

DURBAN UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

**RURAL DEVELOPMENTAL INITIATIVES IN THE POST-APARTHEID SOUTH
AFRICA: A CASE STUDY ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN MGOBODZI,
LUSIKISIKI MCOBOTHINI AND GUNJANENI**

OLAYEMI RAHMAN BAKRE

May 2020



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AFRICA: A CASE STUDY ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION IN MGOBODZI,
LUSIKISIKI MCOBOTHINI AND GUNJANENI**

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Management Sciences

Specialising in

Public Management

in the

Faculty of Management Sciences

at the Durban University of Technology

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MAY 2020

Supervisor: _____

Date: ____25/8/2021____

Prof Nirmala Dorasamy

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work (described) in this thesis is my original work and has not previously been submitted in its entirety or in part for a degree at any other university. I further declare that this work does not infringe or violate the rights of others, as all the sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

Olayemi Rahman Bakre

Student number: 21243119

DEDICATION

To Allah

The Lord of Unfathomable qualities who had made this research a reality

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To my altruistic parents, the late Mr F.A Bakre and Mrs N.A Bakre, for their selflessness.

To my super amazing queen, Bibi Amina, for being such a motivation.

To my inestimable family, Engr Tayo Bakre, Mrs Tolu Bakre-Otun, Dr Kayode Bakre and Mrs Aminat Omotoso Sanusi, for the immeasurable support and love.

To my outstanding supervisor, Prof Nirmala Dorasamy, who unknowingly transformed my career.

To Mr Tony Clark, Mr Joseph Mabitsela and Mr Devon Fredericks, and the other personnel from the National Department of Rural Development and Land reform, Thanks for your support.

To Feroza Mohideen, Werner Ruch, Seopa Patricia Koka, Lesedi Dibakwane, Magakwe Kgope and all personnel at Statistics South Africa who in one way or the other supported this research, Thanks for the invaluable data.

To the IFAD team in Brazil, Vieira Hardi Michael Wulf, Bichara Rocha Leonardo and Rodrigo Dias. Your support was highly appreciated – *Obrigado*.

To Mr Velaphi Myeza for the immense support and contribution throughout my Masters and Doctoral studies.

To Dr Emem Anwana, for your invaluable support.

To Mrs Sara Khan for the immense support over the years.

To Mr Saheed and Mrs Sabeera Phili and the entire Phili family for being so supportive.

My profound gratitude also goes to Deborah Nkuna, Victoria Maziya and Nonthu Mabuza for assisting with logistics at the Mpumalanga Province. Many thanks to every participant who completed questionnaires and those involved in the focus group interviews within the Mgobodzi community.

Many thanks to Mr Zahkele Sibiya, Mrs Mkhathswa Eva Sangele (Queen to Mgobodzi) and Mrs Dudu Ndlovu (HOD to Agricultural Extension workers). The valuable input of the Councillor to Mgobodzi, Mrs Cllr T.M Mkhathswa, was highly appreciated. Thanks also to

Ms Zinhle Lukhele (IDP Cordinator); Ms Xoliswa Nyathi (Manager Rural Enterprise); Ms Zanale Sihlangu (Director to DRDLR – Mpumalanga); Mr Dave Moffef, alongside employees from the regional office of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform; and to everyone within the Nkomazi Municipality, Mpumalanga Province; who played a contributory role in this research.....*Ngiyabonga Kakhulu!*

To Mrs Nontyatyambo Daniso (Councillor to Lusikisiki Mcobothini); Mr Bongani Nanatehla (Youth Leader in Lusikisiki Mcobothini); Councillor Mgwili; Councillor Qwsha; Mrs K.F Dlungwana (Community Development Worker); Mrs Sihle Mpetsheni (Agricultural Development Technician); Ms Ntombenhle Ndlovu; Ms Matinise; (Chief) Mavela Gilbert Nodunyelwa (Chief of Lusikisiki Mcobothini); Lolo, and those who completed the Questionnaires in Lusikisiki Mcobothini. The contribution of the focus group participants is equally appreciated*Enkosi kuni nonke!*

To the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality, Cllr. C.V Mkhwanazi, to Mr Gasa (PA to the Mayor); to Mrs Bridget Mncwango for mobilising her team to support this research; to Ms Ntokozo Khuluse and the entire staff member of the Department of Agriculture, Environmental Affairs and Rural Development, Mtubatuba many thanks. Many thanks also to Ms Buyie Mngomezulu; Ms Lindokuhle Ngubane; and to the late Ayanda Zulu. Also to all the participants of the focus group interview in Gunjaneni, as well as those who completed the questionnaires at Gunjaneni....*Ngiyabonga Kakhulu!*

To Mr Michael Singh, Mr Michael Maluleke and all other staff members of the Department of Water and Sanitation (Durban) for your consistent support over the years.

To Mr Deepak Singh for analysing the questionnaires used in this study.

To the Swaziland Embassy, for granting access to travel through such a beautiful country.

To Prof Sibusiso Moyo, Selisha Singh, Nokuphiwa, Shelembe, Prof Tennyson Mgutshini, Prof Geoff Harris, Prof Renitha Rampersad, Prof K Reddy, Reuben Manele, Sharon Gele, Thabani, Promise Nhlabathi, Jeslyn, Phindo and Thabane.

To Ms Vaneshree Govender, Zethu Mnguni, Zanele Ngcobo, Zenande and the entire Research Office for their support, professionalism and encouragement.

To Ms Sara Mitha, Mr Rakesh Maharaj, Ms Zola, Sthandiwe, Nhlanhla and other library staff members who played a supportive role.

To the ML Sultan Writing Centre team for their collegial support.

To Yaseen Ayam, Emmanuel Adewunmi, Buyani, Adams and Stanley for handling the technical aspects of this study

To Phiwayinkosi Mlungwana, whose support over the last seven years has been incredible. Your driving skills in the deep rural communities of Ward 19 (Mtubatuba Municipality) will forever be cherished.

To Qandile Ngomane, Nkosinathi Luthuli, Phelokazi Stuma, Maud Hutchinson, Ncamy, Fuzile Lethu and everyone who played a contributory role in translating or interpreting: this would not have been possible without you all.

To Mr Moon Pillay, Ms Vanessa Kessa, Ms Natasha Vadamalai, Dr Maliga Reddy and everyone who supported at the Department of Public Management, I say thank you.

To Lungani Accommodation (Nordale); Eveni Guest House (Swaziland); Linges Lodge (Lusikisiki); Orient BnB (Nelspruit), and other suits for your quality services and hospitality.

To Akin Olunloyo, Temitayo Fagbola, Thobile Luthuli, Cleopatra Matli, Ambali Misbaudeen, Abd kabir Kareem, Taiwo Hassan, Amoo Oseni, Hussein Salaudeen, Abd Jalil Adekunle, Bode Ojugbele, Sherifdeen Mustapha, Toyiyb Hassan, Qozim Adegoke, Muhammad Ogunlola, Quddus and Saheed Oladimeji, Kandolo, John and Nonku Olusanya; Patience, Elite Chikepe, Linah, Gugu, Sdu, Jagot Mahmud, Yusuf Banda, Shaik Faizal, Ms Nono, Mr Ibrahim Seedat, Lentsu; Mr AbdFatai Bakre, Gilbert, Tafadzwa, Diya, Adeola Balogun, Kenny Adekunle, Dr Afzal Osman, Mft Bacus and Joseph Adebayo for your encouragement, prayers and advice.

To Mrs Mercillene Perrene Mathews for the rigorous editing and patience.

To all the beautiful, warm and loving people in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni....thank you.

Love you all from Jupiter back to Earth.

Xie xie!

ABSTRACT

This study paints an unambiguous reflection of contemporary South African rural communities. That which depicts a rhetoric epitomised by abject poverty, under-development, inequality and marginalisation. Such an awful depiction is synonymous with the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, which are yet to benefit fully from the transformation of the post-apartheid era. As an agendum to alleviating poverty amongst these poverty-stricken and under-developed communities, the government instituted rural developmental initiatives such as the RDP, GEAR, ACGISA and CRDP, amongst a host of other interventionist initiatives. Despite enormous investments and intermeshed developmental interventions, the current poverty trends amongst these communities are analogous to their pitiable condition prior to the initiation of these governmental interventions.

In consonance, the focus of this study was to examine the extent to which the major rural development initiatives of the post-apartheid South Africa has contributed to poverty alleviation. It also provided a critical analysis of rural developmental initiatives implemented in the post-apartheid era of South Africa; it evaluated the capacity of local government to implement rural development initiatives; and it identified factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural developmental initiatives and the achievement of desired outcomes for rural development. Furthermore, the study also identified the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, whilst also designing a theoretical model in consonance with the rural development requirements of the aforementioned communities.

The novelty of this study lies in its ability to synchronize and aggregate the expertise, insight, knowledge and lived-experiences of prominent rural development stakeholders as well as

beneficiaries into one study. Thus, to actualise the aim and objectives, a mixed method was used as a primary study design, while a multiple-case study sufficed as the actual data collection method. While structured interviews were conducted amongst 31 prominent rural development stakeholders, questionnaires were also administered to 533 community members within the Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni communities. More so, a total of 41 individuals participated in focus group interviews. Further to this research design, a wide range of government documents ranging from White Papers to Green Papers, legislation; statistical reports; government gazettes and reports were also reviewed.

In reference to deductions from the qualitative and quantitative enquiry, literature and a host of other audited governmental sources, it could be deduced that rural inhabitants are not passive beneficiaries of rural developmental initiatives that are ostensibly designed to better their livelihood. A repertoire of sources points to a centralised planning of these developmental initiatives, which tends towards a top-bottom approach. Such an approach has often excluded rural inhabitants from been engaged in the planning process of their livelihood. Rather, this has been placed in the hands of state actors who may not fully grasp the grassroots and fundamental dynamics of rural spaces. This approach is adjudged not suitable for either agricultural or rural development, as typified by the Hlaleneni Landscape project in Gunjaneni. Moreover, a number of rural developmental trajectories lack crucial acumen into the fundamental needs of these poor communities. This laxity can be attributed to the habitual side-lining or exclusion of these rural inhabitants. Nevertheless, based on the repertoire of intensive literature and empirical assertions, rural development initiatives have marginally contributed to poverty alleviation amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. Regardless of this truism, it may be rather premature for rural development stakeholders to breathe a sigh of relief over the feats recorded over the past two decades as communities such as Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini, Gunjaneni and a

host of other rural communities still wallow in a state of under-development and poverty. The time of realism has set in for rural development stakeholders to make more proactive interventions in addressing the awful spectre of under-development and poverty epitomised amongst these rural communities. The study further reveals that the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are yet to optimize the resources and potentials within their domain. Such optimization may be orchestrated through the re-invigoration of rural municipalities; institutional partnership with rural municipalities; upscaling of subsistence farming to commercial farming; capitalising on the strategic location of South Africa's coast for the exportation of agricultural produce alongside other pragmatic interventionist approaches to alleviate poverty amongst these poverty-stricken communities.

Key words - *Rural development, Rural developmental initiatives, Poverty alleviation, Rural communities, CRDP*

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ACRONYMS

ANC – African National Congress

ARC - Agricultural Research Council

BRICS – Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa

CSO – Civil Society Organisation

CRDP - Comprehensive Rural Development Programme

DA – Democratic Alliance

ECFS - Eurasian Centre for Food Security

EFF – Economic Freedom Fighters

FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization

HDI - Historically Disadvantaged Individual

HSRC - Human Sciences Research Council

IDP – Integrated Development Plan

IFPRI - International Food Policy Research Institute

IFAD -International Fund for Agricultural Development

IREC – Institutional Research Ethics Committee

ISRDP - Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Program

FPL - Food poverty line

GoI – Government of India

LBPL - lower-bound poverty line

SALGA - South African Local Government Association

SASSA - South African Social Security Agency

MGNREGA - Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act

MTSF - Medium Term Strategic Framework

MOPAN - Multilateral Organisation Performance Assessment Network

NARYSEC – National Rural Youth Services Corps

NDP - National Development Plan

NDRDLR - National Department of Rural Development and Land Reforms

NINP - National Integrated Nutrition Programme

NSFNS - National System for Food and Nutrition Security

WDI - World Development Indicators

WHO – World Health Organisation

UBPL - Upper-Bound Poverty Line

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

CHAPTER ONE- BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Rural development has been a topical issue over the last two decades in South Africa due to the high incidences of poverty, inequality and marginalisation. Significant resources have been invested in rural development, more particularly fiscal resources that have been injected into rural developmental initiatives on an annual basis. Nonetheless, the extent of development amongst these deprived communities has stagnated, despite the enormous investments in rural developmental initiatives (Westaway 2010: 2; Noble and Wright 2012: 188-189). This form of stagnation is evident in the standard of living, as well as the limited opportunities available to rural community members in South Africa. According to Statistics South Africa (2017:7), the standard of living amongst these communities reflects that of '*relative poverty*'. The challenges faced by the marginalised communities of rural South Africa are indications that these individuals have not fully benefitted from the transformation of the post-apartheid era (Jacobs and Hart 2014: 159). Such marginalisation is synonymous with the communities of Mgebodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, which are characterised by high levels of poverty. Furthermore, these three communities have been chosen due to their commonality, which includes; rurality; subsistence forms of farming and deprivation in basic amenities.

In consonance with the disparity between the resources expended on rural communities and the pitiable standard of living amongst rural dwellers, this study aims to examine the correlation between rural developmental initiatives and poverty amongst the communities of Mgebodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

The re-invigoration of rural developmental initiatives as an agenda to addressing rural poverty is therefore a priority at the local, provincial and national levels. In consonance with

this assertion, the current research reviewed and evaluated the rural developmental initiatives in post-apartheid South Africa.

The later sub-sections of this chapter comprise aspects such as the research problem, aim and objectives as well as the theoretical statement. Also covered in this chapter are the significance of the study; a synopsis of the methodology; the scope and limitation of the study; new knowledge, outcomes and findings; value of the research; and ethical principles, while the chapter concludes with the structure of the dissertation.

1.2 Background to the study

Over 1.1 billion individuals across the globe live in abject poverty, which constitutes one-sixth of the world's population (World Bank – World Development Indicators 2012: 66-72). The majority of these underprivileged individuals reside across rural communities (de Hoyos and Medvedev 2011:22). The World Bank, Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) 2009 as cited by Raidimi (2014: 10) estimate that 75 per cent of the world's poorest people are found in rural communities. This estimation is consistent with the World Health Organisation's (WHO 2016; IFAD 2016) report which acknowledges that 73.6 per cent of the world's poorest individuals are found mostly in rural communities. These poor communities often lack access to basic infrastructure and facilities, such as pipe-borne water, electricity, tarred roads, quality education and good health services (Bapna 2012: 11; Chambers 2012: 104-117). Governments at national, provincial and local levels across the globe have taken measures to address poverty amongst these deprived communities (Kanbur and Sumner 2012: 11; Chen and Ravallion 2012: 3). However, despite these measures, only a few success stories have been recorded, although a vast amount of resources which are inclusive of capital investments, man-power and long hours of deliberations are being expended as a means of curtailing this prevailing issue (Gradin 2011:26-29).

Several studies on rural development acknowledge that the rural communities of South Africa are characterised by high levels of poverty and under-development (Gradin 2011; Chambers 2012; Westaway 2010). Prior to 1994, rural communities in South Africa were communities subjugated to poverty, inequality and marginalisation (Ginneken, Lewin and Berridge 2010: 1110-1114; Hemson 2004: 3-8). In consonance with this trio of challenges, the new democratic dispensation which was sworn in on the 27th of April 1994 focused on poverty alleviation, attempting to bridge the inequality gap and address marginalisation (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 38-43; Everatt and Zulu 2002: 3-7). However, despite the focus on rural development, the persistent poor delivery of governmental services in rural communities has tremendously undermined the pace of development in South Africa. Commensurate with this concern, Jacob Zuma's administration chose rural development as one of the five policy urgencies. Additionally, rural development is included in the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (2009-2014) which was enacted as a means of bridging the widened inequality gap between the predominantly privileged urban populace and poverty stricken rural communities (Department of Communications 2013: 2-4; South Africa 2013:13).

Rural development "initiatives" in the current study focus on policies, programmes, efforts, attempts, strategies and legislation employed by the South African government to address and redress rural development amongst South African rural communities.

The main aim of rural development in South Africa is to redress the inequality created by the apartheid government (South Africa 2013: 13). However, a study conducted by Keeton (2014: 26-31) on "*inequality in South Africa*" suggests that the inequality gap has been widened. His assertion is based on the income disparity and standard of living gap amongst the "have" and "have nots". Hence, the current study intends to conduct a critical investigation into the extent to which these initiatives that are structured to address poverty have been successful, more particularly amongst the rural community populace.

In 2011, the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) was launched by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR). The CRDP was considered a milestone in addressing the inequality in South Africa. As a means to tackling poverty and under-development, the DRDLR identified the 24 most poverty stricken rural district municipalities facing huge infrastructural backlogs (Jacob and Hart 2014: 166). Within the first three years of this initiative, R2.3 billion was invested in this project. However, despite this enormous governmental expenditure, there is no significant evidence in the improvement of the livelihood of these identified rural communities (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 7-15; Jacob and Hart 2014: 166). According to Statistics South Africa (2017: 16), this assertion is further buttressed by the increment in the number of rural households living below the poverty line, which rose from 14.3% in 2011 to 16.6 % in 2015 (Statistics South Africa 2017:16).

Some amongst the most poverty stricken rural municipalities identified by the DRDLR are inclusive of Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga), Ingquza Municipality (Eastern Cape) and uMkhanyakude Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal). In consonance with this poverty stricken concern, the current study will be confined to Mgobodzi, which is situated in Nkomazi Municipality; Lusikisiki Mcobothini, situated in Ingquza Municipality; and Gunjaneni, which is found in the north-eastern region of uMkhanyakude Municipality (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013:79-80; Public Service Commission 2009:5).

A pertinent concern affecting rural developmental initiatives lies in the vagueness, lack of coordination and incompatible policy prescriptions amongst rural development stakeholders (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013: 81). Regrettably, tracking the growth and development of rural developmental initiatives has often been considered problematic given the seeming reluctance of government departments to release recent reports on the public on progress made thus far (Jacob and Hart 2014: 165; Fourie 2018).

More importantly, the pervasive challenges faced by rural communities call for alternative strategies in handling this dilemma. Empirical studies have argued that rural developmental issues are far too complex for the current approaches being employed. One of the arguments raised is the unwillingness of doctors, nurses, teachers and other professionals to work in rural communities. The unwillingness of these skilled workers to live and work in rural communities undermines the efforts of government in providing quality services to these marginalised communities (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013: 79; Bosworth and Venhorst 2017). Furthermore, studies by Sachs (2018), Abrahams (2018), Rogerson and Nel (2016), Phuhlisani Solutions (2009: 23) and (Chambers 2014) all allude to the assertion that constraints to the workability of some rural developmental initiatives lies in the inadequacy of human capacity amongst rural government officers and provincial administrators, as well as to ineffectual alignment of governmental initiatives delivered through departmental silos.

1.3 Research Problem

Initiatives such as the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP), Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) have been structured to underpin rural development. However, indicators such as the high-income disparity and pitiable standard of living amongst a vast majority of rural households serve as evidence that some of these initiatives are unsuccessful. The major concern impacting rural development is an unstable economy. The South African economy witnessed significant turmoil and economic crises in 2015. Challenges in 2015 which hindered the economy of South Africa are inclusive of the erratic power supply by the Electricity Supply Commission (ESKOM); labour strikes which adversely affected productivity, inflation, and a weak currency. These challenges are reoccurring and persist till current day. Due to these challenges, the South African government has given more attention to the urban communities

with the intent of stabilising the standard of living amongst the middle-income class. Keeton (2014: 30) buttresses this assertion when he argues that 76% of the 6.2 million jobs created in South Africa were skilled or semi-skilled, while an estimated 1.4 million low-skilled jobs were also generated over this period. Hence, the rural community members who are often low-skilled will stand a lower chance of getting such skilled or semi-skilled employment opportunities. Some of these approaches have been detrimental to rural communities. During economic crises, governments across the globe often focus on the middle-class. This approach used by the South African government is synonymous with the governmental strategy used in Mexico, Columbia, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Poland and Malaysia, where governments mainly focused on the middle class (urban community) during economic crises, while giving little or no attention to rural communities during such periods (Bremmer 2015:4-7). Such an approach used by the aforementioned countries has negatively impacted on the progression of the rural communities of these countries.

A second concern mitigating the effectiveness of rural developmental initiatives is the soaring rate of carbon dioxide emissions, which has significantly negatively impacted on climate change. Researchers have often attributed the climate change concern in South Africa to two main issues. Firstly, the electricity-driven nation uses 90 per cent of coal in generating electricity and secondly, there is a high energy intensity of coal usage amongst the industrial sector. This high emission of carbon dioxide through the excessive usage of coal results in the depletion of the ozone layer. The resultant effect of this will lead to a greater availability of water in Asia and North America through more rainfall in these regions and extreme weather conditions such as flooding in other cases (Zhu and Ringler 2010: 9; Water Research Commission 2009: 24; Council for Scientific and Industrial Research 2009: 69). On the contrary, a reversal effect will ensue within the Caribbean, Latin America and the sub-

Saharan African region, which will have less water availability and drought for several months (South African National Development Plan 2011: 67).

According to an online report by Azad Essa (an Al-Jazeera news correspondence) on the 5th of November 2015, the prolonged spell of drought amongst Southern African countries such as Botswana, South Africa and Namibia in the last quarter of 2015 adversely affected rural communities as water plays an all-encompassing role in rural livelihoods. Drought has continuously persisted in this region till current era. Empirical studies also amplify this view that the populace most affected by climate change is rural communities (Mati 2007:4; Rasmussen 2009: 24). In consonance with this drought concern, proactive measures such as investments and the implementation of national drought policies (Muller 2014: 35-56) are imperative as a means of galvanising the rural developmental initiatives. The South African government has given more attention to urban communities, whilst little attention is given to rural communities. This assertion is based on the financial allotments in the 2013-2018 national budgets where the bulk of the budget is allocated to urban-related contingencies (South Africa 2013; South Africa 2014; South Africa 2015; South Africa 2017; South Africa 2018).

A third major concern undermining rural developmental initiatives is the lack of coordination of these initiatives. One such example is the repetitive counting of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDP) projects. This incoherence has often led to difficulty in evaluating the progress of rural developmental initiatives (Jacob and Hart 2014: 164-168). Furthermore, due to the non-specification of rural areas in South Africa, it has often been problematic to measure and quantify the growth and development of rural areas. Additionally, the non-standardisation of provincial budgets for rural communities makes it cumbersome to analyse the efficiency of rural budgeting; hence the difficulty in evaluating

rural developmental initiatives (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013:81).

In addition, despite the South African constitution being rated as one of the most progressive constitutions globally, concerns have been raised regarding the poor implementation or lack of execution by local councillors and government officials in translating the content of the constitution into practice (Koma 2010: 112-113). Some of these rural developmental initiatives are undermined by the lack of administrative skills by government officials, corruption, embezzlement and a lack of accountability as well as poor monitoring and evaluation (Koma 2010: 114-115). Furthermore, the inability to effectively implement land reforms can be attributed to capacitation concerns amongst political authorities. The Medium-Term Strategic Framework (2009-2014) issued by the South African government emphasises the inadequacy of skills (South Africa 2010: 9), which has been identified as a stumbling block to the efficiency of municipalities, more particularly the rural run municipalities. Moreover, a number of corruption allegations and embezzlement scandals have been traced to several tender processes. The National Spokesperson for the EFF, Mr Mbuyiseni Ndlozi (Election debate), emphasises these unethical practices when he mentioned that the ruling party has been embezzling state funds through the tendering and outsourcing process, which is often poorly monitored.

Finally, the historical concern of dispersed rural settlement patterns has posed an enormous challenge in providing service delivery across the rural communities of South Africa (Department of Rural Development 2013: 11; Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013: 81). This dispersed settlement pattern makes it problematic for the government to develop infrastructure in such communities as it becomes uneconomical and not viable to take up projects of such a nature. Thus, this further makes it difficult to resolve dilapidated basic and social infrastructure (South Africa 2013:12-13 cited by Bakre 2015:

60). In consonance with these concerns, the current study has framed its aim and objectives in the sub-section which follows.

1.4 Aim and objectives

Aim

To analyse the extent to which major rural development initiatives of post-apartheid South Africa have contributed to poverty alleviation.

Objectives

- To critically analyse rural development initiatives implemented in the post-apartheid era of South Africa;
- To evaluate the capacity of local government to implement rural development initiatives;
- To identify factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural development initiatives and the achievement of the desired outcomes for rural development;
- To identify the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural development initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni; and
- To develop a theoretical model recommending guidelines for successful rural development amongst the aforementioned communities.

1.5 Theoretical statement

A theoretical statement was proposed and tested as a provisional theory in this study; namely, the pitiable standard of living, poverty, inequality and marginalisation amongst the rural communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni can possibly be redressed through the effective execution of tailor-made rural development initiatives.

1.6 Synopsis of methodology

In achieving the aim and objectives of this study, both qualitative and quantitative approaches are used. The study was inclusive of a wide range of stakeholders who play a contributory role in rural development in South Africa. Questionnaires were administered to community members in Mgobodzi in the Nkomazi Municipality of Mpumalanga Province, Lusikisiki Mcobothini of the Ingquza Municipality in the Eastern Cape Province, as well as community members of Gunjaneni in the Mtubatuba Municipality of KwaZulu-Natal. The justification for choosing these three communities is that they are highly populated rural communities which exhibit the features of a typical South African rural community, namely poverty, marginalisation, inequality, inadequacy in infrastructure, poor service delivery and poor economic development prospects (Ginneken, Lewin and Berridge 2010:1110-1111; South Africa 2014:4-11; Hemson 2004: 14-23; Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013:79-80; Public Service Commission 2009:5).

Structured interviews were conducted amongst Councillors, traditional leaders, municipality staff officials, as well as rural development analysts as a means of gaining insight into rural development initiatives in post-Apartheid South Africa. Additionally, focus group interviews were conducted amongst 44 community members within the three mentioned rural communities.

These research participants were chosen through typical case sampling (Purposive) and Judgemental sampling. To further create triangulation, the researcher utilised audited documents, whilst also inputting the contributions from the focus group interviewees. As a means of strengthening the data validity, the questions posed in the questionnaire and interviews were closely tied with the study's aim and objectives. Permission was sought by the Researcher to audio-record and transcribe the interview sessions. The accrued primary

(quantitative) data was thus analysed with the aid of SPSS for Windows (Version 25.0), while the qualitative data was analysed thematically.

1.7 Scope and limitation of the study

The study revolved around rural development initiatives in the post-apartheid era. However, the predominant initiatives critically discussed were those (rural developmental initiatives) initiated during the former South African President's regime - Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma, which was between the 9th of May, 2009 and the 14th of February, 2018. The study was further confined to 'poverty' amongst only three rural communities of South Africa - Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. The study cannot however be generalised to other rural communities of South Africa. The inability of the researcher to communicate in Sesotho, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu was a constraint as the participants of the study spoke the aforementioned languages as their mother tongues. The aid of interpreters who could communicate in English as well as the participants' respective languages were employed as a means of communicating with the study participants.

1.8 New knowledge, outcome and findings

A variety of theoretical, descriptive, interpretative, empirical and factual findings were unravelled in this study. Through an in-depth analysis of data (new and old), the researcher was able to deduce novel and logical narratives commensurate with the study's objectives. Further to this, the researcher was able to formulate rural developmental model and theories for the trio-communities wherein the study was conducted. Additionally, through an in-depth review of successful rural development initiatives (amongst BRICS nation), the researcher was able to suggest pathways and best practices for the trio-communities in which this study was conducted. Through the analysis of qualitative data, quantitative data and literature, as well as a review of audited documents, peculiar trends were established. Such peculiar trends

were utilised in forming new knowledge and were also disclosed to rural development stakeholders within these communities.

Factual findings emanated (particularly) through the qualitative approach adopted in this study. These findings serve as a medium to re-invigorate existing rural development initiatives aligned to poverty alleviation concerns. The study further provides pragmatic and forward-looking pathways to employment generation, which is of great concern amongst these poverty stricken communities.

A continuum of this sub-section is further expounded upon in Chapter 9 (See 9.4 and 9.5).

1.9 Value of the research

This study offers practicable rural development initiatives for the communities under study. The proposal was based on current statistical figures, as well as empirical findings through both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. Furthermore, the research postulates workable means through which current rural developmental initiatives can be augmented, enhanced, refined and considered for other municipalities.

Additionally, the recommendations provided in this study will underpin the coordination and efficiency of rural development initiatives amongst the rural communities under study and will foster interaction amongst rural development stakeholders aimed at rural transformation.

1.10 Ethical principles

The researcher adhered to the ethical principles (guidelines) advocated by Fouka (2011); Scott (2013); WHO (2018); Kamat (2018) and Pillay (2014). These advocacies are in consonance with ethical standards stipulated by the Institutional Research Ethics Committee (IREC) at the Durban University of Technology. These ethical principles are outlined as follows:

- The entirety of the research was conducted with integrity;
- The researcher alongside the Supervisor ensured high levels of standards and values ensured throughout the entirety of the research process;
- The researcher avoided plagiarising works of other authors;
- The researcher sought consent from every participant;
- Pseudonyms were used for participants who wanted to remain anonymous;
- Confidentiality of the selected participants who presented sensitive information was ensured;
- Every participant involved in this study was provided with the essence of the study wherein researcher explained the intent of the study;
- Permission was sought from the required authorities;
- The researcher pursued an epistemological approach; and
- The findings which emanated from the research were disseminated in a transparent fashion.

Ethical principles are further elaborated upon in the Research Methodology chapter (see section 7.12).

1.11 Structure of dissertation

This dissertation comprises nine chapters, segmented as follows:

Chapter 1- Background to the study

This chapter provides an overview of the study. It addresses aspects such as the problem statement; aim and objectives of the study; a brief exposition of literature within the field of context, as well as the research methodology and design.

Chapter 2 - Analysis of concepts, approaches and theories on rural development

This chapter provides concepts, approaches and theories related to rural development.

Chapter 3 – Imperatives of rural development

This chapter presents an in-depth literature review on rural communities. It portrays the livelihood amongst rural communities, with core attention paid to South African rural communities. Having revealed the extent of deprivation amongst rural communities, it then argues how imperative rural development is amongst these deprived communities.

Chapter 4 - Poverty in rural South Africa: an insight into Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni

This chapter provides literature by depicting rural South Africa. It also highlights recent statistics relating to the livelihood of these deprived communities. It further extensively discusses the lifestyle of the residents of Mgobodzi (Mpumalanga), Lusikisiki Mcobothini (Eastern Cape) and Gunjaneni (KwaZulu-Natal). More importantly, it provides readers with an insight into the extent of poverty amongst these communities, while emphasising the necessity of accelerating rural development initiatives.

Chapter 5 – Successful rural development initiatives (BRICS)

Chapter Five provides an overview of successful rural development initiatives initiated amongst BRICS nations. It emphasises strategies which led to the success of these rural development initiatives, as well as lessons learnt.

Chapter 6 - Rural development initiatives during the post-Apartheid era in South Africa

Chapter Six provides the various rural developmental initiatives utilised by the South African government since 1994. It describes the success stories, shortfalls as well as constraints to the

progression of these initiatives. However, much of the emphasis is on rural development initiatives in Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma's administration between 2009 and 2018.

Chapter 7 – Research methodology

Chapter Seven describes the research methods and design. It also discusses aspects such as the measuring instrument, data collection techniques, inclusive and exclusive criteria, reliability and validity, as well as the target population.

Chapter 8 – Data analysis and interpretation of findings

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion on approaches the researcher used to analyse the data obtained in the previous chapter. The findings were broken down into themes, which were linked with the aim and objectives of the study.

Chapter 9 – Recommendations and conclusion

Chapter Nine concludes the study by providing recommendations based on literatures as well as feedback obtained from structured interviews and questionnaires. It also provides directions for further studies.

1.12 Conclusion

This chapter has set the direction for the study. It covered aspects such as the background to the study, Research problem, Aim and objectives, Theoretical statement, Synopsis of the Methodology, Scope and limitation of the study, New knowledge, outcome and findings; Value of the research, structure of the dissertation, as well as definitions of recurring terms. The next chapter discusses the concepts, approaches and theories relative to rural development.

CHAPTER TWO - REVIEW OF CONCEPTS, APPROACHES AND THEORIES ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a background to this study. Key aspects such as the aim, objectives, research problem, and theoretical statement alongside other introductory discussions were made. This chapter further directs and progresses the study by presenting key concepts, approaches and theories related to rural development. At the commencement of this chapter, the significance of developmental theories to rural development stakeholders was given. Concepts, approaches and theories within the confines of this study are outlined. Furthermore, the relevance and explanations to these concepts, approaches and theories are discussed. The discussions in this chapter concluded with a critique on rural development concepts, approaches and theories, and how the study addresses such deficiencies.

Since the World's Bank enactment of the 'New Strategy for Development Planning' in the 1970s, a variety of modernised approaches to *Rural development have emerged as a distinctive* field of practice and policy (Galdeano-Gómez, Aznar-Sánchez and Pérez-Mesa 2011). Rural development theories have constantly progressed both at global and regional levels. During the course of the last 20-30 years, rural development theories have significantly shifted from the initial 'exogenous approach' to the 'endogenous approach'. The shift of approach from that '*driven from outside*' to the one '*driven from inside*' has further aligned these theories to their immediate communities (Galdeano-Gómez, Aznar-Sánchez and Pérez-Mesa 2011).

2.2 Rurality and rural development

An amiable precedence to the current chapter will be to define two key terms, 'Rurality' and 'Rural development', which will resonate throughout this chapter and the entire study. A variety of definitions have been advocated by a number of Rural Development authors,

institutions and analysts (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013; Ngomane 2012; Van Rooyen 2004; World Bank 1997; Kakumba and Nsingo 2008). These definitions have varied across continents, regions and countries. Additionally, the term “Rural development” has evolved through the ages as a result of changes in professed or anticipated agenda of development (Anriquez and Stamoulis 2007: 2). SOAS (2013:16) alludes that the term ‘Rural development’ only emerged as a distinctive focus of research and policy in the 1960s before it gained full momentum in the 1970s. SOAS (2013:16) further mentions that these foci were due to the importance that economic analysts perceived in rural areas and rural development, while they drove the economic agenda in the industrial era. Authors perceived rural communities to play an equally contributory role to the overall development of countries. Takeuchi (2012: 3) also buttresses Anriquez and Stamoulis’ (2007: 2) assertion by affirming that “Rural development” was a concept that appeared in the 1970s. The term ‘rural development’ has however evolved significantly over the last five decades.

Prior to the definitions of ‘rural development’ and ‘rurality’ being advocated, it is equally important to underscore the importance of having these definitions. As articulated by Michigan Technological University (2010: 7), by clearly defining rural development, policy-makers are able to allocate funds for rural development initiatives to well deserving and eligible localities (or individuals) as this is dependent on how rural areas are classified. Michigan Technological University (2010: 7) further expounds that policy-makers are able to earmark rural development allotments to concise initiatives, be it access to medical services, educational programmes, poverty alleviation initiatives, or such similar projects. Furthermore, the significance of establishing clarity on these terms serves as a direction through which the narration of this chapter follows.

The World Bank defines ‘Rural development’ as a concise strategy designed to enhance the socio-economic life of a target population, the rural poor, which by extension implies subsistence farmers, tenants as well as the landless (IBRD 1975). The World Bank further affirms that rural development is the most conventional and pragmatic approach to alleviating poverty.

According to the United Nations (1971), rural development is the positive result emanating from a series of qualitative and quantitative changes amongst a specific rural populace that has experienced an improved standard of living, as well as betterment in their quality of life.

Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 2) also define rural development as a developmental agenda orchestrated for the rural populace wherein such development is driven to improve welfarism as well as the overall standard of living of a rural community. Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 2) further state that rural development is an integral part of a structural transformation characterised through the diversification of a rural economy away from agriculture. At the inception, this process is initiated by rapid agricultural development, then gradually transforms to the development of other non-agricultural sectors (Anriquez and Stamoulis 2007: 2).

Prior to Takeuchi’s (2012: 3) definition of rural development, he attempts to clarify on the term ‘development’. He defines development as the summation of all planned initiatives aimed at soliciting positive changes. He adds that development in this context is a practice of ameliorating the livelihood of a group of individuals through thought-out governmental/ political interventions. A perceived shortfall to Takeuchi’s (2012) developmental definition is the exclusion of non-governmental interventions, which have played a pivotal role in development in South Africa, particularly amongst rural communities. Takeuchi (2012: 3) adds that in the Japanese language, ‘*hatten*’ and ‘*Kaihatsu*’ are words used in translating the

word ‘development’. The first word ‘*hatten*’ emphasises the autonomous aspect of change, while ‘*Kaihatsu*’ s emphasises the aspect of political intervention. Takeuchi (2012: 3) goes further to mention that the term ‘*Kaihatu*’ is often used while implying ‘rural development’ in the Japanese language. Additionally, rural development in Japanese is often un-intentionally translated as ‘*nouson*’ (rural) – ‘*Kaihatsu*’. Hence, he concludes that rural development is attributed to political intervention aimed at improving the lives of rural communities.

SOAS (2013:17) defines rural development as a distinctive methodology initiated by the state of underdeveloped countries to develop the agricultural sector alongside other non-agricultural sectors. SOAS (2013:17) further adds that this initiative is often channelled to address poverty and inequality. Satje (2009 cited by Bakre 2015: 25) defines rural development as a thought-out line of action orchestrated to improve the quality of livelihood amongst a group – ‘rural populace’. The Department of Rural Development also defines rural development as *“enabling rural people to take control of their destiny, thereby dealing effectively with rural poverty through the optimal use and management of natural resources. It is a participatory process through which rural people learn over time, through their own experiences and initiatives, how to adapt their indigenous knowledge to their changing world. Rural development can be achieved through self-help initiatives as well as through co-ordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; through strategic investment in economic and social infrastructure that benefits entire rural communities, and not only those involved in agriculture”* (Department of Rural Development 2013: 1 cited by Bakre 2015: 25).

On the contrary, the term ‘rurality’ is defined as that space or community which is not urban, wherein urban is predetermined on the basis of population agglomeration (Anriquez and Stamoulis 2007: 4). Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 4) further assert that ‘rurality’ can be defined from two dimensions. The first dimension can be associated to ‘geopolitical’

definition, while the more conventional and more accepted view by authors in rural developmental studies is ‘*to use observed population agglomeration to define urban*’. In consonance with the second dimension, populations living in a community where neighbouring households exceed a population above 2, 000 inhabitants are considered urban, while populations out of such populaces are termed ‘rural’. However, this threshold varies from region to region across the globe. Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 4) exemplify with the case of Uganda, where an agglomeration of 100 inhabitants constitutes an urban setting, which contravenes that of Mauritius and Nigeria, wherein urban settlements have an agglomeration of a minimum of 20 000 inhabitants. The Ugandan scenario further contravenes that of Japan at 30 000 inhabitants; France, Argentina, Chile, Israel and Bolivia at 2 000 inhabitants; and also contravenes the 2 500 inhabitant threshold for Mexico and USA; as well as the 5 000 inhabitants earmarked for Switzerland and Belgium. Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 4) adds that in other countries, the availability of essential services such as potable water, electricity and road construction are perceived as an urban settlement. He further illustrates with the case of Honduras, where a population with 2 000 inhabitants and also possessing services such as electricity, water supply, health and educational infrastructure are considered ‘urban’, while descriptions falling out of this are considered ‘rural’. Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 4) equally argue that this definition is relevant from a ‘*poverty analysis standpoint*’ as the lack of these services is often linked to poverty. Hence, this aforementioned preposition defining ‘rurality’ consists of facets often attributed to poverty. However, the deficiency of this definition is that the rural populace of advanced nations have access to this infrastructures and services, but are usually spatially more scattered, and these are still available to rural communities (Anriquez and Stamoulis 2007: 5).

Chomnitz *et al.* (2004) cited by Anriquez and Stamoulis (2007: 5) established a ‘rurality’ based indicator for Latin American countries. They use population density and distance to a

major city as a standpoint for categorising rural communities. Their benchmarks to defining ‘rurality’ are *‘areas with populations living in densities below 150 inhabitants per squared kilometre and living more than 1 hour of travel away from a major city’*.

However, the Rural Development Framework (1997) provides a more concise definition to rurality within the ambit of the South African context. They define rurality as *‘sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including villages and small towns that are dispersed throughout these areas’*. This source further alludes that rural areas (rurality) includes large settlements in the former homelands of South Africa created by the apartheid regime whose economy is predominantly based on social grants, remittances and external transfers from their relatives working and living in urban communities. Ngomane (2012: 10) also defines the term ‘rurality’ as *‘a way of life, a state of mind and a culture which revolves around land, livestock, cropping, the use of natural resources and community’*.

Thus, having cited a variety of definitions for the terms ‘rurality’ and ‘rural development’, the definition to be adopted for this study will be that cited by the Rural Development Framework (1997) and the Department of Rural Development (2013) for rurality and rural development respectively. These definitions have been chosen as they reflect the nearly-accurate definitions within the South African context.

2.3 Evolution of rural development

The evolution of rural development in South Africa cannot be isolated from global development, which can be traced back to 1950. Thus, to provide a broader perspective of the evolution of rural development, this section provides a narrative description on the unfolding of development and rural development through timelines.

According to Labuschagne (2015: 42), prior to the 1900s, a majority of the rural populace relied on agriculture as a means of livelihood. Due to the integral role that agriculture was playing in the 1950s local developmental strategies were closely linked to agricultural practices. Gradually, rural communities evolved and began to shift to non-agricultural activities. Due to this evolution, the rural development approaches remaining dependent on agricultural practices then began to focus on non-agricultural activities and were later adapted to local economic development (LED). Ashley and Maxwell (2001: 401) note that the development of rural developmental policies was orchestrated to establish a balance between market and state as well as between the social and productive sectors. Ellis and Biggs (2001: 437) cited by Labuschagne (2015: 42) highlight specific timelines in the evolution of rural development. They allege that the 1960s was perceived as an era of modernisation, while the 1970s were characterised by state intervention. These authors further indicate that market liberation was dominant in the 1980s while involvement and empowerment prevailed in the 1990s. Six predominant phases in the evolution of rural developmental practices are outlined by Ellis and Biggs (2001: 438) as presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Evolution of Rural development (1950-2000)

Phase	Rural development practices
Phase 1 and Phase 2	Community development (1950s) to Stimulating small-farm growth (1960s)
Phase 3	Continuance of small-farm growth through Integrated rural development (1970s)
Phase 4	From state-led rural development (1970s) to market liberalisation (1980s)
Phase 5	Emergence of sustainable livelihoods as an integrating framework (1990s)
Phase 6	Mainstreaming rural development in poverty reduction strategy papers (2000s)

Source: Ellis and Biggs (2001)

Table 2.1 demonstrates the transformation of community development in the 1950s to the development of small-farm growth in the 1960s. This rural development evolution is continued by a continuance of small-farm growth through Integrated rural development in the 1970s. Phase 4 further signifies market liberalisation in the 1980s, which came about through State led rural development. This is followed by the Emergence of sustainable livelihoods as an integrated framework in the 1990s and whilst the 2000 era was characterised by mainstreaming in rural development which focused on poverty reduction strategies.

Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-Mensah and Zuwarimwe (2013: 24) provide a divergent outlook to the evolution of rural development. According to Obadire *et al.* (2013: 24), 1970 was considered

a ‘decade of intervention’ in rural development. The backlash against the theories of development in the 1970s brought about industrial growth which was detrimental to the agricultural sector. This setback in the agricultural sector during the 1970s reinvigorated interest amongst rural development stakeholders in rural developmental issues. Additionally, a widely held view during this period was the industrial growth did not benefit the poor, but only widened the gap between the “haves” and “have-nots”. Hence, during this era, the Green revolution was launched as an agendum to underpin rural development. This initiative was perceived as enormously successful as staple food items such as rice and wheat were harvested in abundance in developing countries (Obadire *et al.* 2013: 25).

Concerted efforts were directed toward the enhancement of small-scale farming production, the majority of whom were the rural populace. This enhancement was driven through the launch of new ‘*high-yielding crop varieties* (HYVs). HYVs saw much popularity amongst the developing nations as it resulted in efficient and productive farming. Despite its wide acceptability, this initiative incurred environmental and social costs. Furthermore, HYVs resulted in remarkable farming yield and was thus named “the green revolution’. A vast majority of developing countries across the globe benefitted significantly from this agricultural initiative. Regions which benefitted mostly from the green revolution were the sub-Saharan and Asian countries who are predominantly consumers of rice and wheat (IFAD 2000; Lipton and Longhurst 1989; Pingali 2012: 12302).

Following the Green revolution was Integrated Rural Development (IRD) with a core agenda to tackle poverty reduction through a better and more concise coordination of developmental initiatives (Nemes 2005). The launch of the IRD was partly due to the dissuasive impact of the national agricultural interventions amongst developing nations. The donors considered these interventions dissuasive for two prominent reasons:

- Donors were of the view that agricultural interventions had insignificant productivity levels and merely contributed to the income of poor subsistence farmers; and
- Interventions had failed to generate employment opportunities for the poor who were landless.

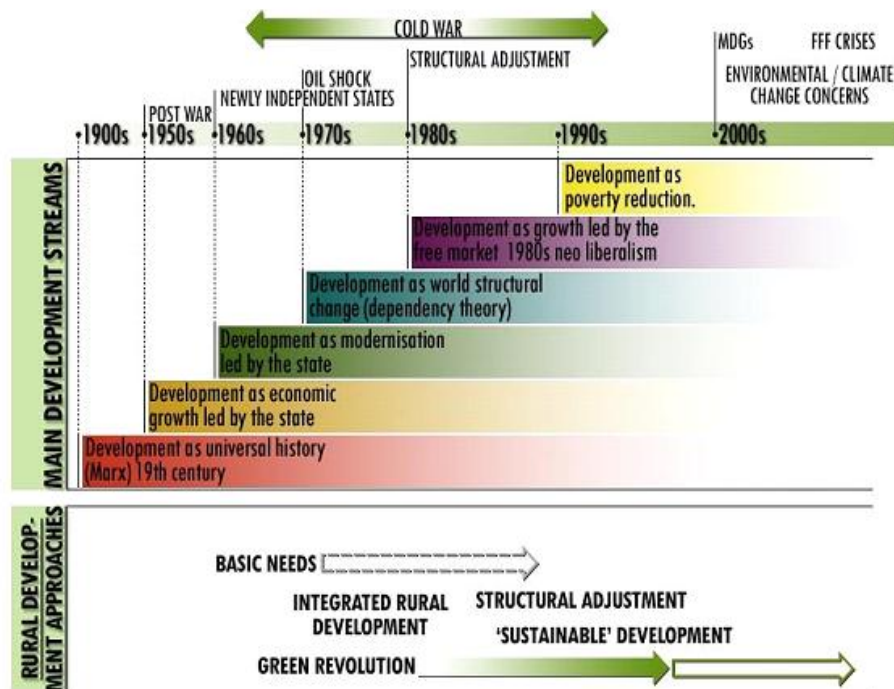
This failure was attributed to the strategy of enhancing productivity which focused primarily on improving crop production technology by using initiatives such as the HYV, which were considered inadequate. To address these challenges, the IRD was initiated and was widely accepted by donors, governmental and non-governmental institutions in the 1970s (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 25).

Similar to the two earlier approaches discussed, the “Basic needs approach” gained popularity in the mid 1970s. During this era, this approach introduced a “*new way of thinking about developmental issues*” (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 25-26). Prior to this period, the mainstream ideology was premised on macroeconomic growth as a key approach to tackling poverty, while the Basic needs approach was in contrast to this. The Basic needs approach advocated that developmental initiatives should squarely address poverty through the provision of the “basic needs” of the poor populace (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 11). The proponents of this approach justified their argument on the following points (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 11):

- It was a more efficient manner of tackling poverty in comparison to policies which focused primarily on growth;
- It was cheaper and quicker; and
- It was easier to persuade donors to support initiative, since it was much easier to provide funds for food and shelter in comparison to achieving abstract agendas such as economic development.

Hence, the Basic needs approach corroborated other rural developmental policies during this period (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 11). The three developmental interventions discussed earlier, Green revolution; IRD and Basic needs reached their zenith in the 1970s and gradually began to diminish during the next decade as market liberalisation and structural adjustment policies were introduced. Market liberalisation and structural adjustment policies reduced the power and influence of the state in implementing these developmental interventions which dominated the 1970s (green revolution, IRD and Basic needs) (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 11). Notwithstanding, the ideology and primacies which propelled the “1970s approaches” are still relevant in the current age (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009: 11). The rural developmental evolution is depicted in Figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.2: Developmental timeline



Source: The School of Oriental and African Studies (2013)

As demonstrated in Figure 2.1, the developmental timeline went through several metamorphoses. Exploring the developmental timeline from a holistic perspective, it could be said that these phases evolved from generic developmental approaches to more confined rural developmental approaches.

2.4 Significance of developmental theories to rural development stakeholders

Developmental theories form the epicentre to addressing poverty and socio-economic challenges of a community. Due to its centrality and importance, developmental theories have gone beyond the academic caucus. This sub-section thus cites a number of areas of significance of developmental theories to rural development stakeholders.

Economics as a field was created with the intention of gaining a deeper understanding of life phenomena, while improving man's form of existence (Apostolides and Moncada 2013: 8). The economic field has continuously made concerted efforts to augment the well-being of the human race for more than two centuries (Rosenberg 2000; Weintraub 1999). In the famous "*Wealth of Nations*" by Adam Smith, the yearning to determine or identify what causes the increment of wealth of countries and how such wealth could be sustained, formed the cornerstone of Economics from its inception (Sutherland 2008). 'Political economics', the initial phrase used for Economics in the 19th century, had the aspiration to understand, while supporting communities in achieving a better standard of living through economic thoughts (Apostolides and Moncada 2013: 8). Through the progression and evolution of developmental theories, economist analysts are able to set specific goals while discovering means to measure progress. Without measuring or evaluating progress, it would be near impossible to foretell the required action or steps in improving prosperity or reducing the extent of poverty, malnutrition or lessening the impact of risk attributed to other uncertainties. Furthermore, through developmental theories, 'testable data' are being generated. Such accrued data are being used for the betterment of society at large

(Apostolides and Moncada 2013: 8). Additionally, economic instruments such as the Human Development Index (HDI) were developed through the aid of developmental theories (Mesnick 2009: 94). Economic analysts have for several years worked hand in hand with the Civil Society Organisation (CSO) in ascertaining the most effective aids. The extent of this effectiveness were achieved through the testing and quantification of outcomes from fieldwork. Economists, through the aid of developmental theories, did not only play a leading role, but were also able to create more inclusive and precise measures of development (Apostolides and Moncada 2013: 9).

Thus, it may be argued that an in-depth comprehension of developmental theories amongst developmental stakeholders may assist in forecasting what plan of action to take in the short, medium and long-terms. In conclusion, the improvement in theoretical knowledge was only accomplished due to the synergy between developmental stakeholders alongside developmental theorists. Nonetheless, NGOs, alongside other developmental stakeholders, often have divergent views to that of economists with respect to assisting less developed nations. In consonance, attempts should be made in understanding the developmental theories, concepts and approaches on rural development as a means to narrowing divergent views (Apostolides and Moncada 2013: 10).

2.5 Concepts, approaches and theories on rural development

A vast gamut of literature on development has been discussed as far back as 1912 (Oslington and Mahmood 1993). However, literature on rural development was introduced in the 1970s. Ever since the 1970s, voluminous quantities of literature have cropped up (Phuhlisani Solutions 2009; Adams, Graham, von Pischke 1984; Perkins and Yusuf 1984; Korten 1980). Between the 1970s and the present, authors have made attempts to categorise rural development literatures into broad approaches (National Academy of Sciences 2016; Blunden, Pryce and Peter Dreyer 2010). Bhaumik (1989:28) opined that ‘rural development’ can be

centred around the “*institution versus technology*” debate. Chambers (1983) on the other hand categorised this field into two broad categories, the Physical ecology cluster and Political economy cluster. Boesen (1980) goes further in categorising rural development into “agrarian studies”. A fourth proponent was Harriss (1982), whose ideology related to agrarian policy. Harris’ (1982) approach has been widely adopted by a number of rural development analysts (Rosset, Patel and Courville 2006; Borras, Akram-Lodhi 2007; Howlader 2014). Harris’ (1982: 17-18) categorisation of rural development (agrarian problems) was summed up in three broad approaches:

- Structural (historical) views;
- Decision-making models; and
- the Systems approach.

Structural approach: This approach is also known to as the ‘political economy cluster’ or ‘neo-Marxist approach’. The structural approach emanates from the “Classical Marxist approach” (Connell 1997; Howlader 2014). The core proponents of this school of thought (ideology) are Djurfeldt, Bharadwaj, Bernstein, Patnaik, Raikes and Byres (Howlader 2014: 30) who allege that the Marxist and Leninist models developed several decades ago are still relevant to the agricultural practices amongst third-world countries, which relate to rural communities and rural development. As opined by the Marxist approach, control and ownership of resources form the basis of analysis. This school of thought also claims that interactions, conflicts or relationships amongst members of a community are predominantly influenced by ‘who controls which resource’ or ‘who or which group owns a particular resource’. This control or ownership is considered as the major catalyst to change (Howlader 2014: 88).

According to Bernstein (1977), the destruction of the natural economy as well as the ‘*development of commodity-relation*’ within the African continent has been widely influenced by the historical context, destructive forces and pre-existing social structures (Howlader 2014: 88). A number of these impediments are still factors which have heavily undermined the pace of development amongst rural communities in Africa (Weston and Goga 2016; Wiebelt, Pauw, Matovu, Twimukye and Benson 2013; Kimenyi and Lewis 2015). However, the process of commoditisation is uneven and often linked to concrete conditions wherein a variety of *capitals confront and penetrate* dissimilar pre-capitalist structures.

Bernstein (1977) further explains that the dissimilarities with respect to consumption standards are due to features which are random with regard to “*relations of production*”; and may include demographic features, non-agrarian sources of income and natural disasters. Dissimilarity, when viewed from the materialistic perspective, is linked to a condition wherein wealth becomes capital and (where such wealth) is not spent by individuals, but re-invested in some means of production. Hence, such a trend eventually polarises the peasantry, which is notable amongst different classes of the community. Bernstein’s (1977) core assertion is that when capitalism emerges in agriculture, dissimilarity from a materialistic perspective is often not perceived so. Hence, household forms of production may be sustained. This occurrence is at the capitalist’s interests.

Decision-making models: Harris’ (1982) second categorisation of rural development approaches is the Decision-making model (DMM), advanced alongside the ‘*neo-classical approach to agricultural development*’ (Howlader 2014: 98). The DMM perceive rural developmental challenges as concerns relative to the “allocation of resources” amongst farming communities, which thus relates to reactions of a farmer to market forces and innovation (Howlader 2014: 98). Several studies attempted to set up models in line with this approach, wherein individuals take decisions with the intent of improving their communities.

An aspect of the DMM emphasises farm economies with a focus on the utilisation of land and labour. The precept behind farm economies is that individual actions are driven by profitability. Hence, a farmer considers the payment received for his farm produce as crucial. Oftentimes, the reluctance of subsistence farmers to adopt advanced technology as compared to commercial farmers' prompt adoption is one of the hindrance to the development of subsistence farming, which is a common practice amongst rural communities (Howlader 2014: 99). Khapayi and Celliers (2016) alleges that this reluctance is due to the uncertainty of using unknown equipment or technology. Hence, subsistence farmers' incompetence in managing uncertainty or risk further widens the income gap between subsistence farmers and their commercial counterparts. In addressing such conservatism amongst subsistence farmers, von Loeper, Musango; Brent; and Drimie (2016) advocates the usage of tailor-made policies in combating the risk amongst individual farmers. Hence, such farmers are persuaded to adopt new technologies.

Systems approach – this approach's focal point dwells on the inter-relationship between technology, environment and demographic factors and their impact have on agricultural practices. It is synonymously referred to as the '*physical ecology cluster*' or '*ecological approach*'. The systems approach's focus point is in analysing the precise inter-relationship and interconnectivity between *specific human activities*, *physical processes* and *biological transactions* in a distinct analytical system (Howlader 2014: 100). This sort of analysis also focuses on a system's equilibrium, system structure as well as system change and attempts to provide answers to questions such as (Howlader 2014: 101):

- What mechanisms control the activities of the ecosystem?
- How stable is the ecosystem?
- What is the stability of the ecosystem? and

- What factors sustain and deplete the ecosystem?

The Systems Approach largely attributes the lack of development in a community to ‘ecological processes’. The proponents of this approach claim that poverty and a lack of development are primarily attributed to population increases, environmental degradation and pressure on resources (Chambers 1983). The Systems Approach also alludes to the claim that rural poverty is a result of physical features such as population increases, environmental degradation and infertile soil (Bueb, Peters and Yepes 2017; Gallopin 1994). Also closely linked to this study are rural development theories and concepts such as the Basic development theories; Endogenous growth theory; Marxist development theory; the O-Ring theory for economic development; the “Big Push” economic development theory; Participatory Action Research; Self-mobilisation; Participatory Communication approach; and the Modernisation theory of development. All of these are discussed below.

2.5.1 Basic development theories

The Basic development theory is classified as one of the Classical economic development theories. According to the ‘Neo-Classical theory’, fixed investment ultimately propels economic growth and output. The Basic development theory advocates that local business entities maximise their proceeds such that the revenue (proceeds) accrued by the wealthy are ploughed back into the poor communities. Such intervention is often driven by non-governmental entities as government plays a limited role in such situations. Government has to however provide an enabling and favourable economic setting through concerns such as infrastructural development, capacitation driven initiatives; ensuring orderliness and security, while also limiting bureaucratic processes (Blakely 1989:61).

On the other hand, the ‘Economic base theory’ stipulates that a community’s development and growth is largely dependent on the demand for commodities, products and services

within such a community. Viable economies (communities) are often characterised by a strong export base, wherein commodities produced within such communities are exported to other economies (communities). In consonance, the reinvigoration of local businesses should be export-oriented as an agenda towards the development of the local economy. In propelling such agenda, local government should support local business entities and encourage the establishment of new business entities while finding export markets for such local businesses (Blakely 1989:65).

2.5.2 Endogenous growth theory

Branson, Guerrero and Gunter (1998: 32) classify the Endogenous growth theory as a part of the new growth theory. As inferred by Branson *et al.* (1998: 32), the Endogenous growth theory is concerned with economic growth as it relates to the production function, which may either be increasing or non-diminishing returns to the generative investment. This theory is generated by dynamics such as improved technology, increased output, as well as increasing returns. Todaro and Smith (2011: 153) however criticise this theory. They allege that this theory is based upon the assumption that there exists only one unilateral sector of production or that sectors within an economy are all symmetrical. Furthermore, this theory is premised upon the principle that growth amongst developing nations is hindered by defective goods and capital markets, institutional structures and inadequate infrastructure (Todaro and Smith 2011: 153).

2.5.3 Marxist development theory

The tenets of the Marxist development theory contravene that of the imperialist and neo-imperialist developmental theories. The imperialist approach advocates the capitalist development approach wherein the Eurocentric bias and values are promoted, whilst the Marxist has a non-capitalistic advocacy. The Marxist developmental growth trajectory is synonymous to that of the modernisation theory, which is underpinned by a similar output

and growth-oriented economic model. Notwithstanding, a conspicuous theoretical difference between the Marxist and Modernisation theory lies within the ‘ownership’ and ‘control’ of the resultant economic benefits.

The Communist Party of the Soviet Union (now referred to as Russia), in 1926, took a stern and assertive decision in catching up, and surpassing the industrial advancements made by capitalist nations. The Communist Party pushed to achieve this ambitious agenda within a minimal timeframe (Sakwa 1998). In pushing towards this developmental agenda, the Communist Party aligned their developmental trajectory to planning, public investment and coordination (Bernstein 2005).

The tenets of Marxism also hold that individual perceptions and ideology are associated with the elementary means of economic production in such communities (Feinberg and Soltis 1992). Therefore, community members should be involved from the conceptualisation phase of the decision making process; to the planning, implementation and management of initiatives within their community. In consonance, the actualisation of rural development initiatives are dependent upon the extent to which members of a community influence concerns affecting such a community (Brown and Chikagbum 2017 and Sibanda 2011).

2.5.4 The O-Ring theory for economic development

The O-Ring theory of development was propounded by Kremer (1993: 551). Kremer argues that in achieving a high value output, a variety of activities need to be executed simultaneously and effectively. This theory advocates specialisation, economies of scale, complementarity and the division of labour. It further expatiates the associative factors of poverty, as well as causative factors of low income in developing nations in comparison to wealthy nations. The O-Ring theory emphasises the income bias amongst rural and urban

communities where different wages are being offered for same types of employment (Gao 2010; Kremer 1993; and Todaro and Smith 2011).

2.5.5 The “Big Push” economic development theory

It has often been a mammoth task for developing nations to kick-start a developmental economic trajectory (Cobbinah and Erdiaw-Kwasie 2015; Diaz-Sarachaga and Jato-Espino 2017). This is usually due to poor coordination, amongst other factors (Todaro and Smith 2011: 164). In addressing this bottleneck, Rosenstein-Rodan posited the ‘Big-Push’ theory. Rosenstein-Rodan (1943: 202) postulates that the occurrence of economy failures often instigates the need for a national government to re-align its economic policy intervention. The cognisance and value of the Big Push theory can be linked to the economic successes of east Asian countries such as China and Singapore (Todaro and Smith 2011:165).

Towards the realisation of the ‘Big Push’, Rosenstein-Rodan advocated industrialisation through large-scale investments in countries with an excess labour force (Easterly 2005: 29). He further posits that economic advancement is attainable through the simultaneous emergence of collaborative industries. This theory also stipulates that policy coordination and well-tailored investments can disrupt the poverty trap. Such may be achieved through the provision of incentives to the private sector, wherein such private entities adopt modernised techniques and economies of scale in actualising a sustainable development trajectory. Furthermore, economic freedom, the re-invigoration of institutions and democratization form core constituents of the Big Push theory (Easterly 2005: 29). The Big Push theory is often applicable in circumstances where urbanisation and industrialisation are crucial to accelerating an economy, where infrastructural deficits adversely impact on costs of production and where capacitation initiatives are ignored by private entities (Todaro and Smith 2011: 171).

2.5.6 Self-mobilisation

The self-mobilisation concept is one in which community members formulate ideas and make efforts to solicit resources from external entities in actualising such ideas (Vik 2017). Self-mobilisation is perceived as a bottom-up approach, as individuals within a community take up developmental ideas or plans to external entities as a means of developing their community (Vik 2017). Through self-mobilisation, community members are able to establish connections with external entities who may be able to support through their expertise or resources (Pretty 1995: 1252).

Habitually, the dominance of influential figures, actions or groups within a community may significantly direct the participatory process (Bunting 2010: 760). Hence, the ideology or agenda being promoted by such influential figures or actions usually puts poor or disadvantaged community members at a disadvantage (Bunting 2010:760).

The importance of self-mobilisation is further accentuated as it may remedy such dominance of influential figures or fractions. The assertion is premised upon the fact that the self-mobilisation precept empowers the voiceless and minorities within a community. As such, the self-mobilisation concept redistributes resources, wealth and influences amongst community members (Giuliano 2000; Hogg 2016; Ewelum and Mbara 2015). Furthermore, through this concept, less skilled or uneducated community members are often not isolated or side-lined while deliberations over a community initiative are conducted. Often times, the side lining of less skilled or uneducated community members may result in the boycotting of future communal projects, frustration or tension (Bunting 2010: 771). Should such feuds not be addressed timeously, it may create hindrances to the success of developmental initiatives or successive participatory processes within such communities (Pretty 1995).

Furtherance to the advantage of self-mobilisation cited above, this concept also enables community members to control their resources. However, in rural communities such as Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, levels of literacy, exposure, educational background and managerial competence may significantly undermine their contribution in such participatory processes. In addressing such possible hindrances, Jacob and Hart (2012) proposes specified capacitation for such community members. Jacob and Hart (2012) further emphasises the imperativeness of such capacitation, as self-mobilisation has been empirically proven as a concept which can potentially strengthen local government. No doubt, with self-mobilisation, community members can collectively identify their most pertinent needs, and prioritise accordingly. In addition, it could also be used to (positively) influence community members' behaviours, perceptions and practices (Mercy-Corps 2009: 11).

2.5.7 The Participatory Communication approach

The participatory communication approach (PCA) was first adopted during the 1970s. This adoption was premised upon criticism of the modernisation theory which considered the media as the key player in conveying information from advanced nations to under-developed ones. As advocated in the modernisation approach, community members were excluded from the planning and decision-making processes on developmental initiatives within their localities (Grugel and Hammett 2016; Inglehart and Welzel 2009). Paolo Freire (1970) posited a PCA which was characterised by *dialogue, receiver-centredness and a conscious awareness of social structure*. Freire (1970) postulates that community members should be fully involved in identifying (communal) challenges and possible mitigations through dialogic procedures.

Huesca (2008) also explains *PCA as a process of creating and sharing knowledge, understanding and meanings amongst stakeholders, where the project beneficiaries (targeted for change) are actively engaged in the design and implementation of project activities at*

various levels to achieve the desired goals. As implied by Huesca (2008), through PCA, relevant stakeholders, inclusive of community members are involved from the conceptualisation phase to the implementation phase. Agunga (1997) also mention that the involvement of stakeholders induces community participation in identifying and finding solutions to their most pressing issues through community-centric strategies that are considered culturally acceptable within such communities.

According to Mutari and Mwangi (2011), equal participation amongst stakeholders is essential at all phases of a community initiative (project). In line with this, Uphoff (1985) outlined four phases wherein the involvement of all stakeholders is required (Uphoff 1985):

- **Phase 1:** the decision-making process;
- **Phase 2:** the implementation phase;
- **Phase 3:** the evaluation of initiative (project); and
- **Phase 4:** the community jointly benefits from outcome.

Mutari and Mwangi (2011) argue that participation at the ‘decision-making’ phase is the most significant as this enables community members to take ownership of projects which directly impact their community. Melkote and Steeves (2001) emphasise the significance of ‘ownership’ as without such, community members are likely to be resistant towards such community initiatives (projects). Participation in Phase 2 (implementation), Phase 3 (evaluation) and Phase 4 (benefits) are often subject to manipulation by influential figures within the community (Kavinya, Alam and Decock 1994).

The PCA has been applauded by a variety of scholars (Servaes 2000; Mario 2016; Alamgir 1989; Bordenave 1994). However, it is much more cumbersome in practice than theory would suggest. This difficulty in practice is often due to the extensive need for stakeholder

involvement, which is often resource exhaustive (finances, human capital and time). Due to these raised factors, stakeholder involvement is usually minimal (Muturi and Mwangi 2011).

2.5.8 Participatory Action Research (PAR)

The participatory action research (PAR), being an approach that is deeply rooted and interrelated with rural developmental initiatives (Arellano, Balcazar and Suárez 2015 and Rich 2017; Morford, Robinson, Mazzoni, Corbett and Schaiberger 2004) will thus be discussed more in-depth in comparison to earlier theories, concepts and approaches on (rural) development. Hence, in discussing the PAR, the line of discourse will be as follows: brief history; definition; principles and characteristics; when to use the PAR; ethical principles; strengths as well as challenges of the PAR.

History

The PAR can be traced to the founder of action research Kurt Lewin's work in 1944. The philosophy that drove this ideology was that 'individuals are more motivated when involved in the decision-making process about their workplace' (McNiff and Whitehead 2006: 36). Lewin's main precept behind PAR was to address issues related to discrimination, segregation, and assimilation, while assisting individuals to resolve pertinent concerns and initiate changes whilst studying the consequence of those specific changes (Stringer and Genat 2004). Till the present day, Lewin's ideology continues to influence researchers' manner of organising their work. This ideology follows a '*cycle of steps*' which includes – '*observing, reflecting, acting, evaluating and modifying*' (MacDonald 2012: 37). Another core proponent of the PAR is 'Paulo Freire', whose assertion was that critical reflection was critical for social and personal change. Freire's line of reasoning mainly focused on empowering marginalised and poor community members with respect to concerns such as land reform analysis, literacy and their community at large (Freire 1970 cited by MacDonald

2012: 37). Freire was known to have dedicated several years to adult education with studies that predominantly challenged the “*social relationships in traditional education that were based on dominance and power*” (MacDonald 2012: 37). The PAR has emerged from an ideology which shares the vision of a community free from dominance (Maguire 1987). These ideologies began in the fields of social science communities, international development and adult education. Hence, the PAR was associated with the following movements (MacDonald 2012: 37):

- the reformist and radical approaches to global economic development aid;
- perceptions of adult education as an empowering alternative to conventional approaches to schooling; and
- the current discourse within the social sciences over the dominant social science paradigm.

In line with this ideology, a number of researchers such as the feminists equally extended the PAR. Feminists as a group of researchers used this precept in analysing ‘*power differences on the basis of gender*’ and further emphasised the significance of a strong partnership (collaboration) between the investigator (researcher) and researcher participants (MacDonald 2012: 37). Other protagonists of the PAR process are inclusive of Jean McNiff, Jack Whitehead and Robin McTaggart (Ngwenya 2014: 98).

Definition

The PAR has been previously defined from a sociologist, anthropologist, social-psychologist, feminist as well as from a community-based perspective. This term, ‘PAR’, also has been widely used in a number of fields, namely social work, agriculture, health, education and industry (Gillis and Jackson 2002; Koch, Selim and Kralik, 2002; Maguire 1987; and Selener 1997 cited in MacDonald 2012: 38)

Action research is a branch of *'practices of living inquiry that aim, in a great variety of ways, to link practice and ideas in the service of human flourishing'* (Reason and Bradbury 2008: 1). PAR is considered as an approach to an inquiry and not really as a methodology. This approach's objective is to *'create participative communities of inquiry in which qualities of engagement, curiosity and question posing are brought to bear on significant practical issues'* (Reason and Bradbury 2008: 1). Invariable, PAR is more inclined to knowledge creation as it aims to resolve societal challenges through inquiry. Furthermore, PAR considers the research participants and communities as "co-researchers" and not as mere participants of a study from which information is to be extracted (Ngwenya 2014: 98). MacDonald (2012: 35) explains that PAR is seen as a sub-division of action research which is *"the systematic collection and analysis of data for the purpose of taking action and making change"* by generating practical knowledge.

Vollman, Anderson and McFarlane (2004: 129) define PAR as *"a philosophical approach to research that recognises the need for persons being studied to participate in the design and conduct of all phases (e.g., design, execution, and dissemination) of any research that affects them"*

Wadsworth (1998) also defines PAR as a conscious act of *"incorporating the reflection of historical, political, economic and geographic contexts in order to make sense of issues and experiences requiring action for changing or improving a situation. PAR is not only research that is followed by action, it is action that is researched, changed and re-researched within the research process by the participants"*.

From a feminist perspective, Maguire (1987: 29) defines PAR as the combination of *"activities of social investigation, education and action in a collective process. The social investigation activity of PAR included "a method of social investigation of problems,*

involving the participation of oppressed and ordinary people in problem posing and solving”.

According to Maguire (1987 cited by MacDonald 2012: 38), PAR involves three types of changes:

- developing the critical consciousness of an investigator as well as research participants;
- improving livelihood amongst the research participants; and
- transforming the community relationships and structures.

Kemmis and Mc Taggart (2000: 595) cited by Gaffney (2008: 10), explain the PAR through acronyms. They describe PAR as:

Planning a change;

Acting and observing the process and consequence of change;

Reflecting on these processes and consequences; and then re-planning, acting and observing, reflecting, and so on ...

Principles and Characteristics

A study by Taggart (1989) outlines 13 principles of PAR. These are outlined as follows (McTaggart 1989):

- an active strategy for improving communal practices through change;
- congruence on authentic participation;
- requires collaboration;
- establishes self-critical societies;
- involves community members in theorising about their practices;
- requires community members putting their assumptions, ideas and practices about their local government (institutions) to test;
- involves record-keeping;

- requires the objectification of participants' experiences;
- involves making critical analysis;
- approach follows a political procedure;
- PAR commences through small cycles and groups;
- enables participants to form archives; and
- enables participants to offer an articulated justification for their social work to others.

Further to these characteristics advocated by McTaggart (1989), Selenger (1997) equally identifies seven components of the participation action research process. The first identified component being is the challenge originating from the participants' community in which the challenge is well-defined, analysed and resolved by the participants amidst this community. Secondly, the core objective of the PAR is to transform a community while improving the livelihood of participants. Hence, participants are the sole beneficiaries of the PAR process. Thirdly, the process comprises community members at different levels. Fourthly, the process comprises disadvantaged groups of people: the poor, the marginalised and the exploited. Selenger (1997) further cites a fifth component: ability to inform participants of community resources, which may benefit them towards the realisation of self-reliant development. The sixth component holds that the PAR enables a more precise and accurate analysis of a community's reality, while the seventh component instils a sense of responsibility wherein the investigator (researcher) becomes a dedicated participant, learner and facilitator simultaneously. This process invariably nurtures a sense of interventionism, rather than redundancy (MacDonald 2012: 39). Further to the above features, Stringer (1996) points out that the PAR is democratic. Hence, it gives all participants an equal opportunity in the participatory process (Stringer 1996). A number of characteristics of the PAR are summarised in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Characteristics of PAR

S/n	PAR characteristics
1	Instead of being ‘researched’ by an outsider (non-resident of the community), PAR encourages an investigator to become an ‘outsider-insider’, while treating community members (participants) as co-investigators rather than just mere participants (Ngwenya 2014: 98).
2	Despite the low level of education or high illiteracy amongst participants, the investigator does not take them as un-intelligent subjects. Rather, such participants are treated as those who possess knowledge and valuable insights (Guishard 2009: 87).
3	PAR is a societal process which interrogates the nexus between people and their immediate society. It acknowledges the significance of perceiving a society as a unit of identification (Ngwenya 2014: 98).
4	PAR focuses on working with individuals in actualising a mutual and practicable understanding of a specific issue. Through PAR, research is rescued from the dominance of monopoly of knowledge creation by academicians (Ngwenya 2014: 103).
5	PAR acknowledges that knowledge or deeper insight or understanding of a peculiar phenomenon can be socially constructed. This research process liberates individuals from oppressive livelihoods, while offering individuals the opportunity to be heard (Ngwenya 2014: 103).
6	Lastly, while ‘action research’ is conducted with the intent to improve researchers’ practice, PAR encompasses the coming together of participants and investigator to investigate a peculiar challenge; design a practicable line of action; while implementing this design (Ngwenya 2014: 98). Hence, in PAR, the participants significantly benefit.

Suitability of PAR

The suitability of PAR is established in a variety of disciplines. Such disciplines are inclusive of community development; research on marginalised communities or individuals; agriculture; organisational development; adult education; and industrial development (Varcoe 2006; MacDonald 2014: 42; Morales 2016).

As reported by Bailey *et al.* (2006), a combination of qualitative approaches with PAR has the potential to foster empowerment amongst people and their community and stimulate participation in a community, while also solving health inequities. Studies by Green *et al.* (1995) and Kemmis and Taggart (2003) allege that within the field of health, PAR could be used as an empowering tool wherein participants and researcher jointly produce knowledge. Through such process, participants and researchers are able to educate each other while creating awareness. Furthermore, through this process, the community is able to transform, produce or evaluate current policies and community practices (Young 2006: 500).

Gaffney (2008: 12) also mentions that PAR could be used as “*group problem solving*”. PAR for instance may be used to identify a specific challenge amongst farmers of a locality, such a challenge is analysed and followed up with an action plan. Then implementation follows suit. In consonance with the views expressed by Gaffney (2008); Varcoe (2006); Green *et al.* (1995) MacDonald (2012); Young (2006); Kemmis and Taggart (2003); and Bailey *et al.* (2006), it can be deduced that the PAR suits the current study as the researcher involved beneficiaries of rural development initiatives alongside relevant stakeholders to study a common challenge (poverty), while devising plans to tackle it and while also planning to implement the proposed plan collectively.

Ethical Principles

A study by Winter (1987) outlines a variety of ethical considerations that investigators (researchers) should adhere to when conducting PAR. Firstly, relevant authorities, entities and individuals should be contacted and briefed about the process prior to the commencement of the research. Secondly, the active participation of participants should be encouraged, while those who abstain or show no interest in involvement should be respected. Winter (1987) also mentions that the research process should be transparent and open to suggestions or ideas

from participants. An investigator also should ensure that permission is requested from participants prior to the final work being published. Winter (1987) also insists that the investigator (researcher) should ensure that confidentiality is maintained throughout the entirety of this process.

Studies by O'Brien (2001) further elaborates upon those of Winter. O'Brien (2001) alludes that the direction and decision of the research process are jointly agreed upon. Thus, this requires an investigator (researcher) to be explicit and avoid ambiguity while explaining the research process to potential participants prior to the commencement of the research. Biased perceptions or views of participants should be avoided, while the investigator ensures that participants have equal access to accrued information. Furthermore, it is imperative that, the investigator (researcher), prior to commencement of the research process, creates a design which could possibly produce a maximal involvement amidst all participants (MacDonald 2012: 45). All of these raised ethical considerations were thus followed during the course of this research.

Strength

PAR values and pays cognisance to the fact that individuals are 'social beings' within the confines of a social context, economics or politics (McTaggart 1991). Reason and Bradbury (2002: xxii) note that the relevance of the PAR cannot be overemphasised as it endeavours to tackle issues of importance which may comprise pertinent issues concerning man's existence, communal challenges or even significant matters on ecology which directly impact on man's existence.

Consequently, PAR not only capacitates the researcher, but also capacitates the participants (Kelly 2005). Maguire (1987) also mentions that the collaborative approach used during the PAR process creates a sense of ownership of information. Invariably, the research process

becomes de-mystified, which further creates trust between the researcher and participants. Furthermore, the coming together of people with different expertise, knowledge and skill promotes knowledge development and new insights into complexities in some circumstances (Maguire 1987). Through PAR, participants are further likely to sharpen their collective skills, like analytical skills which could aid their decision-making (Maguire 1987 cited by MacDonald 2012: 39). Greenwood, Whyte and Harkayy (1993) also see the PAR process as an emancipating, empowering and self-awareness tool which facilitates a deeper insight into contemporary challenges.

Challenges

Despite the aforementioned strengths of PAR, some critics have raised some of its deficiencies (Greenwood and Levin 1998; Gillis and Jackson 2002; Young 2006; Wadsworth 1998). Greenwood and Levin (1998: 5) raise the concern of possible interchangeability amongst novice researchers, who may interchange the terms ‘participatory action research’ and ‘action research’. Gillis and Jackson (2002) also warn of the possible deterrence amongst participants (community members) who may exit or may not be consistent throughout the PAR process. Moreover, participants may perceive PAR as a time-consuming exercise which may adversely impact their level of contribution (Young 2006). McNiff and Whitehead (2006) also observe that due to divergence in community members’ (participants’) perception and values, disharmony may arise regarding what issues are considered important and less important. Wadsworth (1998) also comments on the possible misinterpretation of results which may invariably result in community discord. In actualising the PAR process, researchers need to gain access into a community prior to the involvement of participants in the research process. This may be burdensome on the side of the researcher if he or she is unfamiliar with the locality, or if the researcher is from a different race or ethnicity. For

instance, prior to the commencement of this study, the researcher was unfamiliar with the communities where the research took place. Thus, access to these communities was initially a challenge.

2.5.9 Modernisation theory of development

The modernisation theory is an economy theory from the mid 1950s. This theory is firmly embedded in capitalism. Proponents of this concept outline a developmental trajectory that an underdeveloped community needs to pass through before it could be termed as a ‘modern’ or developed community (Hussain *et al.* 1981; Lenin 1964). In attaining a modern state, the modernists are of the view that African states will need to emulate the Eurocentric developmental route. Modernists advocate that pro-poor policies should be centred around sharing useful information and knowledge on more effectual strategies of production. Ellis and Biggs (2001) exemplify this strategy when they explain that in order to modernise farming, farmers are introduced to innovative production techniques and new seedlings, while their marketing skills are being sharpened. Through such modernised adoption, farmers are being introduced to genetically modified (GMO) food; transitions from traditional means of production to mechanised farming; green-house technology; and so on. Invariably, modernisation implies the transition from old farming practices to modernised practices (Przeworski and Limongi 2012; Smith 1973: 61).

However, some developmental analysts are of the view that Africa already had its developmental trajectory before the arrival of the Europeans (Matunhu 2011; Austin 2010). A book titled – ‘*How Europe underdeveloped Africa*’ by Rodney (1972) revealed that prior the arrival of Europeans to Africa in the 15th century, a number of great empires were already in existence. Some of these prominent empires were inclusive of Shaka in Zululand, the great empires of Mali and Songhay, as well as the kingdom of the Dahomey. These empires already carved their developmental trajectory and were wealthy and powerful (Rodney 1972).

Prominent means of livelihood amongst these African empires were goldsmiths; cloth-making; wood-carving; traditional doctors; sculptors of terracotta, iron and wood; weavers; and subsistence farmers. Also notable during this era was the advanced means of food preservation amongst these empires (Matunhu 2011).

The claims by Rodney (1972) are reiterated by Samir, Chitala and Mandaza (1987) who affirm that prior to the arrival of Europeans in Africa, a number of African empires and communities already used advanced techniques and technologies. This indicates that the African continent already found its developmental trajectory prior to the infusion of Eurocentric developmental ideas. However, Samir *et al.* (1987) are of the view that the arrival of the Portuguese in 1444 (to Africa) slightly influenced the African developmental path. Since the 15th century, the Europeans promoted a Eurocentric agenda deliberately orchestrated as a means to enriching and developing Europe at the expense of Africa (Austin 2010). Thus, during the same era, the Europeans believed that for Africa to attain development, it had to undergo five developmental phases. These five phases are outlined in the Rostowian theory as follows (Matunhu 2011: 66):

- (i) **Primitive society:** The economies herein are sustained through barter trade and subsistence farming;
- (ii) **Preparation for take-off:** This phase is characterised by specialisation; excessive production of commodities; development of transportation infrastructure to boost trade; investment and savings;
- (iii) **Take-off:** During this phase, the economy transitions from an agricultural-driven economy to manufacturing. Economy gradually evolves to an industrialised one;

(iv) **Drive to maturity:** The reliance on import commodities declines, while the economy diversifies and continuously creates newer sectors;

(v) **Period of mass consumption:** On the final phase, the economy continuously produces surpluses, while the service sector progressively expands.

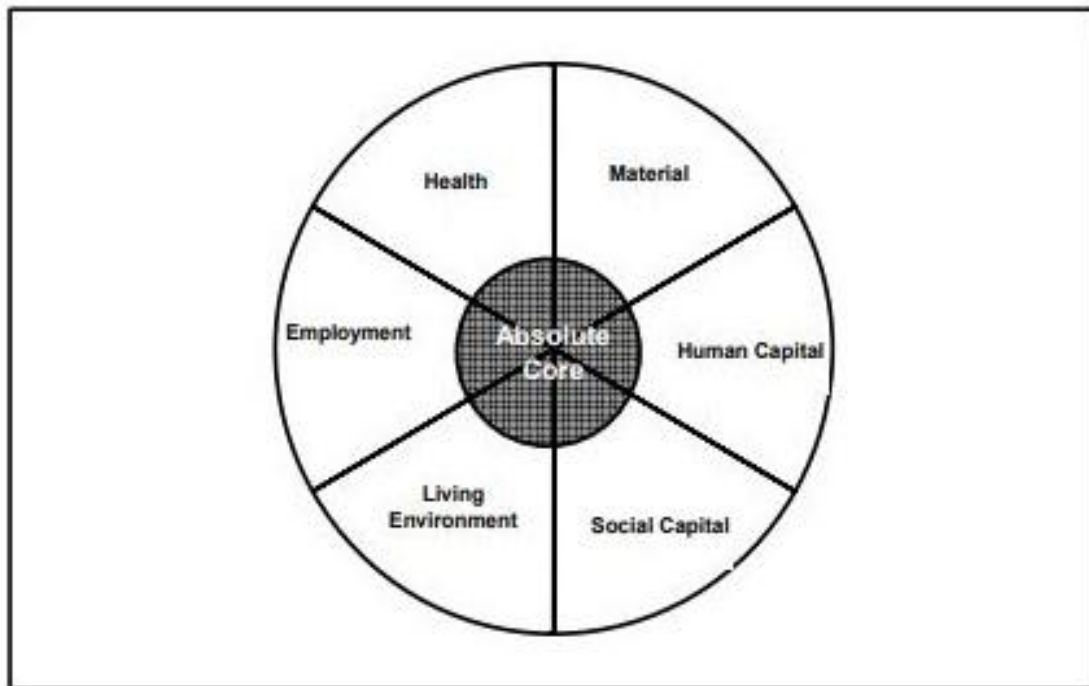
In terms of these developmental phases, it is conceivable to design the African continent on a linear developmental trajectory. In Matunhu's (2011: 66) view, such linearity is relatively too theoretical. The linear development trajectory advocated by the Rostowian theory may therefore not be contextualised to most Africa economies that have manufacturing, tourism and agriculture as some of their dominant sectors.

Modernists are thus of the view that respective countries progress to modernity at different paces. Such a pace is often dependent upon the versatility and adaptability of the particular nation. Economic destabilisation by pandemics, conflicts, natural disasters and wars equally create setbacks to developmental progression (Gries and Haake 2016; Coccia 2018; Palmer, Nguyen and Mitra 2019). Matunhu (2011: 66) further contends that Modernity theorists incorrectly portray the developmental theory as a '*dichotomous movement from an original terminal situation to an achieved situation with the help of developed countries*'. Such conceived Eurocentric theoretical perception is often not the reality amongst African countries.

Also relevant to the current discussion is Figure 2.2 which attempts to depict the fundamental requirements of every individual. This figure illustrates a scenario wherein individuals or household members have a dignified, just and fair, peaceful and supportive community and local governance which promotes their welfare privileges; facilitates individuals' basic necessities; and supports their aspirations, while providing self-reliance and capacity-driven

initiatives. All of these are seen as a means to enabling individuals to be involved in political, economic as well as social endeavours (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 27).

Figure 2.2: Basic human needs

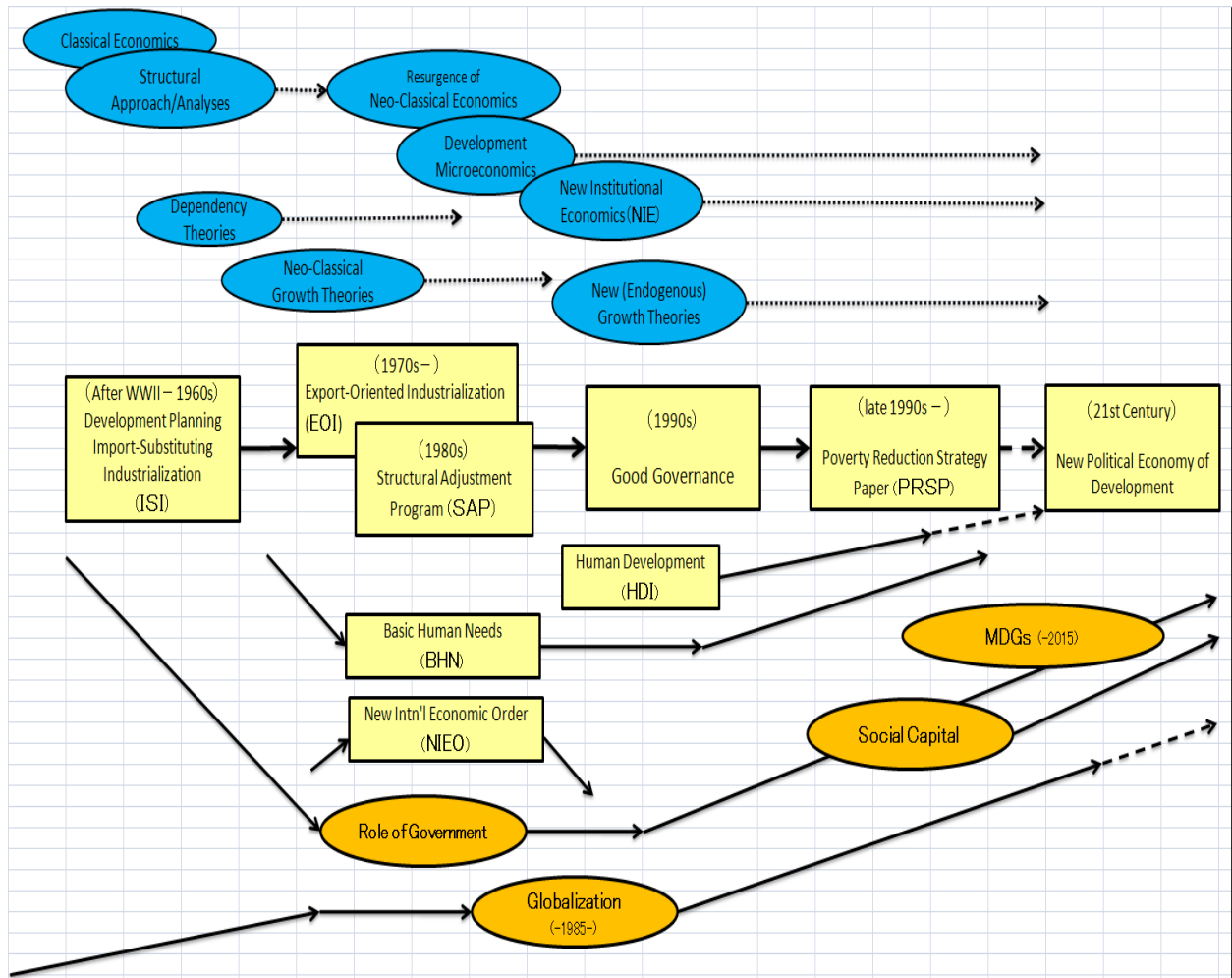


Source: Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute (2007: 27)

The Model illustrated in Figure 2.2 is in consonance with the South African *White Paper on Social Welfare* (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 27). The model contained herein is further explicated in the concluding chapter of this study.

Otsubo's (2011) write up - the "Evolution of Development Paradigms and Economic Development" explains a variety of rural developmental approaches pictorially. These figures illustrate the transition and development of the afore-discussed rural developmental concepts, approaches and theories. Each of Figures 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 reveal these transitional phases.

Figure 2.3: The Evolution of a Development Paradigm (1)



Source: Adapted from Otsubo (2011: 4)

The diagram illustrates the evolution of development economics through various theories and policy frameworks over time.

Theories and Approaches (Top Section):

- Classical Economics** leads to **Structural Approach/Analyses**.
- Structural Approach/Analyses** leads to **Resurgence of Neo-Classical Economics**.
- Resurgence of Neo-Classical Economics** leads to **Development Microeconomics**.
- Development Microeconomics** leads to **New Institutional Economics (NIE)**.
- Dependency Theories** leads to **Neo-Classical Growth Theories**.
- Neo-Classical Growth Theories** leads to **New (Endogenous) Growth Theories**.
- NIE** and **New (Endogenous) Growth Theories** have further horizontal arrows pointing right.

Development Strategies and Frameworks (Middle Section):

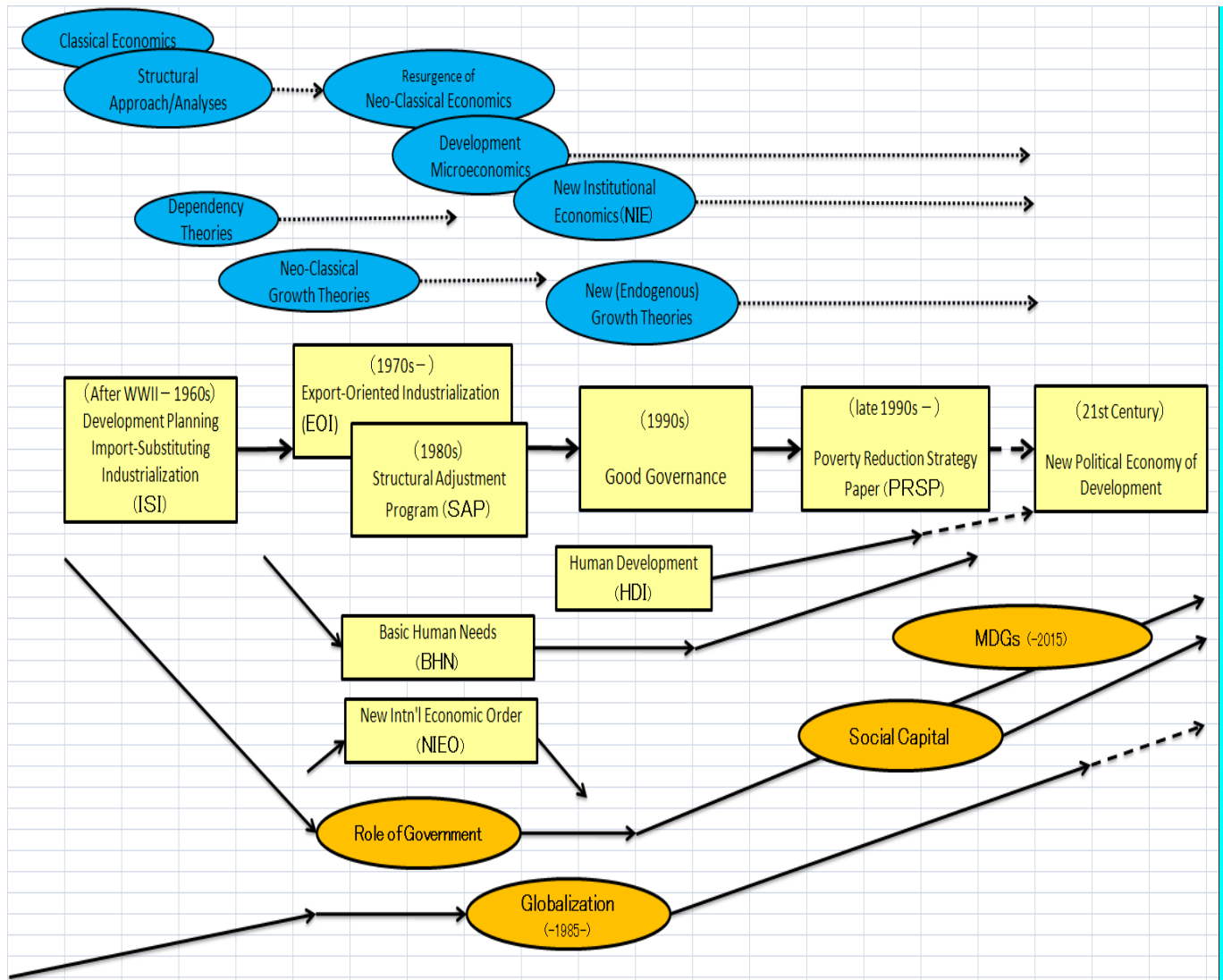
- (After WWII – 1960s) Development Planning Import-Substituting Industrialization (ISI)** leads to **(1970s –) Export-Oriented Industrialization (EOI)**.
- (1970s –) Export-Oriented Industrialization (EOI)** leads to **(1980s) Structural Adjustment Program (SAP)**.
- (1980s) Structural Adjustment Program (SAP)** leads to **(1990s) Good Governance**.
- (1990s) Good Governance** leads to **(late 1990s –) Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)**.
- (late 1990s –) Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)** leads to **(21st Century) New Political Economy of Development**.
- Human Development (HDI)** is linked to the transition from PRSP to the 21st Century.

Foundational and Influencing Factors (Bottom Section):

- (After WWII – 1960s) Development Planning Import-Substituting Industrialization (ISI)** also leads to **Basic Human Needs (BHN)**.
- (1970s –) Export-Oriented Industrialization (EOI)** also leads to **Basic Human Needs (BHN)**.
- Basic Human Needs (BHN)** leads to **New Intn'l Economic Order (NIEO)**.
- (1980s) Structural Adjustment Program (SAP)** also leads to **New Intn'l Economic Order (NIEO)**.
- New Intn'l Economic Order (NIEO)** leads to **Role of Government**.
- Role of Government** leads to **Globalization (~ 1985-)**.
- Globalization (~ 1985-)** leads to **Social Capital**.
- Social Capital** leads to **MDGs (~2015)**.
- MDGs (~2015)** leads to **New Political Economy of Development**.
- Globalization (~ 1985-)** also has a dashed arrow pointing towards the right.

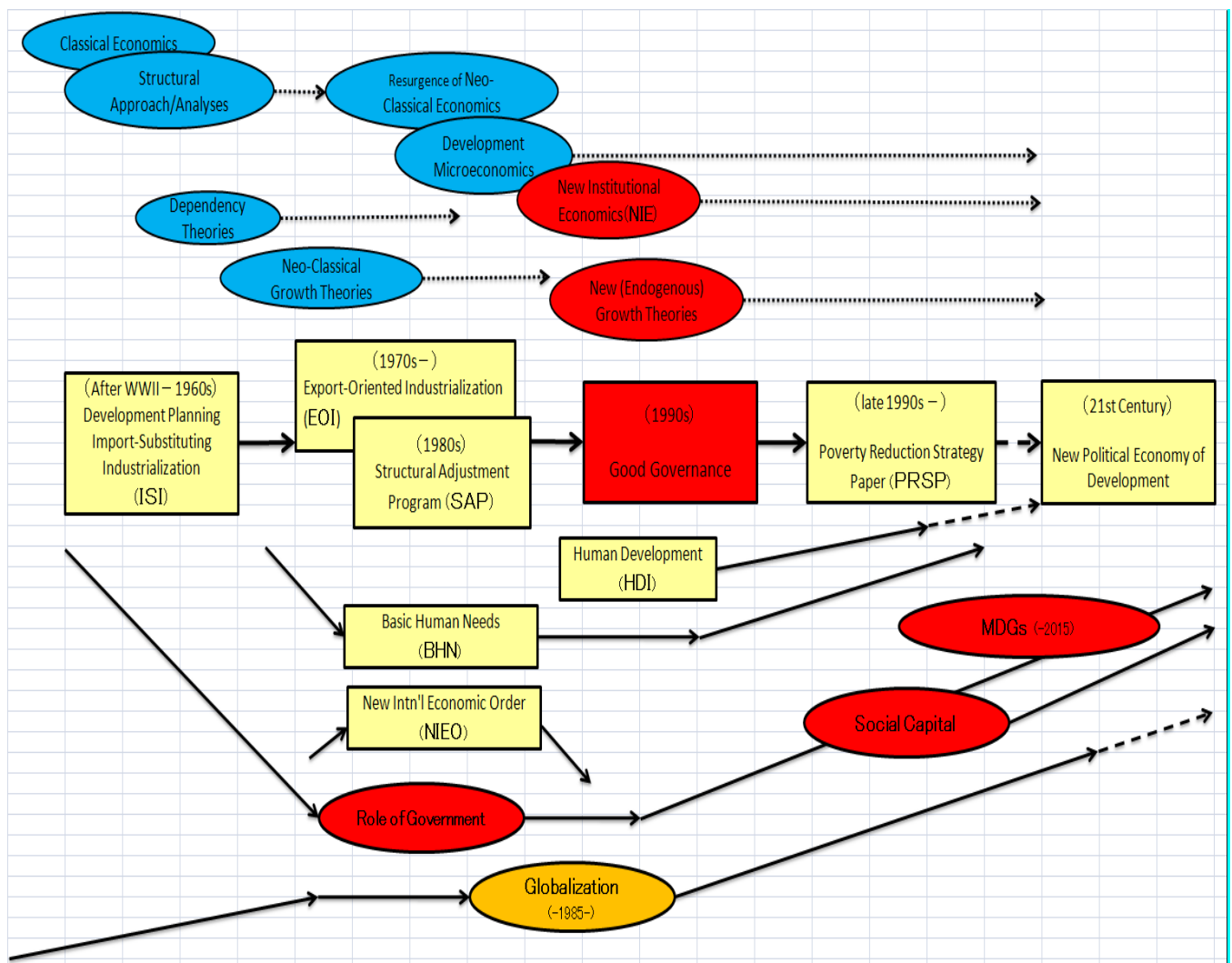
Source: Adapted from Otsubo (2011: 7)

Figure 2.5: The Evolution of a Development Paradigm (3)



Source: Adapted from Otsubo (2011: 12)

Figure 2.6: The Evolution of a Development Paradigm (4)



Source: Adapted from Otsubo (2011: 13)

As observed in Figure(s) 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6 respectively, the transition occurrences between the end of the 2nd World War (1944) and the 1960s began the Developmental Planning phase. This era was accentuated by “Import-substituting Industrialisation’ (ISI). By the 1970s, the world was witnessing an ‘Export-Oriented Industrialisation’(EOI). Otsubo (2011) further denotes the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) of the 1980s. A decade later, the SAP was characterised by ‘Good governance’. By the late 1990s, the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) was drafted. Thus, during the 21st Century, a ‘New Political Economy of

Development’ was instituted. Notable during this transition are the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of 2015. Also notable from the figures is how the ‘Classical economics’-Structural Approach’ metamorphosed into a resurgence of Neo-classical economics and eventually to the New (Endogenous) Growth Theories.

Having discussed a variety of key concepts, approaches and theories aligned to rural development, the following section further provides the relevance of three specific approaches which this study adopts. These are inclusive of Participatory Action Research (PAR), the Participatory Communication Approach (PCA) and Self-mobilisation (SM). However, due to the aptness of PAR, the researcher gives more prominence to it in comparison to the PCA and SM. The researcher acknowledges that there are a variety of theoretical perspectives which can serve as a lens to the subject area, but incorporates the aforementioned as they are deeply rooted and interrelated to rural developmental initiatives.

2.6 Relevance of selected rural development approaches

Having explored a number of developmental concepts, approaches and theories in the previous section, this section attempts to accentuate the relevance of Participatory Action Research, the Participatory Communication Approach and Self-mobilisation to this study. These are elaborated upon below.

2.6.1 Participatory action research

According to York, Feiock and Steinacker (2013), it is imperative to explore the different dimensions towards addressing developmental issues. Moreover, it is widely acknowledged that a variety of theoretical perspectives can serve as a lens to the subject area, but incorporates the aforementioned to discuss the literature as they are deeply rooted and interrelated to rural developmental initiatives.

Participatory action research (PAR) not only deals with knowledge creation, but also aims to tackle the social issues illuminated by inquiry. This approach differs from the conventional manner of viewing research participants as sources through which data can be obtained by going a step further in involving such participants as “co-investigators” (Ngwenya 2014: 98).

According to Grant, Nelson and Mitchell (2008:589), the core objectives of PAR are inclusive of participatory democracy, empowerment, emancipation, as well as the eradication of social issues. It propounds that the desired developmental initiative needs to be executed, assessed and planned repeatedly in a cyclical manner and possibly numerous times. Thus, this requires consistency and tenacity, which are traits likely to be found by concerned beneficiaries rather than outside investigators or researchers.

2.6.2 Participatory Communication Approach

On the contrary, the Participatory Communication approach is a practice amongst stakeholders whereby they create and share knowledge, in which case the beneficiaries of such projects are enthusiastically involved in the formulation and execution of the project activities at different stages to attain a desired objective (Huesca 2008: 102). This approach thus involves the mobilisation of community participation in identifying and tackling the most pertinent and pressing communal challenges through community-based initiatives which are deemed acceptable by such a community (United Nations Development Programme 1993: 19; Berkowitz and Muturi 1999: 36).

2.6.3 Self-mobilisation

Self-mobilisation slightly differs from the aforementioned two precepts as it involves external contacts. The principle upholding Self-mobilisation promotes the initiation of ideas by community members who initiate connections from outside contacts, while jointly managing the resources with their community (Pretty 1995: 1252). Theron (2015: 115) further

expounds on this concept when he defines Self-mobilisation as the participatory involvement of community members who independently initiate initiatives and take up such initiatives to external institutions as a means of solving communal issues. He further asserts that this form of involvement is a bottom-up approach with an agenda to request resources while seeking technical advice. The precept of self-mobilisation has proven to be a pivotal constituent for accelerating and underpinning governance at grassroots level.

The applicability of the aforementioned precepts is thus relevant due to deficiencies in the approaches used in addressing rural development issues within the South African context. The core rural developmental initiatives used by the South African government, namely CRDP, IDP and RDP are orchestrated at the national level, while implementation takes place at the grassroots level. Researchers such as Chivhinge and Moodley (2012: 78) and Jacobs and Hart (2012:16) have often raised these issues as some of the core reasons for the disconnect between the government and the populace.

The reasons cited are amongst the causes of the slow progress in rural development. This argument is further buttressed as South Africa ranks amongst countries with the highest inequality gap globally (Aucoin, Ciara; Cilliers and Jakkie 2016; Rogerson and Nel 2016). Furthermore, only three percent of the South African populace are involved in the formulation of the IDP process (Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 239-242). Research in this field has shown that some of these rural developmental initiatives are either instigated or doctored by international development agencies or are alien to the South African developmental challenges. This demonstrates the imperative nature of the aforementioned theories to the current study as they advocate an all-inclusive and interactive participatory approach.

Empirical studies have proven that most rural development stakeholders work in isolation (Aucoin, Ciara; Cilliers and Jakkie 2016; Rogerson and Nel 2016). This statement is based

upon assertions such as researchers' remarkable findings and recommendations are not being executed by government; as well as the notable disparity between the needs of rural community members and the services provided by local government (Cousin, Dubb, Hornby and Mtero 2018; du Toit 2019).

Hence, the uniqueness of this study lies in its intent to aggregate the knowledge and expertise of rural development stakeholders into one study. Through this approach, the study recommends guidelines towards successful rural development amongst the communities of Mgbodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni (see Sections 9.4 and 9.5).

2.7 Critique on rural developmental concepts, approaches and theories

This section raises some criticism of a number of rural developmental theories and further explains how such shortfalls are addressed in the current study. A major consensus amongst developmental and policy analysts is that 'no singular rural developmental approach fits into every community or region of the globe' (Bohnet and Konold 2015; Morrone 2017; Segers, Dessein, Nyssen and Haile 2019). Therefore, a seemingly "appropriate approach" in a specific region will be flawed or considered inappropriate in another region (Moomen and Dewan 2017). Moreover, several adopted rural development or developmental approaches or models adopted on the African continent are often doctored or instigated by international developmental entities, which often do not align with the complex African or South African developmental challenges (Chukwuokolo 2009; Austin 2010; Abdi 2010; Koot 2016).

One such approach which seems not to fit into the South African rural development context is the 'Systems approach'. This approach only emphasises the systematic quality of the rural community, which is being controlled by tradition and environment. Hence, it can describe change only within the context of a phenomenon which takes place as a consequence of an external factor acting upon a rural community. It thus overlooks the *relationship of mutual*

determination amongst the national and rural community; wherein each of these entities are interrelated and inter dependent (Howlader 2014: 103). Additionally, the Systems Approach overlooks processes of change which could be internal to an agrarian community. The Systems Approach places much emphasis on material concerns such as the environment and population and almost overlooks important facets such as market and social relations while explaining poverty and rural development (Howlader 2014: 103).

On the contrary, Neo-populist' protagonists believe that '*peasant production*' is efficient, homogenous and stable (**producers**) and they do **not** sight **any** form of dissimilarities amongst the peasantry. The argument purported by Neo-populists is that land redistribution is the key factor to agricultural development (Howlader 2014: 104). However, this view has been widely challenged because, if farmers have access to land but do not possess the required farming tools, fertile soil, technical competence, capital and compensating human resource in consonance to the size of farm land, such anticipated agricultural development may be far from realistic (Jara 2018; Satgé 2013). Furthermore, the Structural Approach overlooks the physical conditions as well as the independent role of the farmer in decision-making with respect to the allocation of resources and places emphasis only on the '*social character of production*' (Howlader 2014: 104). On the other hand, the Systems Approach denotes rural development challenges within the confines of the physical conditions of a community. The domain in the Systems Approach is narrow with respect to decision-making. It only emphasises the role of decisions and choices made by individuals and ignores the social character of the individual, as well as societal physical conditions. Narrower (with regards to decision-making) is the Neo-populist which tends to explain the survival capability of peasant production and efficiency and ignores every aspect of the rural economy (Howlader 2014: 105).

Margarian (2011) also contributes to this discussion. In Margarian's (2011: 8) view, Rural Developmental Programmes are often ineffective due to their inconsistent implementation and poor theoretical foundations. Dax, Kahila and Hörnström (2011: 6) further support this view by exemplifying with the inadequacy of analysis regarding the nexus between 'general development' and 'rural development', as well as the non-closing gap between policy practice and academic discourse. Dwyer *et al.* (2007: 880) quoted by Margarian' (2011: 8) cites a deep-rooted level of conservatism in the manner in which rural development programmes are designed and implemented. Their study revealed that the existing variety within the 'national Rural Developmental Strategies' do not align with the existing socio-economic and structural differences at the local level. Thus, the anticipated integrated plan seen by the planners remains unachievable (Margarian' 2011: 8).

In a study by Margarian (2013: 1), she argues that the Endogenous development approach does not align with the needs and aspirations of rural communities. This assertion is based on the view that – neither the economic elements of rural developmental policies in general nor endogenous development are geared towards the 'precise economic necessities' and abilities of rural communities. Furthermore, Markusen (2003: 701) cited by Margarian (2013: 5) argues that implementing regional models is often a mammoth task as executors face severe difficulties in putting theory into practice. This difficulty is attributed to the '*vague causal connections and replacement of agents with passive processes and abstract social phenomena*' (Margarian 2013: 5).

Matunhu (2011) criticises the Modernisation and Dependency theories. In his argument, he alleges that 'the adoption of the modernisation and dependency theory' has been the cause of under-development on the African continent (Matunhu 2011: 65). Poverty alleviation initiatives and policies have often been driven by developmental theories, which are often not in alignment to grassroots fundamental requirements (Matunhu 2011: 65). These modernistic

theories (policies) are often a top-down approach wherein Africa is perceived as a ‘*responsibility of the metropolitan state*’. This gives leverage to the western nations to have full-control of the developmental direction that they consider the African continent should pursue. Western nations thus adopt a developmental approach whereby the “*finances are produced, packaged and sent to Africa by the economically powerful states*”. This is orchestrated in such a manner that the beneficiaries are thus subdued and marginalised (Matunhu 2011: 71). Matunhu (2011: 72) further alleges that the slow pace of development on the African continent, particularly amongst rural communities, is due to the ‘cultural clash’ amongst two varying developmental spheres – Africa and the Western world. The later, due to its technological advancement and strategic progression over Africa, has had the autonomy to suppress the African value system and culture. Hence, Africa lost its chance to attain development (Matunhu 2011: 72).

Having raised some of the above critiques, this study intends to address these developmental deficiencies through the proposal of rural developmental approaches which align to rural communities wherein this study is being conducted. In so doing, the adopted rural development theories/approaches/ models (in this study) will emerge through the amalgamation of ideas, views and remarks of multiple-actors, with community members taking the centre stage. Through this, a bottom-up rural developmental approach/ model explicit to the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni is proposed. Additionally, a careful deduction of specific theories earlier discussed in this chapter are incorporated in an integrated fashion, while making recommendations in the final chapter of this study (Chapter 9).

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter argues that there is no specific or exclusive designated rural development concept, approach, theory or model. Rather, there are a variety of developmental trajectories

which stem from the output of a combination of stakeholders at global, regional, national and local levels; under a variety of settings or circumstances. This chapter provided an analysis of pertinent and relevant concepts, theories and approaches related to the study. The study adopted the Participatory Action Research, Self-Mobilisation as well as the Participatory Communication approaches due to their aptness, relativity and significance to the current study.

The next chapter thus sustains the discourse through discussions on the ‘imperatives of rural development’.

CHAPTER THREE – IMPERATIVES FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented an analysis of concepts, approaches and theories relating to rural development. This chapter commences by defining two key terms - rurality and rural development, which is followed by a discussion on the evolution of development and rural development in the last two centuries. It goes further to discuss how drastically changing global dynamics as well as the capitalistic South African system has adversely undermined development in rural South Africa.

An in-depth discussion of the imperative nature of rural development on a global scale, which is downsized to the African continent and then to South Africa is also narrated. This chapter equally provide literature with the intent of creating a vivid depiction of rural South Africa, wherein recent statistical figures relating to the livelihood of these deprived communities are highlighted. This further emphasises the necessity of the current study, while also buttressing the problem statement discussed in the preliminary chapter of this study. Aspects such as the role rural developmental stakeholders play in addressing poverty and the necessity of monitoring rural developmental initiatives are equally highlighted.

Additionally, this chapter serves as the first literature review (chapter) amongst the four literature reviews of the current study. While the second literature review (Chapter 4) presents an in-depth description of present day rural South Africa, wherein the cases of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are used as case studies, the third literature review (Chapter 5) provides a discussion of successful rural developmental initiatives amongst the BRICS nations. Furthermore, the fourth literature review (Chapter 6) provides a detailed and comprehensive description of rural developmental initiatives implemented between 1994 to the present day, with particular emphasis on Jacob Zuma's tenure.

3.2 Legacy of the apartheid era

A distinctive feature setting South Africa apart from other nations is the apartheid era. According to Westaway (2010: 2), this era was characterised by an oppressive White government ruling over other races. The legacy of the apartheid era brought about inequality, marginalisation and discrimination between the White and Black populace (Westaway 2010: 3). The minority White population dominated the country's vast amount of resources, while the Black populace were neglected. Blacks were confined to communities referred to as Homelands. These communities were often characterised by a high incidence of poverty, overcrowding and poor service delivery (Beinart and Dubow 1995; Ratele 2015; Bacus 2013: 31). These injustices posed a major challenge to the post-apartheid government of 1994, which had to bridge the gap between the "haves" and "have nots" (Chipkin and Lipietz 2012: 5).

On the 27th of April 1994, Homelands, also referred to as the 'Bantustans', ceased to exist as these homelands were integrated into the nine provinces. A major challenge faced by these homelands after 1994 were inadequate resources and corruption amongst government officials (Kendrick 2000). Furthermore, the homelands were characterised by over-populated rural settlements with constricted economic opportunities (South Africa 2014: 8). A staggering 2 700 informal settlements accommodate as many as 1.2 million households, amongst which 713 000 resided in backyard shacks in 2012. Two decades after apartheid rule, poverty, inequality and marginalisation are still common features of the former homelands as most of these communities still lack socio-economic development prospects and have poor service delivery (South Africa 2014: 26; Kepe 2016; Mothetha, Nkuna and Mema 2013; Ainslie and Kepe 2016).

The challenges faced by the marginalised homelands of the apartheid regime are synonymous with present day rural South Africa which has not fully benefitted from the transformation of

the post-apartheid era (Booyens and Hart 2019; Holmes, Palmer, and de Wet 2016; Tomlinson 2017). Hence, it was imperative to critically interrogate current rural development initiatives, whilst pinpointing the obstacles hindering rural development in South Africa. Notably, 25 years down the line, there has been little progress in rural development as South Africa has the highest inequality gap globally (Flavio 2015: 2; Mail and Guardian 2015: 2; Meiring, Kannemeyer and Potgieter 2018).

Rural development, being a critical issue in South Africa, has compelled several governmental and non-governmental bodies, academics, politicians and economic analysts to conduct studies in this field. Quite a significant number of research initiatives on rural development have been conducted in South Africa and globally. Several studies on rural development have emanated on climate change, policies, agriculture and subsistence farming, rural empowerment, water resource management as well as studies on the monitoring and evaluation of rural development (Aliber and Mart 2010; Averbek 2008; Bhatti, Koike and Nasu 2012; Finn, Leibbraudt and Wegner 2011; Council for Scientific and Industrial Research 2010). However, only a few studies have been conducted on the extent to which rural development initiatives has contributed to rural livelihood, with a particular focus on poverty. The indicator in measuring poverty herein will be based on the Lower-Bound Poverty Line (LBPL) set by the Statistics South Africa (2017:7). Additionally, the current study will outline the imperatives necessary for rural development and the capacity of the post-apartheid government to deliver on these initiatives, more especially as such study has been conducted on the three focus areas identified for this study. The capacity of local government officials to deliver on their mandate will be measured against the requirements outlined in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), role of Councillors outlined by the South African Local Government Association (SALGA), as well as comments made by community members regarding the performance of their respective Councillors.

3.3 The Millennium Development Goals

Quite similar to the Basic needs approach is the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which advocates provision for the basic needs of the poor (McArthur 2014: 6). The MDG has primarily been funded by the wealthy nations (McArthur 2014: 6) and gained optimal momentum in 2005 globally. These were further stimulated by the Millennium Development Project instituted by the United Nations, publicised under the theme “Make Poverty History”. With the main agenda been poverty eradication, substantial amounts of investment were made in the agricultural sector, infrastructural development and educational, as well as the health sector (McArthur 2014: 10-14). The MDGs’ agenda was similar to that of South Africa’s rural development stakeholders.

The subsequent narrations herein summarise the evolution of rural development (development) within the confines of South Africa. The economic development witnessed (in South Africa) between 1948 and 1976 was driven by the ‘*Group Areas Act of 1950, the Promotion of Bantu Homelands Citizens Act of 1970 and the general ‘Grand Apartheid’ Policy*’ (Bannister 2000 cited by Obadire *et al.* 2013:277). The “Bantustan” policy was facilitated through the fast pace of industrialisation during this era (Aspirant 2004; Kole 2005 cited by Obadire *et al.* 2013: 277). Rural development during this time was termed “superficial” as it occurred during an *industrial decentralisation process* in the 1970s. This process resulted in the subsidisation of industrial zones which were reserved for the Black populace. This subsidisation was a means to divert investments from the already developed metropolitan to the potential “White” dominated towns, around which mushroomed rural communities dominated by the Black populace (Obadire *et al.* 2013: 277). Many job opportunities were created at the *expense of sustainable economic development* (Kole 2005 cited by Obadire *et al.* 2013: 277). Despite these job opportunities, workers spent a large portion of their wages on transport fare as a resolution enacted by the Group Areas Act

denied the Black populace the opportunity to live in close proximity to industrial zones. Furthermore, the rural development initiatives during the Apartheid regime were only structured to improve the living conditions of the Black majority who lived in these deprived localities. Nevertheless, the developmental initiatives during the Apartheid regime were not mainly targeted at rural communities, but inversely impacted on the level of development amongst Black communities (Obadire *et al.* 2013: 277).

Labuschagne (2015: 128) summarises the evolution of rural development in South Africa into four phases, namely pre-1994; years 1994-1999; 1999 to 2008; and lastly the post-2009 era. The pre-1994 era was characterised by high levels of cyclical poverty and underdevelopment. A majority of the Black-dominated communities had infrastructural backlogs which exacerbated their levels of paucity (African National Congress 1994: 20). The Freedom Charter adopted on the 25th of June 1955 paved the way for the initiation of a *rural development strategy*. The goal of this initiative was primarily to promote economic justice for the rural populace and was equally aimed at ensuring a sustainable livelihood as, “*no one shall go hungry*” “*land shall be shared amongst those who work it*” (Labuschagne 2015: 128).

On the 27th of April 1994, South Africa elected its first democratically elected leader and government. This electoral mandate renewed the hopes of previously marginalised South Africans who were highly expectant of a better livelihood. The years between 1994 and 1999 predominantly focused on the formulation of new policies and re-allocating resources to the marginalised communities of South Africa (Everatt 2003: 3). The South African government released four documents centred on developmental concerns between 1994-1999. Firstly, the Rural Development Programme (RDP) was instituted in 1994. This was followed by the Rural Development Strategy (RDS) in 1995. The Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy was instituted in 1996, while the Rural Development Framework (RDF)

was introduced a year after in 1997 (Labuschagne 2015: 127). The programmes and policies constituted during the 1994-1999 period focused on “implementation” and “delivery”. The 1999 to 2009 transition brought about the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) in 2001, as well as the War on Poverty (WOP) in 2008. These two initiatives were fundamental rural developmental programmes (Labuschagne 2015:133-134). The National government, having realised that the initially instituted rural developmental initiatives did not yield the desired result through the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) launched the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) in 2009. This rural development initiative replaced the RDF and ISRDP. The CRDP’s uniqueness was the deliberate involvement of multiple stakeholders. Additionally, the CRDP incorporated a short- medium-and long-term plan into its agenda, in comparison to most other rural developmental initiatives which were planned on a short-term basis (Labuschagne 2015: 137-138). Table 3.1 summarises the main rural development initiatives in the post-apartheid dispensation. It provides the year the initiatives were launched, while also stating their core objectives.

Table 3.1: Major rural developmental initiatives in the Post-apartheid era

Year	Rural developmental initiative	Initiated period	Core aim
1994	Reconstruction and Development Programme	Nelson Mandela’s administration	To address the immense socio-economic problems brought about by the consequences of the struggle against its predecessors under the apartheid regime. Mainly focused on poverty alleviation and service delivery.
1995	Rural Development Strategy of the Government of	Nelson Mandela’s administration	To create a productive and sustainable rural community through the

	National Unity		participation of community members.
1996	Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR)	Nelson Mandela's administration	To stimulate faster economic growth amongst the entirety of South Africa.
1997	Rural Development Framework	Nelson Mandela's administration	To address inequalities and underdevelopment in the state of rural areas during the apartheid era, while aiming to rapidly achieve a sustained reduction in absolute poverty amongst the rural populace.
2001	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy	Thabo Mbeki's administration	To intensify a sustained attack on poverty and underdevelopment throughout South Africa.
2006	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA)	Thabo Mbeki's administration	To drive rapid job creation, ensure the availability of needed skills, create opportunities for those marginalised in the second economy and maintaining policies that will bring about macroeconomic stability.
2008	War on Poverty	Thabo Mbeki's administration	To reduce poverty amongst the poorest South African citizens.
2009	Comprehensive Rural Development Plan	Jacob Zuma's administration	To mobilise and empower rural communities to take initiatives aimed at controlling of their own destiny. To achieve social cohesion and development by ensuring improved access to basic services, enterprise development and village industrialisation.
2010	National Outcome 7	Jacob Zuma's administration	To drive vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities and food security.
2011	New Growth Path	Jacob Zuma's administration	Aimed at enhancing growth, employment creation and equity, wherein five million jobs were planned to be created

			over a 10-year period.
2012	National Development Plan 2030	Jacob Zuma's administration	A comprehensive long term plan to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030.

Each of the aforementioned initiatives in this section is further elaborated upon in Chapter 6. While this study provides the successes and shortfalls of all the rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era, a more in-depth discussion is made in Chapter 6 on the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP). This will entail a comprehensive review, evaluation and analysis. The CRDP has been singled out since a majority of the previous rural development initiatives have become obsolete.

3.4 Global-National dynamics versus rural communities

Having presented a rhetoric (in the previous section) on the evolution of rural development over the past ages, the current sub-section further narrates how global forces directly and indirectly impact on rural livelihoods. It further explains how the internal dynamics in South Africa impact on rural communities.

The Donald Trump administration, long before his declaration to run for the American Presidency, had issued periodic affirmations stating that the global warming debate on climate change is a 'man-made myth' which he believes will negatively impact on the American manufacturing sector (Mann and Hassol 2017: 1; Washington Post 2017: 2). Trump's climate change denial is in far contrast to the Paris Climate Agreement which promotes a reduction in the volumes of carbon emissions by the main Ozone polluters, such as the United States of America, China and India (Simidian, Albert, Bradley, Woodruff, Heiser, Handelman and Ward 2017:2-4; Washington Post 2017: 2). He has agitated to scrap

Obama's greenhouse gas policies, as well as the Paris Agreement of 2015 on Climate change (Mann and Hassol 2017: 1; Washington Post 2017: 2).

This decision has a number of grievous consequences for the poor. Firstly, it implies that the United States Finance will cut finances to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Prior to Donald Trump's ascension to office, the United States had pledged three billion US dollars of the ten billion budget for the Green Climate Fund for 2018. Of this three billion US dollars, only 500 million US dollars has been disbursed thus far. Hence, Donald Trump has decided to stop the funding (Simidian *et al.* 2017:4). Climate change experts have ostracised this decision as the US as considered as one of the main nations exacerbating the climate change crisis. On the contrary, poor rural communities are often the most vulnerable as they are often dependent on natural resources and are usually the most vulnerable to floods and hunger due to the adverse consequences emanating from climate change (Friends of the Earth 2016: 3; Ofoegbu and Chirwa Francis and Babalola 2017: 3; Huq, Hugé, Boon and Gain 2015: 8449-8451). A further global dominating factor currently (adversely) impacting on rural communities is 'unfair trade agreements'. Concurrent trade agreements, particularly in the agricultural sector, benefit the westernised countries, while often being detrimental to the African continent. Global trade policies often undermine the efforts of subsistence farmers in rural communities as these policies are often tailored to favour capitalised-western agricultural countries (Amzat and Olutayo 2009: 240; Teryima 2013: 34).

On the national front, a number of pertinent concerns have equally aggravated livelihoods in rural communities. Concurrent internal tension and disputes within the ruling party have created a number of adverse consequences for the economy and stability in South Africa. One such adverse consequences resulted the 'Junk status' and eventually 'recession' during the first quarter of 2017 after the South African GDP declined by 0.7% (Rossouw 2017: 2).

Economic analysts have argued that the most hit by the economic regression of 2016-2017 were the poor households of South Africa whose disposable incomes were further constrained (STANLIB 2017; Anwar 2015: 3). The economic regression equally impacted on the value of the South African rand; impacted on inflation; resulted in capital flight; exacerbated levels of unemployment; negatively impacted on the balance of trade; dissuaded investors; and also negatively impacted on South Africa's credit ratings (STANLIB 2017: 11).

Such an economic situation cannot possibly be undone overnight as it will require a number of proactive, well-thought out assertive policy formulation and implementation (Padayachee 2011: 14-16; Sapa 2011: 2; Els 2017: 2), which opposition party members such as the Democratic Alliance (DA) have alleged was not actionable under the former ANC dispensation (Jacob Zuma administration). In agreement with the view upheld by the DA, poor households (mainly those of rural communities) of South Africa will experience difficult situations till the current economic regression is reversed (Els 2017: 2; Padayachee 2011: 14-16; Braude, Godsell, Cardo, Egan, Jordan, Gardner, Simkins, Gumede, Matisonn and van Onselen 2012: 14). Furthermore, the call for President Jacob Zuma to step down through anti-Zuma marches and criticism from Parliament created some level of instability in South Africa. This resulted in factionalism within the ruling party which no doubt has equally distracted government at the national, provincial as well as local levels from their primary constituency (Mukwedeya 2016: 140-156). Furthermore, the monopolistic trend in South Africa, wherein white capital collude to 'set prices' and influence nearly every sector of the economy, has exacerbated the level of poverty amongst poor households (National Anti-Corruption Forum (NACF) 2017: 89; African Centre for Biosafety 2014: 4). In accordance with Hart and Padayachee's (2013: 80) assertion, South African capitalism had its inception in racial domination, mining, as well as the uneven nexus between finance, the state and industry.

The authors further mention that South African capitalism is characterised by a “*cult of alpha-male leadership, cronyism between firms, banks and government, a relative absence of competition, weak democracy in the workplace, no flourishing culture of small and medium enterprises; in other words, a tendency towards absolute rather than relative surplus value ...which has its roots in British colonialism, rural Afrikanerdom and a history of racial oppression by a small white minority*”. This capitalist tendency has often excluded the Black majority. This form of exclusion is more profound amongst rural communal households who are not only excluded financially but also have limited opportunities. Hart and Padayachee (2013: 81) further argue that the capitalist trend has not changed much under the ANC. Rather, it has brought about the ascension of a few black elites, while further excluding poor households from economic benefits. Hence, these aforementioned external and internal concerns have over the years aggravated livelihoods amongst the rural communities of South Africa, as well as globally.

3.5 The Role of IFAD in Rural Development

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) was constituted in 1977 via an outcome of the 1974 World Food Conference. This agency is a specialised entity of the UN, created to serve as an international financial institution (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 2). Ever since its formation, the primary agenda of the IFAD was to tackle food insecurity and poverty across the rural communities of developing nations (IFAD 2001: 1). IFAD has been instrumental in the development of rural services in rural communities. IFAD’s funds stratagem, as well as implementation modalities, has resulted in enriched knowledge on financing, whilst also orchestrating an in-depth understanding of the nature of rural finances and poverty (IFAD 2006: 1). IFAD offers grants and low-interest loans to facilitate rural developmental projects. IFAD’s main focus group has always been the most marginalised subsistence farmers, some of whom include (IFAD 2006:2):

- landless rural community members;
- poor women in rural communities;
- artisanal fishermen; and
- nomadic pastoralists.

To achieve these aims, IFAD representatives work hand in hand with governments at a national level. IFAD's impact has manifested globally and nationally. However, several rural communities are still excluded from some of these initiatives. Amongst such excluded communities are the Mgobodzi community in Mpumalanga Province, Lusikisiki Mcobothini community in the Eastern Cape Province and Gunjaneni community in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. IFAD's multifaceted orientation offers a global stage for facilitating pertinent dialogues on vital policy concerns, while sensitising global stakeholders on the imperative of agricultural and rural development as an agendum to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (IFAD 2007: 2). Numerous resources has been expended on these initiatives. Between 1978 and 2006 alone, IFAD alongside its co-financing partners spent 9.5 billion US dollars on 732 initiatives which were worth more than 25 billion US dollars. These expended amounts contributed to the improvement in the standard of living of well above 300 million rural (poor) inhabitants globally (IFAD 2007: 2). Furthermore, by 2010, IFAD had provided grants and low interest loans to 92 countries worth 2.4 billion US dollars (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 2). Besides IFAD's agendum on poverty and food security, it equally provides tailor-made strategies for enhancing access to natural resources (land, water), technology, markets and financial services (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 2). IFAD's Strategic Framework 2007-2010 advocates improved and sustainable access to water and land amongst the rural poor (IFAD 2008:4). This act is premised on the inter connectivity between these resources and poverty in an era where unprecedented population expansion, depleting natural resource and high food prices have been issues that governments find daunting (IFAD 2008: 4). Another main exploit of IFAD is its continuous sharing of successful models on poverty alleviation and agricultural development (IFAD 2007: 3).

These successful models have been shared amongst member states. The consolidated complementary roles and partnerships have promoted rural development in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean and Latin America, as well as Eastern Europe (IFAD 2007: 3). Member states are classified into five operative regions as outlined in Table 3.2 (IFAD 2016a: 33) below:

Table 3.2: Regions and countries

Region	Countries	Count
Asia and the Pacific (APR)	Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Pakistan, Philippines, Viet Nam	9
Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC)	Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay	16
Near East, North Africa, Europe and Central Asia	Armenia, Egypt, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Morocco, Tajikistan, Turkey	7
East and Southern Africa	Botswana, Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia	15
West and Central Africa (WCA)	Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Central Africa Republic, Congo, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo	13
TOTAL		60

Source: IFAD (2016a)

Additionally, IFAD seeks region-specific approaches in addressing each region's respective challenges (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 2). These regional strategies are outlined in Table 3.3 below:

Table 3.3: Regional strategies

s/n	Region	Strategy
1	Western and Central Africa	The focus here is on human capacity development through financial and technical training practices, as well as the promotion of non-farming ventures.
2	Eastern and Southern Africa	The focus in this region is on increasing subsistence farmers' productivity; encouraging cash crops due to the strong local markets; and ensuring food security. Loans are also offered to poor farmers as a means to increasing their farming output.
3	Asia and the Pacific	The focus in this region is on the reformation of farming and entrepreneurial development amongst marginalised and upland areas, which are often characterised by poverty stricken communities. Micro financial initiatives are used to stimulate rural households whilst also empowering them.
4	Latin America and the Caribbean	IFAD engages local communities in a number of empowerment schemes. They provide them with economic opportunities, while creating links with the market and building on indigenous knowledge. Initiatives in this region run through the entire line of production (chain).
5	Near East and North Africa	The focus within this region is on the sustainability of the <i>fragile natural environment</i> . Other focus areas include women empowerment, the provision of appropriate technology, as well as funds required to acquire such.

Source: IFAD (2001)

Despite these advances, a number of factors impede the success of IFAD's agenda. The withdrawal of Australia (in 2007), a prominent member amongst the IFAD founders, has

limited the availability of funds in South East Asia and the Pacific regions (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 2). Furthermore, IFAD does not adequately utilise the countries systems. An assessment carried out by the Multilateral Organisation Performance Assessment Network (MOPAN) scored IFAD as underperforming on four of five micro indicators regarding the utilisation of country systems (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 13). Evidence gathered from a 2008 survey on *Monitoring the Paris Declaration* reveals that the percentage of IFAD's grants and loans captured (among the budgets of donor nations) are much lower than the targets declared during the *Paris Declaration* (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 13). Furthermore, another independent assessment indicates that IFAD has shown unwillingness to '*engage in sector wide approaches and country systems in a broader approach....*'. This reluctance will no doubt undermine its efficiency and effectiveness when dealing with client countries. The Brookings Institute also notes that '*IFAD recognises the potential of budget support operations for influencing the broader budgetary allocation mechanism—and hence a way to scale up the impact of its own limited financial resources—it is concerned that this will remove it too far from its main role of on the ground engagement with poor farmers. Hence, IFAD has generally not provided budget support*' (Commonwealth of Australia 2012: 13). Consequently, this will limit the availability of funds to poor rural farmers. Despite all of these advances in rural development projects/ initiatives amongst the five cited regions, none of the rural communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni or their neighbouring rural communities have benefited from any of IFAD's projects.

3.6 Rural developmental stakeholders

A pool of governmental bodies, non-governmental bodies, departments, organisations and institutions have a role to play in the development of rural communities in South Africa. However, all these stakeholders are being coordinated and managed by the National

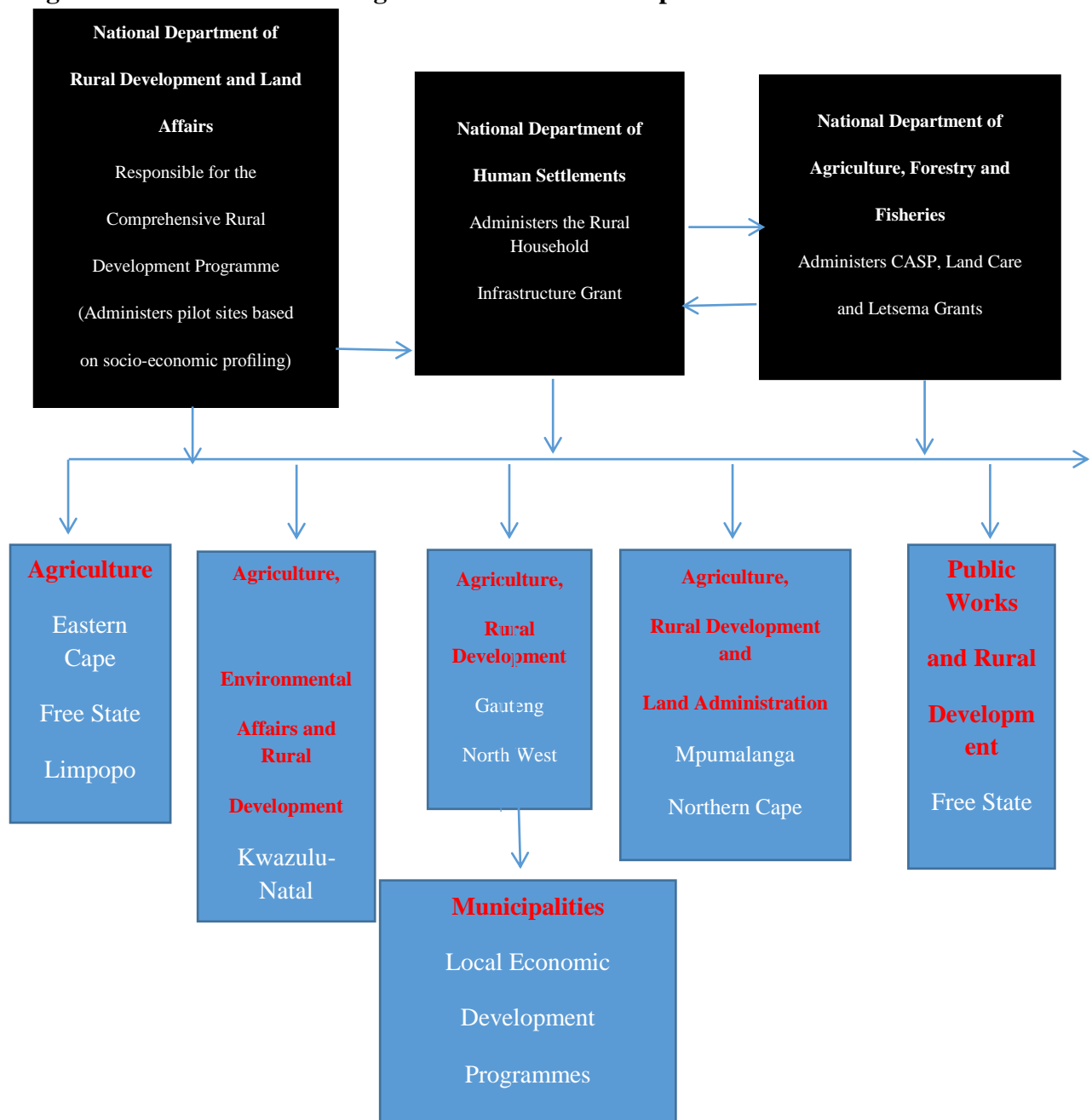
Department of Rural Development and Land Reforms (NDRDLR) (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013:80). The NDRLR has two sister departments – the National Department of Human Settlements (NDHS) and the National Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (NDAFF). These departments play specific roles at the national level in fast-tracking rural development in the country. Departmental institutional arrangements were also replicated among some of the nine provinces after the 2009 nationwide polls (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013:80).

The NDRDLR works hand in hand with the nine provinces, as well as the 278 municipalities across the nation. As at the last quarter of 2010, the Western Cape, Limpopo, as well as the Eastern Cape did not have departments that were termed ‘rural development’ (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013: 80-81). However, the function of rural development was carried out by the Department of Agriculture in these Provinces, while in KwaZulu-Natal, the department responsible for rural development was named ‘Agriculture, Environmental Affairs and Rural Development’. In the Gauteng and North West Provinces, the department responsible for rural development was referred to as ‘Agriculture and Rural Development’, while in Mpumalanga and the Northern Cape, the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration carried out rural development duties. In the Free State, the Department of Public Works and Rural Development performed rural development responsibilities (Parnell 2008 cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013: 81).

The core duties of these departments were to plan, budget and provide services to the rural communities of South Africa. However, there are difficulties in the implementation of the rural development plans. Koma (2010:114-117) largely attributes the difficulty in execution of the rural developmental initiatives and plans to managerial challenges and the sparse

distribution of rural households, whilst Rogerson (2014:205) affirms that a core undermining factor to rural development initiatives is the inability of planners to re-align planning to the dynamic nature of the national and international framework modalities. Rural development stakeholders at the national, provincial and municipality level are diagrammatically illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: Institutional arrangements for rural development in South Africa



Source: FFC analysis (2010) cited by the Financial and Fiscal Commission analysis (2010: 81)

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, these afore-illustrated entities plan, coordinate and manage rural developmental concerns in South Africa. These entities are aptly represented across the nine provinces. At present, all of them report to the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

A fundamental challenge obstructing the optimal performance amongst rural development stakeholders in South Africa has been the poor synergy amongst these entities as they often work in isolation (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014:17). While the NDRDLR coordinates the entirety of rural developmental initiatives in South Africa, Councillors are considered the most prominent rural developmental stakeholders as they are in charge of local governance at their respective municipalities (Department of Rural Development 2013: 3 cited by Bakre 2015: 26). Thus, the proceeding section will discuss the relationship between local governance and rural development.

3.7 Rural communities across the globe

Since the publication of the *Rural Poverty Report in 2011* by IFAD, there had been an unprecedented transformation which altered the rural development landscape. The significant structural shift across several regions of the globe has brought about unabated urbanisation; an increased demand for food, and the emergence of stronger economies, particularly amongst middle-income nations (IFAD 2016a: 12). On the contrary, instability as a result of protracted conflicts has ravaged several regions of the globe, while energy prices and climate change complexities have perplexed several other regions. In addition to this, more and more regions, mainly within the middle-east and east Africa, have had their populace displaced due to political or socio-economic upheavals (Jones, Call, Touboulets and Fritz 2018; Cordesman

2018). In the face of deepening unemployment and inflation, the elite and middle-class citizens have become wealthier. Despite the successes on some food security programmes and poverty reduction schemes across low-income countries, Branko (2016) laments the sporadic inequality amongst developing and developed nations. Commensurate with the preceding narrative, an ambitious developmental line of action was orchestrated by world leaders to *end poverty and hunger by 2030* (IFAD 2016a: 12). This ‘ambitious agenda’ unambiguously recognises the ‘imperativeness’ of rural developmental concerns. Agenda 2030 explicitly understands that subsistence farmers play a dominant role and influence with regard to food security amongst developing nations. Despite this dominance, Khapayi and Celliers (2016) concedes that these ‘subsistence farmers’ are unable to transcend beyond their current economic status due to a lack of access to farming equipment, resources, markets, finance, expertise and technology. Thus, subsistence farmers are unable to take advantage of ‘*emerging opportunities*’. IFAD (2016a: 12) thus suggest a transformational agenda within rural spaces as an agendum to capitalising on emerging opportunities (amongst subsistence farmers), as opposed to their marginalisation.

A 2016 survey estimates that 3.7 billion inhabitants reside in rural communities across the globe (IFAD 2016a). This figure represents more than half of the world’s 7 billion population. These rural communities across different regions of the globe have commonalities and equally, differ in a number of ways. Thus, this section will demonstrate the main features of the rural communities of Europe, Asia, North America, India, Australia and the Middle East, while concluding with African rural communities. The main highlights under review will be their respective populations, modes of livelihood, as well as the challenges that each of these rural communities face.

Europe

The rural communities of Europe currently serve as home to more than half of the European Union populace (EU Rural Review 2010: 3). A more recent source on the other hand alleges that an estimated 59 percent amongst the 27 European member states reside in rural communities. These rural communities are said to cover 91 percent of the entire European territory (European Union 2012: i). Shucksmith, Cameron and Merridew (2006: 9) allege that the national proportions vary significantly amongst European rural communities. While Belgium and Netherlands have rural populations of less than 10 percent, countries such as Norway, Finland and Turkey have rural populations above 60 percent. European rural communities are known for their diversity. The extent of this diversity is manifested in terms of ecological, cultural and physical characteristics (EU Rural Review 2010: 15).

The European Parliament (2015: 13) postulates that more than/in excess of 300 million inhabitants reside in the rural communities of the 47 member states of Europe. Included in this estimate is Moldova which has the highest rural population amongst the eastern European countries, constituting 2 million amongst its 3, 560, 000 total populace (European Rural Parliament 2015: 15). This population was much higher previously. However, due to the emigration since the late 90s, the Moldovan rural populace has begun to shrink. Such decline faced by the Moldovan rural populace was synonymous with other rural communities of Europe who were often confronted with few employment opportunities. Declines in employment opportunities amongst these rural communities of Europe provoked an exodus from rural communities to urban centres, and even over-seas in some cases. A majoritant of these migrants were often the young and educated populace. Additionally, a high influx of migration was perceived among the 45-54 year age bracket, which often served as nurses and housekeepers (European Rural Parliament 2015: 15).

On the contrary, a number of rural inhabitants who decide to stay behind regard certain features of the rural community in high esteem. They often value the lifestyle in the countryside, coastal margins, islands, local culture, non-pollutant environment, farms, relative solitude, aesthetic landscapes and villages (European Rural Parliament 2015: 9). This sentimental attachment to the rural lifestyle is often common amongst Germans who are tired of bustling urban communities and decide to reside in a more peaceful and natural environment (European Rural Parliament 2015:9). The natural environment plays a crucial role amongst European rural communities. In particular, forestry and farming practices are considered critical for the sustainability of land management and natural resources as these serve as a platform for the diversification of the rural economies (European Union 2012: i). Despite the diverse nature of European rural communities, Shucksmith, Cameron and Merridew (2006: 9) identify two inherent characteristics. They mention their usually-low population densities and the peculiar landscapes found on vast land surfaces.

A variety of challenges are notable amongst the rural communities of Europe. However, one prominent challenge is the ‘de-population’ that several rural communities of Europe are experiencing. Policy analysts have often perceived ‘de-population’ as a major threat to the sustainability of several rural communities in Europe (Kasimis 2008; Sivagrakau, Kasianenko and Lysyuk 2014). De-population can be largely attributed to five main factors, namely difficulty in finding employment; low birth rates, rural exodus; ageing populations; poverty and social exclusion (European Rural Parliament 2015: 14). Demographic ageing is most obvious amongst the rural communities of France, Greece, Spain and Portugal wherein most rural inhabitants are above the age of 65, whilst these areas have a relatively low ratio of children between the 0-15 year age bracket, as well as the 15-24 year age bracket (European Rural Parliament 2015: 14). This concern manifests the complexity of rural economies as it has created a disconnect between the demand and supply of rural employment (European

Rural Parliament 2015: 14). Furthermore, the EU Rural Review (2010: 15) cites the inability to sustain the forestry and farming sectors as a predominant issue across the rural communities of Europe. The inadequacy of sustainable support in the rural agricultural sector of Europe is further exacerbated by increasing competition from global commercial farmers. Other co-existing challenges found within the rural communities of Europe are households' concern for the narrowness of rural economies; regression of services; inadequacy of facilities, as well as the deteriorating state of social infrastructure (EU Rural Review 2010; European Union 2012; Sivagrakau, Kasianenko and Lysyuk 2014; Dower and Lorenzen 2014).

To tackle these challenges, a number of policies have been advocated by the European Union. The most prominent policy enacted has been the 'Common Agricultural Policy' (CAP) (European Union 2012: 11; Shucksmith, Cameron and Merridew 2006:15) which was introduced to re-invigorate the farming sector by increasing the productivity of farm producers; improving the standard of living among farmers; and creating a stabilised and fair price for farm produce while guaranteeing the supply of farm produce in a regulated market. The CAP dominates the European Union's budget as an estimated € 90 billion (Euros) is spent annually on this policy. Such monies are paid directly to farmers; and through market price support in some other instances. Hence, the CAP has been an integral tool for sustaining the rural communities of Europe for several years. However, a number of critics have often adjudged it as a controversial and complex policy (European Union 2012: 11; Shucksmith, Cameron and Merridew 2006:15).

However, the recent influx of migrants from the Middle East as well as the African continent has brought about new opportunities and hopes for the de-populating rural communities of Europe (Pinilla, Ayuda and Sáez 2008: 9; Gonzalez and Maldonado 2017: 2). Since a significant proportion of these migrants are from rural backgrounds in their home countries,

there are chances that such migrants may fill the vacuum of the rural populace and thus be useful in the farming and non-farming sectors (European Rural Parliament 2015: 20). More particularly, in rural communities such as that of Lithuania where the rural population declined by 9.5 percent between 2008 and 2013, migrants could be beneficial as well as in circumstances wherein schools close due to a lack of pupils. The European Rural Parliament (2015: 20) further amplifies this pro-migrant opportunistic tendency when they exemplify the case of 54 Syrian refugee children whose intake into one of the rural communities of Europe brought about 20 new jobs for the local people where employment opportunities were scarce.

South Asia

There have been dramatic changes in South Asian rural communities since the 1980s. Most notable are some of the incongruous changes which took place in rural land use (Hall, Hirsch and Li 2013:1). These changes had adversely impacted on the agricultural sector which served as the main source of livelihood of a significant population of these communities. Land loss of the rural communities was advantageous to the urban communities as this was utilised for industrial development, tourism, commercialised agriculture and residences, amongst other developmental concerns for the urban communities (Hall, Hirsch and Li 2013:1). The drastic disappearance of the former farmlands resulted in ‘de-agrarianisation’, which in turn resulted in a decline in agricultural practices amongst the rural households of South Asia. An example of the Cambodian scenario where the agricultural sector contributed 33 percent of the GDP in 2005, providing livelihoods for 68 percent of the populace. De-agrarianisation gradually resulted in a shift to the non-agricultural sector, affecting rural livelihoods (Hall, Hirsch and Li 2013:2).

South Asian rural communities share similar demographics with a majority of other Asian rural communities where a significant populace resides in rural communities. Apart from

Russia and Belarus where less than one-third of the entire populace lives in rural areas, this is in far contrast to a majority of countries in this region where a sizeable populace resides in rural communities. A recent survey by the FAO (2016: 4) estimates 74 percent of the Tajikistan populace as rural households and 66 percent in Kyrgyzstan, while an estimated 58 percent are also said to be rural household members in the Republic of Moldova. The high populace in this region signifies the importance of rural development.

These rural populaces often do not have access to the same facilities or amenities enjoyed by their urban counterparts. This argument can be substantiated by the disparity of access to electrification amongst the rural and urban communities of this region. The South Asian countries alone account for 42 percent of the world populace having access to electricity (Palit and Chaurey 2011: 265). With the exception to Sri Lanka, which generates electricity through its excess water resources (hydro power plants), India and Nepal, less than 50 percent of other rural households (amongst Asian countries) do not have access to electricity. This is illustrated in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4: Household electrification in the rural areas of Asia

Country	Total population (millions)	Population without electricity (millions)	Rural electrification (%)	Per capita GDP (US dollars)
Afghanistan	28.4	23.8	12.0	600
Bangladesh	156	95.7	28.0	1300
Bhutan	0.69	0.2	40.0	4100
India	1166	403.7	52.5	2500
Nepal	28.5	16.5	52.5	1000
Pakistan	176	68.0	46.0	2400
Sri Lanka	213	4.7	75.0	3900

Source: IEA (2010) cited by Palit and Chaurey (2011)

Palit and Chaurey (2011: 268) further note that only about 50 percent of households in this region have access to electricity. This translates to an estimated 612 million inhabitants with no access to electricity.

This disproportionate share of facilities and amenities between the rural and their urban counterparts, as well as discrepancies in opportunities, have often being the propelling factor of rural-urban migration in this region. Migration opportunities are however often male-dominated in many regions of the globe, causing a significant effect on the demographics of rural communities. This has often resulted in a disproportionate male-female ratio, as well as a significant population of the ‘very young’ and elderly (FAO 2016: 4). Furthermore, rural women of this region often have a far higher fertility rate in comparison to women in urban centres. The predominant high fertility has been largely linked to poverty amongst the rural households of Asia (FAO 2016: 5). Migration has had a significant effect in this region, particularly on the economy, as well as the age-sex structure. While migration has been male-dominated in most regions of the globe, the reverse is the case in Central Asia as a majority of migrants who exodus are female (FAO 2016: 4). Several rural women in this region have had to seek economic opportunities in the urban communities of their respective countries or had to go beyond borders to the Gulf countries, India, Malaysia or Russia to find employment opportunities. The money made is remitted to their home countries. Such remittances accounts for more than 40 percent of GDP in Tajikistan, Kyrgyzstan and Uzbekistan (FAO 2016: 5).

Studies conducted by Bajeux, Douka, Joyner, McClenaghan, Schild, Van Hezig and Bettler (2016: 3) also allege that in the Himalayas, women play an integral role in rural communities as they are considered breadwinners who sustain the rural economy. In the case of Nepal, the high influx of the rural populace (male) seeking economic opportunities in Malaysia, the Gulf countries and India has often worsened the “feminisation” of the farming sector (Bajeux *et al.*

2016: 3). Despite women's significant contributory role to the agricultural sector, women of this region often do not have access to economic resources (markets, credits) or formal entitlement to land, neither do they have access to technology, education or services. All of these factors have exacerbated the extent of vulnerability of women in this region (Bajeux *et al.* 2016: 5-6). Hence, high incidences of poverty are still found amongst rural communities of South Asia, alongside some other Asian countries.

North America

The rural communities of Canada and Mexico, as well as the United States of America share similar demographics. However, this section focuses only on rural communities of the United States of America. By definition, almost two-thirds of the 3,142 American counties are considered to be rural (United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) 2011:2). These counties translate into an estimated 17 percent of the American population, that is 49 million. Rural communities cover more than 80 percent of the entire landmass (USDA 2011:2). Rural communities of America are predominantly used for the extraction of resources and agricultural production, alongside other productive uses.

The Council on Food, Agricultural and Resource Economics (C-FARE 2016: 2) categorises rural communities of America into three broad segments:

- Rural communities endowed with natural resources;
- Rural communities in close proximity to urban centres; and
- Poor remote (rural) communities that are extractive-based.

However, the trichotomy outlined above is not exhaustive, but provides a directive for inquiring and conceptualising the challenges and prospects of American rural communities (C-FARE 2016:2).

Rural communities of America are more ethnically and racially homogenous in comparison to their urban neighbours. These communities have witnessed an unprecedented Hispanic population increase in recent times. Rural communities have predominantly been home to the elderly due to the continuous out-migration of the employable populace (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 11). Such demographic factors are significant bellwethers to housing demands, as a diverse and older population will necessitate housing options which are presently not available across several rural communities of the United States of America (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 11). The out-migration pattern had begun as early as the late 19th century when the industrial revolution orchestrated an urban-centred economy. Since this era, urbanisation has grown unabated (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 11).

Another source suggests a higher American rural populace. The Housing Assistance Council (2013: 23) estimates that among the 308 million American populace, 65 million individuals live in rural communities. This source further alleges that this rural populace, which represents 21 percent, live in rural or small towns; 48 percent reside in suburban communities; while the rest of 31 percent (92 million) live in cities. Although, quantifying the percentage of the rural populace in America may be far less than countries having a rural populace of above 60 percent, such as Tajikistan (74 percent) and Kyrgyzstan (66 percent), the 21 percent (65 million) inhabitants is however higher than the total population of several European countries. Thus, this further emphasises the significance of rural development, even amongst developed nations.

Similar to other regions of the globe, agriculture plays an integral role in American rural communities. The mining, timber and agricultural sectors have continuously diversified rural spaces (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 23). The evidence of the diversification of American rural communities is manifested through the presence of several industries, inclusive of manufacturing, construction and public administration. Furthermore, unlike the

rural communities of Africa and Asia which have extremely slim employment opportunities, the scenario in some rural American communities is slightly different as the health sector, education and social services provides employment for 22 percent of the rural labour force, indicating a gradual shift towards a service-based rural economy (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 23).

Furthermore, the vibrancy of some of the rural communities of America can be seen through their competitive manufacturing capabilities, as well as a developed agricultural sector that provides affordable and fresh farm produce for Americans, while also exporting surmountable tonnage across the border (White House Rural Council 2011: 1). Farmers in this region are perceived to be the most productive farmers globally. An estimated 1.8 million people are gainfully employed in the agricultural sector, which represents 5 percent of the total export (White House Rural Council 2011: 3).

Worth mentioning also is the integral role that rural populace plays in the American military. They form 44 percent of the military. Additionally, an estimated 6.1 million veterans reside in rural communities (White House Rural Council 2011: 3). However, a majority of these veterans are confronted with economic challenges as they often lack job certification and educational training, which are core requirements for civilian employment opportunities. Hence, these conditionalities have made several of them unemployed (White House Rural Council 2011: 3).

Despite the positives earlier mentioned, rural communities of America are confronted by a variety of complex challenges. Due to the resource-based nature of rural communities, they have often been susceptible to the effects of commodity prices, the value of land dynamics, and technological changes alongside other market forces (United states Department of Agriculture (USDA) 2011: 3). These challenges have often bellwether the generational

concerns of poverty, increased demand for services, loss of the employable populace to larger cities and unemployment. Particularly, rural inhabitants who reside in remote rural communities have constrained access to transportation, social services, healthcare and employment opportunities. Transportation cost are often high, which consumes a sizeable portion of their income (USDA 2011: 3). Hoadley, Wagnerman, Alker and Holmes (2017:5-7) allege that most of the adult populace in rural communities lack medical cover, while nearly 50 percent of children in these communities are covered medically.

Compounding the rural complexity is institutional inertia. These communities are usually incapacitated and also lack financial resources. Lacking also is the inadequacy of personnel in rural jurisdictions, which implies the insufficiency of resources being channelled to comprehensive planning. The presence of philanthropists or donors found in larger cities is absent in the rural communities (USDA 2011: 3), which may have cushioned governmental efforts.

The Housing Assistance Council (2013: 29) alleges that the poverty stricken rural communities of America are those which are isolated geographically, with a track record of disinvestment. These poor communities are often concealed from the American mainstream. The benchmark for poverty has often been poor counties recording poverty rates above 20 percent in the 1990, 2000 and 2010 surveys respectively. In accordance with the 2010 survey, 429 counties were said to be poverty stricken (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 29). These persistently poor rural communities are often situated within the southern Black Belt, the Mexican-American border, the Lower Mississippi Delta, as well as Central Appalachia (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 29). Although, America is ranked amongst the richest countries globally, an estimated 5 million rural inhabitants still wallow in abject poverty, creating an unequal society (Housing Assistance Council 2013: 29). Hence, assertive and

purposive rural developmental initiatives may alleviate poverty amongst the poor rural communities of America.

India

At present, India has the highest rural population in the world (Palit and Chaurey 2011: 268). Amongst the 1, 349,750, 961 (1.34 billion) Indian populace, an estimated 1,210,193,422 (1.2 billion) alone reside in rural communities, accounting for 67.25 percent of the population. In accordance with a census carried out by Census of India (2011: 4), above 70 percent of Indians resided in rural communities prior to 2001. However, between 2001 and 2011, the population ratio between the rural and urban communities slightly shifted to urban communities due to rural-urban migration (Census of India 2011: 7). These figures are presented in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5: Population figures in India (2011)

	2001	2011	Number of Individuals in 2011	Difference between 2001- 2011
India	102.9	121.0	1, 210, 193, 422	18.1
Rural	74.3	83.3	833,087,662	9.0
Urban	28.6	37.3	377,105,760	9.1

Source: Census of India (2011)

India has witnessed an impressive economic transformation in the last two decades. Despite this exceptional economic progression, the majority of the rural populace still wallow in abject poverty (Luthra 2011: 2). The World Bank alleges that more than 50 percent of Indians live below 2 USD per day (Luthra 2011: 2). Besides the paucity found amongst rural communities of India, other day-to-day challenges also experienced amongst the rural

populace are inclusive of nepotism; sexual assault and crime against women; bureaucratic hassles; a lack of transparency; and corruption amongst others (Bhattacharyya 2013: 2).

Considered in an axiomatic context, Indian is said to be a “*country of villages*” whose population spreads unevenly across 5.8 Lakhs of rural communities and 4 615 towns (National Institute of Open Schooling NIOS 2012: 3). The 1.2 billion populace living within the rural spaces of India justifies the needfulness for rural development. Similar to scenarios found in other developing countries, the inequality gap between urban and rural communities is significantly wide. Rural development has been a topical issue across the globe, particularly in Africa, Asia and the South American continent. However, rural development receives much significant importance in India for two cogent reasons. Firstly, almost 70% of the rural populace reside in rural communities. Secondly, underdevelopment amongst the rural communities of India could impede the overall growth of the Indian economy. To address this, the Indian government constituted the Indian Rural Credit Review Committee as an agenda to accelerating rural development through agriculture. Agriculture plays a highly significant role in India as a high number of rural household members are directly or indirectly involved in agricultural practices (Report of the All India Rural Credit Committee 2003: 7).

The Indian government has over the years been making concerted efforts to address cyclical poverty amongst the rural communities of India. In 1952, the first ever initiative in addressing the multiple challenges faced by the populace of rural India was launched. This was christened the Community Development Programme, which was then followed by the National Extension Services a year later. Although these initiatives recorded some successes, several shortfalls were however equally identified (Chauhan 2012: 8).

Many of the populace who reside in remote rural areas do not have access to water and basic amenities. An estimated 63 million individuals living in the rural communities of India do not have access to water (Bhalla 2017; Rivière 2015). Additionally, the lack of social amenities such as toilet facilities (latrines) has been closely linked to a number of diseases in improvised rural communities (O'Reilly and Louis 2014; O'Reilly, Dhanju and Goel 2017; Joshi *et al.* 2014). As enunciated by Lopez *et al.* (2006) quoted in O'Reilly and Louis (2014: 50), rural communities of India face the 'double burden of disease' - *the diseases of poverty and of affluence*. Compounding the health risk across many rural communities of India is the common practice of "open defecation". An estimated 360 million rural inhabitants in India do not have access to toilet facilities, while some others are accustomed to practicing open defecation despite having access to toilet facilities (O'Reilly, Dhanju and Goel 2017: 192). The authors further mention that some rural household members find it more convenient defecating in the open. Some rural household members also justify their 'open defecation' to a lack of water supply, while some others attribute this to the inconvenience of hauling water through a steep orography. Such practice is common amongst the rural communities of Uttarakhand (O'Reilly, Dhanju and Goel 2017: 199). This however poses a high health risk to the community.

Australia

As at 2001, the rural and remote communities of Australia accounted for one-third of the Australian population (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2001; Dunphy 2009: 1). However, 16 years on, the rural populace only accounted for 15 percent of the 24 511 800 Australian populace (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2017). Australia is known to be the world's driest inhabited continent, with an extremely inconsistent water cycle and intense heat (Climate Council of Australia 2016: 13). Demographers often classify Australia into four main regions – rural, remote, regional and urban. Australia is heavily reliant on the rural and remote

communities for water, oxygen, food and several other resources (Dunphy 2009: 1). Despite the enormous input of the remote and rural communities, several analysts are of the view that these communities are marginalised from the economy gains and several benefits accrued to their urban counterparts.

Similar to other rural communities of the globe, a significant proportion of rural households in Australia are engaged in farming practices (Rickards and Howden 2012: 243), while others (rural communities) are dominated by extractive industries, service industries and tourism (Rickards and Howden 2012: 243). Geohive (2012:3) allude that well above 50 percent of the 2 500 000 rural populace are engaged in farming activities. However, this sector has begun to experience a decline. Between 2006 and 2011, there were 20 000 fewer rural inhabitants engaged in farming (Climate Council of Australia 2016: 4).

A downward trend in the farming populace has a number of adverse consequences. This decline often results in the closure of services such as health clinics, financial institutions (credit houses, banks), schools, hospitals and other governmental establishments within rural communities (Hogan and Young 2013: 324; Askew and Sherval 2012: 295). A number of rural communities in Canada and America also face a similar challenge (Sullivan *et al.* 2014 cited in Climate Council of Australia 2016: 5). Notwithstanding, domestic farming practices still provide 93 percent of Australia's food consumption (Climate Council of Australia 2016: 8).

In addition to challenges experienced by these rural communities are poor standards of living; an inadequacy of infrastructure; and an inadequacy of social amenities, amongst others (National Association of County and City Health Officials (NACCHO) 2007; Australian Bureau of Statistics 2008). The demographics amongst the remote and rural areas of Australia are fast changing due to a high influx of youth to the cities, which has resulted in rural

communities characterised by the elderly (Kirstein and Bandranaike 2004: 9-10; Zaiceva 2014: 3-4; Dunphy 2009: 2). Exacerbating the rural challenge is the vastness of the rural communities. Australia has a landmass of an estimated 8 million square kilometres. The territorial vastness creates a distinct challenge for most farmers, particularly those in farmlands and desert regions (Australian Mission to the United Nations: 2012:1). The most poverty stricken households reside amongst these remote and rural communities. A 2012 survey revealed that 2.55 million Australians (13.9%) were living below the poverty line, most of whom were rural inhabitants (National Rural Health Alliance 2013: 4). Despite the high prevalence of poverty amongst these communities, they hardly receive the required attention at the national policy level (National Rural Health Alliance 2013: 4).

Further exacerbating rural poverty in Australia is the impact of climate change, which poses a threat to food security, health and the environment (Climate Council of Australia 2016: 1). Climate change has made Australian rural communities vulnerable to bushfires, droughts and heatwaves. The decline in rainfall and heightened temperatures have equally posed serious threats to water availability, agriculture, fisheries, tourism and mining, while also having adverse consequences on the prices of goods and services. Unfortunately, these communities are ill-equipped to address these enormous challenges (Climate Council of Australia 2016: 2).

Although climate change has often been a challenge across the rural and regional communities of Australia, it however also provides opportunities which are yet to be harnessed. These communities have become highly adept to climatic variations. However, the unprecedented nature of climate variations in recent times now requires ingenuity, adeptness and a coordinated approach amongst stakeholders within this region, which is yet to be realised. A transition into new approaches to generating energy offers an array of opportunities. However, these opportunities are yet to be tapped into in Australia. Rural

landholders in Australia are often the custodians of land. Thus, their communal actions may have a significant impact on food production, water supplies and the environment, wherein healthier, more sustainable and thriving rural communities could be created (Climate Council of Australia 2016: i).

Kölves, Milner, Mckay and De Leo (2012: 1) also report another under estimated challenge prominent amongst rural communities of Australia, the unprecedented record of deaths attributed to increasing suicide. Majoritane of these suicidal cases are often – farmers, male, indigenous youths. Findings from a number of studies on this challenge suggest that contextual stressors linked to farming activities was one of the main causes of suicidal acts (Kölves, Milner, Mckay and De Leo 2012: 1). A further exclusion of the rural and remote households of Australia is the digital divide (Park, Freeman, Middleton, Allen, Eckermann and Everson 2015: 3631). While Australia like other developed nations had embraced digitisation, the rural populace is still excluded, mainly due to its sparse population and great distances, amongst other undermining infrastructural factors (Park, Freeman, Middleton, Allen, Eckermann and Everson 2015: 3631).

Middle East

The middle-eastern nations have transitioned from traditional societies and economies into modernised nations in the past four decades (Ramadan 2015: 1). These nations are often called the Gulf nations or Gulf Corporation Council States (GCC). The GCC are inclusive of the United Arab Emirates, Bahrain, Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Kuwait and Oman (Vakil 2018). Also in these region are non-GCC nations such as Yemen, Oman, Syria, Iran, Iraq, the State of Palestine, Cyprus, Israel, Jordan, Egypt and Kyrgyzstan (IFAD 2016b). Most of these countries are situated within the *arid region of the Arabian Peninsula* (Ramadan 2015: 1). An estimated 90 percent of the middle-eastern states territory are situated within semi-arid or arid

regions. With unprecedented population growth and a notable arid climate, the Gulf is considered to be the most water scarce region of the globe (Ramadan 2015: 3). The gulf nations have often enticed immigrants due to their plentiful natural resource of crude oil. Investment in crude oil has often driven the rural populace into the fast developing urban communities (El-Haddad 2003: 2). The drastic influx of foreign immigrants into this region are fueled by the employment opportunities and economic boom in urban settings (Ramadan 2015: 2). The oil discovery has transformed the dynamics of the Gulf nations. This transformation resulted in massive urbanisation amongst these nations wherein the urban population accounts for 90 percent in Kuwait; 85 percent in Qatar; 80 percent in Bahrain; and an estimated 70 percent of the United Arab Emirates populace reside in urbanised communities (El-Haddad 2003: 2; Reijenga, Brückner and Meij 2013: 2; Noora 2012). This rural-urban emigrational trend has continually grown in this region (Ramadan 2015: 2).

Prior to the oil discovery in 1960, the middle-eastern inhabitants were known to be nomads whose economy thrived on fishing and pearling along the coastlines. However, the oil discovery has spurred a continuously developing urbanised region, making the middle-eastern nations among the most urbanised countries in the world (Ramadan 2015: 2). Adjacent to the GCC states is Yemen – one of the most poverty stricken nations in the world (IFAD 2007: 12; IFAD 2016a). Contrary to the spurring development of their neighbouring states, a large majority of Yemenis reside in rural communities. These rural community members represent more than 80 percent of the Yemeni's poorest (IFAD 2007: 12; World Bank Group 2017). Similar to Yemenis rural populace, a majority of rural household members in this region are engaged in the rearing of livestock (Hamadeh 2014: 157). Historically, this traditional activity (livestock practice) has supported millions of rural communities' livelihoods for several centuries (Hamadeh 2014: 157).

The rural communities of the middle-eastern states are amongst the poorest communities of the world (Ncube, Anyanwu and Hausken 2013: 9). High incidences of poverty are widespread amongst the rural communities of this region. A three-quarter of the poorest rely on livestock, which generates 60 percent of income for this populace (Hamadeh 2014: 160). Livestock plays an integral part in these rural communities as it is used for a variety of purposes. These benefits are inclusive of food supply, employment generation (for both men and women) and mitigation of seasonal nutritional gaps (Hamadeh 2014: 160).

Livestock practice in this region is however sustained through scarce feed in a mostly arid dominated area (Hamadeh 2014: 157). Undermining the growth of livestock practice are water scarcity, scarcity of feed, poor arbitrary policies, the inadequacy of supportive infrastructure and facilities, drought, conflict and desertification. Furthermore, poor land management has often resulted in the loss of biodiversity, soil erosion, as well as the degradation of land, all of which have often been detrimental to livestock practice (Hamadeh 2014: 158). Furthermore, pertinent challenges faced by rural communities of this region include the inadequacy of access roads, health facilities, schools and financial institutions (IFAD 2007: 4). While urban households benefit from the well-developed water distribution networks, rural households are dependent on wells and water tankers which are often not reliable (Ramadan 2015: 3). Exacerbating the current situation is the impact of climate change, which has occasionally brought about drought. These droughts have often resulted in famine which cripples entire communities. Consequently, this results in a scarcity of food and a loss of weight in animals, which results in a loss in the value of animals or death (Evers 2016: 2; Hamadeh 2014: 160-163; IFAD 2007: 4).

Africa

The colonial era set the precedent for several African nations where economic development is structured in an *island-like* manner, wherein urban centres are developed in comparison to their surrounding rural communities (Gumede 2016: 2). A common trend found amongst several African nations is “two parallel economies” co-existing in one state. While the urban regions were industrialised, the rural communities were predominantly agricultural-based (Gumede 2016: 2). A significant portion of the 2.1 billion inhabitants globally living below two dollars per day live in the rural communities of Africa (Binswanger-Mkhize 2009: 1). While rural poverty has significantly declined in the Pacific region and East Asia, poverty figures have been on the increase in Africa and South Asia (Caitlin, Ravallion and van de Walle 2017; Stefan, Lechtenfeld and Povel 2015; Barne and Wadhwa 2018; Binswanger-Mkhize 2009: 1). This paucity was more profound amongst the rural households of Africa. In 1990, rural poverty within West and Central Africa (WCA), as well as the Eastern and Southern African (ESA) regions was almost at 60 percent. Twenty years (2010) later, rural poverty was at 56.7 percent in the WCA region, while that of ESA was at 52.8 percent (IFAD 2016a: 138).

Rural communities represent a significant portion of the African continent. Amongst the 1.2 billion inhabitants, the rural populace account for an estimated 700 million (IFAD 2016a). The Eastern and Southern African populations account for 399 million inhabitants. Amongst this populace, 70 percent are rural household members. Available data indicates that 43 percent of these households live below 1.25 US dollars per day (IFAD 2016b). Egypt has one of the largest rural populaces in North Africa at 57.8 percent, in comparison to the average figure of 47.6 percent of the North African rural population. The sub-Saharan African rural population is higher in comparison to that of North Africa at 61 percent. However, rural

demographics vary per region and country. For instance, while the rural populace of Ethiopia is at 82.6 percent, that of Nigeria is at 48.3 percent (Rugumayo 2010: 3).

Similar to other rural communities of the globe, agriculture plays an integral role across the rural communities of Africa (Diao, Hazel and Thurlow 2010:3-4). This fact is corroborated by the huge population of rural household members involved in farming. Exemplifying with the sub-Saharan African (SSA) scenario, whereby an estimated 415 million individuals are engaged in farming practices, representing 55 percent of the total population of this region (African Monitor 2012: 5). The Rural Poverty Report of 2011 compiled by the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) reveals that farming practices within SSA has been characterised by stagnation and low productivity in the past 30 years (African Monitor 2012: 5). However, this unimpressive result in SSA does not reveal a true reflection of the African continent as the agricultural sector is perceived as the most important sector amongst several African states (World Bank 2013). Moreover, there are dissimilar variances regarding the contribution of the agricultural sector amongst African member states. While the agricultural sector contributes well above 50 percent of the aggregate GDP in Sierra Leone and Ethiopia, a much lower GDP is recorded in Zambia and South Africa (IFAD 2016a: 133).

Rural communities of Africa are the least developed regions in the world. Such communities lack adequate infrastructure. The majority of households lack electricity, potable water, sanitation facilities and access roads. While 65 percent of rural household members among other developing countries live within two kilometres of access roads, less than 35 percent of rural household members in Africa live within such parameters to access roads. All of these 'lacked' amenities have exacerbated their poor quality of life. The lack of access roads for instance has made transporting farm products to market a rather cumbersome and expensive

task as most farmers (may) take as much as six hours transporting their farm produce to the major city (African Development Bank (AfDB) 2010; African Monitor 2012: 5).

The east and north African rural communities are confronted with a more dire situation. Farmers here do not only have to find means of transporting their farm products to markets, but also need to confront their harsh environmental challenge. Nowhere else on the African continent is the relationship between the environment and poverty more pronounced than these zones, where inhabitants are compelled to degrade natural resources as a means of surviving (IFAD 2007: 11). Water shortage is the most cogent singular constraint to rural household members of this African region. Water scarcity poses a major threat to the development of agriculture, while also weakening the possibility of agricultural development in alleviating poverty amongst this populace (IFAD 2007: 4; Ever 2016: 2). These dryland regions receive an average annual rainfall of 400mm, coupled with irregular precipitation. A significant portion of these drylands are predominantly semi-arid or arid regions. Despite this dryness, the East African pastoral habitat is home to the world's largest traditional livestock, with Somalia, Djibouti and Sudan ranking *the highest pasture based production systems* (Hamadeh 2014: 162). The rural communities of the region are accustomed to famine, poverty and conflict, which have brought about much hardship and difficulty to their livelihoods (Hamadeh 2014: 163). Also in this east African region is Uganda, whose situation is quite different. Although rural farmers in this region have more fertile soils and higher rainfalls, they however face challenges synonymous with other rural farmers across the continent. Masaba (2014: 2) highlights the following as the core challenges of rural communal farmers in this region:

- Limited market access;
- High costs of production;

- Marketing infrastructure deficits;
- A lack of access to credit facilities;
- Insufficiency of agricultural Extension Workers;
- The lack of experts to make informed policies stemming from Gender Analysis;
- Declines in budgets allocated to the agricultural sector; and
- A lack of land ownership.

All of the aforementioned challenges have significantly stagnated agricultural growth amongst the rural communities of Uganda (Masaba 2014: 2). Rugumayo (2010: 9) also argues that the lack of electricity has constricted livelihoods amongst a majority of rural households in Africa. He advocates that unless governments *break the cycle of energy poverty*, rural communities will remain stagnant for a longer period of time. He also mentions that besides the rural communities of Tunisia, Ghana and South Africa, most other rural households of Africa lack this essential amenity (Rugumayo 2010:18).

Binswanger-Mkhize (2009: 9) views rural developmental challenge in Africa from a research-based perspective. He argues that the disconnect between researchers, donors and farmers has often stagnated rural development. He further notes that there are insufficient funds allocated to the heterogeneous challenges of disease, pests, water scarcity and similarly related concerns. IFAD (2016a: 132) advocates for rapid development amongst the rural communities of Africa. They stress this based on the trio of challenges facing most African nations, namely the youth bulge (which is only exclusive to the African continent), the deeply-entrenched barriers to factor mobility, as well as the decline in the manufacturing industry. Consequently, IFAD (2016a:132) argues that creating viable rural communities through remunerative rural employment cannot be over-emphasised in light of the present and complex challenges that rural communities of Africa face.

3.8 Rural communities of South Africa

In accordance with Seekings (2010:5) and Westaway (2010: 11), rural communities of South Africa rank amongst the most poverty stricken communities of the world. Exaggerated levels of inequality exist between this populace and their South African urban counterparts (Westaway 2010: 11). Prior to 1994, the bulk of the South African populace called the rural communities their home. During this era, an estimated 17 million South Africans were residing in areas referred to as the former homelands (The Presidency 2014: 4). Post-1994, the black populace who previously had limited access to urban centres now had the opportunity to freely move into larger cities in search of employment opportunities. Consequently, this resulted in a significant rural-urban exodus. Despite this exodus, the 2011 census figures estimated the South Africa rural population at 19 211 230 (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2015). The rural populace of South Africa currently accounts for 33 percent of the entire population (The Presidency 2014: 21). Additionally, a significant black populace who lived in urban communities had strong ties with rural communities. Rural communities of South Africa are often characterised by high incidences of poverty, institutional inertia, gross inequality and limited opportunities.

The high incidence of poverty is revealed through the 70 percent of rural household members who were living below the poverty line in comparison to their urban counterpart, which was at 40.5 percent (The Presidency 2014: 4). Table 3.6 further emphasises the inequality gap between rural household members and their urban counterparts.

Table 3.6: Inequality gap between Rural and Urban South Africa

S/N	Theme	Rural	Urban
1	Extent of Poverty	70 percent are poor	40.5 percent are poor
2	Employment levels	1 out of 4 adults are employed	2 out of 4 adults are employed
3	Food insecurity	3 out of 4 households experienced Food insecurity	Self-sufficiency in most urban households
4	Infrastructure	Inadequate	Sufficient across several cities
5	Education levels	Less than 30 percent of the adult workforce had primary education	A far more educated populace resides in urban centres
6	Malnourished	28.7 percent of children between the ages of 0- 6 years were malnourished	Children within the 0-6 age bracket were often nourished

Source: The Presidency (2014: 4-6)

A majority of rural household members are often dependent on subsistence farming or monthly social grants provided by the government, while many others sustain their livelihood through their relatives who live and work in urban areas (Maduna, Dlamini, Msimang, Mbizeni and Chetty 2013: 8; Bakre 2015:2). Social grants have a significant impact amongst

the rural communities of South Africa as one in every two rural households depends on it (Ramovha 2016: 18). This social grant is often insufficient as rural household members expend most of this on food and water, health, education, shelter, communication services, energy and transport (Ramovha 2016: 18). Similar to their rural counterparts globally, the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) highlights the main features of rural communities of South Africa as follows (Ramovha 2016: 19):

- Spatially situated households which complicates the possibility of providing rural services and infrastructure;
- An inadequacy of human and financial resources to tackle rural developmental projects;
- Inadequacy of employment opportunities (thus, low revenues in taxes);
- This often results in the inability of local municipalities to generate sufficient funds to finance developmental projects;
- Poor operation of factor markets amongst rural communities;
- Rural communities are usually '*politically marginalised*', which often results in the exclusion of the rural poor in contributing to governmental policies;
- Macroeconomic policies have often been discriminatory to the rural agricultural sector through the imposition of unaffordable taxes for rural farmers;
- A weak manufacturing sector primarily due to the inadequacy of infrastructure; and
- Traditional leaders have a great influence over the rural populace in comparison to the urban populace.

The sparse population and demographics of rural communities in South Africa can be largely attributed to the apartheid era, which was mainly influenced by apartheid policies deliberately orchestrated to impede development. Most of the rural areas of South Africa are characterised

by disordered settlement patterns with non-standardised houses (Ramovha 2016: 20-21). These non-standardised houses often exhibit poverty. The occupants of these homes are often the elderly who are chronically poor. In Statistics South Africa (2007: 4) is cited by Kodua-Agyekum (2009: 4), as positing that amongst the 2.5 million South African citizens who are above 65 years of age, 69 percent of this age bracket reside in rural communities. This source further alleges that 65 percent of the female-headed rural households of African origin are poor in comparison to 54 percent of male-headed households. There is however no homogeneity amongst the rural poor of South Africa. Whilst a large majority are dependent on farming related activities, others are involved in non-farming practices as a means to sustain their livelihood. Farmers who are engaged in farming practices often have access to land as tenants and smallholders. On the contrary, the non-farming populace fall within the category of self-employed and landless. This group of non-farmers are usually unskilled workers. Their landless condition and lack of skill have often exacerbated the extent of their poverty. This assertion is corroborated by Khan (2001) who states that the most poverty stricken rural members are those who are landless and unskilled and who rely on seasonal farming employment and other informal sector activities. A majority of this poorest stratum are elderly women and the physically challenged (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 4). The most singular cause of rural poverty is the inadequacy of employment opportunities. This cyclical poverty is further exacerbated by the return of retrenched employees from the cities; return after retirement; return of the elderly and sick; lack of education; and the high proportion of child-headed homes and single parents (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 5). The further deepening of the economic division between the 'have' and 'have nots' is due to the dualistic nature of the South African agricultural sector. On one side is the flourishing commercialised sector run by White farmers who benefited from the apartheid regime. On the other side is the distressed subsistence sector (predominantly run by Black farmers) (May and Carter 2009: 9; Vink and

Kirsten 2003: 13). This dualistic nature of the rural agricultural sector sets an unprecedented inequality in the coping mechanisms of rural communities (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 5). Long standing subsistence farming practices amongst the rural populace of South Africa have failed to take black rural households out of poverty. Consequently, it has been argued that subsistence farming amongst these communities is perceived as a weak impetus to tackling poverty. A majority of these farmers used the same rudimentary farming tools their forefathers had utilised. Thus, this primitive approach could not produce sufficiently, even if the land were to be fertile or they worked even harder (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 6). Sadly, the apartheid regime had allotted fertile grounds to White farmers, while black farmers were driven to non-fertile farming lands. This non-fertility equally contributes to the precarious state of the farmers' livelihoods. For this reason, the rural communities of South Africa in the present day are characterised by disguised unemployment, malnutrition, poverty and deprivation alongside their repercussive consequences (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 7). The rural characteristics depicted in this section epitomise the reflection of the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni where the study is being undertaken. As iterated in this sub-section, the exigency of addressing poverty through rural developmental initiatives cannot be over-emphasised.

3.9 Local governance and rural development

Local government officials (Councillors) are the forerunners amongst rural development stakeholders. This invariably implies that the extent or pace of development, stagnation or failure in rural communities can be largely attributed to the performance of rural Councillors (Bakre 2015: 26).

In accordance with the statement made by former Minister Valli Moosa (RSA 1998a:1), *local government is tasked with the distinctive status and role in building democracy and promoting socio-economic development*". *Local government is the sphere of government*

closest to local business and communities, tasked with ensuring growth and development in such communities (Meyer 2014: 4). Such ‘socio-economic development’ highlighted in this context entails the alleviation of poverty; addressing unemployment and bridging the inequality gap, which are major concerns amongst a vast majority of the rural communities in South Africa. The local government (since year 2000) has made concerted efforts to rebuild the previously disadvantaged communities created by the apartheid government. Local government aims to create an integrated and viable economic space that is socially resilient (Meyer 2014: 4). As stipulated by the South African Constitution, local governance is required to drive a developmental agenda and stimulate participatory citizenship, whilst also promoting socio-economic inclusiveness and development in their immediate community (RSA 1996).

The post-apartheid policy framework on developmental issues focused on community development, with emphasis on a “pro-poor” agenda. This framework further mandates Councillors as the drivers of these pro-poor agenda. However, rural developmental analysts (Rogerson 2009:51) have often contended that the pro-poor agenda has partly been undermined by the lack of direction from government at the national and provincial levels. Sibisi (2009: 14) equally critiques local governance when he mentions that ‘*rural communities are especially in need of strong local government, but have the weakest local government structures with a lack of information, skills, funding and capacity*’. Some of these deficiencies have thus compounded the cyclical poverty amongst the rural communities of South Africa.

Table 3.7 summarises the functions and roles played by Local government, more particularly vis a vis the roles dealing with local development. These functions and roles emanate from the White Paper on Local Government and that of the South African Constitution (Section 152).

Table 3.7: Functions and role of local government

S/n	White Paper on Local Government	South African Constitution (Section 152)
1	Maximise, integrate and co-ordinate social and economic growth	Provide democratic and accountable government for all communities
2	Re-distribute resources	Ensure service provision in a sustainable manner
3	Provide good basic services in order for the private sector to prosper	Promote social and economic development
4	Simplify regulations	Promote a safe and healthy environment
5	Support local procurement policies	Encourage community participation and involvement in matters of the area
6	Provide one-stop facilities, marketing, investment, training and research	Structure and manage administrative, budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community

7	Establish links and partnerships with local role players (RSA 1998a)	Participate in national and provincial development programmes
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Source: Adapted from RSA (1998a); RSA (1996)

Atkinson (2003: 1) cited by Meyer (2014:8) summarises the phases of local governance in South Africa into three waves of development (since 1994). He earmarks the first wave as the years between 1994 and 1997. This period was characterised by the *political unification of municipalities separated under apartheid*. These years were primarily characterised by political transformation as opposed to the functioning and development of municipalities. Atkinson further mentions that the *concept of developmental local governance* started during the second wave in 1998. This wave witnessed the amendment of Municipal boundaries, whilst also launching the ‘*wall-to-wall*’ municipality system by the Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998), and the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000). This developmental state was outlined within an agendum of four principles (Atkinson 2003: 1 cited by Meyer 2014:8), namely:

- the maximisation of social and economic development;
- integrated and co-ordinated development activities;
- citizen participation; and
- strong leadership-building capacity.

On the other hand, the commencement of the third wave was after the *first democratic municipal elections in 2000*. This era marked the condensing of the then 843 municipalities to

284 and then to the recent 278 municipalities (Atkinson 2003: 1 cited by Meyer 2014:8). It was anticipated that the third wave will bring about the fulfilment of a developmental paradigm within a context of service delivery and economic transformation. This however proved futile due to the incapacity to implement (Atkinson 2003: 1 cited by Meyer 2014:8).

As an agendum to addressing the challenges and gaps amongst municipalities, the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) was launched to further empower municipalities through the provision of support for local councillors (SALGA 2012: 21). Furthermore, SALGA's agenda involves the advocacy of fundamental principles that are orchestrated to underpin good Local Economic Development (LED) practices. Some of these practices include (SALGA 2012: 21):

- the creation of awareness, accountability and leadership on LED amongst Councillors;
- Capacity building at a local level;
- Donor alignment with the main needs;
- A more purposive focus and national position on the informal sector;
- Support for sustainable and locally-owned LED strategies; and
- Supporting LED dialogues and partnerships through consultative forums.

For the betterment and advancement of local municipalities, particularly the poverty stricken communities found in rural areas, SALGA has been working closely with Botswana, Namibia and Sweden. This partnership is aimed at fostering the exchange of strategies and approaches that result in successful LED practices (SALGA 2012: 22). Despite these exchanges of strategies (knowledge) that have led to successful LEDs in neighbouring countries, implementation capacity has been lacking amongst rural municipalities in South Africa. Some political analysts have attributed the “un-conducive setting” in which Councillors

operate as one of the factors undermining implementation capacity. The settings in which these Councillors operate are outlined in Table 3.8 (Cashdan 2000: 2-4; Madumo 2015: 162-163).

Table 3.8: Setting in which local government officials operate

S/n	Core challenges	
1	A history of discrimination	The apartheid era resulted in the forceful removal, dispossession and segregation of the Black populace, which exacerbated poverty and the concentration of most of the country's resources such as land in the hands of the White minority. This cyclical poverty has run through several generations. Hence, such poverty becomes even more burdensome on the government's limited budget as a significant amount is allocated to social grants.
2	Worsening poverty and inequality	A large number of the rural populace still lives in abject poverty, the majority of whom are rural household members.
3	Geographic segregation	Communities of South Africa are often deeply divided. These divisions are usually along economic and racial groups.
4	Rising unemployment	Due to few opportunities (in rural areas) as well as the inadequacy of skills amongst the rural populace, high incidences of unemployment are typified across the rural communal spectrum of South Africa.
5	Service backlogs	Several deep rural communities of South Africa still do not have access to basic services such as electricity, piped water and toilet facilities, as well as other basic amenities that their urban counterparts enjoy.

6	Persistent non-payment	Due to the level of poverty amongst rural households, many breadwinners are unable to pay bills, which in turn affects government's revenue. Non-payment has resulted in ESKOM cutting off power supply to those municipalities that do not conform to regularity of payment.
7	Popular dissatisfaction	A wave of unprecedented protests has stormed several communities across the country. The causes of these protests range from issues such as the demarcation of municipal borders to imposition of Councillors by the ANC on community members to poor services. This continuous protest has brought about a lack of cooperation between Councillors and community members.
8	Financial constraints and mismanagement	A typical scenario faced by rural municipalities in South Africa is the insufficiency of funds to finance capital projects. Moreover, rural municipalities also lack experts who are able to package suitable proposals towards the development of their communities. Adjoining these are poor accountability, poor auditing, as well as poor monitoring and evaluation. Furthermore, a series of embezzlement scandals by government officials have been recorded over the years.
9	Pressure from business	There has been surmountable pressure from business entities over the years. This pressure is contrary to the White papers' advocacy, which emphasises warnings to local municipalities not to burden local businesses with high tariffs. An economic analyst reflected a similar sentiment when she wrote: <i>the White paper's declaration that the 'provision of basic household infrastructure is the central contribution made by local</i>

		<i>government to social and economic development 'is worrying'. This neglects economic development and potentially commits local government to a non-sustainable needs-driven approach.</i>
10	Restructuring	Hurriedly drawn municipality borders and negotiated ward boundaries resulted in a disjointed system. This led to metropolitans being divided into unrealistic sub-structures, while rural communities and small towns were <i>cut up like a patchwork quilt</i> . Though, some re-demarcation processes have been made post-apartheid, some of this restructuring is still often debated.

Source: Cashdan (2000); Madumo (2015)

Worth mentioning is that the aforementioned challenges were the core issues undermining the performance of local governance 10-20 years ago. These previously raised concerns are still factors undermining local governance performance in the current dispensation. In line with this issue, one of this study's objectives is to 'evaluate the nature of local governments' capacity to implement rural developmental initiatives in the current dispensation'.

Having outlined the non-compromising setting in which councillors operate, further challenges are the "Councillors themselves". The disturbingly familiar situation narrated by rural developmental analysts two decades ago are still amongst the prominent challenges narrated by mainstream and contemporary literature. The underlining factors (amongst Councillors) such as incapacitation; poor evaluation; poor monitoring; and a lack of political will are still heavily raised concerns two decades post the apartheid era. As agreed upon by several rural developmental analysts, *the pace of development at grassroots is largely dependent on councillors*. Hence, poor capacitation alongside other issues makes it near impossible to translate theory into practice. The ex-Finance Minister, Pravin Gordhon,

echoed similar views when he mentioned that “funding of developmental issues was not the issue, but lack of capacitation”. Meyer (2014: 4) equally points to similar factors such as unsustainable communal developmental initiatives, poor analysis of grassroots economics, a lack of skilled and competent Councillors, as well as a lack of resources.

Additionally, the spatial distribution of households in the rural communities of South Africa makes it near impossible for government to initiate infrastructural projects in such settlements (South Africa 2013:12-13; Bakre 2015: 60). Also undermining the efforts of the Councillors is the plethora of complicated legislation. Legislation such as the Municipal Systems Act (32 of 2000) as well as the Municipal Structures Act (117 f 1998) are considered by political analysts to be complex (Community Law Centre 2008: 2). With regards to this, government introduced much stricter legislation rather than proposing the required support and supervision. Hence, this has led to overwhelming high costs, and the stifling of ideas and rural development initiatives (Community Law Centre 2008:20).

Having identified some of the core challenges that rural Councillors are faced with, the proceeding section further provides a discussion on the challenges undermining rural development initiatives in South Africa.

3.10 Challenges facing rural development initiatives in South Africa

Political analysts have often argued that South Africa has one of the most progressive constitutions globally (Theron 2011: 1-3). Theoretically, this may be correct. However, the execution and implementation of this policy has being widely criticised by political analysts and opposition parties to the ruling party (Jacobs and Hart 2014: 159-161). A number of factors have been cited as undermining some of the government’s efforts. One such constraining factor to government’s efforts (initiatives) is the influence of corporate organisations and individuals who fund political parties. Some of these funders have vested

interests and thus support political parties as a means of “buying political favour” (Corporate Governance Framework 2015: 2).

This vested interest amongst business tycoons funding political parties can be categorised as a factor affecting rural development initiatives as the sponsors have some influence in directing the decisions of political parties. A series of scandals have been reported amongst the likes of Willie Madisha, Shabir Shaik, Brett Kebble and the ‘Oilgate’ sagas (Corporate Governance Framework 2015: 2), all of which are reported to have funded political parties for personal gain. The Corporate Governance Framework (2015: 2) alleges that “*not only does secretive funding of political parties cause major suspicion of ‘buying’ political favour, it also epitomises poor corporate governance practices within a country, as well as marginalising the voice of ordinary voters. These factors, amongst others, damage every aspect of our moral and social values and undermines the democratic ethos and principals of our Constitutional rights*”. Hence, in such circumstances, the voice of marginalised and disadvantaged communities is often side-lined because investors do not consider rural communities as a good investment option (Carrol and Buchholtz 2003: 8-12).

Secondly, poor monitoring and evaluation of rural development initiatives have also undermined the success of such projects (Public Service Commission 2009: 78-79). Poor accountability in rural municipalities, the lack of whistle-blowers, corruption and the embezzlement of public funds are great threats to the success of rural development initiatives (Sheoraj 2007: 98-102). There have been instances whereby funds for rural projects have being diverted into personal accounts. These undermining dynamics can be partly attributed to the respect and loyalty that community members have for their traditional leaders and local councillors, as well as their allegiance to a political party.

Furthermore, in circumstances where a political party dominates a certain community, opposition groups are often easily silenced as they constitute a minority group. Hence this gives room for some politicians to govern and implement rural developmental initiatives in accordance with their desires. In circumstances where community members express their dissatisfaction over rural development initiatives, local governance has been characterised by a denialist responses or a “*this is not within our mandate approach*” (Paulus and Samuels 2012: 113). Such unfortunate circumstances have prevailed primarily due to the lack of evaluation, a lack of close monitoring of rural projects and corrupt practices (Public Service Commission 2009: 55; Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2003: 2-5).

Poor managerial skills have also being cited as one of several reasons why rural development initiatives have not yielded the desired results. Democratically elected leaders, traditionally elected leaders, as well as non-elected leaders from the royal family co-exist and simultaneously run the affairs of rural communities (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform 2013: 17). Some non-elected leaders who assume positions by succession do not necessarily possess administrative and managerial skills, yet such leaders are permitted to run the affairs of rural communities and play a significant role in the formulation and implementation of rural developmental initiatives (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform 2013: 15-17).

Critics from the opposing political party, such as Helen Zille of the Democratic Alliance (Premier to the Western Cape Province), have endorsed many of the initiatives. However, she argues that under the current leadership, such initiatives will not be satisfactorily implemented due to a lack of skill amongst some of the ANC front-runners (Sapa 2011: 2; Phiri 2019). Furthermore, rural municipalities often lack personnel who are skilled enough to package proposals which will avail rural communities the opportunity to access much needed funds to facilitate capital projects (Department of Rural Development 2013: 7). Worth

mentioning also is the pertinent concern regarding the lack of technical planning capacity amongst rural municipalities (Public Service Commission 2009: 63).

Having highlighted some of these constraints to rural development initiatives, the proceeding chapters of this study will identify and critically review all factors capable of undermining rural development initiatives in South Africa, with key focus on the communities under study. In addition, critical imperatives to support rural developmental initiatives will be identified to determine whether such initiatives can be realistically achieved under the contextual factors currently pervasive in South Africa.

3.11 The imperatives for rural development

The term “Rural development” has been in vogue for a number of decades. A vast array of studies have also been conducted to suggest pathways towards the development of rural communities mainly amongst the African, Asian and Latino communities (SOAS 2015; Wiggins and Keats 2014; Losch, Freguin-Gresh and White 2012).

While some of these authors have advocated the development of rural communities through agriculture, some others have suggested tourism as the pathway to rural advancement, amongst others (Qongo 2013; Okech, Haghiri and George 2012; de Klerk, Fraser and Fullerton 2013; Chakwizira 2010). These studies may have differed in a number of ways, however, one point of agreement is that “rural development is imperative”. Hence, this section provides a number of cogent reasons as to why rural development is imperative in South Africa, as well as amongst other developing nations.

- **Tackling poverty in a proactive manner**

Empirical studies have shown that nations who address the fundamental needs of their rural populace (squarely) have been able to drastically reduce the extent of poverty in such

countries (IFAD 2016a; Bakre 2015: 27). Exemplifying this is the case of China wherein an estimated 23 million individuals were taken out of the poverty circle within five years. This was achievable through agricultural empowerment interventions by the Chinese government (Li 2015; Loh 2019; Chen 2010). Furthermore, poverty is of much concern amongst the rural community of South Africa whose majority population wallows in abject poverty. Most children born into rural households are likely to be born in a poverty-stricken household, which thus adds to the number of economically disempowered individuals. In the short-and long-terms, this burdens governmental expenditure as government will have to spend more on social grants to provide for the needs of such households (Meyer and Nishimwe-Niyimbanira 2016; Obi 2016).

- **Addressing inequality**

South Africa is currently ranked the most unequal country globally (World Bank Group 2019). Despite the numerous strategies, approaches and interventions that have been utilised in the post-apartheid era, indicators such as pitiable living conditions as well as the high income disparity between rural households and their urban counterparts are evidential that a wide economic gap still persists between these two groups (Hundenborn, Leibbrandt and Woolard 2016; Tibesigwa and Visser 2016). This view is further echoed by Beaubien (2018) who argues that the inequality gap in South Africa has further widened in the last few years. Thus, pragmatic rural development interventions are required to reduce the inequality gap between the “haves” and “have-nots”. The notion of bridging the inequality gap in South Africa is equally emphasised by the National Development Plan (South Africa National Development Plan 2011: 195-196). Political analysts and opposition political parties to the ruling party (African Nation Congress- ANC) have however argued that the ANC has gone against the NDP’s agenda. The oppositions quantify their argument with the controversial State Capture report released by the Office of the Public Protector, which alleges that certain

influential figures have influenced the South African government in a number of ways for the benefit of the rich, which has been speculated to further create a wider gap between the rich and the poor (Institute for Security Studies 2017; Public Protector South Africa 2016; Public Affairs Research Institute 2017).

- **Growth of the agricultural sector**

The agricultural sector plays an integral role in the South African economy. This sector contributes 2 percent to the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries 2017). Furthermore, this sector is interrelated to a host of other sectors in the country. One of such inter-relatedness to the agricultural sector is the manufacturing sector, which is heavily reliant on the agricultural sector (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries 2017). This implies that if the rural communities wherein most of the agricultural activities are taking place are neglected, it will adversely impact on the manufacturing sector and a host of other sectors of the economy (Kirsten 2016; Pfunzo2017).

- **Reducing the strain on urban communities**

Over the years, South Africa's major metropolitan cities such as Johannesburg, Pretoria and Durban have been congested due to the migration of the rural populace to urban centres, as well as the high influx of foreign nationals (IOM, 2015). This uncontrolled migration pattern has often brought about the outstretching of infrastructure, as well as environmental threats in urban centres (International Organisation for Migration 2015). The UN Habitat (2007 cited by Bakre and Dorasamy 2017) also mentions that unprecedented migration patterns have

contributed to the upsurge of slums in the cities of South Africa. These often unplanned informal settlements are usually characterised by a number of vices such as poor sanitation, poverty, crime and drug peddling (International Organisation for Migration 2015). Furthermore, the influx of the rural populace and foreign nationals to the cities of South Africa has brought about steeper competition for limited opportunities and resources, which in a number of cases has instigated violence. Such violent occurrences have been closely linked to the 2008 as well as the 2015 xenophobic crisis in some cities of South Africa (International Organisation for Migration 2015). Camlin, Snow and Hosegood (2014) equally add that the high influx to urban centres is the core reason for increases in the prices of housing, commodities and transportation costs.

- **Upholding of rights**

A number of rights stipulated in the South African Constitution and various Acts by entities such as the Department of Water and Sanitation (DWS) can only be achievable through concerted efforts in the implementation of specific rural development initiatives. Some of these advocacies made by the Constitution and DWS are outlined below. Section 27 of the Bill of Rights in the Constitution stipulates that *“everyone has the right to have access to sufficient food and water, and the State must take reasonable legislative and other measures to achieve the progressive realisation of these rights”* (Department of Water Affairs 2011:17). This Bill is yet to be achieved as an estimated five percent of South Africa’s populace are yet to gain access to piped water, majority of whom are households that reside in deep rural communities (Department of Water Affairs and Sanitation 2014:2). The aforementioned bill is reiterated in the Water Services Act (Act 108 of 1997) and its accompanying regulations, which interpret the Constitutional right of *“access to water*

sufficiency” as access to quality water in sufficient quantity and with a steady supply (Nkondo, Zyl, Keuris and Schreiner 2012: 22).

Accompanying this narrative is the White Paper on National Water Policy which equally states that “everyone has the right of access to sufficient water (Bill of Rights, Constitution of South Africa, Section 27 (1)(b)). A literal translation of the above content implies that every South African citizen, irrespective of the location they may reside be it a urban or rural community, will be entitled to sufficient water. However, this policy has not been totally achieved amongst a host of South Africa rural communities (Hellum 2014:2). As enshrined in Section 24 of the Bill of Rights, “*every citizen has a right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being*”. However, over the years, the natural resources found in some rural communities of South Africa have not been used in a sustainable manner. This no doubt exacerbates livelihood in rural communities which often have a heavy reliance on natural resources. Achieving the sustainability of resources in rural communities will require well-thought out plans through a concise rural development action plan. Thus, implementing the constituents of the above policies will require rural development.

- **Diversifying the South African economy**

The South African economy has stagnated since the first quarter of 2014 till present times [second quarter of 2017] (National Treasury 2018). Economic indicators such as the growth rate and Gross Domestic Product have not been enticing to investors (National Treasury 2018). Moreover, unemployment records reached a peak (in 25 years) at 29 percent (Statistics South Africa 2019a). Going by this rhetoric, economic analysts may need to think in a more pragmatic direction. This forward looking direction may lie in creating viable rural communities as an agendum to initiating opportunities for the citizenry. Furthermore, the

highest levels of unemployment are often amongst the rural populace who have limited opportunities (Development Policy Research Unit 2017). In line with this, the development of rural spaces thus becomes imperative as an agenda to diversifying the South African economy.

- **Redistribution of income**

South Africa is amongst the most unequal societies of the world. This assertion is corroborated by a Gini Coefficient of 0.63 (World Bank Group 2019). To address this financial disparity between the “haves” and “have-nots”, the post-apartheid regime has initiated a number of tailor-made initiatives to address this concern. Initiatives such as GEAR, IDP and CDRP have been drafted and executed. However, there has been some level of disparity between the ‘content on paper’ and the actual programmes. Judging by the General Household survey in 2017, a high income disparity between the rural and urban households of South Africa was revealed (Statistics South Africa 2018d). This equally asserts that a majority of rural household members are economically excluded. In line with the poverty trend which has ravaged a high number of households, the imperativeness of giving more intense support to rural development cannot be over-emphasised.

Unless rural communities are developed, urban communities will ultimately need to provide the rescue resources and monies to support the rural populace. Having raised the above cogent reasons as to why rural development is important, the following section further provides a discourse on why monitoring rural developmental initiatives is equally imperative,

as rural development usually takes place through the close monitoring and evaluation of rural development initiatives.

3.12 The need to monitor rural development initiatives

Papadopoulou, Papalexiou and Hasanagas (2012: 81) affirm that the monitoring and evaluation of rural development initiatives (programmes) is often a daunting task. They further argue that the assessment of the results and their effects are often complex due to the multi-faceted nature of rural developmental challenges. Notwithstanding this, a majority of authors and institutions within the ambit of rural development have often emphasised the necessity of monitoring and evaluating rural development initiatives (Department of Planning Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME) 2012); Labuschagne 2010; Zwane 2008).

In order to emphasise the importance of monitoring rural developmental initiatives, this section will partly dwell on the evaluation and monitoring report conducted by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform on the CRDP, in collaboration with the Department of Planning Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME).

Four core themes emerged from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform's (DRDLR) report on the CRDP. These were inclusive of "*strengthening the CRDP's institutional arrangements, improving the attainment of its objectives, upscaling the CRDP and improving value for money, as well as broader rural development*" (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2015). The report also highlighted the following three areas: to identify areas of expertise that could be further strengthened, areas of weaknesses which required a different approach and areas which required improvement (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2015). This report was based on research amongst the nine provinces of South Africa, wherein two sites each were chosen per province, which made a total of 18 case sites. The study

population included 110 key informants, which comprised personnel from the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF); Directors from the DRDLR; Municipality Officials; Ward Councillors; Councils of Stakeholders (COS); Traditional leaders, as well as members of the community. The report revealed that an estimated R757 million had been expended on these 18 sites between July 2009 and June 2012. The expenditure benefitted 322 501 rural inhabitants. Additionally, an estimated R42 million was expended on each of the sites, which translates to an average CRDP per capita expenditure of R3 261 and R 13 138 per household. The initial estimated cost to implement the CRDP was R61.5 billion amongst the 2 920 rural wards (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2015). Considering these enormous amounts expended on rural development initiatives, it becomes expedient to occasionally account for such funds. This report was however valuable as several important gaps were revealed. Table 3.9 thus provides a summary of the key findings which emanate from the report.

Table 3.9: Key findings of the report

Sn	Theme	Summary of findings
1	Gaps	The CRDP was considered to have recorded significant success in aspects such as the provision of basic needs to a number of rural households. However, much was still required with regard to employment generation and community empowerment.
2	Value for money	Value For Money (VFM) was not attained in most instances. This implied that the areas in which CRDP was achieving its objectives was at an extremely high cost.

3	Commitment of government officials	Poor commitment by government officials to participating in CRDP. This also related to the overlapping mandates in provinces in terms of what their roles were within the rural development sphere.
4	Relationship between the DRDLR and DAFF	Weak relationships between the DRDLR and the DAFF have an adverse impact on the success of the CRDP. Insufficient support from provincial and local champions had also been discovered.
5	Poor dissemination of information	Poor dissemination of information undermined integrated planning, as well as resulting in unclear links to the prioritisation and planning of various programmes, particularly at the municipal level.
6	Poor community representation	Weaknesses in community representation and inadequate consultation with the wider community at all sites, had led to the risk of inclusion of inappropriate projects, resistance to the COS and tensions with traditional authorities.
7	Lack of training	As part of the empowerment drive, there had been a lack of leadership training, especially on adult basic education training (ABET) and career guidance.
8	Post-registration inconsistencies	With regard to the creation of jobs and the promotion of economic livelihoods, cooperative and enterprise creation and support had been looked into. There was much focus

on registration, but post-registration support - especially access to markets - was found wanting. This created a challenge around sustainability. Weak entrepreneurial and business management skills, as well as mismatches the types of cooperatives and viable business opportunities were also discovered.

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| 9 | Water shortages | The evaluation found that the establishment of food gardens for household food supply and income generation had improved the access to food in rural communities. It had also provided some income from surpluses at some sites. Water still remained a major constraint at many sites, which related to collaboration with the permanent Ministers in charge of water infrastructure, water quality and programmes of that nature. |
| 10 | Inadequacy of
Extension workers | There was a big gap with regard to the establishment of small-holder farmers and the provision of extension support due to the focus of the programme on subsistence farming. Extension support was poor and partnerships with the DAFF were found wanting. |
| 11 | Lack of infrastructure | With regard to economic infrastructure, the evaluation found that water supply was a big challenge; the quality of roads remained poor, thereby undermining growth in rural economies and local enterprises; and even though there were numerous positive impacts around electrification, |

there was still a geographical unevenness, which created problems around social cohesion.

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|----|-----------------------------------|---|
| 12 | Poor functionality of clinics | The functioning of rural clinics was still a severe challenge as the evaluation found that there was a lack of medical supplies, inadequate staffing, irregular opening hours and long queues. |
| 13 | Cultural infrastructure | With regard to cultural infrastructure, there had been much investment in tribal offices, but there was a lack of clarity about the impact of that programme on the overall community. |
| 14 | Non-functioning of infrastructure | A variety of facilities were not functional. An example was the Sokhulumi library, which had no electricity. |
| 15 | Poor monitoring of projects | The major concerns were the poor maintenance of infrastructure, poor monitoring of contractors, issues around the quality of infrastructure that had been provided, as well as the management and operations of facilities, especially the ICT. |
| 16 | Access to land | The findings on land reform showed that there was a lack of access to land, especially where communal land and municipal commonage land was involved. This had a direct impact on household food supply and the ability to secure sustainable livelihoods. There were poor beneficiary plans for land development and also inadequate provision |

for farming skills.

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|----|---|---|
| 17 | Land tenure policy | The tenure status of the various communities was precarious and insecure tenure undermined investment in rural communities, thereby creating a policy vacuum on communal land tenure policy. There was limited community understanding of land reform processes, the leasing approach, as well as the legalities around signing agreements. Conflicts were also found in community property associations and beneficiaries, and between strategic partners and beneficiaries. |
| 18 | Exclusion of the disabled and people living with HIV/AIDS | The findings related to the programme's ability to reach the target population showed that there were some successes in terms of reaching women, the youth, the elderly and the unemployed. However, challenges existed with regard to targeting the disabled, people with living HIV/AIDS and child-headed households. It was also found that partnerships with civil societies and NGOs had to be strengthened. Disabled people were in worse situations in the rural areas than the urban areas, hence a conscious effort had to be made to include disabled people in the various policies. |
| 19 | Allocation and spending of money | Provinces thought only about the state of the province when budgeting, which did not necessarily represent the entire state of the nation. There were also issues around |

implementation. For instance, the DAFF issued equitable shares to the provinces, but did not prescribe what must be done with the money. Consequently, the provinces ended up spending the money on what suited them.

20 Non-alignment between the APP and budgets	Reports presented to the Committee on the value for money reflected the expenditure and performance that had been researched. One of the problems faced had been the structural problem, where the annual performance plan (APP) was presented to the Committee before the budget on the policies was presented. Hence, there was no alignment between the APP and the budget.
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Source: DRDLR (2014)

In relation to the 20 themes which emanated through the CRDP's monitoring and evaluation report, Labuschagne (2013), and Nguyen, Wells and Nguyen (2019) also highlight the following reasons as to the need to monitor rural development initiatives. These includes: Accountability; Identifying short comings, while addressing issues promptly; Building upon past mistakes; Cost savings – VFM; Sustainability of projects; Measure progressing; a Practical approach to tackling poverty; and Curbing poor accountability and the mismanagement of resources.

In conjunction with the aforementioned imperatives on the need to monitor rural developmental initiatives, notable rural developmental analysts such as Gaventa and Lewis (1989) and Tacoli (1998) correspondingly argue that a proper monitoring process of rural

development initiatives often results in the trickling-down of developmental agendas to the grassroots level. Gasteyer and Herman (2013) equally echo the sentiments shared by a variety of rural development analysts when they outline the importance of monitoring rural development initiatives as follows:

- It provides empirical evidence on whether a specific policy worked or not;
- It also provides information about the sustainability of the effects of a given policy intervention;
- By comparing the results of a policy intervention with target values it provides information on the effectiveness of a given policy intervention and the achievability of more general societal goals (e.g. concerning growth or development) using this specific policy instrument;
- It helps to re-design a policy intervention (programme) to make it more effective and efficient (by taking into consideration the costs of intervention);
- It provides arguments for the continuation or dis-continuation of policies/programmes by comparing social benefits with the costs of specific policy interventions;
- It helps to learn about the functioning of economic, social and environmental processes;
- It improves the institutional capacities of organisations involved in impact evaluations;
- It improves decision-making at all levels; and
- It provides some information regarding the accountability of institutions involved in the formulation and implementation of policies in order to foster a common perspective and approach to the impact evaluation of Rural Development Programmes and their potential impacts on people, society and the environment.

Despite the above justifications for monitoring and evaluating rural development initiatives, adequate monitoring and evaluation still does not take place in some organisations or institutions or governmental departments for a number of reasons. Some of these are inclusive of poor leadership style, inadequacy of resources or personnel, poor organisational culture, corruption and unethical practices. The DRDLR (2014) also postulates that individuals often create a linkage between monitoring and evaluation with undesirable connotations. This postulation is based on the premise that if findings of such monitoring and evaluation results reveal serious areas of weaknesses regarding efficiency in the manner in which programmes are rolled out, a further enquiry would be required to take place after the first monitoring and evaluation. Thus, this will likely result in a lack of enthusiasm from different units to offer initiatives in the future that would require monitoring and evaluation.

It has been proven empirically that a number of adverse consequences emanate as a result of the inadequate monitoring or evaluation of development programmes. Some of the adverse consequences are the reversal of the positives (of monitoring rural developmental initiatives) highlighted above. Some of these include poor accountability; wide spread corruption; nepotism; poor 'Value for money'; a lack of sustainability of projects; a lack of transparency; the exacerbation of poverty; and the mismanagement of resources, amongst other adverse consequences (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2015).

Thus, in consonance with the above line of reasoning, the significance of the current study on rural developmental initiatives amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni is further emphasised.

3.13 Conclusion

The significant progress in development since the 18th century and, more recently, the 1970s has shown assertiveness in the desire to achieve development and growth across most regions of the globe. While some success stories have also been recorded in the rural development edifice, a number of political and structural undertones have undermined rural development across the globe in recent times. The pace of rural development has been slightly impacted in different quarters of the globe due to the activities of conglomerates. For instance, the process of production amongst these conglomerates has adversely impacted on climate change, which significantly affects the rural populace who are often reliant on natural resources.

The line of investment made by multinational conglomerates and corporate entities has also reduced spending power on rural development initiatives across the globe. These capitalistic entities are often not convinced about investing in rural communities or in rural developmental initiatives. Additionally, the policy uncertainty in South Africa, particularly the one witnessed at the inception of the second quarter of 2017 resulted in the downgrading of the South African economy to 'junk status' by two rating agencies. Political analysts have argued that the worst-hit South Africans in such circumstance are the poor households, particularly those in rural areas. Exacerbating the current livelihood of rural households is the unparalleled amount of external and internal forces opposing rural development sustainability, which is in far contrast to the pace of rural development.

In as much as the Department of Rural Development and Land Reforms has recorded a number of success stories relating to rural development in South Africa, government and non-governmental institutions are both in agreement that much still needs to be done to undo the past inequality created by the apartheid government.

Rural development and political analysts have often argued that the inequality and poverty in South Africa, particularly amongst rural households, can be more effectively addressed when rural development stakeholders work in the same direction. However, this has not been the case as rural developmental stakeholders have often worked in isolation, which has impacted on the pace of rural development. Hence, this calls for drastic and well-thought out rural developmental initiatives to intervene in the cyclical poverty in rural South Africa. In this plight, this chapter equally emphasised the necessity to closely monitor rural developmental initiatives.

The proceeding chapter will provide insight into present day rural South Africa, while typifying with the cases of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni to demonstrate the gap between the projected outcome and current reality of rural communities in South Africa.

CHAPTER FOUR: POVERTY IN RURAL SOUTH AFRICA: AN INSIGHT INTO MGOBODZI, LUSIKISIKI MCOBOTHINI AND GUNJANENI

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a pictorial precept of rural communities from a global perspective, which was at a later stage narrowed down to the South African narrative. This chapter gives a similar precept, but one confined to the South African context. It attempts to describe a typical South Africa rural community by highlighting the distinguishing features eminent in typical rural communities in South Africa. While the core distinguishing facet highlighted herein was ‘poverty’, other typified features eminent in rural South Africa such as marginalisation, a lack of opportunities, inequality, infrastructural deficits, service delivery backlogs and unemployment are also discussed. The narrative in this chapter is further fine-tuned using the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni as a frame to providing a vivid illustration. A distinguishing feature of this chapter is its ability to provide a vivid depiction of rural communities in South Africa through the aid of Tables, Figures and Pictures, as well as in-depth narratives.

4.2 Insight into rural communities of South Africa

Rural communities in South Africa are characterised as regions with low population densities (Azimoh, Klintenberg, Wallin and Karlsson 2015: 355). This small populace is often attributed to the lack of economic opportunities (Meyer 2013: 260). The lack of opportunities has over the years made rural communities regions that are characterised with high incidents of poverty and unemployment (Pieterse 2016: 2). Furthermore, the predominant lifestyle is usually traditional. Traditional features are notable not only in the rural populace’s lifestyle, but is also visible in the homesteads and farming practices (Maragelo 2008: 40-43). Features notable amongst rural communities in South Africa are also inclusive of a poor standard of living, a scarcity of basic services to fulfil basic needs, a lack of basic amenities, poor

education, and a lack of technical competencies (Meyer 2013: 41). Another commonality found amongst rural communities in South Africa is the predominance of the black race (Mhlauli, Salani and Mokotedi 2015). According to International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (2018), above 90 percent of the rural populace are of the black race.

Daniels, Partridge, Kekana and Musundwa (2013: 3) make a distinction between rural South African communities and their continental counterparts. Daniels *et al.* (2013: 3) mention that while rural communities of Africa had farmed for over 100 years, their (rural) South African counterparts were prohibited for over 100 years during the apartheid regime from making agriculture their main source of livelihood. The de-agrarianisation experienced during this period exacerbated the level of paucity amongst the rural communities of South Africa. Although rural development analysts have over the years advocated for the re-invigoration of subsistence farming as an agendum to a sustainable rural livelihood, this has been problematic due to the land tenure policy reforms which require the revamping of the institutional inertia, a long-term funding commitment, as well as extensive planning (Adams, Sibanda and Turner 1999). This was a major concern prior to the post-apartheid era. Regrettably, the same challenge still re-surfaces in the current era (Clark and Luwaya 2017: 3-5). The author raises this concern at this juncture as there exists a nexus between sources of livelihood and poverty (Tibesigwa and Visser 2016: 33). Unfortunately, the raised concern is yet to be addressed within the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

Daniels *et al.* (2013: 19) also draw a distinction between rural and urban South African communities. They point out the differing livelihood strategies used amongst both communities, the most notable being the ‘agrarianisation of rural communities as opposed to de-agrarianisation in urban centres’. Based on the current reality, the agenda proposed by South Africa’s National Development Plan (NDP) to promote rural development and rural

employment generation of 1 000 000 jobs (in the agricultural sector) by 2030 seems far from feasible (NDP 2011: 225). Particularly within communities such as Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, such proposals driven by the NDP are yet to be materialised and such prognose are not feasible based on the current trend (Mtubatuba Municipality IDP 2018; Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017).

Further distinguishing features prominent across rural South Africa are outdated traditional farming practices; a lack of economic diversity; isolation due to long distances and the inadequacy of communication systems; unhealthy environmental situations, the lack of sanitation; difficult accessibility to potable water; and a lack of access to health facilities (Meyer 2013: 41; Tibesigwa and Visser 2016; Siphiosami Mamba and Isabirye 2014). These aforementioned features are typical in the three rural communities being studied. For instance, at the time that this study was being conducted, there were no clinics in Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini, while that at Gunjaneni was under-resourced.

Rural communities in South Africa can be classified into three main categories due to the extent of their ‘rural-ness’, namely deep rural areas, rural regions and fringe/ peripheral rural regions (Ogunronbi and Gama 2010).

This rural classification is further amplified in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Rural classification in South Africa

S/n	Classification	Features	Examples
1	Deep rural regions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mountainous regions - 95 percent of households living below the poverty line - Households in isolation - Poor access to services - Lack of infrastructure - Communities are situated about four hours’ drive from major cities 	<p>Southern region of KwaZulu-Natal</p> <p>Significant portion of the North-West Province</p>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Above 90% of land is used for farming purposes or the primary sector - This region has no clear primary node, but a number of small service centres in the form of small villages 	Significant portion of the Eastern Cape Province
2	Rural regions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sparsely populated communities - 85 percent of households living below the poverty line - Communities are situated between two to four hours' drive from major cities - Poor access to services - Above 70% of land is used for farming purposes or the primary sector - The region has rural nodes in the form of medium to small rural towns as service centres with a clearly defined hierarchy of nodes, with a primary node and connectivity corridors. 	A significant portion of the southern part of the Free State Province
3	Fringe (peripheral) rural regions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Situated on the fringe of an urban setting - Communities are situated between thirty minutes to two hours' drive from major cities - 75 percent of households living below the poverty line - Less than 50% of land is used for farming purposes or the primary sector - Residents are employed in non-agricultural as well as in the agricultural sectors - The region has a strong hierarchy of nodes and corridors - The nodes range from large rural towns to small rural towns 	A significant portion of the northern Free State area – the Fezile Dabi District Municipality

Source: Adapted from Meyer (2013)

Based on Table 4.1, the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni can be classified as ‘Deep rural regions’. Although the challenges faced across rural communities in South Africa vary and could be dependent on their classification, three core features are however eminent: ‘*high incidences of poverty, inequality and marginalisation*’ (Westaway 2010: 3; David, Guilbert, Hamaguchi, Higashi, Hino, Leibbrandt and Shifa 2018). Governmental institutions alongside their non-governmental counterparts, have made concerted efforts to address this trio of challenges. However, the overwhelming challenges often surpass the available resources (Aliber, Mabhera and Chikwanha 2017; Croese; Cirolia and Graham 2016; Schwerhoff and Sy 2017). To further accentuate the needfulness to pay greater attention to the rural communities of South Africa, the proceeding section quantifies the rural population per province.

4.3 Percentage of rural communities per province (South Africa)

According to a 2015 global survey, an estimated 3.7 billion inhabitants reside in rural communities. This projection represents half of the world’s population (Siegel 2016: 4). Empirical studies affirm a variety of distinctive features across the rural communities of each continent, country or region. However, some commonalities still exist amongst these rural spaces, inclusive of sparsely populated communities, high rates of poverty, significant reliance on natural resources, an inadequacy of infrastructure, a dependency on farming (as a main source of livelihood) and under-development (United Nations 2014; Goldblatt 2010; Dasgupta *et al.* 2014). Studies by De La O Campos, Villani, Davis and Takagi (2018) allege that the vast majority of the world’s poorest households are found amongst rural communities. As reported by the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme (2015:66), one-sixth (1.1 billion people) of the world’s poorest live in abject poverty. De Hoyos and Medvedev (2011: 22), Aguilar and Sumner (2019) and Caitlin, Ravallion and van de Walle (2017) claim that a bulk of these underprivileged household

members reside amongst rural communities. An analogous study reports that over 75 percent of the world's poorest households are situated in rural communities (Raidimi 2014: 10). This estimate is relatively close to that of the WHO/UNICEF Joint Monitoring Programme's (2015: 433), which reports that 73.6 per cent of the world's poorest people live in rural communities. In the last few decades, however, the rural populace across the world has continuously declined. Such a decline is most prominent in regions such as Africa and south-east Asia where an estimated 25 percent of the populace have relocated in search of better livelihoods or opportunities (Cromartie 2017; Johnson and Lichter 2019).

Similar to the decline of rural communities across the globe, the trend has prevailed in South Africa over the past decades. In 1960, 61 percent of the South African populace resided in rural communities (African Monitor 2012: 8). This rural populace had declined to 47 percent in 1996 with a further drop to 43 percent in 2001 and only an estimated 35.8 percent of South Africans called rural communities their home by 2016 (Goldbalt 2017; Sender 2018; Statistics South Africa 2017). These percentages are illustrated in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Rural versus Urban Population between 1960 and 2016

s/n	Years	Rural (Population)	Urban (Population)	Rural (Percentage)	Urban (Percentage)
1	1960	10 611 784	6 784 583	61 percent	39 percent
2	1996	18 788 540	21 875 033	47 percent	53 percent
3	2001	19 272 505	25 547 273	43 percent	57 percent
4	2008	19 274 533	30 286 723	39 percent	61 percent
5	2011	19 211 230	32 559 330	37.1 percent	62. 9 percent
6	2016	19 924 009	35 729 645	35.8 percent	64.2 percent

Source: Adapted from DPME (2015); South African. Bureau of Statistics (1968); Erasmus (2017); Button (2017); the Presidency (2014); Daniels, Partridge, Kekana and Musundwa (2013); Anikin and Tikhonova (2016); Statistics South Africa (2017)

The reason for the decline in the rural population can be largely attributed to seven factors (Makofane 2016: 32; Perret 2015: 31), namely:

- Post-apartheid policies which facilitated movements from rural to urban communities;
- Job opportunities in urban centres;
- Economic stagnation within rural communities;
- The quality of services in urban centres;
- Amenities in urban centres;
- A better standard of living amongst most urban households; and
- Access to a better quality of life.

The decline in the rural population of South Africa is forecasted to decrease further with the passage of time (World Bank Group 2019b).

Table 4.3 further depicts the urban-rural populace per province. The Tribal (traditional areas) as well as Farm areas in Table 4.2 are considered as South Africa's Rural communities.

Table 4.3: Urban-Rural Population per Province

Province	URBAN	Tribal (traditional areas)	Farm areas	RURAL (Tribal + Farm)
Western Cape	5 352 628	0	470 106	470 106
Eastern Cape	2 985 305	3 383 908	192 840	3 576 748
Northern Cape	865 744	186 296	93 821	280 117
Free State	2 303 215	245 930	196 444	442 374
KwaZulu-Natal	4 875 323	4 693 983	697 995	5 391 978
North West	1 553 428	1 623 711	332 813	1 956 524
Gauteng	11 930 627	160 134	181 502	341 636
Mpumalanga	1 723 685	1 987 495	328 759	2 316 254

Limpopo	969 375	4 197 168	238 325	4 435 493
TOTAL	32 559 330	16 478 625	2 732 605	19 211 230

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017)

(The above data was generated on 20th November 2017 by Statistics South Africa)

As deduced from Table 4.3, the KwaZulu-Natal Province is South Africa's most populous rural province (5 391 978). Ranked next is the Limpopo rural populace (4 435 493) followed by the Eastern Cape (3 576 748) and the Mpumalanga Province (2 316 254). On the contrary, the least populated rural communities of South Africa are found in the Gauteng Province (341 636), Northern Cape Province (280 117), as well the Western Cape Province (470 106).

Table 4.4: Urban-Rural Population in percentages (South Africa)

Province	URBAN (Percentage)	RURAL (Percentage)
Western Cape	5 352 628	470 106
Eastern Cape	2 985 305	3 576 748
Northern Cape	865 744	280 117
Free State	2 303 215	442 374
KwaZulu-Natal	4 875 323	5 391 978
North West	1 553 428	1 956 524
Gauteng	11 930 627	341 636
Mpumalanga	1 723 685	2 316 254
Limpopo	969 375	4 435 493
TOTAL	32 559 330	19 211 230

[Total South African population as at 2017 = 51 770 560]

Source: Generated by researcher

4.4 Key dynamics of rural South Africa

Rural communities across the globe share a number of commonalities. These commonalities are notable in their lifestyle, source of livelihood (farming), high reliance on natural resources and traditional way of living (Anthony *et al.* 2012; Bakre and Dorasamy 2017: 66). Rural communities are often isolated, marginalised and have fewer opportunities in comparison to their urban counterparts. Despite the similarities amongst rural communities, one prominent distinction between South Africa, her African rural counterpart and other rural communities globally was the ‘apartheid era’, which further exacerbated the extent of hardship among rural communities in South Africa (Mhlauli, Salani and Mokotedi 2015; Beinart and Dubow 1995).

The proceeding paragraphs highlight the main features of rural communities in South Africa. The features discussed in this sub-section are typical of a majority of rural communities in South Africa and have been classified into six broad themes, namely:

4.4.1 Livelihood

Rural household members in South Africa are often dependent on subsistence farming, social grants or remittances from relatives working in urban settings (Ngomane 2012: 10). In some instances, rural household members rely on a combination of two or three of these sources of subsistence (Mukotami 2014; Francis 2006). There is no doubt that some poor household members in urban areas equally benefit from social grants. However, the bulk of beneficiaries are often rural community members. According to a report by Ferreira (2017), amongst the 17 443 994 South Africans receiving social grants, above 50 percent of these beneficiaries are rural household members. The disbursed social grants are often inadequate to meet their basic needs. As at 1st April 2018, the social grants given to Old Age, Disability and Care dependency were R1 690 per beneficiary; and while the Child support grant was R400 (South

African Social Security Agency - SASSA 2018). Despite the inadequacy of these social grants, rural developmental analysts agree that the social grants have significantly reduced the extent of poverty amongst the most impoverished citizens, inversely impacted on household income and improved access to fundamental needs such as education (Sinyolo 2016; Brockerhoff 2012).

Regarding farming as a source of livelihood, well above 50 percent of all rural households across South Africa are engaged in farming-related activities. Although the figures vary across provinces (Department of Agriculture and Forestry and Fisheries 2018; Community Survey 2016b). The Community Survey (2016b) reports that an estimated 67 percent of rural household members in the Eastern Cape Province are (directly or indirectly) involved in agricultural practices, while the same source states that 62 percent of rural household members in Mpumalanga Province are involved in agricultural practices and that of KwaZulu-Natal is estimated at 63 percent. The later section of this chapter will further quantify the proportion of household members involved in agricultural practices within the Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni communities.

Other forms of livelihood found amongst rural communities are inclusive of mining and quarrying activities, tourism, construction, small-scale businesses as well as community and social services (UMzimkhulu Municipality IDP 2016:116).

4.4.2 Poverty, Inequality and marginalisation

In consonance with this chapter's theme, the trio of challenges of poverty, inequality and marginalisation are eminent and dotted across the rural communities of South Africa. These forms of deprivation are notably worrisome in concerns such as food insecurity (Tibesigwa

and Visser 2016; Boutin, Smit and Reg 2016). According to a report by the Presidency (2014:5), more than 70 percent of rural household members were living in paucity, in comparison to urban households at 40.5 percent. Also worrisome is the high rate of unemployed youth in rural communities. Only one adult is employed in comparison to two in urban centres (The Presidency 2014: 5). Furthermore, in contrast to the self-sufficiency achieved at national level, one in every four rural households suffer from food insufficiency. Although more recent surveys portray slight improvement, the extent of food insufficiency still poses a threat to more than half the rural household members in South Africa (Walsh and van Rooyen 2015; Niehof, Rugalema and Gillespie 2016). Additionally, South Africa is ranked amongst the most unequal societies of the world. This assertion is premised upon the extent of inequality and marginalisation between the quality of life afforded to the urban populace and that of the rural (Zimbalist 2017a).

4.4.3 Settlement patterns

Households among rural communities are often spatially distributed. This spatial distribution is dominant in ‘deep rural regions’ such as Gunjaneni. In such rural communities, distances between households may be as far as 500 metres to 3 kilometres. This spatial distribution of households has made it near impossible for government to provide services such as water reticulation and electricity as these are considered uneconomically viable projects (Bakre 2015: 60). Furthermore, such far distances have compounded the backlog challenges. One such prominent backlog challenge is the lack of a sewage disposal system. This is perceived by the Department of Health as a major concern because it exposes the rural populace to diseases. A significant portion of surface and groundwater are being polluted by human defecation. Public facilities such as taxi ranks, schools and marketplaces often lack adequate

sanitation facilities, *which undermines human dignity* (South Africa 2013: 16; Bakre 2015: 60).

4.4.4 Traditional leadership

Prior to 1994, only traditionally leaders ran the affairs of the rural communities in South Africa (Ntsebeza 2002; Ntsebeza 2004). Although the apartheid tenets had begun to disentangle prior to the post-apartheid era, traces of apartheid are still visible across rural communities (Abel 2016). Traditional leaders were put in charge of managing the community land. They also mediated between the rural populace and government, whilst providing other required services. These traditional leaders did all of these on behalf of the central government (de Kadt and Larreguy 2018; Bakre 2015: 52). However, this traditional form of leadership sometimes poses a threat to development and progression amongst rural communities (Cousins 2015) because traditional leaders usually attain leadership through the ‘Royal House-succession’ and may not possess the managerial nor administrative skills to handle the affairs of the community. However, these traditional leaders however co-exist with democratically elected Councillors (Bakre 2015: 52; de Kadt and Larreguy 2018). This co-existence amongst both stakeholders have equally brought about disharmony amongst both entities. The Reformed Communal Tenure System was enacted to address this concern. However, this enactment is yet to achieve its desired objective as a number of disharmonising concerns are still been raised in some rural communities (Cousins 2016).

4.4.5 Weak municipal structures

Wipe gaps still exist in terms of the functionality and structure of rural municipalities in comparison to municipalities found within the metropolitans (Brettenny and Sharp 2016). Since Councillors are elected through the ballot system, some of these elected candidates attain this portfolio through popularism, and not necessarily because they possess

administrative or managerial skills (Pillay 2016; Russon 2012). Mawela, Ochara and Twinomurinzi (2017) argues that the incapacitation of Councillors alongside traditional leaders and other governmental officers has been detrimental to the development of rural communities. Their incapacitation to execute the Integrated Development Plan or rural development initiatives have often been identified as a stumbling block to the successful implementation of rural developmental initiatives (Xu, Nthontho and Chowdhury 2016; Siphiosami, Mamba and Isabirye 2015; Jacobs, Rivett, Chemisto 2019).

While there are strong opposition voices in metros, the voice of the opposition party is often silent in rural communities, giving room to governmental officers (Councillors) to run the affairs of rural municipalities with derisory checks by the opposition (Mottiar 2015). Poor monitoring and a lack of accountability has created much regression amongst rural municipalities (Hendriks and Olivier 2015).

Furthermore, amongst the rural development stakeholders, some are unable to read, comprehend or understand the content of the policy documents (Tebele 2016; Maseng 2014). Thus, should these concerns not be adequately addressed, the weaknesses of rural municipalities will continuously impact on the implementation of rural developmental initiatives, as well as livelihoods amongst rural households (Shaukat 2017; Bank and Minkley 2005; Adetola, Ngubani, Cousins and Du Toit 2016).

4.4.6 Social amenities

The lack of social amenities still remain an integral issue amongst rural communities in South Africa, even after 24 years into democracy. Particularly, the contrast between the available

social amenities found in urban centres in comparison to the rural settlements is quite worrisome (Rogerson and Nel 2016; Singh, Magula, Hariparshad and Assounga 2017). In some circumstances, when these amenities are found in rural communities, they are often of low standard (Rogerson and Nel 2016). Exemplifying with the educational and health sectors, some rural schools do not possess libraries and in schools where these libraries are available, resources such as books, computers and other necessary equipment and facilities are often lacking (Frost, Jenkins and Emmink 2017; Maila and Ross 2018). Furthermore, rural clinics often do not have equipment and facilities. Another notable issue often experienced is the shortage of medication (Singh *et al.* 2017). The lack of amenities poses enormous constraints to rural development. Additionally, the lack of amenities adversely impacts on service delivery, which also directly impacts on poverty amongst rural households (Maila and Ross 2018; Rogerson and Nel 2016).

To address the aforementioned deficiencies, the national government has invested significant resources in reducing backlogs in electrification, sanitation and water (Statistics South Africa 2018a). Despite these efforts, rural communities still often *lag behind the national norms*. Dispersed populations have further slowed down the progress on the service delivery challenges as settlement pattern makes projects such as water reticulation or electrification non-viable projects (Mamabolo 2016; van Heerden, Burger, Coetsee, Mahlangu and Naudé 2015).

4.5 Poverty amongst rural communities in South Africa

The term ‘Poverty’ is a broad term. Bearing this in mind, this subsection will confine the discussion on poverty to the following four themes: Definition of poverty, Significance of measuring poverty, Causes of poverty and Features of poverty.

4.5.1 Defining poverty

The term ‘Poverty’ can be loosely translated as *‘the state of being extremely poor’*. This section however, probes deeper by defining the term Poverty from the ‘perspective of the poor’. When a poor Kenyan was asked what Poverty meant, the reply was*Don’t ask me what poverty is because you have met it outside my house. Look at the house and count the number of holes. Look at my utensils and the clothes that I am wearing. Look at everything and write what you see. What you see is poverty* (University of Wisconsin n.d: 26). Poverty could also imply a situation where an individual cannot afford basic needs such as nutritional requirements, housing and clothing (Ravallion and Chen 2011). A poor citizen in Latvia also explains Poverty as *humiliation, the sense of being dependent on them, and of being forced to accept rudeness, insults and indifference when we seek help* (Mogale 2005: 135). Triegaardt (2007: 1) also defines the term ‘poverty’ as a *“condition of unacceptable human deprivation”*. Triegaardt (2007: 1) further explains poverty as the inability of a person or community members to access adequate needs to satisfy a minimal and socially acceptable living standard.

Poverty can be classified into two broad types: Absolute and Relative poverty (Ferreira *et al.* 2016; Ravallion, Datt and van de Walle 1991). Absolute poverty is often interchanged with the term ‘destitution’. An individual is considered to be destitute when he or she cannot access sufficient resources in terms of nutritional requirements to support their minimal level

of physical well-being (Ferreira *et al.* 2016; Ravallion, Datt and van de Walle 1991). This form of poverty is considered the same across different countries or regions of the globe. On the contrary, '*Relative poverty*' is determined by the national government of a country and may vary from region to region, or country to country, or may even vary within the same country (Mellish 2012; Healy 2017). The term '*Relative poverty*' arises when citizens of a country do not attain certain minimal standards of living as set by the National government (Mellish 2012; Healy 2017).

Poverty analysts posit an alternative approach to defining '*Poverty*'. They postulate that rather than basing poverty on income, poverty should be measured based on the '*level of deprivation*' (Mack 2016). In defining '*poverty*', a series of international debates amongst researchers have been on-going regarding who is in the best position to define '*Poverty*'. While some researchers have argued for '*Experts*', another set of researchers have a non-conformist view. This second group are of the opinion that ordinary people or individuals experiencing poverty are best at defining '*poverty*' (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 28). One such expert-derived definition is that of May (1998: 27), who provides a definition aligned to a resource-based conceptualisation of relative poverty where the poor (poverty) are those individuals who rank at the bottom 20-40 percent of the expenditure distribution. Hence, in this context, the poorest 40 percent of households are said to be 'poor', while the poorest 20 percent of households are said to be 'ultra-poor'. On the contrary, an example of the ordinary-derived definition of poverty was given by Clark and Qizilbash (2003:52). The definition is aligned towards a '*capabilities focused definition to poverty*'. Clark and Qizilbash (2003: 52) mention that '*a statement about poverty is 'super true' only if it is true in all admissible ways of making it more precise*'. An individual is said to be poor when such a person is '*core poor*', implying that such persons are '*unambiguously poor*'. They further mention that such '*core poor*' individuals are poor in every single '*core*'

dimension of poverty’, and also fall below the *lowest critical level in that dimension* (Qizilbash 2003: 52). Having given some definitions of poverty in this sub-section, the following section explains the significance of measuring poverty.

4.5.2 Significance of measuring poverty

In a country such as South Africa where high incidences of poverty are a commonality amidst several rural households, the necessity of ‘measuring poverty’ cannot be over-emphasised. The occurrence of poverty is so apparent in rural communities that it is unnecessary to undergo any form of complexity to quantify or measure poverty (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 20; Mowafi 2004). Measuring poverty enables policy-makers to design tailor-made policies based on factual poverty data, which may be followed by necessary governmental interventions. Interventions and decisions such as how much to spend on social grants? who to award social grants to? who are the most vulnerable communities? and similar questions may be answered through the measurement of poverty. Measuring poverty could also serve as a decisive approach to tackling poverty in a more effective manner. These can be achieved through the following means (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 20):

- Identifying the most poverty-stricken communities and thereby directing resources to such communities;
- Identifying the most pressing needs and various dimensions of deprivation will enable government to focus resources on the most pressing concerns. Such may include water, electricity and housing;

- Carrying out periodic assessments will enable government to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of specific poverty alleviation interventions in the short and long-term; and
- Derived data through poverty measurement, when placed in the public domain, can be used to further instigate the campaign and debate on poverty, while engineering a national, provincial and local government commitment to poverty eradication.

Alongside these assertions, the South African government is bound to international obligations (treaties) such as being “*signatory to the 1995 Copenhagen Declaration which emerged from the United Nations World Summit on Social Development*”. This Declaration was specifically enacted in 1996, wherein South Africa developed a “national specific measure for poverty”. Through this Declaration, the South African government is intended to use such ‘measurement on poverty’ to tackle the high incidence of poverty ravaging rural communities. Another similar obligation signed by the South African government was that of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals, which was intended to ‘halve poverty’ by 2015 (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 20).

Additionally, measurements on poverty are significant as government alongside stakeholders working on poverty alleviation initiatives/ programmes require an empirical understanding of the extent of poverty, which can be used to implement, design and monitor poverty alleviation initiatives (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 21). A ‘measurement on poverty’ is equally important for Research institutes or statistical entities such as Statistics South Africa, particularly for planning and evaluation purposes. Unions and Labour Organisations such as COSATU and NEHAWU use information on the extent of poverty, as well as the costs of acceptable standards of living while negotiating for minimum wage and other wage bargains (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 21). Lastly, activists, social actors as well as the larger community can benefit from ‘measuring poverty’, as this

provides the populace with information on the current standard of living, inequality and poverty trend, while also making the populace more informed. Such information may direct or influence which political party or candidate to support during election periods (Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute 2007: 22; Blattman, Emeriau and Fiala 2016).

4.5.3 Causes of poverty

A general consensus amongst authors is that the root causes of poverty in rural South Africa can be traced to the apartheid era (Finn, Leibbrandt, and Oosthuizen 2014; Lephakga 2016; Cousins 2015). In line with this widely acknowledged view, Francis (2006: 5) states that rural poverty stems from “*historically-generated power inequalities*”. Hence, the post-apartheid government’s agenda was to redress these historical inequalities (Nattrass and Seekings 2010; Leibbrandt, Woolard and Woolard 2007). In particular, the African National Congress launched the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) to champion the poverty campaign. A number of successes were made. However, this initiative did not envisage the large-scale redistribution in a majority of sectors. Thus, this stagnated the plight of the rural poor (Francis 2006: 6; Karriem and Hoskins 2016). In 1996, the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) initiative was launched as a replacement to the RDP. This neo-liberal initiative’s agenda was to create employment opportunities through the privatisation and enticement of foreign investors (Ndhambi 2015). The RDP-GEAR shift was also aimed to stimulate the South African economy and ensure sustainability and growth in South Africa’s finance sector. While the elite and emerging middle-class benefited from GEAR, this was at the detriment of the poor who did not benefit from the redistribution of resources. Rather, the inequality gap widened (Francis 2006: 6; Streak 2004). Furthermore, a notable change during the post-apartheid era was the abolition of ‘apartheid restrictions’. Hence, the African majority could then move freely in search of employment opportunities and educational

attainment. This free movement resulted in higher paying jobs for the educated. Yet, a majority of poor rural households did not benefit from this enrichment. Rather, they were hit by the inflationary trend (Streak 2004). The rural poor who did not benefit from this economic improvement were mainly domestic workers, those dependent on social grants, as well as farm workers (Seekings and Nattrass 2005). Ten years after the post-apartheid era, Seekings and Nattrass (2005) observed that the African majority residing in urban centres had begun to benefit from rising wages. On the contrary, the rural populace had a different narrative. The narrative dominant amongst rural households was the stagnation of subsistence farming and the informal sector, as well as growing unemployment. The inequality gap was thus rather high (Seekings and Nattrass 2005). Some notable positives were observed in the 'class structure'. This was concurrently followed up with significant continuities in the standard of living amongst some African household members (Koma 2013). The widening inequality gap between urban and rural household members raised by Seekings and Nattrass more than ten years ago is still evident in 2018, particularly amongst rural community members (Scoones, Edelman, Borras, Hall, Wolford and White 2017). A critical factor which further stirred the poverty dilemma was the '*deepening divide in the labour market*'. While employees in the formal sector's standard of living arose significantly, contract and casual employees were met with dismay. Many such contract or casual employees' minimal income could barely take their households out of the poverty trap (Seekings and Nattrass 2015; Rogan 2016).

Mc Grath and Powell (2016) also attributes the core causes of poverty in South Africa to factors such as lack of skill and competence among the potential workforce. Hence, such individuals may become unemployable even if job opportunities became available. He further argues that the lack of infrastructure and basic amenities are concerns needed to be addressed

as a means to reducing the extent of poverty amongst rural communities in South Africa. A household's inability to access pipe borne water or electrification has often contributed to their extent of poverty. Additionally, factors such as ineffective policy implementation (Rogerson 2018); poor monitoring, evaluation and sustainability of poverty alleviation initiatives (Fombad 2018; Bekker and Mashaba 2018); high unemployment levels (du Toit, de Witte, Rothmann and van den Broeck 2018); corruption and ineffectual administration are core concerns for governments, particularly at local level, need to address these as a means to reducing the extent of poverty amongst rural communities in South Africa (Munzhedzi 2016; Aucoin, Ciara; Cilliers, Jakkie 2016).

Insecure employment is habitually associated with several forms of vulnerability. Such vulnerability may include shack fires, high crime rates, floods, illness and poor farming conditions ((Heltberg, Siegel and Jorgensen 2009; Winsemius, Jongman, Veldkamp, Hallegatte, Bangalore and Ward 2015; Flato, Muttarak and Pelsler 2017). The HIV/AIDS epidemic has equally contributed to the extent of poverty amongst rural South African communities. By 2018, estimated 7.52 million South Africans were living with HIV (Statistics South Africa 2018d: 7). This does not only affect their health condition, but equally creates insecurities and psychological damage (Nyirenda *et al.* 2018; Woollett, Cluver, Bandeira and Brahmabhatt 2017). Studies conducted by the Aliber (2001) explained the fretfulness and anxiety experienced by rural household members due to their social exclusion; voiceless-ness; *resignation to poverty* due to long years of unemployment; and their inability to cope during crises. Similar fret and anxiety were amongst the concerns expressed by some of the household members of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

4.4.4 Features of poverty

Research conducted by the University of Wisconsin (n.d: 26- 62) emphasised features and attributes that the poor perceive to be ‘prominent features of poverty’. The study emphasised that Poverty comprises interlocking and multiple dimensions. These findings were revelations made by individuals living amongst poor communities in Africa, eastern Europe, central Asia and south America. Excerpts from these poor individuals were from countries such as Latvia, Georgia, Macedonia, Armenia, Ukraine, Ghana, Nigeria, Gambia, Burkina Faso, Benin, Tanzania, Senegal, Swaziland, Zambia, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Togo, Uganda, South Africa, Mali, Bangladesh, India, Vietnam, Pakistan, Yemen, Ecuador, Guatemala and Brazil, all of whom have a significant proportion of poor citizens. Thus, the multiplicity of poor individuals provides the ‘perceived features of poverty’ amongst the citizens of these respective countries. These features vary slightly across regions, countries, gender and culture. However, specific features/traits of poverty were synonymous amongst some of these poor communities, inclusive of food security and challenges related to finding safe and reliable sources of livelihood. Also prominent were variables such as dependency, voicelessness and powerlessness. Also observed was that many of the poor considered assets to be more valuable than income (cash) (University of Wisconsin n.d: 51).

The identified themes/ variables perceived to be ‘features of poverty’ are thus summarised in Table 4.5 (University of Wisconsin n.d: 26-62):

Table 4.5: Features of poverty

S/n	Feature	Excerpt from the poor
1	Material well-being	Responses from some poor individuals from
	- Food security	Senegal, Brazil, Gabon and the Ukraine

- Employment

emphasise that a core feature of poverty is the lack of food security and permanent or decent employment. Some of the excerpts from these individuals are given below:

Your hunger is never satiated; your thirst is never quenched; you can never sleep until you are no longer tired. —Senegal 1995

It's the cost of living, low salaries and lack of jobs. And it's also not having medicine, food and clothes. —Brazil 1995

When I leave for school in the mornings, I don't have any breakfast. At noon there is no lunch, in the evening I get a little supper, and that is not enough. So when I see another child eating, I watch him, and if he doesn't give me something I think I'm going to die of hunger. —A 10-year-old child, Gabon

Often she has to decide who will eat, she or her

son. —Ukraine 1996

The rich have one permanent job; the poor are rich in many jobs. —Poor man, Pakistan

2 **Psychological well-being**

As expressed by a number of poor citizens from Brazil, Georgia, Uganda, Pakistan, Guinea-Bissau and Latvia, poverty goes beyond material well-being. Some of these individuals argued that their lack of material possessions often adversely impacts on their ‘Psychological well-being’. They allege that their inability to provide ‘Food’ for their children often heightens their ‘stress level’.

*The poor person has to exist so he can serve the great one, the rich. God made things like that —
Brazil*

Poverty is a lack of freedom, enslaved by crushing daily burden, by depression and fear of what the future will bring — Georgia

When one is poor, she has no say in public and feels inferior. She has no food, so there is famine in her house; no clothing and no progress in her family –Uganda

“As God gives food to a tiny insect living in the stones, He makes sure we have enough food to live” – Pakistan

“When I don’t have (any food to bring my family), I borrow, mainly from neighbors and friends. I feel ashamed standing before my children when I have nothing to help feed the family. I’m not well when I’m unemployed. It’s terrible” - Guinea-Bissau

Being poor can expose one to ridicule. In Latvia, poor people “felt humiliated by what they perceived as a pressure to ‘beg’ for help and to put up with rude, contemptuous and moralistic behaviour on the part of social assistance office staff” - Latvia

3 **Power and Voice**

The poor are of the opinion that their state of being powerlessness and voiceless is due to their paucity. For instance, in the economic setting in Tanzania, the poor have no say when the prices for their agricultural goods are being set. Most of these individuals have no input while negotiating with bankers, employers, landlords, market or moneylenders. As articulated by a poor farmer in Tanzania – *‘Rich people “set the prices,” while the poor are described as “those who are forced to accept the prices set by others”’*. Moreover, ‘indebtedness’ by the poor often contributes to their powerlessness and helplessness.

The excerpts below were made by poor citizens from Cameroun, Uganda, Niger, Ghana and Guatemala.

“...poverty is characterised as a feeling of powerlessness and inability to be heard”-

Cameroun

“The forces of poverty and impoverishment are

so powerful today. Governments or the big churches can only manage them. So we now feel somewhat helpless. It is this feeling of helplessness that is so painful, more painful than poverty itself” – Uganda

“The rich are those who are able to save and sell part of their harvest when prices rise” — A poor man, Niger

“You know good but you cannot do good. That is, such a person knows what should be done but has not got the means” — Ghana

“Some have land, but they can’t buy fertilizer; if some work as weavers, they aren’t well paid; if some work for daily wages, they aren’t paid a just wage” — Guatemala

4 **State-Provided infrastructure**

A lack of access to basic infrastructure and amenities such as road, pipe-borne water, electricity and healthcare facilities are considered as ‘features of a poor or marginalised

community'. Researchers often refer to 'state-provided infrastructures' as social wages (Moore and Putzel 1999).

The lack of 'state provided infrastructure' often distinguishes the rural from the urban poor. While the rural poor do not have access to state provided infrastructure, the urban poor, however poor they maybe, are often still privileged to access state provided infrastructure.

To emphasise the importance of infrastructure amongst the poor, more than half the populace of an Ecuadorian rural community suggested the provision of infrastructure as an agendum to alleviating poverty.

The excerpts below were made by poor citizens from Guatemala, Ghana, Cameroun and Kenya.

"We think the earth is generous, but what is the

incentive to produce more than the family needs if there are no access roads to take produce to a market?” — Guatemala

“Take the death of this small boy this morning, for example. The boy died of measles. We all know he could have been cured at the hospital. But the parents had no money and so the boy died a slow and painful death, not of measles, but out of poverty” —Ghana

“Where a road passes, development follows right on its heels . . .” —Cameroon

“Water is life, and because we have no water, life is miserable” – Kenya

5 **Assets of the poor**

- Physical capital
- Human capital
- Social capital

Empirical studies reveal that people hardly speak about money. Rather, more emphasis is placed on ‘assets’. These assets are inclusive of potential and tangible resources. Such assets can be further categorised into social (communal relationship and networks amongst households,

neighbourhood and associations); human (training, health, labour power and education); and physical assets (material belongings and land). The poor, either at household or communal level, rely on this array of assets daily. However, besides social assets, human and physical assets are often lacking amongst many rural communities of South Africa (Sharaunga, Mudhara and Bogale 2016). The inadequacy of these aforementioned assets in a community indicates ‘feature(s) of poverty’ in such a community.

The excerpts below were made by poor citizens from Ecuador, Vietnam, Swaziland, Pakistan and Uganda.

We have neither land nor work. . . . Some of us have land in the reserve, but we can't transport our products from there because it is too far. It is difficult to carry them, and since I don't have land here, and only in the reserve, I am poor —
Ecuador

In my family, if anyone becomes seriously ill, we know that we will lose him because we do not even have enough money for food so we cannot buy medicine — Vietnam

I used to never worry about my illiteracy and the fact that I was not able to send my children to school, as long as we had something to eat. But now . . . I realize that my children are in trouble for life because they cannot get any decent job if they don't know how to read and write — Swaziland

You have to cultivate networks and contacts with people with power and influence to secure a livelihood and future — Pakistan

Poverty is because of the land. The person who doesn't have any must obligatorily leave to do day labour —Ecuador

If one does not own land, a house, household

property or domestic animals, then the person is considered to be poor —Uganda

*Livestock are part of the yearly household reserves. If they get a disease and die, we have nothing to support us in between harvests —
Vietnam*

*“I am illiterate. I am like a blind person..” —
Illiterate mother, Pakistan*

If I had gone to school, I would have got a job and I would have obtained a husband who has a salaried job —Uganda

*The most important asset is . . . an extended and well-placed family network from which one can derive jobs, credit and financial assistance —
Senegal*

The prosperity of our village has increased.

Before, the two tribes in our village used to be divided. Now they belong to the same group, which brings them together. No two people have the same intelligence or resources. So when people come together, they can solve many problems —Tanzania

6 **Environmental assets**

- Shocks and decline
- Assets and vulnerability
- Vulnerability within the Household and on the Job

One of the most prominent challenges faced by rural communities across the sub-Saharan Africa is the vulnerability to their immediate environment due to climatic change (Ofoegbu, Chirwa, Francis and Babalola 2017). The extent of vulnerability is a major concern as it directly impacts on their livelihood. It arguably is one of the main causes of poverty. More particularly, environmental degradation has created artificial food and water shortages across several rural communities of sub-Saharan Africa (Musemwa, Muchenje and Mushunje 2015). Also, among rural communities of West Africa such as the ‘sondure’ in Ghana (hungry period), community members may have food and water shortages for as long as six months due to irregular rainfall.

A similar incident is reported amongst another

west African country, Nigeria, whereby rural farmers run out of food supplies prior to harvesting season and are compelled to borrow from money lenders. Prior to the harvesting season, prices of commodities are often high in comparison to the harvesting season when the prices of commodities would have dropped significantly. Hence, this trend keeps rural farmers in cyclical poverty. This trend continuously repeats as farmers' farm produce is sold at a low price. Thus, such environmental vulnerability to rural farmers is considered a 'feature of poverty'.

The poor live at the whim and mercy of nature
—Kenya

We are all farmers in this village. When two farmers cultivate together the same plots and at the end of the harvest season, one has made a profit that allows him to get a lot of things and the other hasn't earned a thing, they will say that the second farmer is poor. But next year it could be the reverse. The fact is that we are all poor in

this village —Togo

*After one poor crop, we need three good
harvests to return to normal —Vietnam*

*I sold my land and now I have nothing. I can
never buy my land back because the prices go up
every year —Tanzania*

*[I have become like] a stray dog whimpering in
front of the closed doors of relatives in the hope
that someone might open the door —A mother
of two, Georgia*

*One farmer's family has worked for a family for
three generations, hard physical labour every
day. This man has worked since his birth for the
same farmer but has nothing, no savings, not
even a bicycle. These people can afford nothing
but survival —South Africa*

Source: University of Wisconsin (n.d)

Further to the University of Wisconsin's summarised 'features of poverty', a number of authors have equally contributed to this discourse within the South African context. Some of these 'features of poverty' are discussed in the proceeding sub-section.

4.5.4.1 Features of poverty within the South African context

In accordance with Statistic South Africa (2016: 21), rural (poor) community members do not merely consider the insufficiency or inadequacy of income as a parameter to being poor, but their isolation, lack of access to pipe-borne water, lack of quality healthcare and education, as well as their inability to partake in socio-economic activities are also features. A main 'feature of poverty' as identified by Kodua-Agyekum (2009: 5) and Wilkinson *et al.* (2017) is the high rate of unemployment amongst rural communities in South Africa. Kodua-Agyekum (2009) further notes that the most singular reason for poverty among rural communities is the lack of job opportunities. This form of poverty is further heightened by the '*lack of access to productive resources*'. The lack of arable land for cultivation is a common feature amongst rural communities, particularly those of the former homelands (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 5). Other commonalities outlined by poverty analysts are inclusive of female-headed households; child-headed households; the elderly and sick; the disabled, as well as retrenched employees from cities (Rogan 2016; Flato, Muttarak and Pelser 2017). All such individuals are often unemployable or unproductive. Unfortunately, a large majority of the rural populace belong to these groups (Flato, Muttarak and Pelser 2017), thus signifying an unproductive community which is considered a prominent feature of a poverty stricken community. A further prominent feature of poverty amongst rural communities in South Africa is the prevalent, poorly managed subsistence mode of farming (Musemwa, Muchenje, Mushunje, Aghdasi and Zhou 2015). Poorly sustained subsistence farming plots are attributed to the '*Native Trust and Land Act of 1936*', as well as the '*Native Land Act of 1913*' which were ratified by the apartheid government. This ratification resulted in two main challenges

to African farming communities (Méndez-Barrientos, Kemerink, Wester and Molle 2016; Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 6):

- They became landless; and
- The plots of land allotted to them were unfertile.

The widespread subsistence mode of farming is still prevalent amongst several rural communities in South Africa. This peculiarity is considered by social analyst as a core feature of structured poverty. Additionally, the subsistence mode of farming is considered a weak impetus to the development of rural agriculture. This assertion is based on the premise that the rudimentary and primitive tools used several decades ago are still the same tools being used today. Further exacerbating this challenge are water shortages and infertile soil (Khapayi and Celliers 2016). Kodua-Agyekum (2009: 7) also mentions that other noticeable features of poverty stricken communities are high rates of “disguised” unemployment, malnutrition and deprivation.

Having provided discussions on features of poverty globally and locally, the conjoining section describes the extent of poverty amongst rural and urban communities in South Africa.

4.6 Extent of poverty amongst rural and urban communities in South Africa

In augmenting the discussion of the previous section, this section further explains the extent of poverty in South Africa. This is illustrated through narratives, statistical figures, tables and a pie chart from Statistics South Africa. Emphasis in this section dwells on poverty at provincial level, per settlement type (urban/rural) and concludes with poverty at household level.

For the first time, extensive stakeholders’ consultation among poverty analysts and experts was held in 2012 to deliberate on a suitable approach to measuring ‘Poverty’ in South Africa

(Statistics South Africa 2017: 7). This brought about the first publication on South Africa's "*first official national poverty lines*". This team of experts adopted the "*cost-of-basic-needs approach*", which had previously been adopted and recognised internationally by Poverty analysts (Statistics South Africa 2017: 7). This approach was used to generate 'three poverty lines'. These are inclusive of (Statistics South Africa 2017: 7):

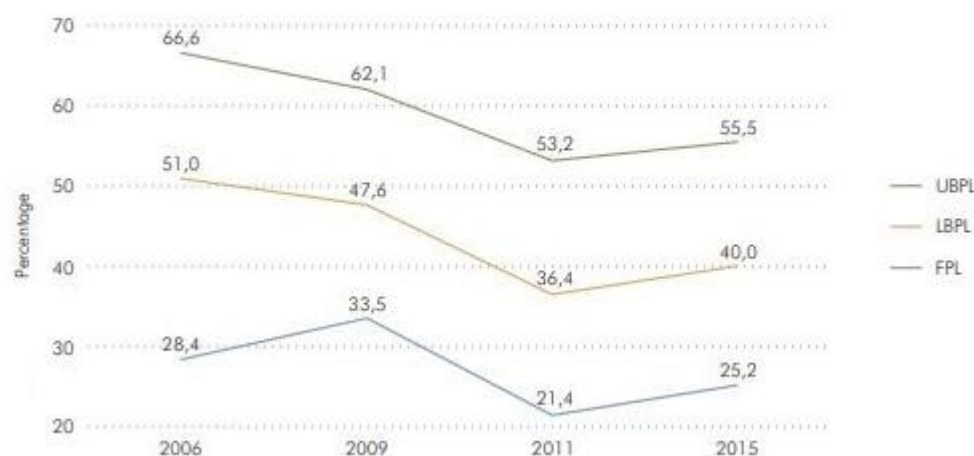
- the food poverty line (FPL);
- the lower-bound poverty line (LBPL); and
- and the upper-bound poverty line (UBPL).

The South African government used these 'three poverty lines' to represent different levels of poverty, wherein poverty could be monitored and measured at different degrees. The Food Poverty Line signifies the "*rand value below which individuals are unable to purchase or consume enough food to supply them with the minimum per-capita-per-day energy requirement for adequate health*". On the other hand, the Lower-Bound Poverty Line (LBPL) and Upper-Bound Poverty Line (UBPL) are derived through the Food Poverty Line (FPL). Both the LBPL and UBPL contain non-food components. At the LBPL classification, individuals do not possess sufficient income to buy food or non-food commodities. Hence, such individuals are compelled to forgo food in order to obtain non-food commodities. At the UBPL classification, individuals have sufficient income to buy both food and non-food commodities (Statistics South Africa 2017: 7).

Recent figures published by Statistics South Africa reveal that the 'extent of poverty' has worsened within the last few years. Despite the significant reduction in the poverty headcount between 2006 and 2011, the 2015 poverty headcount was on the increase (Statistics South Africa 2018a). The poverty headcount as at 2011 was at 53.2 percent, while it increased to 55.5 percent by 2015. These figures were calculated through the UBPL of R992 per person (per month) using 2015 prices as a basis. Based on the UBPL calculation of 2015, an estimated 30.4 million individuals were living in poverty in South Africa (Statistics South

Africa 2017). The increases in the poverty headcount can be attributed to policy uncertainty, low investment levels, lower commodity prices, unprecedented levels of unemployment, higher consumer prices, household dependency on credit, as well as low and weak economic growth (Rogan 2016; Walsh and van Rooyen 2014; Govender, Pillay, Siwela, Modi and Mabhaudhi 2017).

Figure 4.1: Poverty headcounts based on the FPL, LBPL and UBPL



Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 15)

[Figure 4.1 illustrates the Poverty headcounts based on the FPL, LBPL and UBPL in 2006, 2009, 2011 and 2015].

Worth mentioning at this juncture is that although the national government has adopted the FPL, LBPL and UBPL as the poverty lines for measuring poverty, the preferred threshold commonly used is the LBPL. This adopted national poverty line is often used in setting South Africa's poverty reduction targets. The LBPL is commonly used as a poverty measurement within the National Development Plan, the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF), as well as in the Sustainable Development Goals (Statistics South Africa 2017: 15). This study

also leans towards the LBPL as it has been widely accepted as a poverty measuring indicator in South Africa.

Between 2011 and 2015, the South African economy was hit by economic crises. During these years, the most affected were poverty stricken households within rural communities (Pillay, Anashri and Wesson, Murray 2016; Padayachee 2016). This economic crisis pulled several households further into the poverty cycle (Padayachee 2016). Poverty headcounts have conventionally been used to measure deprivation. However, it does not provide the depth or extent of poverty (Statistics South Africa 2017: 15). For instance, the level of paucity among the poor may worsen without any difference being observed in the headcount. In consonance, as a means to measuring the extent of poverty, a key poverty indicator referred to as the ‘poverty gap’ can be used for such purposes. The poverty gap is used in measuring the *average distance of the population from the poverty line*. This indicator is usually denoted as a *percentage of the poverty line*. Thus, Table 4.6 provides the national poverty gaps for the years 2006, 2009, 2011 and 2015.

Table 4.6: Poverty gaps in 2006, 2009, 2011 and 2015

Poverty gaps	2006	2009	2011	2015
Poverty gap for the UBPL	35.6%	33.5%	25.2%	27.7%
Poverty gap for the LBPL	22.2%	21.0%	14.3%	16.6%
Poverty gap for the FPL	9.3%	12.3%	6.8%	9.0%

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 16)

Two prominent deductions can be made from Table 4.6. With an exception of the Food Poverty Line in 2009, the extent of poverty declined between 2006 and 2011. This suggests

that the poor's financial standings were gradually improving as they moved towards the poverty line. This also implies that some of the poor during this period were slowly moving out of the poverty cycle. Secondly, as deduced from the poverty headcounts, there was an increase in poverty gaps between 2011 and 2015. This also indicates that although a number of citizens were poor in 2015, such poor individuals and households were however considerably further distanced from the poverty line when compared to the 2011 situation.

Table 4.7: Poverty measures by province (LBPL)

	Headcount (P ₀)				Poverty gap (P ₁)				Severity (P ₂)			
	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015
Total	51.0	47.6	36.4	40.0	22.2	21.0	14.3	16.6	12.2	11.7	7.3	9.1
Western Cape	29.7	26.7	17.0	21.3	10.6	9.0	5.1	6.8	5.1	4.2	2.2	3.0
Eastern Cape	64.3	63.8	51.8	59.1	28.6	29.9	20.8	27.5	15.5	17.0	10.8	15.8
Northern Cape	57.9	53.6	39.1	40.7	26.2	22.1	13.9	15.9	14.5	11.6	6.5	8.2
Free state	46.0	51.7	33.6	36.2	17.4	20.3	12.6	13.5	8.4	10.2	6.2	6.7
KwaZulu-Natal	63.7	57.8	48.0	52.4	30.6	27.3	19.8	22.5	18.0	15.7	10.4	12.6
North West	53.9	51.8	41.9	46.9	23.3	22.0	17.0	19.5	12.8	12.0	9.0	10.6
Gauteng	26.1	23.3	16.3	19.0	8.3	8.3	5.5	6.2	3.7	3.9	2.7	2.9
Mpumalanga	60.2	58.4	46.1	42.6	26.8	26.2	16.9	16.9	14.9	14.8	8.2	8.8
Limpopo	67.1	71.5	52.7	57.0	31.2	35.6	22.6	26.6	17.6	21.1	12.3	15.6

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 72)

Table 4.7 shows the poverty measure amongst the nine provinces based on the LBPL. It can be observed from this table that the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga as well as

Limpopo Province had the highest incidences of poverty. The Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga Provinces being among the most poverty-stricken Provinces further justifies the selection of these provinces as case study provinces. A secondary highlight of Table 4.7 is that between 2006 and 2015, only the Mpumalanga Province experienced a steady decline in poverty.

Table 4.8 presents poverty measures by settlement type (LBPL). Herein, the classification is categorised into the urban and rural populace. It is apparent that higher poverty Headcounts, Poverty gaps, as well as a higher levels of Severity are notable amongst the rural populace in comparison to their urban counterparts.

Table 4.8: Poverty measures by settlement type (LBPL)

	Headcount (P ₀)				Poverty gap (P ₁)				Severity (P ₂)			
	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015
Total	51.0	47.6	36.4	40.0	22.2	21.0	14.3	16.6	12.2	11.7	7.3	9.1
Urban	34.3	31.5	23.1	25.4	12.6	12.2	8.2	8.9	6.1	6.3	4.0	4.4
Rural	74.9	74.9	58.5	65.4	35.9	36.0	24.3	30.0	20.8	20.9	12.8	17.3

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 72)

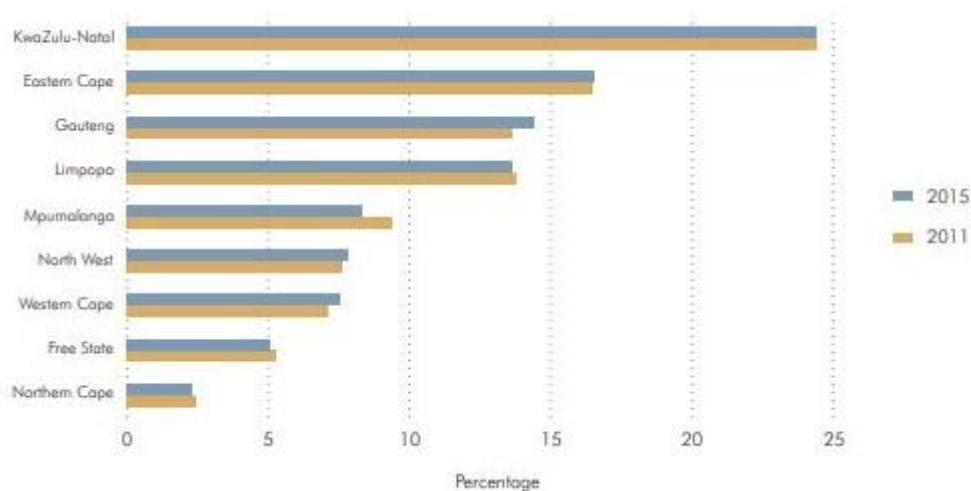
The same trend illustrated in Table 4.8 is synonymous with that of Table 4.9, where poverty (LBPL) at household level amongst the rural populace is more severe when compared to their urban counterparts.

Table 4.9: Poverty measures of households by settlement type (LBPL)

	Incidence (P ₀)				Poverty gap (P ₁)				Severity (P ₂)			
	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015
Total	36.0	32.1	22.9	25.1	14.4	12.6	8.2	9.3	7.5	6.5	4.0	4.7
Urban	23.2	21.0	14.8	16.1	7.9	7.4	4.8	5.3	3.7	3.5	2.2	2.5
Rural	60.0	57.2	40.9	46.5	26.4	24.4	15.6	18.8	14.5	13.2	8.0	10.0

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 93)

In assessing poverty at a national level, it is quite evident that some provinces have much higher portions of the populace living below the poverty line. The extent of poverty per province is illustrated in Figures 4.2 and Figures 4.3 respectively. Figure 4.2 provides a comparison in Poverty-share between 2011 and 2015 amongst the nine provinces (based on the UBPL).

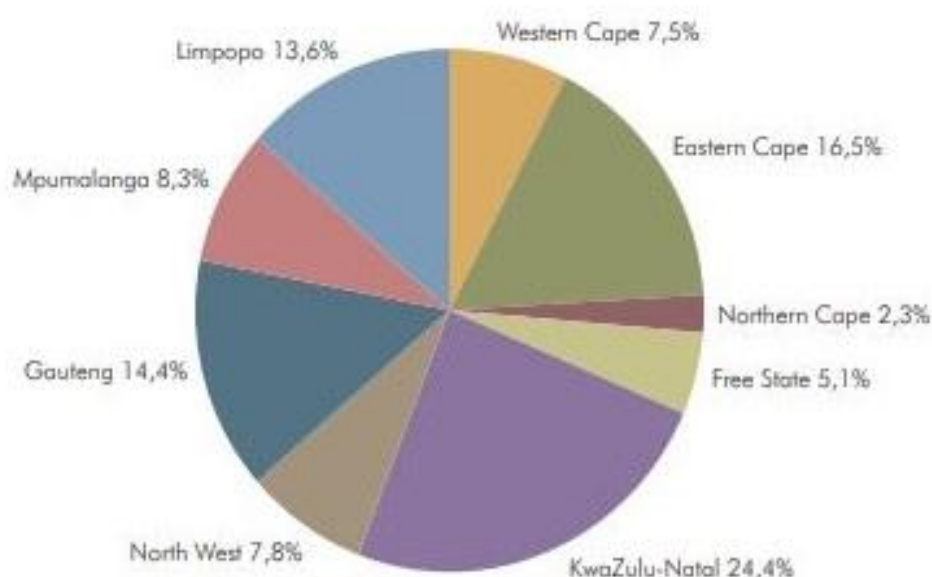
Figure 4.2: Poverty-share amongst the nine provinces (UBPL)

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 66)

A further comparison of Poverty-share based on the UBPL (per Province) indicates that the KwaZulu-Natal Province had the highest incidence of poverty at 24.4 percent, followed by the Eastern Cape Province at 16.5 percent, then closely followed by the Gauteng Province at 14.4 percent, while that of the Limpopo Province was at 13.6 percent (as at 2015). On the contrary, the Northern Cape (2.3 percent) and Free State (5.1 percent) Provinces had the least share of poverty as at 2015 (based on the UBPL). Worth mentioning is that in the Mpumalanga Province, the extent of Poverty (based on the UBPL) declined from 9.4 percent to 8.3 percent between 2011 and 2015.

Figure 4.3 further provides a Poverty-share amongst the nine provinces as at 2015 (based on the UBPL). As depicted in the pie chart, each of the nine provinces made a significant contribution to the national poverty figure as at 2015. The magnitude of this poverty is slightly influenced by the size of the populace residing in each of these provinces. This assertion is based on the premise that among the provinces, some have similar shares of poverty, but varying poverty headcounts. For instance, the Limpopo and Gauteng Provinces both had a poverty headcount of about 14 percent. Despite the similar percentage in their respective poverty-share, there was a dramatic difference in the poverty headcount amongst these provinces. While a 33.3 percent in Gauteng signified a very low poverty headcount, that of Limpopo at 72.4 percent signified a worrisome poverty headcount. This variance is due to the population sizes amongst both provinces. According to Statistics South Africa (2016), the population figures in 2015 for Gauteng was at 13.2 million, while that of the Limpopo Province was at 5.7 million. Based on these census figures, it is evident that poverty was more widespread in Limpopo when compared to that of the Gauteng. This narrative is depicted in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Pie chart depiction of Poverty-share amongst Provinces (UBPL)



Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 66)

Also presented are Poverty measures of households by settlement type using the FPL, as well as Poverty measures by settlement type based on the UBPL. These are presented in Tables 4.10 and 4.11 respectively. The Poverty measures of households by settlement type (FBL) and that of Poverty measures by settlement type (UBPL) both emphasis the extent of poverty amongst rural communities of South Africa in comparison to their urban neighbours.

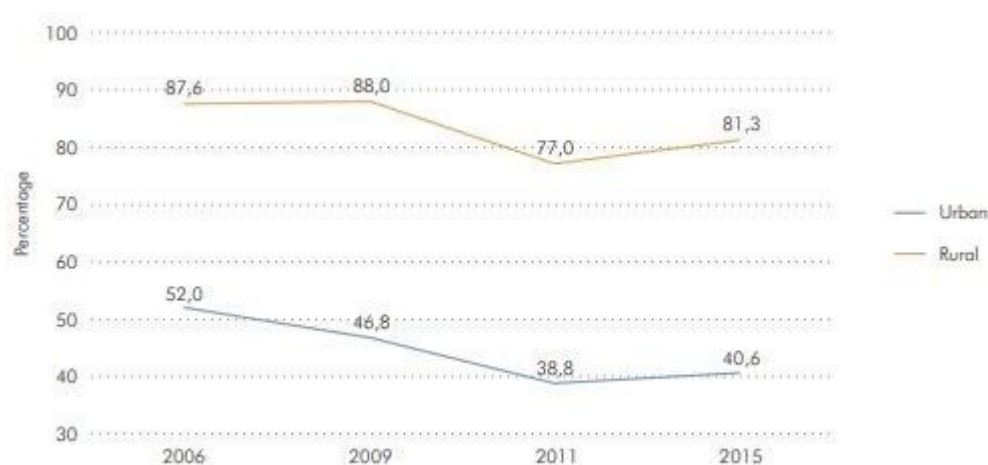
Table 4.10: Poverty measures of households by settlement type (FPL)

	Incidence (Po)				Poverty gap (P ₁)				Severity (P ₂)			
	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015
Total	17.6	20.1	11.9	14.0	5.4	6.7	3.6	4.5	2.4	3.0	1.6	2.1
Urban	8.7	11.7	6.9	7.8	2.3	3.5	1.9	2.3	0.9	1.5	0.8	1.0
Rural	34.2	39.0	23.0	28.5	11.1	13.8	7.3	9.9	5.0	6.6	3.3	4.7

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 95)

Figure 4.4 illustrates the poverty headcount by settlement type based on the UBPL between years 2006 and 2015.

Figure 4.4: Poverty headcount by settlement type (UBPL)



Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 68)

Table 4.11: Poverty measures by settlement type (UBPL)

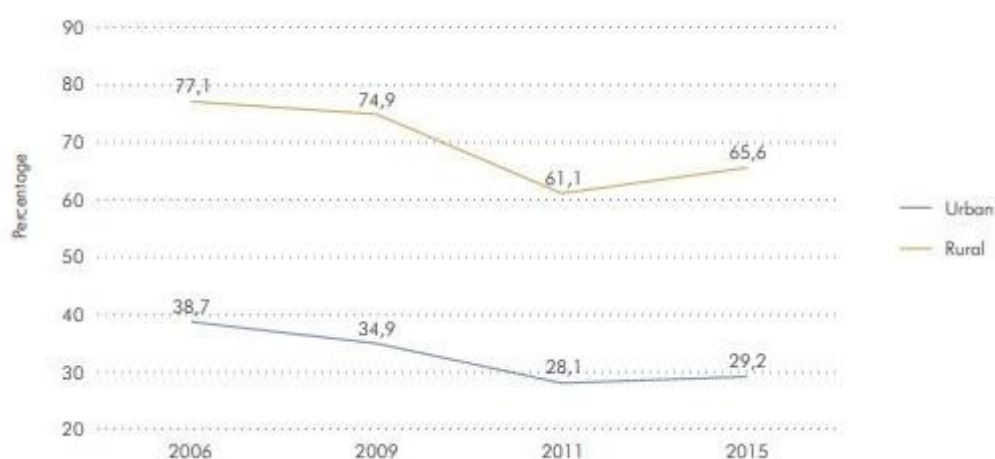
	Incidence (P_0)				Poverty gap (P_1)				Severity (P_2)			
	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015	2006	2009	2011	2015
Total	66.6	62.1	53.2	55.5	35.6	33.5	25.5	27.7	22.5	21.3	15.0	17.0
Urban	52.0	46.8	38.8	40.6	23.8	22.2	16.5	17.5	13.6	13.0	9.1	9.7
Rural	87.6	88.0	77.0	81.3	52.6	52.6	40.3	45.5	35.3	35.4	24.9	29.7

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 68)

Figure 4.5 reveals poverty at household level amongst rural and urban communities. The extent of poverty in both rural and urban communities of South Africa initially decreased in 2006 and 2011, before an increment in the incidence of poverty was recorded in 2015. The incidence of poverty amongst rural households was at 77.1 percent in 2006. Hence, this translates to ‘seven amongst every ten’ rural household members “*living below the UBPL*”.

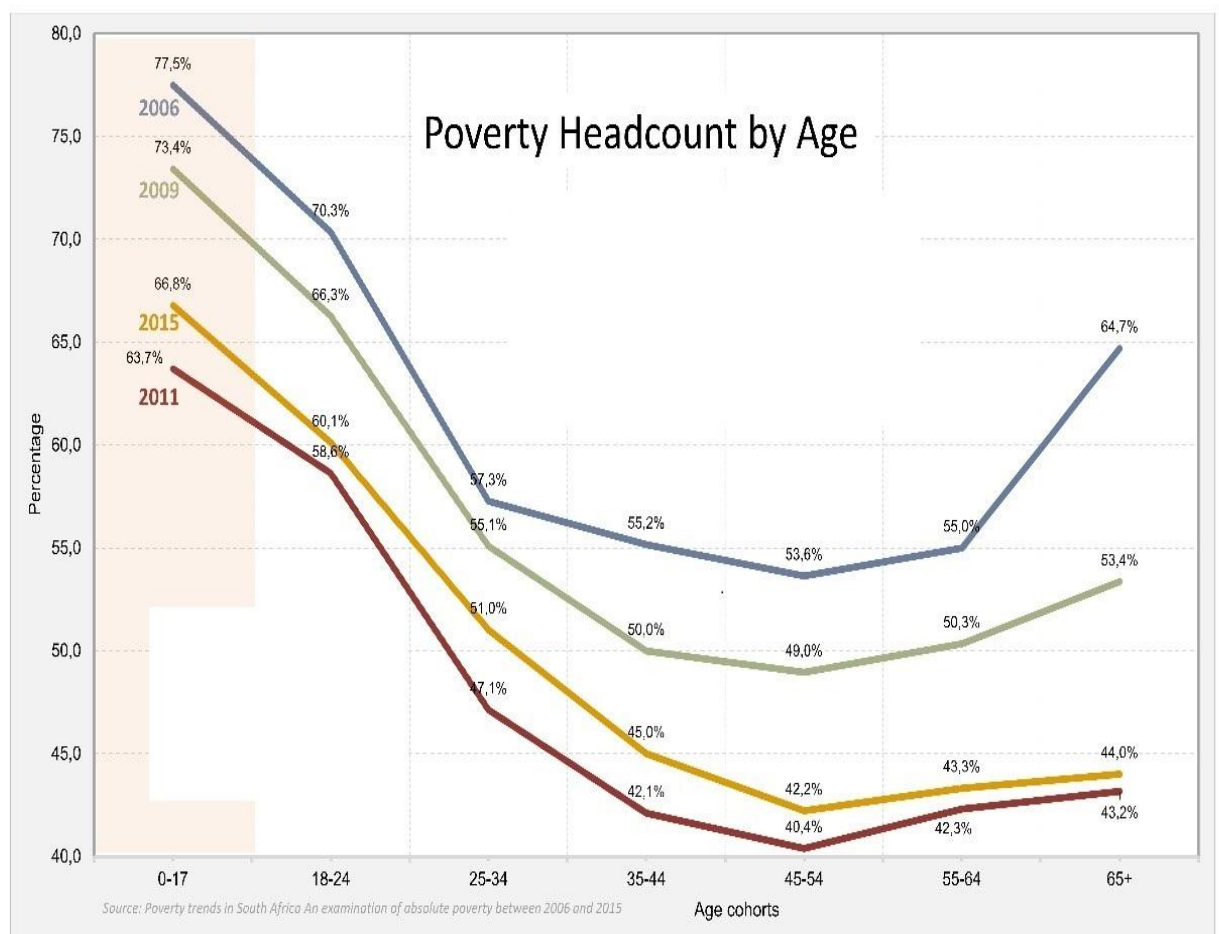
During the same period, that of the urban centre was at 38.7 percent. The incidence of poverty amongst rural households in 2009 became slightly better as it dropped to 74.9 percent. By 2011, the incidence of poverty based on the UBPL had then dropped more significantly to 61.1 percent, while that of urban households was at 34.9 percent and 28.1 percent respectively in years 2011 and 2015. By 2015, the country was beginning to record higher incidences of poverty amongst rural and urban households once more. The incidence of poverty amongst rural households by 2015 had increased by 4.5 percent (65.6 percent), while that of urban households narrowly increased by 1.1 percent (29.2 percent).

Figure 4.5: Poverty incidence amongst households (by settlement type) - UBPL



Source: Statistics South Africa (2017: 89)

Figure 4.6: Absolute poverty in South Africa (2006-2015)



Source: Poverty trends in South Africa (2016)

Figure 4.6 describes the most vulnerable age brackets (0-17; 18-24 and 65 and above). Such poverty trends suggest a burden on the government as this may imply greater allocation of budgets for social grants. Poverty analysts have often argued that child-rearing in a poverty stricken household is a substantial *threat to healthy childhood development* (Musemwa, Muchenje and Mushunje 2015; Rice 2017). This is however commonplace amongst several households of South Africa with well over 13 million children living in such underprivileged situations (Statistics South Africa 2017).

In concluding this sub-section, synopses on poverty are presented (Poverty Trends in South Africa 2016; Statistics South Africa 2017:69), namely:

- The most vulnerable set of South Africans are:
 - Households headed by female;
 - Black South Africans;
 - Children under the age of 17;
 - Populace above the age of 65; as well as
 - Populace with ‘no education’.
-
- Rural household members in Eastern Cape, Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga recorded the highest incidence of poverty;
 - About 6.7 million households were living in poverty in 2015, signifying a 1.7 percent increment from 2011;
 - National Poverty gap among households declined from 25.3 percent to 16.3 percent between 2006 and 2011; while it increased by 1.3 percent between 2011 and 2015;
 - Severity of poverty declined from 15.1 percent to 9.0 percent between 2006 and 2011; while it increased to 9.9 percent in 2015;
 - By 2015, an estimated 30.3 million citizens were living below the Upper Bound Poverty Line, which signifies an increment of 3.1 million from the 2011 figure;
 - In 2015, an estimated 64.2 percent of black (South Africans) were living below the Upper Bound Poverty Line, which continuously showed a higher level of severity in comparison to other race groups;
 - The rural poor were far worse off than their poor urban counterparts;

- There is a nexus between the extent of poverty and educational level. 79.2 percent of the populace who had no form of education fell within the poverty group, in comparison to the 8.4 percent of poor South Africans who had at least a post-matric certificate;
- While the poverty headcount increased amongst other race groups, the headcount among Indians (dropped from 1.9 percent to 1.5 percent between 2011 and 2015; and
- The KwaZulu-Natal Province recorded the highest share of poverty amongst the nine provinces. One in every four poor citizens were living in KwaZulu-Natal.

Having discussed the extent of poverty in this section, the later sections consists of the justification for selecting specific rural communities for this study, while descriptions of the three selected rural communities are also provided.

4.7 Justification for selecting the rural communities under study

A number of proactive measures and procedures were taken before the selection of the three communities as well as provinces used in this study. The following seven considerations were made during the selection process of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni:

- **Consultations with rural development experts and stakeholders**

Prior to the selection of the provinces and three rural communities, wide consultations were made with several personnel and governmental departments. In the Mpumalanga Province, key personnel from the Provincial Office of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform were consulted. Also within this province, personnel from the Department of Agriculture, alongside a number of Agricultural Extension Workers, were consulted. Within the KwaZulu-Natal Province, stakeholders who deal directly and indirectly with rural

communities were consulted. One such was the Provincial Office of the Department of Water and Sanitation. Also consulted in the KwaZulu-Natal Province were the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality, Social Development workers as well as personnel from the Department of Agriculture. In the Eastern Cape Province, Social workers, Councillors, *Induna* (Traditional Leader) and several personnel in the Department of Agriculture were consulted.

Furthermore, a number of seasoned researchers on rural development were consulted. These personnel guided the researcher in selecting some of the most poverty-stricken communities of South Africa found within the Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces.

- **Data request from Statistics South Africa**

Recent statistical figures are no doubt imperative in making informed decisions (Begum and Ahmed 2015; Asher 2014). Hence, the researcher requested pertinent and relevant data from the office of Statistics South Africa. These vital data were valuable as they highlighted the most disadvantaged Provinces and communities in South Africa.

- **Review of the latest statistical figures on poverty**

Further to the data released by Statistics South Africa, the researcher also accessed a number of relevant data on Statistics South Africa's website, alongside other credible websites. The data reviewed included pre-apartheid and post-apartheid data. This series of data pinpointed specific prevailing trends amongst the most disadvantaged communities of South Africa. Hence, informed decisions were made.

- **Common features of rural South Africa**

Rural development analysts often infer slightly different view regarding key characteristics of rural communities in South Africa. However, they also agree on specific characteristics

which are perceived as the dominant features of South Africa's rural communities. These features are inclusive of poverty, high rates of unemployment, spatial distribution of households, low standard of living, lack of opportunities, inadequacy of infrastructure and subsistence farming as a mode of livelihood (Perret, Anseeuw and Mathebula 2005; Gopaul 2006; Ndabeni 2016). These characteristics are regular features amongst the three selected communities.

- **Proximity to researcher's domain (access)**

Access to the study area is a key factor to data collection (Shenton and Hayter 2004; Nicol, Caruso and Archambault 2013). Hence, the closest provinces to the researcher's domain (the Durban University of Technology) were the provinces of Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape. The KwaZulu-Natal Province, being the researcher's base, equally served as an advantageous position. Hence, rural communities within the Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces were selected.

- **Farming in rural communities**

Subsistence farming practices are a prominent source of livelihood across a number of rural communities in South Africa (Davis and Terblanché 2016). Additionally, sectors such as tourism (wild life) and mining activities equally thrive in a number of rural communities in South Africa. Arguably, the most predominant form of livelihood for several decades amongst rural communities in South Africa is the subsistence form of farming (Qongo 2013; Ngomane 2012; Muntingh 2011; Davis and Terblanché 2016). This farming practice, which is typical of most rural communities (in South Africa), is prevalent amongst these chosen rural communities.

- **Provinces with a high rural populace**

Another feature shared amongst the three selected rural communities is that they are among three of the four most populated rural communities in South Africa. Hence, these larger rural areas may possibly provide a better representation of a typical rural lifestyle in comparison to provinces such as Gauteng and the Western Cape, which are predominantly urban (Statistics South Africa 2018a).

Thus, Table 4.12 provides an outline of the communities being studied, while the sub-sections thereafter paint a description of the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

Table 4.12: Area(s) of study

Province	Mpumalanga	Eastern Cape	KwaZulu-Natal
District	Ehlanzeni	O R Tambo	UMkhanyakude
Municipality	Nkomazi	Ingquza Hill	Mtubatuba
Area of study	Mgobodzi	Lusikisiki Mcobothini	Gunjaneni

4.8 Community of Mgobodzi

Background

The Mgobodzi community is a rural setting situated within Ward 15 of the Nkomazi Local Municipality. This municipality is divided into 33 municipal wards and is located on the eastern axis of the Ehlanzeni District Municipality. The Ehlanzeni District Municipality is amongst the three district municipalities of the Mpumalanga Province. The Mgobodzi community is strategically located between the eastern region of Mozambique and the

northern axis of Swaziland (Nkomazi Local Municipality IDP 2016). The map of Nkomazi Municipality is depicted in 'red' in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7: Map of Mgobodzi



Source: <https://www.nkomazi.gov.za>

Demographics

The population of Nkomazi Municipality has slowly grown over the years. In 2001, Statistics South Africa quantified Nkomazi's population as 334 668, while by 2011, this community's population had risen to 390 610 (Statistics South Africa 2001; 2011). By 2016, the municipality's population had further increased to 410 907 (Nkomazi Local Municipality IDP 2017: 77). However, only a little above one percent of the Nkomazi Municipality's populace resides in Mgobodzi.

According to a 2017 estimation made by the Councillor, Mgobodzi has an estimated population of 5 500 individuals. Nkomazi Municipality is predominantly Black (98.79 percent), while there are scant traces of other race groups: White (0.94 percent), Coloured (0.09 percent) and Indian (0.09 percent) (Nkomazi Local Municipality IDP 2017). Furthermore, the bulk of this Mgobodzi populace are classified as ‘dependent’ (ages 0 - 18). This ‘0 – 18’ population comprises more than 55 percent of the community’s population. Additionally, the elderly (above 60 years old) constitute 6 percent of Mgobodzi’s population. This suggests that an estimated 61 percent of the Mgobodzi populace are considered ‘dependent’. This invariably has an adverse implication for local governance as it implies more spending on social grants in a municipality with a diminutive budget. As deduced from the 2001 and 2011 censuses, as well as the 2016 Community survey, the 0-34 age bracket (youthful population) account for 76 percent of Nkomazi Municipality’s population. Such a population requires large investments in education, health and the creation of employment opportunities (Statistics South Africa 2001; 2011; Community Survey 2016).

Source of livelihood

A significant portion of household members of Mgobodzi and the surrounding communities are engaged in subsistence farming. Similar to Mgobodzi, the leading employment sectors in Nkomazi Municipality are the Agricultural sector, Community services and Trade. These three sectors account for 62.2 percent of employment opportunities in this municipality. As construed through the focus group interviews, Nkomazi Municipality’s employment typologies are a reflection of the employment typology within Mgobodzi as well. Above 50 percent of the 40 - 65 age bracket within the Mgobodzi community are activity engaged in subsistence farming. Commonly cultivated farm produce in this locality are inclusive of sub-

tropical fruits, vegetables and sugarcane. Table 4.13 below illustrates employment typologies per sector within the Nkomazi Municipality.

Table 4.13: Employment typologies per sector (Nkomazi Municipality)

Sector	Percentage
Agriculture	21.5 percent
Community service	22.7 percent
Trade	18 percent
Manufacturing	7.3 percent
Construction	4.4 percent
Private holdings	7.3 percent
Finance	9.8 percent
Transport	5.1 percent
Mining	0.9 percent
Utilities	0.6 percent

Source: Nkomazi Local Municipality IDP (2017)

Amenities and infrastructure

As typified in most rural communities of South Africa, the community of Mgobodzi lacks infrastructure and social amenities (van Heerden, Burger, Coetsee, Mahlangu and Naudé 2015; Gnade, Blaauw and Greyling 2016). As mentioned during the course of an interview on the 28th of September, 2017, Councillor T.M. Mkhathshwa (Councillor to Mgobodzi community) emphasised the consequence of the infrastructural deficit and lack of social amenities in Mgobodzi. One such pertinent concern raised was the issue of water scarcity. On the 29th of September 2017, the Queen of Mgobodzi (Mrs Mkhathshwa Eva Sangele) expounded on the remarks made by the Councillor. She expressed her dissatisfaction over the

lack of clinics, potable water and hall in the Mgobodzi community. Notwithstanding, the Councillor did mention that the community does have three (3) primary schools, one secondary school (1) and a poorly equipped but functional library. While commenting on infrastructural issues within her domain, the Councillor made mention of a road construction which took place in 2010. The construction of this road has been significant as it serves as a feeder route from farms to neighbouring towns.

Despite the service delivery backlog in Nkomazi Municipality, a few successes have been recorded in the last few years. Some of these successes are inclusive of the provision of pipe borne water to households, the provision of bucket toilets and refuse removal. Also, due to the infrastructural deficit, this municipality is ranked as one of South Africa's worst Green Drop status and Blue Drop status, both suggestive of the poor water quality (Nkomazi Local Municipality 2017: 82).

Potential and Challenges

As reported during the course of an interview with Mrs Dudu Ndlovu (Head of Department - Agricultural Extension services) on the 29th of September 2017, a significant amount of Mgobodzi's soil is fertile. She further mentioned that a variety of crops can be cultivated within this region. While also recounting the potentials in Mgobodzi, Ms Xoliswa Nyathi, the Manager of Rural Enterprise (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform), on the 26th of September 2017, mentioned that this community receives a fairly high amount of rainfall during the summer seasons (October - April). Furthermore, the proximity of the Kruger National Park to Mgobodzi also offers potential for the locals to offer a number of services or produce to tourists.

The Kruger National Park has no doubt boosted tourism within and outside of Nkomazi Municipality. Additionally, the Kruger National Park induced the establishment of several

lodges (Ferreira and Van Zyl 2016; Strickland-Munro, Moore and Freitag-Ronaldson 2010), inclusive of the Pestana Lodge, Malelane Lodge and a host of other bed and breakfasts. Large corporations such as Pick ‘n Pay, Spar and Sun International have also invested significantly in this community. Such investment is beneficial to the tourism and agricultural sector as retail stores often source fresh farm produce from farmers within the locality.

However, the community of Mgobodzi is faced with a multitude of challenges, prominent are high levels of poverty; local economic growth; high rates of employment; low levels of skills development and literacy; increased incidence of HIV/AIDS; communicable diseases; teenage pregnancy; and limited access to basic household and community services (Nkomazi Local Municipality IDP 2017: 86). The eighth chapter of this study further pinpoints other challenges faced by this community (see Section 8.3).

Table 4.14: Unemployment in Nkomazi Municipality (socio-economic analysis)

Unemployment	Percentage
Unemployment within the 15-64 year age bracket	34.29 percent
Unemployment within the 15-64 year age bracket (women)	42.51 percent
Youth unemployment (15-35 year age bracket)	41.53 percent

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017)

Table 4.15: Census and Community Survey 2016 Household indicators

2015 grants and subsidies received as a percentage of total income	2011% census		2016 community survey	
	Poverty head-count	Intensity of poverty	Poverty head-count	Intensity of poverty
69.9 percent	10.4 percent	41.7 percent	9.3 percent	41.1 percent

Source: Statistics South Africa (2011); Community Survey (2016)

As inferred from Table 4.15, the poverty head-count (PHC) and intensity of poverty (IP) in Nkomazi Municipality did decline between 2011 and 2016. While PHC decreased by 1.1 percent, the IP of this municipality also declined by 0.6 percent. This suggests a nominal decline in poverty in Nkomazi Municipality between 2011 and 2016.

4.9 Community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini

Background

Lusikisiki Mcobothini is a deep rural community on the periphery of the Lusikisiki town. This remote community is found in Ward 21 of the Ingquza Hill Local Municipality (IHLM). The Ingquza Hill Local Municipality is one amongst the five municipalities of the O R Tambo District Municipality (ORTDM) of the Eastern Cape Province. The five municipalities within the O R Tambo District Municipality are outlined in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Municipalities and communities within the O R Tambo District Municipality

Municipality	Community
Ingquza Hill	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flagstaff • Lusikisiki
Port St Johns (PSJ)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Port St Johns
Nyandeni	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Buntingville • Canzibe • Libode • Ngqeleni • Nomcamba
Mhlontlo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qumbu • Tsolo
King Sabata Dalindyebo (KSB)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coffee Bay • Mqanduli • Mthatha • Mvezo • Qunu

The Ingquza Hill Municipality comprises 32 wards, each is overseen by a councillor. A majority of land found in this municipality is communal, with *Indunas* (traditional leaders) as their custodians (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 67-68).

The map of Ingquza Hill Local Municipality is depicted in ‘red’ in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8: Map showing Ingquza Hill Municipality



Source: Google Images

Demographics

A conservative estimate by the Councillor, Ms Nontyatyambo Daniso (19th of October, 2017), suggests that the Lusikisiki Mcobothini population is slightly above 5 000 inhabitants. These (estimated) 5 000 inhabitants constitute 0.02 percent of the Ingquza Hill Local Municipality's 303 379 residents (Community Survey 2016). Amongst this estimation are 142 830 males (45 percent) and 160 549 females (55 percent). The 0-15year age bracket represents 46 percent; while 48 percent constitutes the 15- 64year age bracket; and 6 percent of residents are 65 years or older (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 55). This is indicative that 52 percent of the populace are considered 'dependent', which has an adverse connotation for government's constricted budget.

The IHLM is made of 60 974 households, with an average of five people per household.

These households are predominantly Black (94 percent); while 1.9 percent are Coloured; 1.8 percent are Indian; and the remaining 0.7 percent are White (Community Survey 2016).

Source of livelihood

Similar to Mgobodzi, a significant proportion of adults residing in Lusikisiki Mcobothini are activity involved in subsistence farming. As at the time of this study, no private entity or governmental establishment provided employment opportunities for the residents of Lusikisiki Mcobothini. Thus, job-seekers had to seek employment out of their domain. While a few individuals were able to find employment opportunities within the Ingquza Hill Municipality, the majority were unemployed. During the focus group interview, one participants argued that the high unemployment rate was closely connected with crime and other vices.

Amongst the five municipalities in O R Tambo, the Ingquza Hill Municipality has the second highest unemployment rate amongst the youth. Notwithstanding, 24 438 people are gainfully employed in this municipality. Table 4.17 depicts the economically active population, the unemployed as well as the employed populace within the IHLM.

Table 4.17: Economically active population, unemployed and employed

	Economically active population	Percentage of total population	Number of unemployed people	Unemployment rate (percent)	Number of employed people
Ingquza Hill Municipality	50 724	16.7 percent	20 744	40.9 percent	24 438

Source: IHS Global Insight (2016)

(Economically active population (EAP) = number of people between the ages of 15 and 65 who are able and willing to work).

Partly due to the high rate of dependents and heightened unemployment at Lusikisiki, an estimated 57 557 people receive social welfare grants on a monthly basis. This is further illustrated in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Social welfare beneficiaries in Lusikisiki

Local office	Grant type	Number of beneficiaries	Number of children
Lusikisiki	Care dependency	687	695
	Child support (total 0-18 years)	34 275	70 905
	Foster Care	3 620	5 896
	Grant in Aid	58	
	Old age	8 957	
	Over Age (75 years and over)	5 798	
	Permanent disability	3 961	
	Temporary disability	201	
Lusikisiki Total		57 557	77 496

Source: O. R. Tambo District Municipality IDP (2017)

During a focus group interview session amongst the residents of Lusikisiki Mcobothini (on the 20th of October 2017), the participants acknowledged that there were very limited employment opportunities within their domain. They further mentioned that the majority of residents survived through social grants, subsistence farming or community services (Community Work Programme). Furthermore, a few residents sustain their livelihood through the production of the *Pondo* traditional attire or corporative initiatives such as the *Isiqalo* corporative projects (Bakery). These initiatives are all being funded by the Ingquza Hill Local Municipality.

Although not truly reflective of the Lusikisiki Mcobothini or Ingquza Hill Local Municipality, Table 4.19 provides employment typologies within the ORTDM.

Table 4.19: Employment by economic sector in O.R. Tambo District Municipality

Sector	Formal employment	Informal employment	Total employment
Agriculture	6 026	-	6 026
Mining	297	-	297
Manufacturing	4 137	1 725	5 862
Electricity	1 045	-	1 045
Construction	11 786	9 970	21 756
Trade	23 211	20 547	43 758
Transport	4 050	4 693	8 743
Finance	15 912	3 185	19 097
Community services	53 463	9 383	62 846
Households	15 207	-	15 207
Total	135 134	49 503	184 637

Source: O.R. Tambo District Municipality IDP (2017)

As inferred from Table 4.20, the most dominant employment typologies within the O.R. Tambo District Municipality are Agriculture (6026); Community services (62 846); Construction (21 756); Trade (43 758); and Finance (19 097).

Amenities and infrastructure

The community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini is one such community which is yet to benefit from the transformation of post-apartheid South Africa. This community is characterised by under-development and poor infrastructure. A situational analysis conducted by the IHLM reveals that Ward 21 (which includes Lusikisiki Mcobothini) consists of nine (9) villages; one (1) senior secondary school; two (2) senior primary schools; two (2) junior secondary schools

and the Ngqungqushe FET. Also pointed out was the lack of health facilities; 272 households with electricity; no water access in any of the nine villages; only 281 households supplied with sanitation; and one community hall (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 90).

Prior to 2017, there was no police station in this crime-ridden community. Additionally, the community lacks tarred roads. The only access routes within these villages are gravel roads which are re-tarred every five years. The dusty gravel roads pose a number of health hazards to the residents. The Youth Leader in Lusikisiki Mcobothini, Mr Bongani Nanatehla, on the 19th of October 2017 mentioned that in an attempt (by the municipality) to redress the water scarcity concern, the Magwa borehole was provided. He further explained that this borehole supplies five wards (Wards 16, 20, 21, 22 and 23), but does not suffice the water requirements of one ward, let alone five.

Table 4.20 indicates the proportion of households within the IHLM between 2011 and 2016 with access and no access to piped water.

Table 4.20: Access to water in Ingquza Hill (2016)

	Access to piped water		No access to piped water	
	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)
Ingquza Hill	31.0	18.3	69.0	81.7

Source: Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP (2017)

Table 4.21: Types of dwelling in Ingquza Hill Municipality (2016)**Housing**

	Traditional dwelling		Formal dwelling		Informal dwelling		Other	
	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)
Ingquza Hill	58.0	57.0	40.5	40.0	1.0	1.2	0.6	1.8

Source: O. R. Tambo District Municipality IDP (2017)

Table 4.22: Sanitation facilities amongst households (2016)

	Flushed toilet		Chemical toilet		Pit latrine		Bucket		None	
	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)	2011 (%)	2016 (%)
Ingquza Hill	3.5	1.6	10.1	9.3	69.9	79.6	1.3	5.1	15.3	3.9

Source: O R Tambo District Municipality IDP (2017)

As suggested in Tables 4.20; 4.21 and 4.22, only a handful of households in IHLM have access to water (18.3 percent); 40 percent reside in formal dwellings; and as little as 1.6 percent of households had flushing toilets. Household members of Lusikisiki Mcobothini often fetch water from streams for domestic purposes. They however complain of the risk concern of this stream as pigs are found during winter season drinking and swimming from the same water source. The characteristics highlighted herein are features of poverty and under-development (Dadson, Hall, Garrick, Sadoff, Grey and Whittington 2017; Meeks 2017).

As earlier mentioned, there are no health facilities within Lusikisiki Mcobothini. Thus, residences of this community are compelled to travel for more than ten kilometres to the nearest healthcare facility. Healthcare facilities in closest proximity to Lusikisiki Mcobothini (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 58) are listed as follows:

Flagstaff: Mbhadango Clinic, Khanyayo Clinic, KTC Clinic, Holly Cross Gateway Clinic, Flagstaff Clinic, Xopozo Clinic, BHala Clinic and Nkoso Clinic.

Also in Lusikisiki are:

Lusikisiki (town): Mbotyi Clinic, Xurana Clinic, Magwa Clinic, Goso Forest Clinic, St Elizabeth Clinic, Mpoza Clinic, Village Clinic, BHodweni Clinic, Palmerton Clinic, Malangeni Clinic, Mantlaneni Clinic and Qaukeni Clinic.

As alleged by participants in the focus group interview, a commonality amongst (some) of these health care facilities is their state of dilapidation and under-resourced state.

Potential and challenges

A substantial portion of land in Lusikisiki Mcobothini is fertile. This community receives a significant amount of rainfall. The annual rainfall estimate ranges between 874mm-1060mm. The majority of this rainfall is during summer, while the amount of rainfall drops significantly during the winter months (May – August). During the course of an interview on the 25th of October 2017, Mrs Sihle Mpetsheni (Agricultural Development Technician) alleged that the communities of Lusikisiki and Flagstaff possess enormous potential for agriculture. However, many of the unemployed or employed youths in these localities do not show interest in the agricultural sector. Mrs Mpetsheni further mentioned that these communities also have potential for livestock production, milk production, wool production, as well as poultry.

A comprehensive research study undertaken by the University of Fort Hare and the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) within the O.R. Tambo District Municipality highlighted the vast agricultural potential of this district. A thorough study of the climate and soil analysis of this district revealed that crops such as dry beans, sorghum maize, avocado, tea and potatoes do have high potentials across the district.

This survey also identified the potential in livestock production. Joint research between these two institutions also maintained that should livestock farming be adequately developed and managed, it could accelerate the district's sluggish economy through its potential production of leather, wool, milk and beef (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 73).

Besides the agricultural sector, the IHLM also has potentials in tourism. The unique attractions and landscape attract tourist locally and internationally. One such tourist destination, the Wild Coast, has the potential of being an international tourist destination. However, this has been hampered due to security issues, accessibility and infrastructural deficits (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 75).

The community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini alongside surrounding villages possesses a multitude of challenges. The remoteness of this locality and the lack of infrastructure isolates it from economic gains. Three of the biggest concerns raised amongst the communities of this locality are water scarcity, the lack of employment and high crime rates. Residents often have to trek for two-three kilometres in search of water for domestic purposes. Such a distance contravenes the set standard of 'one kilometre' stipulated by the World Health Organisation (WHO). According to the WHO, residents of a community should be provided with water sources within one kilometre (1 000 metres) of their houses (WHO 2007: 40; Bakre 2015: 132). The prevalence of criminal gangs (*Amavondo*) has equally posed a major concern in

this community. These criminal gangs commit theft, house-breaking, rape, robbery and murder (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 90).

Furthermore, prominent challenges amongst the youths of this locality are teenage pregnancy, HIV/AIDS, a lack of skill and a high incidence of school drop-out. Amongst the 303 378, well above 32 000 inhabitants have no formal education. This community is characterised by low educational levels and high levels of illiteracy. Less than 1.5 percent of the populace has a post-matric qualification, while less than 3 percent has a matric (Ingquza Hill Local Municipality IDP 2017: 56). As alleged by Dermott and Pomati (2016), these aforementioned features are prominent attributes of poverty.

4.10 Community of Gunjaneni

Background

The Gunjaneni community is a deep rural area situated within Ward 19 of the Mtubatuba Local Municipality. This municipality is one amongst the four municipalities of the UMkhanyakude District Municipality. The Mtubatuba Municipality is situated along the north-eastern axis of the KwaZulu-Natal Province (Mtubatuba IDP 2016a). This municipality consists of 20 wards managed by 20 Ward Councillors (Mtubatuba Local Municipality Final IDP 2017:15). According to the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality (Cllr M.Q Mkhwanazi), Ward 19 of Mtubatuba Municipality is South Africa's largest ward. The map of Mtubatuba Municipality is depicted in Figure 4.9.

uMkhanyakude District Municipality (DC27)

Legend:

- Provincial Boundaries
- Metropolitan/District Municipality
- Local Municipality
- Main Roads
- Railways
- Towns/Settlements
- Rivers
- Protected Areas
- Industrial Areas
- Commercial Areas
- Traditional Areas
- Weather Station

Boundary Changes

To take effect from date of municipal elections in 2011

- Area's to be included into municipality
- Area's to be excluded from municipality
- Municipal borders after changes

Map Information:

Map information provided by the Municipal Demarcation Board

Scale: 0 2 6 10 14 Km

Compass Rose: N

Map Labels: Mozambique, Swaziland, Zululand DC26, Jozini KZN272, uMhlabyalingana KZN271, KZN271, KZN272, KZN273, KZN274, KZN275, KZN276, KZN277, KZN278, KZN279, KZN280, KZN281, KZN282, KZN283, KZN284, KZN285, KZN286, KZN287, KZN288, KZN289, KZN290, KZN291, KZN292, KZN293, KZN294, KZN295, KZN296, KZN297, KZN298, KZN299, KZN300, KZN301, KZN302, KZN303, KZN304, KZN305, KZN306, KZN307, KZN308, KZN309, KZN310, KZN311, KZN312, KZN313, KZN314, KZN315, KZN316, KZN317, KZN318, KZN319, KZN320, KZN321, KZN322, KZN323, KZN324, KZN325, KZN326, KZN327, KZN328, KZN329, KZN330, KZN331, KZN332, KZN333, KZN334, KZN335, KZN336, KZN337, KZN338, KZN339, KZN340, KZN341, KZN342, KZN343, KZN344, KZN345, KZN346, KZN347, KZN348, KZN349, KZN350, KZN351, KZN352, KZN353, KZN354, KZN355, KZN356, KZN357, KZN358, KZN359, KZN360, KZN361, KZN362, KZN363, KZN364, KZN365, KZN366, KZN367, KZN368, KZN369, KZN370, KZN371, KZN372, KZN373, KZN374, KZN375, KZN376, KZN377, KZN378, KZN379, KZN380, KZN381, KZN382, KZN383, KZN384, KZN385, KZN386, KZN387, KZN388, KZN389, KZN390, KZN391, KZN392, KZN393, KZN394, KZN395, KZN396, KZN397, KZN398, KZN399, KZN400, KZN401, KZN402, KZN403, KZN404, KZN405, KZN406, KZN407, KZN408, KZN409, KZN410, KZN411, KZN412, KZN413, KZN414, KZN415, KZN416, KZN417, KZN418, KZN419, KZN420, KZN421, KZN422, KZN423, KZN424, KZN425, KZN426, KZN427, KZN428, KZN429, KZN430, KZN431, KZN432, KZN433, KZN434, KZN435, KZN436, KZN437, KZN438, KZN439, KZN440, KZN441, KZN442, KZN443, KZN444, KZN445, KZN446, KZN447, KZN448, KZN449, KZN450, KZN451, KZN452, KZN453, KZN454, KZN455, KZN456, KZN457, KZN458, KZN459, KZN460, KZN461, KZN462, KZN463, KZN464, KZN465, KZN466, KZN467, KZN468, KZN469, KZN470, KZN471, KZN472, KZN473, KZN474, KZN475, KZN476, KZN477, KZN478, KZN479, KZN480, KZN481, KZN482, KZN483, KZN484, KZN485, KZN486, KZN487, KZN488, KZN489, KZN490, KZN491, KZN492, KZN493, KZN494, KZN495, KZN496, KZN497, KZN498, KZN499, KZN500, KZN501, KZN502, KZN503, KZN504, KZN505, KZN506, KZN507, KZN508, KZN509, KZN510, KZN511, KZN512, KZN513, KZN514, KZN515, KZN516, KZN517, KZN518, KZN519, KZN520, KZN521, KZN522, KZN523, KZN524, KZN525, KZN526, KZN527, KZN528, KZN529, KZN530, KZN531, KZN532, KZN533, KZN534, KZN535, KZN536, KZN537, KZN538, KZN539, KZN540, KZN541, KZN542, KZN543, KZN544, KZN545, KZN546, KZN547, KZN548, KZN549, KZN550, KZN551, KZN552, KZN553, KZN554, KZN555, KZN556, KZN557, KZN558, KZN559, KZN560, KZN561, KZN562, KZN563, KZN564, KZN565, KZN566, KZN567, KZN568, KZN569, KZN570, KZN571, KZN572, KZN573, KZN574, KZN575, KZN576, KZN577, KZN578, KZN579, KZN580, KZN581, KZN582, KZN583, KZN584, KZN585, KZN586, KZN587, KZN588, KZN589, KZN590, KZN591, KZN592, KZN593, KZN594, KZN595, KZN596, KZN597, KZN598, KZN599, KZN600, KZN601, KZN602, KZN603, KZN604, KZN605, KZN606, KZN607, KZN608, KZN609, KZN610, KZN611, KZN612, KZN613, KZN614, KZN615, KZN616, KZN617, KZN618, KZN619, KZN620, KZN621, KZN622, KZN623, KZN624, KZN625, KZN626, KZN627, KZN628, KZN629, KZN630, KZN631, KZN632, KZN633, KZN634, KZN635, KZN636, KZN637, KZN638, KZN639, KZN640, KZN641, KZN642, KZN643, KZN644, KZN645, KZN646, KZN647, KZN648, KZN649, KZN650, KZN651, KZN652, KZN653, KZN654, KZN655, KZN656, KZN657, KZN658, KZN659, KZN660, KZN661, KZN662, KZN663, KZN664, KZN665, KZN666, KZN667, KZN668, KZN669, KZN670, KZN671, KZN672, KZN673, KZN674, KZN675, KZN676, KZN677, KZN678, KZN679, KZN680, KZN681, KZN682, KZN683, KZN684, KZN685, KZN686, KZN687, KZN688, KZN689, KZN690, KZN691, KZN692, KZN693, KZN694, KZN695, KZN696, KZN697, KZN698, KZN699, KZN700, KZN701, KZN702, KZN703, KZN704, KZN705, KZN706, KZN707, KZN708, KZN709, KZN710, KZN711, KZN712, KZN713, KZN714, KZN715, KZN716, KZN717, KZN718, KZN719, KZN720, KZN721, KZN722, KZN723, KZN724, KZN725, KZN726, KZN727, KZN728, KZN729, KZN730, KZN731, KZN732, KZN733, KZN734, KZN735, KZN736, KZN737, KZN738, KZN739, KZN740, KZN741, KZN742, KZN743, KZN744, KZN745, KZN746, KZN747, KZN748, KZN749, KZN750, KZN751, KZN752, KZN753, KZN754, KZN755, KZN756, KZN757, KZN758, KZN759, KZN760, KZN761, KZN762, KZN763, KZN764, KZN765, KZN766, KZN767, KZN768, KZN769, KZN770, KZN771, KZN772, KZN773, KZN774, KZN775, KZN776, KZN777, KZN778, KZN779, KZN780, KZN781, KZN782, KZN783, KZN784, KZN785, KZN786, KZN787, KZN788, KZN789, KZN790, KZN791, KZN792, KZN793, KZN794, KZN795, KZN796, KZN797, KZN798, KZN799, KZN800, KZN801, KZN802, KZN803, KZN804, KZN805, KZN806, KZN807, KZN808, KZN809, KZN810, KZN811, KZN812, KZN813, KZN814, KZN815, KZN816, KZN817, KZN818, KZN819, KZN820, KZN821, KZN822, KZN823, KZN824, KZN825, KZN826, KZN827, KZN828, KZN829, KZN830, KZN831, KZN832, KZN833, KZN834, KZN835, KZN836, KZN837, KZN838, KZN839, KZN840, KZN841, KZN842, KZN843, KZN844, KZN845, KZN846, KZN847, KZN848, KZN849, KZN850, KZN851, KZN852, KZN853, KZN854, KZN855, KZN856, KZN857, KZN858, KZN859, KZN860, KZN861, KZN862, KZN863, KZN864, KZN865, KZN866, KZN867, KZN868, KZN869, KZN870, KZN871, KZN872

Figure 4.10 further illustrates the location of Gunjaneni (Mtubatuba) on the South African map.

Figure 4.10: Map indicating the location of Gunjaneni (Mtubatuba)



Source: Google Maps

Table 4.23 further provides some key indicators about the UMkhanyakude District Municipality.

Table 4:23: Overview of the UMkhanyakude District and Local Municipalities

Municipalities within the District	Area (km2) in 2009	Area (km2) after 2011 Local Government Elections and percentage change		No. of Households	Poverty Rate
Umkhanyakude District Municipality	13,855.36	13,855.35		116,404	64.00%
The Big 5 False Bay Local Municipality	1,060.80	2,486.54	134.40%	6,740	58.82%
Hlabisa Local Municipality	1,417.24	1,555.13	9.73%	29,624	60.52%
Jozini Local Municipality	3,056.28	3,442.25	12.63%	39,010	75.66%
Mtubatuba Local Municipality	496.49	1,969.83	296.75%	11,480	49.62%
uMhlabuyalingana Local Municipality	3,619.05	4,401.61	21.62%	27,342	74.55%

Source: UMkhanyakude District Municipality IDP (2017)

Demographics

According to the 2016 Community survey, the Mtubatuba Municipality population is estimated at 202 176 (Community Survey 2016). The population of this municipality grew by 1.85 percent between 2001 and 2011 (Statistics South Africa 2011), while recent surveys show continuous population growth. Amongst this populace, the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality (Cllr M.Q Mkhwanazi) estimates the Gunjaneni residents to be slightly above 7 000 people.

Table 4.24 outlines population figures in UMkhanyakude District municipality between 2001, 2011 and 2016. The population figures of the five municipalities within this municipality are also provided for the years 2001, 2011 and 2016.

Table 4:24: Umkhanyakude District and Local Municipalities (Population)

Municipality	Total population		
	2001	2011	2016
UMkhanyakude District municipality	573341	625 846	689090
Mhlabuyalingana Municipality	142 565	156 736	172077
Jozini Municipality	184 206	186 502	198215
Big Five False Bay Municipality	31 482	35 258	Not available yet
Hlabisa Municipality	69 269	71 925	Not available yet
Mtubatuba Municipality	145,820	175,425	202176

Source: Mtubatuba Municipality Final IDP (2018)

The number of households within this municipality has steadily grown over the years. Such growth is illustrated in Table 4.25.

Table 4:25: Households of Mtubatuba Municipality

Municipality	Total households	
	2011	2016
Mtubatuba Municipality	34 909	41 792

The number of households in Mtubatuba Municipality has continuously grown. As inferred from the 2001 and 2011 censuses, households grew by 40 percent. The continual increase in population has consistently impacted on the limited infrastructure and services of this municipality. Thus an increment in backlogs (Mtubatuba Municipality Final IDP 2018: 82).

The Mtubatuba Municipality has a higher female population in comparison to males. While females account for 57.7 percent, 43.3 percent are male (Community Survey 2016). This is indicative that a number of adult males may have migrated to neighbouring towns or cities in search of greener pastures. Hence, the Mtubatuba Municipality has more female-headed households (Mtubatuba Municipality Final IDP 2018: 87). According to the Community Survey (2016), 52.8 percent of households in Mtubatuba are headed by women, while a further 1.7 percent of households in Mtubatuba are headed by children (Mtubatuba Municipality Final IDP 2018: 84).

Table 4.26 further classifies the populace of Mtubatuba Municipality by age bracket.

Table 4:26: Dependency ratio in Mtubatuba Municipality

Municipality	Population younger than 15 years			Population above 65 years			Population between 15-65 years		
	2001	2011	2016	2001	2011	2016	2001	2011	2016
Mtubatuba	59 193	69 069	82 443	6 557	7 793	11 506	80 069	98 564	Not available

Source: Mtubatuba Municipality Final IDP (2018)

Drawing from Table 4.26, it can be construed that this municipality does have a high dependency ratio. While the dependency ratio was as high as 82.1 percent in 2001, it marginally dropped to 78 percent in 2011 (Statistics South Africa 2011; Mtubatuba Municipality Final IDP 2018: 87). Such a demographic indicates that huge investments are required in education, health and social services.

Moreover, the Mtubatuba Municipality is predominantly a Zulu (Black African) community, with slight traces of other racial groups. Blacks constitute an estimated 94.5 percent; Whites are estimated to be around 3.3 percent; Coloureds represent an estimated 1.2 percent; while Indians account for the remaining 1.0 percent (Mtubatuba Municipality IDP 2017).

Source of livelihood

As evidenced by Agricultural Extension workers at the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (Mtubatuba Municipality), the predominant form of livelihood amongst household members of Gunjaneni are subsistence farming, trading and income from social grants. The employment typology inherent in this locality is synonymous with neighbouring communities. According to the Mtubatuba Local Municipality IDP (2017), the leading employment typologies in Mtubatuba Municipality are found within farming, commerce and tourism.

There are high rates of unemployment in this municipality, more particularly amongst the youths. As revealed in a recent survey, above 50 percent of the working age group are economically inactive, while a further 6 percent are discouraged job-seekers (Mtubatuba Local Municipality Final IDP 2017:15). Limited employment opportunities have significantly impacted on poverty and high unemployment within this municipality. According to the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (2017), *above 70 percent of the populace residing within this municipality survive on less than R800 per month. More*

worrisome is the fact that 82.9 percent of household members within this municipality live in poverty.

Amenities and infrastructure

Similar to other rural communities of South Africa, the community of Gunjaneni lacks basic amenities and infrastructure. As at the time of this study, majority of the dwellings were traditional, with no electricity or water reticulation. Moreover, this community lacks access to good roads, as the routes were often bumpy and dusty roads. However, the Gunjaneni community does have a clinic which is under-resourced, as well as a multi-purpose hall which is barely being used by community members.

In an interview with a Community leader, Mrs Sibongile Magwaza, on the 12th of October 2017, she complained of the difficulty farmers within the community experienced in transporting their fresh farm produce to markets due to poor access routes. The Community leader further mentioned that the community was in need of RDP houses as some community members lived in dilapidated dwellings. Also lacking in the community were schools and a police station.

The backlog issue was not only a challenge confined to Gunjaneni, but also a commonality amongst communities within the UMkhanyakude District Municipality. For instance, Jozini and uMhlabuyalingana also had several infrastructural backlogs in sanitation and electricity. However, between 1996 and 2009, household access to infrastructure within the UMkhanyakude District municipality had improved from 18 percent to 44 percent. Some of the priority areas were access to piped water (in close proximity to households), sanitation and electricity (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs [2017](#)).

Exemplifying with sanitation facilities, it can be said that more and more households are being provided with toilet facilities. Nonetheless, 1 054 households within the

UMkhanyakude District Municipality lack access to toilet facilities (Mtubatuba Municipality IDP 2018: 170). This is illustrated in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Toilet facilities in UMkhanyakude and Mtubaba

Year	UMkhanyakude	Mtubatuba	Type of toilet facility
2001	18 050	6 250	Flush or chemical toilet
2011	37 624	10 170	
2016	45813	14 115	
2001	24 474	8 253	Pit latrine
2011	58 061	13 518	
2016	82 572	23 034	
2001	1 385	610	Bucket pit latrine
2011	1 594	275	
2016	1 449	17	
2001	57 654	9 713	None
2011	23 614	6 458	
2016	1 054	37	
			Ecological toilets

Source: Community Survey (2016)

Table 4.27 shows a steady improvement between the years 2001, 2011 and 2016. However, as at the time of this study, the lack of sanitation amongst households within Gunjaneni was still a major concern.

Additionally, some progress had been made in reducing the electricity backlog within this municipality. This is observed in the number of households that have access to electricity for cooking, heating and lighting. The number of households who use electricity for cooking increased by 38 percent between 2011 and 2016, while households who use electricity for heating had increased by 32 percent between 2011 and 2016; while usage for lighting had also increased by 36.58 percent during these years (Mtubatuba Municipality IDP 2018: 189). Similar to the sanitation concern, the lack of electricity was considered a major priority amongst households in Gunjaneni.

Potentials and challenges

The Mtubatuba Municipality is home to a variety of tourism sites. Some of these are inclusive of the iSimangaliso Wetland Park (a UNESCO World Heritage site) and the Mfolozi Game Reserve (Mtubatuba Local Municipality Final IDP 2018:13). The distinctive eco-tourism in this community also attracts tourist from and beyond Africa. Over the years, craft entrepreneurship through craft and art activities has also provided employment opportunities for indigenes, particularly in Tshanini, Rhino Reserve and Usuthu Gorge. In recent times, the Elephant Coast Tourism Association has also created a few opportunities through tourism and entrepreneurship (Indaba Daily News 2017; Ezemvelo KwaZulu- Natal Wildlife 2014).

Also within the UMkhanyakude District Municipality are a number of game reserves such as the Mkuze Game Reserve, the Ndumo Game Reserve, Phinda Private Game Reserve and the Tembe Elephant Park. These game reserves have not only attracted tourists from within the KwaZulu-Natal Province, but have equally enticed tourists from countries such as the United States of America, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Germany and France. An estimated 40 percent of tourists who visit these game reserves are international tourists (Saunders 2017; Department of Tourism 2019). Amongst these tourist sites, the iSimangaliso Wetland Park brings in the majority of tourists. However, community members are excluded from the gains of these tourist attraction due to the boundary surrounding this tourist destination. Furthermore, due to the poor relationship between the UMkhanyakude District Municipality and the Park management, the populace of this district have benefitted minimally (UMKhanyakude District Municipality IDP 2017). In the Mayors view, the iSimangaliso Wetland Park is yet to actualise its full potential.

Apart from the huge tourism potential of this municipality, it is also endowed with coal, which is available in commercial and export quantity. The municipality also has potentials within the agricultural sector. This agricultural potential is foreseen in sugarcane and timber production (Mtubatuba Local Municipality Final IDP 2018:13).

The challenges of this municipality do seem to outweigh the potentials. This sub-section may not be able to exhaust all challenges within this municipality, but will rather summarise the most prominent challenges. Amongst the most pronounced challenges are poverty, high incidences of unemployment and infrastructural deficits. During an interview with the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality (Cllr M.Q Mkhwanazi) on the 7th of October 2017, he emphasised the following as the most worrisome challenges amongst the youth of this community: drug

abuse, prostitution, criminal activities and low levels of skills. A municipal officer also indicated the concern of poor communication between the municipality and households. Poor communication has occasionally resulted in tension amongst both entities. Exemplifying with the scenario of water cuts, whereby the municipality does announce specific hours for water cuts, community members have often alleged to be ignorant of such announcement or information.

Amongst the farmers of this locality, water scarcity was perceived as the most pertinent challenge they experienced, particularly during the dry winter months. Other prominent challenges are inclusive of (Mtubatuba Municipality IDP 2017; Bakre 2015: 119):

- *Poor capacitation amongst personnel at the municipality;*
- *Drought;*
- *High prevalence of TB, HIV and AIDS;*
- *Illegal dumping;*
- *Universal access to basic services and the maintenance of infrastructure;*
- *Intergovernmental co-ordination across spheres of government;*
- *Drying up of water sources during winter;*
- *Population increasing exponentially as compared to water supply;*
- *Infrastructural challenges such as power failures and leakages of old pipes;*
- *Poor coordination between the municipal management team and water and sanitation unit; and*
- *The low standard of pipes used at present. (Class 9 pipes are being used at present, whereas the required suitable class is either Class 12 or Class 19).*

The Mtubatuba Municipality does recognise most of the aforementioned issues as concerns. This has often agitated community members who think that the municipality's pace in addressing issues is too sluggish.

4.11 Conclusion

This chapter depicts an ambiguous picture of the contemporary nature of rural livelihoods in South Africa. The rural pictorial perspective narrated in this chapter provides leeway to key dynamics of rural South Africa, and offers estimated percentages of the rural populace per province. Additionally, the chapter provided a blithe reference to the extent of poverty amongst rural households in South Africa. The chapter further narrows the poverty discussion to the areas of study, wherein a closer look at the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki, Mcobothini and Gunjaneni were under focus. In consonance with the poverty narrative discussed herein, the proceeding chapter provides literature on successive rural development initiatives amongst BRICS nations which have been used to tackle poverty.

CHAPTER FIVE – SUCCESSFUL RURAL DEVELOPMENTAL INITIATIVES (BRIC)

5.1 Introduction

Having provided an insight into poverty in rural South Africa in the previous chapter, this chapter elaborates by discussing how ‘poverty’ has been tackled amongst the rural communities of the BRICS countries (exclusive of South Africa). In the preliminary discussion, poverty amongst BRICS nations is discussed. This is followed by the poverty alleviation measures used to tackle poverty amongst these BRICS nations. The current chapter also aligns its narrative to the second and third objectives of these study, wherein discussions regarding the ‘*role played by local government*’ amongst the chosen BRICS nations in rural development initiatives were discussed, as well as the core factors which have contributed to the success of rural development initiatives amongst these nations.

5.2 BRICS

The acronym BRICS refers to a cooperation mechanism comprising Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. These five emerging economies comprise 43 percent of the world’s population – ‘3 billion individuals’ (BRICS 2015: 3). This cooperation mechanism has strengthened their cooperation while echoing their voice and establishing a global influence (BRICS Agricultural Development Report 2017). The BRICS partnership has brought a number of benefits to South Africa alongside her partners. It is anticipated that these five countries will contribute more than half of the world’s gross domestic product (GDP) by 2020 (BRICS 2015: 3), collective growth that will instigate development amongst each of these five partners. Another resounding area of growth has been in the area of institutional and legislative frameworks is aimed at tackling a variety of topical priority industries amongst the BRICS nations (BRICS 2015: 3). The BRICS partnership has further contributed

to the world's food security, wherein one-third of global farmland is situated amongst these five countries (BRICS Agricultural Development Report 2017).

Large-scale agricultural production particularly, in Brazil, China and India, has significantly been used to reduce the extent of poverty amongst these countries (Helfand, Rada and Magalhães 2017: 16-18; Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries 2018:5; Huang 2012). However, the South African narrative is non-confirmative to her counterparts, as the main beneficiaries to large scale agricultural production have only been White commercial farmers. On the contrary, poor subsistence farmers are excluded from the benefits enjoyed by commercial farmers. A majority of these poor subsistence farmers often belong to rural households (Hall and Cousins 2015: 3). One major commonality amongst the BRICS nations is 'Agriculture' as a top agenda (BRICS Agricultural Development Report 2017). Agricultural experts have however criticised the South African government for not doing enough in comparison to her BRICS partners (Hall and Cousins 2015: 5).

Notwithstanding, ever since South Africa joined the BRICS conglomerate in 2010, she has immensely benefitted through avenues such as leveraging economic opportunities locally, as well as on the African continent. Through the BRICS partnership, South Africa has this platform to stimulate a South-South trade investment (BRICS Youth Summit 2018). The BRICS partnership is beginning to make concerted efforts to benefit local economies through a number of best practices and stringent measures. While working at the grassroots level, BRICS is equally making concerted efforts to influence the global market and politics (Haibin 2013: 5). However, BRICS has often faced heavy criticism for not being proactive at the grassroots level. Hence, a high incidence of poverty still prevails across several communities amongst the BRICS nations. This paucity is however more pronounced amongst

the rural communities. Table 5.1 provides some key indicators amongst the BRICS nations. Some of these are inclusive of the extent of poverty amongst BRICS citizens, total population, rural populace, urban populace, unemployment rates and GDP.

Table 5.1: Key indicators amongst BRICS nations

Indicator	Brazil	Russia	India	China	South Africa
Population as at 2016	206m	147m	1 269 b	1 379 b	56m
Population density per square kilometre	24.2	8.6	386.0	143.6	46.0
Percentage of citizens living in Poverty	3.8m (Population below international poverty line - 2012)		25.7m (Urban) 13.7m (rural)	1.3m (Population below international poverty line - 2011)	
Unemployment rate (%)	9.6 (2015)	5.5 (2016)	2.2 (2012)	4.0 (2016)	26.7 (2016)

National	1,796	1,286	2,273	11,203	295
Accounts					
(GDP)- 2016					
Per capita	8,713	8,768	1,750	8,127	5,276
GDP – 2016					
Rural	28.8m	37.8m	873.7m	589.7m	19m
population					
Urban	177.3m	108.8m	395.3m	793.0m	37m
population					
Cultivated	78 (2015)	123 (2015)	156 (2013)	135 (2016)	12 (2011)
land (million					
hectares)					

Source: Adapted from BRICS Joint Statistical Publication (2017: 11-14)

Amongst the pertinent issues notable in Table 5.1 is the incidence of poverty amongst the BRICS nations. For instance, the Chinese government through a number of pro-poverty initiatives was able to reduce the number of Chinese citizens living below the international poverty line of 3.1 million (in 2008) to 2 million (in 2010) and further down to 1.3 million in 2011. Some of these pro-poverty initiatives are further discussed under heading **5.4** (Rural development initiatives amongst BRICS nations). Table 5.1 also reveals that amongst the five BRICS nations, Russia has the lowest population density, but is largest in physical size. Regarding population, China is ranked the world's most populace nation (1 379 billion), with India ranked the second most populace nation (1 269 billion). However, India has the highest population density. An estimated 386 persons in India live within a square kilometre in

comparison to that of South Africa which is at 46 persons per square kilometre. Besides South Africa having the highest incidence of poverty, it also has the highest levels of unemployment and inequality amongst the BRICS nations (BRICS Joint Statistical Publication 2017: 12). The next subsection provides further discussions around Poverty amongst the BRICS nations.

5.3 Poverty amongst BRICS nations

The first documented form of poverty was that experienced during the ‘Pre-industrialised era’ (Anikin and Tikhonova 2016: 311). This era was accompanied by the ‘*pre-capitalism stage of development*’. A prominent feature of this era was low productivity in the agricultural sector, often due to climatic factors. The dominant mode of agriculture during this era was subsistence farming which was characterised by low labour productivity; rapid population growth despite the prevalence of high mortality amongst infants; reliance on geo-climatic conditions; and insecure forms of livelihood (Anikin and Tikhonova 2016: 311). Governments during this age were only able to offer the poorest rural community members minimal assistance, as the primacy was to ensure that such poor individuals survive. It was impracticable to offer further assistance to the poor due to governments’ limited resources and widespread poverty. Most communities during this era were predominantly *poor agrarian communities* which was more or less the status quo (O’Laughlin, Bernstein, Cousins and Peters 2013).

- **Poor agrarian communities**

Similar poverty-related concerns resonate amongst some BRICS agrarian communities presently (Aubron, Lehoux and Lucas 2015). A typical example would be the farming communities of Andhra Pradesh in India, as well as farming communities of King Williams Town in South Africa (Dev 2012: 9; Khapayi and Celliers 2016: 27). Poverty in such agrarian communities is so widespread that almost every community member is considered to be living below the poverty line.

- **Inequality amongst BRICS nations**

Despite the economic advances recorded by BRICS nations, a significant challenge still faced by these countries is ‘poverty’. Makhaya (2013: 2) narrates the manner China, India and Brazil have enticed investors through their remarkable economic narratives. This impressive economic trajectory has however been accompanied by poverty and inequality amongst these countries. For instance, while an improved standard of living has been observed amongst some urban households of Brazil, large populations residing in rural communities and ‘*favelas*’ are still trapped in poverty (Braathen, May, Ulriksen and Wright 2016; Cotelo and Rodrigues 2012; Perlman 2010) (*Favelas in Brazil are informal settlements (slums) characterised by poor infrastructure and little social amenities*). Similar to the Brazilian narrative, the rural populace and lower castes in India are yet to benefit from the ‘outsourced services boom’ which contributed significantly to the Indian economy in recent years (Makhaya 2013: 2; Romero-Lankao, Gnatz and Sperling 2016). The Chinese have a similar story to their BRICS counterparts. The rural populace as well as residents of small towns (in China) are often excluded from the impressive gains accrued through the export-led trajectory. Russia’s economic exclusion of the rural poor is predominantly due to post-communism privatisation. These economic approaches have resulted in an oligarchy in

modern Russia (Libman and Obydenkova 2019; Schumacher, Marchetti and Demmelhuber 2018). On the contrary, the situation in South Africa is considered more complex in comparison to her BRICS counterparts. The economic exclusion of the rural poor was mainly orchestrated by the apartheid regime, which resulted in an unparalleled class divide between rural and urban, as well as between the black and white populace of South Africa. These class and racial tensions are yet to be undone, even two decades into the post-apartheid regime (Hundenborn, Leibbrandt and Woolard 2016).

This section further provides a deeper insight into the preceding narrative by using a scholarly work titled '*Poverty and Inequality in BRICS Countries by Anikin and Tikhonova*'. Anikin and Tikhonova (2016) use a wide range of materials to prove that poverty and inequality still pose a significant threat within BRICS countries. Their study emphasised the heterogeneity and dynamics of poverty and inequality in these countries. In emphasising their assertion, Anikin and Tikhonova (2016: 305) categorise different forms of poverty in accordance with the following eras:

- Pre-industrial poverty in modern societies (India, South Africa);
- Early industrial poverty of the lumpen urban poor (Brazil);
- Industrial poverty (China, Russia); and
- Late industrial poverty (Russia).

Empirical studies have proven that inequality and poverty in Russia are exceptionally distinctive (Fosu 2017; Alsamawi, Murray, Lenzen, Moran and Kanemoto 2014). However, this distinctiveness is dependent on what precisely is meant by 'poverty'; how poverty is being measured; and consequently, what the term 'inequality' implies (Fosu 2017). Moreover, poverty is relatively diverse when viewed from an institutional environment, which varies significantly amongst the BRICS nations. Exemplifying with the Russian

situation which has fully evolved into being modernised, Russia is considered to have accomplished the industrialised and urbanised stages and is characterised by *low indicators of informal employment and social burden*. The mix of these economic indicators in Russia does suggest that poverty herein is not too widespread and may be perceived as being ‘relatively superficial’ (Dang, Lokshin, Abanokova and Bussolo 2019). The Brazilian situation, on the other hand, demonstrates substantial economic growth with high levels of childbirth and social burden. Poverty driven by the lack of employment opportunities has often driven poor rural residents into urban settlements. Over the years this, has been identified as one of the reasons to poverty increment amongst the Brazilian urban populace (Bursztyn 2016; Tronco and Ramos 2017).

- **Cause of poverty in Brazil and China**

Poverty analysts have found a correlation between high rates of birth (particularly amongst the young) and unemployment as some of the leading causes of poverty in Brazil (Bursztyn 2016; Tronco and Ramos 2017). An estimated 3.8 million Brazilians were living below the international poverty line as at 2015, while more than 9.6 million citizens were also unemployed during the same period (BRICS Joint Statistical Publication 2017: 11). Amongst the BRICS nations, the Chinese have the highest GDP per capita and is characterised as the most advance and modernised country within the bloc. Notable in China is the extreme influx of rural people into urban settlements, which is twice that recorded less than three decades ago. This migrant flow was premised upon poverty amongst the rural populace of China, a majority of whom were amongst the first-generation migrants who wanted to benefit from the Chinese economic gains and modernisation reforms which were non-corresponding with rural spaces (Zhang 2017; Jia, Du and Wang 2017). This particular group of rural migrants were

often susceptible to poverty as they were often ill-equipped, or poorly skilled or literate enough to adapt modernised China (Chen and Liu 2016; Howell 2017).

- **Cause of poverty in India**

Contrary to China, India has *the lowest indicators of economic development, with comparatively high rates of economic growth*. Even though the Indian rural populace is beginning to shrink at a fast pace, India still has the highest rural populace globally. The Indian rural population estimate as at 2016 was at 873.7 million, 13.7 million of whom were living in extreme poverty (BRICS Joint Statistical Publication 2017: 12). The majority of rural inhabitants in India are involved in agricultural practices as a form of livelihood (Das and Bagchi 2018). However, the cause of poverty amongst the Indian rural communities can be attributed to concerns such as climate change, limited non-agricultural opportunities and high birth rates (Dehury and Mohanty 2015; Alkire and Seth 2015). The high birth rate thus places an economic burden upon the Indian government (Perumal *et al.* 2019). Unlike the Chinese, India is the least industrialised or urbanised nation amongst the BRICS nations. Since 1990, the Indian urban population has only grown by one-fourth, while the high birth rate has continuously increased the rural populace. This suggest that addressing poverty in rural communities of India thus becomes a great and enormous challenge. In trying to avert poverty, rural migrants migrate to cities in search of job opportunities. Most forms of informal opportunities that such migrants find often do not truly change their financial status (Dehury and Mohanty 2015; Alkire and Seth 2015; Perumal 2019).

- **Cause of poverty in South Africa**

The South African level of economic development is quite synonymous with that of her Chinese counterpart, though with varying growth rates (BRICS 2015). South Africa has the highest percentage of people living in poverty (as a percentage of the total population). In accordance with Statistics South Africa (2017a), more than 50 percent of South Africans live below the poverty line, while an estimated 27.5 percent of the populace were found to be unemployed as at the third-quarter of 2018 (Statistics South Africa 2018d). The extent of poverty and unemployment amongst rural communities of South Africa is more severe when compared to the national average. The World Bank Group (2018: xix) pegs the poverty rate amongst rural households at 65.4 percent, while unemployment as at the same period was well above 50 percent. Rural developmental analysts have sometimes argued that a contributing factor to poverty and high unemployment rates within the rural communities of South Africa is due to the poor developmental agenda of the agricultural sector (Hall and Cousins 2015). South Africa far has the lowest agricultural related employment amongst the BRICS nations (4.6 percent), which has been further reduced in recent years due to job losses in agriculture (BRICS 2015). This phenomenon translates to high incidences of poverty, an accentuated level of unemployment and an enormous burden on local and national government.

- **Cause of poverty in Russia**

In addition to providing a vivid demonstration of poverty amongst BRICS nations, Anikin and Tikhonova (2016: 314) narrate distinguishing traits in these rural communities. They mention that the '*classical variant of pre-industrial rural poverty* still exists in the Northern Caucasus alongside other parts of Russia, wherein a significant proportion of rural household members reside. These communities are often characterised by high birth rates, with a

sizeable percentage of households involved in subsistence farming. This afore scenario does not however depict a typical rural community in Russia enslaved with poverty, as the poor est of the poor rural communities of Russia are those which Anikin and Tikhonova describe as those *‘dying rural settlements that have stopped feeding themselves from the earth’* and the *poverty of residents of more prosperous rural settlements who have become marginalised and have lost their connection with the earth’*. Hence, such households are usually food-insecure and can barely afford essential commodities. Typical examples of such poverty-stricken rural communities can be found in the north western region of Russia or Nechernozem’ia (Gorshkov and Tikhonova 2014).

In reference to a national survey conducted by the Institute of Sociology in 2014 under the theme *‘Poverty and Poor People in Contemporary Russia’*, 87 percent had no livestock, while a further 99 percent of the rural poor did not possess land. This survey further revealed the prominence of unemployment. An estimated 95 percent of the adults within these poor households lacked permanent employment (Gorshkov and Tikhonova 2014). In contrast to other BRICS nations such as South Africa, China and India, the majority of the (poor) rural populace in Russia were not engaged in subsistence farming (Wegren, Nikulin and Trotsuk 2016; Shagaida and Uzun 2015). Studies by Tikhonova and Slobodeniuk (2014) attribute Russian rural poverty to two prominent concerns, namely the absence of sufficient demand for local labour of the appropriate quality on local labour markets, as well as the backwardness in technology in specific agricultural zones. Anikin and Tikhonova (2016) show similarity between rural poverty in Russia and other countries with specific attributes such as villages with high numbers of unemployed people with little or no skill, as well as countries experiencing incomplete urbanisation. Nevertheless, poverty amongst the rural populace of Russia indicates peculiar attributes not commonly found amongst other BRICS

nation, where the ‘subsistence mode of farming’ plays an integral role in the livelihood of rural residents. Such means of livelihood is often not the case amongst rural households in Russia (Wegren, Nikulin and Trotsuk 2016; Lunze, Yurasova, Idrisov, Gnatienko and Migliorini 2015).

- **The agrarian sector in Brazil**

In describing the poverty scenario in Brazil, Anikin and Tikhonova (2016) ascribe this to the ‘*Early industrial poverty of the lumpen urban poor*’. This form of poverty can be traced back to Europe’s ‘classical variant’ of the 18th and 19th centuries. Anikin and Tikhonova (2016) explain this form of poverty as that which arises due to an unprecedented, spontaneous or large-scale exodus by the inhabitants of highly populated rural communities to developed cities. Such an uncontrolled exodus often takes place during a ‘first demographic transition’. Another attributing factor which may instigate such a rural-urban exodus may also be the development and growth of industries within cities. This form of migration is problematic as government is often unable to restrict or regulate such movements (OECD 2018; Foggin 2018). Amongst the BRICS nations, this form of poverty is most notable in Brazil. Unlike the migration trends in China, the Soviet Union and Europe which were accentuated by urbanised industrialisation, the scenario in Brazil is distinct as her rural-urban exodus was premised upon the modernisation of institutions and robust technological advancement (Barros, Fiuza and Pinto 2017).

The agrarian sector in Brazil is predominantly characterised by advanced, large-scale agribusiness. This high-tech industry is non-labour intensive, but requires highly skilled personnel. On one hand, this agrarian sector brought about development to the Brazilian economy. However; the flip side of this advancement was spontaneous, unregulated and uncontrolled settlement patterns, referred to as the ‘*favelas*’ (De Campos, Henriques and Yanaze 2018). These settlement patterns can be traced back to the 1890s, but became more

prevalent during the 2nd half of the 20th century. Hence, the lack of employment opportunities and lack of skill were amongst the contributing factors to several rural inhabitants wallowing in abject poverty (Sokolov, Shashnov, Kotsemir, Grebenyuk 2018). This spontaneous migration trend invariably resulted in a gradual shift of poverty amongst rural inhabitants to the urban *favelas* (Barros, Fiuza and Pinto 2017).

De Campos, Henriques and Yanaze (2018) attribute ‘low-qualified employees’ as the cause to poverty reproduction amongst the favelas. The low demand for such employees often results in poor wages, and non-standardised forms of jobs. For instance, Brazil’s poorest 20 percent are outrightly excluded from any form of income (Anikin and Tikhonova 2016: 316). The resultant effect of this is the marginalisation of previous rural inhabitants who are often unable to find employment opportunities in cities. Invariably, these “previous rural inhabitants” who seek employment opportunities in urban areas are unable to find employment due to skill and qualification mismatches. In other words, their economic status remains the same, ‘poor’, and should they eventually find employment, they only receive extremely poor remuneration (Daros and Singh 2015).

- **The late industrial poverty in Russia**

The distinct Brazilian form of poverty is yet to manifest in Russia. However, the population in the rural communities of Russia are beginning to rise significantly, particularly in areas such as the Caucasus. Moreover, Moscow and Central Russia are beginning to receive a huge influx of rural residents (Lunze, Yurasova, Idrisov, Gnatienko and Migliorini 2015). Similar to the inter-migration trend in Russia, that of China has often also been the migration of the rural populace to smaller cities. Such smaller cities are often characterised by complicated local labour markets. In relation to the issue of urban poverty, worth mentioning is the establishment of a lumpen urban underbelly, which is equally characterised by severe poverty (Sokolov, Shashnov, Kotsemir, Grebenyuk 2018). Shagaida and Uzum (2015) foresees the

Russian society experiencing an industrialized-type of poverty in the near future. Such speculation is perceived worrisome as this instigates vices such as heightened crime rates, alcoholism and drug addiction (Wengren, Nikulin and Trotsuk 2016). Shagaida and Uzum (2015) thus advocates the provision of humanitarian aid for such poor citizens, while efforts should be made to integrate their children into society so future generations may attain a better livelihood. However, the extent of aid may be dependent on a country's resources, socio-economic situation and the prevalence of solidarity amongst her citizens (Anikin and Tikhonova 2016: 317). Thus, nations characterised with features of 'pre-industrial' or 'early-industrial' poverty, adopt the 'absolute approach' in identifying poor citizens. This 'poverty line' is calculated by experts who use a country's prevailing features of poverty as a benchmark to identify the poor (Anikin and Tikhonova 2016: 317).

As typified by the Russian scenario, industrial poverty is often attributed to the excessive supply of labourers entering the labour market. Such labourers are usually low-skilled workers who are given low wages (Wengren, Nikulin and Trotsuk 2016). As eloquently defined by Europeans scholars during the second half of the 19th century, Industrial poverty (poverty of exploited labour) - occurs when '*the relationship between supply and demand in certain segments of the labour market works against workers*' (Galli, Hebinck, Arcuri, Brunori¹, Carrol, Connor and Oostindie 2015). Such is not only confined to Russia as South Africa equally experiences similar challenges, particularly in sectors such as mining or agriculture, wherein low skilled employees are poorly paid (Hall and Cousins 2015). Such '*poverty of exploited labour*' often traps individuals in a poverty cycle.

Anikin and Tikhonova (2016: 318) further mentions that this form of Industrial poverty is prevalent amongst BRICS countries but occurs in varying degrees. Exemplifying this is the Chinese situation in 2012 whereby an estimated 262. 61 million labourers became part of the poor populace despite their employment status (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017). Such employees

were unable to escape the poverty cycle because they were rural migrant and as stipulated in China, rural migrants receive a much lower hourly rate than urban inhabitants (Galli, Hebinck, Arcuri, Brunori¹, Carrol, Connor and Oostindie 2015). Another cause of poverty amongst the rural migrants in China is their inability to obtain a '*local hukou*' (permit) which thus denies them access to free education, good living standards or social welfare packages (Long and Liu 2016).

Anikin and Tikhonova (2016: 321) finalise their argument by explaining 'late industrial poverty', which they believe only Russia is characterised with. This form of poverty is often connected to the precept of the '*new poor*'. Amongst developed nations, 'late industrial poverty' was often attributed to the '*de-industrialisation of their economies*'. De-industrialisation was accentuated by the gradual shift of industrial sectors amongst developed economies to under developed countries. During the economic metamorphosis, an upsurge arose in the structural positions of lower and upper-middle class, while working and middle-class jobs declined. Thus, societal class structure experienced polarisation. Anikin and Tikhonova (2016: 321) further maintain that competition for competitive positions became more competitive amongst the skilled workforce, which resulted to a decline in value for such employment opportunities. Hence, the resulting effect of this was that the formerly well-paid members of the middle-class (especially the children of the successful middle-class) often could not find employment after graduation. Thus, such 'children' of the middle-class populace became the 'new poor'.

- **Long-standing inequality in Brazil**

Igbatayo and Awoyemi (2014) also provide some insight into the 'state of poverty' amongst some of the BRICS nations. Igbatayo and Awoyemi (2014: 59) argue that poverty in Brazil is

accentuated by decades of ‘long-standing inequality’, as well as the under-performance of the macro economy. They further emphasise their argument with the high rates of poverty in Brazil, particularly amongst the North-western regions and rural communities, as well as slums in urban centres. Serrano, Gamboa and Vera (2017) affirm that macroeconomic tendencies have been a major catalyst of poverty in Brazil. This resulted in fluctuations in the poverty headcount ratio alongside the national economic performance. As at 1990, only 17.4 percent of the Brazilian populace were living below the poverty line. This rose to 22 percent in 1998 and further increased to 31 percent in 2005. However, by 2006, the poverty trend had begun to move in the opposite direction as only 26 percent of the populace fell within the poverty cycle. Further improvements were recorded in 2009 as the proportion of the poor reduced to 21.4 percent. However, the trend was reversed in 2006, with the proportion of the population living in poverty placed at 26%. The rate declined even further in 2009 to 21.4%. Using the World Bank’s (Millennium Development Goal) poverty line of US \$1.25 per day as a bench mark, the headcount of Brazilians living in extreme poverty dropped from 16.4 percent to 4.7 percent between 1995 and 2009 (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 59). Since 2009, the national poverty figure began to dwindle but has been slightly persistent across the rural communities (Serrano, Gamboa and Vera 2017; Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 59).

- **Dearth of social services in rural China**

Igbatayo and Awoyemi (2014: 62) attribute poverty amongst the rural communities of China to a *dearth of social services in rural areas*. This triggered an unprecedented rural-urban migration. One on hand, the national poverty headcount dropped significantly. However, the poverty headcount amongst rural communities was stagnant in some counties as household members were unable to find employment opportunities in their locality (Rozelle 2016). An estimated 500 million individuals were lifted out of poverty between 1981 and 2007, which

denotes a decline from 63 percent to 4 percent (World Bank 2012: 8). Poverty experts are of the opinion that China's pro-poverty agenda was driven by impressive (national) economic growth (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017). With such remarkable growth, the Chinese were able to reduce the extent of poverty from 16 percent (2001) to 4 percent (2007) over a period of six years (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 62).

- **Dearth of social services in rural South Africa**

Similar to the Chinese scenario, a dearth of services is equally a contributing factor to poverty in South Africa, particularly amongst rural communities (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 64). Poverty in South Africa is predominantly a rural phenomenon. The incidence of poverty is most notable across the rural communities of South Africa, followed by small towns and secondary cities and is less conspicuous amongst South Africa's four metropolitans (Rogerson 2017). As earlier discussed under section 4.5 (Poverty amongst rural communities of South Africa), the apartheid government was the instigator of poverty amongst the population of South Africa. Hence, a core agenda of the post-apartheid government was to redress this concern of poverty. In the wake of the post-apartheid era, more than half of South African households were living in poverty (Finn, Leibbrandt and Wegner 2011). Most of these poor South Africans were predominantly rural inhabitants. An estimated 71 percent of rural household members were said to be living in poverty in comparison to the 29 percent poor urban populace (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 64).

Studies by Tantri and Shaurav (2018) ascertain that traces of poverty are more eminent amongst both the urban and rural communities of BRICS countries. However, the extent of poverty is more widespread amongst rural communities. Across all BRICS nations, the

poorest of the poor households are often those in rural communities who sometimes live below the international poverty line (Maiorano and Manor 2017; Mazenda, Obi and Masiya 2019; Pereira and Bertholini 2017). Thus, these reveal the prominence of poverty amongst rural communities of the BRICS countries.

Having discussed poverty amongst BRICS nations in this subsection, the next section discusses some of the rural developmental initiatives used in tackling poverty.

5.4 Rural development and poverty alleviation strategies amongst BRICS nations

This sub-section looks at how poverty is being tackled by individual countries within the BRICS conglomerates. Due to the multiplicity of stakeholders involved in rural developmental programmes as well poverty-alleviation related issues, this section will only delve into the main (specific) rural developmental programmes and poverty alleviation initiatives which are considered successful amongst each of these countries. Additionally, a core agenda for rural development stakeholders is often to address poverty alongside other challenges (Hall and Cousins 2015; Cousins 2016; Hundenborn, Leibbrandt and Woolard 2016).

Rural communities of the BRICS nations are amongst the poorest citizens in each of these countries. Moreover, empirical studies have shown that countries such as China that proactively fight poverty in rural communities have often been able to reduce the extent of poverty not only within the rural spaces, but at a national level. In consonance with this stance, part of this section will delve into some of the rural development initiatives and poverty alleviation strategies that China and other BRICS nations have been using in recent years. Lade, Haider, Engström and Schlüter (2017) describes poverty alleviation strategies as *‘development policy tools based on participatory processes, comprehensive in scope, results – oriented and country-driven, which have been embraced in the developing world, with a*

variety of outcomes'. Countries such as Singapore, Taiwan and South Korea are considered to have made significant progress towards alienating poverty, emerging with impressive economic advancement (Haeruddin, Edy and Ummul 2018; Lajčiak 2017).

- **Brazil, India and China**

Similar to Singapore, Taiwan and South Korea, the BRICS nations have similarly mitigated poverty through economic advancement. BRICS poverty alleviation initiatives have contributed enormously to the reduction of global poverty (Vandemoortele, Bird, Du Toit, Liu, Sen and Soares 2013). Recent poverty indicators from Brazil, India and China reveal massive successes in the war on poverty. Some of the poverty alleviation strategies used by these countries may probably be adopted by developing countries (FAO 2017). Brazil, India and China are home to more than half of the world's poorest people. In reducing the extent of poverty, these countries adopted a series of market-oriented restructuring initiatives which comprised a variation of *social policy frameworks*, invariably resulting in poverty alleviation, growth and a decline in inequality (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 56).

Igbatayo and Awoyemi (2014: 57) further argue that the economic advancement achieved by Brazil, India and China could only have been through their well thought out socio-economic reform strategies. The Chinese economic transformation was solely driven by collectivized agriculture, which later evolved to an industrialised economy. Poverty analysts have often commended the Chinese for this phenomenal success (Garnaut, Song and Fang 2018). Such phenomenal success paved the path for market-led economic advancement in China. The Brazilian economy equally experienced a synonymous economic transformation to that of China. Brazil's economic success was primarily instigated through a variety of market-oriented restructurings. These series of reforms were underpinned through reformist social

frameworks, which resulted in greater success than that of India's poverty alleviation campaign (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 57).

The series of poverty alleviation reforms channelled by BRICS nations are continuously lifting millions of individuals out of the poverty cycle (Arora 2018; Maiorano and Manor 2017). Exemplifying with the Chinese scenario, the inclusive growth strategy has spawned a far-reaching poverty alleviation campaign (Garnaut, Song and Fang 2018). Between 1978 and 2012, the Chinese were able to reduce the poverty headcount from 30.7 percent to 13.4 percent. This literally translates to reducing the poverty headcount from 250 million (people) to 179.9 million (people) within a space of 34 years (World Factbook 2013).

The narrative in Brazil is quite dissimilar. Though Brazil is said to have made progress with reducing the number of citizens who are perceived to be impoverished in the last decade, this country still has one of the most '*severe inequality ratios*'. Such impoverishment decline was achieved through *sustained economic growth* (Ystanes and Strønen 2018). Brazil's wobbly economy since the 1990s has had a correlation with her poverty ratio. Between 1990 and 1998, Brazil's poverty ratio escalated from 17.4 percent to 22 percent, and later to 31 percent in 2005. However, the poverty ratio declined from 26 percent in 2008 to 21.4 percent in 2013 (World factbook 2013). This figure further declined to 9.7 percent in 2017 (OECD 2018; Bertelsmann Stiftung 2018).

- **South Africa**

South Africa's narrative slightly veers from that of Brazil, China, India and Russia. The obnoxious apartheid era purposely excluded the Black populace from their country's economy. Economy inclusion of the Black populace only began post-1994 through the emergence of the democratic dispensation. Noyoo (2018) argues that the structured allotment of the country's wealth to the White minority for several decades and the deliberate exclusion

of the Black populace are amongst the core reasons that the post-apartheid government are unable to satisfactorily redress the poverty predicament over the past two decades. Dubow (2017) argues in the same direction when he claims that the South African poverty stance may be far more complex to redress in comparison to her BRICS counterparts. While a number of recent studies have argued that a significant number of South Africans still live in abject poverty (Rogan 2016; Spaull 2015; Lund and Cois 2018), some authors have equally presented positive rhetoric on poverty within the South African context (Magombeyi and Odhiambo 2018; Hansena *et al.* 2019; David *et al.* 2018). Amongst such positive rhetoric is the work of David *et al.* (2018) who maintains that millions of South Africans have been lifted out of the poverty trap within the last decade through robust economic performance. Majova (2018) buttress David *et al.* (2018) assertion when he admits that (some) rural developmental strategies which were aligned to poverty concerns have partially reduced poverty in the last two decades. Some of these are inclusive of CRDP, RDP, ISRDP, NGP, ASGISA and GEAR, initiatives that are further expounded upon in the sixth chapter of this study (see section 6.2 and 6.3).

- **China**

The Chinese government has recorded an historical feat in its fight against poverty. Between 2012 and 2017, the Chinese government was able to reduce its poverty- stricken population from 98.99 million to 30.46 million. No country in the world has been able to lift 66 million citizens out of poverty within a space of five years (Weiping 2018:2). In 2016, the Chinese government was able to eradicate poverty from ‘28 counties’. By 2017, another ‘100 counties’ were taken out of poverty (Weiping 2018:2). These feats were achieved by a number of rural development initiatives. Some of these were through *tourism-based poverty alleviation photovoltaic poverty alleviation, e-commerce poverty alleviation, and relocation-based poverty alleviation*. Through these initiatives, rural communities (local) economies

were significantly transformed. Through *ecological poverty alleviation, relocation-based poverty alleviation and returning farmland to forestry*, the Chinese government was able to drastically improve the ecological environment of poor counties. Furthermore, through the development of public services and surmountable investment in infrastructure, the Chinese government was able to improve the living and production circumstances of these poor counties. This approach thus improved these counties' developmental potential (Weiping 2018:2).

Though rural development/ poverty alleviation strategies may vary or may be fine-tuned in accordance to what policy-makers or stakeholders deem fit amongst individual countries (Cousins, Borrás, Sauer and Ye 2018; Reddy, Yu and Xie 2015; Van der Westhuizen and Swart 2015), there are several converging or synonymous approaches in which stakeholders amongst the BRICS countries have agreed upon. One such synonymous approach through which the BRICS nations have fought poverty while developing rural communities was through social protection programmes which focus on 'nutrition'. Table 5.2 outlines the main rural development and social protection programmes aligned with 'nutrition' which are used in fighting the scourge of poverty amongst BRICS countries.

Table 5.2: Rural development and Social Protection initiatives

s/n	BRICS Countries				
	Brazil	Russia	India	China	South Africa
1	Conditional Cash Transfer Programme - Bolsa Família -	The School Feeding Programme	Subsidized Public Food Distribution Systems (PDS)	School Feeding Programme	Child Support Grant

2	Food Purchase Programme (Programa de Aquisição de Alimentos, PAA)		Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA)	Food Fortification Programmes	School Feeding Programme (NPSP)
3	School Feeding Programme (PNAE)		National Rural Livelihoods Mission (NRLM)		
4	Food and nutrition education and distribution of micronutrients and vitamins through public health services		Child Grant for Girls		
5	Brazil's related South-South cooperation programmes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Purchase for Africa for Africans (PAA Africa) - Strengthening School Feeding Programmes in Latin America and the Caribbean 		School Feeding Programme		

Source: Adapted from FAO (2017: 3-5)

In addressing absolute poverty, a core point has always been 'food security' (Van der Westhuizen and Swart 2015). Collectively, the BRICS nations were able to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of halving the '*prevalence of under-nourishment*' in 2015 (FAO

2017: 2). However, a portion of citizens in each of these countries still suffer from hunger due to poverty related concerns (Van der Westhuizen and Swart 2015; Mazenda, Obi and Masiya 2019). Hence, BRICS member states initiated the programmes contained in Table 5.2 in supporting the most vulnerable citizens. These initiatives are funded domestically through respective countries institutional structures (FAO 2017: 3). In elaborating on the initiatives contained in Table 5.2, the researcher further provides more insight into these initiatives. These are discussed as follows:

- **Brazil**

The then Brazilian president, Lula da Silva prioritised ‘hunger eradication’ as a top agenda. He launched the Zero Hunger Strategy, which served as a foundation for the *National System for Food and Nutrition Security* (NSFNS) policies. This initiative comprised of 24 ministries and non-governmental entities which are ably represented at the national, provincial and local levels. It further comprises 10 areas of intervention, inclusive of rural development, agriculture, nutrition, social protection, health, environment, gender, human rights, labour and education (FAO 2017: 3).

As an agendum to reinvigorating social protection policies, the *Fome Zero* strategy was upgraded. The Brazilian government also ensured that rights and privileges (such as the *Right to Food* and social rights) stipulated in the constitution were well implemented (Hunter, Moura and Beltrame 2015). When President Dilma Rousseff was sworn into office, she continued the fight against hunger and poverty campaign in a bid to alleviate poverty. Under her dispensation, the flagship programme *Brazil without Poverty* was launched (Rocha 2015; Burlandy, Rocha, and Maluf 2014). This pro-poverty driven initiative complemented her predecessor’s initiative, the NSFNS. Dilma Rousseff also incorporated a nutritional driven initiative and other income opportunities for extremely poor Brazilians. Some of the

successes of these initiatives were cascaded amongst the South-South cooperation. Brazil also offered technical assistance to a number of African countries, as well as the Central American and Latino countries (FAO 2017: 3).

- **Russia**

Similar to Brazil, Russia has always prioritised food quality and nutrition as agendas of primacy (Shagaida and Uzun 2015). These two concerns are underpinned by an assertive legislative framework. Thus, in the course of the last two decades, the Russian government initiated a variety of food and nutrition-related initiatives. For instance, in 1998, the Russian government launched the *Concept of the State Policy in the Field of Healthy Nutrition*. In actualising a well-run agenda, parastatals were established at regional and national levels. Sixteen years later (2014), a similar initiative was launched, the concept of *Domestic Food Aid*. Through this initiative, the poor citizens in Russia were supplied food items. While in some other instances, financial aid was offered to the poor, in which case such money were used to buy food items (Wegren, Nikulin and Trotsuk 2016). The Russian government for so many years has been a prominent donor to countries within Central Asia and Eastern Europe. Such donations were often agriculture related or food security induced (Galli, Hebinck, Arcuri, Brunori¹, Carrol, Connor and Oostindie 2015; Lunze, Yurasova, Idrisov, Gnatienko and Migliorini 2015). Similar to her Brazilian counterpart, Russia also provides technical support to African countries as well as developing nations in close proximity (to Russia). Such technical support is being actualised through the Eurasian Centre for Food Security (ECFS) (FAO 2017: 4).

- **India**

Indian's former head of state, Pratibha Patil, established the world's largest rural poverty alleviation initiative. This pro-poverty initiative was termed the National Rural Livelihoods

Mission (NRLM). The sole objective of this initiative was to reach one hundred million (poor) rural households in India (Das 2015). Also integrated into this initiative was a programme to boost agricultural production, as an agenda to facilitating food security amongst the rural poor. The NRLM also provides a variety of safety net initiatives such as the provision of pensions, childhood education, nutrition and infant and young child feeding to the rural poor. Furthermore, several rural household members in India benefit from income and employment generation schemes (FAO 2017: 4). Through some of the school nutritional initiatives for the rural populace, the standard of living amongst some villages has risen, while school attendance has significantly improved (FAO 2017: 4).

- **China**

China's success in the agricultural sector has invariably played a contributory and integral role in China's economic advancement (Hu, Ligang, Jianzheng, Maofang, Jing, Jianfeng, Jianjun, Jia, Li and Froelking 2017; Pang, Chen, Zhang and Li 2016). Through the impressive agricultural transformation, millions of poor Chinese citizens have escaped the poverty trap. Over the course of the last decade, China has partnered with a number of developing countries. Such mutually beneficial partnership has induced agricultural investments and technological advancement as well as infrastructural development across parts of Africa and Asia (Gu, Chuanhong, Vas and Mukwereza 2016). China is ranked amongst the world's most significant donors in the global food security campaign and agricultural development. China has also initiated school feeding schemes amongst her vulnerable regions as a means to tackling nutritional deficiencies (FAO 2017: 5).

- **South Africa**

An estimated 17 million South Africans are presently on social grant schemes (Fanta, Berkowitz, Khumalo, Mutsonziwa, Maposa and Ramsamy 2017; Delany, Jehoma and Lake 2016; Kajiita and Kang'ethe 2016). This scheme was mainly initiated to protect the most vulnerable South Africans from extreme poverty. Complementing the social grants scheme is a school feeding scheme referred to as the National Integrated Nutrition Programme (NINP) (Spires, Delobelle, Sanders, Puoane, Hoelzel and Swart 2016; Du Plessis, Peer, English and Honikman 2016). The NINP uses a multi-sectoral approach in its agenda to address malnutrition amongst poor school children. Similar to the pro-food security campaign advocated by the Brazilian and Indian governments, former South African president Jacob Zuma also prioritised food security as a top agenda (Masipa 2017). In line with the advocacy of the NDP 2030, the South African government has invested millions of rands in addressing malnutrition and poverty inequality (National Development Plan 2011; Masipa 2017). Also paramount in the NDP is the ambitious agenda of ensuring that South African citizens do not live below the minimal stipulated standard of living by 2030. However, such is yet to be actualised as poverty and inequality is still widely visible (Saklar 2018; Altinay 2017), particularly amongst the communities where the current study is based. However, efforts are continuously being made by the South African government to ensure an all-inclusive developmental path (FAO 2017: 5).

To further provide a deeper insight into poverty initiatives amongst respective BRICS nations, the researcher provides specific pro-poverty initiatives run by each of these BRICS countries below.

The Brazilian government has been able to drastically reduce the poverty headcount. This feat was achievable through tailor made expenditure in four key areas. These four

interventions are inclusive of social security pensions, public education, social assistance transfers and a minimum wage (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 60). Investment in education was imperative as the educational structure in Brazil mainly favoured the upper and middle-class citizens (De Campos, Henriques and Yanaze 2018). More particularly, the Brazilian government provided free post-secondary schooling for citizens from the north-eastern regions of Brazil who had previously been marginalised (Daros and Singh 2015). Furthermore, significant funding was allotted to learners both at primary and secondary schools. The driving motive behind this was to support poor households, particularly those from the rural communities, in providing a better future for their children. While the educational initiative was perceived to tackle poverty in the long-run, the reviewed minimum wage had an instantaneous impact on poverty and inequality (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 60). A second poverty alleviation driven initiative that instantaneously impacted on poverty in Brazil was 'social assistance' given to disabled citizens, as well as the poor who were over the age of 65 years. A prominent rural developmental initiative aimed at tackling poverty in Brazil is also 'Rural social security'. Beneficiaries of these scheme were mainly poor rural employees and subsistence farmers (Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 60; Barros, Fiuza and Pinto 2017).

As an agendum to fighting poverty amongst the rural communities of China, the government has stepped up efforts through the advancement of physical and social infrastructure (Daros and Singh 2015; Ansar, Flyvbjerg, Budzier and Lunn 2016). Additionally, a number of initiatives are being tailored to support the most vulnerable rural households. Some of these were inclusive of a Rural medical cooperative scheme, Minimum income support and Free basic education, amongst others (Dong *et al.* 2014; Igbatayo and Awoyemi 2014: 63). In

recognition of the importance of land to the rural populace, the Chinese government launched an initiative aimed at guaranteeing farmers '*30-years land rights, curbing expropriations as well as documenting and publicising farmers' rights*'. In circumstances where farmers' land was expropriated, compensation was offered to these farmers. Studies by Kung and Liu (1997) also reveal that land ownership by Chinese farmers is considered a long-term investment which has significantly transformed the livelihood of previously poor farmers.

The cornerstone to South Africa's poverty alleviation initiative was the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), which was mainly orchestrated to reverse several decades of apartheid injustice which resulted in poverty amongst the African majority (Ndhambi 2015). The RDP was then followed by the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) programme, which served as a tool to stabilise the macroeconomy. Immediately after the GEAR initiative, the Accelerated and shared Growth Initiative was initiated, which was designed to accelerate growth while addressing poverty (Akoojee and McGrath 2007). In realising that unemployment was significantly contributing to poverty in South Africa, the government launched the Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP). Although jobs were generated across the nine provinces, the wages were rather low (Bank and Minkley 2005). The South African government also initiated Land reform programmes amongst rural communities as a means of reducing the extent of poverty. These land reform initiatives were perceived as a *strategic policy aimed at fostering a more equitable land re-distribution framework to reverse the marginalization of Blacks in the ownership of land* (Akoojee and McGrath 2007). This was instituted through a three-pronged land reform agenda which comprised *land redistribution, land restitution and tenure reform*.

Other initiatives used by the South African government in addressing poverty included the Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) Programme, as well as the educational reform agenda, which was similar to South Africa's BRICS counterpart Brazil (Meyer 2013).

Furthermore, similar to the social grants offered to disabled and elderly poor citizens in Brazil, social grants are also given to well-deserving South Africans, some of whom include the disabled, unemployed, sickly and elderly (Ngwenya 2016). According to Rooyen and Rena (2019), an estimated 17 million South Africans of the 57 million population receive social grants on a monthly basis. Social grants have been argued to be the most effectual scheme on poverty alleviation in South Africa (Ngwenya 2016). However, critics have often argued that the stipend offered as social grants was too minimal to take poor households out of the poverty cycle (Kajiita and Kang'ethe 2017; Sinyolo, Mudhara and Wale 2019; Winkels 2012; Curran, Meijer-Irons and Garip 2016).

The Indian government prioritises the rural populace as these communities form more than 70 percent of the Indian populace and such communities are where most of the poorest households reside (Das and Bagchi 2018; Ganee 2014: 40). Moreover, India houses the highest rural population anywhere on earth. According to the Census of India (2017), an estimated 900 000 000 inhabitants reside amongst the rural communities of India. Hence, addressing poverty in such a country will significantly reduce the percent of the world's poverty. Consequently, the Indian government has been driving a pro-poverty agenda amongst the Indian rural communities for decades (Bhalla 2017; Das and Bagchi 2018).

In addressing poverty amongst rural communities, the Planning Commission in India has instituted initiatives such as the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA); Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojana (SGRY); Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA); Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY); Indira Awas Yojana (IAY); Integrated Tribal Development Project (ITDP), Rastriya Sama Vikas Yojana (RSVY), and Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), amongst others (Bhalla 2017; Ganee 2014: 40). All of these above initiatives are instituted primarily to bridge the inequality gap between the rural poor and their urban counterparts, while equally aiming

towards a long-term agenda of accelerating development amongst rural communities (Das 2015). Furthermore, these pro—poverty initiatives are also aimed at solving poor nutrition and health issues, as well as low levels of literacy (Bhalla 2017).

Amongst all these initiatives, the MGNREGA is perceived as the foremost and most effective pro-poverty scheme in India (Sushma, Shashikant and Aishwarya 2019; Ganee 2014). The MGNREGA has been used to reduce rural poverty and provide employment opportunities for rural households *by way of generating demand for a productive labour force in villages* (Ganee 2014: 40). Additionally, besides the MGNREGA’s ability in reducing poverty, it has provided an alternative means of livelihood for millions; reduced inter and intra migration; made the rural populace self-sufficient through productive activities such as water conservation jobs, cleaning of water tanks, involvement in road construction projects; and the restriction of child labour in India, which has been a huge challenge for several decades (Sushma, Shashikant and Aishwarya 2019).

Table 5.3 below provides an overview of MGNREGA’s Performance between 2006 and 2012.

Table 5.3: Overview of MGNREGA’s Performance (2006-2012)

	2006-07 (200 Districts)	2007-08 (330 Districts)	2008-09 (All districts Hereon)	2009-10	2010-2011	2011-2012
Households	2.10	3.39	4.51	5.26	5.49	4.99

employed (crore)						
Person-days of Employment generated (crore)	90.5	143.59	216.32	283.59	257.15	211.41
Work provided per year to Households who worked (days)	43	42	48	54	47	42
Central Release	8,640.85	12,610.39	30,000.19	33,506.61	35,768.95	29,184.85
Total funds available (including opening balance)	12,073.55	19,305.81	37,397.06	49,579.19	54,172.14	43,273.58
Budget outlay	11,300	12,000	30,000	39,100	40,100	40,100

Expenditure	8,823.35	15, 856.89	27, 250.10	37, 905.23	39, 377.27	37, 548.79
Average wage per day	65 Rupees	75 Rupees	84 Rupees	90 Rupees	100 Rupees	117 Rupees
Total works taken up (lakhs)	8.35	17.88	27.75	46.17	50.99	74.13
Works completed (lakhs)	3.87	8.22	12.14	22.59	25.90	15.01

Source: Ministry of Rural Development, GoI (2014)

(Foot note: conversion rate was at 72 Rupees to 1 Dollar as at the 1st Quarter of 2019)

Table 5.3 highlights the major achievements of the MGNREGA over a period of six years. It highlights concerns such as the number of household members employed, Person-days of Employment generated, Work provided per year to Households who worked, Total works taken up and Total funds expended for this initiative during the six years period. As emphasised by the Ministry of Rural Development, GoI (2014: 287), the main achievement of the MGNREGA was its ability to improve the purchasing power of rural households, which was significantly critical in sustaining rural households, particularly during the recession.

Despite MGNREGA's feats, ever since its launch, critics have often claimed this '*Silver Bullet*' is yet to achieve its full potential as grassroots level members were not fully involved during the planning phase (Ganiee 2014: 45).

The Russian situation differs from that of India as only an estimated 26 percent of the Russian populace reside in rural communities (Erokhin 2014:293). This 26 percent translates to 37.1 million inhabitants, amongst whom 21.4 million fall within the working age bracket. These rural communities are often characterised by poverty and high levels of unemployment. Poverty and unemployment in these communities are two-fold higher when compared to their urban counterparts (Erokhin 2014:293). Also contributing to poverty amongst the rural communities of Russia is that the income of employed rural inhabitants is two-fold lower in comparison to similar occupations in urban centres. Another prominent issue that the rural inhabitants are faced with is the poor infrastructure, which is unmatched to that of any of the towns or cities in Russia (Kiseleva *et al.* 2013; Erokhin, Heijman, Ivolga 2014: 20).

In addressing poverty and unemployment amongst the rural communities of Russia, the Russian Government launched a State Program for the Development of Agriculture and Regulation of Agricultural Commodities Markets in 2012. This initiative was to cover the 2013-2020 period (USDA Foreign Agricultural Network 2012: 2). The government budgeted a sum of 2.28 trillion rubles (76 billion US dollars) primarily for agricultural initiatives and food markets during this eight- years period. Amongst the focus areas here was the development of the livestock industry, which was a core priority of the Ministry of Agriculture (USDA Foreign Agricultural Network 2012: 2). These initiatives were tailor-

made to accelerate development amongst rural communities, with an emphasis on social security. The Ministry of Agriculture has further prioritised and stream-lined its strategy to ‘sustainable rural developmental reforms’ due to on-going land degradation, inadequacy of infrastructure and poor agricultural productivity (Erokhin, Heijman and Ivolga 2014: 20). The land degradation concern was further exacerbated in recent years due to the impact of climate change, as an estimated 47 percent of Russia is unfavourable for ‘*sustainable rural development*’ (Erokhin 2014:297).

Further to tackling poverty amongst rural communities of Russia, the Russian government introduced ‘Sustainable Rural Development’ (Erokhin, Heijman, Ivolga 2014: 23). This initiative is to run between 2014-2020. Some of the agenda of this initiative are as follows (Erokhin, Heijman and Ivolga 2014: 23):

- i. *The satisfaction of the needs of rural people, including young families and young specialists in suitable dwellings;*
- ii. *The development of integrated facilities in rural settlements and their social, transport and engineering infrastructure; and*
- iii. *Grant support for local initiatives coming from rural inhabitants.*

This initiative has specific indicators as a means to evaluating and measuring progress over the years. Hence, in driving this agenda, the Russian government expenditures are summarised in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4: Budget Allocations for rural developmental initiatives between 2013-2020

s/n	Rural developmental initiative	Budget
1	Social development of rural area through 2013 -2020	9 billion rubles
2	Land reclamation and Irrigation by 2020	7 billion rubles
3	Reclamation of agricultural lands in 2014-2020 (draft)	62 billion rubles
4	Modernisation and Innovation	24 billion rubles
5	Programme Management	202 billion rubles
6	Crop Industry support	467 billion rubles
7	Small Business Support	84 billion rubles
8	Beef Cattle Industry support	68 billion rubles
9	Livestock and Poultry Industry Support	499 billion rubles

Source: Adapted from USDA Foreign Agricultural Network (2012: 5)

(Please note - 30 rubles is estimated to be One dollar as at the 3rd Quarter of 2018)

Having discussed the approaches through which BRICS member nations address poverty, particularly amongst their respective rural communities, the following sub-section provides a continuum to this discussion by emphasising on lessons learnt.

5.5 Lessons learnt from BRICS nations

As a continuum to the discussion in earlier sub-section, the contributing factors to rural developmental initiatives and poverty alleviation stratagem employed by some BRICS countries are outlined in this section. It further relays lessons South Africa may learn from such successful initiatives. In so doing, this section meticulously attempts to incorporate the study's third objective, namely 'to identify factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural development initiatives and the achievement of desired outcomes for rural development'. Hence, the focal point will be on China's pro-poverty agenda amongst its rural communities, which is adjudged the most successful globally (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017; Long and Liu 2016).

Tentatively, a synopsis of the Chinese State Council's pro-poverty strategy launched in November 2015, referred to as the '*Decision on Winning the Fight against Poverty*', will be provided. This pro-poverty strategy was adjudged by experts as the greatest feat on poverty alleviation in human history (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017). Through this initiative, the Chinese government was able to reduce the proportion of citizens living below the poverty line from 98.99 million people in 2012 to 30.46 million people in 2017. This implies that within a five-year period, the Chinese government lifted an estimated 66 million individuals out of the poverty cycle (Weiping 2018:2).

This feat was achieved via *industry-led poverty alleviation; tourism-based poverty alleviation, photovoltaic poverty alleviation, e-commerce poverty alleviation; relocation-based poverty alleviation; ecological poverty alleviation; and the returning farmland to forestry* initiative (s) (Weiping 2018:2). This tailor-made pro-poverty agenda was streamlined to accelerate the local economy. A secondary benefit of this initiative was felt in its significant improvement in improving the eco-environment, particularly amongst poverty-stricken regions (Weiping 2018:2). In fighting the war on poverty, the Chinese 'State

Council’ established the ‘Leading Group Office of Poverty Alleviation and Development’ (LGOP) in 2014 (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017; Long and Liu 2016). In kickstarting this pro-poverty agenda, four phases were established (Weiping 2018:3):

- the laying out specific poverty reduction goals;
- the registering of poor households;
- the execution of poverty reduction initiative; as well as
- the formation of seven institutional systems.

At the preliminary phase, the following basics were availed to the rural poor: the provision of food and clothing; compulsory schooling; access to healthcare; and accommodation (Weiping 2018:3). The second phase of this pro-poor initiative entailed the registering of all poor rural households. The compilation and registration of all poor rural households commenced in 2014. The government made concerted efforts in obtaining accurate information as a means to running an effective pro-poverty initiative (Long and Liu 2016). For registration purposes, the LGOP recruited 800 000 people across the Chinese Provinces. These recruits identified 128 000 poor rural communities and 29.48 million poor households, as well as 89.62 million Chinese citizens living in poverty. During this registration phase, two core concerns were identified by the recruits (Weiping 2018:3):

- the causes of poverty amongst each rural community and household; and
- the fundamental needs of the poor.

Between August 2015 and June of the following year, almost 2 million individuals were again recruited to continue the identification (registration) of poor households. During this phase, a total of 9.29 million individuals who had previously been ‘wrongly’ identified as poor were deleted from the ‘poor list’, while 8.07 million individuals were newly registered (identified) as being poor (Weiping 2018:3). This phase was partly conducted to ensure the accuracy of the registration (identification) phase. Through this, the LGOP was able to make

concise decisions. In implementing the pro-poverty agenda, a ‘five-batch’ framework was set up. Through this framework, certain poor people were lifted out of poverty through Industrial development; another set of poor people through Relocation; another through Eco-compensation; some also through Education; and the last batch were lifted out of poverty through Social security. The poor who due to health-related concerns, could not work for one or two reasons were all provided social security.

Then followed the Institutionalisation of the LGOP system. These institutional systems were specifically set up for the purposes of *accountability, policy, investment, assistance, mobilisation, supervision and assessment*. Through this, the pro-poverty agenda was closely monitored, evaluated and further strengthened (Long and Liu 2016).

This pro-policy agenda was further strengthened by a ‘Policy system’. The policy system was enacted to establish a top-down approach wherein specific policies were taken to every remote and poor household. The Policy system was immediately followed by an *investment system that guarantees the investment of financial and human resources*. At the last phase of implementation, immense support was given to recruits stationed within the rural communities. An estimated 775 000 recruits were stationed across rural communities over a three-year period to implement, monitor and closely follow up on the pro-poverty agenda (Weiping 2018:4).

A subsidiary unit of the Chinese ‘State Council’, the State-Owned Assets Supervision and Administration Commission (SASAC), set up State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) for the establishment of industrial investments in over 10 000 villages spread across 100 counties. The SASAC provided well-tailored poverty relief initiatives across the rural communities. During this period, the SASAC involved a total of 22 000 private companies. A hotline

‘12317’ was also set up for the purposes of poverty alleviation supervision, inspection, financing and auditing amongst other enquires the beneficiaries may have had (Weiping 2018:5).

In summary, the LGOP approach to tackling poverty in China was based on a good understanding of ‘poverty features’ in China, which was aggressively pursued by intense exploration and extensive practices.

Another ‘important lesson’ worth mentioning is the significance of infrastructure. Studies by Chotia and Rao (2017:466) argue around the long-run nexus between infrastructural development, rural-urban inequality and poverty. Their study concludes that infrastructural development as well as the growth of an economy has a significant bearing on poverty reduction amongst BRICS countries. Hence, it is tempting to conclude that by addressing infrastructural deficits amongst rural communities such as that of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni may possibly go a long way in alleviating poverty in the long-run. Chotia and Rao (2017:480) also argue that infrastructural development enhances growth prospects as there exists a ‘*causal link running from infrastructure development to economic growth, as well as from infrastructure development to poverty reduction*’.

Weiping (2018: 2) further reiterates Chotia and Rao (2017) assertion when he states that significant infrastructural development alongside the development of public services in China were partly responsible for better standards of living, while increasing developmental potentials amongst the previously poverty stricken counties of China.

Another key lesson is learnt from India is on the advocacy of non-farming income amongst rural communities (Bhalla 2017; Das and Bagchi 2018). Experiences by the IPS (2018) indicates that in addressing poverty amongst rural communities, a well-balanced combination

is needed of targeted social protection aids and the development of the agricultural sector, while also driving a non-agricultural rural economy.

Biotechnology advancement in Brazil has had a tremendous impact on many rural farmers. This has been one amongst the many approaches that the Brazilian government adopted in addressing poverty in rural communities (Amoran 2018). This agro-ecological approach adopted by Brazil has been adjudged as a climate-smart farming approach which is highly significant in an era where many regions of the globe are battling the invasive consequence of climate change (Barros, Fiuza and Pinto 2017). Tapping into this cutting-edge approach will no doubt upscale many rural (poor) subsistence farmers in South Africa.

Furthermore, the advocacy of entrepreneurship amongst rural farmers of India and Brazil has lifted thousands of farmers out of poverty. The Indian ‘National Rural Employment Guarantee Act’, as well as Brazil’s ‘Fome Zero’, are both successful policies which have promoted entrepreneurship amongst rural farmers (IPS 2018). Such farmers are able to provide for their immediate family members while creating employment opportunities for one of five individuals (da Silva 2019). Adopting this entrepreneurial attitude may possibly make rural (poor) subsistence farmers in South Africa self-sufficient, while also creating employment opportunities.

Furthermore, a comparative-analytical research on Brazil, India and China by Martin Ravallion (Head of the World Bank’s research department) looks at the poverty alleviation strategies used by these nations (Hameso 2017). Ravallion argues that each of these countries possesses market-oriented reforms that are aligned with well-articulated social policies. The resultant effect of these have been growth, poverty decline and inequality reduction (Gleick 2016). Brazil’s progressive social policies alongside complementary market-oriented reforms

has ranked Brazil amongst countries with the most proactive strategy on the ‘war on poverty’ (Goldin 2014). One convergent concession that Brazil, China and India have learnt is that ‘macroeconomic stability’ plays an integral role in poverty alleviation amongst the rural and urban populace (Hameso 2016).

From the above discussion, the importance of contributory factors such as Macro-economic stability, Infrastructural development, Strong Institutions, Corruption-less society, efficient Local governance, Accountability, Monitoring and evaluation and Active citizenry cannot be under-played.

Some of the cogent factors lacking in South Africa in making this narrative a reality are inclusive of the lack of capacitation of both Councillors and community members and the absence of opposition voices, particularly amongst the rural communities of South Africa (Pillay 2016; Xu, Nthontho and Chowdhury 2016). The absence of aggressive opposition or critics has given room to local councillors to run the affairs of their wards with little checks or constructive criticism (Jacobs, Rivett and Chemisto 2019; Pillay 2016). The afore-discussed lessons /contributing factors to poverty alleviation (rural development) are further elaborated and incorporated into the study’s recommendation under section 9.5 in the concluding chapter.

5.6 Conclusion

Although no ‘blanket approach’ may be applied to every rural community in tackling the scourge of poverty, a number of lessons can be learnt amongst the approaches utilised by the BRICS nations. The highlights as regards factors contributing to the success of rural developmental initiatives amongst the BRIC nations were inclusive of the effective

monitoring and evaluation of initiatives; taking ownership of initiatives by rural community members; adopting a bottom-top approach; accountability and transparency; the involvement of community members prior to implementing the initiative; and strong political will. Some of these ‘success factors’ have been incorporated into the Recommendation of this study (see Section 9.4).

The next chapter thus provides discourse on rural developmental initiatives during post-apartheid South Africa, with emphasis on rural developmental initiatives implemented during Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma’s administration.

CHAPTER SIX - RURAL DEVELOPMENTAL INITIATIVES DURING THE POST-APARTHEID ERA IN SOUTH AFRICA

6.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to create a continuum of the previous chapter, while providing an exegetic discussion on the subject of this study – *rural developmental initiatives in post-apartheid South Africa, vis a vis poverty alleviation*. The discussions herein are amplified by a repertoire of renowned South African rural developmental analysts from the Institute for Poverty Land And Agrarian Studies (PLAAS), such as Professor David Neves, David Everatt, Sifiso Zulu, Annelie Maré, Ben Cousins and Prof Andries du Toit. Their views and arguments have been meticulously aligned in consonance with the study's trajectory. Several of these authors have advocated for a modicum of accountability in their publications. Thus, they arguably serve as reliable sources for constructively critiquing some of these rural developmental initiatives.

These expert views are further complemented by a range of governmental sources. Upon reviewing the rural development initiatives of the apartheid and post-Apartheid eras, the researcher further narrowed the enquiry into rural development initiatives during Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma's administration, which spanned the 9th of May 2009 till the 14th of February 2018. This chapter further establishes nexuses between rural developmental initiatives and rural development in South Africa, while equally establishing the inter-connectivity between rural developmental initiatives and poverty. In pursuance of the second Objective, the researcher also probed the connectivity between Local governance and rural developmental initiatives, with the intent of investigating the capacity of local government to undertake rural development initiatives. Further to these discussions, the researcher presents criticism and challenges attributed to rural developmental initiatives. In concluding the chapter, a number of key lessons attributed to rural developmental initiatives are interpolated.

To give readers a pictorial summary of this chapter, an illustration of the main rural developmental initiatives between 1993 and 2018 are depicted in Figure 6.1

Figure 6.1: Chronology of rural development approaches and policies in democratic South Africa (between 1993 and 2018)

Local government

Rural development

1993 Local Government Transformation Act

1994 White Paper Reconstruction and Development

RDP

1994 RDP reference to RD

1995 Local Government elections

1995 National RD Strategy

1996 Constitution

GEAR

1997 (revised) RD

Framework

1998 White Paper Local Gov

M. Structures

M. Finance Management

M. Systems

M. Demarcation

M. Structures amend.

1999 Elections

2000-01 ISRDS

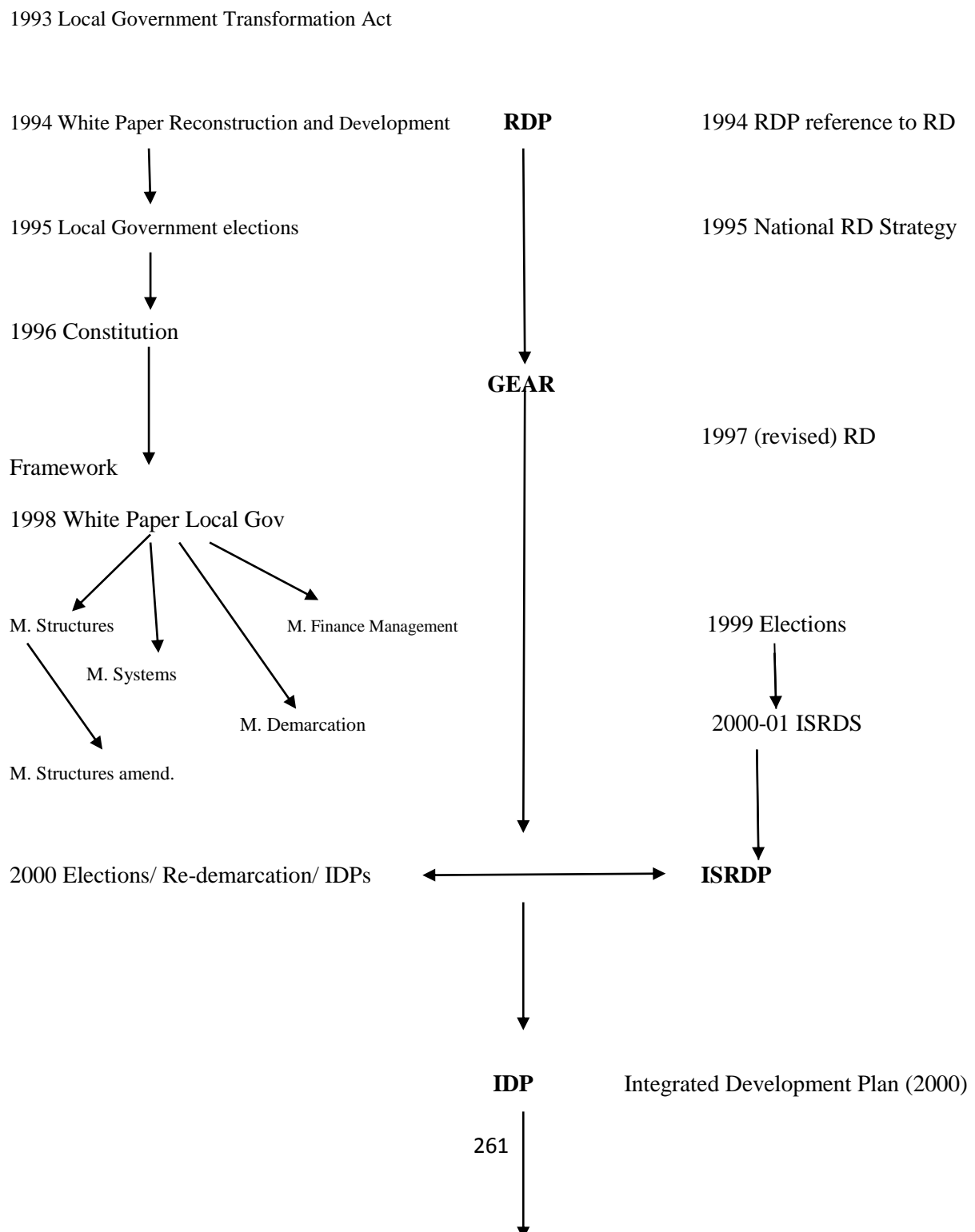
2000 Elections/ Re-demarcation/ IDPs

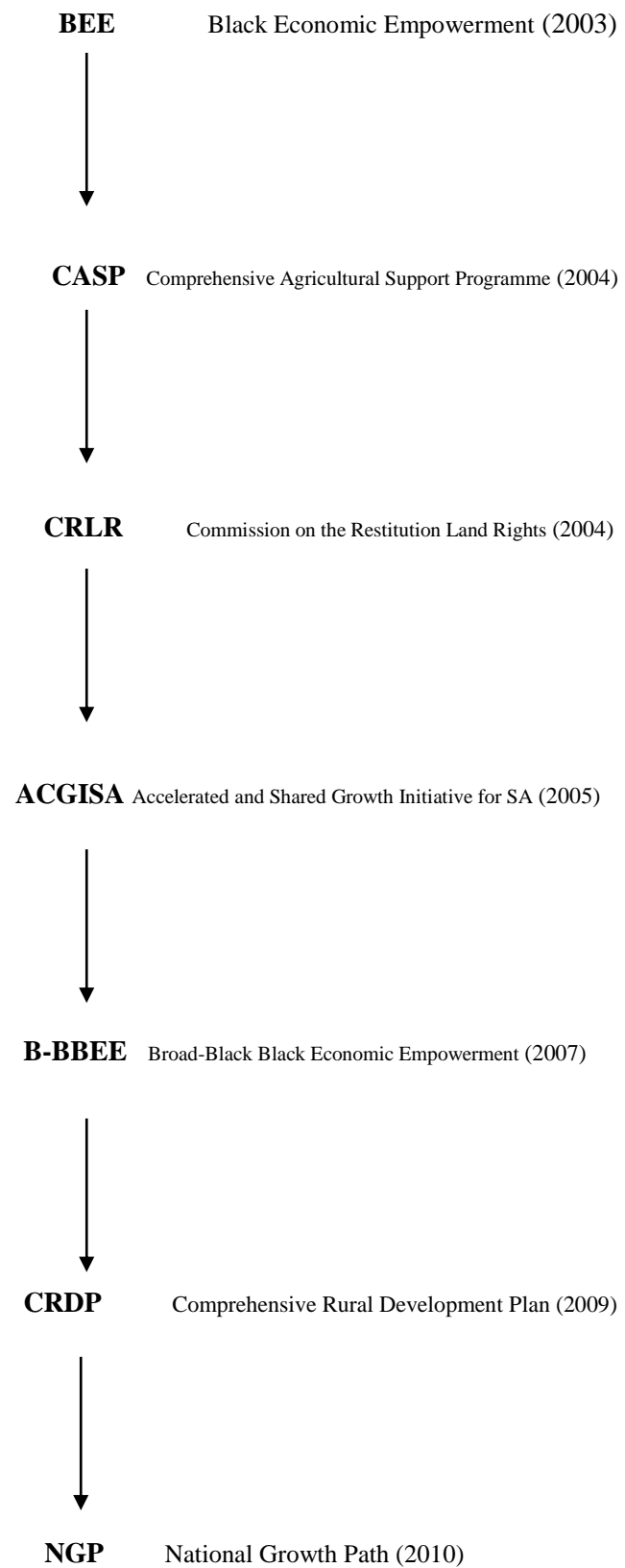
ISRDP

IDP

Integrated Development Plan (2000)

261







Legend [M= Municipality]

Source: Adapted from Perret (2004: 2); Rural Development and Land Reform (2011: 410); Department of Rural development (2013: 3-5); Bakre (2015: 45)

6.2 Rural development initiatives (Apartheid era -2008)

This sub-section provides an espousal of rural development initiatives of the apartheid era, as well as the post-apartheid era. However, the discussion within the ‘post-apartheid era’ is confined to the ‘1994 period to 2008’. In providing a structured narrative, the researcher provides a synopsis of these rural developmental initiatives, followed by these initiatives’ contribution to poverty alleviation, as well as the weaknesses and challenges attributed to these initiatives.

6.2.1 Carnegie Commission

Prior to the ascension of the African National Congress (ANC) to power in 1994, the poverty and rural development discourse was perceived as an issue in South Africa (Yach and Tollman 2011; Hill and Nel 1997). For instance, in 1929, the Carnegie Commission conducted an enquiry into the ‘poor White’ issue. The focal point of this enquiry was to investigate the socio-economic situation of ‘poor White’ South Africans (Seekings 2008). The plight of these poor White South Africans enticed a global audience. One such was the Carnegie Corporation from the United States of America, which also financed the survey. The survey provided horrendous narratives on poverty amongst these poor Whites (Twala

2012: 214). However, the Carnegie Commission of 1932 failed to acknowledge that the African populace in South Africa (during this era) equally faced similar conditions.

By 1984, the Carnegie Corporation convened a second conference on poverty to address the deficiencies missed in the first conference. The conference not only included other racial groups in South Africa, but also extended its coverage to individuals within Southern Africa who were classified as 'poor' by the commission (Mubangizi 2009: 447). The reportage of the second conference also entailed the 'root causes of poverty' amongst the target population. However, no specific poverty alleviation initiatives were implemented to address the plight of the poor.

6.2.2 World Bank and United Nations Development Programme

In 1995, the World Bank funded the South African government to undertake an assessment on poverty. In the same year, the United Nations Development Programme also requested the South African government to undertake a Human Development Report (Twala 2012: 214). By October of 1995, the government also requested local researchers to undertake research on poverty and inequality. The agenda of this enquiry was as follows (Twala 2012: 214):

- *to undertake a detailed analysis of poverty and inequality in South Africa;*
- *to analyse current policy proposals for the reduction of poverty and inequality;*
- *to analyse the adequacy of current plans to reduce poverty and inequality and possible barriers to their implementation; and*
- *to propose ongoing monitoring mechanisms to measure the impact of policies and programmes in the reduction of poverty and inequality.*

6.2.3 The ANC government

A variety of poverty analysts allege that the ANC government has been a pro-poor government (May 1998; Seekings and Nattrass 2015; Müller 2017; Everatt 2008; Duncan 2011). This assertion is based on a number of pro-poor policy frameworks and budget allocations to social services by the ANC government (Kearney and Odusola 2011; Bassett 2016). Government expenditure on social services has continually increased. The social services budget rose from 43 percent in 1985 to 57 percent in 1995. The budget allotment for social services further increased to 60 percent in 1997. This budget allotment has remained consistent, even in recent budget allocations (Ngwenya 2016; Rooyen and Rena 2019).

6.2.4 Synopsis of Everatt and Zulu's (2001) literature

To further expatiate '*rural development initiatives of the Apartheid and post-Apartheid era*', the in-depth analysis made by Everatt and Zulu in their work titled '*Analysing rural development programmes in South Africa 1994 – 2000*' is synthesised. In their discourse are infused the works of other renowned authors in the field of rural development. While the work of Everatt and Zulu (2001) provides a detailed analytical critique of 'three' rural development initiatives between 1994 and 2000, the work of a variety of other renowned authors will also be discussed on other rural development initiatives which cover a timeframe of 1994 - 2008.

Everatt and Zulu (2001) provide a critique on government's performance in its effort to deliver rural development since 1994. Everatt and Zulu (2001) categorise this discourse into three broad phases:

- Phase 1 – the learning curve (1994 – 1996)
- Phase 2 - Innovation and refinement (1996-1997/8)
- Phase 3 – Delivery and stagnation (1998 – 2000)

In presenting this discourse, Everatt and Zulu (2001) only base their critique upon the three rural development initiatives highlighted in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Three rural development initiatives (Everatt and Zulu)

s/n	Initiator (driven by)	Rural development initiative
1	Department of Public Works (DPW)	Community-Based Public Works Programme (CBPWP)
2	Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG)	The Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP)
3	Department of Welfare and Population Development	Poverty Relief and Infrastructure Investment Fund (PRIIF)

6.2.4.1 The Community-Based Public Works Programme (CBPWP)

The CBPWP was launched by the Department of Public Works (DPW). These rural development initiatives have been applauded by international organisations such as the International Labour Organisation (ILO). Colin Relf (ILO team leader), commenting on the CBPWP, said *‘South Africa has probably one of the best public works programmes anywhere’*. Such complimentary words were due to the quality of infrastructural projects by the South African government and their technical design standards (Mogagabe 2017; Mfusi and Govender 2017). The CBPWP outwits the standards that International Labour Organisation personnel encountered in more than 30 developing countries in Africa, Asia and the Pacific. Further to this feat, the level of professional integrity amongst most roleplayers in the CBPWP is, in international terms, outstanding (Everatt *et al.* 1997; Mogagabe 2017; Mfusi and Govender 2017).

6.2.4.2 The CMIP and PRIIF

The Consolidated Municipal Infrastructure Programme (CMIP) was initiated by the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) (Kopung 2017; Schoeman 2019; Maake 2017). This initiative was widely acknowledged as one of ‘*Africa’s most ambitious infrastructure delivery vehicles*’. On the contrary, the Poverty Relief and Infrastructure Investment Fund (PRIIF) signified a milestone in the pro-poverty agenda. The Department of Welfare and Population Development used this initiative as a transformative tool, wherein the ‘welfare packages’ became a ‘*developmental and sustainable welfare grant*’. However, the PRIIF began to experience significant challenges after the take-off phase (Mthethwa 2015).

Further to this flow of discourse, the researcher summarises Phase(s) 1, 2 and 3 as discussed by Everatt and Zulu (2001).

6.2.4.2.1 Phase 1 - The learning curve (1994–1996)

Post 1994, the conventional approach to rural development initiatives was the use of ‘blanket’ approaches, whereby interventions were instituted to cover as many poverty-stricken communities as possible (Rogerson and Nel 2016; Russon 2012). A significant portion of government officials during the post-1994 era were unexperienced, but were highly motivated to deliver to the expectant populace. Much anticipation was prevalent, particularly from the poor who had supported the ANC and believed in their manifesto (Kroth, Larcinese, and Wehner 2016). The ANC government also appointed a number of public servants from NGOs who were full of energy, ideas and were ready to deliver to the masses. However, their expectations were dashed as they worked in units where the majority of employees were bureaucrats, antagonistic and nervous (Du Toit 2018; Ledwaba and Nhlengetwa 2016).

Thus, new recruits from NGOs had to adapt to a bureaucratic and cumbersome system which was characterised by ‘*opaque decision-making hierarchies*’ and clumsy tender system. Although the will and commitment was innate amongst some state actors, the lacuna was found in the implementation capacity and institution inertia. For instance, the designations of RDP employees were not clarified, neither were the relations between provincial or national units or departments, whilst the available data meant to guide government to the poorest community members were unreliable (Abel 2016).

Another prominent feature of Phase 1 was the variation in institutional procedures. Such variations are usually exhibited amongst rural development initiatives. While government undertook some initiatives, others were outsourced to non-governmental entities such as private companies or NGOs (Maake 2017). As partners to government, NGOs anticipated playing an integral role in developmental initiatives. However, the government often bypassed these NGOs and outsourced initiatives to private companies. Government in some instances deliberately bypassed NGOs in favour of private companies as a means to wooing these entities (Schoeman 2019; Everatt and Zulu 2001).

Case study 1: The Community-Based Public Works Programme

The Community-Based Public Works Programme (CBPWP) served as a suitable case study for changing approaches towards the delivery of rural development. During 1994, the CBPWP was used to address governmental weaknesses through the use of the Independent Development Trust (IDT) in implementing the 1st phase of the initiative, the ‘*Community Employment Programme*’ (CEP). In fulfilling the IDT’s community-based mandate, experts were employed to obtain data from a set population (Kroth et al. 2016; Everatt and Zulu 2001).

The outcome of this was the delivery of 600 assets to poor communities through the Community Employment Programme. Of these communities, two-thirds were amongst the three most under-developed provinces. These constructions were made by poor community members who resided within such domains. This was however met with a number of criticisms. The initiative retrenched a number of workers as the government was unable to sustain the high wages offered to employees. Capacitation sessions for employees were unimpressive as only a few employees received training. Moreover, the monitoring, evaluation and maintenance culture was weak (Strydom, Mangope and Henama (2018) Everatt and Zulu 2001). At a later stage (1995-1997), the CBPWP was taken over by the Department of Public Works (provincial level). In total, an estimated 2000 assets were eventually delivered, which were actualised through participative community-based development.

The identified accomplishments and failures of the CBPWP were not reflective of other rural developmental initiatives. The CBPWP however provided a steep learning curve for the premature stages. With the CBPWP, rural development stakeholders were willing to learn from past mistakes, while government was seen as a developmental partner and not as an austere manager (Du Toit 2018; Ledwaba and Nhlengetwa 2016).

6.2.4.2.2 Phase 2 - Innovation and refinement (1996–1997/8)

As a means to demonstrating the core aspects of the 2nd phase (of delivering rural developmental initiatives), the focal point is placed in the CBPWP. Although the CBPWP was adjudged successful amongst some developmental analysts (Tebele 2016; Shaukat 2017), legitimacy questions were however raised regarding the distribution of assets and type of assets. The evaluation revealed that half of the CBPWP deliveries consisted of educational facilities. The assessment of the CBPWP, however, recommended initiatives that could

stimulate economic activities within a community. It also proposed the prioritization of initiatives such as road construction over the construction of school buildings, which are considered to have limited potential or benefits (Maseng 2014; Everatt and Zulu 2001).

Everatt and Zulu (2001) advance their discourse by making a comparison between the policy and implementation of these developmental initiatives:

- **Policy versus implementation**

It has become a statement of truism amongst developmental stakeholders to say that several of the policies are technically sound and ambitious, but are usually not implemented as designed (Shaukat 2017; Maseng 2014). The lack of implementation potency is often attributed to budgetary constraints, skills deficits and a lack of capacitation (Rogerson and Nel 2016). While many authors affirm these raised concerns as a fair criticism, some other analyst claim that '*it misses the mark*' (Tebele 2016; Shaukat 2017; Everatt and Zulu 2001). Additionally, post- apartheid rural development initiatives have often been adjudged as unrealistic targets (Zarenda 2013; Seekings and Nattrass 2015; Meyer 2013).

Citing the CBPWP as an example, a quota of 66 percent was allotted to women. Similarly, the CMIP proposed a 50 percent allotment of women in its workforce, while a further 15 percent target was allotted to millennials. The then Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF), now the Department of Water and Sanitation, set even higher quotas for women. Such allotments are considered unrealistic within the confines of the cultural and socio-economical context of rural South Africa (Everatt and Zulu 2001).

Seekings and Nattrass (2015) also allude to the claim that some of the (prominent) challenges undermining the effectiveness of rural development initiatives during 1996-1998 were inclusive of a *lack of synergy and cooperation and a lack of sustainability in energy, passion*

and enthusiasm. Studies by Chivhinge and Moodley (2016) also highlight issues such as unresolved conflicts amongst community-based development and treasury regulations; poor retention amongst senior personnel; and a lack of enthusiasm and creativity amongst departments.

6.2.4.2.3 Phase 3 - Delivery and stagnation (1998–2000)

This era was characterised as one with revised developmental initiatives. While some of these initiatives retained their design, others were extended to provinces which did not benefit earlier on. These pro-poverty and developmental initiatives were rated favourably by international and local evaluators. However, tension arose as pressure was mounted on departments to deliver, while the tendency also arose for the rollout of initiatives year after year, with little opportunity to reflect or learn. The stakeholders had little or no room to learn from the mistakes of ongoing initiatives as the overriding concern was to achieve set targets (Jorge, Carter and May 2007). After the 1999 elections, a number of senior governmental officials who piloted the initiatives began to exit. Such exit put a strain on the continuity of initiatives (Everatt and Zulu 2001).

6.2.4.3 Poverty Relief and Infrastructure Investment Fund (PRIIF)

To continuously fight the scourge of poverty amidst the South African populace, Poverty Relief Fund (PRF) grants were issued by the National Treasury on an annual basis. This fund was specifically dedicated to the provision of extra funds for anti-poverty initiatives (Luthuli 2012). At the inception, the PRF released the sum of fifty million rand (R50 million) to the PRIIF. These funds were allotted towards welfare amongst the poor. These funds had to be

disbursed (spent) rapidly, or lost. The Department of Welfare (2000) writes, “*while there were some successes, there was also concern with the lack of systems and poor accountability measures and sustainability of projects*”. The PRIIF required capacitation at the inception in order to ensure the smooth roll out of this initiative. The PRIIF was fast-tracked as an agenda to meeting set targets. However, this pace resulted in the compromising of due process. A cogent setback the PRIIF faced was the fielding of personnel prior to the capacitation exercises for such personnel, which significantly mired its success (Zimbalist 2017b).

The PRIIF, similar to other rural development initiatives/ poverty alleviation programmes, was mainly challenged with inadequate skill levels amongst personnel at the department of welfare who were tasked with the implementation of this initiative. Furthermore, the PRIIF had impracticable time-frames to implement a complex initiative.

Limitations to Everatt and Zulu’s (2001) work are that they only identify the main challenges attributed to the execution and management of rural development initiatives. They however provide an insight into these initiatives, as well as the issues they raise, while offering some indicators for gauging the extent of success (Everatt and Zulu 2001). They also acknowledge (at the inception of their work) the exclusion of some rural development initiatives, whose exclusion may possibly weaken their argument (Everatt and Zulu 2001:2).

Also to be discussed in this sub-section are other conspicuous post-apartheid rural development initiatives. These are inclusive of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994); Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR 1994); the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP 2001); as well as Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (2004). However, amongst rural developmental initiatives

of the post- apartheid era, the Rural Development Framework of 1997 was not confirmed as a policy (NDRDLR 2004). Thus, it is not discussed within this sub-section.

6.2.4.4 Reconstruction and Development Programme

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was launched by the South African government in 1994. This initiative was established to foster socio-economic cohesion with the intent to transform South Africa. This transformation agenda was particularly targeted at deprived rural communities (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013). In Greenberg's (2004) view, this was the first ambitious programme by the ANC government in tackling poverty squarely.

The RDP was designed in accordance to the 'Basic needs approach'. Hence, the government prioritised pertinent needs such as housing, the provision of water, electricity and education (Ngomane 2012; Neves 2017). The national government transferred enormous resources in a bid to actualise these infrastructural deliveries at grassroots level. The rural developmental trajectory was handled from a perspective of sectoral interventions, which were constrained by poor integration and managerial deficiencies (Greenberg 2003:17). In addressing these short-comings, the Ministry of Rural Development and Land Reform was established. The mandate of this ministry was to coordinate and monitor the 'reconstruction' of rural communities. The Ministry of Rural Development and Land Reform advocated for institutional changes and processes for the betterment of rural communities (ANC 1994: 85).

By 1995, a different funding model was established. Thus, the Rural Development Strategy substituted the transfer of financial resources from national government with locally sourced funds. This implied that rural municipalities had to fund their rural developmental initiatives through a cost recovery plan, which brought about a change in the South African

government's macro-economic policy to the international trend of neo-liberalism (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013; Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 83).

According to Kodua-Agyekum (2009: 83), the RDP was a comprehensive and theoretically sound developmental framework designed to mobilise the country's resources and citizenry, with the aim of exterminating the apartheid structure, while instituting a resolute and democratic, non-sexist and non-racial South Africa.

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2004) outlines the six fundamental principles of the RDP, namely:

- *An integrated and sustainable programme;*
- *A people-driven process;*
- *Peace and security for all;*
- *Nation-building;*
- *Link reconstruction and development; and*
- *the Democratisation of South Africa.*

(<http://www.polity.org.za/polity/govdocs/rdp/rdp2.html>).

A significant proportion of households benefitted from this initiative, as the government provided subsidised houses, electricity and water to a number of households within rural communities (as well as urban settlements). However, the target was far from being reached as the RDP faced similar challenges to earlier initiatives (CMIP, PRIIF) (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013). This initiative was argued by a variety of developmental analysts not to have met its full potential or set targets (Neves 2017; Greenberg 2004). Such assertions were based on the proportion of infrastructural deliveries and services provided against governments target (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013)

6.2.4.5 Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR)

After the closure of the Reconstruction and Development Programme's (RDP) Office in 1996, the South African government rolled out a new initiative - Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) (Department of Finance 1996: 2). GEAR was a macroeconomic policy crafted to sustain and grow the South African economy based on a free-market system and competition (Department of Finance 1996:2). GEAR was designed by a group of experts, who comprised representatives from the World Bank, financial advisers from the South African Reserve Bank, academicians, three state departments, as well as representatives from the Development Bank of Southern Africa (Visser 2004: 8).

GEAR was classified as a '*classical neo-liberal economic policy*', which postulates that growth in an economy can be accelerated through the creation of employment opportunities, which should invariably reduce poverty (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 84). Through the GEAR initiative, the government was able to re-invigorate the cost recovery approach for investments in infrastructural initiatives, while stimulating a public-private partnership (Department of Finance 1996: 14).

As an agendum to aligning GEAR to rural development, the Rural Development Framework (RDF) was instituted. The RDF's core mandate was to accelerate development amongst the rural communities of South Africa through the redistribution of governmental expenditure. These expenditures were channeled towards infrastructural projects amongst poor rural communities (Ellis and Biggs 2001). Through this intervention, the government was able to reduce the service delivery backlogs amongst rural communities. In a bid to achieving

efficiency, planning was decentralised to grassroots (local municipalities), whilst reliable data was used for the allocation of resources (Kodua-Agyekum 2009: 84).

The GEAR approach was projected to restructure the South African economy in-line with pre-determined targets set by the RDP. Moreover, GEAR was designed to provide basic needs (shelter, water, electricity, sanitation) and capacitate the populace with the required skills, whilst increasing community participation (Visser 2004: 6). However, due to the currency crisis in 1996, the RDF had to be terminated (Visser 2004: 7).

It was government's intention to use GEAR as a stabilisation tool. Thus, GEAR was intended to stabilise the international currency market, as well as domestic capital. GEAR however did not accomplish its set target as the initiators forecasted a 6 percent growth between 1996 and 2001, while only a 2.7 percent growth was achieved. Moreover, employment between 1996 and 2001 shrank by 3 percent (Olivier, Van Zyl, and Williams 2010; Department of Rural Development and Land Reform 2010). Kole (2005) further note that despite the marginal growth recorded during these years, the benefits did not trickle to the poor.

6.2.4.6 Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP)

The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) was constituted in 2001 by the then President, Thabo Mbeki (Department of Provincial and Local Government 2003: 1). The ISRDP advocated for a cohesive and sustainable developmental agenda amidst selected rural districts. This initiative was said to be the first governmental intervention which brought together a host of governmental and non-governmental entities, parastatals and departments to work at addressing rural developmental concerns such as service delivery backlogs (Meyer 2013; Bakre 2015: 38). The ISRDP was a grassroots instigated programme,

orchestrated to tackle under-development amongst some of the poorest rural districts in 2001 (Everatt, Dube and Ntsime 2004: 2). The identified districts were (Everatt *et al.* 2004: 2):

- *Sekhukhune*
- *Umkhanyakude*
- *Ugu*
- *Zululand*
- *Umzinyathi*
- *O.R Tambo*
- *Chris Hani*
- *Central Karoo*
- *Kgalagadi*
- *Maluti A Phofung*
- *Alfred Nzo*
- *Ukhahlamba and*
- *Bohlabela.*

Studies by Zakwe (2001) and Husy (2001) further amplify that of Everatt *et al.* (2004). They describe the ISDRP as a developmental initiative which was instituted by a local need to foster empowerment amongst local actors and re-institutionalise local governance, while providing an enabling environment towards the actualisation of sustainable and viable rural communities.

Interestingly, the districts of UMkhanyakude (Gunjaneni) and O.R Tambo (Lusikisiki Mcobothini) were included amongst the poorest and most un-developed districts (in South

Africa) in 2001. As at the second quarter of 2018, these districts still remain amongst the poorest and most un-developed districts (Statistics South Africa 2018d).

Although the ISDRP aimed to integrate and consolidate rural development initiatives, this was however not fully actualised as some government departments worked in isolation while other governmental entities were unaware of what other departments or entities were doing. This significantly impacted on the success of the ISDRP, as poverty is a multi-faceted concern and cannot be addressed in isolation by state actors (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014:17).

Although, the ISDRP was said to have marginally contributed to rural development and poverty alleviation amongst the selected rural districts, the aspirations of prominent stakeholders were not fulfilled as set targets were not accomplished due to the inadequacy of funds, unrealistic time-frames, institutional inertia and the lack of capacitation, amongst other issues (Binswanger-Mkhize 2014; Du Toit and Neves 2014; Goldman, Mathe, Jacob, Hercules, Amisi, Buthelezi, Narsee, Ntakumba and Sadan 2015).

6.2.4.7 Comprehensive agriculture support programme (CASP)

The Comprehensive Agriculture Support Programme (CASP) was launched in 2004 to accelerate agricultural development amongst rural subsistence farmers. Similar to other initiatives, the core agenda of the CASP was to alleviate poverty while improving the living conditions of these farmers (Neves 2014; Jorge, Carter and May 2007; Greenberg 2004; Bakre 2015: 46). Moreover, the government deemed this initiative to be of great importance as the agricultural development initiatives during apartheid were geared towards the benefit of a few white commercial farmers. Thus, CASP was designed in a manner to neutralize the

intra-agricultural bias theory advocated by the apartheid government (Lipton *et al.* 1996). Similar to the CASP, three initiatives were driven by the post-apartheid government, namely:

- *the Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)*;
- *Market-Led Agrarian Reform (MLAR)*; and
- *Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD)*.

A commonality amongst these initiatives was to address unequal land distribution while transferring land ownership to black farmers. According to analysts, all four of these programmes were unsuccessful (May 2000; Borras *et al.* 2008; Carter and May 1999). After a decade of the initiation of land reformative initiatives, only an estimated four percent of poor black farmers had benefited (Sender and Johnston 2004). Furthermore, less than five percent (4 million hectares) of arable plots of land were transferred after 13 years of these reformative programmes (Meyer 2013:18). This figure falls short of government's anticipated projection of a 30 percent (25 million hectares) redistribution of white-owned land. Cynics were of the view that such target was rather over ambitious and unrealistic (Centre for Development and Enterprise 2008: 4).

As argued by Du Toit (2009), the transfer of land to black subsistence farmers was not the remedy to alleviate poverty. He mentions that the South African agrarian policy has failed to address the fundamental challenges faced by small black farmers. Latiff (2007) reiterates Du Toit's argument that subsistence farmers do not have the skills, assets, competence or resources, nor do they have the financial literacy to integrate into the commercial value chain. Invariably, these poor farmers have often been susceptible to poor weather, drought, floods and veld fires (Vermaak and Van Niekerk 2004 cited by Meyer 2013:19). Thus, the CASP, alongside other land reform programmes, did not alleviate poverty as anticipated by the government (Neves and du Toit 2013).

Having provided a synopsis of rural development initiatives of the ‘pre’ and ‘post-apartheid’ era, the next sub-section further expounds on rural development initiatives of the ‘post-apartheid’ by exclusively analysing (only) the main rural development initiatives between the 9th of May 2009 and the 14th of February 2018 (Jacob Zuma’s tenure).

6.3 Rural development initiatives (May 9, 2009 and February 14, 2018)

As mentioned in Chapter 1 (see section 1.7), the prime focus of the study is centred upon rural developmental initiatives during Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma’s regime (2009-2018). During his tenure, the (main) formulated initiatives were inclusive of the Comprehensive Rural Development Plan (2009); New Growth Path (2010); and the National Development Plan 2030 (2012). While the New Growth Path (NGP) and National Development Plan 2030 (NDP) will be discussed, more emphasis will be directed at the Comprehensive Rural Development Plan (CRDP). Such a decision is taken for the following reasons:

- The CRDP focal point is on rural communities;
- The New Growth Plan and National Development Plan are holistic and revolve around developmental concerns in South Africa as a whole; and also
- The CRDP was designed to alleviate poverty amongst the rural communities of South Africa.

Thus, the line of discussion of the CRDP will revolve around an overview of the CRDP, the nexus between the CRDP and poverty alleviation; the capacity of local government to implement the CRDP, contributing factors to the CRDP; while critiquing challenges attributed to CRDP.

6.3.1 Comprehensive Rural Development Plan

6.3.1.1 Overview of the CRDP

The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) was approved in July 2009 by the Jacob Zuma administration (Meyer 2013; Jacob and Hart 2014). The main motive of this rural developmental initiative was to empower and mobilise the rural populace, whereby they take ownership of developmental concerns within their domain (NDRDLR 2018). The CRDP further aimed to achieve developmental and social cohesion through the provision of basic services, entrepreneurial development and rural industrialisation (Conradie 2012; Olivier 2010). Such entrepreneurial development was anticipated to be actualised through the development of small and medium-scale businesses within rural communities and the provision of credit facilities to eligible entrepreneurs, whilst also improving market access for such rural entrepreneurs (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform 2013: 7). Thus, the proponents of this initiative designed it into three phases as outlined in Table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2: Phases of the CRDP

Phases	Themes	Synopsis
Phase 1	Provision of basic human needs	<i>Phase one is a short-term plan aimed at providing decent housing to poor rural communities. The newly built homes will have sanitation facilities, electricity and potable water. Also, in an attempt to reduce hunger and ensure food security, the CRDP set up specific programmes to address these challenges.</i>
Phase 2	Development of rural enterprises	<i>The CRDP initiated this medium-term plan in order to develop present small-scale</i>

		<i>businesses, as well as supporting the creation of new small-scale businesses.</i>
Phase 3	Rural industrialisation	<i>This is a long-term plan intended to enhance the rural economy, whereby small-scale businesses could be transformed into larger businesses. Also, Phase Three of the CRDP intends to promote rural-urban market development through the provision of credit facilities by the government, with the overall agenda of generating more jobs and reducing poverty.</i>

Source: Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2013); Bakre (2015)

The National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, alongside stakeholders, has significantly made some progress as regards implementing Phase 1. Through Phase 1, a number of rural communities had been provided with basic needs such as housing, access to water, electricity and sanitation (NDRDLR 2018). However, in transitioning into Phase 2 (Development of rural enterprises), a number of hitches decelerated this motive. Concerns such as high illiteracy and poor financial literacy amongst the rural populace adversely impacted on this transition. The NDRDLR recognises this as a critical concern if the Phase 2 is to be actualised. However, the slow progression of Phase 2 has equally had a slow-down effect on Phase 3 – Rural industrialisation (Nattrass 2011). Notwithstanding, the CRDP has marginally contributed to the well-being of a few rural households (Meyer 2013). Thus, the next sub-theme examines the nexus between the CRDP and poverty alleviation.

6.3.1.2 Nexus between the CRDP and poverty alleviation

Due to the multi-faceted nature of poverty, it may be unrealistic to quantify the extent to which CRDP has alleviated poverty amongst the rural households of South Africa. However, some affirmative clues suggest a slight positive correlation. The proponents of the CRDP understand fully well that agriculture plays a rather significant role amongst rural communities in South Africa and hence proposed the diversification of rural economies as a means to creating viable rural spaces in the long-run (Jacob and Hart 2014). Thus, through the development of rural enterprises, a few households have been able to escape the poverty cycle (Labuschagne 2015; Makgetla 2010).

In a bid to transform rural spaces, the CRDP uses extensive agrarian transformations. Such a transformational approach focuses on well-thought out investments in social and economic infrastructure (Chivhinge and Moodley 2016). This resulted in a number of advantages to communities wherein such developmental agenda took place. For instance, the infrastructural projects offered some low-skilled community members part-time employment, while a few subsistence farmers benefited from some of the agrarian reforms through the provision of seedlings, fertilisers, training and the like. Moreover, the CRDP was designed in such a manner that it addresses the needs of individuals, households and the community as a whole. Furthermore, the CRDP is designed to create employment opportunities, while reducing the rural-urban emigrational trend (Rogerson and Nel 2016). However, the CRDP is yet to reach its full potential due to a variety of impediments, notwithstanding the fact that a number of rural household members have been gainfully employed. Such employment opportunities reduces poverty in such households (Chivhinge and Moodley 2016).

A majority of rural communities where the CRDP was implemented demonstrated some level of togetherness and unity. As evidenced by beneficiaries, the establishment of recreational facilities have persuaded millennials to foreswear alcohol, drugs and other vices (May 2000; Conradie 2012; Labuschagne 2015). Such a positive mindset has energised the psyche of some youths to find ‘seasonal’ or ‘part-time’ employment opportunities out of their locality. Through such positivity and employment opportunities, the well-being of such youths are marginally improved (Meyer 2013; Goldman et al 2015). Unfortunately, such employment opportunities or depicted scenario are often uncommon (Aucoin, Ciara; Cilliers and Jakkie 2016; Rogerson and Nel 2016).

Since the first piloted CRDP project launch in the Muyexe community of the Greater Giyani Municipality in Limpopo Province, the CRDP had made concerted efforts to offer an employment opportunity to at least one individual in every household for a minimum of two years (NDRDLR 2018). Thus, some community members were opportune to employment opportunities in the construction of roads, RDP houses and schools. Also, the land reform crafted within the CRDP was used in addressing food security amongst these communities. Although at a nominal scale, the land reform was beneficial as it created employment and a steady income for a number of poor households (Neves 2014; Binswanger-Mkhize 2014).

6.3.1.3 Capacity of local government to implement CRDP

Since the CRDP is implemented at the local government level, a number of grassroots representative are involved (NDRDLR 2018; Meyer 2013). Beyond the grassroots representatives are stakeholders referred to as the ‘Council of Stakeholders’ (CoS). The CoS comprises government officials, ward committees, business entities, community-based organisations, as well as traditional institutions. The core mandates of the CoS is to design,

implement and monitor initiatives within the CRDP (DRDLR 2010). Moreover, as outlined in the framework, the CoS is tasked with the following duties (DRDLR 2009: 24):

- *“Enforce compliance with norms and standards for the State’s support of CRDP beneficiaries;*
- *Ensure compliance with agreed codes of conduct;*
- *Manage the implementation of the disciplinary codes;*
- *Support the disciplinary panels in the implementation of codes;*
- *Identify community needs and initiate project planning; and*
- *Play an oversight and monitoring role.”*

The individuals who make up the CoS may not necessarily possess the right managerial or administrative competence to run the CRDP projects (Meyer 2013). For instance, traditional leaders ascend to their leadership positions through non-elective means. Hence, their ascension to the Royal House does not guarantee that such traditional leaders possess the required competency. Additionally, Councillors also attain such political calibre through votes which may be based on popularity or political affiliations. In the case of business entities, they may have an agenda which contravenes that of the rural community. Thus, there is no justification that some of these stakeholders have the competence, nor is it assertive that they possess the political will to implement CRDP projects (Chivhinge and Moodley 2016; Conradie 2012).

Furthermore, other secondary partners whose expertise is required to sustain and develop rural communities or initiatives may be unwilling to work or live amongst rural communities. The experience and expertise of such personnel are actually imperative towards the actualisation of viable rural spaces (Labuschagne 2015; NDRDLR 2018).

Literature has often identified two cogent concerns regarding implementation at local government level - resource constraints and the lack of implementation capacity (Russon 2012; Xu, Nthontho and Chowdhury 2016; Tebele 2016). Based on the available resources and level of skills amongst a variety of rural communities, the projects may be perceived as a 'wish list' (Rogerson and Nel 2016; Tebele 2016). Rural municipalities in particular do not have sufficient personnel who are able to propel development within this domain. For instance, medical doctors, educators, nurses and other professionals are often not willing to work and live amongst rural communities. The reluctance of such personnel to work and live amongst rural communities often underplays the workability, sustainability and efficacy of some CRDP projects (Financial and Fiscal Commission 2013: 79). Further compounding the issue of implementation of the CRDP is that the local government has no specific role or function (Ellis and Biggs 2001). This lack of specificity has often brought about the issue of 'no peculiar government official championing the CRDP at municipality level' (Labuschagne 2015; Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013).

Although the Council of Stakeholders (CoS) are partly tasked with the planning, implementation and monitoring of initiatives within the CRDP; they however still report to the CRDP Technical Committee who take the final decision with regard to the implementation of a CRDP project (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-mensah and Zuwarimwe 2013). The CRDP Technical Committee consists of departmental entities at provincial level. This committee makes final decisions on CRDP projects for particular rural communities, which implies that the CoS may have proposed five projects to the CRDP Technical Committee, but due to resource or budget constraints, the CRDP Technical Committee may decide to implement only one project, which may be perceived as the least important need to such a rural community (in that particular period). Thus, authority is taken away from the local government, which suggests the feebleness of local government (Meyer 2013; Neve 2017).

6.3.1.4 Contributing factors to the success of CRDP

Prior to the formation of the CRDP in 2009, the initiators and drivers of the CRDP had reviewed the Rural Development Programme (RDP) of 1994; the Rural Development Strategy of 1995; the Rural Development Framework of 1997; and the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) of 2000, which later metamorphosed into the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) in 2001. Through such a thorough review process, a variety of causative factors which resulted in the failure of earlier initiatives were identified. Thus, the initiators and drivers of the CRDP took cognizance while crafting the CRDP (Neves 2017). Such identified deficiencies in earlier rural developmental initiatives and experiences of planners could be pinpointed as one of the reasons the CRDP was better implemented as compared to earlier initiatives (NDRDLR 2018).

Unlike the ISRDP whose failure was partly due to the lack of funding ((Mayende 2010:58), the national government awarded surmountable amounts for the CRDP. Also, having identified the lack of consultation and coordination for the failure of the RDP in 1994-1996 as a number of rural developmental initiatives were duplicated (Kole 2005: 5), the CRDP took credence of this as the processes in implementing the CRDP involved consultation with representatives of the rural community, while coordination amongst governmental departments was improved during the implementation of the CRDP (Neve 2017).

A further contributing factor to the success of the CRDP was the calibre of governmental entities championing this initiative. At the national level, this was championed by the Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform, while at the provincial level, the CRDP was championed by the Premier. The Premiers were pushed by national government to deliver on the CRDP. Thus, Premiers' key role was in getting commitment from district and

local municipalities on behalf of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform to deliver (DRDLR 2009).

6.3.1.5 Critique and challenges attributed to CRDP

Similar to Sections 3.10 and 6.7, wherein the '*challenges facing rural developmental initiatives in South Africa*' and '*critique and challenges attributed to rural developmental initiatives*' were discussed, this section also provides a similar narrative, but one confined to the CRDP. To avoid a replication of the discourses contained in Sections 3.10 and 6.7, this sub-section provides a critique and challenges peculiar to the CRDP.

According to Conradie (2012), the divergence of perceptions and philosophies amongst the national and provincial governments has often been a stumbling block to the success of CRDP projects. Conradie (2012) exemplifies such divergence between the national and provincial government when he raised the misunderstanding and tension that arose during the implementation of a project within the Dysselsdorp community of the Western Cape Province. Such divergent philosophies often result in sabotage or the poor implementation of CRDP projects. Unfortunately, no system or structure has been put in place to address such.

Another bottleneck faced during the implementation of the CRDP projects is that after the CoS may have identified and planned a potential infrastructural or social-economic upliftment initiative, the Steering Committee which awards financial resources may out of its discretion not release funds for such a project. Such practices have often resulted in tension and frustration amongst the CoS (NDRDLR 2018).

The CRDP advocates the creation of equitable, viable and sustainable rural communities. This vision has often been criticised by developmental analysts who are of the view that rural communities in South Africa are gradually becoming a heterogeneous population, and thus

needs may differ (May 2000; Makgetla 2010; The Presidency 2014). These needs are mainly influenced by the extent of paucity amongst households or communities, gender, age or levels of education (Friedman 2006). This implies that by treating rural communities as a homogenous population, the CRDP overlooks the possibility of antagonism, divergent philosophies, differential needs and conflicts within such communities (Chivhinge and Moodley 2016).

Furthermore, one of the tenets of the CRDP – *‘to mobilise and empower rural communities’* – presumes that such community members will share a common interest and thus establish a social group. In actual fact, there are high tendencies that social groups are dominated by the elite. Such dominance is often due to the elite’s political connections, authority, education, affluence and prestige (McEwan 2003). Invariably, such elites are nominated as community representatives. The controversy herein is often that what the elites within such rural communities advocate may not necessarily be the desires and needs of the poorest households (Prinsloo 2011b; Nattrass 2011).

The CRDP’s job creation model has been criticised as well. This criticism is premised upon four parameters (May 2000; Makgetla 2010):

- high unemployment amongst rural communities;
- infrastructural deficits;
- decline in the agricultural sector; and
- limited employment opportunities.

The multi-sectoral nature of the CRDP requires assertive and well-thought out coordination.

Thus, creating employment for one individual in every rural household may be a difficult task based on current reality (Chivhinge and Moodley 2016).

Furthermore, a lack of coordination has been pinpointed amongst a number of critics. The CRDP being a multi-sectoral initiative and driven by governmental and non-governmental entities suggests the need for effectual coordination. Thus, attempts were made to establish the Rural Development Agency (RDA). The RDA was intended to coordinate all developmental initiatives of the CRDP, in the medium and long-terms (Olivier 2010; DRDLR 2010). However, the establishment of the RDA failed and the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (NDRDLR) took over this role of coordination. The NDRDLR could not effectively play a leading role as it lacks the constitutional directive to supervise or coordinate other partnering departments involved in CRDP projects. Hence, this has adversely impacted on a number of CRDP projects (Phuhlisani 2010; Ngomane 2012).

6.3.2 New Growth Path

The Jacob Zuma regime felt the need to launch the New Growth Path (NGP) in October 2010 due to a lack of economic direction in 2010 (Nattrass 2011; Prinsloo 2011a). Similar to earlier developmental policies (initiatives) such as the Rural Development Programme (RDP), Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) and the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA), the prime objective of the NGP was to create employment opportunities. The NGP also aimed at reducing the extent of poverty and addressing the inequality gap, while also augmenting planning, coordination and implementation amongst the national, provincial and local governments (Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council 2010). The NGP aimed to mirror the Chinese mass employment model wherein 57 million employment opportunities were created between 2006

and 2010 (Kopec 2011: 5). Thus, in achieving its agenda, the NGP focused on sectors which could possibly unlock the South African economy. Focus was given to rural development and agriculture, tourism, the green economy, infrastructural development, manufacturing, mining, as well as the informal sector. Through these sectors, the NGP aimed to generate 5 million employment opportunities by 2020 as a means to reducing the then 24.4 percent unemployment rate to 15 percent (Statistics South Africa 2011). The NGP also aimed to capacitate 100 000 youths, among which 50 000 were to be trained as artisans, while a further 30 000 were to be trained as qualified engineers by 2015 (Eastern Cape Socio Economic Consultative Council, 2010). This however was not actualised (DRDLR 2018).

Meyer (2013), also pinpoints the following 11 points as reasons for the creation of the NGP:

- *limited government income;*
- *high levels of unemployment;*
- *low consumer spending;*
- *focus on implementable policies;*
- *development of SMMEs in job creation;*
- *create a positive environment for business;*
- *lack of infrastructure maintenance and investment;*
- *low skills levels;*
- *frustrated unemployed youth;*
- *high tax scales; and*
- *low income levels.*

Having recognised unemployment as one of South Africa's most prominent issues, the NGP identified specific sectors which could possibly create employment both vertically, as well as in cross-cutting activities (Mtubatuba Local Municipality Final IDP 2018:55).

The first year of implementation of the NGP met quite a positive response by the public. The national government pushed this initiative through infrastructural investment and

development. Thus, the national government piloted 200 projects under the Presidential Infrastructural Coordinating Commission (PICC). These projects were launched nationwide and were inclusive of capital projects in social infrastructure (schools and hospitals); the maintenance and upgrade of rail lines; road construction; water projects; energy projects; the upgrading of harbour facilities; as well as the construction of inland transportation hubs (Donnelly 2011:4).

A majority of these projects were to drive a labour-intensive economy. Also, the NGP strove to create decent employment opportunities. Amongst other job-related tenets promoted by the NGP are (Meyer 2013; the Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council 2010):

- *reforming labour policies to allow more protection for vulnerable workers;*
- *the provision of basic services to the poor;*
- *improved governance, especially in the local government sphere; and*
- *an improved alignment of policies in all spheres of government.*

The first year into the NGP, a variety of success stories emerged. The national government allotted a significant budget from the funds, inter alia *the national youth development fund; the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) fund; the Infrastructure Fund; the Public Works fund; the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP); and the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)*, whereby a significant portion found employment opportunities. During the same period, the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) aimed to provide employment opportunities for 60 000 people (Meyer 2013). Through such employment opportunities, employment was created for low skilled employees. A significant number of such opportunities benefitted the urban populace and a few-job seekers from rural communities. Hence, it marginally alleviated poverty (Prinsloo 2011b; Nattrass 2011; South Africa. 2011a; South Africa. 2011b).

The NGP was faced with heavy criticism from different quarters (Prinsloo 2011a; Coetzee 2010; Laubscher 2010). Critics are of the view that the NGP lacks specificity and does not explicitly state or explain how it intends to be accomplished, particularly at the grassroots level. Moreover, similar reasons that were attributed to the failure of the GEAR (1996) and ASGISA (2006) were not addressed by the planners of the NGP (Hendriks 2013; Bakre 2015). According to developmental analysts, the NGP is not friendly to investors and lacks innovative concepts (National Development Plan 2011: 3). Commentators such as Duvenhage (2011) and Laubscher (2010) allege that the NGP does not explicitly state how it is to be implemented and is perceived as an initiative inclined towards the redistribution of wealth, rather than creating 'new wealth'.

Critics have also seen the NGP as a champion-less agenda. This assertion is based on the uncertainty of the governmental establishment, department or entity overseeing this initiative. Doubts have been cast over whether the NGP was been championed by the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reforms or the Office of the Presidency or the Treasury Department or the Department of Economic Development, or perhaps the Department of Trade and Industry (Ngomane 2012; Meyer 2013). Thus, poor coordination amongst governmental departments has adversely impacted on some NGP projects.

Prinsloo (2011a: 1) also faults the NGPs job-creation model. He argues that this model focuses mainly on governmental intervention, rather than creating conducive and viable economic settings where non-governmental entities or corporates can establish and grow their businesses. Prinsloo (2011a) also notes that the proposed '5 million new jobs by the year 2020' was rather an unrealistic target due to the sluggish economy. He further amplifies his argument by making referral to the 2002 – 2008 economic prosperity witnessed in South

Africa. Despite the economic boom between such years, less than 300 000 employment opportunities were created. Hence, achieving the *5 million jobs by 2020* translates into creating 42 000 employment opportunities every month till 2020. Such a projection is rather unrealistic. For instance, despite a number of incentives put in place by the national government, only 22 000 new jobs were created between January and March of 2019 (Statistics South Africa 2019b).

6.3.3 National Development Plan 2030

According to Chilenga (2017: 87), the National Development Plan (NDP) 2030 serves as South Africa's blueprint towards economic advancement and social reformation. It is anticipated that this initiative will drive the country into being a prosperous one by 2030 (Cilliers and Camp 2013). The NDP is also considered as South Africa's long-term development framework (National Science and Technology Forum. 2017: 2). The main motive of the NDP is to eradicate poverty while reducing inequality to its barest minimum by 2030 (Zarenda 2013).

In designing and formulating the NDP 2030, a National Planning Commission (NPC) was constituted in mid-2010. By June 2011, the NPC released a Diagnostic Report outlining the country's main successes and challenges in the post-apartheid era. This Diagnostic Report attributed two main concerns as to South Africa's sluggish development trajectory, namely a *failure to implement policies* and *an absence of broad partnerships* (National Science and Technology Forum. 2017: 2).

Furthermore, the NPC outlined nine prominent challenges. These are spelt out in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Challenges identified by the NPC

S/n	Core challenges	Redressing the Challenges
1	Too few people work	Creating jobs and livelihoods
2	The standard of education for most black learners is of poor quality	Improving education and training
3	Infrastructure is poorly located, under-maintained and insufficient to foster higher growth	Expanding infrastructure
4	Spatial patterns exclude the poor from the fruits of development	Transform urban and rural spaces
5	The economy is overly and unsustainably resource intensive	Building a capable state
6	A widespread disease burden is compounded by a failing public health system	Providing quality healthcare
7	Public services are uneven and often of poor quality	Reinvigoration of the public sector. Transition to a low-carbon economy
8	Corruption is widespread	Fighting corruption and enhancing accountability
9	South Africa remains a divided society	Transforming society and uniting the nation

Source: NDP (2011)

The National Planning Commission emphasises ‘too little citizens working’ and ‘poor quality of education amongst a high populace’ as some of the most worrisome challenges (Cilliers and Camp 2013; National Planning Commission 2011). The NPC understood that these concerns were directly related to poverty and thus projected to create 24 million jobs by 2030, while augmenting the educational and skills sectors, amongst other developmental agendas.

In actualising the NDP, the then Minister to the Presidency, Trevor Manuel, did outline three Phases in a 2013 media briefing (National Science and Technology Forum. 2017: 3):

- *Critical steps to be taken in 2013 to unlock implementation: including preparing the 2014-19 Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MSTF) as the first five-year building block;*
- *the 2014-2019 planning cycle; and*
- *the 2019-2024 and 2024-2029 planning cycles.*

A feedback report of the NDP 2030 on the 12th of September 2017 indicates that the National Planning Commission is not meeting its target (National Science and Technology Forum 2017). For instance, poverty and inequality was exacerbated between 2012 and 2017. The reasons for the non-actualisation of targets have been pinpointed by Chilenga (2017); the HSRC; and the National Science and Technology Forum (2017) as capacitation, delivery and implementation concerns. While the National Planning Commission has the capacity to design and plan policies, it lacks the implementation capacity to translate this policy into implementable initiatives. Furthermore, the non-actualisation of targets has been attributed to poor capacitation and coordination amongst the three spheres of government. In the Metalworkers' union, NUMSA's, assessment, the 'NDP 2030' '*is a liberal version of the government's former Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy*' (National Science and Technology Forum. 2017: 5).

Similar to earlier developmental initiatives, the NDP 2030 has also been widely criticised by a number of researchers and entities such as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU); Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC); Harry Zarenda and the National Science and Technology Forum.

It may rather be too early to evaluate the National Development Plan as the deadline for the actualisation for this developmental initiative is in 2030. However, a number of flaws have been identified in the content of this document. One of such flaws identified by COSATU

(2013: 1) is the incorrect interpretation of statistical figures and literature. The NDP misconstrues several projections and figures on indicators such as employment and poverty (COSATU 2013: 1). Moreover, the NDP uses incorrect definitions for unemployment. In its definition, it excludes discouraged job seekers who account for an estimated 3 million individuals. COSATU (2013) laments over the 2010 unemployment figure. It claims that the realistic 2010 unemployment figure was 36 percent and not the acclaimed 25 percent put forth by the NDP 2030. COSATU (2013) thus affirms that the National Planning Commission needs to re-calculate the unemployment figure by including discouraged job-seekers in order to arrive at a more credible and realistic unemployment projection for 2030.

Furthermore, in actualising the 11 million jobs by 2030, COSATU (2013) is of the view that the proposed jobs are unrealistic, unsustainable and should some of such jobs become a reality, a majority of such jobs are likely going to be indecent or short-term employment opportunities. This argument is based on a justification. The National Planning Commission intends to achieve the expansive employment generation through small and medium-scale enterprises, as 90 percent of these jobs are to be created through small and medium-scale enterprises. Thus, this suggests that 9.9 million of the projected 11 million employment opportunities will be created through ‘mass entrepreneurship’.

Cynics critique the National Planning Commission for basing their assertion on a survey by a research entity called Finscope. COSATU (2013) disagrees with Finscope’s survey which holds that small and medium-scale enterprises created 90 percent of employment opportunities in South Africa between 1998 – 2005. Finscope’s survey is opposed by research analysts, as well as two seasoned economists from the University of Cape Town (UCT).

This foresight of mass entrepreneurship is flawed by these UCT economists whose study amongst 18 000 small and medium-scale enterprises (between 2005 and 2011) finds a contradictory projection to that mapped out in the National Development Plan (COSATU 2013: 3).

Furthermore, the National Planning Commission uses non-confirmative poverty measures. For instance, it uses R418 per person on a monthly basis. It thus suggests that households earning about R2 000 on a monthly basis are not considered poor (using 2009 prices). Such low poverty measures have been widely criticised by a number of economists (David, Guilbert, Hamaguchi, Higashi, Hino, Leibbrandt and Shifa 2018; Zimbalist 2017).

Additionally, a number of factual and statistical inaccuracies have been identified. For example, Table 3.1 on page 121 of the NDP 2030 provides an incorrect calculation of three employment scenarios. On page 123 of the same document, statistical errors are observed within the sectoral employment percentages, wherein the increase in high level services from 19 percent to 22 percent was misquoted as 15 percent to 22 percent; while on page 118, the National Planning Commission uses ‘R418’ as a daily poverty measure, while the same R418 is used as monthly poverty measure in other instances (COSATU 2013: 16).

As inferred from literature, it can be said that the illusionary image depicted in the NDP is premised upon some falsified and inaccurate statistical errors and assumptions (Chilenga 2017; National Science and Technology Forum 2017). With almost a decade into the NDP 2030, no significant impact has been seen on poverty amongst the rural populace of South Africa. Rather, the extent of poverty and inequality has only worsened amongst a significant proportion of South Africans in recent years (David, Guilbert, Hamaguchi, Higashi, Hino, Leibbrandt and Shifa 2018).

Having discussed a variety of rural developmental initiatives of post-apartheid South Africa, the next section further elucidates the relationship between rural developmental initiatives and rural development in South Africa.

6.4 Nexus between rural developmental initiatives and rural development in South Africa
Going by the narratives of Sections ‘6.2’ and ‘6.3’, the exigency of this sub-section cannot be over-emphasised as it not only provides a continuum to the study, but equally attempts to provide a transitory relationship between the aforementioned rural development initiatives and rural development in South Africa. Due to the scope and multiplicity of these rural developmental interventions and ‘rural development’ itself, this sub-section may probably not be able to provide an accurate quantification as to the extent to which rural development initiatives have impacted on rural development. Attempts are however made to provide a generic and blithe insight into the extent of development achieved through these rural development initiatives.

However, to proceed with this discourse, it will be quite pertinent at this stage to reiterate the meanings of ‘rural developmental initiatives’ and ‘rural development’. Rural developmental initiatives within the context of this study implies interventions by government, non-governmental entities or individuals that are deliberately orchestrated and designed towards the betterment of a rural community. The ‘rural development’ definition provided in Section 2.2 (in Chapter 2) is thus reiterated in this section. Rural development within the context of this study is defined as *“enabling rural people to take control of their destiny, thereby dealing effectively with rural poverty through the optimal use and management of natural resources. It is a participatory process through which rural people learn over time, through their own experiences and initiatives, how to adapt their indigenous knowledge to their changing world. Rural development can be achieved through self-help initiatives as well as*

through co-ordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; through strategic investment in economic and social infrastructure that benefits entire rural communities, and not only those involved in agriculture” (Department of Rural Development 2013: 1 cited by Bakre 2015: 25).

Thus, in discussing the nexus between these variables – ‘rural developmental initiatives’ and ‘rural development’, the researcher extracts relevant information through textual analyse and inferences from Community surveys, Census reports and a BRICS publication.

A limitation to providing a more assertive or precise quantification of the extent to which rural developmental initiatives have impacted on rural development in South Africa is that Statistics South Africa (Census, Community surveys) often does not make a distinction between urban and rural communities when reporting on service delivery. Rather, reports are often classified by provinces or municipalities (Statistics South Africa 2017c: 32). However, Statistics South Africa does claim that majority of the service delivery backlogs were most prominent amongst rural communities, in comparison to urban communities. Invariably, in specific initiatives such as electrification and housing schemes, some rural communities such as those in Limpopo did significantly benefit more than their urban counterparts.

This sub-section thus quantifies rural development through features such as housing schemes, water access, sanitation and electricity.

The first assessment is found in Table 6.4, which illustrates household’s access to electricity, piped water and flush toilets between 1996 and 2016.

Table 6.4: Household access to Electricity, Piped water and Flush toilets

Year	Electricity	Piped water	Flush toilet
1996	58.2 percent	60.8 percent	-
2001	69.7 percent	62.3 percent	49.1 percent
2007	80.1 percent	69.4 percent	55.0 percent
2011	84.7 percent	73.4 percent	57.0 percent
2016	90.3 percent	83.5 percent	60.6 percent

Source: Census (1996, 2001 and 2011); Community survey (2007 and 2016)

Within this 20-years period (1996-2016), it can be observed that a significant number of households received services such as electricity (90.3 percent) and piped water (83.5 percent); while a slight improvement in the provision of flush toilets from 49.1 percent in 2001 to 60.6 percent in 2016 is equally observed.

6.4.2 Five key parameters

Five key parameters are thus outlined to validate the argument on the impact of rural developmental initiatives on rural development in South Africa. These discussed parameters are inclusive of social security, housing, electricity, water and sanitation. One of the most notable is social grants, which to many beneficiaries is perceived as the most impactful developmental intervention (initiative) (Macanda 2014; Ramovha 2016; Ngomane 2012).

6.4.2.1 Impact of rural development initiative: Social security

The percentage of persons and households that received social security services, also known as social grants between 2003 and 2017 is illustrated in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Proportion of individuals receiving Social security services

	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Persons	12.8m	19.5m	22.7m	27.3m	28.6m	30.3m	30.6m	30.8m
Households	30.8m	37.8m	39.4m	45m	43.5m	44.7m	44.6m	43.8m

Source: General House Survey (2017)

Note: 'm' signifies million

The proportion of beneficiaries on social grants steadily rose from 12.8 percent to 30.8 percent between 2003 and 2017. Similarly, the proportion of households receiving a minimum of one social grant rose from 30.8 percent to 43.8 percent under the same review period (General House Survey 2017: 27).

6.4.2.2 Impact of rural development initiative: State-subsidised housing

Table 6.6 below illustrates the percentage of households who received subsidised housing from the state between 2003 and 2017. However, this state-subsidised housing scheme has been often criticised due to the quality of the houses (Macanda 2014; Ramovha 2016; Ngomane 2012). Nonetheless, a sizeable proportion of citizens call it home.

Table 6.6: State-subsidised housing

	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Households	5.6	8.5	8.9	9.4	9.6	13.0	14.1	13.6
	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent

Source: General House Survey (2017)

As inferred from Table 6.6, between 2003 and 2017, the percentage of households who benefitted from the state-subsidised housing scheme rose from 6.3 percent to 13.6 percent in 2017.

6.4.2.3 Impact of rural development initiative: Electricity

The South African government, understanding the correlation between access to electricity and poverty, has over the last two decades made concerted efforts to address this critical backlog (Xu, Nthonto and Chowdhury 2016). Electricity is considered highly important as households use electricity for cooking, space heating, heating water and lighting, amongst other uses (General House Survey 2017: 32). Table 6.7 provides the percentages of households who had access to electricity between 2003 and 2017.

Table 6.7: Percentage of households connected with electricity

	2003	2005	2007	2009	2011	2013	2015	2017
Western Cape	89.2	92.5	96.1	89.3	85.9	88.9	89.8	86.6
	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent
Eastern Cape	57.8	68.1	70.0	69.9	76.6	81.6	82.7	85.4
	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	Percent

Northern Cape	79.4 percent	88.6 percent	88.8 percent	89.6 percent	91.3 percent	89.7 percent	92.4 percent	92.0 percent
Free State	84.4 percent	88.6 percent	88.0 percent	92.0 percent	93.8 percent	91.6 percent	89.0 percent	90.5 percent
KwaZulu- Natal	70.3 percent	72.6 percent	75.9 percent	76.3 percent	78.4 percent	80.0 percent	81.9 percent	82.9 percent
North West	85.4 percent	85.0 percent	85.2 percent	81.2 percent	86.5 percent	88.4 percent	84.1 percent	80.9 percent
Gauteng	87.3 percent	87.4 percent	80.3 percent	86.0 percent	81.8 percent	83.1 percent	82.6 percent	80.0 percent
Mpumalanga	81.1 percent	81.7 percent	85.3 percent	85.9 percent	87.7 percent	89.4 percent	87.4 percent	88.8 percent
Limpopo	75.4 percent	82.7 percent	86.5 percent	84.3 percent	90.9 percent	90.2 percent	92.8 percent	90.8 percent
South Africa	78.3 percent	80.8 percent	82.0 percent	82.6 percent	83.6 percent	85.2 percent	85.3 percent	84.4 percent

Source: General House Survey (2017)

As highlighted in Table 6.7, the national government has been able to increase access to electricity amongst households from 78.3 percent (in 2003) to 84. 4 percent (in 2017). Prior to 2003, less than 60 percentage of households within the Eastern Cape Province had access to electricity. Thus, it can be inferred from Table 6.7 that the most significant improvements

between 2003 and 2017 were observed amongst the Eastern Cape and Limpopo Provinces. On the contrary, access to electricity declined in Gauteng, Western Cape and the North West Provinces due to unprecedented in-migration (General House Survey 2017: 32).

6.4.2.4 Impact of rural development initiative: Access to water

Similar to electricity, access to water equally plays an integral role in the livelihood of households (Brettenny and Sharp 2016). More particularly, there exist a strong correlation between poverty and access to water (Department of Water Affairs and Sanitation 2016). Table 6.8 provides the percentages of households with access to water by province between 2003 and 2017 (General House Survey 2017: 35).

Table 6.8: Water access amongst households

	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012	2014	2016	2017
Western Cape	99.2 percent	99.4 percent	98.6 percent	98.8 percent	98.9 percent	98.9 percent	98.7 percent	98.7 percent
Eastern Cape	63.4 Percent	70.4 percent	70.8 percent	74.9 percent	79.2 percent	78.7 percent	76.4 percent	74.2 Percent
Northern Cape	93.2 Percent	95.4 percent	90.7 percent	94.1 percent	95.7 percent	96.0 percent	96.0 percent	96.0 Percent
Free State	95.0 percent	97.4 percent	97.6 percent	96.9 percent	96.6 percent	95.2 percent	93.2 percent	92.8 percent

KwaZulu-Natal	79.4 percent	81.4 percent	82.1 percent	84.1 percent	87.8 percent	87.0 percent	84.2 Percent	84.5 percent
North West	88.5 percent	90.8 percent	90.0 percent	91.0 percent	91.2 percent	87.2 percent	86.7 percent	85.8 percent
Gauteng	98.8 percent	98.8 percent	97.1 percent	97.2 percent	97.2 percent	96.5 percent	97.5 percent	97.1 percent
Mpumalanga	88.1 percent	88.9 percent	88.3 percent	88.1 percent	87.6 percent	87.2 percent	85.4 percent	85.5 percent
Limpopo	75.4 percent	80.7 percent	82.5 percent	84.0 percent	80.1 percent	79.6 percent	75.1 percent	74.7 percent
South Africa	86.5 percent	88.8 percent	88.7 percent	90.0 percent	90.9 percent	90.1 percent	89.0 percent	88.6 percent

Source: General House Survey (2017)

Table 6.8 reveals the overall improvement to access of water across the nine provinces. The greatest improvement observed herein is that of the Eastern Cape Province, whose households in 2004 only had 63.4 percent access to water and by 2012, 79.2 percent of households already had access. However, by 2017, water access in the Eastern Cape Province declined (again) to 74.2 percent. Statistics South Africa was however unable to pinpoint the cause of this decline (General House Survey 2017: 35).

6.4.2.5 Impact of rural development initiative: Sanitation

Adequate sanitation gives dignity to man (Choma and Ramphabana 2015). However, prior 2004, less than 40 percent of households in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo Provinces had access to dignified sanitation (General House Survey 2017: 41). Table 6.9 reveals households per province with access to sanitation, between 2004 and 2017.

Table 6.9: Households with improved sanitation

	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012	2014	2016	2017
Western Cape	91.8 Percent	95.2 percent	93.7 percent	96.7 percent	95.5 Percent	94.5 percent	94.3 percent	94.1 percent
Eastern Cape	38.5 percent	49.4 percent	54.9 percent	63.6 percent	70.0 Percent	78.2 percent	85.1 percent	85.3 Percent
Northern Cape	75.9 percent	76.9 percent	76.2 percent	83.7 percent	84.6 percent	83.9 percent	83.6 percent	87.7 percent
Free State	69.7 percent	71.8 percent	76.4 percent	83.4 percent	83.5 percent	83.8 percent	83.2 percent	85.1 percent
KwaZulu-Natal	58.5 percent	63.0 percent	62.8 percent	72.7 percent	68.0 percent	75.9 percent	77.2 percent	80.8 percent
North West	57.8 percent	54.4 percent	58.1 percent	66.5 percent	72.2 percent	67.0 percent	69.0 percent	71.3 percent
Gauteng	89.8	89.1	91.3	91.2	91.1	90.9	90.5	90.5

	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent
Mpumalanga	55.3	53.1	54.4	55.4	63.4	64.4	67.5	67.6
	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent
Limpopo	34.6	33.9	32.1	41.1	49.8	54.0	57.1	58.9
	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent
South Africa	65.9	68.3	70.0	75.4	77.0	79.5	81.0	82.2
	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent	percent

Source: General House Survey (2017)

The sanitation facilities implied herein are either flush toilets or pit toilets which have been connected to a sewerage or septic tank. As inferred from Table 6.9, the Eastern Cape (38.5 percent to 85.3 percent) and KwaZulu-Natal (58.5 percent to 80.8 percent) recorded the highest improvements, while nationally, access to sanitation amongst households increased from 65.9 percent in 2004 to 82.2 percent in 2017 (General House Survey 2017: 41).

6.4.3 Evidence from BRICS publication

The researcher further buttresses and substantiates the impact of governmental interventions (rural developmental initiatives) through a (recent) BRICS publication on features aligned to the standard of living. These parameters are indicated in Tables 6.10 and 6.11 respectively.

Table 6.10: Illiteracy and adult illiteracy between 2009 and 2016

	2009	2015	2016
Illiteracy rate	19.9	15.4	14.6
Adult illiteracy	5.9	5.0	4.2

Source: Adapted from BRICS Joint Statistical Publication (2017)

As inferred from Tables 6.10, the decline in illiteracy and adult illiteracy signifies that the populace became more literate between the years under review. Moreover, a better living conditions are demonstrated in Tables 6.11, through the provision of piped water and sewage within dwellings.

Tables 6.11: Selective data on living conditions

Classification of dwelling	2007	2009	2011	2015
Piped water within the dwelling	41.5	42.1	43.3	46.4
Piped/tap water within the dwelling or in the yard	72.5	70.4	73.4	73.1
Sewerage within the dwelling	57.9	57.0	59.2	62.6

Source: Adapted from BRICS Joint Statistical Publication (2017)

As deduced from Tables 6.11, between 2007-2015 more citizens had access to essential services within their dwellings.

6.4.4 Evidence from Community surveys

The study further extracts pertinent data from recent Community surveys of the Mpumalanga Province, Eastern Cape Province, as well as the KwaZulu-Natal Province. The motive of such extraction is to extract excerpts for the municipalities of Nkomazi Municipality, O R Tambo Municipality and the Mtubatuba Municipality, where the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are situated.

6.4.4.1 Mpumalanga Province

6.4.4.1.1 Housing in Mpumalanga Province

Comparisons between the 2011 national census and community surveys of 2016 indicate that there had been a general improvement in the type of dwelling amongst the households of Mpumalanga Province. Table 6.12 reveals a slight increase in the number of households residing in formal houses in Mpumalanga, while a decline was equally observed amongst households who were previously staying in traditional houses. Table 6.12 reflects a gradual increase amongst households that dwell in ‘informal dwellings’ and ‘others’. Such increases amongst ‘informal dwellings’ and ‘others’ are suggestive of increases in households that do not have decent accommodation (Statistics South Africa 2018c: 43)

Table 6.12: Type of dwelling in Mpumalanga Province

Type of main dwelling	Mpumalanga		South Africa	
	Census 2011	Community Survey 2016	Census 2011	Community Survey 2016
Formal dwelling	901 677	1 048 973	11 218 817	13 404 199
Traditional dwelling	48 284	39 992	1 139 894	1 180 745
Informal dwelling	116 806	135 039	1 962 709	2 193 968
Other	8698	14 747	128 244	142 271
Total	1 075 466	1 238 751	14 449 664	16 921 183

Source: Statistics South Africa (2018c)

Table 6.13 below further classifies types of dwellings amongst municipalities within the Mpumalanga Province.

Table 6.13: Type of dwelling per municipality (Mpumalanga)

Municipality	Formal dwelling	Traditional dwelling	Informal dwellings	Other	Total
	N	N	N	N	N
DC32: Ehlanzeni	444 933	8 108	26 860	3 965	484 864

MP321: Thaba Chweu	31 162	883	4 791	186	37 022
MP325: Bush- buckridge	131 66	3 353	1 099	649	136 767
MP324: Nkomazi	95 337	1 032	6 684	903	103 955
Mp326: City of Mbombela	186 769	2 839	14 286	2 227	206 120
Mpumalanga	1 048 973	33 992	135 039	14 747	1 238 751

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018c)

(Note - Dc – District municipality; Mp- municipality)

Table 6.13 reveals that a majority of households within this province have ‘formal dwellings’ (1 048 973). The Nkomazi municipality wherein Mgobodzi is situated has 1 032 households

with traditional dwellings, 6 684 households with informal dwellings and a further 903 households classified as ‘others’ (Statistics South Africa 2018c: 43). Such a high number of non-formal dwellings corroborates responses obtained during the focus group interviews, as participants did claim that the government was yet to provide them with RDP houses or government-subsidised houses.

As at the fourth quarter of 2017, 23.3 percent of households were either beneficiaries of government-subsidised (houses) or RDP houses. The majority of these beneficiaries were based within the Gauteng Province (31.4 percent), while the Mpumalanga Province (6.2 percent) had the lowest percentage of beneficiaries living in government-subsidised (houses) or RDP houses (Statistics South Africa 2018c: 44). This is suggestive that residents of this province need RDP or government-subsidised houses.

6.4.4.1.2 Access to drinking water in Mpumalanga Province

Amongst a total of 1 221 779 households within the Mpumalanga Province, an estimated 944 872 (77.3 percent) households had access to safe drinking water, while the remaining 276 908 (22.7 percent) do not have such access (Statistics South Africa 2018c: 48). Table 6.14 presents municipalities within the Ehlanzeni District Municipality that have access to safe drinking water. The proportion of households within the Nkomazi Municipality, as well as the entirety of the Mpumalanga Province with access to drinking water are equally illustrated (Statistics South Africa 2018c: 48).

Table 6.14: Access to safe drinking water in Mpumalanga Province

Municipality	Access to safe drinking water		No access to safe drinking Water		Total
	N	%	N	%	N
DC32: Ehlanzeni	380 015	79.9 percent	95 743	20.1 percent	475 758
MP321: Thaba Chweu	31 625	87.2	4 628	12.8	36 253
MP325: Bush-buckridge	104 059	77.9 percent	29 472	22.1 percent	133 531
MP324: Nkomazi	80 791	78.9 percent	21 666	21.1 percent	102 457

Mp326: City of Mbombela	163 540	80.4 percent	39 977	19.6 percent	203 517
Mpumalanga	944 872	77.3 percent	276 908	22.7 percent	1 221 779

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018c)

6.4.4.2 Eastern Cape Province

6.4.4.2.1 Housing in the Eastern Cape Province

Despite the proportion of household members living in formal (1 154 843) and traditional (471 699) dwellings, a significantly high number of residents of this province lack decent housing (Statistics South Africa 2018a: 48), particularly within the O.R Tambo District municipality where only 43.6 percent of households reside in formal houses. Such an assertion corroborates the response offered by the focus group participants who said that no RDP houses or government-subsidised houses were built in their community. Table 6.15 reflects the distribution of households by type of dwelling within the Eastern Cape Province.

Table 6.15: Type of dwelling in Eastern Cape Province

Municipality	Formal dwelling	Traditional dwelling	Informal dwellings	Other	Total
	N	N	N	N	N

DC10 Sarah Baartman	120 331	3 339	12 967	1 546	138 182
DC12 Amathole	119 571	82 013	11 332	818	213 734
DC13 Chris Hani	109 460	75 660	5 564	3 587	194 271
DC14 Joe Gqabi	66 225	24 367	4 116	399	95 107
DC15 O.R. Tambo	136 913	170 173	3 989	2 975	314 050
DC44 Alfred Nzo	83 543	104 679	4 447	3 285	195 954
BUF Buffalo City	177 913	10 600	62 980	1 944	253 437
NMA Nelson Mandela Bay	340 887	868	25 490	1 274	368 520
Eastern Cape	1 154 843	471 699	130 885	15 828	1 773 255

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018a)

Government-subsidised or RDP houses in the Eastern Cape

According to the Community survey (2016), only 22 percent of residents of the Eastern Cape Province reside in government-subsidised houses and RDP houses. As inferred from Table 6.15, the Sarah Baartman District Municipality has the highest proportion of government-subsidised/RDP houses (64.4 percent), while the O.R Tambo District Municipality where the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community is based has the lowest proportionate of government-subsidised houses/RDP houses (Statistics South Africa 2018a: 49). Table 6.19 highlight the distribution of households benefitting from the government-subsidised or RDP houses.

Table 6.16: Proportion of households living in government-subsidised/RDP houses

District	RDP/ Government-subsidised dwellings	
	Number	Percentage
DC10 Sarah Baartman	63 752	64.4 percent
DC12 Amathole	24 450	11.6 percent
DC13 Chris Hani	41 184	21.4 percent
DC14 Joe Gqabi	18 879	19.9 percent

DC15	O.R. Tambo	19 730	6.3 percent
DC44	Alfred Nzo	12 730	6.6 percent
BUF	Buffalo City	59 735	23.9 percent
NMA	Nelson Mandela Bay	146 094	40.2 percent
Eastern Cape		386 802	22.0 percent

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018a)

6.4.4.2.2 Access to safe drinking water in Eastern Cape Province

According to the Community survey (2016), 72.7 percent (1 277 288) of households within the Eastern Cape Province had access to safe drinking water, while 27.3 percent lacked access to safe drinking water. Amongst the districts within the Eastern Cape, Sarah Baartman ranks the highest percentage of households with access to safe drinking water (85.1 percent), while O.R Tambo where the community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini is situated, is ranked lowest (Statistics South Africa 2018a: 51).

Table 6.17: Access to safe drinking water in Eastern Cape

District	Access to safe drinking water		No access to safe drinking Water		Total
	N	%	N	%	N
DC10 Sarah Baartman	116 933	85.1 percent	20 508	14.9 percent	137 442
DC12 Amathole	157 833	74.9 percent	52 980	25.1 percent	210 813
DC13 Chris Hani	146 063	76.0 percent	46 017	24.0 percent	192 080
DC14 Joe Gqabi	68 280	72.7 percent	25 636	27.3 percent	93 916
DC15 O.R Tambo	133 977	42.9 percent	178 015	57.1 percent	311 991
DC44 Alfred Nzo	92 190	47.6 percent	101 485	52.4 percent	193 675
BUF Buffalo City	230 103	91.6 percent	21 204	8.4 percent	251 306
NMA Nelson Mandela Bay	331 908	90.5 percent	34 811	9.5 percent	366 719
Eastern Cape	1 277 288	72.7 percent	480 655	27.3 percent	1 757 943

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018a)

6.4.4.3 KwaZulu-Natal Province

6.4.4.3.1 Housing in the KwaZulu-Natal Province

Table 6.18 reflects the distribution of households by type of dwelling within the KwaZulu-Natal Province. As evidenced in Table 6.18, the proportion of households living in formal houses, traditional houses and informal houses all increased during the 2011 census and the community survey held in 2016. On the contrary, dwelling type classified as ‘others’ declined from 26 263 in 2011 to 20 166 in 2016 (Statistics South Africa 2018b: 57).

Table 6.18: Type of dwelling in KwaZulu-Natal Province

Type of main dwelling	KwaZulu-Natal		South Africa	
	Census 2011	Community Survey 2016	Census 2011	Community Survey 2016
Formal dwelling	1 818 246	2 090 067	11 218 817	13 404 199
Traditional dwelling	483 288	520 244	1 139 894	1 180 745
Informal dwelling	211 540	245 167	1 962 709	2 193 968
Other	26 263	20 166	128 244	142 271
Total	2 539 337	2 875 645	14 449 664	16 921 183

Source: Statistics South Africa (2018b)

6.4.4.3.2 Access to safe drinking water in the KwaZulu-Natal Province

The Community survey (2016) shows that 81 percent of households within the KwaZulu-Natal Province had access to safe drinking water, while 19 percent lacked access to safe drinking water. Amongst the districts within KwaZulu-Natal, eThekweni ranks the highest percentage of households with access to safe drinking water (91 percent), while

uMkhanyakude where the community of Gunjaneni is situated is ranked lowest (Statistics South Africa 2018b: 65).

Table 6.19: Access to safe drinking water in uMkhanyakude (KwaZulu-Natal)

Municipality	Access to safe drinking water		No access to safe drinking Water		Total
	N	%	N	%	N
DC27: uMkhanyakude	81 221	55.5 percent	65 137	44.5 percent	146 357
KZN271: uMhlabuyalingana	23 351	60.7 percent	15 113	39.3 percent	38 464
KZN272: Jozini	21 065	49.2 percent	21 758	50.8 percent	42 823
KZN275: Mtubatuba	21 570	52.4 percent	19 587	47.6 percent	41 158
KZB276: Big Five Hlabisa	15 234	63.7 percent	8 679	36.3 percent	23 913
KwaZulu-Natal	2 310 87	81.0 percent	541 040	19.0 percent	2 851 627

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2018b)

Tables 6.12; 6.13, 6.14, 6.15, 6.16, 6.17, 6.18 and 6.19, attempt to pinpoint backlogs amongst the provinces of Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal as a means to further accentuate the areas in need of development amongst these communities, which are often rural communities.

To further emphasise the correlation between rural developmental initiatives and rural development in South Africa, the researcher outlines some specific successes achieved in recent years by the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (NDRDLR). These are outlined as follows (NDRDLR 2017):

- Through the Agri-Parks initiative, three Agri-Hubs were established to transform rural economies. These three Agri-Hubs were established in the Sprinbokpan of the North Western Province; the Brandvllei community in the Gauteng Province; as well as the Ncora community of the Eastern Cape Province.
- Between 1994 and 2016, more than 20 million citizens benefited from the 4.3 million housing scheme by the Department of Human Settlements (Statistics South Africa 2017: 8).
- As an employment generation and capacitation mechanism, the National Rural Youth Services Corps (NARYSEC) enrolled 2 711 youths into its programme in 2017.
- A total of 834 134 hectares of land was acquired by the NDRDLR, wherein support was offered to 712 067 subsistence farmers.
- A total of 10 271 historically disadvantaged farmers were provided with access to water for agricultural production, while another 2 000 water-use licences were provided to small scale farmers for irrigation purposes.
- 33 341 subsistence farmers were provided with incentives to aid their penetration and access to market.

- There was the establishment of more than a million institutional and community gardens.
- Through the Food for All Programme, an estimated 2.8 million deserving citizens were provided with food.
- Through the School Nutrition Programme, an estimated nine million students were provided with meals while in school.
- Through infrastructural development, a total of 503 365 households gained access to clean and drinkable water.
- One million households gained access to sanitation, while a further 11 million households gained access to electricity, and
- 408 231 households benefitted from the re-allotment of 3.38 million hectares of land through the Commission for the Restitution of Land Rights.

Regardless of these successes, it may be rather premature for rural development stakeholders to breathe a sigh of relief over the feats recorded over the last two decades as communities such as Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini, Gunjaneni and a host of other rural communities still wallow in a state of under-development and poverty. The time of realism has set in for rural development stakeholders to implement more proactive interventions in addressing the awful spectre of under-development and poverty epitomised amongst these rural communities.

6.5 Nexus between rural developmental initiatives and poverty alleviation in post-apartheid South Africa

The central theme in South Africa's rural developmental approach had always been 'poverty' (Okunlola, Ngubani, Cousins and du Toit 2016; Bank and Minkley 2005; Karriem and Hoskins 2016). Thus, the South African government occasionally measures the prospects of

rural development by the proportion of individuals or number of households lifted out of poverty (Karriem and Hoskins 2016). In similar manner, this sub-section attempts to quantify the prospects (successes) of rural development initiatives via highlighting the percentage of households within the area of study that have been lifted out of poverty.

However, a limitation to this is that a number of external factors (macro-economic variables) and non-governmental entities equally play a contributory role in tackling poverty amongst these communities (Seekings and Natrass 2015; Rogan 2015). This sub-section thus excludes these factors and only focuses on governmental initiatives.

To proceed with such discourse, the study rewinds to 2001 when the South African government through its Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) identified '13 rural nodes'. These 13 rural nodes were earmarked as communities that were 'underdeveloped' and requiring accelerated development. The features of these communities were inclusive of high incidences of 'extreme' poverty; poor infrastructure and services; pitiable living conditions; poor access to communication as well as an implausible unemployment rate. The occupants of these rural nodes were predominantly black Africans (Statistics South Africa 2016b: 1).

The extent of poverty amongst these identified rural nodes has created much attention amongst governmental stakeholders. These governmental entities, alongside beneficiaries, have followed up on the flow of funds into these rural nodes, with the anticipation of wanting to know if these said initiatives will truly improve the standard of living of beneficiaries, while alleviating poverty (David, Guilbert, Hamaguchi, Higashi, Hino, Leibbrandt and Shifa 2018; Omotoso and Koch 2018).

As time passed, the government saw the need to increase these 13 rural nodes to ‘18 rural nodes’ in need of drastic developmental transformation. These rural nodes were spread across seven provinces amongst the nine. These 18 rural nodes are outlined in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20: 18 rural nodes in need of accelerated development

Province	Nodal area
Western Cape	Central karoo (1)
Northern Cape	John Taolo Gaetsewe (2)
Eastern Cape	O R Tambo (3) Alfred Nzo (4) Joe Gqabi (5) Chris Hani (6) Amathole (7)
Free State	Thabo Mofutsanyane (8)
KwaZulu-Natal	UMkhanyakude (9) Zululand (10) UThukela (11) uMzinyathi (12) uMgungundlovu (13) Sisonke (14) Ugu (15)
Mpumalanga	Ehlanzeni (16)
Limpopo	Mopani (17) Greater Sekhukhune (18)

Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2016b)

Notably, the communities of Mgobodzi (Ehlanzeni), Lusikisiki Mcobothini (O R Tambo), and Gunjaneni (uMkhanyakude) are amongst these 18 nodal areas. As inferred from Table 6.20, KwaZulu-Natal has the highest number of rural nodes (seven); next in rank to this is the Eastern Cape (five); followed by Limpopo (two); while the Mpumalanga, Free State, Northern Cape and Western Cape Provinces all have one rural node each. Only the provinces of Gauteng and the North West provinces are devoid of rural nodal areas.

Thus, the poverty discourse herein is further continued by showing the poverty trend amongst these rural nodes in the years 2001, 2011 and 2016. This is illustrated in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21: Poverty indicators amongst 18 rural nodes (Headcount)

s/n	Nodal area	2001	2011	2016
1	Central karoo	6.2 %	2.4%	3.1%
2	John Taolo Gaetsewe	28.6%	11.4%	12.3%
3	O R Tambo	43.6%	21.1%	19.2%
4	Alfred Nzo	44.7%	25.6%	22.0%
5	Joe Gqabi	34.0%	16.8%	13.4%
6	Chris Hani	32.0%	15.6%	16.4%
7	Amathole	34.9%	18.7%	18.7%
8	Thabo Mofutsanyane	21.1%	7.1%	7.0%
9	uMkhanyakude	40.1%	20.4%	15.7%
10	Zululand	30.3%	12.9%	10.4%
11	UThukela	27.0%	13.7%	10.1%
12	uMzinyathi	42.5%	23.7%	15.5%

13	uMgungundlovu	17.4%	7.7%	5.9%
14	Sisonke	36.8%	19.3%	14.3%
15	Ugu	28.3%	15.1%	11.9%
16	Ehlanzeni	22.1%	8.9%	7.8%
17	Mopani	25.6%	11.3%	13.1%
18	Greater Sekhukhune	22.1%	11.3%	13.6%
	South Africa	17.9%	8.0%	7.0%

Source: Statistics South Africa (2019b)

(The above data was generated from personnel at Statistics South Africa on the 4th of April, 2019, and was forwarded to Researcher upon request).

The above Table 6.21 shows 18 rural nodes of South Africa plagued with extreme poverty. As inferred herein, incidences of poverty declined amongst all these rural nodes. Amongst these rural nodes, the most significant reduction in poverty headcount was noted in the Thabo Mofutsanyane District (Free State). This nodal area was able to achieve a 66.4 percent reduction in poverty headcount between 2001 and 2011. Similar trends were observed in the other 17 rural nodes, but not as drastic as that of the Thabo Mofutsanyane District. In the Ehlanzeni District of Mpumalanga where the Mgobodzi is situated, poverty headcounts were reduced by 59.6 percent between 2001 and 2011, while the O R Tambo District (Lusikisiki Mcobothini), and uMkhanyakude (Gunjaneni) had their poverty headcounts drop between 30-45 percent within the same period. It is also noteworthy that despite these gains, insignificant changes were observed in uMkhanyakude, O R Tambo, Alfred Nzo as well as the Sisonke Districts, which still rank amongst the most poverty stricken communities in South Africa (Statistics South Africa 2017).

The preceding discussion and statistical findings suffice as evidence to the claim that rural development initiatives of post-apartheid have inversely impacted on poverty amongst the 18 rural nodes which are alleged to be amongst the most poverty-stricken areas (regions) in South Africa.

However, when the LBPL was used as a parameter to measuring poverty amongst South African citizens who resided in urban and rural communities, a contradictory result was noted. The LCS results of 2014/2015 indicate that an estimated 21.9 million (40 percent of the population) citizens were living below the Lower Bound Poverty Line in 2015. This indicates an increment from the 36.4 percent figure of 2011. Invariably, to achieve the NDP 2030 target, the percentage of citizens living below the Lower Bound Poverty Line has to decrease by 2.67 percent, consistently for the next 12 years (Statistics South Africa 2017: 17).

Between 2006 and 2011, some progress was made on poverty alleviation campaigns. However, post-2011, South Africa began to side-track on its campaign efforts as level of poverty began to increase (using the LBPL). Thus, planners were compelled to strategise in reducing poverty at a much faster pace than previously projected. As inferred from the figures of Statistics South Africa (2017: 18), there was some disparity between levels of poverty amongst population groups and gender. In particular, *'black African females, children (17 years and younger), people from rural areas, those living in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo and those with no education are the main victims in the ongoing struggle against poverty'* (Statistics South Africa 2017: 18).

The discourse of this section is further accentuated in Chapter 8 (see Section 8.3.2), wherein the researcher juxtaposes rural developmental initiatives with poverty from a purely empirical perspective.

6.6 Local governance and rural developmental initiatives

The current sub-section further protracts the narrative contained in Section 3.9 (in Chapter 3) of this study - *Local governance and rural development*. While serving as a continuum to Section 3.9, it equally creates an intermesh with Section 8.3.3 (in Chapter 8) – *Capacity of local government (Councillors) in implementing initiatives*. In eluding a tautological narrative of Chapter 3, this sub-section's focal point accentuates two prominent features: 'capacity' and 'resources' of local government (Councillor). This sub-section further explores the nexus between 'capacitation', 'resources' and 'rural developmental initiatives'. Through this sub-section, the researcher also makes an attempt to make a blithe linkage to the study's second objective – *'to evaluate the capacity of local government to implement rural developmental initiatives'*.

As indicated by a variety of qualitative and quantitative inferences (Bekker and Mashaba 2018; Neves 2017; Binswanger-Mkhize 2014; Casidra 2019; Karriem and Hoskins 2016), resource constraints have always been identified as one of the most prominent challenges undermining the effectual implementation of rural development initiatives. From a global and national context, the second or third tier, as in the case of South Africa, is often the weakest level of governance (Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 240). This third tier of government, 'local government', is often poorly resourced (Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 240; Bakre and Dorasamy 2018; Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge 2008: 18). Flato, Muttarak and Pelsier (2017) partly attributes this under-resourced state of local governments to the poor tax base. Rural municipalities in particular often have a relatively low tax base. Although rural municipalities provide services such as electricity, water and refuse disposal to households, some of these households do not pay utilities. This may have been a viable source of revenue for rural municipalities. Unfortunately, a sizeable portion of these household members are unemployed. Hence, neither do they pay for utilities, nor do they pay taxes (Caitlin,

Ravallion and van de Walle 2017; Du Toit, de Witte, Rothmann and van den Broeck 2018). The fiscal concern faced by rural municipalities is often accentuated by their geographical location, where affluent areas benefit from a more robust and viable tax base in comparison to poor areas. This implies that such wealthy areas receive more tax revenues and can spend more (Brettigny and Sharp 2016; Flato, Muttarak and Pelsier 2017; Hundenborn, Leibbrandt and Woolard 2016; Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge 2008: 22). These fiscal discrepancies are often heightened by the countless needs of the poor areas. Chilenga (2017); De Kadt and Larreguy (2018); and Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge (2008: 52) are of the view that in creating viable rural municipalities, further support should be offered to Councillors and officials, alongside other prominent state actors amongst these rural communities, and not just a mere imposition of 'revised manuals' and sophisticated policies. Such support may be actualised through asking the Councillors, state actors and community members *their own questions and generating their own answers* (Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge 2008: 52).

Further to the above discourse, the revenue-raising capacity of rural municipalities is often dependent on levies paid by few commercial entities, or service payments which often do not correlate with the dearth induced by infrastructural deficit and service delivery backlogs (Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge 2008: 118; Hendriks 2013; Manamela, Maake and Meso 2016). Gumede (2016) also raises a capacity-related concern in actualising rural development initiatives. He notes the complexity involved in this, as successful rural development initiatives need to be driven by appropriate decisions, commitments, countenance, actions and attitudes within and outside the rural municipality. Goldman *et al.* (2015) further expounds that these variables should be cautiously infused and synchronised in a rational and cost-effective fashion in order to achieve effectual rural developmental initiatives.

The post-apartheid government over the last two decades has continuously pushed for municipalities that are administratively and financially viable. However, while some urban municipalities (metros) such as the City of Tshwane, eThekweni, City of Cape Town, Buffalo City and Nelson Mandela Bay have consistently achieved this feat, a majority of rural municipalities are yet to attain similar viability (Gumede 2016; Hundenborn, Leibbrandt and Woolard 2016). Invariably, the degree of capacitation amongst the main actors at local government has a correlation with the administrative and financial viability of local governance (De Kadt and Larreguy 2018; Hundenborn, Leibbrandt and Woolard 2016).

The capacity of local government no doubt also has a bearing on the success or failure of rural developmental initiatives (Bekker and Mashaba 2018; Hendriks 2013). Capacity as conceptualised by Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge (2008: 280) is the *structural, functional and cultural ability to implement the policy objectives of the government, ie the ability to deliver these public services aimed at raising the quality of life of citizens, which the government has set out to deliver effectively, as planned over time (in a durable way)*. Parnell, Pieterse, Swilling and Wooldridge (2008: 280) also describe capacity as the *availability of, and access to, concrete or tangible resources (human, financial, material, technological, logistical)*. *Capacity also includes the intangible requirements of leadership, motivation, commitment, willingness, guts, endurance and other attributes needed to transform rhetoric in action*. Going by the above descriptions and explanations to ‘capacity’, South African analysts and commentators such as De Kadt and Larreguy (2018); Jacobs, Rivett and Chemisto (2019) and Manamela, Maake and Meso (2016) are of the view that such capacitation still lacks amongst local actors within South Africa’s rural municipalities.

Further to this discourse on the nexus between local government and rural developmental initiatives is the critique put forward by Haeruddin, Edy and Ummul (2018). Haeruddin *et al.* (2018) attributes the failure of rural developmental initiatives to the ‘exogenous’ approach

being adopted at different phases of these initiatives, and not to the capacity or competence of local government. He writes that, the ‘top-down’ or ‘external’ driven approach has often given leeway to external entities that may not fully grasp the dynamics of the rural community such a plan is designed for. As specified by the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (2017), rural development initiatives are to be designed and coordinated at regional level or provincial level, with consultations with stakeholders at local districts and municipalities. However, such consultation often does not occur due to time constraints. Furthermore, in a number of circumstances, the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (NDRDLR) excludes the local and provincial governments in its consultation process due to time and resource constraint (Goldman *et al.* 2015).

On the contrary, the ‘endogenous’ approach has been effectual amongst rural developmental initiatives in India, Bangladesh and Nigeria (Singh and Govender 2016; Oyesanmi 2016; Panday 2018). Exemplifying with Panday’s (2018: 129-131) study, a description is being made on how partnerships with an NGO through the ‘endogenous’ approach were used in strengthening local government; used to curtail corruption; played an integral role towards the success of a rural development initiative; and also provided a platform to marginalised women.

Thus, as inferred from multiple sources (Cousins, Dubb, Hornby and Mtero 2018; Stull, Bell and Ncwadi 2016: 378; Schneider 2016; Rogerson and Nel 2016; Mushongera, Zikhali, and Ngwenya 2017; Seekings and Nattrass 2015; Lephakga 2013; Douglas 2018), local (rural) municipalities in South Africa are often not sufficiently capacitated, nor do they possess sufficient resources to implement rural development initiatives (effectively).

6.7 Critique and Challenges attributed to rural development initiatives

A variety of sources have critiqued rural developmental initiatives from several angles. The narrative herein will however pursue the most re-occurring sentiments echoed by renowned authors within the rural developmental spectrum.

First amongst these critiques is made by Karriem and Hoskins (2016), who argues that the inability to align a ‘current’ rural developmental initiative with a ‘newly’ launched rural developmental initiative has been a critical concern pinpointed amongst developmental analyst (Neves 2017; Hendricks 2013; Goldman et al 2015). Exemplifying this is the Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity (1995), which was unable to metamorphosis into the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) (1996), nor was GEAR able to metamorphosis into the Rural Development Framework (1997) (Ndhambi 2015). Such non-alignment or continuum or linkage of one initiative to the other has impeded the developmental pace amongst rural communities (Labuschagne 2015).

Another deficiency attributed to rural developmental initiatives, with peculiar reference to the CRDP, is the mis-conceptualisation of its vision: “*create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities*”. This could be misleading as rural communities in South Africa may be slightly adjudged to be heterogeneous, as needs across rural communities of South Africa may vary at different points in time (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014). For instance, dissimilarities may exist as regards the extent of poverty, gender dominance or level of education. Some of these factors may adversely or inversely impact on community members’ level of participation (Friedman 2006). Thus, such generalisation made by the CRDP clearly does not take cognisance of possibilities/ leeways to differential needs within the same community, or conflict due to varying political views/ ideology, power differences or antagonism (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014).

Further to this rhetoric, rural development analysts have often criticised the ‘Job Model contained in the CRDP’. This criticism is premised upon the intent of the CRDP to provide employment opportunities for ‘*one person per household*’ over a two-year period (NDRDLR 2016). This is perceived as an over-ambitious goal due to the declining employment opportunities in the agricultural sector, infrastructural deficits and constricting employment opportunities across rural communities in South Africa (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014).

Moreover, rural developmental initiatives in South Africa revolve amongst a variety of stakeholders due to their multi-faceted nature. A number of governmental and non-governmental stakeholders are involved prior to the inception phase, planning, budgeting, as well as while executing these rural developmental initiatives. These stakeholders cut across the three spheres of government – Legislative, Judiciary and Executive. Strong coordination is equally imperative amongst the national, provincial and district departments/ units for the smooth running of these initiatives (Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation 2016). The lack of ‘synergy’ amongst these stakeholders has no doubt been detrimental and adversely impacted on rural developmental initiatives (Labuschagne 2015).

The NDRDLR has been charged with the coordination and mobilisation of funds as regards implementing the CRDP, but lacks the constitutional mandate to instruct or direct other departments that are out of its domain (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014; Russon 2012). This non-instructive or directive authority impedes the implementation of these initiatives. The DPLG (2009) identifies a lack of synergy as the main failure of the ISRDP. For instance, ‘*Ministers of equivalent seniority would not account to someone at the same level*’. Additionally, each department working alongside the DRDLR had their priorities and set target. Such departments often prioritised their respective targets in accordance with their budget. Thus, oftentimes, the prioritised projects amongst respective departments often hindered the overall pace of the national developmental agenda (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014; Goldman, Mathe, Jacob,

Hercules, Amisi, Buthelezi, Narsee, Ntakumba and Sadan 2015; Russon 2012; Karriem and Hoskins 2016).

Further evidence to the ‘lack of coordination’ is observed in the repetition of rural developmental initiative(s) by different units within governmental departments. This demonstrates a clear indication of poor synergy and inapt coordination of rural developmental initiatives (Labuschagne 2015). Furthermore, this implies poor utilisation of scarce resources (funds and personnel) (Fosu 2017; Jacobs, Rivett and Chemisto 2019).

Since rural development initiatives are implemented at grassroots level (local municipality), it becomes imperative that such should be designed in accordance to the municipalities’ Integrated Development Plan (DRDLR 2009; Meyer 2014; Meyer 2013). The DRDLR (2009) notes that the CRDP specifies in its framework that rural developmental initiatives are to be designed and coordinated at the provincial level, while consultations should be held with representatives (Councillors) from rural communities. Such consultation often does not take place due to time constraint and the cumbersomeness of actualising this form of meetings. This concern is further complicated as there are no clear mandates of Councillors or local actors in these rural development initiatives (Meyer 2014; Meyer 2013; Siyo-Pepeteka 2014).

Stakeholder involvement is often advocated in a number of rural developmental initiatives. However, the NDRDLR often acts as the ‘*initiator, facilitator, coordinator and catalyst for rural development*’. Thus, the NDRDLR (often) takes ownership of the entire process (Ruhiiga 2013). For instance, while playing the initiator role, the NDRDLR formulates projects for rural communities. As a facilitator, it drives these initiatives and provides

expertise where such rural communities do not possess such expertise. While as a coordinator, it coordinates policies/ approaches while also mobilising funds and other necessary resources. Furthermore, as a catalyst, the NDRDLR attempts to transform rural communities through the establishment of policies and initiatives that could result in a sustainable and viable rural space (Ruhiiga 2013). Thus, such ownership taken by the NDRDLR often results in situations whereby rural community members who are expected to take ownership of development in their domain, then become mere spectators (Morford, Robinson, Mazzoni, Corbett and Schaiberger 2004; Ngamlana and Mathoho 2012; Leabua 2015).

Despite governmental support which has come through policies and enormous spending on initiatives, a majority of the rural developmental initiatives are not functioning as planners anticipated (Goldman, Mathe, Jacob, Hercules, Amisi, Buthelezi, Narsee, Ntakumba and Sadan 2015; Russon 2012; Karriem and Hoskins 2016). Consequently, the demarcations between the Department of Agriculture and Department of Rural Development are becoming blurred. This has often led to duplication of some initiatives by these two governmental departments. For instance, the Council of Stakeholders already duplicates the current IDP processes of local municipalities (Mare 2016).

Another worrisome concern noted in this study is the long-aged rural developmental challenges which seem never to be resolved. For instance, ‘capacitation’ as a hindrance to rural developmental initiatives was a core issue raised 20 years ago (Makgata 1999: 44). Embarrassingly, ‘capacitation’ still remains a cogent issue at present (NDRDLR 2018). Moreover, ‘lack of coordination’ amongst government departments was an issue 10 years ago, and the same challenge is still eminent today (NDRDLR 2018).

The scale of challenges attributed to the implementation of rural developmental initiatives (CRDP) have often seemed to exhaust the capacity or resources availed to local government to initiate a forward-thinking agendum in addressing these dilemmas. Notwithstanding, a number of key lessons are learnt over the years from the implementation of these rural developmental initiatives. Some of these are discussed in the following sub-section.

6.8 Lessons learnt from rural development initiatives

As far back as the Carnegie Commission of the 1929s till the more recent CRDP of 2009, a number of key lessons have been learnt. This sub-section thus makes an attempt to synthesis some of the lessons learnt amongst these pro-poverty/ rural developmental initiatives. A good starting point to this discussion will be the Poverty Alleviation Strategy Plan (PASP), which instigated new forms of policy development. The PASP positioned poverty alleviation as an integral function of the national, provincial and local government, wherein representatives of rural communities should be consulted (Stull, Bell and Ncwadi 2016; Chilenga 2017). Such a gradual shift from the macro-economic approach to a grassroots based strategy has proven to be effectual in the the war on poverty. However, the government was unable to sustain this approach due to resource constraints (Twala 2012: 219; Jacobs, Rivett and Chemisto 2019). Hence, probably more funding or a sustainable funding mechanism/ path may gear up the rural developmental growth path.

The high expectations of beneficiaries often pressurize government to provide infrastructure and services. Such pressure has an adverse consequence on the sustainability of infrastructure and services, as government is pushed to expend enormous amounts of money on such concerns, while giving less priority to the allocation of funds for capacity building and training of people using, operating and maintaining these infrastructures and services

(Stull, Bell and Newadi 2016; Chilenga 2017). Maake (2017), Schoeman (2019) and Twala (2012: 219) also note that service delivery investment was being strongly influenced by service backlogs, and too little by the long-term ecological carrying capacity and economic potential of different areas.

On-going and future rural development initiatives should synergise an ‘expiring’ rural developmental initiative to the ‘newly’ launched one. Lack of continuity has often resulted in the duplication or termination of rural developmental initiatives. Some initiatives have been adjudged successful by governmental and non-governmental stakeholders. A deeper retrospection is required into such successful initiatives as a means of identifying ‘what was done right’?, and how such an approach may be replicated amongst rural communities with homogenous features.

Another lesson from previous rural developmental initiatives was the ineffectual usage of data (Anikin, and Tikhonova 2016; Barne and Wadhwa 2018; Brettenny and Sharp 2016). The vital statistics used in China were used to identify the specific demographics of the poor rural populace, thus assertive decisions were followed through (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017; Long and Liu 2016). However, one reason why the effectual usage of statistical records has not been actualised in South Africa is due to the usual ‘late release of the most recent Statistical records’ by Statistics South Africa (Statistics South Africa 2016c). A further lesson learnt and worth discussing is the planning of unrealistic projects or White elephant projects. Some such initiatives are initiated but due to their capital intensity and needfulness for political willingness, many of such initiatives are abandoned (Sushma, Shashikant and Aishwarya 2019; Swilling, Musango and Wakeford 2015). This non-completion trend or abandonment (of initiatives) also occurs in instances where a new government/political party/

councillor assumes office. He may decide to discontinue an initiative initiated by a predecessor.

Strydom, Mangope and Henama (2018) also raises the concern of the ‘non-prioritisation’ of communal needs when implementing initiatives. Rather, the national government rolls out an initiative, which is implemented across a variety of rural communities. Such rolled out initiatives may be top priority to community ‘J’, while it is of no significance to community ‘X’. One such example may be the construction of a Taxi rank, while the topmost priority of such a community is electrification. A final thought this sub-section raises is the concern of ‘resource management and accountability’. The laxity of these concerns have significantly veered rural developmental initiatives from their desired goal or developmental growth path.

The key lessons highlighted in this sub-section are further accentuated in the final chapter (see 9.4).

6.9 Conclusion

Both theoretical and empirical evidence does suggest optimism in the pro-poverty drive by the South African government (NDRDLR). Setting the LBPL (lower-bound poverty line) as a poverty yardstick, the incidence of poverty has dropped from 51 percent to 40 percent between 2006 and 2015, which implies a better livelihood for an estimated 3 million South Africans. Rural developmental analysts have often faced difficulty in obtaining a timely and accurate measurement of poverty due to the series of economic robustness as well as economic de-acceleration between 1994 and present (David *et al.* 2018). This unassertiveness has further been accentuated by the occasional late release of data by Statistics South Africa, which often places an embargo on its recent statistical reports. The South African developmental approach is that premised upon accelerating rural development through the agrarian approach, while others (internationally) had begun to veer away from this agrarian

approach (Daniels, Partridge, Kekana and Musundwa 2013: 10; Mbatha and Masuku 2018; Blair, Shackleton and Mograbi 2018). While enormous resources are being expended on a variety of rural developmental initiatives by the NDRDLR, factors such as policy uncertainty, poor intellectual capacity, under resourcedness of local municipalities, political unwillingness, lack of capacitation, unethical practices, lack of monitoring, leadership vacuum, poor accountability, poor management of resources and widespread of illiteracy amongst beneficiaries have been identified as some of the prominent concerns obstructing the success of these rural developmental initiatives.

None of the rural development initiatives can be applauded to serve as a full antidote to poverty. Notwithstanding, a general concession amongst rural developmental analyst is that the CRDP can be adjudged as one of the most effectual pro-poverty agendum instigated in South Africa since the dawn of democracy (Labuschagne 2015; Ramovha 2016). The CRDP is said to have made a *leap from paralysis to action* in its pro-poverty drive. The researcher having set the pace and direction of this rhetoric through relevant literature – ‘secondary source’, the next chapter thus introduces the methodology which provides a detailed account of how the primary sources were sourced.

CHAPTER SEVEN – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.1 Introduction

Having provided content within the parameters of the study's aim and objectives, this chapter proceeds by discussing the research methodology. In this chapter, methods and techniques used in conducting the research are described. This chapter focuses on the data collection methods and instruments, sampling strategy, as well as the sample population. Aspects such as inclusive and exclusive criteria, confidentiality and anonymity, ethical clearance and the limitation of the study are also discussed.

7.2 Research methodology

Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2013: 5) define research methodology as a systematic manner of tackling a problem. They further mention that it is the art of studying how research should be conducted, which entails the processes the investigator uses in describing, explaining and forecasting phenomena. Rajasekar *et al.* (2013: 5) also assert that a research methodology provides the guide and specific work plan to a study, with the intent of acquiring some information.

7.3 Research design/ approach

Burns and Grove (2001: 223) describe a research design as a master plan of a study that enhances control over the factors that can possibly undermine the validity of the results. Mouton (1996: 175) provides a similar definition of the research design when he asserts that it "*serves to plan, structure and execute the research to maximise the validity of the findings*". Hence, it can be deduced from both definitions that research design is the "*actualisation of logic*" in a set of processes which augments the validity of facts for a specific research problem.

Research centred around rural development is often multifaceted. Hence, the involvement of key roleplayers and beneficiaries is imperative. In consonance with this, the researcher used a mixed research approach, whereby both qualitative and quantitative approaches were utilised in gathering relevant data. This study also applied a multiple case study approach. As postulated by Yin (2003) cited by Baxter and Jack (2008: 548), the multiple case study allows an in-depth exploration amongst cases, as well as within identified cases. He further posits that this approach enables a researcher to forecast similar outcomes between cases and could also predict dissimilar outcomes based on a theory. Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao (2011: 2) further describe the multiple case study as a variant which comprises “*two or more observations of the same phenomenon*”...that is, it allows the researcher to utilise “*multiple cases to independently confirm emerging constructs and propositions*”. Lewis-Beck *et al.* (2011: 2) are of the opinion that the results emerging from multiple case studies are more robust. This assertion is concurred with by Bengtsson (1999: 3) who asserts that multiple case studies are used in preference to single case studies as they produce more robust findings. Thus, the mixed methods serve as the primary study design, while the multiple case study suffices as the actual data collection method.

Objectives of the study were addressed by conducting structured interviews amongst personnel of the National Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs and government officials of Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga), Mtubatuba Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal) and Ingquza Municipality (Eastern Cape). Moreover, rural developmental analysts were interviewed. To have a more comprehensive and detailed understanding of rural challenges, the beneficiaries of the rural developmental initiatives were involved. Questionnaires were administered amongst 600 community members from the three municipalities mentioned earlier. However, only 533 questionnaires were completed by participants. The remaining 67 questionnaires were void as participants did not answer every

question, while some of the questionnaires were completely ignored in a few cases. However, the researcher ensured a minimum of 533 questionnaires were completed as a means of achieving the minimal sample size as illustrated in Table 7.2. Furthermore, the researcher conducted focus-group interviews amongst 44 community members from these three communities as a means of triangulating information gathered through structured interviews and questionnaires from the aforementioned participants (Cresswell 2003:2; Patton 2002: 42).

In addition to the above, the researcher utilised attributes of Participatory Action Research, the Participatory Communication Approach and Self-mobilisation, as discussed in Chapter 2.

7.4 Population/ target population

Polit and Hungler (1999:37) define ‘population’ as an entirety of all participants who fit into a set of specifications, while Sekaran (2006: 265) describes the target population as population of interest to which a researcher intends to apply the research results to. The target population and the entirety of the population is not being studied as the participants are homogenous. Furthermore, it will not be feasible to involve the entirety of the population due to a limitation of resources. The population in this study are the Provinces of Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. These provinces have been identified as the communities within each province that rank amongst the most poverty-stricken communities of South Africa (Westaway 2010: 3-5; Public Service Commission 2009: 54-55). The target populations are the communities of Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga), Ingquza Municipality (Eastern Cape) and Mtubatuba Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal).

Table 7.1: Target population (Questionnaires)

	Description	Zone	Estimated population
Population	The population from which the target population will be drawn	Mpumalanga Province	4,283,900
		(Nkomazi Municipality)	(393,030)
		Eastern Cape Province	6,916,200
		(Ingquza Municipality)	278,481
		KwaZulu-Natal Province	10,919,100
Target population	The general population that the study seeks to understand	(Mtubatuba Municipality)	(175,425)
		Mgobodzi	< 5,500
		Lusikisiki-	< 7,000
		Mcobothini	< 5,000
		Gunjaneni	

Source: Statistics South Africa (2016)

Note: the population figures are those given by Stats SA as at mid-2016

Questionnaires were completed by a total of 533 individuals, whereby 177 (Mgobodzi), 173 (Lusikisiki Mcobothini) and 183 (Gunjaneni) participants were selected respectively from the three communities. Questionnaires were administered to obtain participants' (independent) views and experiences on rural development initiatives. The main intent of the questionnaire involvement is to eliminate any form of intimidation (of participants) by their community members, politicians or any government officials as it is anticipated that some amongst the participants of the study will criticise some of the rural developmental initiatives. More importantly, to address the aim and objectives of the study, it is imperative to obtain feedback from the beneficiaries of these initiatives. Questionnaires are appropriate research instruments used in finding out the views of a large population, such as that of rural community members (Rugg and Petre 2007: 144).

The eligibility criteria were:

- Rural community members residing in the aforementioned communities;
- Rural community residents above the age of 40 (who have experienced the pre-apartheid and post-apartheid eras); and
- Willingness to engage in research.

Table 7.2: Study participants

Data collection Instrument	SN	Department/ Municipality	Participant	Number of Respondents and interviewees
QUESTIONNAIRE	A	Nkomazi Municipality	Community members above the age of 40 years	177
		Ingquza Municipality	Community members above the age of 40 years	173
		Mtubatuba Municipality	Community members above the age of 40 years	183
		Number of completed questionnaires		533
INTERVIEW	B	National Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs	Staff member	1
			Staff member	1
			Staff member	1
		Total		3
		Nkomazi Municipality	Rural developmental Stakeholders	11

		(Mpumalanga)		
		Mtubatuba Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal)	Rural developmental Stakeholders	10
		Ingquza Municipality (Eastern Cape)	Rural developmental Stakeholders	10
		Total		31
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS	C	Nkomazi Municipality	Community members	13
		Ingquza Municipality	Community members	17
		Mtubatuba Municipality	Community members	14
		Total number of focus group participants		44
			Total number of participants (Questionnaire)	533
			Total number of participants (A) (Interviewees)	3

			Total number of participants (B) (Interviewees)	31
			Total number of participants (Focus group Interview)	44
			Totality of all participants	611

Interviews were conducted with personnel from the National Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs as well as amongst rural development stakeholders at the Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga), Mtubatuba Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal) and the Ingquza Municipality (Eastern Cape).

Focus group interviews involving 44 community members were conducted in these communities. These 44 participants were recruited while the researcher was administering questionnaires in these communities. Amongst the 533 individuals who completed the questionnaires, 44 participants voluntarily participated in the focus group interviews. Preece, Rogers and Sharp (2002: 315) argue that valuable information can be obtained by interacting with a group as this enhances the possibility of participants developing and expressing ideas that they might not have thought about individually. In consonance to Rogers and Sharp's (2002) assertion, focus group interviewees were able to elaborate on each other's views, thus giving the researcher a more robust insight into the subject under discussion.

7.5 Sampling method

Coldwell and Herbst (2004:74) describe sampling as a procedure which requires the selection of a representative portion from an entire population. They further assert that sampling

enables a researcher to establish features of the entire group. Coldwell and Herbst (2004:75) justify the significance of sampling in research when they highlight the following advantages:

- Cost effectiveness when compared to taking a census;
- Timeliness;
- Convenience; and
- Precision in having a representation of an entire population.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 100) identified the probability and non-probability methods as the types of sampling methods. Probability sampling is a process of selection where every unit in a population has the same likelihood of being selected. On the contrary, non-probability sampling requires a researcher's subjective judgement in choosing units from an entire population (Leedy and Ormrod 2010: 45).

In Fox and Bayat's (2007: 54) opinion, the probability and non-probability sampling methods both have their advantages and limits. However, they affirm that the choice of selection amongst these two methods should be based on the method's proficiency to provide a fair representation of the entire population. Hence, this study followed a non-probability sampling technique, using purposive sampling (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell 2005:71). Depoy and Gitlin (2005: 153) describes the purposive sampling method as a situation whereby a researcher intentionally selects a sample from a population based on pre-defined criteria, which are typically representative, appropriate and builds up a justifiable sample from the entire population. Thus, a "typical case" purposive sampling criteria was used in this selection. In line with the aforementioned prepositions, the researcher used subjective judgement in selecting community members from Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. Additionally, elements of quota sampling were used as the researcher stopped administering questionnaires to the participants when the sample size (number) was attained

in each of the three localities. Worth mentioning at this juncture is that non-probability sampling is suitable for the current study as it is impracticable to administer questionnaires to the entirety of rural communities in South Africa.

Table 7.3: Sampling method

SAMPLING METHOD		
PROBABILITY SAMPLING METHOD	NON- PROBABILITY SAMPLING METHOD	
Not applicable	Technique used	Sample population
	Judgemental sampling	Community members of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni (Area of study)
Not applicable	Judgemental sampling	Government officials, as well as rural development stakeholders at regional level and local municipalities within the Mpumalanga, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces. <i>(Interviewees) (31)</i>
	Purposive sampling	Community members <i>(Focus group interviews) (44)</i>
	Purposive sampling (Typical case sampling)	177 participants in Mgobodzi (Questionnaires)

Not applicable

173 participants in Lusikisiki
Mcobothini (Questionnaires)
183 participants in Gunjaneni
(Questionnaires)

Table 7.4 provides a synopsis of the sample size calculations using a confidence level of 95% and margin of error of 7%.

Table 7.4: Sample size

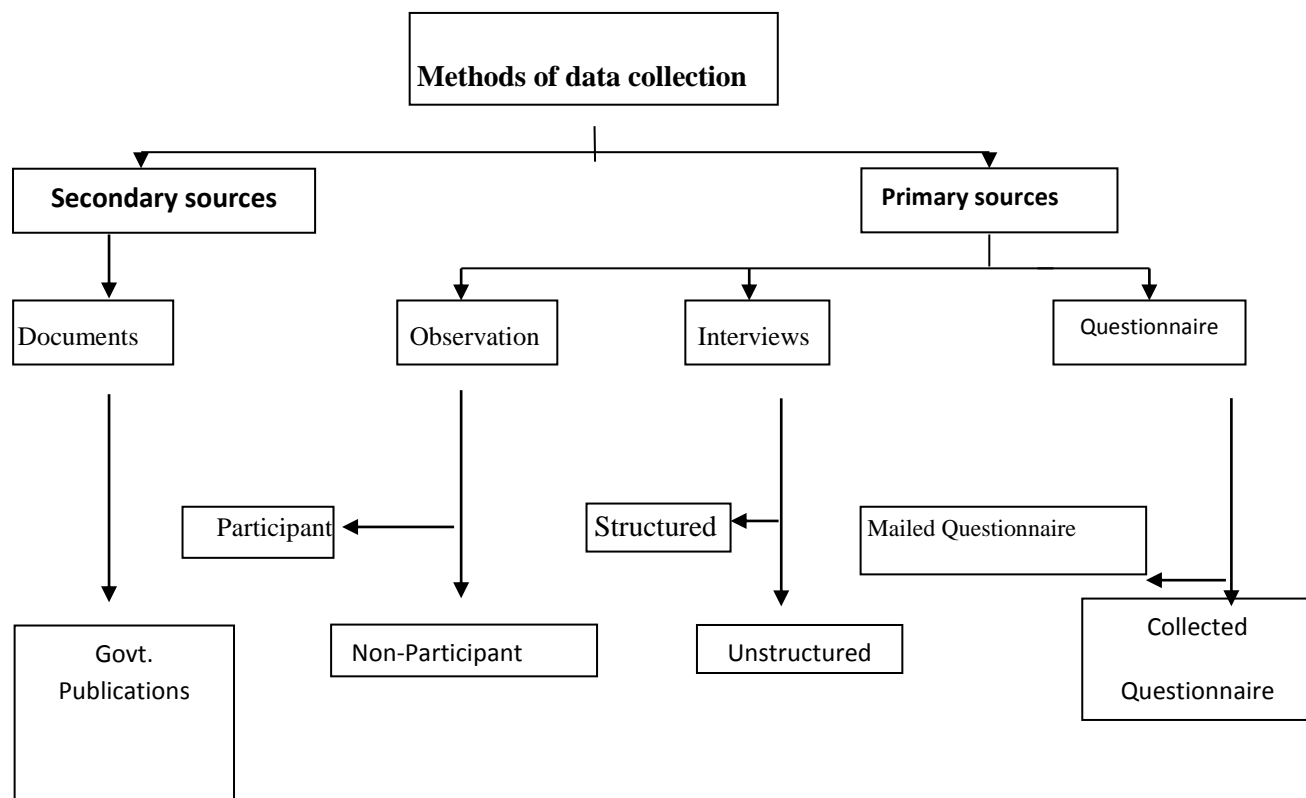
	Total population	Population above 40 years of age	Confidence level	Margin of error	Sample size
Mgobodzi (Mpumalang a)	5 500	1 750	95%	7%	177
Lusikisiki- Mcobothini (Eastern Cape)	5 000	1 400	95%	7%	173
Gunjaneni (KwaZulu- Natal)	7 000	2 700	95%	7%	183
				Total	533

7.6 Data collection

Measuring instruments are tools used in research for collecting relevant data. Frazer and Lawley (2000:35) affirm that a measuring instrument is “*valid if it measures what it is*

supposed to measure and reliable if the responses are consistent and stable". The terms "measuring instruments" and "data collection instruments" are often interchanged in research. Kumar (2005: 118) identifies two major methods of collecting data, namely primary and secondary data. These two methods can be further broken down into interviews, questionnaires, observations and reviews or reading of documents. This synopsis is depicted in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Data collection methods



Source: Adapted from Kumar (2005: 118)

The researcher utilised the following measuring instruments contained in Figure 7.1 during the course of this research: interviews, questionnaires, focus group interviews, as well as a review of audited documents and government populations.

7.6.1 Interviews

Interviews are oral or verbalised means of communication between a researcher and a respondent, which can take the form of structured or unstructured interviews (DePoy and Gitlin 2005: 169). Goddard and Melville (2001: 49) also define an interview as a process which involves a one-on-one verbal communication between a researcher and participant, or between the researcher and some individuals.

Coldwell and Herbst (2004: 48) mention that the advantages of interviews in research are inclusive of:

- Facilitating a full range and depth of information;
- Enabling the investigator to develop a relationship with the participants; and
- Providing the opportunity to further explain the questions to the participants of the study.

On the contrary, Coldwell and Herbst (2004: 48) identify the following as limitations to interviews:

- Interviews are time-consuming;
- They are often costly; and
- Interviewers can be biased.

Harish (2012: 4) identifies five types of interviews in research, including the personal interview, telephonic interview, focus group interview, depth interview and projective techniques. Studies conducted by Eaden, Mayberry and Mayberry (1999: 397-398) and Morgan (1996: 8-9) also highlight four forms of interviews: face-to-face interviews, telephonic interviews, focus group interviews, as well as structured interviews.

However, the current study utilised structured interviews, face-to-face interviews, as well as focus group interviews. These are further elaborated upon below:

7.6.2 Structured interviews for government officials

Structured interviews were conducted with officials of the Department of Rural Development and Land Affairs and government officials of Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga), Mtubatuba Municipality (KwaZulu-Natal) and Ngquza Municipality (Eastern Cape). Additionally, rural development analysts across the three provinces were involved. This set of structured interviews granted the researcher access to in-depth information regarding rural development initiatives in post-apartheid South Africa.

7.6.3 Face-to-face interviews with non-governmental officials

This interview method has been chosen for triangulation purposes. Due to the nature of the research, participants may feel uncomfortable relating negative views about governmental initiatives. Hence, face-to-face interviews were conducted amongst some non-governmental officials⁷/ community members (by the researcher accompanied by a translator) in the areas of study which has the potential of giving the community members the platform for presenting a frank and precise view of the reality on the ground.

7.6.4 Focus group interviews

According to Shneiderman and Plaisant (2005: 22), focus group interviews can be conducted amongst a small group of participants after a succession of individual interviews. They further mention that focus group interviews enable the researcher to explore a diversity of

opinions amongst different respondents, which often results in the emergence of vital information.

Focus group interviews were conducted amongst 44 community members from the three rural communities. Some of the focus group interviews were carried out during monthly community meetings. The aggregation of responses obtained through this procedure was also used for triangulation purposes.

7.6.5 Selection of interviewees

The selection of all participants followed a painstaking and well thoughtout process. Firstly, in selecting the three provinces, the Researcher consulted with experts on Rural Development at the National and Provincial offices. Furthermore, in the selection of participants among the three provinces, key personnel from the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reforms (NDRDLR) were consulted. Experts were also consulted at provincial and district levels. However, the researcher could not reach all the rural development stakeholders due to non-availability of some stakeholders and resource constraints. Notwithstanding this situation, more than 30 prominent stakeholders were interviewed during the course of this study. Some of these participants' experiences on rural development involvement ranged between 10-20 years, and even beyond 21 years in some instances. The interview schedules are thus illustrated in Tables 7.5, 7.6 and 7.7 respectively.

Table 7.5: Interview schedule for Mpumalanga province (26 September 2017- 4 October 2017)

Sn	Dates	Interviewee	Location	Estimated duration
1	26/9/2017	Ms Zanale Sihlangu	Regional Office,	± 15 minutes

		(Director)	Nelspruit,	
		Department of Rural	Mpumalanga	
		Development and Land Reform	Province	
2	26/9/2017	Ms Xoliswa Nyathi	Regional Office,	± 35 minutes
		(Manager: Rural Enterprise)	Nelspruit,	
		Department of Rural	Mpumalanga	
		Development and Land Reform	Province	
3	27/9/2017	Zinhle Lukhele	Nkomazi	± 25 minutes
		(IDP Coordinator)	Municipality	
			(Mpumalanga	
			Province)	
4	28/9/2017	Mrs Cllr T.M Mkhathswa	Nkomazi	± 45 minutes
		(Councillor for Ward 15 –	Municipality	
		Mgobodzi)	(Mpumalanga	
			Province)	
5	28/9/2017	Participant A	Nkomazi	± 25 minutes
			Municipality	
			(Mpumalanga	
			Province)	
6	29/9/2017	Mrs Dudu Ndlovu	Nkomazi	± 45 minutes
		(HOD to Agricultural Extension	Municipality	
			(Mpumalanga	

		workers)	Province)	
7	29/9/2017	Mrs Mkhathswa Eva Sangele Queen to Mgobodzi	Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga Province)	\pm 35 minutes
8	29/9/2017	Zahkele Sibiya (Office of the Speaker- Nkomazi Municipality)	Nkomazi Municipality (Mpumalanga Province)	Structured interview (Email)
9		Participant B	Regional Office, Nelspruit, Mpumalanga Province	Structured interview (Email)
10		Participant C	Regional Office, Nelspruit, Mpumalanga Province	Structured interview (Email)
11		Participant D	Regional Office, Nelspruit, Mpumalanga Province	Structured interview (Email)

(Participants 'A', 'B', 'C' and 'D' were used to identify participants who wanted to remain anonymous)

The interviews and questionnaire administration ran concurrently at the Mpumalanga Province between the 27th of September and 4th of October 2017. The questionnaire administration was however in two phases. The first phase was between the 27th - 30th of September 2017, while the second phase was between the 1st - 4th of October 2017.

Table 7.6: Interview schedule for the Kwazulu-Natal Province (6 October 2017- 16 October 2017)

Sn	Dates	Interviewee	Location	Estimated duration
1	7/10/2017	Cllr M.Q Mkhwanazi (Mayor to Mtubatuba Municipality/ Councillor to Ward 19 - Gunjaneni)	Mtubatuba KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 1 hour 25 minutes
2	9/10/2017	Ms Ntokozo Khuluse (Agricultural Extension Worker) (Department of Agriculture, Environmental Affairs and Rural Development)	Mtubatuba KwaZulu-Natal Province	±25 minutes
3	9/10/2017	Mrs Bridget Mncwango (Department of Agriculture,	Mtubatuba KwaZulu-Natal	± 15 minutes

		Environmental Affairs and Rural Development)	Province	
4	9/10/2017	Buyie Mngomezulu (LED Officer)	Mtubatuba Municipality KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 15 minutes
5	11/10/2017	Phiwayinkosi Mlungwana (Social Facilitator)	Mtubatuba Municipality KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 15 minutes
6	11/10/2017	Participant E	Mtubatuba KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 15 minutes
7	12/10/2017	Mrs. Sibongile Magwaza (Community Leader in Gunjaneni)	Gunjaneni (Mtubatuba Municipality, KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 35 minutes
8	13/10/2017	Velaphi Myeza (Assistant Director) (Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land	Pietermaritzburg KwaZulu-Natal	± 15 minutes

Reform)

9	13/10/2017	Lindokuhle Ngubane (Department of Agriculture, Environmental Affairs and Rural Development)	Mtubatuba KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 25 minutes
10	13/10/2017	Participant F (Department of Agriculture, Environmental Affairs and Rural Development)	Mtubatuba KwaZulu-Natal Province	± 20 minutes

The interviews and questionnaire administration were running concurrently in the KwaZulu-Natal Province between the 6th and 16th October 2017.

(Participants 'E', 'F' were used for participants who wanted to remain anonymous)

Table 7.7: Interview schedule for the Eastern Cape Province (18 October, 2017- 30 October 2017)

Sn	Dates	Interviewee	Location	Estimated duration
1	19/10/2017	Nontyatyambo Daniso (Councillor to Ward 21 – Lusikisiki Mcobothini)	Ingquza Hill Local Municipality Eastern Cape	± 55 minutes

			Province	
2	19/10/2017	Mr Bongani Nanatehla (Youth Leader in Lusikisiki Mcobothini)	Ingquza Hill Local Municipality Eastern Cape Province	±45 minutes
3	19/10/2017	Councillor Mgwili (Councillor in Ingquza Hill Local Municipality- Ward 4)	Ingquza Hill Local Municipality Eastern Cape Province	± 15 minutes
4	20/10/2017	Councillor Qweshia (Councillor in Ingquza Hill Local Municipality- Ward 3)	Ingquza Hill Local Municipality Eastern Cape Province	± 15 minutes
5	20/10/2017	K.F Dlungwana (Community Development Worker)	Ingquza Hill Local Municipality Eastern Cape Province	± 35 minutes
6	25/10/2017	Mrs Sihle Mpetsheni (Agricultural Development	Flagstaff, Eastern Cape	± 15 minutes

		Technician)		
7	25/10/2017	Ms Ntombenhle Ndlovu (Agricultural Extension Worker)	Ntabankulu Eastern Cape Province	± 15 minutes
8	25/10/2017	Ms Matinise (Agricultural Extension Worker)	Lusikisiki Mcobothini Eastern Cape Province	± 15 minutes
9	25/10/2017	(Chief) Mavela Gilbert Nodunyelwa (Chief of Lusikisiki Mcobothini)	Lusikisiki Mcobothini Eastern Cape Province	± 55 minutes
10	26/10/2017	Lolo Community Development worker	Lusikisiki Mcobothini Eastern Cape Province	± 15 minutes

The interviews and questionnaire administration ran concurrently in the Eastern Cape Province between the 18th and 30th October 2017.

7.6.6 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a drafted list of questions that are expected to be answered by respondents (Kumar 2005: 126). Questionnaires are research instruments used in finding out a prevalent opinion amongst respondents (Rugg and Petre 2007: 144). The questionnaire used in this study was designed and structured by the researcher. It incorporated the research aim, objectives and problem statement. The Likert scale form of questioning was used to quantify responses. To facilitate an understanding of questions amongst respondents, simple English words were used, which were also translated into the native language spoken in the area of study: that is Siswati, IsiZulu and IsiXhosa. Indigenes of these rural communities were recruited to break the communication barrier between the researcher and respondents. Questionnaires were administered to community members of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni who are were above 40 years of age. Furthermore, questionnaires were self-delivered by the researcher to respondents and collected immediately the respondents completed. Welman *et al.* (2005: 257) assert that this approach of self-delivery and immediate collection enhances the response rate. Hence, the researcher achieved an 88.8 percent response rate as 533 questionnaires were completed from the 600 questionnaires administered amongst the three communities.

7.6.7 Review of audited documents

A wide range of government documents ranging from White Papers to Green Papers, legislation, statistical reports, government gazettes and reports were reviewed. In addition, the following documents are reviewed:

- Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP);
- Integrated Development Plan (IDP);
- National Development Plan (NDP);

- New Growth Path (NGP);
- Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP);
- Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR);
- Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ACGISA);
- White Paper on Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele); and
- the National Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP).

A comprehensive review of the aforementioned legislations and policy documents was undertaken with the intent of developing narratives to establish possible recommendations to the challenges identified amongst the rural communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. Furthermore, specific case studies were highlighted to support the problem statement.

7.7 Data analysis and interpretation

The data obtained from the community members of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni through the questionnaires were captured and categorised into a set of themes in line with the aim and objectives of this study. Additionally, the collected data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25.0. SPSS avails a researcher the opportunity to analyse quantitative data using a vast array of means within a short period of time (Bryman and Crammer 2009: 21). The interview transcripts and field notes obtained through the structured interviews, face to face interviews and focus group interviews with Councillors, Traditional leaders, Municipality staff officials, as well as community members were analysed using Atlas Ti qualitative data software. As an agendum to strengthening the credibility of the qualitative research instrument, heterogeneous samples were chosen from a variety of rural development stakeholders. Furthermore, the validity of

the research instrument was underpinned by ensuring that the questions posed were not at variance with the study's aim and objectives. The Cronbach Alpha test using similar standardised questionnaires was utilised to strengthen the study's validity and reliability. According to Faderogaya (2012: 2), the Cronbach Alpha test can be used to test a questionnaire's reliability, accuracy and internal consistency. More importantly, the expertise of a professional statistician was employed as a means of ensuring the reliability and credibility of the study.

7.8 Delimitation/ scope

The study uses the case of Mgobodzi, Nkomazi Municipality situated in Mpumalanga Province; Lusikisiki Mcobothini, Ingquza Municipality situated in the Eastern Cape Province; as well as Gunjaneni, Mtubatuba Municipality which is found in KwaZulu-Natal. With a focus on three rural communities, it might be unrealistic to assert with certainty that the findings of this study can be generalised to every rural community in South Africa. Furthermore, the study only focused on rural developmental initiatives in post-apartheid South Africa, particularly those initiated during former South African President - Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma's regime between the 9th of May 2009 and 14th of February 2018. Within such a context, rural developmental initiatives are closely looked at in consonance with 'poverty alleviation'.

7.9 Pilot test

Sekaran (2003: 138) asserts that the intent of pilot testing is to refine the questions been posed in the questionnaire and thereby ensuring that there are no ambiguities. The

questionnaires were pre-tested amongst thirty-six women. Twelve questionnaires (each) were distributed amongst the community members of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. The intent of this was to ascertain whether the questions posed are easily understandable. However, the community members involved in this pilot test were not part of the sampled respondents. The pilot test also facilitated necessary amendments before the questionnaires were administered.

7.10 Validity and reliability

According to Frazer and Lawley (2000:35), a measuring instrument is “*valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure and is reliable if the responses are consistent and stable*”. Silverman (2006:46) also defines validity as the extent to which a scenario or circumstance or event correctly epitomises a social phenomenon under study. On the contrary, Saunders, *et al.* (2009:167) describes reliability as the degree of consistency of a measuring instrument or the miniature deviation between the anticipated outcomes of dissimilar samples of the homogeneous population.

To enhance the reliability of the questionnaires, a pilot test was conducted amongst thirty-six women in the communities under study. Furthermore, in order to facilitate understanding of the questions posed in the questionnaires, questionnaires administered in Mgobodzi were translated into Siswati, while the administered questionnaires in Gunjaneni were translated into IsiZulu and the questionnaires administered in Lusikisiki Mcobothini were translated into IsiXhosa. These are the native languages spoken in these communities. To ensure a smooth flow of communication, translators who could communicate in the English language as well as the mother tongue of these communities were recruited for translation purposes. Additionally, the researcher ensured that participants of this study filled the questionnaires

without any form of bias or intimidation. Lastly, as a means to ensuring that feedback obtained from the questionnaires and structured interviews were reliable, pseudonyms were used as a means of protecting some participants' and interviewees' identities. Empirical studies have proven that participants usually provide frank and honest answers over sensitive issues when their names or identities are not revealed. Furthermore, as a means of strengthening the validity of the questionnaire, other data sources such as questionnaires, focus group interviews, face-to-face interviews, as well as reviews of audited documents were utilised (UK Geocities 2007:2-3). Walliman (2005: 282) also states that a low response rate can undermine the validity of the sample, as this may result to biasness of the data obtained. To enhance the possibility of achieving a high response rate, the researcher was available at the time of questionnaire administration.

7.11 Confidentiality and anonymity

Empirical studies have shown that when participants in a study are assured of confidentiality and anonymity, there are higher chances that honest and credible responses are obtained by the researcher. Additionally, confidentiality and anonymity are in consonance with ethical considerations. As a means of ensuring anonymity in the current study, names of the participants/ respondents filling out the questionnaires were not disclosed, while pseudonyms were used when required. During the course of the interviews, some participants requested to remain anonymous. Hence, such participants' names were not included, rather Participants A, B, C, D, E and F were used in place of each participant's name. Furthermore, data is only accessible to the researcher and supervisor to ensure confidentiality. Five years after the completion of the study, all questionnaires will be shredded, while data stored electronically will be deleted from devices used in storing them.

7.12 Ethical considerations

Coldwell and Herbst (2004: 18) describe ethics as ideals and standards of conduct aimed at protecting the participants of a study from any form of abuse and exploitation. Ethics in research could also imply the quality of inquiry by an investigator while adhering to required professional research principles (Ntlabezo and Booyens 2005: 38). The ethical standards stipulated by the Durban University of Technology through the IREC committee were adhered to throughout the research process. Permission to conduct interviews was requested from organisations and governmental departments. All interviewees and questionnaire participants were offered a consent letter which enabled them to participate voluntarily or withdraw at any stage of the research process.

7.13 Conclusion

This chapter provided an overview of the research methodology and design adopted for this study. Due to the multi-faceted nature of rural development, it was equally necessary to incorporate a Multiple Case study. The study's target population was inclusive of rural development (key) stakeholders, alongside beneficiaries. These research participants were chosen through Typical case sampling (purposive) and Judgemental sampling. To further create triangulation, the researcher utilised audited documents, while also involving focus group interviewees. As a means of strengthening the data validity, the questions posed in the questionnaire and interviews were closely aligned to the study's aim and objectives. Permission was sought by the Researcher to audio-record and transcribe the interview sessions. The accrued primary data was thus analysed with the aid of SPSS for Windows (Version 25.0). Also discussed in this chapter were concerns such as Validity and reliability, Confidentiality and anonymity, as well as Ethical considerations.

The proceeding chapter presents the analyses and discussions of the empirical findings.

CHAPTER EIGHT– DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

Having described the research methodology in the previous chapter, this chapter further proceeds with the study by providing an insightful and comprehensive analysis of key findings and their respective interpretations. The analyses in this chapter are broadly classified into three sections. Firstly, it analyses findings which emanate from the Qualitative approach, followed by findings which emanate from the Quantitative approach and the third analysis is findings which emanate from literature as well as audited governmental documents. Through these approaches, an emic perspective of residents of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni were obtained regarding rural developmental initiatives vis a vis poverty alleviation. These findings were meticulously tied with the studies aim and objectives, which are as follows:

Aim of the study

- *To analysis the extent to which major rural development initiates of the post-apartheid South Africa have contributed to poverty alleviation.*

Objectives of the study

- *To critically analyse rural developmental initiatives implemented in the post-apartheid era of South Africa;*
- *To evaluate the capacity of local government to implement rural development initiatives;*
- *To identify factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural developmental initiatives and the achievement of desired outcomes for rural development;*

- *To identify the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni; and*
- *To develop a theoretical model recommending guidelines for successful rural development amongst the aforementioned communities.*

In analysing participants' narrations and responses, the qualitative data was analysed thematically and quantitative data was analysed through the aid of SPSS for Windows (Version 25.0). Textual analysis was also applied in the case of government audited documents. The quantitative results are presented in the form of graphs and cross-tabulations. Inferential techniques used in this study were inclusive of chi-square test values and correlations. These were interpreted through p-values. This chapter also discusses correlations emanating from the questionnaire. A synopsis of findings is provided, followed by a discussion on the implications of the study's findings.

8.2 Sample

Amongst the 600 questionnaires dispatched within Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, a total of 533 were fully completed. The 533 respondents translate to a 88.8 percent response rate. Such a degree of response, according to Fincham (2008: 2) upholds reliable and credible data. He argues that a response rate above 60 percent is justifiable, especially when dealing with a homogenous population. Hence, this applies in the current study as a majority of the participants share a variety of commonalities and lived experiences. These questionnaires were only administered to residents who were above 35 years of age and had witnessed both the apartheid and post-apartheid experiences in their respective localities. Studies by Livingston and Wislaw (2012: 110) however concede that there is *no firm statistical basis for a response rate*. Notwithstanding, they affirm that the higher the response amongst participants, the less chances of bias. Additionally, interviews were

conducted amongst prominent stakeholders as detailed in Chapter 7. In obtaining further insight into the subject matter, pertinent discussions were also held with community members through focus group interviews (see Section 7.3).

8.3 Findings emerging through Qualitative data

Qualitative data in this context implies data obtained through Face-to-face interviews as well as Focus Group Interviews amongst the stakeholders earlier identified in Section 7. 2 (Population/ target population). The current sub-section contains the first amongst the three analysis sub-sections wherein participants' responses are carefully tied to the study's aim and objectives. These analyses are particularly directed to the study's (main) Aim, alongside objectives 1, 3 and 4, which were to *analysis the extent to which the major rural development initiatives of post-apartheid South Africa has contributed to poverty alleviation; evaluate the capacity of local government in implementing rural development initiatives, identify factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural developmental initiatives and the achievement of desired outcomes for rural development; and to also identify the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni*. Hence, a total of 11 key findings emanated and are discussed herein.

8.3.1 Major rural development initiatives

The National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, alongside its subsidiaries at provincial and municipal level, has made concerted efforts since 1994 to address under development amongst rural communities in South Africa (Ngomane 2012; Hall and Kepe 2017). As earlier mentioned in the introductory chapter (see section 1.7), the study's prime focus is only on rural developmental initiatives that were initiated during former South

African President Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma's regime. Thus, only initiatives between the 9th of May 2009 and the 14th of February 2018 are examined.

This sub-section outlines the primary (main) and secondary initiatives identified by stakeholders and beneficiaries during the Jacob Zuma era. Most of the beneficiaries could not name the primary (main) or secondary initiatives, but could describe or knew the intent of such initiatives being established. Hence, the main rural developmental initiatives during former Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma's tenure as identified by the participants are listed as follows:

- the Land Reform Programme;
- the Animal and Veld Management Programme;
- the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme;
- Rural Enterprise Industrial Development; and
- the National Rural Youth Service Corps.

The aforementioned initiatives were however identified by prominent stakeholders and not the beneficiaries. On the contrary, secondary rural developmental initiatives were mainly identified by the beneficiaries. The discussed initiatives are however those which are currently ongoing. Thus, the secondary rural development initiatives identified by the participants (beneficiaries) amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are summarised below.

- **Mgobodzi**

A well-known initiative within the Nkomazi Municipality (Mgobodzi) is the Nkomazi red meat project, funded by the Department of Agriculture. This rural development initiative purchases livestock for the beneficiaries and offers capacity building programmes. For the smooth running of this initiative, an abattoir was constructed in 2010, while a Nkomazi Feed

Lot was also constructed in 2014. Another rural development initiative identified by the participants was the Tonga Cotton project established in 2014.

Other initiatives that the Mgobodzi community partook in were inclusive of the *Masibuyele esibayeni* and *Masibuyele Emasimini* which are initiatives that provide loans to participants for the purchase of livestock, crop production, as well as the Provision of mechanisms and production input. Beneficiaries of these initiatives are also provided with drought resistance seedlings, as well as other supportive measures for the sustainability of their vegetable gardens.

- **Lusikisiki Mcobothini**

Ongoing rural development initiatives in the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community are the *Isiqalo* corporative project, as well as the *Isiqalo* Bakery cooperative. The *Isiqalo* Cooperative initiative is channeled towards employment generation for the youth of this community. This has been funded by the municipality since 2012. However, the initiative stopped running after a couple of years and recently re-started. Only about ten youths in this community are involved in this initiative. The municipality also supports the *Isiqalo* Bakery co-operative wherein a set of beneficiaries make a livelihood through this initiative. Another recognised initiative is the monthly ‘Food parcel’, freely distributed to the poor household members of Lusikisiki Mcobothini by the municipality. This initiative is mainly orchestrated to address food insecurity amongst the poorest households of the community. Furthermore, an infrastructurally inclined rural developmental initiative has been the re-graveling of access routes within the community. This re-graveling of roads started in 1998 and is still ongoing. Community members who are employed under the *Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)* are tasked with this duty.

Other initiatives in this community are channeled to Love-life programmes, Adult learning programmes, as well as a Climate change initiative for the sustainability of farmlands.

- **Gunjaneni**

A prominent rural developmental initiative in the Gunjaneni community is the Hlaneni Landscape Project. This project is being operated by 30 women from this community. The community however only utilises 8 hectares of land of the 40 hectares of land allotted for this initiative. The under-utilisation of farmland is mainly due to a lack of farming equipment and gross water scarcity. A sum of R64 770 has been given to all these beneficiaries as a monthly payment, which comes down to R2 159 per beneficiary. Crops such as beans, maize, spinach and sweet potatoes are being cultivated on these 8 hectares of land. The main motive behind this initiative was to address poverty and food insecurity. In sustaining this initiative, the Department of Agriculture offers stipends to every beneficiary on a monthly basis. A similar initiative to the Hlaneni Landscape Project is the 'One home-one garden' project, which also focuses on food security and poverty alleviation. The municipality through the Department of Agriculture also initiated a Livestock production project and Poultry products. A more recent initiative is the Tongatt sugarcane project, which only started in 2016. This initiative has over 100 beneficiaries who cultivate sugarcane on 1 700 hectares of land.

The following sub-section thus examines the relationship between these initiatives and poverty alleviation amongst these three communities.

8.3.2 Nexus between rural development and poverty alleviation

The theme identified in this sub-section is particularly significant, as it ties up to the study's aim *'to analysis the extent to which the major rural development initiatives of post-apartheid*

South Africa has contributed to poverty alleviation'. A general consensus amongst stakeholders and beneficiaries (participants) was that the rural developmental initiatives in their respective localities have contributed to poverty alleviation. Participants in the Mgobodzi community did attest that although the major rural development initiatives such as road construction and electrification projects did contribute meaningfully to their community, these rural developmental initiatives did not address the more pertinent issues such as water scarcity, hunger as well as the much needed jobs that the community members required.

A consensus amongst the community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini was that, they were not satisfied with a number of initiatives. One such complaint was the lack of proper roads in their communities, which are only re-graveled every five years. Some however did agree that the monthly 'Food parcel' distribution did directly impact on poverty alleviation. Some expressed their dissatisfaction at the non-availability of electricity in their homes, while electricity had been installed in a significant portion of the Inquyz Hill Municipality.

In the case of Gunjaneni, beneficiaries did allege that they were being excluded from some developmental projects. A view shared by some of the participants was that while the Mtubataba Town and settlements such as Kwasame and Nordale were enjoying the benefits of development, their community has been excluded. They however acknowledged the construction of a multi-purpose Town hall in their community, which they also complained did not translate to food on their table, nor did it provide them with much needed income.

Probing further, the researcher queried the extent to which these rural developmental initiatives have contributed to poverty alleviation. A response to this question may be through a recent poverty index by Statistics South Africa. According to Statistics South Africa (2019b), household members living in poverty within the Nkomazi Municipality (Mgobodzi) dropped from 10.4 percent to 9.3 percent between 2011 and 2016, while that of Ingquza Hill

Municipality (Lusikisiki Mcobothini) dropped from 27.3 percent to 22.3 percent within the same time period and that of Mtubatuba Municipality (Gunjaneni) marginally dropped from 11.6 percent to 9.3 percent during the same time period. Going by these statistics, it may be deduced that government's rural developmental efforts have only narrowly alleviated poverty within the communities under study.

Table 8.1: Poverty headcount

Municipality	2001	2011	2016
Nkomazi (Mgobodzi)	29.1 percent	10.4 percent	9.3 percent
O.R Tambo (Lusikisi Mcobothini)	51.0 percent	27.3 percent	22.3 percent
Mtubatuba (Gunjaneni)	27.2 percent	11.6 percent	9.3 percent

Source: Statistics South Africa (2019b)

(The above data was generated from personnel at Statistics South Africa on the 4th of April, 2019, and was forwarded to Researcher upon request).

A sizeable portion of respondents from Mgobodzi did allege that the agricultural initiatives in their community had a minor impact on poverty. A total of 721 beneficiaries had benefited directly from the agricultural initiatives instituted by the Provincial Department of Agriculture. However, similar to criticisms made by participants in Gunjaneni, the beneficiaries in Mgobodzi did also mention that only individuals who were involved directly in agricultural practices marginally benefited from initiatives, while much larger household members did not directly benefit from any of the governmental initiatives. Their assertion was emphasised by initiatives such as the Cotton production and Abattoir construction which did not (directly) reduce hunger in their respective households, nor provide them much needed employment opportunities.

On face value, a general concession across the three communities was that the rural developmental initiatives had marginally contributed to poverty alleviation. However, a majority of these initiatives were of communal benefit and did not necessarily fulfil individual or household basic needs such as food security, water scarcity, decent housing or employment.

The theme in this sub-section is further examined in section 8.7.6.

8.3.3 Capacity of local government (Councillors) in implementing initiatives

In discussing this section, the researcher outlines the duties and responsibilities of a Councillor as stipulated in Section 152(1) of the South African Constitution vis a vis the reality on the ground. As stipulated in Section 152(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the following are the responsibilities of a local government (Councillor) as per South African Local Government Association (SALGA 2015: 44):

- a. to provide democratic and accountable government for local communities;*
- b. to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner;*

c. to promote social and economic development;

d. to promote a safe and healthy environment; and

e. to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government.

Section 153 of the Constitution further addresses the developmental duties of municipalities as follows:

a. to structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community.

Against this background, the researcher uses the constitution alongside responses made by community members in assessing the extent to which these mandates are being met. Furthermore, initiatives (projects) established by the local municipality, such as road construction, were accessed and were not necessarily provincial or national-led initiatives. Some of the factors looked at while accessing Councillor's capacitation (competence) were their involvement in initiatives, evaluation of initiatives, efficiency of initiatives, as well as the time of completion of such initiatives. In instances where it was an ongoing initiative, the researcher looked at effectiveness of such initiatives. These raised parameters were gauged against resources at the Councillor's disposal.

It was quite evident that amongst the three communities, respective Councillors possess managerial, negotiation, communication as well as interpersonal skills which were imperative for their day-to-day functionality at office. However, they lacked some expertise and competence in specific areas. One such notable shortfall was resource management skills. This may have been due to inadequate training or a lack of exposure to (global) rural developmental trends, which possibly may have been achieved through tailor-made rural development training by counterparts from countries such as China and Brazil, whose

Councillors had played significant roles in fighting the war on poverty in their respective countries.

With regard to the ‘fifth’ point contained in Section 152(1) of the Constitution, *‘to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government’* respondents across the three communities did attest that their respective Councillors did encourage their involvement in developmental concerns, particularly in the Gunjaneni community where a participant did state that he occasionally visited the Mayor alongside other youths to deliberate on challenges being faced by the youth of their community.

In a further attempt to unravel the above theme, it is noteworthy to mention that rural politicking in South Africa is yet to mature to an extent where voters’ votes are based on the manifesto of the contender, as votes are often dependent on loyalty to a political party or personality of the intended Councillor, or other attributes or factors (De Kadt 2017; Everatt 2016; Paret 2016). Hence, in some instances, a Councillor may be in office without possessing the skills and competences required for such a position. In such a manner, a Councillor may possibly pose an obstacle to the development of his or her community. One such instance is the World Bank’s intent in funding an Agri-park project in one of the communities under study. However, the Councillor as well as stakeholders involved were unable to package a strong feasibility study or proposal to entice the World Bank in initiating such a project. Similar opportunities are being lost in the Mining sector (Gunjaneni), Tourism sector (Mgobodzi), as well as the Tea industry and Agricultural sector (Lusikisiki Mcobothini). Furthermore, a strong proposal may possibly be drafted to entice private sector investment or partnerships. Such opportunities are continuously being lost.

Poor resource management skills was predominant across all the communities under study. In as much as stakeholders did claim that their respective municipalities were under-funded, allegations of embezzlement and fund mismanagement have been recorded in a few circumstances. Additionally, a participant who wanted to remain anonymous did explain how a specific political party imposes Councillors on their community. This participant did further explain that such Councillors were often used as stooges and were often not competent to handle the core responsibilities of a Councillor, which affected the development of their community.

Further assessment on Councillors' capacity to implement rural developmental initiatives is explored within the findings obtained through the Quantitative approach.

8.3.4 Factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural development initiatives

Despite the challenges faced by stakeholders in executing rural development initiatives, stakeholders were still able to pinpoint some of the key factors which had contributed to the successful implementation of some initiatives during the course of the interviews. In an interview with the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality (Cllr M.Q Mkhwanazi), who also deputizes as the Councillor to Ward 19 of the same municipality, he vividly explained his leadership approach in the last 15 years in politics. He did point out the importance of having a good understanding of grassroots politics before embarking on any rural developmental initiative. He also emphasised the need to involve stakeholders and beneficiaries before the implementation of initiatives. He further stressed the importance of not being discriminatory against other leaders from other political parties who may have opposing views or agenda. He demonstrated the good relationships he had with other political party leaders, such as the Democratic Alliance (DA), Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF) and African National Congress (ANC).

Additionally, contributing factors to the success of ‘School-feeding’ initiatives in the Nkomazi Municipality in which the Mgobodzi community is situated, were inclusive of strong governmental support at the provincial and municipal levels, commitment of stakeholders, as well as the effective and continuous monitoring of initiatives. Monitoring and evaluation were also amongst the key factors in the success of the *Masibuyele esibayeni* and *Masibuyele Emasimini* initiatives in the Nkomazi Municipality. Here farmers were loaned money and livestock, as well as the provision of machinery. A daily follow up of activities was made by Extension workers from the Department of Agriculture within the Nkomazi Municipality. Other contributing factors identified during the course of interviews were the fertile soil and the commitment of personnel from the Department of Agriculture.

The findings in this sub-section are further elaborated upon and incorporated into the study’s recommendations (see section 9.5).

8.3.5 Weaknesses and challenges undermining rural development initiatives

Through the focus group interview sessions and the face-to-face interviews, a total of 17 key factors were identified as the most prominent factors undermining rural development initiatives in the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. While some identified factors such as the theft of livestock were attributed mainly to a community, other factors such as Water Shortages and Low levels of literacy were ‘prominent’ factors undermining rural development initiatives amongst these three communities.

The three communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are mainly subsistence farming communities. Hence, a number of agricultural initiatives run concurrently amidst these communities. A foremost challenge to these agricultural initiatives is ‘water scarcity’, particularly in the Mgobodzi community. This singular factor has resulted

in some subsistence farmers abandoning their farmlands or withdrawing from initiatives which had already been heavily funded by the government. Another challenge undermining agricultural initiatives, particularly in Lusikisiki Mcobothini is the theft of livestock and cattle by the so called '*Amavondo*' (criminals). Furthermore, a majority of participants or beneficiaries of these agricultural initiatives are elderly people whose ages range between 55 and 70 years. Hence, there is a limit to their level of productivity. Furthermore, concerns were raised on the sustainability of agricultural initiatives in the long-run due to the lack of interest amongst the youth. The *Amavondo* do not only steal livestock. They also deliberately vandalize fences as well as other agricultural equipment and infrastructure. All of these criminal acts sabotage governmental efforts. Another noteworthy issue raised by participants from Gunjaneni was the severe drought being experienced during the winter months. Most of these farmers are unable to afford irrigation facilities and only depend on rain. Hence, during drought seasons they are unable to cultivate their main crops such as maize, tomatoes and other vegetables which require a significant amount of water.

Another major impediment to the smooth running of initiatives is 'limited funds'. Similar to municipalities in urban centres which do not have sufficient funds to run all initiatives (Kovacic, Smit, Musango, Brent and Giampietro 2016; Nel and Rogerson 2015; Simatele, Dlamini and Kubanza 2017), rural municipalities often have a far more constrained budget. These thus exacerbate and undermine initiatives such as large scale irrigation projects which require enormous funding. Poor entrepreneurial skills by farmers coupled with poor infrastructure has barely enabled several projects go beyond the inception phase. Poor market linkages also frustrate the efforts of the farmers as they are often unable to transport their fresh farm products to the market. Neither are these farmers able to compete with commercial farmers who may even be far away from their territory.

Also regarding infrastructural concerns, subsistence farmers in Lusikisiki Mcobothini did allege that due to the poor condition of the gravel road linking their community with the nearest town, many transport workers are dissuaded from transporting their farm produce and when such deals are made... ‘*the transporters charge us outrageous amounts*’. The linkage between rural developmental initiatives and road linkages is further emphasised within the Mtubatuba Municipality, where communities such as Ndombeni, Nkonjane (Ward 7) and Gunjaneni (Ward 19) have shown little progress in the agricultural initiatives being managed by the Department of Agriculture in comparison to other Wards such as Wards 13, 14 and 15 which are closer to the N2. The argument made by Extension workers was that it was more daunting to execute and monitor agricultural initiatives within zones such as Ward 7 and Ward 19 due to the difficult terrain, which further skyrockets the cost of the initiative.

Further compounding rural development initiative challenges are incapacitation, low levels of literacy and the minimal resources at the disposal of Councillors. A similar view shared by all Councillors in this study was the resource constraints which impeded their pro-poverty drive. For instance, in the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community where the poorest households are given food parcels on a monthly basis, several other poor households were identified recently. However, due to budgetary constraints, such food parcels could not be extended to such deserving homes. The remoteness, terrain and lack of information has equally impeded the success of initiatives. The Personal Assistant to the Councillor in Ward 21 (Inquyz Hill Municipality, Lusikisiki Mcobothini), Mr Bongani Nanatehla, who is also a Youth Leader in the community, did explain that youths often do not benefit from some of the initiatives due to a lack of information. He did amplify his statement when he made mention of students’ ignorance on Scholarship opportunities offered by the National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS) to well-deserving students.

Other undermining factors impeding rural developmental initiatives amongst the three rural communities are inclusive of corruption, poor management of funds, beneficiaries pulling out of initiatives without prior notice, in-fighting amongst beneficiaries over resources and faction fights as a result of politicking.

The factors undermining the success of rural development initiatives raised in this section resonate across several communities of South Africa (Foster and Hope 2016; Nchuchuwe and Adejuwon 2012; Suckall, Stringer and Tompkins 2014; Varshney *et al.* 2015; Azimoh, Klintonberg, Mbohwa and Wallin 2017). Of concern is that some of these challenges have been identified earlier in other rural Wards or Districts of South Africa, yet little redress has been made to avert these challenges (Department of Rural Development 2013).

8.3.6 Infrastructure versus poverty

The infrastructural deficit across the rural communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki and Gunjaneni does emphasise the extent of poverty amongst these communities. In the states (national) effort in alleviating poverty, more than four million three hundred thousand (4.3m) low income housing units were built for well-deserving citizens of South Africa (African National Congress 2016: 2). Unfortunately, at the time of conducting this study, no household within the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki and Gunjaneni had benefited from this governmental initiative. Besides the lack of proper or dignified housing, these communities also lack basic social amenities. For instance, the Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki communities do not have any clinics or health facilities. The nearest health facility to the Mgobodzi community was that at Tonga, which was about 37 kilometres away (via D797). Additionally, there were no tarred roads in Mgobodzi, as the only drive-able routes were only re-graveled every five years. Another concerning setback amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni was the severity of ‘water shortages’. Not only were the remote rural communities suffering from water shortages, but the main district (OR

Tambo) was heavily affected by water shortages. Community members often have to walk 2-4 kilometres daily in search of water for domestic purposes. This assertion breaches the set standard by the WHO which advocates that government should provide a water source within 1000 metres from households, while water collection time *should not exceed 30 minutes...* (WHO 2007: 41). During the course of an interview, a senior governmental official did allege that the OR Tambo district considers the water shortage as a core challenge. However, the District Municipality is unable to purchase trucks for water supply purposes due to financial constraints.

Empirical studies amongst African and Asian scholars on rural development, rural developmental initiatives and poverty do share a common concession on the significance of infrastructural development when addressing poverty and rural development (Mutambara, Darkoh and Atlhopheng 2016; Taiwo and Agwu 2016). A plethora of sources do agree that infrastructural development could directly or indirectly alleviate poverty. There is also a direct correlation between unemployment and poverty, which necessitates well-thought out investments from the private sector if such unemployment were to be addressed (Olotu, Salami and Akeremale 2015; Hanratty 2017). Unfortunately, a lack of infrastructure often dissuades investors (Glänzel and Scheuerle 2016; Kumari and Sharma 2017; Inderst 2016). Hence, this poses a further hindrance to rural development amongst the case study areas.

8.3.7 Unemployment opportunities versus poverty

Rural communities of South Africa have the highest level of employment, which has a direct bearing on poverty and inequality (Fairer-Wessels 2016; Wilkinson, Pettifor, Rosenberg, Halpern, Thirumurthy, Collinson and Kahn 2017). Such heightened unemployment is typical of the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. The situation is quite worrisome in the community of Mgobodzi, as the Councillor did allege that an estimated eight out of every ten youths were unemployed in the community. The Youth Leader in

Lusikisiki Mcobothini shared similar sentiments. He goes on to explain the correlation between the lack of employment opportunities and the high crime rate. Additionally, during the course of an interview with a Social Worker within the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community, she did mention that besides the Magwa Tea company, there were no other available employment opportunities.

The few youths who worked in the nearest towns were those who gained employment through the *Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)*. However, this form of employment could not take them out of the poverty cycle as they only earned R600 per month. Such EPWP workers only worked for eight days in a month and were assigned to road maintenance duties, while others took care of the elderly and sickly.

More worrying is the concern that was a significant portion of the populace who had dropped out of school for various reasons; those who were unproductive due to their health conditions; physically challenged individuals; or those who were retrenched in the cities and were compelled to relocate to rural communities as they could not cope with the living costs in the cities. There were also ex-convicts whose criminal records do not avail them employment opportunities. A Social Worker who had worked in the Gunjaneni community for several years also explained that many youths were unemployable as they lacked skills, competencies or basic qualifications and as such, they could barely contribute to their community. Similar to the case in Lusikisiki Mcobothini, the lack of employment was linked to vices in Gunjaneni (Mtubatuba), for example prostitution amongst young females, while a significant number of young males were involved in drugs and crime-related offences.

8.3.8 Dependency syndrome

A further commonality amongst the three rural communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki and Gunjaneni is the ‘dependency syndrome’. A number of key stakeholders interviewed across the three provinces did identify this trait as one of the hindrances to poverty alleviation. It was widely acknowledged that the populace heavily relied on government for almost every concern. The community members could barely initiate or self-mobilise any initiative. As argued by one of the personnel interviewed in Mpumalanga, *‘the dependency syndrome undermines governmental efforts and adversely impacts on the sustainability of rural developmental initiativesas community members leave most concerns in the hands of government to handle....’* Furthermore, studies by Kajiita and Kang’ethe (2017) have equally argued that household members who receive monthly social grants are likely to imbibe the dependency syndrome over time. Sinyolo, Mudhara and Wale (2019) also mentions that this trait of ‘dependency syndrome’ is a major impediment to governmental efforts. Hence, from the preceding narrative, it can be deduced that the ‘dependency syndrome’ is one of the factors undermining rural developmental initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

8.3.9 Untapped potential

The communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni do possess a variety of potential within the mining, tourism and agricultural sectors. Concerns such as a lack of expertise, a lack of investors, infrastructure deficits, poor political will, incapacitation and budget constraint are amongst the reasons that these communities are yet to realise their potential in these sectors.

The Mtubatuba Municipality (Gunjaneni) for instance is home to the Isimangaliso Wetland Park, a World Heritage Site. This tourist destination contains the 'Big Five' (*Big Five – Lion, Rhinoceros, Hippopotamus, Elephant and Cape buffalo*) alongside other tourist attractions. Hence, it has been attracting tourists locally and across the globe, while providing employment opportunities for the locals. In an interview with the Mayor, he alleged that should the Isimangaliso Wetland Park reach its full potential, it would be able to provide twice the number of jobs it currently provides while availing a host of other advantageous impacts to the Mtubatuba community and environs.

A similar tourism enthusiasm was shared by the Queen of Mgobodzi, Mrs Mkhathswa Eva Smangele. She alleged that the Mgobodzi community, which was in close proximity to the Kruger National Park, has a much of tourism potential. She did however claim that lacking was political will, investments and infrastructure.

The Lusikisiki Mcobothini community also has tourism potential. The *Pondo* traditional attire being worn by these community members is exceedingly admired by tourists. However, women who weave this traditional attire do not have sufficient finances to expand their businesses nor do they have a strong market linkage. The rich fertile soil and regular rainfall in Lusikisiki Mcobothini provides agricultural opportunities for this poor community. However, the majority of unemployed youth do not show interest in farming. Other opportunities amongst this trio of communities are inclusive of mining (Mtubatuba), sugar cane farming (Mtubatuba), Tea production (Lusikisiki Mcobothini) and Game Reserves (Mgobodzi).

Should these potential areas be fully harnessed, it would contribute to poverty alleviation and rural development amidst these communities.

8.3.10 Disconnect with community priorities

The post-apartheid government's approach has mainly been characterised as a 'blanket approach' (Ledwaba and Nhlengetwa 2016). This often implies that if electrification projects had been passed at legislative level, electrification will be installed across the nine provinces of South Africa. However, in many instances, the on-going project or initiative in a community had not also been the top priority of such communities. For instance, the construction of a multi-purpose hall in Gunjaneni was not considered a prior need amongst community members. Also, in the case of Lusikisiki, while the community members were agitating for water, the re-graveling of roads was undertaken by the municipality.

8.3.11 Nexus between unrest and investor deterrence

In relation to the disconnect raised in the previous sub-heading (see 8.5.10), when pressing demands of community members are not being met, unrest often follows wherein government properties or Councillors' personal possessions (house, car) are often burnt. Such atrocious behaviour often dissuades investors who may be willing to invest in such communities. An example is a 2017 incident in Lusikisiki Mcobothini where some community members expressed their grievances by destroying a community bridge due to their non-involvement in the bridge construction. This singular act deterred an investor who intended to start up a poultry business in the community. The establishment of such a poultry business could possibly have provided employment opportunities for community members, while reducing poverty amongst the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community.

8.4 Findings emerging through the Quantitative data

Quantitative data in this context implies data obtained through the questionnaires. These analyses are particularly directed to the study's (main) Aim, alongside objectives 1 and 4, which were to - *analysis the extent to which the major rural development initiatives of post-apartheid South Africa has contributed to poverty alleviation; evaluate the capacity of local government in implementing rural development initiatives, and to also identify the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni*. A total of 4 key findings emanated and are discussed below.

The Research Instrument (Quantitative)

The research instrument consisted of 13 items, with a level of measurement at a nominal or an ordinal level. The questionnaire was divided into four sections which measured various themes as illustrated below:

Table 8.2: Sections in accordance to themes

SECTION	THEME
Section A	Apartheid era (Rural developmental initiatives)
Section B	Post-apartheid era
Section C	Rural developmental initiatives (in the post-apartheid era)
Section D	Challenges to rural developmental initiatives

Reliability Statistics

Reliability is computed by taking several measurements on the same subjects. A reliability coefficient of 0.60 or higher is considered as “acceptable” for a newly developed construct. The table below reflects the Cronbach’s alpha score for all the items that constituted the questionnaire.

Table 8.3: Reliability statistics

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.600	10

The reliability scores for all sections meets the minimum recommended Cronbach’s alpha value. This indicates a degree of acceptable, consistent scoring for these sections of the research.

Biographical Data

This section summarises the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

The table below describes the region from which the respondents came.

Table 8.4: Respondents by region

	Frequency	Percent
Eastern Cape	173	32.5
KwaZulu-Natal	183	34.3
Mpumalanga	177	33.2
Total	533	100.0

There were similar numbers of respondents from each of the areas ($p = 0.867$).

Section Analysis

The following section analyses the scoring patterns of the respondents per variable per section. The results are first presented using percentages for the variables that constitute each section. Results are then further analysed according to the importance of the statements.

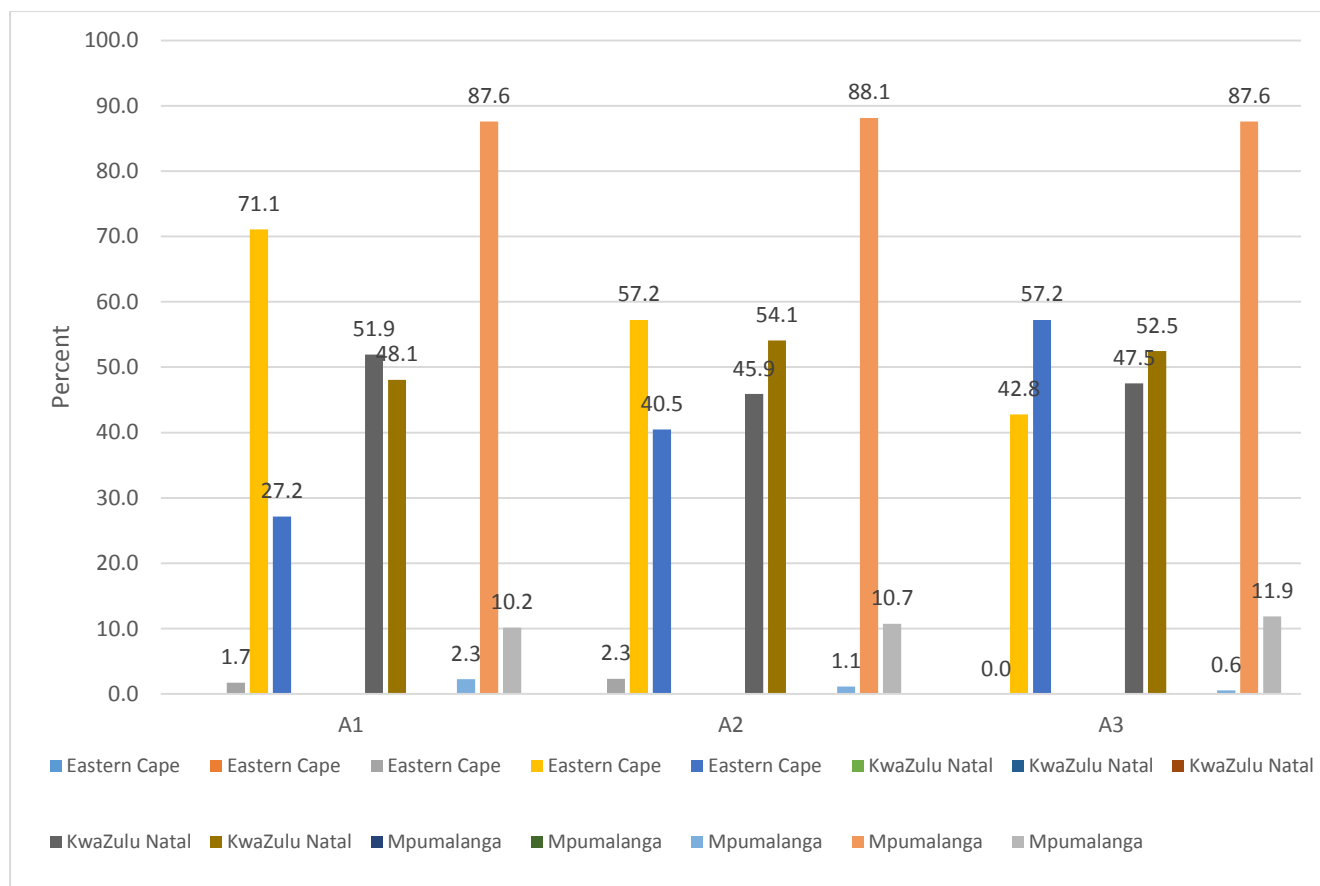
8.4.1 Section A: Rural developmental initiatives in the Apartheid era

The line of questioning posed here was to enquire after the opinions of participants regarding their perspectives on rural developmental initiatives during the Apartheid era. Then, comparisons are made with rural developmental initiatives in the post-Apartheid era (Jacob Zuma's regime). All participants to whom questionnaires were administered were 35 years old and had lived in their locality during the apartheid and post-apartheid eras. Thus, the questions posed in the first section of the questionnaire were inclusive of:

- (A 1) Whether Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) of the apartheid era were in line with the community's need?
- (A 2) Whether Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in the apartheid era contributed to rural development?
- (A 3) Whether Rural developmental initiatives (programme) in the apartheid era were well implemented?

Hence, the Likert scale form of questioning was used to quantify respondents' responses, which ranged from 'Strongly Agree to Agree, Indifferent, Disagree and Strongly Disagree'. The results are presented in Figure 8.1 below.

Figure 8.1: Rural developmental initiatives during the apartheid era



From the analysis contained herein, the responses were synonymous across the communities of Mgobodzi (Mpumalanga), Lusikisiki Mcobothini (Eastern Cape) and Gunjaneni (KwaZulu-Natal) on whether *Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) of the apartheid era were in line with the community's need?* There were high levels of disagreement. In accordance to the responses from Mgobodzi, 87.6 percent Strongly disagreed; 10.2 Disagreed and 2.3 percent were Indifferent. Similar sentiments were shared in Lusikisiki Mcobothini, with Strongly disagree being 71.1 percent; Disagreement at 27.2 percent; and Indifference at 1.7 percent. In the case of Gunjaneni, the responses were as follows: Strongly disagree at 48.1 percent and Disagree at 51.9 percent.

Responses obtained from these three rural communities are consistent with findings by Greenberg (2004), Coovadia, Jewkes, Barron, Sanders and McIntyre (2009), Den Heever (2016) and Stull, Bell and Ncwadi (2016), who all allege that the apartheid government

denied the Homelands (inclusive of rural communities) basic or fundamental services. Lephakga (2013) further mentions that the Homeland inhabitants continuously faced an oppressive government who denied them every right.

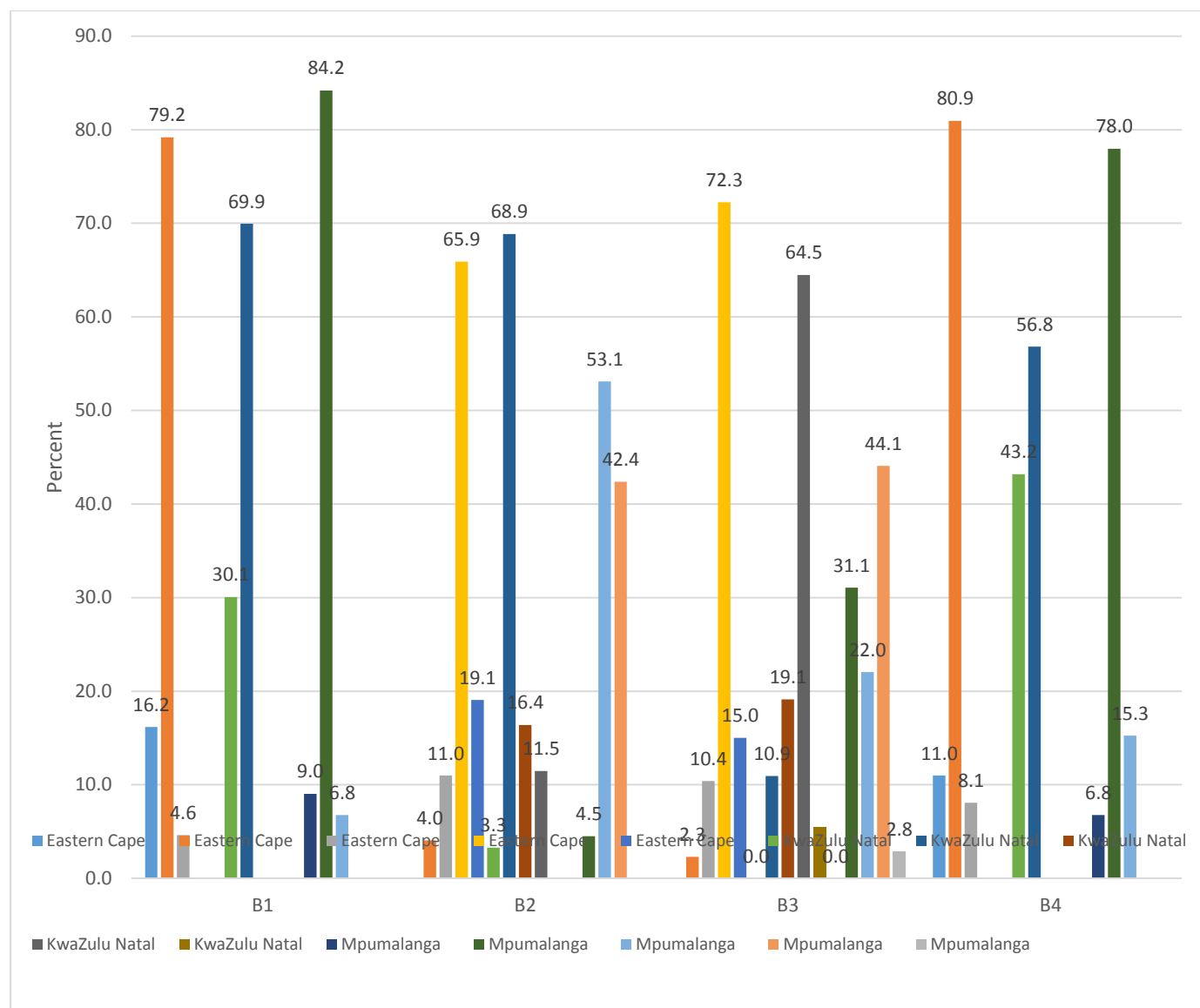
When asked if *Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in the apartheid era contributed to rural development?* as well as if *Rural developmental initiatives (programme) in the apartheid era were well implemented?* the responses were equally *anti-apartheid* across the three communities for both questions. The majority of the respondents amongst these three communities either responded ‘Strongly Disagree’ or ‘Disagree’. This largely signifies the level of dissatisfaction amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni with regard to rural development initiatives during the apartheid era. This line of questioning attempts to draw a comparison in the later stage of this subsection, where similar questions are posed to participants regarding rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era.

A variety of literature on themes such as rural development, apartheid, poverty and inequality do affirm the claims made by participants of this study (Rogan 2016; Omotoso and Koch 2018; Zimbalist 2017b; David, Guilbert, Hamaguchi, Higashi, Hino, Leibbrand and Shifa 2018; Mhlauli, Salani and Mokotedi 2015). Assertions on the contributory role played by rural development initiatives, as well as disconnects in terms of provision by government and community needs were voiced by participants. A variety of earlier literature equally provides similar rhetoric. Rogerson and Nel (2016) argue that poverty amongst the former homelands (rural communities) was orchestrated by the apartheid era. In work done by Jorge, Carter, and May (2007), a similar assertion is made when he mentioned that the under-development and poverty witnessed amongst rural communities of South Africa today was a ‘Legacy of the apartheid era’.

8.4.2 Section B: Rural development initiatives during the post-apartheid era

This sub-section relays the views of participants regarding the manner in which the municipality runs their community (B1); if the local government addresses their needs promptly (B2); if rural development initiatives were in line with community needs (B3); and if rural development initiatives (programmes) in the post-apartheid era have contributed to rural development (B4). The responses are illustrated in Figure 8.2 below.

Figure 8.2: Rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era



The responses of participants were as follows when asked if *'there has been a significant difference in the manner in which the municipality is being run compared to during the apartheid era'*: 53.1 percent of participants in Mgobodzi Strongly Agreed with this statement, while 4.5 percent were in Agreement and the remaining 42.4 percent of participants Disagreed. The responses in Lusikisiki Mcobothini were slightly different as 4 percent of participants Agreed, 11 percent were Indifferent; 65.9 percent Disagreed; while the remaining 19.1 percent of participants Strongly Disagreed with this statement. There was a much larger variance in the responses provided by participants from the Gunjaneni community. Amongst the Gunjaneni participants, 3.3 percent Strongly Agreed that there has been a significant difference in the manner in which the municipality is been run as compared to the apartheid era, while 68.9 percent did Agree with this statement, 16.4 percent were Indifferent and the remaining 11.5 percent were in Disagreement with this statement.

As deduced from the analysis, the highest level of disagreement was amongst the participants from Lusikisiki Mcobothini regarding the manner in which their municipality was being run. A significant portion amongst this community did imply that there has not been much difference in the manner their community was being run as this community still lacked basic and essential amenities such as potable water, decent housing and clinics. Although the South African government had provided more than 4.3 million RDP houses to well-deserving households (Msindo 2016), none of the household members in this community had benefited from the housing scheme. Hence, the disgruntled residents of Lusikisiki Mcobothini felt excluded from the ongoing transformation in post-apartheid South Africa. Exemplifying with the 'national 5 percent water backlog', the Department of Water and Sanitation (2016) cited by Bakre and Dorasamy (2017) does attest that an estimated 5 percent of households in South Africa, particularly those in deep rural communities, are yet to have access to potable water.

Amongst these excluded communities are those of Lusikisiki Mcobothini, Mgododzi and Gunjaneni.

Furthermore, when participants amongst these three communities were asked if '*the local government addresses the needs of the community promptly*'. 53.1 percent of the Mgododzi community members Strongly Agreed with this statement, 4.5 percent Agreed and while 42.4 percent Disagreed. A significant variance was noted in the responses provided by the Lusikisiki Mcobothini participants. While 4 percent of participants did Agree that the local government addresses the needs of their community promptly, 11 percent were Indifferent; 65.9 percent Disagreed; and 19.1 percent Strongly Disagreed. In the Gunjaneni community, 3.3 percent Strongly Agreed with this statement; 68.9 percent were in Agreement; 16.4 were Indifferent; and 11.5 percent Disagreed.

The community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini once again recorded the highest level of discontentment. It could be inferred from the above analysis that these community members did feel that the local government did not address their communal needs promptly enough. This assertion is supported by Zimbalist (2017b) who claims that distinctive dissimilarities amongst the rural and urban municipalities of South Africa were inclusive of the quality of services offered and the timeliness of services offered, whereby services offered by most rural municipalities were far below that offered by their urban counterparts.

In enquiring if there was a relationship between rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era and community needs, participants were asked if '*Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) of the post- apartheid era are in line with the community's need?*'. In response, 31.1 percent of participants from the Mgododzi community Agreed with this statement, 22 percent were Indifferent, 44.1 percent were in Disagreement and only 2.8 percent of the participants of this community Strongly Disagreed that the rural development

initiatives of the post-apartheid era were in line with community needs. When the same question was posed to the community members of Lusikisiki Mcobothini, 2.3 percent Agreed; 10.4 percent were Indifferent; a significantly high percentage of 72.3 were in Disagreement; while the remaining 15 percent of participants Strongly Disagreed with this statement. High levels of disagreement were also recorded within the community of Gunjaneni when participants were asked if rural developmental initiatives of the post-apartheid era were in line with community needs. Only 10.9 percent of participants Agreed with this statement; 19.1 percent were Indifferent; 64.5 percent Disagreed; and 5.5 percent Strongly Disagreed.

In this sub-section, the highest proportion of disagreement was noted amongst the communities of Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. By interpolating one of the findings through the focus group interviews conducted in Gunjaneni into this quantitative result, community members did provide a textbook example of the disconnect between their communal needs, and that provided by the government when an issue of a multi-purpose hall was raised. Community members mentioned that while their pressing needs were inclusive of water and capital for agricultural purposes and farming equipment, the government however did not provide any such, but built a multi-purpose hall that they barely used.

The researcher further investigated if Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in the post-apartheid era have contributed to rural development. In consonance, 6.8 percent of participants from Mgobodzi Strongly Agreed that rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era have contributed to rural development; 78 percent were in Agreement; and the remaining 15.3 percent were Indifferent. Similar responses were noted in the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community. Amongst these participants, 11 percent Strongly Agreed with this statement, 80.9 Agreed; and 8.1 percent were Indifferent. All participants in Gunjaneni were in agreement that rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era had contributed to

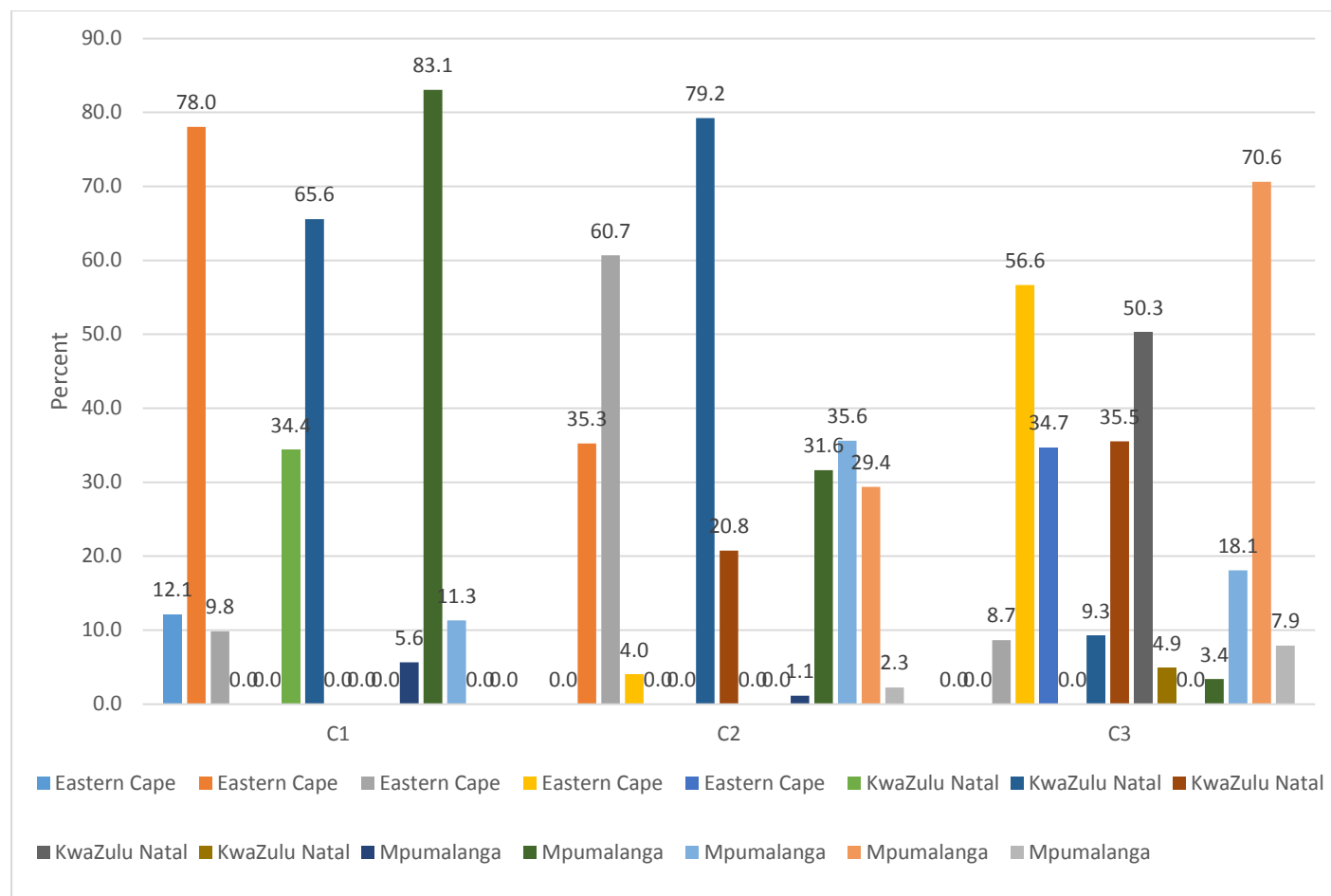
rural development, with 43.2 percent Strongly Agreeing and 56.8 percent Agreeing with this statement.

As noted here, across the three communities, the dominant perception was that *rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era had significantly contributed to rural development*. Although some participants had shown their discontentment on certain issues regarding rural developmental concerns, a general consensus was that their communities had benefitted from rural development initiatives. Both governmental and non-governmental authors equally attest to this assertion (Azimoh, Klintenberg, Wallin and Karlsson 2015: 355; Neves 2017; The Presidency 2014; Statistics South Africa 2017; Alberts, Rheeder, Gelderblom, Shephard, Burger 2019). Such sources are Frost, Jenkins and Emmink (2017) and Binswanger-Mkhize (2014) who affirm that rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era have significantly contributed to poverty alleviation, improved the standard of living amongst rural residents and also improved their access to healthcare.

8.4.3 Section C: Rural development initiatives

Herein, the researcher enquired of participants if *rural development initiatives (programmes) are linked to basic needs (C1); If Rural development initiatives (programmes) are well implemented (C2); and if Rural development initiatives (programmes) are implemented in time (C3)*. Regarding this line of questioning, the responses across these three communities are illustrated in Figure 8.3.

Figure 8.3: Rural development initiatives in the post-apartheid era



When participants of Mgobodzi was asked if '*rural development initiatives (programmes) are linked to basic needs*', only 3.4 percent Agreed that rural development initiatives were linked with basic needs; 18.1 percent were Indifferent; and a significantly higher percentage were in disagreement. Amongst these, 70.6 Disagreed and 7.9 percent Strongly Disagreed that rural development initiatives were linked to basic needs. More than half of the participants in Lusikisiki Mcobothini were in disagreement with the statement that rural developmental initiatives were linked to basic needs. Amongst these participants, 56. 6 percent Disagreed, 34.7 percent Strongly Disagreed and only 8.7 percent of the participants were Indifferent to this statement. A slightly divergent trend was observed in the Gunjaneni

community. Only 9.3 percent of participants Agreed that rural development initiatives were linked to basic needs; 35.5 were Indifferent; 50.3 percent Disagreed; while 4.9 percent of participants of this locality Strongly Disagreed with this statement.

These findings are in opposition to a variety of literature on rural developmental concerns which often allege that rural developmental initiatives are closely linked to the fundamental needs of rural communities (Casidra 2019; Theledi 2017). Participants may have shown discontent over this concern as a majority of rural development initiatives are orchestrated at the national level and may not necessarily be the most pressing concern of a particular community. For instance, an electrification installation project may be instituted by the government amongst wards or districts of a specific Province, while the most pressing concern in such wards or districts is water. Hence, such disparity in the urgency of need may have been the reason participants were of the view that rural development initiatives were not linked to their basic needs.

Several critics have often opposed this ‘blanket approach’ employed by the government (Du toit 2018; Morrone 2017; Walder and Kantelhardt 2018), while advocating for the provision of specific needs or demands by communities at the grassroots level.

When participants in Mgobodzi were asked if *Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) are well implemented*, as little as 1.1 percent Strongly Agreed with this statement; 31.6 Agreed; 35.6 percent were Indifferent; 29.4 percent Disagreed; and the remaining 2.3 percent of participants Strongly Disagreed. Amongst the Lusikisiki Mcobothini residents, while 35.3 percent Agreed that rural development initiatives are well implemented, the bulk of participants were Indifferent (60.7 percent) and the remaining 4 percent Disagreed that rural developmental initiatives were well implemented. The community of Gunjaneni had the

highest portion of participants (79.2 percent) Agreeing that rural development initiatives were well implemented, while the remaining 20.8 percent were indecisive (Indifferent).

Responses by participants from Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini slightly echo the sentiments shared by earlier authors. A majority of authors hold the view that rural community members are often discontented with the quality of services offered by their municipalities or the manner in which initiatives are carried out (Ramavhona and Mokwena 2016; Ameh, Klipstein-Grobusch, D'ambrosio, Kahn, Tollman, Xavier and Gómez-Olivé 2016; Winchester and King 2018; Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 239). On the contrary, the responses obtained in Gunjaneni contravene the mainstream narrative. Herein, most participants were of the view that rural development initiatives were well implemented. Hence, this may suggest high confidence in local governance.

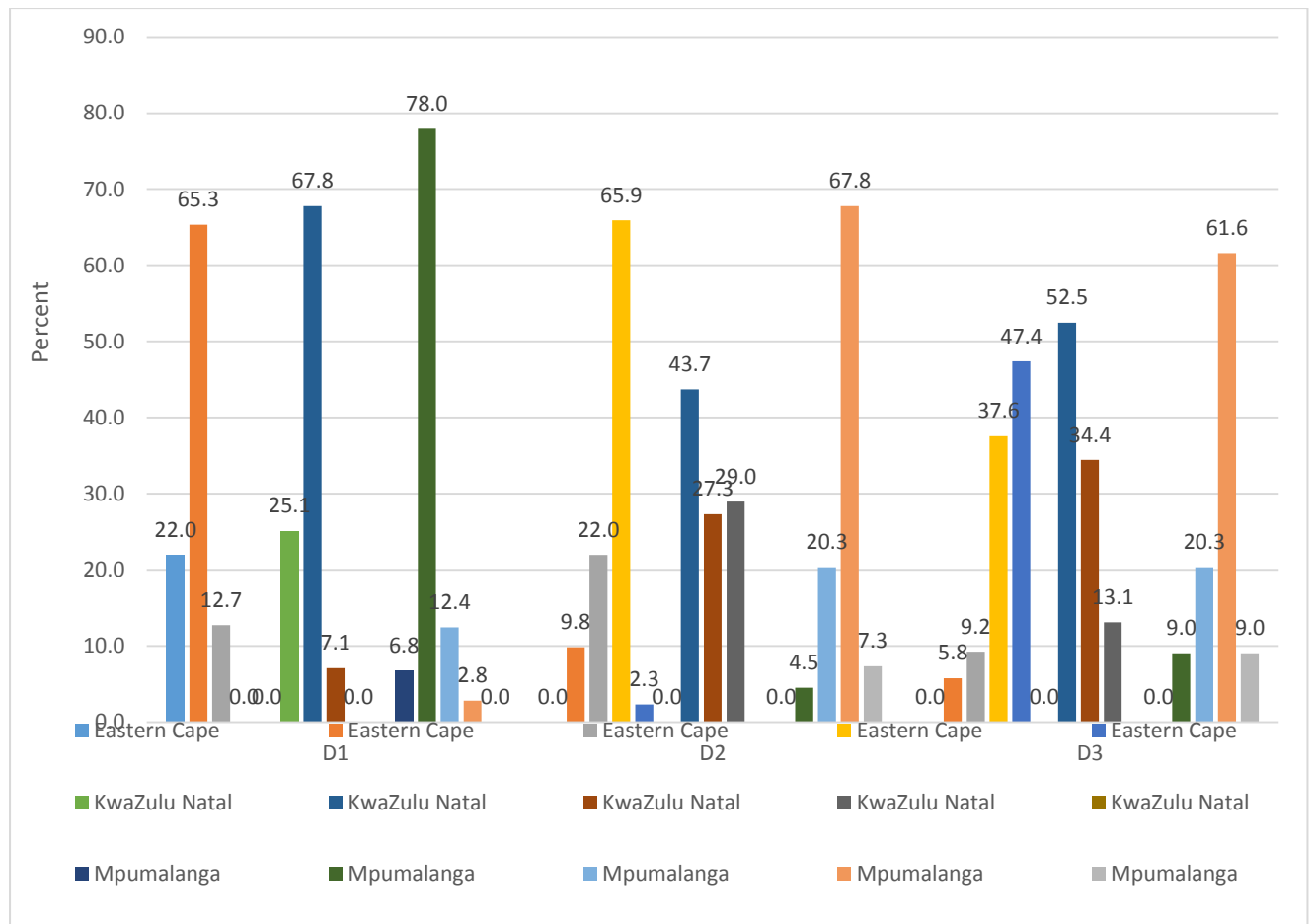
When the researcher enquired *if Rural development initiatives (programmes) were implemented in time*, 3.4 percent of the Mgobodzi community Agreed that rural development initiatives were implemented in time; 18.1 percent were indecisive; the majority (70.6 percent) Disagreed and a further 7.9 percent of participants Strongly Disagreed. When the same question was posed to the residents of Lusikisiki Mcobothini, none of the participants Agreed that rural developmental initiatives were being implemented in time. The majority Disagreed (56.6 percent) and a further 34.7 percent Strongly Disagreed. However, a minority (8.7 percent) were Indecisive (Indifferent). A slightly different trend was observed in Gunjaneni. However, the extent of Disagreement was quite synonymous with the other two communities (Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini). Herein, only 9.3 percent of the participants Agreed that rural developmental initiatives were being implemented in time; 35.5 percent were Indecisive (Indifferent); 50.3 percent Disagreed and the remaining 4.9 percent Strongly Disagreed.

As inferred in this sub-section, similar sentiments were echoed regarding whether rural development initiatives were implemented in time. Herein, participants across the three communities (particularly in Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini) showed discontent on the timeliness of rural developmental initiatives. This finding is further echoed by Luruli, Netshandama and Francis (2016), Maimela *et al.* (2015), and Brettenny and Sharp (2016), who assert that rural developmental initiatives amongst rural communities are often not implemented timeously. Such a ‘time factor’ may possibly delay the pace of development of a community, while impacting on poverty.

8.4.4 Section D- Challenges to rural development initiatives

In this section, the researcher made attempts to tie the questions with the study’s second and fourth objectives, which were *to evaluate the capacity of local government to implement rural development initiatives*, as well as *to identify the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural development initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki and Gunjaneni*. Perceptions of participants are illustrated in Figure 8.4 below.

Figure 8.4: Challenges attributed to rural development initiatives



In consonance, when participants were asked if *there are challenges attributed to the implementation of rural development initiatives (programmes)*, 6.8 percent of the participants from Mgobodzi Strongly Agreed that there were challenges attributed to the implementation of rural development initiatives; 78 percent Agreed; 12.4 percent were Indifferent; and the remaining 2.8 percent Disagreed with this statement. In the Lusikisiki Mcobothini community, 22 percent Strongly Agreed that there were challenges attributed to the implementation of rural development initiatives (programmes); 65.3 percent Agreed; and 12.7 percent were Indecisive. Similar views were also observed amongst the Gunjaneni

residents as 25.1 percent of participants Strongly Agreed with this statement; 67.8 percent Agreed; and the remaining 7.1 percent of the participants were Indecisive (Indifferent).

A general sentiment echoed amongst the participants in this trio of communities was that there were challenges attributed to the implementation of rural development initiatives. This question was also attuned to the study's second objective: *to evaluate the capacity of local government to implement rural development initiatives*. In as much as there were identified challenges, such as 'insufficiency of funds', 'lack of municipality resources' and 'lack of expertise' for the effective implementation of rural development initiatives, some of the challenges attributed to rural development initiatives may also have included those aligned specifically to a Councillor or a key rural development stakeholder. One such may include the 'inability to draft a developmental proposal' for the betterment of a community.

These sentiments echoed amongst the participants resonates with studies conducted by Zasada, Reutter, Piorr, Lefebvre and Paloma (2015), Sherman *et al.* 2016, Wilgen and Wannenburgh (2016), and Marais and Petersen (2015) who all emphasised the nature of challenges attributed to the implementation of rural development initiatives in South Africa. Some of the key challenges identified in these studies were the dearth of competent personnel, insufficiency of funds, poor monitoring, poor accountability and a non-evaluation culture.

When participants were asked if the *challenges to the implementation of rural development initiatives (programmes) were being addressed*, a majority of the participants from Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini 'disagreed' that the challenges to the implementation of rural development initiatives were being addressed. In this section, 4.5 percent of participants from Mgobodzi Agreed with this statement; 20.3 percent were Indecisive; 67.8 percent Disagreed,

while a further 7.3 percent Strongly Disagreed. Similar trends to those observed in Mgobodzi resonated in Lusikisiki Mcobothini, where 9.8 percent of participants Agreed that challenges to the implementation of rural development initiatives were been addressed; 22 percent were Indecisive; a high majority (65.9 percent) Disagreed; while the remaining 2.3 percent Strongly Disagreed. There was slight divergence of views in Gunjaneni as 43.7 percent of participants in this community Strongly Agreed that challenges to the implementation of rural development initiatives were been addressed; 27.3 percent were Indecisive; while the remaining 29 percent Disagreed with this statement.

Besides the respondents from Gunjaneni, the other two communities (Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini) both revealed a high level of disagreement regarding whether challenges to rural development initiatives were being addressed. Such assertion by the duo of communities are in line with Strydom, Mangope and Henama (2018), Goldman *et al.* (2015), and Ezeudji's (2015) assertion, which argues that the poor monitoring and evaluation of developmental programmes amongst the rural communities of South Africa has significantly hindered the pace of development amongst these communities. Hence, rural development stakeholders will need to address these deficiencies as a means of accelerating rural development.

Furthermore, when participants were asked if *the local government is capable of addressing the challenges attributed to rural development initiatives (programmes)*, only 9 percent of participants from Mgobodzi Agreed that the local government was capable of addressing challenges attributed to rural development initiatives; 20.3 percent were Indecisive (Indifferent); 61.6 percent were in Disagreement with this statement, while a further 9 percent Strongly Disagreed. A higher level of disagreement was noted amongst the residents of

Lusikisiki Mcobothini. In this community, only 5.8 percent were in Agreement that the local government was capable of addressing the challenges attributed to rural development initiatives; 9.2 percent of the participants were Indecisive; 37.6 percent Disagreed; and the remaining 47.4 percent Strongly Disagreed. A contradictory trend was observed amongst the participants of Gunjaneni when the same question was asked. Herein, a high majority (52.5 percent) did affirm (Agree) that the local government was capable of addressing the challenges attributed to rural development initiatives; 34.4 percent were unassertive (Indifferent); and only 13.1 percent of participants from Gunjaneni Disagreed with this statement.

During the questionnaire administration, some participants were unsure what the question in this section implied: *the local government is capable of addressing the challenges attributed to rural developmental initiatives*. Hence, the researcher explained further and gave examples. The researcher did expound that the challenges attributed to rural development initiatives were inclusive of corruption; nepotism; lack of skills; unethical practices; theft of livestock; water shortages; low levels of literacy; and in-fighting amongst beneficiaries. Thus, they were asked if their respective local governments could address such challenges. The line of questioning was aided in evaluating participants' views on the capacity of local government in implementing rural developmental initiatives, which was the study's second objective. The researcher could use this alongside other sources to determine the level of confidence that community members had in their respective local governments.

However, a number of studies were in Agreement to findings emanating from Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini as regards their (respective) local governments' capability in addressing challenges attributed to rural developmental concerns, while in the case of Gunjaneni, the finding on the same concern was in disagreement with most literature. Prior to the Local Government elections in 2011, a survey conducted amongst the nine provinces by

the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) revealed that less than half of the participants had confidence (trust) in local government (Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 239). As pointed out in this survey, only 38 percent of participants had confidence (trust) in local government, while the level of trust for national and provincial governments were 53 percent and 46 percent respectively (Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 239). Ostensibly, the level of trust is expected to be highest at the local government. This assertion is premised on the fact that local government is closest to the citizenry. Ironically, the populace had more confidence (trust) for government at national and provincial levels (Vivier and Wentzel 2013: 240). More recent studies by Chingwete (2016) also claim that levels of trust and confidence amongst community members is lowest at the local government level, particularly amongst the rural municipalities.

8.5 Findings emerging through literature and documents review

Stemming from a variety of contemporary literature on rural developmental initiatives, and poverty in rural South Africa, as well as a review of a wide range of government documents which ranged from White to Green Papers, legislation, statistical reports and government gazettes related to the subject matter, six key findings in consonance with the study's scope emerged. These are discussed below.

8.5.1 Coal-driven economy versus rural development initiatives

The South African economy is largely driven by coal (Swilling, Musango and Wakeford 2015). As at the third quarter of 2018, an estimated 90 percent of energy generated by South Africa's power utility ESKOM was generated through coal (Burton, Marquard and McCall 2019). However, the Ministry of Energy alongside the ESKOM Board are currently making

efforts to produce energy through clean and reduced-pollutant renewable sources such as energy generated through wind in the Eastern Cape, as well as energy generated through Solar power in the North West Province (Walwyn and Brent 2015; McEwan 2017; Winkler, Lemke, Ritter and Lewandowski 2017). In referral to comments made by Ms Thembilisile Majola, the then Deputy Minister of Energy (on the 31st of October, 2018) during an interview with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), she remarked that South African government intends to increase renewable energy sources by four percent over the next five years. Even if this four percent increment on renewable energy sources is achieved, it will not make a significant difference in comparison to the extent of the destructive impact of coal emissions as the extent of destruction is forecast to still occur in the near future. The impact of coal emissions vis a vis the adverse consequences of climate change is quite visible across most provinces of South Africa. One such was the months of drought experienced in the Western Cape and North West Provinces in 2018 (Elum, Modise and Marr 2017; Adam and Strzepek 2015). The severe droughts and dryness of farmlands are heavily impacting on subsistence farming amongst rural communities, which accounts for more than 55 percent of the rural livelihoods of South Africa (Mbiba, Collinson, Hunter and Twine 2018; Mbatha and Masuku 2018; Blair, Shackleton and Mograbi 2018). Thus, rural development stakeholders will have to take much cognizance of this challenge while proposing and implementing rural developmental initiatives and work towards a green and sustainable environment, whilst also shifting towards a non-farming rural economy as an agendum to creating much needed employment opportunities amongst the rural populace. The overall aim of this would be to tackle poverty amidst these rural communities. In conclusion, it has been proven empirically that the current rural development initiatives used in South Africa do not match the pace of resource depletion attributed to the impact of climate change (Valls-Fox *et al.* 2018; Masindi, Chatzisymeon, Kortidis and Foteinis 2018; Liu, van Dam, Pantaleo and Guo 2018).

8.5.2 Migrational trends

A variety of contemporary studies on migration amongst rural-urban communities have emphasised the relationship between variables such as climate change, employment opportunities and poverty (Bernzen, Jenkins and Braun 2018; Liu and Li 2017; Mastrorillo *et al.* 2016; Hummel 2015). An assertion amongst some of these studies is the adverse consequence of climate change, which experts claim is driving rural residents out of their domain in search of employment opportunities as a means of escaping poverty (Nawrotzki *et al.* 2015; Mastrorillo *et al.* 2016; Jha, Gupta, Chattopadhyay and Amarayil Sreeraman 2018). One such extreme migration exodus was that experienced in the rural community of Daga Birame, Senegal. Between 2012 and 2015, the majority of able-bodied men and women emigrated as their farmlands became un-farmable, which was attributed to climate change (Sanogo *et al.* 2017; Sanogo *et al.* 2016; Quist-Arcton 2015; Raile *et al.* 2019). Such trends are becoming a common practice across different regions of the globe (Jha *et al.* 2018). The consequence of such a rural-urban migrational trend is that it results in the remoteness of rural communities, wherein the able-bodied men and women leave their communities in search of employment opportunities in urban areas (Curran, Meijer-Irons and Garip 2016; Menigoz, Nathan, Heesch and Turrell 2018). This migrational trend may further exacerbate the extent of poverty amongst these communities, as the population left behind within such rural communities may mainly characterise the old, sick and under-aged, who also becomes a financial burden on local government as more will have to be expended on social grants, with a low tax collection revenue (Winkels 2012; Curran, Meijer-Irons and Garip 2016; Østby 2016; Imai, Gaiha and Garbero 2017).

Retrospection into South Africa's urban populace in the 1960s shows that it accounted for only 40 percent of the entire South African populace, while the rural populace was at 60

percent. About 50 years after the 1960s, the South African urban-rural ratio had been reversed as rural communities now account for less than 40 percent of the South African populace. This migrational trend is continuous, as the proportion of the rural population in comparison to the urban population keeps declining. One reason for the rural-migration is the search for employment opportunities and better livelihoods amongst the rural populace (Miheretu 2011; Lomoro, Xiong and Leju 2017). Should such migrational trends not be checked, this may result in remoteness and paucity amongst the rural communities of South Africa. Hence, the call for more stringent rural development initiatives aimed at creating viable rural spaces.

8.5.3 Nationalism agenda

The Donald Trump regime alongside some European countries such as Hungary and the United Kingdom have recently been promoting a nationalist agenda (Bonikowski and Di Maggio 2016; Anderson and Hecht 2018; Haas 1986). The principles of this agenda advocate the protection of national borders, stringent immigration laws on foreigners, Protectionism and the ban of free trade (Haas 1986; Caramani and Manucci 2019; Clark and Rohrschneider 2019). One of the adverse consequences of the ‘Nationalism’ agenda on poor or under-developed regions or countries is that financial aid is drastically cut (Akkerman, Zaslove and Spruyt 2017; Anderson and Hecht 2018). For instance, since the accession of President Donald Trump to the White House in 2016, his ‘America first’ agenda has resulted in the cutting of financial aid to several poor regions and countries (Westcott 2019). This has resulted in lower budgets for developmental initiatives amongst such countries. Furthermore, the nationalism agenda is one which is forecasted to further increase the inequality gap between the rich and poor nations, as well as the rich and poor across the globe (Haas 1986; Bieber 2018). Hence, with such a prevailing global trend, rural development initiators will have to strategise.

8.5.4 Strategic location of South Africa's coastal ports

An estimated 75 percent of the world's shipment passes through the coastal ports of South Africa (Rodrique and Browne n.d; United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) 2017). Economists and analyst have often argued that South Africa has not capitalised on the strategic geological advantage of her seaports (Ortiz-Ospina, Beltekian and Roser 2019; World Trade Organisation 2018). Such missed opportunities lie within the agricultural and manufacturing sector (World Trade Organisation 2018). Hence, considering the enormous agricultural potential that the rural communities of South Africa possess, such a strategic location may possibly boost South Africa's export and trade relations with the Asian and South American countries (Ortiz-Ospina, Beltekian and Roser 2019).

8.5.5 Re-thinking the role of Councillors

South African policy-makers have often been calling for the need to rethink the functions, duties and powers of local government (South African Local Government Association (SALGA) annual report 2016), which has often resulted in a robust debate pushing for the adoption of a framework at the national level aimed at enabling a smooth alignment of functions, which advocates an all-inclusive mandate of provinces, metropolitan and local municipalities as well as districts. In assigning functions, the principle of subsidiarity should be employed (SALGA Annual report 2016; SALGA 2015: 114). However, the assignment of powers and functions either at national or provincial or at local level has been a cumbersome one (SALGA 2015).

This argument is aptly validated by the accreditation of RDP houses. The Housing Act of 1997, amongst the earliest sector legislation, dealt with role of local governance in South Africa (Bremmer 2016). This Act contains the requirements and processes for housing accreditation at local government level. Almost seven years were spent by the Department of Human Settlements to initiate this process. This delay was premised upon the fact that the South African local government (in 1997) was at the interim stage of transition (Schneider and Kumar 2017).

However, the accreditation process started after the provincial and national elections in 2004. During this era, the Department of Human Settlement adopted the '*Breaking New Ground*' policy, which prioritised secondary cities and metropolitan municipalities. It was presumed that such prioritisation will facilitate a process wherein municipalities take complete ownership of housing projects within regions of their respective jurisdictions. This was meant to be actualised through a delegation of resources and responsibilities to municipalities (Wegner 2016).

In 2004, the Department of Human Settlements initiated the process. However, Level 1 accreditation was only received by metros in 2007. A few other metros only obtained their status in 2011. By 2012, the metros had begun to be awarded Level 2 accreditation. In 2013, a controversial decision was made at National level to transfer the housing project responsibility to metros. This implied that funds were disbursed directly to metros for housing projects. All accreditations were then suspended after the Provincial and National elections in 2014, which impeded the housing projects (Schneider and Kumar 2017).

The 'stop-start' approach of housing accreditation adversely impacted on the planning and delivery of projects and equally stalled the momentum of the entire initiative (Mthembu 2017). This resulted in discord amongst municipalities and national departments, which also

transcended to a poor relationship with the nine provinces. During this era, a number of issues resurfaced. Municipalities were reluctant to transfer housing projects to metros, while the transfer of assets and personnel also remained unsettled (Cousins and Hall 2018).

The uncertainty of responsibility and roles of local government occasionally undermines the effectiveness and planning at grassroots. This is often challenging for Councillors (local government) as the institutionalization of main regulations and legislation takes several years. A such, *'legislative projects and municipal structures have experienced a degree of instability, particularly due to the settling of powers and functions between all spheres of government'* (SALGA 2015: 114). These institutional concerns have been significantly detrimental to the efficiency and effectiveness of Councillors (local government).

8.5.6 Scarcity of professionals and experts in rural communities

A paucity of skilled professionals such as medical doctors, nurses and teachers, alongside other experts, have contributed to the poor services within the rural communities of South Africa (Reid, Peacocke, Kornik and Wolvaardt 2018; Gaede 2015; Grobler, Marais and Mabunda 2015). Furthermore, this paucity has often been the main cause of the ineffective utilisation of 'resources' within such rural communities (Van Stormbroek and Buchanan 2016; Jenkins, Louis, Gunst, Colette, Blitz, Julia, Coetzee and Johan 2015). Studies conducted by Manamela, Maake and Meso (2016) emphasise the sharp contrast between the level of competence and skills amongst urban and rural municipality personnel. This often 'attributed' low level of skills and competency amongst rural municipal personnel has adversely impacted on the success of developmental initiatives, as well as service delivery (Meyer 2014; Luruli, Netshandama and Francis 2016; Rispel 2016). Furthermore, professionals are often reluctant to work in rural communities (Financial and Fiscal

Commission 2013: 79). Scoones, Edelman, Borras, Hall, Wolford and White (2017) and Luruli, Netshandama and Francis (2016) argue that a constraint to the workability of some rural development initiatives lies in the inadequacy of human capacity amongst rural government officers and provincial administrators, as well as the ineffectual alignment of governmental initiatives delivered through departmental silos. In consonance to the argument raised here, the reinvigoration of municipality personnel is thus imperative in achieving successful rural developmental initiatives.

8.6 Summary and implication of findings

This sub-section attempts to show the convergence and dissimilarities amongst the findings from the qualitative and quantitative analyses, literature as well as audited documents. As a means to obtaining an emic perspective alongside general consensus on rural developmental initiatives amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, key stakeholders and beneficiaries were involved in this study. However, some remarks given by stakeholders were contradictory to those of beneficiaries. Hence, triangulation was employed as a third source to validating the accuracy of either party (Ormskirk 2004; Mertens and Hesse-Biber 2012). Such triangulation was achieved through a textual analysis of statistical reports, non-governmental sources as well as findings from independent researchers within the rural development domain. Triangulation was imperative in this context as stakeholders may possibly exaggerate the specific outputs of an initiative or provide a falsified account of rural developmental initiatives vis a vis poverty. Hence, such assertions made by key stakeholders could be checked by responses made by beneficiaries through the focus group interviews, questionnaire feedback, as well as recent reports on poverty indicators by Statistics South Africa.

Worth mentioning is that there were some divergent views amongst beneficiaries and key stakeholders on rural developmental concerns. Additionally, a few mutual assertions were upheld by both beneficiaries and key stakeholders. While there were predominantly negative and mutual views expressed on rural developmental concerns during the apartheid era, as well as general consensus on rural developmental initiatives not being implemented, there were also several differing views. Some of these are inclusive of the 'manner in which the municipality was being run in the apartheid era'. While a significant proportion of beneficiaries did assert that there was not much difference in the manner in which their municipalities were being run in comparison to the apartheid era, key stakeholders however had an opposing assertion. A similar sticking point was the issue: *if the local government does address communal needs promptly*. While the majority of beneficiaries did allude to a sluggish municipal approach to their needs, the key stakeholders however did claim that communal needs were promptly addressed. Furthermore, while the majority of beneficiaries did allude that some of the rural development initiatives were not in line with community needs, key stakeholders affirmed that rural development initiatives were in line with community needs.

The 'blanket approach' used by the NDRDLR as an agendum to accelerating rural development is perceived as inadequate and inappropriate, since most of these approaches did not redress the high rate of poverty amongst these communities. Inefficiency and the poor sustainability of rural developmental initiatives were often the order of the day. The persistent shortage of funds; lack of skills; water scarcity; infrastructural deficits and illiteracy amongst farmers hindered the growth of subsistence farmers. Moreover, corruption and unethical practices; poor implementation of policy; a lack of political will and policy uncertainty; the lack of entrepreneurship; and poor farm infrastructure and equipment hindered farmers from transiting from subsistence farming to commercialised farming. The non-adoption of water

resource management techniques and lack of funds to acquire irrigation technology has equally prevented farmers from transcending to large-scale farming. Due to the multi-complexity and dynamism of rural development and poverty-related concerns, there is a rather insignificant impact that the poorly resourced and inapt personnel within rural municipalities can achieve. There is no substantial evidence that the predominantly run agricultural initiatives amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni had made any significant impact. Rather, the youth had deserted such initiatives, while in-fighting amongst the elders (beneficiaries) had impeded the success of these initiatives.

In referral to deductions from the qualitative and quantitative enquiry, literature and a host of other audited governmental sources, it could be alleged that rural inhabitants are not passive beneficiaries of rural developmental initiatives that are ostensibly designed to better their livelihood. A repertoire of sources point to centralised planning which tends towards a top-down approach. Such an approach has often excluded rural inhabitants from being engaged in the planning process of their livelihood. Rather, this has been placed in the hands of state actors who may not fully grasp the grassroots and fundamental dynamics of rural spaces. This approach is adjudged not suitable for either agricultural or rural development, as typified by the Hlaleneni Landscape project in Gunjaneni. The rural development trajectory lacks crucial acumen into the fundamental needs of these poor communities. This laxity can be attributed to the habitual sidelining or exclusion of these rural inhabitants. The inclusion of rural inhabitants into specific rural developmental initiatives is a component of successful rural developmental initiatives towards the actualisation of poverty alleviation.

Summaries of key findings are further elaborated in the final chapter (see section 9.3).

8.7 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to integrate and analyse all findings and further discuss the implication of these findings for the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. The emanating results through the empirical analysis of this study has been contextualised within the parameters of the study's aim and objectives. This was achieved through a combination of thematic analysis, descriptive and inferential analysis, as well as textual analysis. The core findings emphasised in this chapter are consistent with earlier literature on rural developmental initiatives and poverty amongst the rural communities of South Africa. However, a few variances between the current study's findings and earlier literature were highlighted. Such variances were further discussed under the 'implications of findings' sub-section. Without speculation, rural developmental initiatives within the communities under study have marginally alleviated poverty. However, this to a lesser extent than anticipated by stakeholders and beneficiaries. These three communities are amongst the 5-7 percent of South African rural communities that are yet to benefit from the transformation in the post-apartheid era. For instance, as at the time of this study, none of these communities had benefitted from the low-income housing (RDP) initiative, while some others still lacked basic amenities such as water reticulation and electricity. The findings also suggest that the challenges found amidst these communities are overwhelming in comparison to the resources at the disposal of the Councillors.

The next chapter concludes the study whereby practicable recommendations are aligned with the study's key findings, while directions for future studies are suggested.

CHAPTER NINE - RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

In this chapter, recommendations are discussed through the data analysis and findings highlighted in Chapter 8. This chapter further highlights the realisation of the research aim and objectives; provides conclusions; formulates rural development models attuned to the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni; and also suggests areas that future studies may explore.

9.2 Realisation of the research aim and objectives

The cogent concepts, variables, verisimilitudes and nuances of this research are not restricted to a specific section or chapter, but are rather cascaded in a thematic fashion across Chapters 1 to 9. In pursuance of this study's objective, the *modus operandi* were not confined to a theoretical perspective (Literature); but also encapsulated an empirical phase (Interviews and Focused group interviews). This approach illuminated and complemented the literature-based knowledge in the field of rural development and poverty. The justification behind such a robust, holistic and eclectic approach was based on the intent of achieving an inductive (specific) and deductive (general) perspective within the South African context, as well as a globalised point of view. In consonance, this sub-section argues the realisation of the research aim and objectives as follows:

Aim: An analysis of the extent to which major rural development initiatives of post-apartheid South Africa have contributed to poverty alleviation

In-depth literature-based discussions provided the terrain to addressing the aforementioned. Such discussions delved into literature on core rural development initiatives within the post-apartheid era, with emphasis on Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma's administration (2009 and

2018). A number of statistical records from Statistics South Africa were also used in drawing inferences. Thus, the literature-based phase narrated the extent to which these rural developmental initiatives have contributed to poverty alleviation. These discussions on the theme were more predominant in Chapter 6, wherein the entirety of the chapter's foci was on the above theme (aim). In this chapter, literature on major rural developmental initiatives were extensively discussed, further illuminated and complemented by the Quantitative and Qualitative analyses in Chapter 8. The above theme (aim) was further expounded upon in Chapter 4 (sub-section 4.6).

Based on the repertoire of intensive literature and the empirical phase, the aim of the study is considered achieved.

Objective 1: To critically analyse rural development initiatives implemented in the post-apartheid era of South Africa

A review of governmental sources, such as publications by the NDRDLR, journals, periodicals and theses on the subject matter were extensively discussed. The literature-based phase of the study became the terrain from which rural developmental initiatives of the post-apartheid era of South Africa were discussed. Such discussions were mainly emphasised in Chapter 6 and also discussed in sub-section 1.2 (Chapter 1). Case studies on rural development initiatives were analysed in Chapter 6. A total of seven core rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid era, as well as five other rural initiatives implemented during this era were discussed. Premised upon the extensive literature review, it could be arguably said that Objective 1 was achieved.

Objective 2: To evaluate the capacity of local government to implement rural development initiatives

An analysis of the role and functions of local government was made in relation to rural development and rural developmental initiatives. In pursuance of the above theme, subsections 3.2 and 3.10 (Chapter 3); 8.3.3 and 8.4.4 (Chapter 8); as well as 9.3.3 (Chapter 9) were consonant with the *capacity of local government*, with emphasis on local governments' ability to implement rural developmental initiatives. Comparisons were equally made based on the responsibilities and duties of local government as contained in the SALGA document and the South African Constitution. Such duties were related to realities on the ground, as the researcher enquired of the participants whether their respective local governments were fulfilling the mandates contained in the SALGA document as well as that of the Constitution. Furthermore, detailed analyses touched on facets such as the timeliness of rural developmental initiatives (by local government) and the capacity to implement rural developmental initiatives, amongst other exegetic concerns. Thus, Objective 2 was comprehensively addressed.

Objective 3: To identify factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural development initiatives and the achievement of the desired outcomes for rural development

Premised upon the repertoire of successful rural developmental initiatives in Mgobodzi and Gunjaneni (in particularly), prominent stakeholders alongside beneficiaries were able to identify, discuss and pinpoint exegesis factors which contributed to such successes. One such prominent stakeholder was the Mayor of Mtubatuba Municipality (Cllr M.Q Mkhwanazi), who narrated his 15 years of political experience and was able to outline peculiar factors

contributing to rural development, as well as those contributing to rural developmental initiatives within Gunjaneni and Mtubatuba at large. Sub-sections 5.5 and 8.3.4 made particular reference to *Factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural development initiatives*. Hence, it can be concluded that Objective 3 was optimally realised.

Objective 4: To identify the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural development initiatives in Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki and Gunjaneni

The literature-based phase of this research directed the pathway to addressing the theme herein. This was supplemented by an empirical approach. Thus, a total of 18 challenges were identified as factors undermining rural developmental initiatives. An outline of all challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives was narrated in sub-section 8.3.5. Subsequently, sub-sections 1.3; 3.9 and 8.44 also encapsulate and delve into the weaknesses and challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives. Based on the assertion herein, it can be concluded that Objective 4 as being realised.

Objective 5: To develop a theoretical model recommending guidelines for successful rural development amongst the aforementioned communities

In formulating a model attuned to the three rural communities mentioned in this study, the second chapter provided a background to this agendum, wherein an analysis of concepts, approaches and theories on rural development were discussed. Further to this, sub-sections 5.5 and 9.5 equally encapsulated guidelines towards successful rural development. Thereupon, the researcher was able to formulate a rural developmental model which was tailor-made for these three rural communities. Due to the slight homogeneity of the rural communities of South Africa, the proposed model may also be replicated amongst other rural

communities with existing characters similar to those of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini or Gunjaneni. The proposed model is meticulously crafted for these communities based on well thought out considerations. In consonance with the researcher's assertion herein, Objective 5 has been optimally realised.

In continuance to the discuss on the 'realisation of the research aim and objectives', the proceeding section provides a synopsis of key findings which are aligned to this study's aim and objectives.

9.3 Summary of key findings

In consonance with the study's aim and objectives, this sub-section provides a synopsis of key findings between chapters One to Eight, without unnecessary repetition. In all, a total of nine key findings are outlined. These are thus elaborated as follows:

9.3.1 Rural developmental initiatives

It was quite evident that during the apartheid era, the apartheid regime was oppressive towards the former homelands (rural communities) which is arguably the reason for the under-development amongst these communities. Rural development analysts have often attributed the under-development and poverty amongst rural communities to the Legacy of the Apartheid era. Thus, for more than two decades, the post-apartheid government had taken several measures and approaches in an attempt to redress these concerns. Judging from the pitiable living condition and poor standard of living amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, it is apparent that rural development initiatives are yet to come to fruition. As attested to by both beneficiaries and prominent stakeholders of these

trio-communities, the desired result is not nearly in sight. A general concession amongst most beneficiaries Mgobodzi (84.8 percent); Lusikisiki Mcobothini (91.9 percent); and Gunjaneni (100 percent) was that rural development initiatives in the post-apartheid era have contributed towards rural development. Similar assertions were made by all key stakeholders, who argued that rural developmental initiatives, particularly those during the Jacob Zuma administration, had impacted on rural livelihoods across South Africa.

Additionally, a significant proportion of beneficiaries within Mgobodzi (57.6 percent) and Gunjaneni (72.2 percent) alleged that there had been a significant difference in the manner in which rural developmental initiatives were been implemented in their respective communities in comparison to the apartheid era. Only 4 percent of participants in Lusikisiki Mcobothini shared the same sentiments.

However, there were mixed reactions/indecisiveness amongst participants regarding *whether rural developmental initiatives were being 'properly implemented'*. While there were agreements with this statement (Mgobodzi – 32.7 percent; Lusikisiki Mcobothini – 35.3 percent; Gunjaneni – 79.2 percent), there were equally high percentages amongst participants who were Indecisive (Indifferent - Mgobodzi – 35.6 percent; Lusikisiki Mcobothini – 60.7 percent; Gunjaneni – 20.8 percent). This may suggest that these community members were uncertain or did not have much confidence as to the effectiveness or efficiency in the implementation of rural development initiatives.

Discontentment was expressed when the researcher enquired if rural developmental initiatives were linked to basic needs. Most respondents in Mgobodzi (78.5 percent) were of the view that rural developmental initiatives were not linked to basic needs, while 91.3 percent and 55.2 percent of respondents in Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni respectively

shared similar sentiments. The findings amongst these communities suggest a disconnect with reality, as the provision of basic needs were often not prioritised.

9.3.2 Rural developmental initiatives versus poverty

As echoed throughout the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) proposals, the main agenda of the NDRDLR was to alleviate poverty through rural development initiatives. However, a significant proportion of beneficiaries amongst these three rural communities are of the view that the rural development initiatives implemented in their communities have not truly tackled the scourge of poverty at a 'household' level. Judging from the endemic poverty, low standard of living, high incidence of unemployment and widespread subsistence farming, one is tempted to allude that there is widespread poverty amongst these communities. Recent statistical records slightly prove otherwise as figures herein claim that poverty amongst the communities of Mgobodzi (Nkomazi Municipality), Lusikisiki Mcobothini (Inquyz Hill Municipality) and Gunjaneni (Mtubatuba Municipality) which were previously 44 percent, 53 percent and 57 percent in 2011 respectively, had dropped to 39 percent, 49 percent and 51 percent by 2016. On face value, a general concession across the three communities was that the rural developmental initiatives had marginally contributed to poverty alleviation. However, the majority of these initiatives were of communal benefit and did not necessarily fulfil individual or household basic needs such as food security, the provision of pipe borne water, decent housing or employment.

9.3.3 Capacity of local government

The study emphasised that some of the participants in Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini had little confidence in their local government regarding the implementation of rural developmental initiatives. While 32.7 percent of participants from Mgobodzi had confidence

in their local government regarding the implementation of rural developmental initiatives, 35.3 percent of participants from Lusikisiki Mcobothini shared similar sentiments and an overwhelming 79.2 percent of participants from Gunjaneni showed confidence in their local government with regards to the implementation of rural developmental initiatives. The study further revealed that there were mostly high levels of discontentment in terms of the timeliness of implementation of rural developmental initiatives (Mgobodzi – 85 percent; Lusikisiki Mcobothini – 91.3 percent; Gunjaneni – 55.2 percent).

Additionally, besides the participants from Gunjaneni, 52.5 percent of whom did allege that their local government could address challenges attributed to rural developmental initiatives, the participants from Mgobodzi (70.6 percent) and Lusikisiki Mcobothini (85 percent) mostly disagreed that their local governments were capable of addressing the challenges attributed to rural developmental initiatives.

It was quite obvious that the challenges of the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni far outweighed the available resources at the disposal of these rural municipalities. Compounding this already known dilemma is the poor management of available resources. These rural communities were under-resourced in terms of personnel, machinery, equipment and infrastructure. A synonymous concern also raised was the poor budgetary allocation to run these rural municipalities. Furthermore, the presence of the national government was not felt at the grassroots level, which made it more cumbersome for local government to accomplish their objectives. In addressing rural development, it is imperative to re-invigorate rural municipalities and conduct training for Councillors. Such training should include Rural Developmental Proposal drafts, leadership skills, as well as resource management and sustainability.

9.3.4 Factors contributing to the successful implementation of rural developmental initiatives

Strong national and provincial support, as well as monitoring and evaluation, were amongst the main factors identified as success constituents to the implementation of rural developmental initiatives. These positive features were identified by stakeholders and beneficiaries as the success factor behind the *Masibuyele Esibayeni* and *Masibuyele Emasimini* initiatives in Nkomazi Municipality. Community participation and monitoring by Agricultural extension workers were equally identified as the success factors and sustainability of the Hlaleneni landscape initiative within the Gunjaneni community. Other factors identified were a good understanding of grassroots politics before embarking on a developmental initiative, good leadership and the involvement of beneficiaries at the preliminary stage of an initiative. Non-discriminative acts and the involvement of opposition parties could equally aid in stirring rural development initiatives in a less-frictional direction. Rich soil, as well as the commitment of personnel from the Department of Agriculture, were also identified as some prominent factors in the success of some agricultural/ rural developmental initiatives.

9.3.5 Challenges undermining rural developmental initiatives

Key factors identified as undermining rural developmental initiatives within the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni were inclusive of the exclusion of external entities; a lack of partnership with the private sector; minimal resources at the disposal of Councillors; a lack of information; corruption; poor management of resources; and faction fights as a result of politicking. Furthermore, the scarcity of professionals and experts within rural municipalities to run these rural development initiatives was also identified as a core issue in this study. The unwillingness of doctors, nurses and teachers, along with other professionals to work in rural communities has significantly undermined the success of some rural development initiatives.

9.3.6 Challenges undermining agricultural initiatives

The study identified insurmountable challenges undermining agricultural initiatives amongst the communities under study. Firstly, centralised planning is predominantly paternalistic in nature and thus excludes agricultural extension workers and farmers from the planning and policy formulation process. Side-lining such key actors has often proven to limit the extent of the success of several agricultural initiatives. The study also revealed that commercialised or individualised small-scale farmers were more productivity and successful than communal farming. One reason identified for the poor success rate of communal farming was in-fighting amongst beneficiaries over resources. Other prominent challenges also noted were water shortages, the theft of livestock, low levels of literacy, limited funds, poor entrepreneurial skills, poor infrastructure, poor market linkages, as well as beneficiaries pulling out of initiatives without prior notice.

9.3.7 Inefficiency of rural developmental stakeholders

The poor synergy amongst rural development stakeholders at national, provincial and local government levels has been a cogent concern undermining the efficiency of these parastatals. This poor synergy often results in the unnecessary repetition of rural developmental initiatives as well as poor coordination and monitoring of such initiatives. This concern also weighs heavily on the sustainability of rural developmental initiatives. The National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is yet to coordinate all the affairs and activities of its entities across the nine provinces. Working in isolation amongst rural development stakeholders is another cogent concern undermining their efficiency. Further to this, South Africa's rural development stakeholders are yet to tap into their BRICS counterparts. Tapping into some of the approaches the Chinese government used in lifting an estimated 60 million poor citizens out of poverty (within five years) may be looked into and

re-modified and adapted to the South African context. However, such ideas are yet to be explored by South Africa's rural development stakeholders.

9.3.8 Communal disenchantment with local government

A key finding during the focus group interview was the over-ambitious promises that politicians make during electioneering periods. The non-fulfilment of such promises often instigates friction, de-stabilises the community and also undermines interactions between the electorate and the elected. This loss of trust has occasionally stirred protests amongst these communities. As evidenced by a dispute in Lusikisiki Mcobothini community, nexus between unrest and investor deterrence exists (see section 8.3.11). This is perceived as a serious concern in a community where investments are highly imperative. In circumstances where grievances are not timeously or adequately addressed, such aggrieved parties do not support rural developmental initiatives and oftentimes result in the deliberate destruction of governmental properties or infrastructure (as seen in Lusikisiki Mcobothini - see section 8.3.11). Communal disenchantment often undermines community participation, which is arguably a key facet of rural development.

9.3.9 Root cause of poverty

Firstly, as earlier stated in the preliminary chapter of this study, the root cause of under-development and poverty amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni is majorly attributed to the deliberate act of repression by the apartheid government. Further to this oppressive era, the study also identified concerns such as Dependency syndrome; a dearth of job opportunities; a lack of education and skill; unsustainable and poor revenue generation by rural municipalities; high dependency on local government; and infrastructural deficits. Amongst all these concerns, the lack of employment

opportunity seems to be the key factor for poverty amongst these communities. The inadequacy of investments in the agricultural sector and non-agricultural sectors, as well as the lack of entrepreneurial competence has no doubt constricted the expansion of employment opportunities. Thus, the corollary of this paucity of employment opportunities within these communities is the out-migration of millennials who go, in search of employment opportunities in the nearest towns or cities. This ‘emigration’ of millennials has a number of consequences on these respective rural communities. One such consequence is the undermining of the viability of rural spaces.

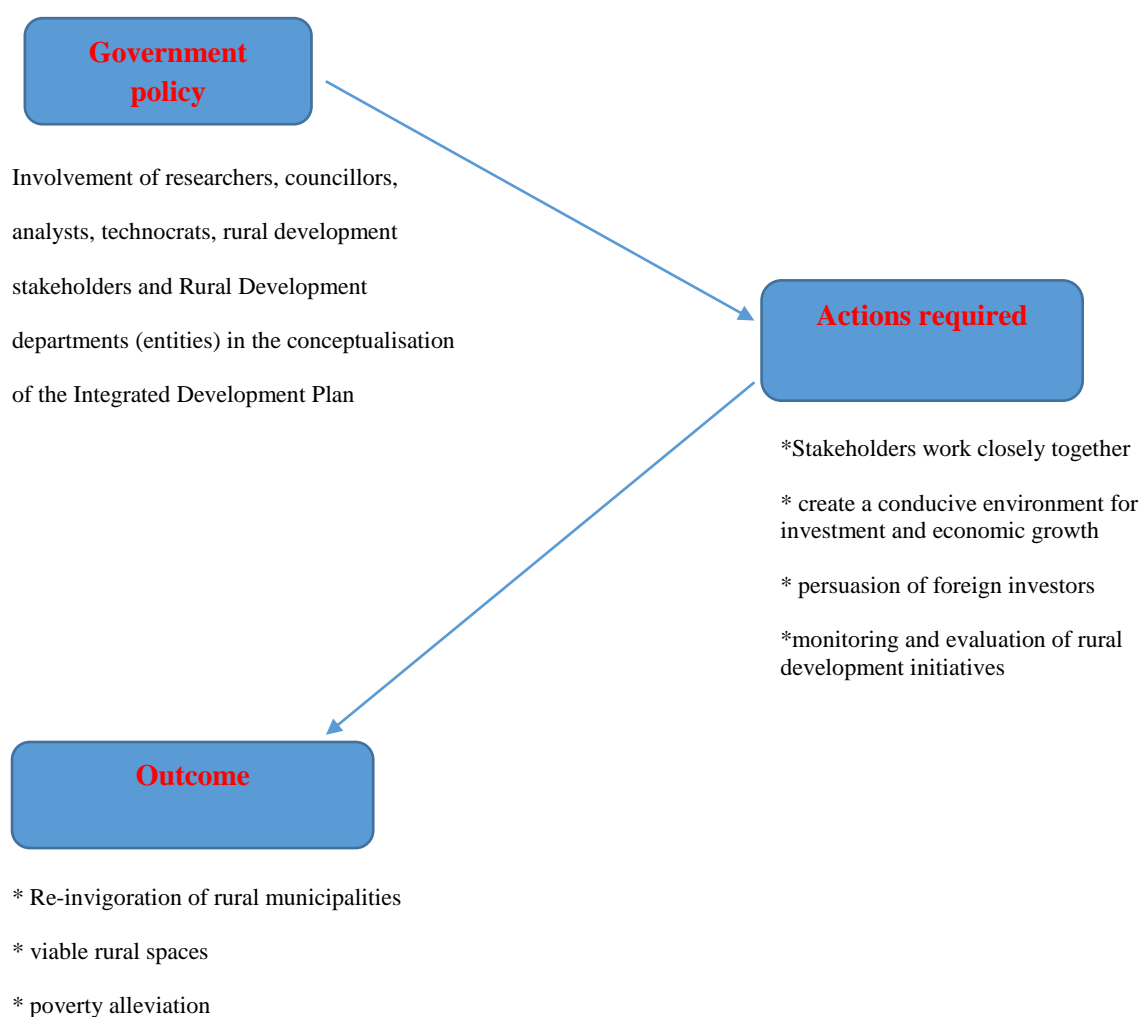
9.4 Recommendations

9.4.1 Re-invigorating rural municipalities

A variety of governmental and non-government sources have attested to the challenges and weaknesses attributed to rural municipalities in South Africa (Ainslie and Kepe 2016; Tessaro and Kepe 2014; NDRDLR 2018). Although these challenges may slightly vary across these rural municipalities, challenges such as poor capacitation; under-funding and poor resources are often synonymous issues amongst these municipalities. Therefore, this calls for the absorption of professionals, experts and technocrats within rural municipalities. Such recruitment should be made in alignment to departmental needs, community needs and areas of expertise of recruits. The inadequacy of skilled personnel has significantly impacted on the quality of services and the success of rural developmental initiatives amongst these communities (Reid, Peacocke, Kornik and Wolvaardt 2018; Gaede 2015; Grobler, Marais and Mabunda 2015). Good governance should also be ensured by strict adherence to the ethos stipulated in the *Batho Pele* principles. Furthermore, due to the shortage of funds allotted to rural developmental projects, rural municipalities should create fund generating measures internally through avenues such as leasing of land to private companies or

persuading foreign investors to invest in agriculture or tourism. Additionally, institution inertia amongst rural municipalities requires the capacitation of Councillors and institutional personnel within the municipality, as well as community members. The necessity of such capacitation cannot be over-emphasised as the competence levels of these sets of individuals directly impacts the success of rural developmental initiatives.

Figure 9.1: Re-invigorating rural municipalities



9.4.2 Institutional partnerships with rural municipalities

SALGA, alongside research institutions such as PLAAS and Universities, should form academic partnerships wherein research students are assigned to specific rural communities

to conduct intensive research with the intent of identifying the challenges of communities and exploring the possible potentials of such communities, while providing tailor-made recommendations specifically to such communities. Theoretical and empirical evidence from Brazil does affirm optimism in how research institutions have meaningfully contributed to rural development through agro-processing and bio-technology amongst the rural communities of Brazil (Amoran 2018; Swaminathan 2013). Such practices could equally be cascaded amongst potential agricultural communities such as Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini. Continuous academic partnerships amongst these rural municipalities and institutions could possibly, in the long-run, result in a greater synergy of research ideas across rural municipalities, wherein such academic partnerships are ongoing. This will result in a plausible developmental trajectory that is capable of accelerating rural development, while alleviating poverty.

9.4.3 Upscaling subsistence farming to commercial farming

Above 45 percent of households amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are directly (or indirectly) engaged in subsistence farming. This has often been perceived as a means of livelihood amongst these communities. With the exception of Gunjaneni, a significant portion of farmland within Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki Mcobothini has very fertile land and quite a significant youthful and able-bodied population. These two features, fertile land and potential workers, if optimised, will bear fruit in the agricultural sector amongst these communities. Considering the agricultural potential of these communities, the researcher proposes an upscaling of this predominant mode of farming, ‘subsistence farming’, to a commercialised form of farming through water resource management and tailor-made investment in the agricultural sector. However, due to the lack of skills, funds and competence amongst farmers within these communities, it thus becomes

imperative to involve external stakeholders in piloting such initiatives. This may be achieved by the involvement of private partnerships, the involvement of international players and local entities such as IFAD and PLAAS by the Department of Agriculture (in these respective communities). It has been empirically and theoretically proven over time that water resource management has been used to transform rural farming communities in India, Israel, Brazil and China (Sushma, Shashikant and Aishwarya 2019; Sokolov, Shashnov, Kotsemir, Grebenyuk 2018). Such transformative measures should be cascaded amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni as a means of transforming the subsistence mode of farming amongst these communities.

Should this 1st Phase of agricultural transformation through water resource management and investment be achieved amongst these communities, a 2nd Phase should follow through a gradual transition from farming income to non-farming income. Herein, non-farming employment such as small-scale manufacturing, small-scale businesses, transportation and carpentry are initiated. Such non-farming incomes will further augment farming-generated revenues. This is intended to stimulate the local economy while expanding employment opportunities. However, another area of concern which requires urgent attention is the ability to create a smooth flow from '*Tractor to Table*' or '*Farm to Fork*' as these subsistence farmers lack storage facilities and are unable to conveniently transport their fresh farm produce to the marketplaces. Furthermore, due to poor market linkages, they are unable to sell their farm produces profitably. Hence, as earlier mentioned, the involvement and expertise of external actors such as IFAD and PLAAS will be required in ensuring a smooth transition between the Tractor to the Table. It is strongly recommended that the Department of Agriculture amongst these communities form a formidable partnership with such institutions for the transformation of agricultural practices in these communities. Similarly

initiated transformation has alleviated millions of previously poor rural farmers in China out of poverty (Liu, Liu and Zhou 2017; Long and Liu 2016).

9.4.4 Capitalising on the strategic location of South Africa's coast

Over the last two centuries, a variety of intra and inter-continental trading and movement of goods had been on-going on a daily basis over the sea (Bezrukov 2018; Chin and Yusoff 2019). The majority of haulage being shipped is inclusive of oil and gas, agricultural produce, heavy industrial machinery, iron and steel products (Wang and Peng 2015; Eliasson, Ulfarsson, Valsson and Gardarsson 2017; Najeeb, AL-Shikh and Raju 2017). An estimated 11 billion metric tonnes are said to be shipped by sea annually (OECD 2018; UNCTAD 2018). Amongst these 11 billion metric tonnes, an estimated 8 250 000 000 million metric tonnes pass through the coast of South Africa, which translates to 75 percent of the world's haulage (UNCTAD 2017; UNCTAD 2018). Most of these shipment are often goods from Asia to South America and North America, and vice versa. Considering the unprecedented traffic on this shipping route, economic analysts have often argued that South Africa has not capitalised on her strategic geological advantage (Wang and Peng 2015; Eliasson, Ulfarsson, Valsson and Gardarsson 2017; Najeeb, AL-Shikh and Raju 2017). Such missed opportunities lie within the agricultural and manufacturing sector (Krapohl and Van Huut 2019; Von Bormann and Gulati 2016; Altieri, Trollip, Caetano, Hughes, Merven and Winkler 2016; Awokuse and Xie 2014). Hence, considering the enormous agricultural potential that rural communities of South Africa are possessed, such a strategic location may possibly boast South Africa's export and trade relations with the Asian and South American countries (Loyola 2016; Shankland and Goncalves 2016; MacDonald, Brauman, Sun, Carlson, Cassidy, Gerber and West 2015). Thus, as advocated in the previous sub-section (see Section 9.4.5), the upscaling of predominantly subsistence farming to commercialised farming

amongst South Africa's rural communities may be the path to alleviating poverty amongst these communities.

9.4.5 Infusing the IFAD model into rural developmental planning

IFAD's 2016 Rural Development report outlines five key phases towards achieving poverty alleviation in a rural community (IFAD 2016a: 22). These five phases are outlined in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1: IFAD's rural development model

	Phases	Workability
1st Phase	AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT	At this inception phase, efforts are made to improve the socio-economic well-being as well as standard of living amongst subsistence farmers and agricultural extension personnel. Also in this phase, concerted efforts are directed towards the maximal usage of natural resources such as land for agricultural practices, fisheries, forestry and livestock production. This also entails the improvement of services within the agricultural sector through technology advancement, incentives, irrigation, infrastructural development and the capacitation of farmers as well as agricultural extension workers.

Thus, in line with the above discourse,

current agricultural initiatives such as the *Masibuyele esibayeni*, *Masibuyele Emasimini* and *Hlaneni Landscape Project* running within these communities should be fine-tuned within this context. Additionally, beneficiaries of these initiatives should be capacitated, while efforts should be made to maximise the extensive land resources within these communities through investments in irrigation and infrastructural development.

2nd Phase **RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

This second phase is directed at expanding the opportunities availed to rural household members. Similar to Phase 1, the well-being of the rural populace is also taken into cognisance in Phase 2. Hence, Rural development entails not just agricultural development, but also comprises development in the educational and health sector, as well other pertinent social services. In achieving a rural developmental agenda in this phase, a multi-sectoral stratagem is employed in advancing agriculture, development of the manufacturing sector, the extraction and development of minerals, as well as the development of tourism.

In incorporating this 2nd Phase into this study, a gradual transition from the agricultural to the manufacturing sector will be imperative as an agendum to

expanding economic opportunities. Furthermore, establishments such as Tendelecoal Mining (Pty) Ltd (in Mtubatuba Municipality) should seek growth through partnership from well-established corporatives. Further to an economic expansion agenda, communities such as the Mgobodzi and Lusikisiki may harness their tourism potential through a well thought out Public-Private Partnership. Additionally, the much needed social amenities such as potable water, clinics and tarred roads should be provided.

3rd
Phase

RURAL TRANSFORMATION

In transforming rural spaces, productivity in the agricultural sector will have to be increased significantly. In accordance with historical records, no country has moved out of poverty without a sharp increment in agricultural output. However, during structural and rural transformation, the overall significance of agriculture then begins to dwindle, while other sectors begin to gain dominance (IFAD 2016a: 29).

Attaining rural transformation also implies deliberate efforts to transcend from subsistence to commercialised farming, as well as diversifying means of livelihood and production patterns. Rural transformation also entails the creation of decent non-farming opportunities,

improved service delivery and human capitiation with the intent of creating a sustainable and viable rural landscape.

Rural transformation may be orchestrated amongst these communities (under study) by re-invigorating current agricultural cooperatives through technological advancement, innovative agri-business ideas and Public-Private Partnerships with a long-term focus of transforming subsistence based agricultural cooperatives into commercialised and large-scale business ventures. Additionally, as opposed to the limited employment opportunities offered by the *Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP)* in these communities that offer employees a stipend of R600 monthly, more decent off-farm employment opportunities could be provided through the diversification of the rural economy. Such progressive economic potential lies in sectors such as tourism, mining, retail and manufacturing.

4th **INCLUSIVE RURAL**
Phase **TRANSFORMATION**

As emphasised in IFAD's report, this phase is perceived as one of importance, as the benefits of rural development vis a vis poverty alleviation are anticipated to trickle down to every single individual and household of the community (at this phase). In this phase, individuals also have social, economic and political privileges and rights that they may have been denied

previously. Herein, rural populace's capacities are developed while they take advantage of opportunities within their domain. This thus transforms to significant improvement in their respective standards of living, particularly amongst landless farm employees, women and youth, alongside other marginalised minorities.

Creating inclusive rural transformation amidst the communities under study will require stakeholders to provide rural developmental initiatives that youths will benefit from, as a majority of the initiatives within these communities are often agriculturally inclined, with mainly the elderly been involved. Also, the high youth population, particularly in the community of Lusikisiki Mcobothini, who have dropped out of school due to financial reasons, a lack of mentorship or other concerns, needs to be persuaded to return to school and be informed about grants such as NSFAS, which many youths in these communities are unaware of. Hence, such youths who are academically inclined should be encouraged to apply for grants such as NSFAS and similar schemes in order to ensure that they are meaningfully engaged and partake in inclusive rural transformation.

5th STRUCTURAL TRANSFORMATION The final phase, Structural transformation,

Phase

emanates through the '*effect of economic growth*'. This implies a continuous rise in the productivity of the agricultural sector, urban economy; a gradual transition from a pre-ponderance of the agricultural sector to the industrial sector; then to the service sector; and transition into global markets through involvement in international trade. Some of the features of this phase are also inclusive of a rural-urban migrational trend and urbanisation. Furthermore, this phase has often been impacted by deep political, social, environmental and cultural tensions, which need to be effectively managed as a means to attaining long-term sustainability.

In practice, to attaining this 5th phase will require the transformation of several small scale agricultural cooperatives into large scale commercialised farms, with the intent of eventually transitioning such large farms to mega-farms in order to produce sizeable output for the export market. Potential also lies within the mining sector of Mtubatuba, where the Mayor foresees his community exporting coal from his community through Richards Bay and thereon to the Chinese market in the near future.

In achieving these aforementioned phases, local government alongside external actors such as IFAD, Academic institutions and PLAAS may play an integral role. Such involvement of external stakeholders is argued as imperative in this study since most rural municipalities do not have the capacity and resources to bear the multiple challenges attributed to poverty in their respective domains. Also imperative is 'Political will' in driving such rural developmental agenda with the aim of creating a transformative rural space. Such a transformative agenda may be the pathway to addressing endemic poverty in communities such as Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. Considering the long-term workability of the model proposed by IFAD, it is strongly recommended that the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform considers it in accelerating the resolution of developmental concerns amongst rural communities in South Africa. Such a model has the potential to tackle poverty, while ensuring inclusivity amongst rural community members who have for decades been excluded from post-apartheid economic gains and opportunities.

9.4.6 Addressing institutional inertia

An attributing factor to the sluggish pace of development amongst these three communities is 'Institutional Inertia'. The same challenge resonates amongst several other rural communities of South Africa (Leck and Simon 2018; Nel 2016). In addressing this pertinent concern, the alienation of corrupt and unethical practices must be painstakingly addressed. Municipal officials who are involved in unethical practices should be dismissed summarily. Such stringent measures will dissuade other personnel from engaging in these vices. Furthermore, the imperative nature of a continuous monitoring and evaluation practice(s) amongst rural municipalities cannot be over-emphasised. Lack of good monitoring practices has not only impacted on the sustainability of rural development initiatives, but has equally resulted in the

dearth of a host of initiatives which have been greatly/generously being funded by government (Goldman, Mathe, Jacob, Hercules, Amisi, Buthelezi, Narsee, Ntakumba and Sadan 2015). Further to addressing Institutional inertia is the need to synchronise national, provincial and local policies in a formidable and practicable manner. This has been lacking for several years, yet remains unresolved (Von der Heyden, Lukey, Celliers, Prochazka and Lombard 2016; Choma and Ramphabana 2015). Finally, an exchange programme amongst BRICS rural municipalities should be stimulated. This will provide room for the cross-fertilisation of ideas and sharing of success factors, while fellow government officials (alongside rural development stakeholders) learn from the experiences from their BRICS counterparts. This will provide further opportunity for Councillors from South Africa's rural municipalities to be capacitated and learn from the wealth of experiences from countries such as Brazil, whose rural municipalities have made significant advancements in biotechnology and agri-businesses (Hall, Matos, Gold and Severino 2018).

9.4.7 Centralised coordination of all developmental programmes

The National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (NDRDLR) has, over the years, made efforts to coordinate all rural development concerns across the nine provinces of South Africa. However, a core challenge faced by this department is the inability to effectively coordinate all developmental initiatives across all provinces and districts (Jacob and Hart 2014; Neves 2017). Branches, units and departments within this parastatal still work in isolation (Karriem and Hoskins 2016). Hence, there has been occasional repetition of rural development initiatives amongst same rural communities (Fombad 2018). This proposed centralised entity should also prioritize respective communities' needs instead of the current 'Blanket approach' being employed. This lack of prioritisation was raised across the three communities. For instance, while the most pressing need of the Mgobodzi community in

2015/2016 was the provision of potable water, road constructions were made as that was the national and provincial plan for that year. Thus, this calls for a more stringent and thorough coordination and streamlining of functions and personnel within the NDRDLR.

9.4.8 Underpinning rural development through Interactive participation and Participatory action research

The precept of Interactive participation involves discerning engagement amongst stakeholders and beneficiaries of a community wherein topical and less relevant communal concerns are debated (Bunting 2010:760). On the contrary, Participatory Action Research (PAR) is tending more towards the creation of knowledge wherein communal issues are deliberated upon and resolved through an inquiry (Ngwenya 2014: 98; MacDonald 2012: 35). An advantage that these precepts both have are inclusive of their ability to facilitate a joint analysis of important concerns within a community, which often results in a specific action plan to resolve complex communal issues.

During the Focus Group interview sessions amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, advantages derivable from both of these precepts were attained. While the researcher posed questions in consonance with rural developmental initiatives and poverty, the study participants underwent some brainstorming sessions which resulted in some brilliant ideas that they previously had not thought about. These collaborative brainstorming sessions resulted in suggestions amongst cooperative farmers in Gunjaneni on traditional means of sustaining (some specific) farm produce during a drought. In Lusikisiki Mcobothini, such brainstorming sessions brought about ideas on how the Magwa Tea company could be sustained. Participants did suggest how to solicit assistance from external entities, with the intent of generating further employment opportunities in the Magwa Tea company; as well as how to market Pondo traditional attire beyond their

community. Additionally, in the case of Mgobodzi, participants (farmers) were able to share traditional irrigational methods peculiar to the soil type of their community.

Furthermore, in the Lusikisiki Mcobothini Community, the youth were able to suggest to the elderly farmers how technological advancement may be used to improve their farming practices. Such robust discourse was often not taking place previously. Should such brainstorming sessions be followed up with action plans, it will probably galvanise some of the rural developmental initiatives amongst these communities. However, due to community members' level of literacy and skill, the need for experts will be required to fill the gaps in aspects which require technicalities in the planning and execution of rural development initiatives.

9.4.9 The Zakat system: lessons learnt from Indonesia

The *Zakat* system is anti-poverty scheme in the Islamic faith wherein wealthy Muslims contribute 1/40 of their yearly income to the poorest community members (Djaghballou, Djaghballou, Larbani and Mohamad 2018). A longitudinal study on the impact of the Zakat system on poverty in a small rural community of Indonesia reveals how previously poor farmers in the community within the North Sumatra Province were empowered and became financially stable. Within five to seven years from the time each of these previously poor farmers had received Zakat, they were able to transfer such a generous gesture to other poor farmers within their respective communities (Hudaefi, Saoqi, Farchatunnisa and Junari 2020; Choiriyah, Kafi, Hikmah and Indrawan 2020; Abduh 2019).

To complement the social grants system of South Africa, this described Zakat system may be slightly modified amongst the rural communities of South Africa whereby the local government would liaise with a few wealthy individuals and companies that are willing to donate a little portion of their yearly income. Such monies may be gathered from a host of

donors and donated to poor beneficiaries who are interested in starting up a business enterprise. However, such monies given to the poor would be accompanied by stringent measures similar to those of farmers in Indonesia who were compelled to provide regular updates on their enterprises, while giving a detailed account of these monies on a monthly basis (Djaghballou et al. 2018).

9.4.10 Educating the rural electorate

The starting point to driving a successful rural development initiative lies in electing a competent Councillor. Unfortunately, votes are sometimes cast amongst rural communities in South Africa based on loyalty to specific individuals who may not be competent to execute the duties of a Councillor, or in some other instances, votes may be influenced by political affiliation to a specific political party whose candidate may also not be competent. Studies from the Guizhou Province of China have proven that the role of competent local government officials were amongst the success factors in poverty alleviation schemes in China (Weiping 2018; Reisen 2012). Hence, to further strengthen South African institutions, the Independent Electoral Commission (IEC) alongside entities such as the SALGA should conduct enlightenment campaigns in this regard.

9.5 Rural developmental Models

This sub-section proposes a practicable, realistic, progressive and forward-looking rural developmental model for the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni. This proposed model is formulated with the intent of accelerating rural development, while simultaneously advocating a pro-poverty agenda. Prior to the conceptualisation of this model, the following considerations were made:

- Current developmental plans
- Current situation of communities
- Poverty incidence of communities
- Available resources
- Potential of communities
- Location of communities
- Competitive advantages of communities
- Demographics of communities
- The NDP 2030 goals
- The National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (NDRDLR) agenda

Further to the above objectives, this model also posits two other fundamental agendas. These are inclusive of the provision of basic needs to the poorest households and the expansion of economic opportunities. In consonance with achieving these, the involvement of key stakeholders is imperative. These identified stakeholders are inclusive of:

- Local Councillors (A)
- Key personnel from NDRDLR (B)
- Key personnel from the Department of Agriculture (at District level) (C)
- Technocrats (D)
- Rural development Experts/Analysts (E)
- Geologists and Soil scientists (F)
- Developmental planners and surveyors (G)
- Key community members (H)
- Induna (Traditional chiefs) (I)
- Key personnel from respective Municipalities (J)

- Statisticians (K)
- Agricultural Extension workers (L)
- International rural developmental experts (Personnel from IFAD) (M)
- Rural Enterprise and Industry Development (N)
- Rural Infrastructural Development (RID) (O)
- Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act (P)

Additionally, this study advocates the championing of these models by a Rural development expert and Councillor(s) of the respective communities. These have been suggested for three reasons. Firstly, Councillors are the closest government officials to a community. Secondly, a rural development expert is able to bring in their expertise in assessing the current situation, finding specific challenges of the community, proposing solutions and evaluating poverty indicators occasionally. Thirdly, such concise developmental models require ‘Ownership’. Thus, the local councillor and rural development experts are recommended to stir the pathway to this rural development transformation.

In actualising this model, six phases have been postulated. These phases are outlined as follows:

Phase 1 – Conceptualisation

Activities

Design of action plan by rural development experts in consultation with the above stakeholders. Fund sourcing from NDRLR, IFAD, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), BRICS Bank and NGOs. Recruitment of surveyors and training of all participants involved.

Phase 2 – Data collection

Activities

Collection of data from each household with the intent of deriving demographics; identifying the extent of poverty amongst household members; identifying causes of poverty, as well as identifying the basic needs of such households. Such valuable data will be used strictly for planning purposes.

Phase 3 – Segregation of households based on demographics

Activities

Division of households based on demographics into four different groups:

Group 1 – Sickly, physical challenged, old and poor

Although, some are already benefiting from social grants, it is advocated that those excluded from this group should also be offered the same monthly stipend. The national government may also consider increasing the current social grant by 10-20 percent from its current R1 700 (physically challenged) and R1300 (Old) respectively (SASSA 2017).

Group 2 – Traders, semi-skilled individuals, potential entrepreneurs, retrenched individuals

Identified traders, semi-skilled individuals, potential entrepreneurs and retrenched individuals should be absorbed/ re-absorbed into the labour market. Some amongst these individuals should be offered training, while start-up capital should be offered to selected trainees by Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA), large firms and big businesses. Furthermore, internship opportunities should be provided to some of these individuals as a means to propelling them into productivity and sharpening their skills.

Group 3 – Millennials willing to pursue academic careers

As indicated in the study, some millennials have had to discontinue their academic pursuits due to the lack of finances, mentorship or information. Hence, it is advocated that entities such as NSFAS should be more proactive and reachable in rural communities (grassroots). NSFAS could work hand-in-hand with NGOs such as Rural South Africa (RSA), an entity which has been providing academic support for students from rural communities over the last decade (Maila and Ross 2018). Thus, mentorship, guidance and funding through NSFAS schemes and support from the RSA is recommended for such learners. Although the NSFAS has limited funds every year, priority should be given to poor rural learners. Hence, the RSA alongside other governmental entities should support poor rural learners in enrolling at FETs or Universities, as well as other tertiary educational institutions or training colleges. Other learners may equally pursue international study opportunities (bursaries) such as those advertised by the Commonwealth, Chinese and Turkish governments for poor students (Cosentino, Fortson, Liuzzi, Harris and Blair 2019). This type of study opportunity is imperative as such educational investment could break the poverty cycle in the long-run.

Group 4 – Subsistence and commercial farmers

Due to the prominence of farming amongst these three communities, agricultural extension workers should be offered more exposure and training as a means of capacitating farmers further. The Department of Agriculture should also promote youth-entry into the agricultural sector through lucrative ventures such as agri-business ventures. Commercial farmers should equally be persuaded to transfer some farming skills and expertise to subsistence farmers in their localities. Furthermore, the Department of Agriculture should make concerted efforts in upscaling subsistence farmers into large-scale farmers/ commercial farmers.

Group 5 – Employees in the Tourism, Manufacturing, Mining and Construction industries

Each of these sectors requires investments for sustainability and growth, more particularly investments in infrastructure and human capacitation. Partnerships with multinational corporations are also required as a means of expanding these sectors amongst these trio-communities. Such investment and partnership is advocated as a means to creating opportunities for new entrants, while further capacitating and developing the present employees in these sectors.

Phase 4 – Instigation stage

Activities

Herein, each of the plans designed by the rural developmental expert alongside stakeholders are put into practice. For this phase, each of the plans will be strictly followed in accordance to design. Slight modifications may be made in oversight cases.

Phase 5 – Assessment and evaluation

Activities

The designs are assessed, monitored and evaluated every quarter.

Phase 6 – Address shortfalls and make necessary intervention's

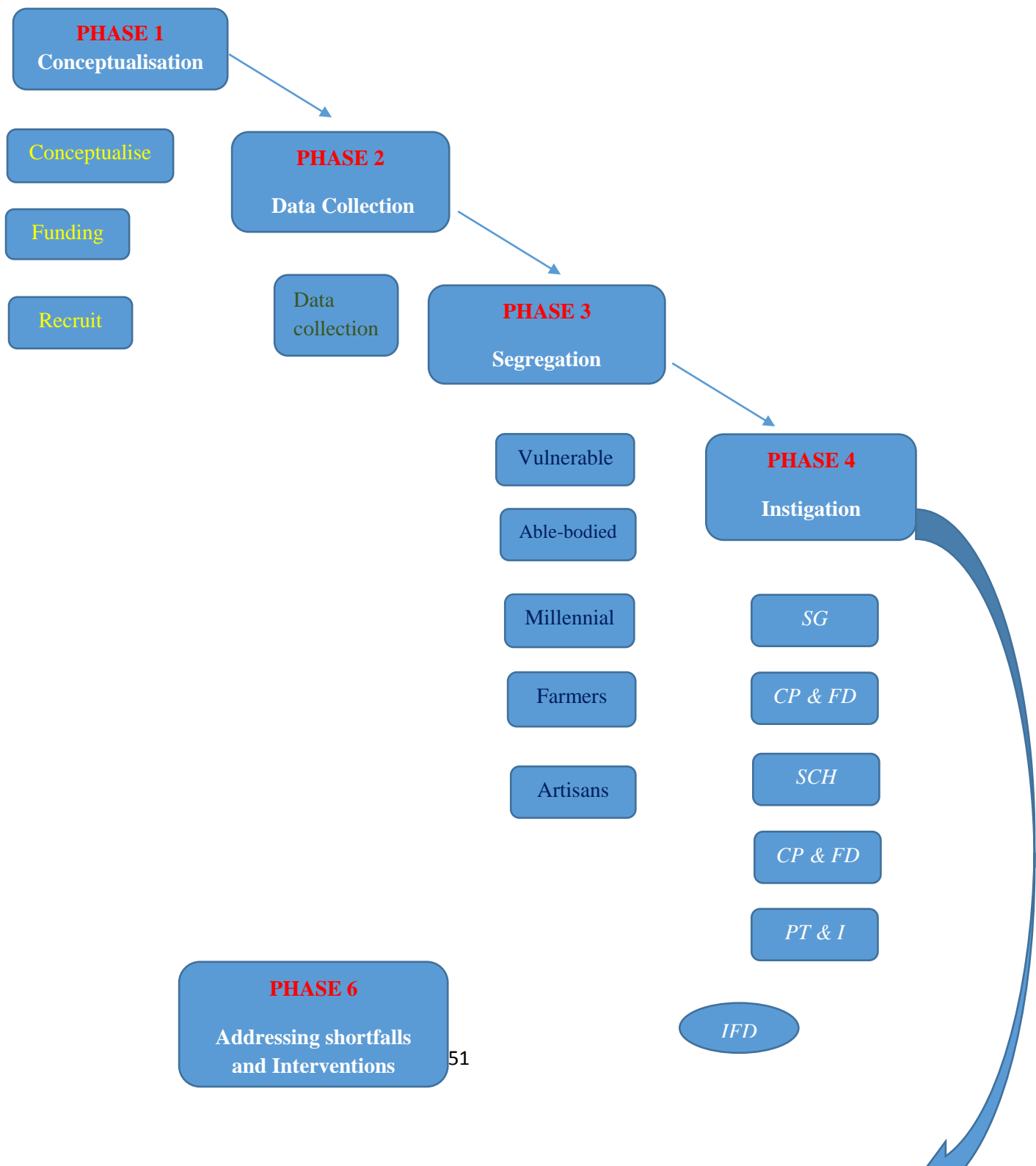
Activities

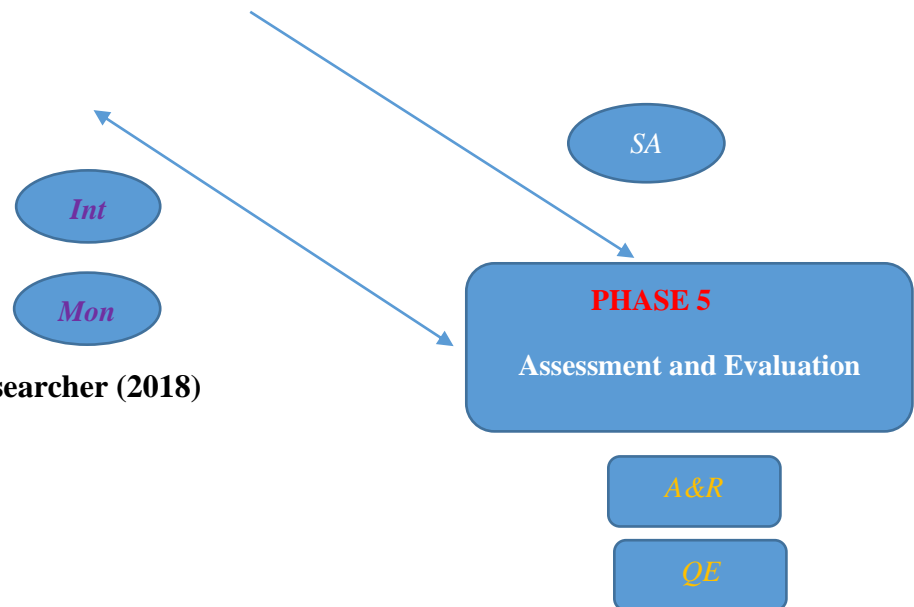
After making a thorough assessment and evaluation, deficiencies are identified and addressed promptly.

Repeat Stages 5 and 6 till the pro-poverty target of reducing poverty amongst these communities to the barest minimum is achieved. Should these models succeed, they should be replicated amongst similar rural communities in South Africa.

In furtherance to the above discussion, the study proposes the model aimed at tackling poverty amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

Figure 9.2: Rural development Model





Source: Compiled by Researcher (2018)

Legend

<i>SG</i>	Social Grant
<i>CP & FD</i>	Capacitation and Funding
<i>SCH</i>	Scholarship
<i>PT & I</i>	Partnership and Investment
<i>IFD</i>	Infrastructural development
<i>SA</i>	Social Amenities
<i>A&R</i>	Assessment and Review
<i>QE</i>	Quarterly Evaluation
<i>Int</i>	Intervention
<i>Mon</i>	Monitoring

With the exception of Phase 4, the rural developmental models for the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni are the same. Phase 4 has been carefully designed in consonance with the available potential, resources, demographics and on-going rural developmental initiatives of each of these respective communities.

The purported plan for Mgobodzi is the development of its cotton industry through multilateral partnership and investment from government and non-governmental sources.

Mgobodzi possesses large expanse of land, most of which are fertile. This is ample opportunity for commercialised farming in this community, as it may generate employment opportunities for low and semi-skilled members of this community. Tourism potential also exists at Mgobodzi. However, the inability of governmental support, lack of funds, infrastructure and a lack of external support have obscured this tourism vision.

Lusikisiki Mcobothini is also endowed with fertile soil and surmountable rainfall, particularly during the summer months (October till March). Opportunities also exist within the tourism sector, such as the production of the *Pondo* cultural outfit.

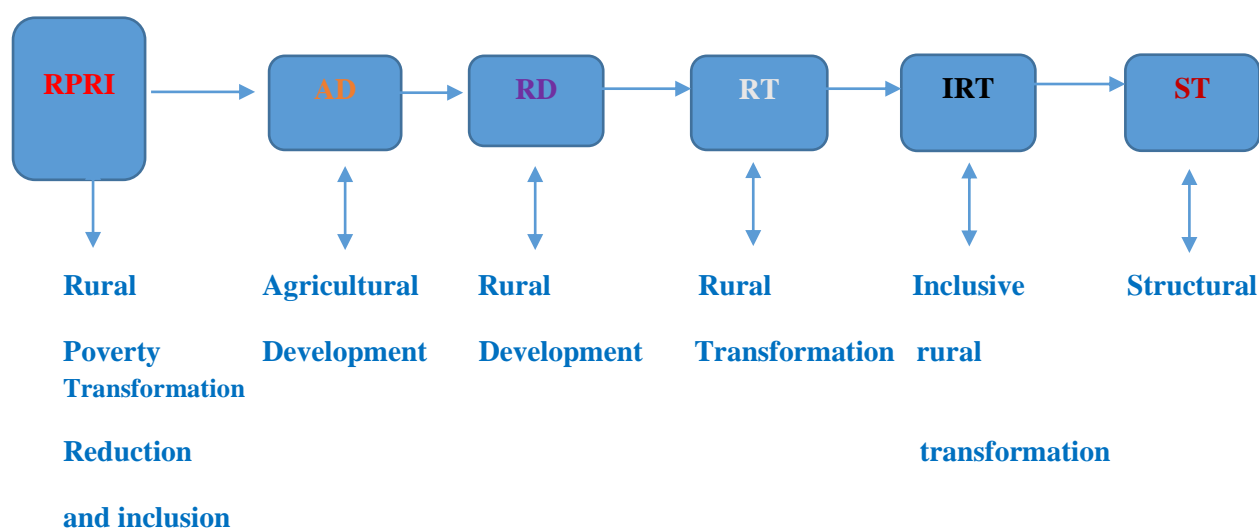
The Gunjaneni community equally possesses untapped potential in the mining sector, sugar and timber production. As alleged by the Mayor of this locality, should the tourism potential of this community be fully harnessed, several employment opportunities will be generated for the residents of this community. However, concerns such as a lack of infrastructure and investment have undermined the developmental potential of Gunjaneni.

Core developmental concerns amongst these communities are also Infrastructural development and the provision of Social amenities. It has been empirically proven over time that infrastructural development is a fundamental constituent when addressing poverty. Thus, this study advocates enormous investments in infrastructural development amongst these communities. Such investment funds may be solicited through the packaging of developmental proposals to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), IFAD, as well as BRICS Bank.

Hence, in adopting the model illustrated in Figure 9.2, it is also envisaged that the developmental path advocated by the IFAD - Report Developmental Report (2016) will be achieved. This report at the inception phase advocates Agricultural Development, then Rural Development. It is further anticipated that this Rural Development will result in Rural

Transformation; Inclusive Rural Transformation; and eventually, Structural Transformation. The rural developmental model designed by IFAD is mainly orchestrated to address rural poverty, while ensuring an all-inclusive rural transformation at the benefit of the entire rural populace. This is diagrammatically depicted in Figure 9.3.

Figure 9.3: Rural poverty reduction and inclusivity



Source: IFAD (2016a: 23)

In achieving this feat, the importance of political-will, efficient resource management, enormous investment, avoidance of unethical practices, active involvement of stakeholders and host communities, interactive participation between beneficiaries and stakeholders, the deterministic and focused alignment of rural developmental initiatives, as well as co-operation and synergy between all stakeholders and involved governmental entities cannot be over-emphasised.

9.6 Recommendation for further study

The inter-disciplinary scope of this research provides an array of opportunities for future studies. While the epicenter of the current study was on rural developmental initiatives and

poverty alleviation amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, future studies may further explore beyond the three Provinces understudy and further explore poverty-stricken rural communities of the Limpopo Province where poverty is severe, as well as other poor rural communities of South Africa. Researching a wider geographical scope will enable policy-makers as well as researchers to make comparisons on rural development initiatives, while drawing inferences to make informed decisions. In consonance, valuable insights may emerge as key components for strategic planning and the execution of rural developmental initiatives within the rural municipalities of South Africa, which could also be integrated into the Integrated Development Plan (IDP). Furthermore, a longitudinal research study is suggested for the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni as a means of evaluating the resultant effect of the recommendations made herein. While this study focused on Poverty, similar indicators such as Inequality and Employment could also be researched within the same context. Aspects such as a comparison between rural development initiatives amongst BRICS nations, or the identification of gaps in rural development planning in South Africa may equally be explored. Finally, while this study was confined to Jacob Zuma's administration, future studies may research different time frames.

9.7 Conclusion

South Africa's rural communities possess bountiful untapped potential and resources. Paradoxically, such communities house the most poverty-stricken households. The discourse herein attributes the years of under-development amongst these communities to the legacy of the apartheid era and a rather slow and unimpressive redress by the post-apartheid government. Notwithstanding, a number of remarkable developmental successes have been recorded amongst rural communities in South Africa. Based on existing literature, economic

indicators (data) on poverty, governmental documents, as well as responses from stakeholders and beneficiaries of rural development initiatives amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni, rural development initiatives have marginally contributed to poverty alleviation. However, this is far below the expectations of stakeholders and beneficiaries as the anticipated benefits of these initiatives have not truly trickled down to individuals.

The South African government, similar to several nations, has continuously made attempts to address under-development amongst rural communities through investments in small-scale agricultural initiatives and social grants. However, in tactical terms, addressing cyclical poverty goes beyond the investment of small-scale agricultural initiatives and social grants as it is imperative to expand employment opportunities. Such employment opportunities thus require a decisive act wherein rural developmental actors push for a gradual shift from the farming to non-farming economy.

Achieving such a feat will require the stimulation of the rural economy through the attraction of investments from the private sector, while maximising every resource and potential within such communities. Such successful rural developmental initiatives will further require the expertise and competence of skilled professionals and technocrats who are scarce amongst rural communities in South Africa. Realising a viable rural space as championed in this study further requires the alignment of rural developmental initiatives to IFAD's developmental strategy of 'Agricultural Development; Rural development; Rural transformation; Inclusive Rural transformation; and Structural transformation'.

Thus, the study's pro-poverty stratagem through rural developmental initiatives within communities under study can be achievable through the following nine key components: Absorption of highly skilled professionals, experts and technocrats within municipalities;

Transformation of subsistence farming to commercialised farming through water resource management, investment, innovations and technological advancement; Good governance; Alienation of corruption; Synchronising national, provincial and local policies; Infrastructural development; Involvement of big businesses in stimulating the local economy; Well managed Interactive participation amongst beneficiaries and other key stakeholders; and the maximal utilisation of resources, while ensuring sustainability.

Further to these ‘nine components’, rural communities through the involvement of highly experienced rural development experts and community members alongside other stakeholders should collectively draft, design and implement their developmental growth path. Such a growth path should be formulated in accordance with the community’s potential, challenges and top-most priorities, as opposed to the obsolete South African rural development approach which still pursues a ‘blanket orchestrated approach’.

However, a future concern is that the current administration of President Cyril Ramaphosa is not as ‘pro-rural community’ as his predecessor (Jacob Zuma). This was quite evident in his ANC Election Manifesto delivered on the 12th of January, 2019 at the Moses Mabhida Stadium, where no mention of ‘Rural development’ was made. Hence, it is forecasted that less attention will be given to rural communities during his tenure.

This invariably calls for further constructive and robust discourse within the rural developmental spectrum. In so doing, this will foster an in-depth understanding between the connectivity amidst rural developmental initiatives (policies), rural livelihood and poverty, which is critical in finding a pathway to poverty alleviation and reduced under-development amongst rural communities in South Africa. Should the current study contribute towards a stratagem towards the galvanisation of rural developmental initiatives, particularly amongst

the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni as regards poverty, then the study would have achieved its core intent.

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APPENDIX A: LETTER OF INFORMATION



LETTER OF INFORMATION

Title of the Research Study: Rural developmental initiatives in the post-apartheid South Africa: A case of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni

Principal Investigator/s/researcher: (Name, qualifications) – Olayemi Bakre, Masters in Public Management

Co-Investigator/s/supervisor/s: (Name, qualifications) – Professor Nirmala Dorasamy

Brief Introduction and Purpose of the Study:

Rural development has been a topical issue over the last two decades in South Africa. Several studies centred on grass root execution of government's participatory approach have dominated the mainstream. Huge resources have been invested into rural development; more particularly fiscal resources are injected into rural developmental initiatives on a yearly basis. Nonetheless, the extent of development amongst these deprived communities has stagnated despite the enormous investments in rural developmental initiatives. The challenges faced by the marginalised communities of rural South Africa are indications that these individuals have not fully benefitted from the transformation of the post-apartheid era. Such marginalisation is synonymous with the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni which are characterised with high incidences of poverty.

In consonance to the disparity between the fiscal resources expended on rural communities and the pitiable standard of living amongst rural dwellers, the study aims to evaluate the correlation between rural developmental initiatives and poverty alleviation amongst the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.

Outline of the Procedures:

1. The 600 participants in this study are expected to fill questionnaires relating to rural developmental initiatives and rural development.

2. The questionnaires will be distributed among the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni.
3. Each of the participants will be guided while filling the questionnaire to ensure they understand the questions being asked.
4. It will take each of the participants about 10-15 minutes to fill a questionnaire.

Risks or Discomforts to the Participant: No form of discomfort or risk is envisaged in the current research.

Benefits: Practicable recommendations relating to rural developmental initiatives will be provided to communities under study; more so, the current study will produce three-five publications.

Reason/s why the Participant May Be Withdrawn from the Study:

Participants may be withdrawn from participating if they are non-compliant, ill or as a result of an adverse reaction. Participants could also withdraw from participating if they so wish.

Remuneration: None

Costs of the Study: R15, 000

Confidentiality: Names of participants would not be mentioned, and if for any reasons named are mentioned, permission will be requested from participant(s) first.

Research-related Injury: Possibility of research – related injury not feasible.

Persons to Contact in the Event of Any Problems or Queries:

Please contact Prof Nirmala Dorasamy (supervisor) on 0722678704, or the Institutional Research Ethics administrator on 031 373 2900. Complaints can be reported to the office of the DVC on 031 373 2382 or dvctip@dut.ac.za.

General:

Potential participants must be assured that participation is voluntary and the approximate number of participants to be included should be disclosed. A copy of the information letter should be issued to participants. The information letter and consent form must be translated and provided in the primary spoken language of the research population e.g. isiZulu.

APPENDIX B: CONSENT



CONSENT

Statement of Agreement to Participate in the Research Study:

- I hereby confirm that I have been informed by the researcher, _____ (name of researcher), about the nature, conduct, benefits and risks of this study - Research Ethics Clearance Number: _____,
- I have also received, read and understood the above written information (Participant Letter of Information) regarding the study.
- I am aware that the results of the study, including personal details regarding my sex, age, date of birth, initials and diagnosis will be anonymously processed into a study report.
- In view of the requirements of research, I agree that the data collected during this study can be processed in a computerised system by the researcher.
- I may, at any stage, without prejudice, withdraw my consent and participation in the study.
- I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and (of my own free will) declare myself prepared to participate in the study.
- I understand that significant new findings developed during the course of this research which may relate to my participation will be made available to me.

Full Name of Participant
Thumbprint

Date

Time

Signature / Right

I, **Olayemi Bakre** (name of researcher) herewith confirm that the above participant has been fully informed about the nature, conduct and risks of the above study.

Olayemi Bakre

28th March 2016

Full Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

Full Name of Witness (If applicable)

Date

Signature

Full Name of Legal Guardian (If applicable) Date

Signature

Please note the following:

Research details must be provided in a clear, simple and culturally appropriate manner and prospective participants should be helped to arrive at an informed decision by use of appropriate language (grade 10 level - use Flesch Reading Ease Scores on Microsoft Word), selecting of a non-threatening environment for interaction and the availability of peer counseling (Department of Health, 2004)

If the potential participant is unable to read/illiterate, then a right thumb print is required and an impartial witness, who is literate and knows the participant e.g. parent, sibling, friend, pastor, etc. should verify in writing, duly signed that informed verbal consent was obtained (Department of Health, 2004).

If anyone makes a mistake completing this document e.g. wrong date or spelling mistake a new document has to be completed. The incomplete original document has to be kept in the participant file and not thrown away and copies thereof must be issued to the participant.

References:

Department of Health: 2004. *Ethics in Health Research: Principles, Structures and Processes*
<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/factsheets/guidelines/ethnics/>

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Faculty of Management Sciences

Department of Public Management and Economics

Date- 28 March 2016

Dear Participant

I am currently undertaking a research project towards the attainment of a Doctoral Degree in Public Management at the Durban University of Technology. The study aims to analyse the extent to which the major rural developmental initiatives in a post-apartheid South Africa have contributed to rural development.

Would you agree to complete a questionnaire for the study? The questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving reasons, and without prejudice or any adverse consequences. The information you give will only be used for research purposes and will be aggregated with other responses and only the overall or average information will be used. Your identity and individual answers will be kept totally confidential. Should you wish to discuss this further please feel free to contact me or my supervisor,

Professor Nirmala Dorasamy, 0313736862, nirmala@dut.ac.za or the IREC Administrator, Lavisha

Deonarian: 031 373 2900 or LavishaD@dut.ac.za.

Your assistance will be much appreciated,

Yours faithfully

Olayemi Bakre

074 604 7056

Prof Nirmala Dorasamy

031 373 6862

APPENDIX C: LETTER OF CONSENT AND INFORMATION IN SISWATI

LETTER OF CONSENT AND INFORMATION IN SISWATI

(For the participants of Mgobodzi in the Mpumalanga Province)



SIVUMELWANO

Ingcikitsi yesivumelwano sekubamba lichaza kutemfundvo telucwaningo.

- Njengekwatiswa ngumcwaningi _____(Ligama lemucwaningi) ngitsandza kucinisekisa mayelana nebunjalo, kutiphatsa, tincepheteliso kanye ne bungoti balolucwaningo – Inombolo yesivumelwano senkolelo yelucwaningo
- Ngiphindze ngatfoli, ngafundza ngaphindza ngavisisa lombhalo longenhla (incwadzi yemlayeto walobambe lichaza) mayelana nalolucwaningo.
- Nginelwati kutsi lemiphumela yalolucwaningo kufaka ekhatsi imininingwane yami, ngekwabulili, iminyaka, lusuku lekutalwa, tifyinyeto temagama kanye nemibono yami kutawushicilelwa tikwemininingwane yalolucwaningo ngalokufihlakele.
- Ngembono wami kuletidzingo talolucwaningo, ngiyavuma kutsi umcwaningi angashicilela lemininingwane lehlanganisiwe yalolucwaningo kubongcondvo mshini.
- Ngaphandle kwekusatjiswa, kunoma ngusiphi sigaba salolucwaningo, ngemvumo yami, ngingashiya kutibandzakanya kwami nalolucwaningo.

- (Ngekutsandza kwami) Ngibe nelitfuba lelanelo lekubuta imibuto kanye nekutiveta ngihlelekile kutsi ngibambe lichaza kulolucwaningo.
- Ngiyavisisa kutsi imiphumela lemisha lebalulekile letfolakele ngalesikhatsi kwentiwa lolucwaningo lengahle ihambisane nekutibandzakanya kwami kutawuvetwa kimi.

Emagama lagcwele wesitfupha	Lusuku	Sikhatsi	Singcivito/ umbhalo
embambi lichaza			sangasekudla

Mine Olayemi Bakre (ligama lemcwaningi) ngaloku ngiyacinisekisa kutsi lolobambe lichaza uchazwelwe ngalokwanele ngebunjalo, kutiphatsa, nebungoti balolucwaningo lolungetulu.

Olayemi Bakre	28 th March 2016	_____
---------------	-----------------------------	-------

Emagama lagcwele emcwaningi	Lusuku	Singcivito
------------------------------------	---------------	-------------------

_____	_____	_____
Emagama lagcwele Afakazi (uma akhona)	Date	Singcivito

_____	_____	_____
Emagama lagcwele emlindzi	Lusuku	Singcivito
Losemtsetfweni (uma akhona)		



Ligaja Letekuphatsa kwe Sayensi

Litiko Letekuphatsa kweMphakatsi kanye neTemnotfo

Lusuku- 28 Indlovulenkulu 2016

Mbambilichaza Lotsandzekako

Kwanyalo ngitsetse tinhlelo telucwaningo lekuphotfula ticu tebuDokotela ku tekuphatfwa kwemphakatsi eNyuvesi eDurban University of Technology

Lelicwaningo luhlose kucwaningisisa lizinga emvakwekuba kundlule lubandlululo eNingizimu Africa.

Ungavuma kugcwalisa lifomu lemibuto ngalolucwaningo?

Lelifomu lemibuto lutawutsatsa imizuzu lelishumi nesihlanu.

Kutibandzakanya kungekufuna kwakho futsi uvumelekile kuhocisa kulolucwaningo kunoma ngusiphi sikhatsi ngaphandle kwekubeka tizatfu, kusatjiswa noma kutsatselwa tinyatselo.

Lobufakazi lotabuniketa butawisetjentiselwa kuphela imibono yalolucwaningo buphindze buhlanganiswe nalobunye bufakazi kuveta bufakazi lobugcwele lobutawusetjentiswa.

Bunguwe bakho netimpendvulo takho titawuba nguletifihliwe.

Uma ufisa kucociswane kabanti ngalolucwaningo wamukelekile kutsintsana nami noma umphatsi wami.

Professor Nirmala Dorasamy, 0313736862, nirmala@dut.ac.za or the IREC Administrator, Lavisha

Deonarian: 031 373 2900 or LavishaD@dut.ac.za.

Lusito lwakho luyabongeka kakhulu

Ngimi Lotitfobako

Umfundzi

Imininingwane yekutsintsana

Lophetse/ Umkhangisi

Imininingwane yekutsintsana

Umlingani wa Lophetse/ Umlingani weMkhangisi

Imininingwane yekutsintsana

APPENDIX D: LETTER OF CONSENT AND INFORMATION IN ISIZULU

LETTER OF CONSENT AND INFORMATION IN ISIZULU

(For the participants of Gunjaneni in the KwaZulu-Natal Province)



IMVUME

Isifungo sokuvuma ukubamba iqhaza ocwaningeni

- Ngiyafunga ukuthi ngazisiwe mayelana nocwaningo, _____ (igama lomcwaningi), ngokuthi lumayelana nani ucwaningo, nokuthi luzoqhubeka kanjani, okuzozuzwa, kanye nobungozi bocwaningo - Research Ethics Clearance Number: _____,
- Ngiyitholile, ngayifunda, ngayiqonda imininingwane ebhalwe ngenhla (encwadini yombambiqhaza) mayelana nocwaningo.
- Ngiyazi ukuthi imiphumela yocwaningo, nemininingwane mayelana nami, ubulili bami usuku lokuzalwa, kanye nemibono yami izosetshenziswa ocwaningeni kodwa ingadalulwa
- Njengokwesidingo socwaningo, ngiyavuma ukuthi okuqoqwe mayelana nocwaningo kufakwe kuy Compuyutha ngumcwaningi.
- Noma ngayisiphi isikhathi, ngaphandle kokugxekwa ngingama ngingabe ngisazibandakanya nocwaningo ngihoxise nemvume yami ocwaningeni.
- Ngibe nethuba elanele ukubuzaimibuzo (ngendlela engifisa ngayo) ngabe sengibona ngifanele ukubamba iqhaza kulolu cwano.
- Ngiyakuqonda ukuthi imiphumela ebalulakile engakheka ngekathi ucwaningo luqhubeka ngiyoyaziswa ngayo.
- _____

**Igama eliphelele lombambiqhaza
Sayina**

Usuku

Isikhathi

Mina, **Olayemi Bakre** (igama locwaningi) ngiyafunga ukuthi umbambiqhaza ongenhla, uchazelwe kabanzi mayelana no cwaningo indlela oluzoqhubeka ngayo kanye nobungozi balo.

Olayemi Bakre

28 KuNdasa 2016

Igama eliphelele lomcwaningo

Usuku

Sayina

Igama eliphelele lafakazi (uma lidingekile) Usuku

Sayina

Igama eliphelele lomqaphi (uma lidingekile) Usuku

Sayina



Faculty of Management Sciences

Department of Public Management and Economics

Usuku - 28 kuNdasa 2016

Mbambiqhaza ohloniphekile

Ngenza ucwaningo ukuze ngithole iziqu zobuDokotela emkhakheni we Public Management esikhungweni semfundo ephakeme yobuchwepheshe i- Durban Institute of Technology. Lolu cwaningo luhlose ukucwaninga.....

The study aims to analyse the extent to which the major rural developmental initiatives in a post-apartheid South Africa have contributed to rural development.

Ungathanda ukubamba iqhaza, uphendule imibuzo yalolu cwaningo? Ukuphendula lemibuzo kungathatha isikhathi esingangemizuzu eyishumi nanhlanu. Ukubamba iqhaza akuphoqekile, ungayeka noma ungathandi ukuqhubeka ngaphandle kokunika isizathu, ukugxekwa noma uhlukunyezwe. Izimpendulo zakho zizosetshenziswa lolucwaningo kuphela, zizohlenganiswa nezinye ke bese kuthathwa isinqumo ngokwemiphumela yezimpendulo zizonke. Ubuwena buzobe buphephile ngeke budalulwe Kanye nezimpendulo zakho. Uma kwenzeka ufisa ukuxoxa kabanzi mayelana no cwaningo xhumana nami noma uthisha wami.

Solwazi Nirmala Dorasamy, 0313736862, nirmala@dut.ac.za or the IREC Mabhalane,
Lavisha

Deonarian: 031 373 2900 or LavishaD@dut.ac.za.

Ngiyabonga kakhulu ngo sizo lwakho.

Ozithobayo

Mfundi

Imininingwane yokuxhumana

Uthisha

Imininingwane yokuxhumana

Obambisene nothisha

Imininingwane yokuxhumana

APPENDIX E: LETTER OF CONSENT AND INFORMATION IN ISIXHOSA

LETTER OF CONSENT AND INFORMATION IN ISIXHOSA

(For the participants of Lusikisiki Mcobothini in the Eastern Cape Province)



Isebe le-Nzululwazi noLawulo

Isebe le-Nzululwazi ngezoQoqosho noLawulo

Umhlaka -28 eyoKwindla 2016

Ozothath'inxanxheba

Ndenza uphando lwezifundo zam zobugqira kwi-public management kwi Dyunivesithi ye Nzululwazi eThekwini. Ezizifundo zinxulumene nokujonga indlela uphuhliso lwasemaphandleni olwalusenziwa ngayo ngexesha lengcinezelo apha eMzansi Afrika.

Ungandivumela ndibuze imibuzo malunga ngezizifundo zam ? Le mibizo ingandithatha ixesha elithekeleleka kwi mizuzu elushumi elinesihlanu. Ukuthatha inxanxheba akunyanzelekanga kwaye uyakwazi ukubuya umva ukuba uyoyisakala unganikezelanga isizathu, nangaphandle kocalucalulo. Ulwazi ozothi ulinikeze lumalunga ngalu phando kufuneka lwenzekile kwaye oluphando luzakudityaniswa nezizinto ezinxulumene noluphando. Wena no lwazi lwakho ni khuselekile, alusayokusetyenziswa ngokungekho mthethweni. Ukuba unemibuzo unakho ukunxukumana nam okanye umphathi wam ongu Professor Nirmala Dorasamy, 0313736862, nirmala@dut.ac.za or the IREC Administrator, Lavisha Deonarian: 031 373 2900 or LavishaD@dut.ac.za.

Uncedo lwakho ndakulivuyela kakhulu.

Ozithobileyo

Umfundi

Inombolo zomxeba

Umphathi wokuqala

Inombolo zomxeba

Umphathi wesibini

Inombolo zomxeba



Faculty of Management Sciences

Department of Public Management and Economics

Date- 28 March 2016

Mthathi nxaxheba obekekileyo

Ndenza uphando elizondenza ndifumame iwonga lokubanguchwepheshe kwizifundo zophatha abantu kwisikolo iDurban University of Technology. Injongo yoluphendla-phendlo kukunabisa ndibonakalise amaphulo ophuhliso kwilali emva kwalo Mzantsi Afrika umtsha.

Ungavuma uthatha uthatha inxaxheba kwimibuzo yoluphendla-phendlo? Le mibuzo izokuthatha imizuzu elishumi elinesihlanu. Uthatha inxaxheba ngokuthanda kwakho futhi ungarhoxa kolu phendla-phendlo nanini ufuna, ukudingeki sizathu. Inkcukacha osinike yona izokusetyenziselwa olophando kuphela. Zonke inkcukacha zakho osinike zona zizogcinwa ziyimfihlo. Xa unenento ongayiqondiyo ungaqhakamishelana nam okanye umphathi wam.

Professor Nirmala Dorasamy, 0313736862, nirmala@dut.ac.za or the IREC Administrator, Lavisha

Deonarian: 031 373 2900 or LavishaD@dut.ac.za.

Ndoluvuyela kakhulu uncedo lwakho.

Ozithobileyo

Umfundi

Inkcukatha zonxibelelwano

Mphathi

Inkcukatha zonxibelelwano

APPENDIX F: STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS FOR PERSONNEL AT THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

INTERVIEWS

STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS FOR PARTICIPANTS AT THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND AFFAIRS

1. Please mention the on-going rural developmental initiatives (programmes, strategies) been implemented by the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform?
2. What factors are contributing to the successful implementation of rural developmental programmes (initiatives)?
3. What factors are affecting the implementation of these initiatives?

4. Does the National Department of Rural Development and Land Reform have issues coordinating its departments across the nation?
5. What are the main challenges of the National Rural Development and Land Reform?
6. Does the department have sufficient resources (human and capital) to implement its programmes (initiatives)?
7. What are the main challenges faced by the rural communities?
8. What initiatives (programmes, strategies) are put in place to address these challenges?
9. What are the challenges faced in implementing these rural development initiatives (programmes, strategies)?
10. What are some of the milestone achievements of the National Department of Rural Development and Land reform?
11. What are the potentials of rural communities of South Africa?
12. Please provide recommendations on how to fast track rural development in South Africa
13. Have the rural developmental programmes (initiatives, strategies) directly impacted on the livelihood of these community members?
14. What comparisons can you make between the rural developmental initiatives (programmes) used during the apartheid and post-apartheid era of South Africa?

APPENDIX G: STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS (FOR COUNCILLORS AND MUNICIPALITY PARTICIPANTS)

STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS (FOR COUNCILLORS AND MUNICIPALITY PARTICIPANTS)..(same questions will be rephrased and administered to councillors in Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal)

1. What are the main challenges faced by the rural communities of Mpumalanga?
2. What are the main challenges faced by rural communities of Nkomazi Municipality?
3. What initiatives (programmes, strategies) are put in place to address these challenges?
4. What are the challenges faced in implementing these rural development initiatives (programmes, strategies)?
5. What are some of the rural developmental achievements in Mpumalanga/ Nkomazi Municipality?
6. What are the potentials of rural Mpumalanga/ Nkomazi Municipality?
7. Regarding rural development in Mpumalanga/ Nkomazi Municipality, what land mark achievements have been accomplished between 1994 and 2015?
8. Please provide recommendations on how to fast track rural development in rural Mpumalanga/ Nkomazi Municipality?
9. Please mention the on-going rural developmental initiatives (programmes, strategies) in rural Mpumalanga/ Nkomazi Municipality?

10. Have the initiatives (programmes, strategies) directly impacted on the livelihood of these community members?

11. What comparisons can you make between the rural developmental initiatives (programmes) used during the apartheid and post-apartheid era of South Africa?

APPENDIX H: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW (QUESTIONS)

• FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW (QUESTIONS)

(For the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni)

(This will be translated into Siswati, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu).

1. Which rural developmental initiative (programme) has contributed significantly to rural development?
2. What comparisons can you make between the rural developmental initiatives (programmes) used during the apartheid and post-apartheid era of South Africa?
3. Does your municipality have sufficient resources (human and capital) to implement rural developmental initiatives (programmes)?
4. What factors are contributing to the successful implementation of rural development in your community?
5. What are the factors affecting rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in your community?
6. What rural developmental initiatives (programme) are on-going in your community?
7. Are these rural developmental initiatives (programmes) effective?
8. What major needs does your community require from the local municipality?

9. Which recommendations can you give to improve rural developmental initiatives in your community?

APPENDIX I: FACE TO FACE INTERVIEW (QUESTIONS)

- **FACE TO FACE INTERVIEW (QUESTIONS)**

(For the communities of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni)

(This will be translated into Siswati, IsiXhosa and IsiZulu).

1. Which rural developmental initiatives (programmes) have contributed significantly to rural development?
2. What comparisons can you make between the rural developmental initiatives (programmes) used during the apartheid and post-apartheid era of South Africa?
3. Does your municipality have sufficient resources (human and capital) to implement rural developmental initiatives (programmes)?
4. What factors are contributing to the successful implementation of rural development in your community?
5. What are the factors affecting rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in your community?
6. What rural developmental initiatives (programme) are on-going in your community?
7. Are these rural developmental initiatives (programmes) effective?
8. What major needs does your community require from the local municipality?
9. Which recommendations can you give to improve rural developmental initiatives in your community?

APPENDIX J: QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

(Questionnaires administered to the community members of Mgobodzi, Lusikisiki Mcobothini and Gunjaneni)

Questionnaire for quantitative data collection

Dear respondent, please select the option that best expresses your opinion.

Section A: Apartheid era

1. Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) of the apartheid era were in line with the community's need?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

2. Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in the apartheid era contributed to rural development?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

3. Rural developmental initiatives (programme) in the apartheid era were well implemented?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

Section B: Post-apartheid era

1. There has been a significant difference in the manner in which the municipality is been run compared to the apartheid era?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

2. The local government addresses the needs of the community promptly?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent

- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

3. Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) of the apartheid era are in line with the community's need?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

4. Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) in the post-apartheid era have contributed to rural development?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

SECTION C: RURAL DEVELOPMENTAL INITIATIVES

1. The rural development initiatives (programmes) are linked to basic needs?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

2. Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) are well implemented?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

3. Rural developmental initiatives (programmes) are implemented in time?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

SECTION D: CHALLENGES TO RURAL DEVELOPMENTAL INITIATIVES

1. There are challenges attributed to the implementation of rural developmental initiatives (programmes)?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

2. Challenges to the implementation of rural developmental initiatives (programmes) are been addressed?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree
- 5 Strongly disagree

3. The local government is capable of addressing challenges attributed to rural developmental initiatives (programmes)?

- 1 Strongly agree
- 2 Agree
- 3 Indifferent
- 4 Disagree

5 Strongly disagree

APPENDIX K: LETTER OF CONSENT FROM THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

LETTER OF CONSENT FROM THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

	rural development & land reform Department: Rural Development and Land Reform REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA Directorate: Human Resource Development, Private Bag X833, PRETORIA, 0001, Mrs LG Mokgohloa, Room 5728, Tel: (012) 312 9713, Fax: (012) 312 8174
Reference	: SB
Enquires	: Ms L Mokgohloa/Mr TR Clark
Telephone	: (012) 312 9713/ (012) 312 9662
 Mr RO Bakre Flat 1007 Berea Lofts Berea Centre DURBAN 4001	
Dear Mr Bakre	
REQUEST TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH: YOURSELF	
It gives me pleasure to inform you that approval has been granted for you to conduct your research in the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.	
You are however required to provide the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform with a copy of the research outcomes upon completion.	
I trust you will find this in order.	
Kind regards	
 Mr/TR Clark ASSISTANT DIRECTOR: BURSARIES DATE: 01. 06. 2016	