural (poor) populations and establishes collaborative linkages between these groups and other local and higher level institutions like DSD. Since the poor generally lack economic and physical capital, focusing on strengthening their social capital makes sense as it is a pre-requisite for achieving sustainable collective action and useful in acquiring all other forms of capital. This focus implies the strengthening local populations to better plan, manage and monitor their access to assets.

5.1 CONCLUSION

The findings revealed that the sustainable community development programmes had made a positive impact on the lives of the people directly involved on the programme though on a limited scale. These include food security, skills development through trainings, supporting each other and community members in funerals, the health benefits of the vegetables they have derived from participating in the programme as

well as self-worth which has increased as well as their social networks as they support one another. The programmes were implemented as they were supposed to be as there was compliance with the principles that guide the implementation of the programmes in line the sustainable livelihoods framework such as participation through PRA and empowering through trainings. These have provided some advantages to the programmes for their development.

Despite the aforementioned positive impacts that the programmes have made on the lives of people in the two communities, there have been various challenges experienced in the programmes which have affected progress to providing sustainable livelihoods outcomes which can lead to poverty eradication. Some of these challenges are line with those found by other scholars where sustainable livelihood programmes are implemented as discussed in the literature review as well as highlighted in Chapter four above. The groups did not have effective marketing strategies, hence sometimes failed to sell all their produce, resulting in losses. Hurley (1990:49) concurs that most IGPs begin production without really testing the market, so that when they try to sell their products, their prices are not acceptable to the community and the quality of the finished product is not very good. He argues that marketing finished goods is one of the most difficult areas for IGPs operations. However, programmes do not have the financial resources to undertake such marketing.

The groups did not keep reliable records of their incomes and expenditures. In the Kuni Farmers' Association group, this can be attributed to the low levels of literacy among the members. Because there were no records, it was not possible to estimate

the actual losses and profits made by the groups. None of the groups could remember the profits they made from the time they started.

The groups do not seem to have a strategic plan. For instance, the Kuni Farmers Association food garden members let the weeds grow to an unmanageable level, instead of removing them while they were still small. During the December holidays, the food gardens resemble a jungle as they all go on leave‘, with no plan about who will water the plants or do the weeding.

The Kuni group spend a lot of money on transport when they go to buy their raw materials from the wholesalers, who are cheaper. This erodes almost all their profits. They also cannot transport their vegetables to the market; hence some of their vegetables perished as there was no demand in the surrounding community. Hurley (1990:49) also found this challenge in Rwanda where carpenters had been trained and were making furniture which they could not transport to the market.

The findings also revealed that there is a lack of flow of information, knowledge and skills between the Province, the local office and the community. The Provincial office is supposed to support the local office with knowledge, resources and skills to be transferred to the communities. It is a support system to the districts and the area offices. The Province funds sustainable development while the local offices implement the sustainable livelihoods programmes in the communities. The local level or the implementation level of the department should be empowered with every new development in order to ensure that quality and effective service delivery is received by the communities. Information is the key to every aspect of development

involving communities, as a lack of knowledge at certain levels of development could lead to confusion which would delay the progress of the programme. De Beer and Swanepoel (1998) mentioned that a lack of knowledge limited the success of rural community development in the past. When communities lack information they are unable to participate effectively in their development and remain empowered.

The findings further revealed that there is a lack of continuous training of programme members and officials at local level. Eade (1997: 7-8) states that capacity building is about a long term investment in people and their organizations and a commitment to the various processes through which they can better shape the forces that affect their lives. Empowerment of the people with knowledge assists the programme members to realize other community needs and to be able to be ambassadors of development in their communities. According to Van der Waldt and Knipe (1998: 145), empowerment is a process which provides power to gain access to resources and to ensure the utilization of these resources in achieving development objectives. At the time of termination with the funder, the programme members should be well equipped. The theoretical framework of the study strongly emphasizes regular empowerment on communities and the department could not align itself with the basis of the study. The department needs to strengthen its capacity building section to ensure that communities are empowered. The programmes have been in existence and in contact with the department for about five years and people still define development as a programme. The officials too use the term ‘project' in defining development. A project is the end product of development as cited by Van der Waldt and Knipe (1998). Comparing development to projects or defining development by using the term project, limits the progress of development in the

communities. A project according to Shepherd (1998: 127) is often equated with planning and design skills rather than management and implementation of a programme. A project has a short life span while development is continuous and focuses on changing the lives of the people; development is a process that cannot be accomplished over a short period. According to the people-centered development and the Humanist perspective development is an ongoing process that focuses on changing the community lives.

The research revealed that the Department of Social Development who is the main funder for the community development programme does not provide incentives for participation and this has had a negative impact on the progress and sustainability of the programmes. These men and women are heads of their families; they have extended families to care for and they have children to educate. The Department expects them to stay in a programme that cannot meet its member's needs for years. This is a violation of the characteristics of people-centered development as the approach believes that the programme members should benefit from their programme. The Department should revisit its criteria and make provision for a stipend, as suggested by a female member in the Kuni focus group, especially during the first months of putting up the infrastructure of the programme. According to the humanistic perspective women should be treated with respect and dignity as heads of their families who are able to meet the daily needs of their families. The working conditions of the programmes and lack of proper support did not change the groups' will to develop their organizations and improve their communities through community development initiatives.

A culture of dependency emerged from the group discussions and was confirmed by the respondent from the Department of Social Development. This culture is firmly grounded among the rural poor and is perpetuated by development practitioners and politicians who make promises to the poor to obtain their votes. This results in programmes not driving towards self-reliance because the rural poor feel that the state is obliged to provide them with free social services and social grants to meet their basic needs. None of the programmes had a sustainable plan to keep them afloat without external intervention. Cooper *.et .al* (2002:26) also observed this tendency and argue that this leads to government officials and other development facilitators not being held responsible for effective service delivery by the target communities because they are the providers.

The chapter would not be complete if the challenges that have been experienced by the donor agencies and development practitioners utilising SLAs were not discussed. Some of the challenges have been discussed in chapter two. SLAs, however, have been criticised for underplaying the importance of critical factors such as vulnerability, gender and markets. For instance, Carney (2002:23) argues that it is often easy to overlook unfamiliar areas such as household financial flows, even though they are crucial to people's livelihoods. To use SLAs, one needs to have an understanding of economics, markets and the private sector, as lack of this background can result in the downgrading of market and economic issues. This is unfortunate because economics is as much a part of SLAs as other dimensions. Carney (2002:24) argues that markets are critical in helping poor people meet their consumption needs. The majority of the poor in urban areas are net buyers of food and therefore require food markets that are efficient, accessible and provide a

degree of price stability and predictability.‘ For instance, when members of a food garden cultivate one crop rather than another or a dressmakers group decide to sew uniforms, they are making economic decisions, set within social and cultural contexts and constraints. How well markets function depends on many factors related to trust, information, contract enforcement, application of the rule of law, freedom of movement of goods and people and the market structure. The two groups under study have identified lack of market as a major factor that affects their production and as such they lower prices to attract customers which in turn lead to loss.

Sustainable livelihood approaches use a cross-sectoral approach in a world that is sectoral. Singh and Gilman (1999:543) observe from their own practice that it is difficult to engage government ministries in cross-ministry activities, as in practice each ministry works independently to achieve its objectives. This sometimes results in duplication of services, as has been noted earlier. Cooper *.at .el* (2002:8) concur that governments are usually organised by sectors and South Africa is no exception. They argue that: poor people‘s livelihoods revolve around livelihood outcomes, not sectors.‘ Their constraints cannot be solved by one ministry alone; neither can they be solved at local level. During the study it was observed that the Department of Agriculture was supporting the food gardens with implements, but there has never been a consultative meeting between the department of Agriculture and the Department of Social Development to discuss both parties ‘plans for the food gardens and to avoid duplicating the distribution of resources.

As noted in earlier chapters, the design and implementation of the integrated developments plans at the micro level has been a step towards including the poor,

but this has been a token because the consultation has been merely to extract information from the people. None of the groups under study were ever invited to community meetings by the local authority for their input in drafting the IDPs. This is compounded by shortages of skilled officials to facilitate this process.

It is a time-consuming process to have interventions in which beneficiaries are empowered to play a significant role in their design, monitoring and evaluation. It is also easy to set unrealistic targets and underestimate the need for feedback and follow-up. The respondent from the Department of Social Development indicated that government officials were also under pressure from politicians to deliver; hence they could not use participatory methodologies which required more time. The politicians wanted positive reports to give to their constituencies to garner support. Singh and Gilman (1999:541) also note that that this is not an easy task, as it entails a long-term change in behaviour patterns.

From the study it has been observed that many external and internal reasons can lead to the success or failure of sustainable community development programmes. The study has also revealed that community development programmes work best if they are offered as a package linked to local economic development, training and support in an enabling economic, political and social environment. The apparent reasons for lack of progress in eradicating poverty in the Kuni and Ilitha areas have been identified, and these stem from the micro, meso and macro environments. The study has also established that reducing poverty requires a multi-sectoral approach to the multiple deprivations. Sustainable livelihood thinking and action is a lifelong process and requires building up and strengthening assets, networking and collaboration on macro-micro-linked cross-sectoral policy analysis from government

departments and a shift in implementation. The sustainable livelihoods approach has helped to promote people‘s innovative ways of surviving that ensure that in the event of a crisis in one survival strategy there are other income-earning options to purchase household necessities, water and food but it also has in concerns which were evident in the study groups.

To beneficiaries, the impact may however not be visible or huge, but it is evident that if the programmes are implemented effectively, there would a clear improvement in people's lives and the recommendations below can play a huge role in ensuring that local CDPs eradicate poverty.

5.2 Recommendations

A real reduction in poverty is a long and complex process since it requires reducing many aspects of deprivation at micro, meso and macro level. The researcher is making the certain recommendations based on the findings of the study and the literature review.

5.2.1 Continuous intensive training

According to BNA and the sustainable livelihood approach which are the theoretical framework guiding the study, empowerment of the people is the priority of development. According to Midgley (1985) people are able to participate only if they have information to enable them to be active members of their programmes and not to depend on the Community Development Practitioner. The research is aware of financial constraints but recommends regular in-service training of both officials and

programme members to ensure that they are at a level of understanding that is conducive to effective development.

One critical point is to render training that will be simplified to the level of the community and to use language familiar to them in order for the members to participate freely. According to the community development principle of simplicity, the programmes implemented in communities should be simple to ensure that people realize their potential of learning and participation in their development. The knowledge and clear understanding of issues by the community leads to active participation and ownership of the programme as the people will be able to explain their existence and make sense of it (Midgley, 1995). Midgley (1995) emphasized that empowerment is about acquisition of power and the ability to give it effect. This will help the Department to have clients or communities who are able to question and advise the department on services delivered to them.

Continuous training on management of the project and the core function of the programmes should be prioritized for both the programme members and the officials, in order to have multi skilled officials who can work in any field. Quality training empowers communities with skills that can contribute toward their own community development and reduction of poverty. Accredited training on regular bases is recommended not the unstructured workshops without mentoring that are provided by the government departments and expect communities to implement sustainable programmes. The respondents had the health and nutrition levels necessary for sustained labour input, but not the educational standards and skills that would make their labour productive. Without these, poor people cannot enhance their skills and

earning capacity. It is imperative therefore to develop poor people‘s skills by engaging reputable service providers, so that these skills can increase their income-earning opportunities. Offering internal two-or three-day workshops with no substance is not adequate for acquiring skills to run a business, especially for the semi-literate. Skills that were found to be lacking included record keeping, costing the products and day-to-day management of the programmes and marketing.

There is need to devote more resources to keeping community workers up to date with the current trends and methodologies in the development arena. This will equip them with the skills to effectively facilitate the process of empowering communities through ensuring that control is transferred over to the beneficiaries, and their involvement is not only consultative. The starting point would be for community workers to be equipped with participatory methodologies, as these ensure that local knowledge is fully utilised. Organisations such as Khanya (Khanya, 2007) which have vast experience in applying SLAs could be consulted to provide training, as this is one of the areas of expertise.

5.2.2 Record keeping

The groups did not keep reliable records of their incomes and expenditures and this can be attributed to the low levels of literacy among the members. Because there were no records, it was not possible to estimate the actual losses and profits made by the groups. None of the groups could remember the profits they made from the time they started. The researcher had to rely on what they could remember, which was very little and no conclusions could be made. It should be a prerequisite for

funding that records of minutes, expenditure and income be submitted to community development practitioner and consequently to the Department.

5.2.3 Intergovernmental Linkages & Stakeholder participation in the programme

The findings of this study have confirmed those of other researchers, as discussed in the literature review. The reasons for the apparent failure of the Sustainable livelihoods programmes are interlinked and require a multi-sectoral intervention that will address the multiple deprivations that the rural poor face as advocated by the sustainable livelihood approach (Scoones:2009).

The findings revealed that sustainable livelihoods programmes are not supported effectively by the stakeholders, who were supposed to work with the community development programmes to ensure that there is production and sustainability. Government departments, including the local municipalities, are supposed to work together in an integrated manner in order to provide the expertise lacking in the programme. The government departments have a responsibility to develop communities, preparing them to enter the market and this is where the municipality's Local Economic Development (LED) programme comes in and exposes the programme members to the level of entrepreneurship and Small Medium Enterprises (SMME). The other challenge might be that, in the rural areas, the number of government departments is limited and communities have to travel long distances to reach to the Department of Trade and Industry or Tourism, to assist with the marketing of hand crafts and other products. Rural sustainable livelihoods

programmes need assistance from officials and Community Development Practitioners to develop them towards independence and self reliance.

The Rural White Paper stresses that through development government wants to see communities living in rural areas fully involved in developing their own communities, safeguarding valued features and shaping the decisions that affect them (Moseley, 2003: 135). The strengthening of the Inter-Governmental Relations (IGR) forums is recommended and should be led by an appointed official who will be requested to report on progress on a monthly basis. Currently they are supposed to be championed by the municipalities who are not playing a leading role in the implementation of the programmes. In the IGR meetings, departments are able to highlight their challenges and to share information on various fields of development, including how to assist other departments with challenges they experience. Integration of services is critical for development of communities. If government departments could render integrated services to communities there could be improvement in the lives of the communities as a holistic approach will be utilized in addressing community needs and the available resources could be used to benefit more communities.

5.2.4 Reducing the brain drain

As noted in this study, rural-urban migration is a major contributor to congestion in urban centres, and more importantly, is the reason behind the increase in informal urban settlements and brain drain of the rural areas. This is because people move to cities in search of employment and a better life. In this respect, it is advisable that governments decentralise national operations by setting up industries and

agricultural projects in rural areas, in order to provide the would-be migrants with better chances of obtaining jobs, instead of having to move to cities.

To achieve this goal, a country's growth and development strategy needs to have at its core the objective of elevating the levels of public sector investment in agriculture, as well as rural development, while at the same time prioritising the need to commercialise small-scale agriculture in order to enhance productivity and competitiveness. As pointed out in this study, the question of household food security is ultimately an issue of availability and access - therefore, governments need to develop food security policies that would increase the probability of access to food for vulnerable households.

The other step along this process is to establish, through research, the development potential of each area. With the help of hard facts, the provincial government, in liaison with the national government, can mobilize resources and support to empower the youth and the technocrats to to venture into economic entrepreneurships. If for instance, the highest development potential of Buffalo Municipality Kuni rural areas lies in growing maize, then the people have to invest more exactly in that economic activity. If on the other hand, the highest development potential of Ilitha rural community lies in ecotourism or poultry production, people need to invest more in that activity. Consequently, the process of identifying potential and investing in that potential goes on and on until a balance in reached in all rural areas. The end result is an economically and appropriately diversified rural area and this is the major goal of DSD sustainable livelihoods programmes. That way skills are retained in the rural areas and entrepreneurs emerge, who will employ the

unemployed youth and the prospects of reducing or eventually eradicating poverty in the rural areas are real.

5.2.5 Programme awareness and good governance

The Department of Social Development needs to create awareness among the respondents that there are vehicles for change. Poor people must be key actors in identifying and addressing livelihood priorities. Carney (2002:13) concurs that outsiders should listen and respond to the poor. However, some organisations are not flexible enough to cater for the required dynamism and flexibility of fully participatory interventions. In Kuni the majority of programme members are elderly women in their late sixties and that affects production hence the young and unemployed youth should be encouraged to take initiative and participate in community developments programmes aimed at improving rural livelihoods.

The adoption of a SLA will close this gap as one of its principles is to be people centered. According to Ashley and Carney (1999:7) sustainable poverty elimination will be achieved only if external support focuses on what matters to people, understands the differences between groups of people and works with them in a way that is congruent with their current livelihood strategies, social environment and ability to adapt. Sub-Saharan Africa is widely affected by conflict, corruption and bad governance. A combination of these factors engenders poverty and worsens the spread of diseases. No meaningful development can thrive under such circumstances. Instead, this situation makes it more difficult for ordinary people to access the basic commodities needed for their survival, ranging from food to health

care and agricultural inputs. Sustainable livelihoods become impossible under such circumstances.

Governments in Sub-Saharan Africa, after damaging their social systems through bad governance, often call upon humanitarian agencies for food aid in order to feed their citizens. This practice is increasingly becoming an endemic part of governance in these countries, and if not stemmed, Africa will for a long time lag behind the rest of the world. Devereux (2003:9) highlights this in a succinct way by stating that "Social protection interventions can be designed to address one or more of three broad objectives: risk reduction, risk mitigation, and risk coping. In the aftermath of a food crisis, it is all too easy to focus on ‘coping' interventions, designed to assist affected households and communities first, to survive and second, to rebuild their livelihoods. These are important ameliorative measures, but they do nothing to reduce vulnerability to future shocks that will require more post coping interventions." This clearly shows that there has to be a political environment that is peaceful and ensures the equitable distribution of resources to all citizens. The cornerstone of realising this objective is a government's political will to implement the right policies in the right way and at the right time

5.2.6 Creating a culture of savings

None of the groups indicated that they had enough or any savings which could be converted to physical assets as an investment. Meikle (2002:46) recommends that the rural poor should be motivated to develop a culture of saving to help them deal with stresses and shocks. In South Africa this culture is lacking, hence the heavy

reliance on credit facilities and it is therefore recommended that these groups save from the produce for use in periods of vulnerability as suggested by the SLF.

5.2.7 Development of Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanisms

It is further recommended that there be development of participatory monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. This should not solely be the work of outsiders who are commissioned, but must involve the target beneficiaries, so that they can give feed back to management/policy makers. The Department of Social Development does not have any monitoring and evaluation mechanism for the sustainable livelihoods programmes. A lot of crisis management could be avoided if a system was in place. Cooper *.et .al* (2002:26) observe that most organisations have only financial-based monitoring and evaluation systems, and this is true of the programmes under study. There is a pressing need for the establishment of these systems.

5.2.8 Education

Education is one of the major components of social transition and little or no amount of investment in rural poverty eradication is likely to succeed without the support of an effective education system. Some of the challenges highlighted in the study are that the no records were kept of the expenditure and profits, no culture of savings as well the majority of the members not have any education beyond primary level. Infact only one member was currently enrolled in an FET College and played the role of the secretary in one of the programmes.

The rural poor require advanced skills and knowledge on rural development more especial agriculture. It is the type of education that will persuade rural farms to adopt

new agriculture techniques and practices to replace the unproductive traditional approaches. In this way training by stakeholders like Department of Agriculture and DSD will not be in vain. A good developmental education system is one that emphasizes on facilitating change in rural environments to enable people to earn more, invest in themselves and their communities as well as contributing towards the maintenance of infrastructure that is key to their livelihoods.

The groups do not seem to have a strategic plan. For instance, the kuni garden members let the weeds grow to an unmanageable level, instead of removing them while they were still small. During the December holidays, the food gardens resemble a jungle as they all go on leave‘, with no plan about who will water the plants or do the weeding. With proper education this will be easily managed.

5.2.9 Infrastructure and ICT Development

According to Buthelezi (2008:189), an effective rural poverty reduction strategy is better supported by robust infrastructure. Therefore, the Eastern Cape government is advised to invest in infrastructure like roads, bridges, schools, health centres and such other service points. Poor infrastructure development makes business more expensive for the rural poor. Programme members in Kuni want a bakkie and their own tractor as they waste a lot of money in hiring these for land cultivation and delivery of products to market or buying of inputs (fertilizers, seedlings etc) to their garden.

The provincial as well as national governments can play a huge role in rural development by creating a supportive environment for the rural poor to fight poverty.

With infrastructure at their disposal, the rural poor themselves need to be involved every step along the way in eradicating poverty in their respective communities.

5.3 Summary of study

The aim of this small-scale, exploratory and qualitative study was to assess the impact of the Sustainable community development programmes on poverty eradication through provision of basic food services and employment creation in Kuni and Ilitha villages and to make recommendations on future interventions. The assessment showed that there is limited progress in eradication of poverty and reasons for limited progress were found to emanate from the micro, meso and macro levels, which are intertwined, thus requiring a cross-sectional and multi-disciplinary response. They have included lack of skills and lack of cohesion in groups, and a lack of sustainability and marketing plans. The study also noted that the macro-level environment was the most difficult to resolve, as it involved policy changes and required a lot of lobbying and advocacy from the development practitioners.

The researcher made certain recommendations, one of which was that there be development of participatory monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. This should not solely be the work of outsiders who are commissioned, but must involve the target beneficiaries, so that they can feed back to management/policy makers. The Department of Social Development does not have any monitoring and evaluation mechanism for the Sustainable Livelihoods Programmes and in this case community development. Continuous training on management of the programme and the core function of the programmes should be prioritized for both the programme members and the officials, in order to have multi skilled officials who can work in any field.

Quality training empowers communities with skills that can contribute toward their own community development and reduction of poverty. Accredited training on regular bases is recommended not the unstructured workshops without mentoring that are provided by the government departments and expect communities to implement sustainable programmes. The respondents had the health and nutrition levels necessary for sustained labour input, but not the educational standards and skills that would make their labour productive. Without these, poor people cannot enhance their skills and earning capacity. It is imperative therefore to develop poor people‘s skills by engaging reputable service providers, so that these skills can increase their income-earning opportunities.

5.4 Suggestions for further research

Future research could be more extensive and multi-disciplinary, covering all the community development programmes in the province.

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7. Appendices

Appendice 1 - SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COMMUNITY.

I am a Masters of Development Studies student from the University of Fort Hare and I am conducting a study on "Sustainable Community Development Programmes and Rural Poverty Eradication in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa: The Case of Buffalo municipality rural areas". The findings of this study will be beneficial to the Department offering community development in mapping out an effective way of delivering sustainable community development livelihoods. It will also help the Department of Social Development towards policy frameworks development and how they can be evaluated to be more relevant and suitable for poverty eradication in rural areas. In addition it will assist civil society organizations and community development practitioners as an approach to consider in poverty eradication. I would really appreciate it if you spare me a few minutes of your time to conduct this interview with you and respond as honestly as possible.

Please note that all information gathered will be kept confidential and only used for academic purposes.

A Interview schedule for focus groups

Instructions:

Kindly respond to all questions.

Section 1 - BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Gender . Male ☐ Female ☐

Age ……

Educational Level

Never attended school	
Grade R - Grade 6	
Grade 7 - Grade 12	
College	
University	
Other(specify)	

Marital status

Single	
Married	
Never married	
Divorced	
Widowed	
Other, Specify	

Are you employed?

Yes	
No	

If not employed what is your source of income?

…….

Section 2

QUESTIONS:

Community awareness & participation

- - What is your understanding of Sustainable Community Development Programme?

- if you are aware of the programme how did it start.

- How many community members constitute the programme?

- What are the roles of members in the programme?

- is the community involved in the programme and if yes, at what level are they involved?

- Are people allowed the freedom to participate using their skills and knowledge? If yes explain?

Impact of Programme on Poverty eradication

- What is your understanding of Poverty?

- Do you think the programme has improved the lives of people in this community. If so, please explain?

- Has the programme contributed to the development of your community?

- Do you think that the programme is sustainable?

-If yes, how is the community encouraged towards sustainability by the relevant stakeholders?

-Are there any other development initiatives in the community besides sustainable community development programme? If yes, in what way are they involved in poverty eradication.

Stakeholder involvement & Sustainability

- How were you funded by the Department of Social Development and what is your understanding of the funding?

- Do you receive any other funding from other stakeholders. If yes, at what level are they involved in the programme and what is their role?

- Are there any challenges in relation to funding? If so, how can the criteria for funding be improved in order to achieve long term economic development and sustainability?

Challenges and recommendations

- Are you aware of the risks as well as the challenges in the community that can affect sustainable community development programme?

- Do you think that these challenges have an impact on the programme?

If yes what do you think leads to the challenges

- How do you plan to solve these challenges?

-Anything else you want to add?

Appendice 2 - Semi-structured interviews with random community members

QUESTIONS

- Are you aware of Sustainable Community Development Programme?

- if you are aware of the programme, how did it start?

- How many community members constitute the programme?

- What are the roles of members in the programme?

- is the community involved in the programme and if yes, at what level are they involved?

- Are people allowed the freedom to participate using their skills and knowledge? If yes explain?

- What is your understanding of Poverty?

-Do you think the programme has improved the lives of people in the community. If so, please explain how the programme contributed to the development of the community?

.-Do you think that the programme is sustainable?

-If yes how is the community encouraged towards sustainability?

If no what could be done to ensure sustainability?

- Are there any other development initiatives in the community besides sustainable community development programme? If yes in what way are they involved in poverty eradication.

- In your opinion are there any challenges that you have noticed with regards to the sustainable community development programme? If so what recommendations do you have for future programmes?

Anything else you would like to say about the sustainable community development programme?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendice 3 - DSD - interview guide

QUESTIONS

1. What is your understanding of Poverty?

- Do you think the programme has improved the lives of people in the community. If so, please explain how the programme contributed to the development of the community?

2. Do you think that the programme is sustainable?

-If yes how is the community encouraged towards sustainability?

3. What do you understand by Community participation?

- Is the community involved in the programme and, if yes, at what level are they involved?

- Are people allowed the freedom to participate in the CDP using their skills and knowledge? If yes explain?

- What are the roles of different community members in the programmes?

4. How are the programmes funded?

- What strategies do you think should be put in place to improve the criteria for funding in order to achieve long term economic growth, development and sustainability?

5. Are there any other development initiatives in the community besides sustainable community development programme? If yes, in what way are they involved in poverty eradication?

6. Are there any challenges that you face as a Department in rendering sustainable community development programme? If so, what recommendations do you have for future programmes?

7. Anything else you would like to say about the sustainable community development programme.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Certificate Reference Number:	RAH051SMUL01
Project title:	**Sustainable community development programmes and rural poverty eradication in the Eastern Cape: The case study of Buffalo Municipality**
Nature of Project:	Masters
Principal Researcher:	Emmison Muleya
Supervisor:	Prof A Rahim
Co-supervisor:	

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to

- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.

- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

18 November 2013