



An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases

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DECLARATION

I, Mosekami Mokgala, hereby declare that this study, “An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases” is my original work and all sources consulted are acknowledged by means of complete list of sources. This work has never been partially or solely submitted by me to any university.

Signature

Date

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family, my wife, Sebatso, and children who supported me and encouraged me during the study. I appreciate all manner of contribution. My mother has been a pillar of support and has taught me a lot of things in life. This one is also dedicated to you too.

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To God be the glory forever and ever. Jesus Christ is Lord. Amen!

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
BNG	Breaking New Ground
COGTA	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Plan
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
DBSA	Development Bank of South Africa
DPME	Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation
DRDLR	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
DSD	Department of Social Development
EC	European Commission
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
FPC	Farmers Professional Cooperative
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
GNU	Government of National Unity
GTZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft Fur Technische Zusammenarbeit
HIV	Human Immune Deficiency Virus
IADB	Inter-American Development Bank
ICA	International Cooperative Alliance

ICC	International Convention Centre
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IG-UTP	International Guidelines on Urbanisation and Territory Planning
IICD	International Institute for Communication and Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISRDS	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
IUDF	Integrated Urban Development Framework
IZATS	Institute of Zhenjiang Agricultural Technology and Science
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
LRP	Land Reform Programme
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MOSAP	Market Oriented Smallholder Agriculture Project
MSA	Municipal Systems Act
MTSF	Medium Term Strategic Framework
NARYSEC	National Rural Youth Service Cooperative
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NGP	National Growth Plan
NPA	New Public Administration
NPC	National Planning Commission

NPM	New Public Management
NPS	New Public Service
NTR	National Treasury Regulations
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OFDC	Organic Food Development Centre
PESTLE	Political, Economic, Social, Technological, Legal and Environment
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
PPP	Public-Private Partnership
PRODERNEA	Programa de Desarrollo Rural del Nordeste Argentino
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSA	Social Programme for Agriculture
RDA	Rural Development Agency
RDI	Research and Development Institute
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Plan
RIDFF	Rural Investment and Development Financing Facility
RTI	Rural Transport Infrastructure
RTS	Rural Transport Service
RTD	Rural Transport Development Programme
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SAMDI	South African Management Development Institute
SDSN	Sustainable Development Solution Network

SMART	Sustainable Managed Assets Resources and Technology
SPLUMA	Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act
STATSSA	Statistics South Africa
TODEM	Tools for Empirical Research on Democratic Qualities Model
TQM	Total Quality Management
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNECLAC	United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
URP	Urban Renewal Programme
WDR	World Development Report

ABSTRACT

From 1994, democratic South Africa waged a war on poverty. This is reflected in the types of policies adopted by government aimed at poverty eradication. Significant government efforts are already aimed at addressing poverty and ensuring a better life for all. The South African government's policy orientation has been targeted at the poorest of the poor. However, there is still much that needs to be done. The study sought to propose an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. The study undertakes a qualitative research located in New Public Management Theory. Data collection methods used in this study were focus group discussions and face-to-face interviews. The international best practices in sustainable rural development were also considered as lessons in the context of South Africa. A thematic analysis of the data was used to identify challenges in the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication.

The empirical research revealed that although various programmes and strategies for poverty eradication were implemented, there are gaps within the implementation framework. The findings revealed that there is a lack of: coordination of the sustainable rural development programmes, active community participation that involves decision-making from the design and planning of the programmes, adequate funding of the sustainable rural development programmes, poverty and beneficiary profiling, empowered public officials and utilisation of ICT and intergovernmental relations. The study proposed an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. In addition to the proposed institutional framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes, the study recommended a people-centred rural development that empowers communities, capable rural development centred public administration, governance, coordination of rural development in all sectors including community participation, as well as innovative public administration for e-rural development by using ICT. **Key terms and concepts:** sustainable rural development, poverty, poverty eradication, institutional framework, Mpumalanga Province, Limpopo Province, Muyexe Village, Jabulani Bafazi, Water Smeet.

CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

“In 2000, 189 countries of the world came together to face the future. And what they saw was daunting. Famines, drought, wars, plagues and poverty. The perennial problems of the world, not just in some faraway place, but in their own cities and towns and villages” (UNDP, 2015:3).

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the birth of democracy in 1994, the post-apartheid state has struggled to substantially address the deep socio-economic legacies of the apartheid era such as poverty, inequality and unemployment. Although some progress has been made in addressing the apartheid legacy, the legacies of poverty, inequality and unemployment remain stubbornly prevalent. As a result of the extreme socio-economic cleavages experienced by the majority African population, the ANC-led government saw an interventionist approach in a developmental state as the means through which to transform the economy, create jobs and provide long denied needs, including land and housing (Karriem & Benjamin, 2016:93).

The interventionist approach is the same view as that espoused by Williams (2014:87), who argues that the newly elected government of South African post-democracy adopted a renewed and focussed attempt to facilitate and promote rural development, which all spheres of government are required to understand and should orientate their programmes to correlate with this focus. The South African government, in consultation with a wide range of key stakeholders, launched a new stage of concerted effort to improve opportunities and well-being for the rural poor through sustainable rural development programmes (Karriem & Benjamin, 2016:94).

The “depth of poverty remains deepest in rural areas” (O’Laughlin *et al.*, 2013:6). Mottiar and Bond (2012:309) argue that in order to reduce poverty in the rural areas, the

capabilities of the rural poor must be strengthened through changing the environments surrounding the poor and by breaking the vicious cycle of poverty, by the development of policy and an institutional framework for planning and by the implementation of poverty reduction (political capability, socio-cultural capability) (Mottiar & Bond, 2012:309).

This chapter presents the background to the study, the problem statement, the main research question and objectives, the research methodology and the outline of the entire study. The study sought to propose an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication,

1.2 ORIENTATION

This study focussed on proposing an institutional framework that supports the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in rural areas of South Africa. In South Africa rural areas are defined as areas characterised by high levels of poverty, poor local economies with a weak manufacturing base, undeveloped infrastructure and a limited tax base that offers limited opportunities for employment, high costs of basic social services, poor access to natural resources that support subsistence and low levels of skills development (South Africa, 1999:7). This study examined two specific case studies that reflected the characteristics of rural areas as defined above, namely Muyexe Village in the Limpopo Province and the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Mpumalanga Province. The study is located in the discipline of Public Administration as described below.

The focus of Public Administration as an academic discipline involves administrative activities to govern and to give effect to governmental policies (Thornhill, 2014:4). According to De Wet (2014:26), Public Administration is a field of study that investigates issues related to politics, the economy, societal needs, and the management, organisation and execution of government policy and programmes in a moral, effective, efficient and economic manner. In addition, De Wet (2014:26) describes public administration in practice as “the translation of politics, the recognition of an economy, the societal needs, the management, coordination and implementation of government policy and programmes by public officials in a public sector in such an ethical, effective, efficient and

economic manner that it serves the citizens within a state.” Considering these definitions of public administration as both scientific and practical fields, the formulation of poverty eradication policies, frameworks and programmes and the effective, efficient and economic manner in which they are implemented are researched in public administration and executed through public administration functions. Public administration can be said to be that field which studies government function, how public policy is implemented and the management of public affairs, while the practice of public administration is any function of the public official, from policy to organising, to staffing, budgeting and the control associated with government action (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:103).

After the demise of apartheid and the regime change in 1994, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, was enacted (hereafter referred to as the Constitution, 1996), to enable South Africa to consolidate its democracy, to promote freedom by giving a voice to the people, and to provide a basis for accountability (South African Human Rights Commission, 2006:5). The Constitution, 1996, enables the country to continually hold free and fair multi-party elections and to decentralise authority, thus creating conditions for the enhanced involvement of people in the decision-making processes (South Africa, 1996).

The unique political transformation that took place following the first democratic election of 1994 was a significant milestone for the country. However, the truth of the matter is that the first democratically elected government, led by the African National Congress (ANC), inherited a country that was described by the World Bank as one of the world’s most unequal economies, with a Gini coefficient measuring 0.58 (Odardi & Pagliari, 2011:63) after the 1994 elections. The Gini coefficient is used to measure levels of inequality in countries. A recent report by the World Bank revealed that South Africa continues to reflect the highest measure of inequality from amongst 57 measured countries with a Gini-coefficient value of 0.66, which means that inequality has not improved (World Bank, 2013:1).

The ANC-led government also inherited a country that was characterised by vast inequalities in education, healthcare and basic infrastructure, such as access to safe drinking water, sanitation and housing (Mbuli, 2008:2). While only a quarter of all black citizens had access to piped water in their houses by 1995, citizens from other races, such

as asians and whites, had universal access to these services (Hoogeveen & Ozler, 2004:47). The country was disfigured by widespread poverty, with almost half of the South African population being categorised as poor in terms of the national poverty line of R354 per household per month (World Bank, 2013:18). According to May (1998:181), although such problems may have been common in certain societies throughout the world, the uniqueness of the South African situation lay in the fact that these problems were primarily engendered by the four decades of apartheid legislation, built on the earlier policies of colonialism (Anseeuw & Alden, 2011:7).

South Africa underwent radical social and economic transformation, which focussed on fighting poverty after the first democratic elections (Africa Progressive Report, 2011:3). With the Constitution, 1996 as a guide, the country made significant gains in the promotion of human rights, the rule of law, multi-racial and diversity management, gender equality and poverty alleviation (South African Human Rights Commission, 2006:5). Due to the quest for development, the democratic government introduced and implemented development and planning frameworks from 1994 onwards, to develop and sustain democracy and progressively root out all forms of discrimination, in particular the race-based discrimination that constituted the cornerstone of apartheid. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was adopted in 1994 as South Africa's socio-economic policy framework to address the immense socio-economic problems, challenges and backlogs due to the apartheid neglect (South Africa, 1994:86). As a flagship programme, it included a hundred-day action plan focused on delivery schedules for basic needs such as health, education and electricity provision in particular (South Africa, 1994:86).

In 1996 the government launched the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy based on the lessons learned from the official statistics and on the expansion of the mission of the RDP (Visser, 2004:2; South Africa, 1996:3). Building on GEAR, the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) was introduced in 2006, to speed up employment creation with a target of halving unemployment by 2014 (South Africa, 2006:18). ASGISA took note of the binding constraints, such as skills development and growth in the South African economy (Marais, 2011:45). Unfortunately, both GEAR and ASGISA failed as strategies and did not reach their objectives (Blumenfeld, 2015:8). In 2009, the New Growth Path (NGP), which focusses on the micro-

economy was introduced, and in 2012 the National Development Plan (NDP) followed, which envisions what a 2030 South African society should look like and what action has to be undertaken through the NGP to achieve this vision (South Africa, 2012). The above strategies have all been designed to address the issue of poverty in South Africa, but have each not been entirely successful, over the twenty years since the first strategy was created in the newly democratic South Africa. Several authors have attempted to describe democracy in the context of improving the quality of life of the citizenry.

Bhorat and Van der Westhuizen (2008:23) argue that democracy is an enormous developmental good in its own right. Therefore, democracy and development are interconnected. At the World Summit in 2005, Member States of the United Nations (UN) recommitted to protecting and promoting human rights, the rule of law, development and democracy, recognising that they are interlinked, and mutually reinforcing that they belong to the universal and indivisible core values and principles of the UN (United Nations, 2005:1). Springer (2011:531) states that democracy includes majority rule, judicial independence, separation of powers, local autonomy, numerous personal or human rights, socio-economic equality, direct democracy, public spirited harmony, constitutionalism, good governance, government responsiveness and accessibility of decision-makers, and effective bureaucracy and an independent civil society. Morlino (2011:216) defines democracy as a functioning government promoting government accountability, political participation and a strong political culture. Morlino (2011:221) describes the following as the pillars of democracy:

- rule of law;
- electoral accountability;
- institutional accountability;
- political participation;
- political competition;
- freedom;
- solidarity/equality; and
- responsiveness.

From the above it can be argued that a democratic state should respond to the challenges that citizens face, including poverty. The institutions in a democratic state should be held

accountable for the implementation of policies that are influenced by the public participation of citizens.

Since 2007, South Africa has also taken the route of a developmental state (Mahabane, 2005:8). According to Sindzingre (2004:2-3), Fourie and Ngqungwana (2005:38–39), Manuel (2005:54–55), Mahabane (2005:8) and Habib (2008:34), a developmental state can be defined as a state that is rationally planned in a manner that makes it possible and necessary for a government to influence the direction and pace of economic and social development, rather than leaving it to the dictates of the markets. In defining a developmental state it should be emphasised that it is a state which can foster economic growth and development, meaning that not only is the state able to transform its economic base by promoting productive, income-generating economic activities, but it ensures that economic growth has the resultant effect of improving the living conditions of the majority of its population (Edigheji, 2005:10). In a developmental state, state capacity building provides a platform for accelerated growth via improved public sector performance and enhanced credibility for investors. Strengthened political institutions and civil society are placed on the agenda (Levy & Fukuyama, 2010:1). Gumede (2009:16) states that democratic developmental states can successfully manage to balance economic growth with social development, while building democratic institutions at the same time.

In a developmental state, a government should establish social and economic goals (Edigheji, 2009:61; Evans, 2009:9). State capacity is critically important as a feature and it is achieved through the creation of an economic, efficient and effective public service, staffed by the nation's best and brightest servants, functioning without constraints and capable of being innovative in addressing the social and economic needs of the citizens (Baloyi, 2009:5; Lim, 2009:8). At a conference at the International Convention Centre (ICC) in Cape Town on 20–22 September 2004, entitled *Bridging the gap between two economies: A public service response*, Manuel (2004:1) argued that the definitions of a developmental state apply to the South African government's view of its role. It prioritises the removal of poverty and tyranny, the expansion of economic opportunities, and the extension of services to the poor in the government's development agenda.

According to Early and Scott (2010:32), the importance of public administration for poverty alleviation and development programmes has been recognised for a significant number

of years in developing countries, where an efficient, responsive, transparent and accountable public administration is not only of paramount importance for the proper functioning of a nation, but also for the basic means through which the government develops strategies to achieve its developmental goals. Public administration is one of the main vehicles through which the relationship between the state and civil society is built and maintained. A functional public administration means achieving higher order development goals, particularly equitable growth, poverty reduction, peace and stability (Early & Scott, 2010:32). Poverty eradication and sustainable livelihoods are two of the means through which programmes are delivered within the public service organisation. Poverty eradication and sustainable livelihoods can only be realised when the public service delivery system is sustainable (Mubangizi, 2009:446). In a developmental state, public servants are the servants of the people and the champions of the poor and the downtrodden. Their sense of service delivery is focussed on eradicating poverty and social deprivation, and they view their careers in the public service as a calling and not an opportunity to accumulate wealth or self-serving elitism (South African Management Development Institute, 2006:10–11). Therefore, it can be argued that the public service has to align its role with the developmental challenges facing South Africa and effectively play a part in the socio-economic trajectory to development.

Chapter 2 of The Constitution, referred to as the Bill of Rights, states the following rights (South Africa, 1996:5):

- Section 26 – everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing, and the state has to take reasonable legislative and other measures within available resources to achieve the progressive realisation of this right.
- Section 27 – everyone has the right to access to health care services, including reproductive health care and sufficient food and water, and the state has to take reasonable legislative and other measures within available resources to achieve the progressive realisation of this right.
- Section 29 – everyone has the right to a basic education, including adult basic education; and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.
- Section 33 – everyone has the right to administrative action that is lawful, reasonable and procedurally fair. Everyone whose rights have been adversely affected by

administrative action has the right to be given written reasons. National legislation must be enacted to give effect to these rights and must promote an efficient administration.

Therefore, it can be deduced that the delivery of public services such as food, water, health care, education and housing, is a constitutional right. The state has a legal obligation to provide resources to progressively realise these rights. This is the function of the state in a democratic developmental state.

1.3 DEFINITION OF POVERTY

The phenomenon studied in this research is poverty, and specifically, the eradication of poverty. It is therefore important to define poverty. Poverty is understood as a deficiency in an individual's socio-economic capabilities, with its manifestations that include factors such as income, access to basic services, access to assets, information, social networks and social capital. This broad approach to poverty allows for engagement with the reality of poverty and the combination of things that should be done to deal with it (South Africa, 2008:4). Poverty has been generally accepted to mean significant deprivations in the wellbeing of a society (Haughton & Khandker, 2009:73). At the centre of the fight against poverty is the creation of economic opportunities, enabling or empowering communities and individuals to access these opportunities, with the provision of basic services continuing to be critical in the efforts to empower individuals and communities to support themselves (South Africa, 2008:5).

Poverty has also been defined as the inability of the poor to command basic needs for the attainment of a minimal acceptable standard of living (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2013:11). Poverty is apparent to the human eye and is profiled by shacks, homelessness, unemployment, casual labour, poor infrastructure, a lack of access to basic services and exclusion, which was based on race and class during the apartheid era (Triegaardt, 2009:2). The empowerment or capability perspective represents poverty in terms of a lack of basic capability, skills and knowledge required to prevent material impoverishment (United Nations, 2015:16).

Endemic and widespread poverty continues to disfigure the face of the country. As long as the current levels of poverty persist, it will always be impossible for the government to

say that it has fully restored the dignity of all the people. For this reason, the struggle to eradicate poverty has been, and will continue to be, a central part of the national effort to build the new South Africa (Mbeki, 2004:14). With the NDP, the government commits to the elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality by 2030 (South Africa, 2012:5). Therefore, due to historic policies, South Africa embarked on a journey to restore human dignity by, *inter alia*, eradicating poverty through improved citizens' capabilities, the creation of opportunities and access to basic services, which is a role which government must fulfil in a developmental state. This can be achieved by authoritatively influencing the direction of development through appropriate implementation of policies and strategies.

There are different ways to identify poverty based on social, economic and political aspects, which culminate into two types of poverty such as abject or absolute poverty and relative poverty (Townsend, 1992:11).

Absolute poverty refers to the set of resources a person must acquire to maintain a minimum standard of living for survival. Absolute poverty is therefore a matter of acute deprivation, hunger, premature death and suffering (Sen, 1980). From a human rights perspective, it is the responsibility of the state to ensure that its citizens have access to a level of goods that meet their basic right to health and wellbeing (Sen, 1980). Absolute or abject poverty, also known as extreme poverty, involves the scarcity of basic food, clean water, health, shelter, education and information. Those who belong to absolute poverty tend to struggle to live and experience significant child deaths from preventable diseases like malaria, cholera and water-contamination related diseases (Schwartzman, 2002:43). Absolute poverty is a condition characterised by severe deprivation of basic human needs, including food, safe drinking water, sanitation facilities, health, shelter, education and information. It depends not only on income but also on access to social services (United Nations, 1995).

Relative poverty is defined from the social perspective that is living standard compared to the economic standards of population living in surroundings, hence it is a measure of income inequality (Smith, 1993:77). Relative poverty is concerned with how worse off an individual or household is with respect to others in the same society. It does not necessarily reflect vulnerability to mortality or acute suffering, but rather the level of inequality in a given context (Smith, 1993:78). In such a circumstance, the inability to

access goods or services that are considered norm renders a person poor (Smith, 1993:78).

1.4 POVERTY LEVELS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Poverty levels are not the same in all nine provinces of South Africa. The table below depicts the poverty levels of the various provinces of South Africa.

Table 1.1: Poverty measures by province

	Headcount (P0)			Poverty gap (P1)			Severity (P2)		
	2009	2011	2015	2009	2011	2015	2009	2011	2015
Total	62,1	53,2	55,5	33,5	25,5	27,7	21,3	15,0	17,0
Western Cape	41,3	33,7	37,1	18,1	12,5	14,7	9,9	6,2	7,6
Eastern Cape	77,4	69,0	72,9	44,9	35,5	41,3	29,6	21,6	27,1
Northern Cape	69,2	58,2	59,0	36,6	26,4	28,0	22,6	14,9	16,5
Free State	68,1	52,4	54,9	34,9	23,4	25,1	21,0	13,4	14,2
KwaZulu-Natal	72,2	65,4	68,1	41,2	33,4	36,1	27,1	20,4	22,7
North West	68,3	59,9	64,3	36,0	29,6	32,2	22,5	17,8	19,8
Gauteng	38,6	30,6	33,3	16,6	12,0	13,2	9,1	6,4	6,9
Mpumalanga	72,8	63,8	59,3	40,7	31,1	29,0	26,4	18,0	17,3
Limpopo	82,3	70,1	72,4	50,6	36,8	40,3	34,7	23,0	26,4

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017:64)

According to StatsSA (2017:31), in 2006 the majority of the population in seven out of the nine provinces in South Africa was living below the upper-bound poverty line. The upper-bound poverty line is calculated by taking into account the non-food expenditure of households, which is also interpreted as a measure of general poverty. The highest poverty levels were found in Limpopo, where three-quarters (74,4%) of all residents were poor, followed closely by the Eastern Cape (69,5%) and KwaZulu-Natal (69,1%), while the poor were only in the minority in the two provinces of Western Cape (36,9%) and Gauteng (32,4%) (StatsSA, 2017:31). The study focussed on the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces, where the highest levels of poverty are reported. The study

further focussed specifically on rural areas, in particular the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in these provinces.

Table 1.1 above indicates that on average, the poverty head count for the majority of provinces increased between 2011 and 2015. Although the Mpumalanga Province saw a decline over this period from 63% to 58%, this is still high, whereas the Limpopo Province increased from 70,1% to 72,4% (StatsSA, 2017:64). Of the nine provinces, six showed a similar decreasing trend between 2016 and 2011 before increasing in 2015. These provinces were the Western Cape, Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, North West, Gauteng and Limpopo. The remaining two provinces, namely the Eastern Cape and Free State, depicted some irregular movements relative to the others, seeing an increase between 2006 and 2009 before dropping in 2011 and increasing again in 2015 (StatsSA, 2017:65).

Table 1.2: Poverty measures by settlement type

	Headcount (P0)			Poverty gap (P1)			Severity (P2)		
	2009	2011	2015	2009	2011	2015	2009	2011	2015
Total	66,6	53,2	55,5	33,5	25,5	27,7	21,3	15,0	17,0
Urban	46,8	38,8	40,6	22,2	16,5	17,5	13,0	9,1	9,7
Rural	88,0	77,0	81,3	52,6	40,3	45,5	35,4	24,9	29,7

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017:68)

Table 1.2 above depicts the significant differences in the experience of poverty between those living in urban and rural areas. Poor people living in rural areas were notably poorer than poor individuals living in urban areas, as they were on average further away from the poverty line. In 2006, the poverty gap was 52% for rural areas, roughly twice the gap in urban areas at 23,8%. In 2009, while the gap remained constant at 52,6% in rural areas, it had decreased to 22,2% in urban areas. Although the gap in rural areas decreased in 2011 to 40,3%, it was still twice as significant as the gap recorded in urban areas at 16,5%. In 2015, the gap increased to 45,5% in rural areas and 17,5% in urban areas. However, this gap was still lower than what was estimated in 2006 and 2009, showing a challenge

in reducing poverty. Poverty is a serious developmental challenge in economic and social terms, not only in South Africa, but throughout the developing world. In South Africa, after the first democratic elections, fighting the legacy of poverty and underdevelopment has always been a central theme of government. This led to the adoption of the RDP of 1994 and was repeated in the NDP in 2011 (South Africa, 2012:23). Since 1994 South Africa has put more focus on the potential effects of rural development on poverty eradication throughout government programmes. During the implementation of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) in the Muyexe Village, the poverty level was identified as very high due to a lack of access to basic services such as clean water, sanitation, electricity, housing, access roads, food security, a high level of unemployment, low income level and lack of facilities for health and education (South Africa, 2011:40). This was also the case with the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Mpumalanga (South Africa, 2011:33). In view of these high levels of poverty, unemployment and lack of delivery of basic services, the government concluded that an effective implementable multi-pronged rural development strategy was needed in the form of the CRDP. The CRDP is one of the key priorities of government, aimed at creating sustainable rural communities throughout the country. The ultimate goal of the CRDP is to eradicate poverty and underdevelopment resulting in sustainable rural communities that are characterised by social cohesion (South Africa, 2011:41).

According to the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS), as in many countries, much of South Africa's rural space is sparsely populated (South Africa, 2000:6–7). However, rural areas are diverse in their concentrations of poverty and relative prosperity. The demographics of rural South Africa reflect past policies and the hurdles impeding efforts of rural people to maintain intact families. The legacy of the former homeland system is one of enduring, planned and deliberate poverty (StatsSA, 2000:86). As a result of the past policies, rural South Africa also has areas with high-density populations and dislocated settlements where people live in abject poverty (StatsSA, 2000:86). A report on household expenditure and income by Statistics South Africa (StatsSA, 2008:43) postulates that a significant number of people residing in rural areas live in these ghettos, isolated from economic opportunities, necessitating high costs of transport for jobs and to accomplish the basic tasks of daily life (StatsSA, 2008:43–44). The high prevalence of poverty in the rural communities is presented in Figure 1.1 below:

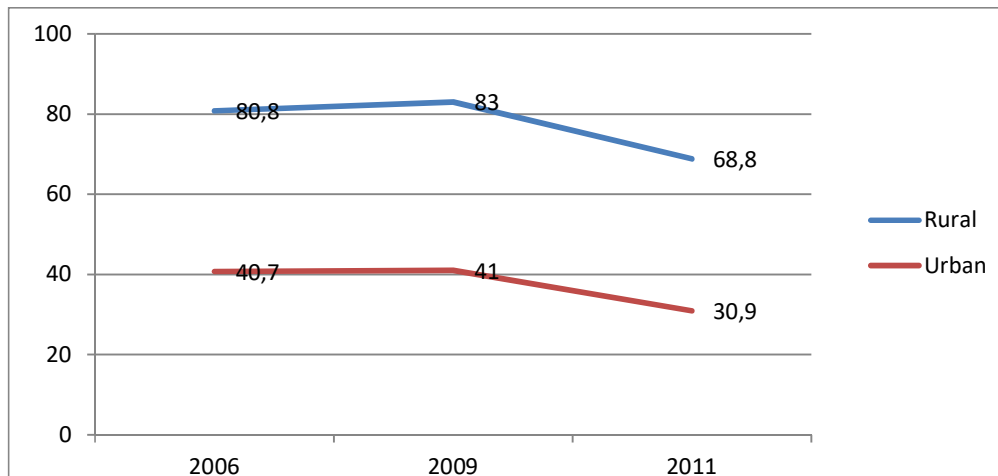


Figure 1.1: Poverty headcount by settlement type

Source: Statistics South Africa (2017:33)

Rural areas are defined as sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources. In South Africa this includes dispersed villages and small towns, and even large settlements in former homelands (South Africa, 1997:1). Figure 1.1 above shows that poverty levels differ significantly across settlement types. In 2006, 8 out of 10 (80,8%) people living in rural areas were poor, and double that in urban areas (40,7%) (StatsSA, 2017:33). By 2009, the proportion of poor people had increased to 83% in rural areas compared to 41% in urban areas. In 2011, more than two-thirds (68,8%) of rural dwellers were still living in poverty as compared with less than a third (30,9%) of the residents of urban areas. The rate of reduction between the two settlement types from 2006 to 2011 was also different, as there was a 15% reduction in poverty levels in rural areas, which is much lower than the 24% reduction in urban areas. In terms of poverty share, almost 6 out of 10 (58,3%) poor people lived in rural areas in 2011 (StatsSA, 2017:33).

According to StatsSA (2017:33), the experience of poverty also differed significantly between the settlement types. Poverty was significantly more severe in rural areas than in urban areas, as shown by the poverty gap. The poverty gap in 2006 was 41,9% in rural areas and 16,1% in urban areas, while it increased in 2009 to 45,0% in rural areas and to 17,6% in urban areas. By 2011 the gap was significantly larger in rural areas (31,8%) than in urban areas (12%). Similarly, the severity of poverty was worse in rural areas than in

urban areas. In 2006, the severity level stood at 26,6% for rural areas, which is three times that of urban areas (8,3%). Although the severity had decreased by 2011, it was still almost three times as large in rural areas (18,1%) as in urban areas (6,2%) (StatsSA, 2017:33).

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the above discussion, the study argues that the effects of poverty in rural communities are still prevalent and far from improving. Therefore, the programmes and policies to eradicate poverty cannot necessarily be universally applied, as the experiences differ significantly between urban and rural communities. Due to poverty being significantly higher in rural areas, despite the commitment of government to resolve this, the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) was dually mandated to continue with land reform, infrastructure development and job creation. Other core service delivery streams of the department included the provision of human settlements, water and sanitation, electricity, health care, education, job creation, effectively and efficiently benefiting all rural communities (South Africa, 2018). This led to the unveiling of the CRDP (South Africa, 2014:4). The CRDP coordinates efforts geared towards improving the livelihoods of people living in rural areas (South Africa, 2014:6).

The CRDP is a three-pronged strategy with three objectives. It focusses on the comprehensive rural development strategy linked to the land and agrarian reform and food security of the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009–2014, which outlines ten strategic priorities. The basic objective of the MTSF is to improve the conditions of life of all South Africans and to contribute to building a better South Africa and a better world (South Africa, 2014:8).

Policy-makers within the South African government have argued that central programmes aimed at improving the lives of rural South Africans should focus on rural development for poverty reduction (Twala, 2012:213–221). Rural development may be defined as the development of regions excluding the urban areas such as the towns and cities (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2010:40).

Rural communities require greater socio-economic and human development interventions targeted at eradicating poverty, improving the quality of life and sustaining the livelihoods of citizens. Efforts to eradicate poverty in rural areas follow a development framework through the implementation of policies and programmes. The CRDP, which is implemented by the executive branch of government, specifically the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, focusses on increased access to basic services for people residing in rural areas and the delivery of socio-economic infrastructure in deep rural areas such as the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages. The 1997 Rural Development Framework for South Africa (South Africa, 1999:23) defines deep rural areas as sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including the villages and small towns that are dispersed throughout these areas. In addition, they include the large settlements in former homelands, created by the apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances (South Africa, 1999:23).

Muyexe is a Xitsonga word that means “alone”. The village is far-flung, poor, remote, deeply rural and on the edge of the Kruger National Park. The Muyexe Village in the Greater Giyani Municipality in Limpopo Province, forms part of the Thomo Traditional Authority, which has three villages within its jurisdiction. The villagers depend on their livestock to survive and in August 2009, the village was proclaimed a CRDP site (Development Bank of South Africa, 2014:1), which means that it lacks basic services such as water, electricity, proper roads, or adequate housing. The CRDP promised to help the local farmers become more productive in their farming by providing tractors and other agricultural equipment. The village covers 3.42 km², with a population of 3 228 in 900 households (Development Bank of South Africa, 2014:1).

The Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages fall within the Gert Sibande District Municipality in the Mkhondo Local Municipality. The Jabulani Bafazi Village is located on the north of Iswepe, a railway siding, whereas the Water Smeet Village is located on the north east of Iswepe. These areas are rural in nature with no or low levels of basic services, as well as unsustainable livelihoods. The communities of Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet are faced with insecurity of tenure due to labour tenancy. Most of these community members work for Mondi Forests, who donated the land on which their houses are situated to the government. The nature of the settlement and the conditions in which

these people live are characterised by poor access roads, high levels of unemployment and lack of basics services such as water, electricity, sanitation, health facilities, transport, economic activities and basic input supplies (South Africa, 2011:30).

The provision of rural enterprise support to improve rural livelihoods, supporting land reform beneficiaries to improve productivity of their farming enterprises and making significant contributions to reduce rural household food security are all important for the eradication of poverty in rural communities (South Africa, 1999:1). In addition, Van der Berg (2014:205) posits that it is necessary to implement appropriate policies and programmes that respond to the needs of rural people, while engaging in policy research and development that explores long-term strategies to address the systematic deprivation of rural residents and contribute to the reduction of poverty and inequality.

A developmental state must formulate a cohesive and focussed set of goals and objectives for national growth and development, and a set of policies to achieve the goals (Gelb, 2006:1). In this regard, the South African government has through the CRDP included the following elements in the Rural Development Framework (South Africa, 2009:8):

- the implementation of aggressive land reform policies;
- the stimulation of agricultural production with the intention to contribute to food security;
- sustainable livelihoods and food security;
- service delivery to improve quality of life;
- the development and implementation of a programme for rural transport;
- the development of skills;
- the revitalisation of rural towns;
- support and exploration of non-farm economic activities;
- the development of institutional capacity; and
- cooperative development.

The above discussions show that South Africa as a developmental state has, through various strategies and policies, attempted to lead the fight against poverty. Poverty in rural communities should be eradicated through sustainable development. The fight against

poverty is a priority of the government that should be realised by means of public service delivery and implemented by the public service through effective and efficient public administration. In a developmental state such as South Africa, a government must coordinate the mobilisation and allocation of financial and human resources in line with policies to monitor and evaluate progress towards objectives (Gelb, 2006:2; International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2010:7). As such, effective public administration by the public service through the DRDLR is vital for the effective, efficient and economic allocation of resources to eradicate poverty. This study aimed to propose a framework to support the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication for the DRDLR as a government institution, aimed at poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa.

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In order to address the problem of the study, the following research objectives were pursued:

- to conceptualise and contextualise poverty within the discipline of Public Administration and in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state;
- to determine the theoretical as well as national and international regulatory frameworks for sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication;
- to identify international best practices that would lead to the successful implementation of rural development strategies amongst rural communities;
- to determine the institutional challenges that impede the effective and efficient implementation of existing sustainable rural development strategies in eradicating poverty in the rural areas of South Africa; and
- to develop an institutional framework that supports effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa.

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The objectives of the study above were met by answering the following questions of the study:

- How can poverty be conceptualised and contextualised within the discipline of Public Administration and in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state?

- What are the theoretical as well as national and international regulatory frameworks for sustainable rural development for poverty eradication?
- What could be presented as international best practice for sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication?
- What are the institutional challenges affecting the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa?
- What institutional framework could be recommended to support the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa?

1.8 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS

Public administration is conceptualised as decision-making, project planning, formulation of objectives and goals, establishment and review of organisations, direction and supervision of employees and the exercise of controls and other functions performed by government executives and supervisors (MacRae & Pott, 1980:79). Public administration is often associated with the development and wellbeing of society, and good public administration will lead to a strong state. Public administration may also be considered the action part of a government, since it is a tool to implement and achieve the government's policies (MacRae & Pott, 1980:79).

In studying public administration, there is a need to consider what government is and to reflect on its core functions. The intrinsic function of public administration is governance. The purpose of public administration is to govern, so government and governance are the core functions of public administration. Governments exist to translate the resources that a country has and the needs of society into collective actions. A government will continue to exist for an undetermined period of time only if it is able to meet the most basic expectations of its population (Raadschelders, 1999:288).

The face of poverty has many dimensions, such as malnutrition, illiteracy, low life expectancy, insecurity, powerlessness and low self-esteem. Poverty is also linked to frustrated capabilities due to asset deprivation, inability to afford decent health and education and lack of power (Tashikalma & Aletogbe, 2016:345). The institutional

environment within which the poor derive their livelihoods and the socio-political factors that restrict their access to resources, can influence the relationship between economic growth and the level and extent of poverty. The proportion of the poor making their living in rural areas has remained, and is expected to remain, strikingly high. Over half the world's extreme poor depend for their livelihoods mainly on farming or farm labour (May, 1998:44). The rural poor's welfare, of course, depends on many aspects of public action other than direct investment in support of agriculture, schools, clinics and civil order or public action. Poverty reduction programmes must therefore be refocussed on rural people if they are to succeed. Poverty is not gender neutral and women enjoy less access to, and control over, land, credit, technology, education, health care and skilled work (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2012:266).

No political democracy can survive and flourish if the majority of its people remain poor, without land, without their basic needs being met and without tangible prospects for a better life (African National Congress, 2010:5). An economy that creates jobs, including self-employment opportunities, and the ability of a country to improve its educational outcomes, skills and the aspirations of children and young people are the most important factors in breaking generational cycles of poverty. If poverty is not addressed, it will become more intractable and costly to tackle. Research suggests that an increased length of time in poverty reduces the likelihood of exiting poverty (United States Census Bureau, 2007:15). Poverty traps enmesh individuals and households in vicious cycles of material deprivation and a lack of investment in human capital (Convention on the Rights of the Child, 2008:3).

The current initiatives to combat poverty in South Africa rely predominantly on government sponsored and administered programmes and projects (Gumede, 2008:14). The prevalence of poverty to a great extent still reflects apartheid settlement patterns, as most of the poor households are found in the former Bantustan regions, informal settlements and historically black townships (South Africa, 2008:18). The government will not reach effectively enough into society to secure cooperation on development until society reaches effectively enough into government to ensure that policy is informed by an adequate understanding of grassroots realities and citizens feel sufficiently invested in the state to want to work with it (Mbeki, 2003).

The strategic transformation focus of government in the second decade of democracy in South Africa is on building and consolidating a developmental state (Maserumule, 2013:211). Its imperatives necessitate that, on the one hand, the quality of life of the citizens must be enhanced through improved delivery of public services and, on the other hand, that citizen participation in the mainstream economy must be maximised, in particular those citizens that were previously marginalised by the apartheid system (Maserumule, 2007.:46). The promotion of rural development in a sustainable manner has the potential to reduce the level of poverty in South Africa (Twala, 2012:214). Rural communities require greater social, economic and political opportunities to overcome poverty. To achieve this, agricultural development should introduce a land reform and job creation and livelihood strategy which ensures that rural communities have jobs, quality access to basic services, health care, education and food security (South Africa, 2012:217).

Building human resilience against poverty and deprivation requires responsive institutions (United Nations, 2014:6–8). Adequate policies and resources are needed to provide adequate jobs, health care and education opportunities, especially for the poor and vulnerable (United Nations, 2014:6–8). In particular, states that recognise and take action to reduce inequality and poverty amongst groups are better able to uphold the principle of universalism, build social cohesion and prevent and recover from crises (Kahne & Mabel, 2009:16). Universalism guides all aspects of national policies, ensuring that all groups and sections in society have equal opportunities (Anttonen, 2010:78). This entails differential and targeted treatment for unequal or historically disadvantaged sections by providing greater proportional resources and services to the poor, the excluded and the marginalised, to enhance everyone's capabilities and life choices (Jacobs, 2009:103). Policies and institutions that fight exclusion, poverty and marginalisation, create a sense of belonging, promote trust and offer the opportunity of upward mobility that reduces the potential for conflict (Lahiff, 2008:46). It is on this basis that the study perceives poverty eradication, policy formulation and implementation as functions of government. The study aimed to develop an institutional framework addressing poverty through rural development.

According to Copus *et al.* (2011:126), the framework for rural development strives to present rural areas not as merely dependent peripheral regions and to overcome the

prevailing defensive policy perceptions, but includes a cross-sectorial approach that calls for the integration of all levels of government, regional and local actors. This integrated perspective addresses a broad scope of relevant policies, going well beyond the previous focus on almost exclusively agricultural activities, to a new vision of rural regions as areas with substantive assets and a focus on investment measures instead of compensation payments.

1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the research methodology of the study, which includes the research approach, research design, the instrumentation, the target population, the sampling and the data analysis of the study.

Franklin (2012:246) states that social scientists conduct research in order to seek answers and understand the aspects of the social world. The social world comprises social human beings, institutions and organisations, actions and events, interventions such as policies and programmes, as well as all cultural products of human endeavour (Herman, 2009:88). A research methodology refers to methods, techniques and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan (Franklin, 2012:248). Research methodology is the strategy or plan of action that lies behind the choice and use of particular methods (Silverman, 2011:201). The methodology is the general research strategy that outlines the way in which research is to be undertaken and, amongst other things, identifies the methods to be used in it. These methods, described in the methodology, define the means or modes of data collection or, sometimes, how a specific result will be calculated (Howell, 2013:134). According to Henning *et al.* (2013:17), a research methodology asks the question of how the researcher can go about finding out whatever can be believed or known. Thus, methodology is concerned with the *why*, *what*, *where*, *when* and *how* data is collected and analysed. The research methodology of this study was chosen with the aim of answering these questions.

1.9.1 Research approach and design

There are mainly two research paradigms or approaches in social research, namely the quantitative research approach and the qualitative research approach (Franklin,

2012:261). Savin-Baden and Major (2013:93) argue that qualitative research refers to an approach to the study of the world that seeks to describe and analyse the behaviour of humans from the point of view of those being studied (Webb & Auriacombe, 2006:597). Denzin and Lincoln (2011:66) contend that a qualitative research approach is committed to understanding social phenomena from the actors' own perspectives and examining how they experience their world.

According to De Vos *et al.* (2010:308), the qualitative approach relates to research that produces descriptive data and results are presented as discussions of trends, based on words, not on statistics. It is centred on examination and inquiry into meaning (Shank, 2006:8; Wienclaw, 2009:2). The qualitative research approach focusses on the significance of the meaning derived from the data (Creswell, 2008:07). The qualitative research approach was selected for this study due to its naturalistic, holistic and inductive ways of studying and understanding a phenomenon and because it is flexible, allowing for the emergence of new ideas and the capability to describe, explain and understand the phenomenon being studied (Auriacombe & Mouton, 2007:443). The qualitative research approach enables the researcher to delve deep into the data but allows less control over the research situation (Wienclaw, 2009:2). The study is concerned with understanding rather than explanation, with naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement, with the subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider as opposed to that of an outsider (De Vos *et al.*, 2010:308).

As this study is aimed at understanding social reality, attempts must be grounded in people's understanding and experience of that reality (Creswell, 2008:71). Creswell (2012:32) argues that a qualitative approach to research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data. The study sought to understand the experiences of poor citizens in the Muyexe Village in Limpopo and the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet villages in Mpumalanga, and the perceptions and opinions on how sustainable rural development strategies as implemented by the DRDLR can meet the objective of poverty eradication. The study also sought to derive meaning related to what contributes to poverty according to the poor

citizens and their own as well as public servants' views of the strategies implemented towards poverty eradication in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Limpopo and Mpumalanga. Ultimately, the study aimed to propose a sustainable institutional framework supporting a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in these deeply rural areas of South Africa.

A research design refers to the selection of a particular kind of study, such as a survey, experiment, case study, life history, programme evaluation; and the format, description of the sample and sampling procedures (De Vos *et al.*, 2010:307). Neuman (2011:421) postulates that a research design is a logical plan for getting from *here to there*, where *here* may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered and *there* is some set of conclusions about these questions. Research designs look towards what the end product will be (Henning *et al.*, 2013:36).

This research made use of a case study design. Qualitative case studies use documents, physical artefacts, document analysis, interviews, critical incident focus groups, informal discussion, participant observation and direct observation, while seeking to collect empirical evidence fairly and rigorously (Schurink & Auriacombe, 2010:436). The study was an explanatory or instrumental case study, which is useful for theory building and gaining new knowledge to inform policy development and generate theoretical insight from a literature review closely grounded in the real experiences of the impoverished communities in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet villages.

Baskarada (2013:1) defines a case study as a way to learn about a complex instance, based on a comprehensive understanding of that instance, obtained by extensive description and analysis of the instance, taken as a whole and in its context. The case study approach is particularly useful when there is a need to obtain an in-depth appreciation of an issue, event or phenomenon of interest in its natural real-life context. It is a research approach that is used to generate an in-depth, multi-faceted understanding of a complex issue in its real-life context, the central tenet being the need to explore an event or phenomenon in depth and in its natural context (Crowe *et al.*, 2011:2). The case being studied may refer to a process, activity, event, programme, individual or multiple individuals. It may even refer to a period of time rather than a particular group of people (Baskarada, 2013:4). De Vos *et al.* (2010:109) argue that a case study depicts a slice of

life, since it is a written record of an actual incident that happened in a real environment. They explain that the value of a case study is that it follows a process to gather a large amount of information on one or a few cases, goes into greater depth, and gets more details on the case being examined. In a case study, an incident is therefore described and explained, along with the problem that arose, who was involved, why the problem was experienced, and the opinions and prejudices that were pertinent to the individuals involved.

1.9.2 Target population and sampling

The target population is the population to which the study would like to generalise the results. It sets boundaries on the study units, which are the individuals who possess specific characteristics (De Vos, 2010:223). A population can be described as the total group of individuals that the study intends to learn about (McBride, 2010:114). A population is defined by Wiid & Diggines (2013:186) as the total group of people or the entities from whom information is required. There are two defining characteristics of a target population, namely geographic and time referent (Burger & Silima, 2006:657). A geographic target population refers to the geographic boundary of the study, in this case Muyexe Village in Limpopo and Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Mpumalanga, with 1 560 households in total, while the time referent boundary refers to the implementation period of the ISRDS from 2007 to 2017. Therefore this research had two target populations: The first population were officials implementing sustainable rural development programmes and strategies within the DRDLR, and the second target population were the beneficiaries of the sustainable rural development strategy or programme in the community of the Muyexe Village in Limpopo and the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Mpumalanga. The population for this study was therefore the administrators in the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication strategies in the DRDLR, specifically in the Rural Development Directorate, as well as the poor community members who were beneficiaries of the programmes. A sample was chosen from each of these populations.

A sample can be defined as a group of individuals chosen from the population to represent it in a research study (McBride, 2010:114). A sample can be described as representative when it has attributes similar to the target population from which it was selected (Greener,

2011:60–63). McBride (2010:114) states that the most important reason for sampling is feasibility, as it is often too costly and impractical to study an entire population. Researchers make use of sampling to save time and resources.

Sampling designs are generally divided into two broad classes: probability and non-probability sampling (Burger & Silima, 2006:659). This study made use of non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is commonly associated with qualitative research, where the researcher's primary aim is to get an in-depth description and understanding, rather than quantity of understanding (Burger & Silima, 2006:662). Non-probability sampling is used to draw a sample that is in line with the parameters or shared characteristics of the research where not all individuals or social artefacts in the population are easy to access or known, and where drawing a representative sample to generalise results to a broader population is not the goal of the study (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:138).

Purposive sampling is a sampling strategy where the sample is purposefully chosen according to the elements and a set of characteristics. The sample is chosen by considering the research question and then determining the characteristics of the population that are important (Du-Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:142). The advantage of using this sampling strategy is that it ensures that each element of the sample will assist with the research, because each element fits with the population parameters of the study and its questions.

The sample for administrators and programme implementation officials for unstructured interviews was drawn from the Rural Development Directorate of the DRDLR. Purposive sampling was used since there were only 2 offices designated for this region. From the Rural Development Directorate in each province, a sample of ten officials was selected from a total of 31 employees. The sample was chosen purposefully from officials that were responsible for implementation of the sustainable rural development strategy in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages. The beneficiary sample consisted of 20 individuals divided into two groups comprising a set of youths between the ages of 18 and 34 years and a set of older persons from 65 years and above. These two sets formed two focus groups. Focus groups can help the researcher to gain an in-depth description and an understanding of the perceptions and lived experiences of the poor citizens in the

villages. The study sought to establish their perspective on the sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication and the institutional challenges associated with the implementation of these programmes. The age groups selected from beneficiaries were representative of the population composition found in the villages.

1.9.3 Data collection methods

The methods used to gather data included a literature review including documents from the two provinces, focus group interviews and face-to-face qualitative interviews with DRDLR officials.

1.9.3.1 Literature review

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:101), a literature review involves searching for, reading, evaluating and summarising as much as possible of the available literature that relates both directly and indirectly to the topic of the research. It is the most essential part of the preparatory work that needs to be undertaken in the initial stages of research. For research to be successful, literature has to be systematically analysed and evaluated to ensure that the knowledge gained was effectively gathered and appropriately compiled (Grbich, 2007:186). Monette *et al.* (2008:81) regard the purpose of the literature review as becoming familiar with the current state of knowledge regarding the research problem, learning how others have delineated similar problems, narrowing down the focus of the project and ensuring that there is no unnecessary duplication of what others have done. The literature review accomplishes several important purposes, provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study and should explain to the reader the theoretical context of the problem being examined (Monette *et al.*, 2008:31).

According to Chang (2008:137), a literature review is a structured evaluation and classification of what reputable scholars have written on a topic, the sources and identification of a particular research problem, the analytical points of departure employed and the guiding hypothesis. According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:101), a literature review creates a basis for the analysis of research, enabling the researcher to comprehend the structure of the research problem and presenting the justification for the research.

De Vos *et al.* (2010:109) elaborate as follows on the four purposes of literature. The literature review:

- assures the reviewers that the researcher understands the current issues related to their topic;
- points out ways in which the researcher's study is similar to or different from other studies that have been previously conducted;
- fits the researcher's study into the jigsaw puzzle of the present knowledge; and
- introduces and conceptualises the variables that will be used throughout the study.

The primary focus of qualitative research is meaning. Therefore literature helps to coordinate and orchestrate the growing sense of richness of meaning. It can therefore be argued that literature is a useful tool in conducting qualitative research (Shank, 2006:8; De Vos *et al.*, 2010:299).

The purpose of the literature review in this study was to gain knowledge on the topic of poverty eradication through rural development and the implementation of such programmes in a democratic developmental state. The literature review also helped with the formulation of questions for the interviews and focus groups, based on other studies. It positioned the study in the on-going debates about poverty eradication and policies and provided a conceptual framework for establishing the importance of the study, as well as the theoretical context of poverty. The literature review included sources such as books, journal articles, the internet, legislation, theses, dissertations, official documents and Integrated Development Plan (IDP) reports.

1.9.3.2 Focus groups

A focus group is an instrument used in qualitative research where a group of people are asked about their perceptions, opinions, beliefs and attitudes towards a product, service, concept, experience or programme. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members (Collis & Hussey, 2013:64). De Vos *et al.* (2010:361) define a focus group as a carefully planned discussion designed to gauge perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment. It is a technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. In a focus group, the discussion is conducted in a natural

and unstructured way and participants are free to express their views and opinions about the topic at hand, allowing a free exchange of ideas between the selected participants (Du Plooy *et al.*, 2014:193).

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:184), focus groups are appropriate because debates generated during discussions provide the researcher with a deeper understanding of different opinions and viewpoints of participants. This helps the researcher to collect evidence about the feelings and opinions that are shared and experienced by people who are in similar situations. They are cost effective in that they enable the researcher to listen to the opinions of a number of participants simultaneously. It also gives the researcher an opportunity to ask detailed questions that relate to specific aspects investigated. This leads to rich and detailed information, as participants are asked to elaborate on aspects of interest to the researcher.

During the study, two separate focus group discussions were conducted in each of the three villages, one involving the youth and one with older community members. Face-to-face interviews with officials who worked in the provincial offices of the DRDLR were also conducted in both provinces, thus assisting in collecting rich information from the views, opinions and experiences expressed during the focus group discussions and the interviews. The study essentially sought to explore and discover information by listening to participants' own interpretation.

1.9.3.3 Qualitative interviews

Interviewing is a predominant mode of data collection in qualitative studies where a study seeks to obtain information through direct interchange with an individual or group that is known or expected to possess the knowledge it seeks. An interview is social relationship designed to exchange information between the participant and the researcher (De Vos *et al.*, 2010:342). According to Seidman (1998:1), a person interviews another because they are interested in the other people's stories. Other people's stories are regarded as a way of knowing and telling stories as an essential part of a process of making meaning. Sewell (2001:1) defines qualitative interviews as attempts to understand the world from the participant's point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences and to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations.

Unstructured face-to-face interviews are also referred to as in-depth interviews. They extend and formalise conversation, and are often referred to as conversation with purpose, where the purpose is not to get answers to questions, nor to test hypotheses, nor to evaluate. The researcher using these interviews is interested in understanding the experiences of other people and the meaning that they make of that experience (De Vos *et al.*, 2010:348).

Prior to the interviews, the researcher defined the information required as the information or data supplied must clearly relate to specific questions that the study sought to answer. In this study the questions to be answered were prepared and reviewed by experts in the field (Rubin & Rubin, 1995:145).

1.9.3.4 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of data, in an attempt to make sense of the complex social and subjective world (De Vos *et al.*, 2010:397). The main objective of data analysis is to transform raw input data in the form of facts, figures, observations, perceptions and findings through nuanced and contextualised interpretations that attach meaning to the input data (Cloete, 2007:514). In qualitative research, data analysis is a continuous processing, comparison and assessment procedure that starts when the researcher begins to collect literature on the subject or gains entry into the field to gather empirical data (Cloete, 2007:513).

For this study, data was analysed using NVivo Version 11 of 2015. NVivo is a qualitative data analysis computer software package produced by QSR International. It is designed for qualitative researchers working with very rich text-based and/or multi-media information, where deep levels of analysis on small or large volumes of data are required. NVivo is intended to help users organise and analyse non-numerical or unstructured data. The software allows users to classify, sort and arrange information; to examine relationships in the data; and to combine analysis by linking, shaping, searching and modelling (Cloete, 2007:513).

According to Dey (1993:30), data analysis involves the process of breaking data down into smaller units to reveal their characteristic elements and structure. Thematic analysis of qualitative data is a method for identifying and analysing patterns or themes within qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006:233). Thematic analysis is a form of pattern

recognition within the data. In this method of data analysis, a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question. It represents a level of patterned response or meaning within the data (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006:41). The strategy involves the following steps or phases:

- the researcher must familiarise him/herself with the data, either by re-reading and translating the data while noting the initial idea;
- the researcher must generate initial codes, where the codes reveal interesting features of the data;
- themes within the data must be searched;
- the data must be reviewed;
- the themes must be defined and named; and
- the final report must be produced.

Thematic analysis was used where the responses of the respondents were examined in relation to each question asked. Where the responses were similar, these were also captured and written in italics to highlight the general view of what the respondents felt on the issue.

1.9.3.5 Ethical considerations

Ethics in research means that data should be legitimately obtained and credited (Bazeley, 2010:439). The fabrication of data is unacceptable, since future researchers may unknowingly base their research on false data (Bazeley, 2010:439). Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe (2006:694) argue that the fact that some researchers use human subjects in their investigations requires them to comply with ethical norms and values. This is also supported by Terre Blanche *et al.* (2009:72), who declare that an independent and competent research ethics committee should subject all protocols to independent ethical review prior to the commencement of data collection. The research proposal as well as the research instruments were submitted for scrutiny and approval by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities of the North-West University.

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:273), ethics is to a researcher what impartiality is to a judge, it is a cornerstone. Research ethics are concerned with the responsibility of researchers to be honest and respectful to all research participants. This means providing

research participants with complete information and their role in the research. The information provided to participants should enable them to make a decision on participating. This also implies that before they take part in research, the respondents should understand the nature and value of the research they are to engage in (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:273).

Henning *et al.* (2013:73) argue that ethical considerations are important in social research. No harm should come to an individual due to their participation in a research study. In this study the participants were fully informed of any potential consequences of their participation and were also informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time. The researcher also ensured them that all reasonable measures were taken to ensure the anonymity and confidentiality of the data.

A consent form was used to assure participants that they were participating freely in the research. The consent form informed them that they would not be paid to be part of the research (Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.*, 2014:186). All participating stakeholders in this research were given a consent form for permission to use their information for the purposes of this research. A copy of the consent and declaration that participants had been notified is included in the research with records for evidence. Participants were asked to voluntarily participate in the study and the consent form did not personally identify them. The participants were also informed of the privacy and confidentiality principles by which the researcher abided.

Table 1.3 below summarises the research methodology of the study.

Table 1.3: Research methodology and design

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN	
Research approach	Choice of the study
Paradigm of the study	Qualitative
Research design	Case study
Sampling method	Purposive
Sample	• 10 Youth and 10 old age persons in Muyexe Village • 10 Youth and 10 old age persons in Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages • 5 officials in DRDLR (Polokwane) • 5 officials in DRDLR (Mbombela)
Data collection methods	• Focus group discussion • Qualitative interviews
Data Analysis	Thematic method
Ethics	• Ethical clearance- NWU Research & Ethics Committee • Informed consent, privacy & confidentiality, voluntary participation

Source: Own illustration (2017)

1.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A researcher has an obligation to make the shortcomings of the research known to the readers (Lutabingwa & Nethonzhe, 2006:700). Factors that are known and which pose potential limitations to a study are therefore disclosed. In this study, the availability of resources was limited. These resources range from funds, time and the logistical prerequisites of the study. As such only a selected number of beneficiaries could be interviewed. During the interview process some of the beneficiaries, especially in Jabulani Bafazi Village, did not respond to certain questions especially related to the challenges of the projects. This was for fear of reprisals. However, they were informed that their responses were for study purposes. In addition, due to commitments by the selected officials, especially in the Mpumalanga Province, not all participated in the study that lessened the responses. The study followed the six requirements of ensuring trustworthiness in a qualitative study discussed in the following section.

1.10.1 Trustworthiness of the study

Terre Blanche *et al.* (2009:92), define reliability in a study as the degree to which the results and findings of a particular study are repeatable. Reliability refers to the likelihood that a given measurement procedure will yield the same description of a given

phenomenon if that measurement is repeated, and reliability is concerned with questions of stability and consistency. However, this is not possible with qualitative studies. According to Du Plooy-Cilliers *et al.* (2014:258), since qualitative studies do not use numbers as evidence, they use different criteria to determine the trustworthiness or credibility of research findings, because the aim of qualitative research is to promote understanding of a particular phenomenon within a specific context, and not to generalise results. Therefore to ensure reliability in this study, the researcher spent time with the participants in order to understand them better, to gain insight into their lives, and also to use the exact words of their lived experience, so that participants would find the descriptions of their lives believable.

According to Henning *et al.* (2013:148), to validate is to check for bias, for neglect and for lack of precision, to question all procedures and decisions, to theorise and share and discuss the actions of the research throughout, not only at the end. Validity is dependent on the good craftsmanship in an investigation, which includes continually checking, questioning and theoretically interpreting the findings (Henning *et al.*, 2013:148). Craftsmanship means precision throughout the research process, from design until the presentation of results. To ensure validity in this study, the researcher checked whether the focus group members agreed with the research data. Henning *et al.* (2013:149) state that instead of asking an independent coder to run through the data, a researcher can ask the participants to check whether the findings make sense to them and what they see as the main themes are correct. The themes that participants identify may not correspond with the researcher's themes, because they theorise from different positions and knowledge bases, but they will alert the researcher to include the participants' views at a type of meta level of analysis.

There are arguments that the qualitative research approach shows a lack of measures for its reliability and validity as compared to the quantitative approach. To address the shortfall of validity and reliability within the context of qualitative approach, a researcher must maintain accountability throughout the research process by means of authenticity, credibility, conformability, dependability, transferability and crystallisation (Yilmaz, 2013; Cope, 2014; Morse, 2015). This study followed the same benchmarks to maintain accountability and to ensure the validity and reliability of the findings.

1.10.2 Authenticity

Authenticity refers to presenting a balanced view of the responses gathered during data collection from participants in research (Mertens, 2005:72). Cope (2014:89) argues that a study must present the feelings, thoughts and perceptions of the research participants in a manner that is reasonable and faithful. This can be ensured by using the quotes from respondents when the results of the study are reported, to give the reader an intimate understanding of the study. In this study the exact quotes of the respondents were used to report results. The final report of the study was made available to participants to ensure authenticity.

1.10.3 Credibility

Credibility can be defined as the congruence of the findings of the study and the actual emotions, behaviour, attitudes and feelings of the participants in the research (Mertens, 2005:71). According to Morse (2015:1212), the concept of credibility is achieved when the study uses prolonged engagement with the subjects, while persistently observing the cases during data collection. This aligns the findings of the study with reality. Yilmaz (2013:321) argues that credibility can be ensured by peer-debriefing to identify and rectify the biases of the researcher. The study revised interview notes with participants to ensure credibility of the responses and of the collected and analysed data.

1.10.4 Conformability

Conformability attempts to eradicate the biases of the researcher from the varying components of the research process, such as data analysis and the presentations of findings. This concept measures the degree to which findings are verifiable and are free from the subjective bias of the researcher undertaking the research (Mertens, 2005:70). According to McCarron (2010:60), conformability strives to determine that there is no twisting and distortion of the feelings and perceptions of the respondents in the empirical research. The concept of conformability in qualitative research is associated with the objectivity of the researcher during the study process (Morse, 2015:1213). Cope (2014:89) postulates that the researcher should factually describe how the conclusions and interpretations in the study were established and linked directly to the findings of the data collected. The study ensured that data analysis and interpretation were in line with the need to improve the implementation of rural development in South Africa. Therefore, the study ensured that objective analysis was used to assist institutions responsible for the

implementation of the sustainable rural development strategies aimed at poverty eradication in these two provinces.

1.10.5 Dependability

Dependability is equated with reliability in the qualitative research setting (Morse, 2015:1213). The findings from qualitative research are expected to possess some reciprocity, although this is impacted by changes in time and circumstances in the environments where the research was undertaken. According to Cope (2014:89), dependability refers to the constancy of data in similar conditions. A researcher must keep a record of the actions undertaken during the study to ensure that future studies in the same field can produce similar findings (McCarron, 2010:58). Dependability is also achieved when there is a fact justifying the choices made in the study with respect to methods, strategies and procedures (Yilmaz, 2013:320).

In an effort to improve the dependability of the research findings, the researcher kept track of the research process in a bid to keep it aligned with the research topic, the research problem and the objectives of the study. In addition, the study also made use of the findings in previous studies on poverty eradication strategies and rural development in South Africa.

1.10.6 Transferability

Transferability refers to the use of a sample that adequately represents the target population so that the findings can be generalised (McCarron, 2010:56). This particular phase attempts to ensure that a study's findings can also be applied to a different setting or group for inferences. The researcher should provide enough information on the participants and the study context to enable readers to transfer the findings to other new but related environments.

The study should perform in-depth analysis of the data to such an extent that various audiences and consumers of such data can easily infer the findings to the larger population, or even to other communities in different settings. The data analysis was conducted in such a manner that readers and rural development policy-makers could transfer the findings to other provinces and villages in South Africa that may need to transform the implementation of sustainable rural development strategies.

1.10.7 Crystallisation

Mertens (2005:72) argues that in qualitative research, the data analysis should have a pattern that is a mixture of different colours that together provide a strong glow. The data should crystallise into given patterns to provide validity. Crystallisation ensures consistency in the data analysis, the structure of data collection instruments and the selection of the respondents. This study took care to have a comparable match between the phenomenon, the instrument and the respondents.

1.11 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The effectiveness of rural development programmes and policies aimed at poverty eradication depends on identifying and thoroughly analysing the profile of poverty and recommending an institutional framework that can be effectively, efficiently and economically implemented.

The study aimed to enrich the existing body of public administration literature by specifically conceptualising poverty and poverty eradication through a rural development framework in a democratic developmental state. It also detailed the effective, economic and efficient implementation of programmes in support of its poverty eradication mandate. The study therefore aimed at contributing to the rural development dimension of the democratic developmental state, specifically targeting the contribution of an appropriate policy and framework for effectively implementing strategies for the sustainable development of rural communities through eradicating poverty in the Muyexe Village in Limpopo and the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Mpumalanga.

The study aimed at assisting the development practitioners and administrators of programmes of rural development and poverty eradication in the DRDLR in Limpopo and Mpumalanga to implement a differential and targeted treatment for the unequal or historically disadvantaged citizens. The study contributed by identifying the existing gaps and suggesting corrective actions towards programmes and strategies aimed at achieving the strategic goals of government through the development of a rural development framework. Policies and institutions that fight exclusion, poverty and marginalisation should be capacitated to ensure that they create a sense of belonging, promote trust and offer the opportunity of upward mobility to reduce the potential for increasing poverty levels. This will help the poor move out of poverty traps. The study thus proposed an

institutional framework directed at poverty eradication in the deep rural areas of South Africa.

1.12 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1: Orientation and problem statement

This chapter has presented a background to the study, the problem statement, the research questions, research objectives, purpose of the study, research approach, research design, instrumentation, ethical considerations and the significance of the study. It has also described the context of the problem to be studied.

Chapter 2: The theoretical framework for development in a democratic developmental state

The chapter will conceptualise and contextualise poverty and poverty eradication within public administration in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state. The chapter will start by discussing the theoretical framework of public administration and the related paradigms, the theories of a state, the democratic state, the developmental state and the democratic developmental state. The role of public administration in the democratic developmental state is also discussed in this chapter, as well as approaches to rural development and the eradication of poverty in a democratic developmental state. Furthermore, attention will be given to the need to address poverty effectively to achieve the objectives of the NDP and various other strategies in the South African democratic developmental state.

Chapter 3: The statutory and regulatory frameworks: sustainable rural development, poverty and poverty eradication

The chapter will conduct a review of the statutory and regulatory frameworks informing rural development for poverty eradication in South Africa and internationally. The chapter will elucidate the constitutional and other legal requirements with regard to poverty eradication, as well as the current poverty eradication strategies.

A literature review will be conducted on rural development, poverty and poverty eradication. The chapter will focus on the various types of poverty, its policy implications,

the measurement of poverty, and historical approaches to poverty. The chapter will also discuss various concepts closely related to poverty, such as inequality, vulnerability, social exclusion, and underdevelopment. The discussion will link poverty eradication strategies with sustainable rural development in a democratic developmental state. Moreover, the chapter will expound upon the meaning and purpose of an implementation framework, as well as the steps in the development of a framework for rural development.

Chapter 4: International best practices for sustainable rural development for poverty eradication

This chapter will focus on the international best practices and lessons in the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication. Lessons and best practices will be drawn from developmental states globally. Comparisons will be made with South Africa to determine gaps and differentiations. In addition, the chapter will focus on salient international policies with regard to rural development, poverty and poverty eradication. Consideration will be given to international case studies, international views on causes of poverty, global poverty eradication strategies, policies and the new agenda on poverty eradication through rural development.

Chapter 5: An analysis of the sustainable rural development strategy implementation within selected rural villages

This chapter will discuss the findings related to the implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in South Africa. The results for the two case studies will be presented and discussed. The chapter will also present and interpret the results obtained from the focus group discussions of participants from the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages, as well as results of the face-to-face qualitative interviews obtained from officials in the DRDLR in these provincial departments. The findings will centre on how the current rural development strategies and policies have gone about serving the objectives of eradication of poverty, as well as institutional challenges identified in the implementation phase of a sustainable rural development strategy. This chapter will therefore present the findings of the study and gaps identified in the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in South Africa, in accordance with the current government's agenda on poverty.

Chapter 6: Institutional framework addressing poverty through rural development

The chapter will propose the development of an institutional framework for poverty eradication for the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. Gaps in the administration of poverty eradication through rural development will be identified. The chapter will recommend how poverty in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces should be targeted to provide for basic human needs, the creation of economic opportunities and the empowerment of communities and individuals to access these opportunities.

Chapter 7: Conclusion and recommendations

The chapter will provide a summary for the study and outline the achievement of the objectives of the study. The chapter will offer recommendations on the implementation of the rural development framework developed in Chapter 6, followed by a conclusion.

1.13 CONCLUSION

The academic discipline of public administration studies the administrative activities of governments when governing and when giving effect to governmental policies, which includes poverty eradication and sustainable rural development. This field of study investigates issues related to politics, the economy, societal needs, and the management, organisation and execution of government policy and programmes in a moral, effective, efficient and economic manner. Public administration as a practice is described as the translation of politics, the recognition of an economy, the societal needs, the management, coordination and implementation of government policy and programmes by public officials in a public sector in such an ethical, effective, efficient and economic manner that it serves the citizens within a state.

The importance of public administration for poverty eradication and development programmes has been recognised for a significant number of years in developing countries. In these countries an efficient, responsive, transparent and accountable public administration is not only of paramount importance for the proper functioning of a nation, but also for the basic means through which government strategises towards the

achievement of its developmental goals. Public administration is one of the main vehicles through which the relationship between the state and civil society is built and maintained. A functional public administration means achieving higher order development goals, particularly equitable growth, poverty eradication, peace and stability. Poverty is seen as the inability of the poor to command basic needs for the attainment of a minimal acceptable standard of living.

In the next chapter the theoretical framework for addressing poverty through public administration in a democratic developmental state will be provided.

CHAPTER TWO

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPMENT IN A DEMOCRATIC DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter conceptualises and contextualises poverty and poverty eradication within Public Administration in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state. The chapter firstly discusses the theoretical framework of Public Administration and the related paradigms, the theories of a state, the democratic state, the developmental state and the democratic developmental state. The role of public administration in the democratic developmental state is also discussed in this chapter, as well as approaches to rural development and the eradication of poverty in a democratic developmental state. Furthermore, attention is given to the need to effectively address poverty in consideration of the achievement of the objectives of the NDP and various other strategies in the democratic developmental state.

2.2. LOCATING THE STUDY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public Administration as a body of knowledge is associated with the study of the administration of the state (Van der Waldt, 2013:72). Gullick and Urwick (1937:3) denote the scope of public administration as planning, organisation, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Simon *et al.* (1950) argue that public administration refers to the activities of the executive branches of government, including government corporations and specialised agencies. According to Corson and Harris (1963:12), the action part of the government to operationalise its goals or objectives is central to the subject of Public Administration. Spicer (2005:674) contends that public administration is a practice that provides a number of welfare and social security services to the citizens, while in the modern state, the scope of Public Administration should be interpreted as including aspects such as democratic citizenship, public interest, public policy and services to society. Nigro and Nigro (1989:143) provide a wider scope of the discipline of public administration to be:

- a co-operative group effort in a public setting;

- covering all three branches of government such as executive, legislative and judicial, and their interrelationships;
- having an important role in the formulation of public policy and is thus a part of the political process;
- different in significant ways from private administration; and
- closely associated with numerous private groups and individuals in providing services to the community.

Waldo (1965:21) perceives the discipline of Public Administration as the study of the affairs of the state and describe it as a science and an art. Dimock & Dimock (1969:3-11) add that Public Administration as a field of study is concerned with the “what” and “how” of government. In this case the “what of government” refers to the subject matter for public administration, the technical knowledge of public administration, whereas the “how of government” is concerned with the technique of administration and management within government wherein each aspect is indispensable and put together they are called administration. Henry (1999:22) complements the definition by positing that Public Administration is a broad-ranging and amorphous combination of theory and practice; its purpose is to promote a superior understanding of government and its relationship with the society it governs, as well as to encourage public policies more responsive to social needs and to institute managerial practices attuned to effectiveness, efficiency and the deeper human requisites of the citizenry.

Scholars such as Wessels *et al.* (2009:13) and Van Dijk (2013:97), contend that Public Administration as a field of study or discipline is concerned with the building and sustaining of a body of knowledge aimed at making it remain relevant and contextual in the midst of a dynamic world. In addition, Public Administration is multi-disciplinary as it is interrelated to other equally vital disciplines such as economics, political science, sociology, engineering and anthropology (Wessels *et al.*, 2009:15; Van Dijk & Thornhill, 2011:14). Sindane (2011:8) argues that the role of Public Administration is to consistently and constantly contribute to the equipping of the public service with skills and training that are relevant for the execution of government policies. As to the focus of the study, the argument is made that understanding Public Administration as a discipline implies understanding the role that government has towards alleviating poverty through the practice of specific public administration functions.

2.2.1 The relevance of public administration

Public administration has become an essential part of society and a dominant factor in producing successes or failures of government (Ostrom, 1990:12; Spicer, 2001:213). Wilson (1887:198) posits that the administration entails the most conspicuous part of government; it is “government in action”, the “operative” and the “most visible” side of government. Caiden (1971:49) adds that the administration forms the basis of government and points out that no government can exist without administration. Recent functions of public administration have expanded rapidly in scope and nature, which is attributable to factors such as population growth, urbanisation, industrialisation and rapid advancement in technology. For the purpose of this study, such functions include essential services such as health, education, water provisioning, sanitation and security. The increase in the number of functions undertaken by government requires highly competent and professional staff (Van der Waladt, 2013:76). According to Caiden (1971:54), public administration has assumed the following crucial roles in a contemporary society:

- preservation of the polity;
- maintenance of stability and order;
- institutionalisation of socio-economic changes;
- management of large-scale commercial services;
- ensuring growth and economic development;
- protection of the weaker sections of society;
- formation of public opinion; and
- influencing public policies.

There is no doubt that public administration is important in all nations due to the role it plays in the provision of effective services. However, its role may differ from country to country (Van der Waladt, 2013:77; Owaseji, 2009:216). With the advent of the developmental state, as in the case of South Africa, countries rely heavily on the government for rapid socio-economic development and growth by means of more direct state intervention (Owaseji, 2009:216). This requires a public administration with a high capacity that is well-organised, effective and productive. McLennan *et al.* (2009:19) support this in stating that there is a general consensus that the successful operationalisation of goals of government, typically in a developmental state, are dependent on competent public managers to lead the development agenda of the state.

According to Van der Waldt (2013:78), this contextualises public administration as government in action and occupies a significant place, not merely as an instrument of governance, but also as an important mechanism to preserve and promote the welfare of society as a whole. Thus, through the practice of public administration the development agenda of government is operationalised and government is put in a position to alleviate poverty through appropriate socio-economic growth and development.

2.2.2 Paradigms in the study of Public Administration

Administration is found wherever two or more people take joint action to achieve an objective. Administration takes place wherever people work or play and, thus, is found in all spheres of human activity. Administration does not take place in a vacuum and has as its aim the effective and efficient realisation of goals (Cloete, 1981:1). Gladden (1961:12) maintains that public administration is concerned with the activities of government and that the word *administration* means to care or look after people, to manage their affairs and that an administrator is a servant and not a master. Public administration relates to the activities of the executive branch of government, deals with the formulation and implementation of public policies and involves issues of human behaviour and co-operative human effort (Stillman, 1980:3).

Public Administration has evolved over the years as a discipline through various phases and paradigms. Cloete (1981:3) refers to a paradigm as a disciplinary system of a science that comprises an entire constellation such as beliefs, definitions, metaphysical orientations, hypotheses, values, attitudes, or techniques shared by members of a given community or society over time. Furthermore, Gruening (2001:19) refers to it as something that the scientists of a discipline have consensus on, which guides the research in that particular discipline. A paradigm is therefore a framework used in the understanding of natural or social phenomena, since individuals in societies have fixed assumptions on the way in which they perceive their world where the assumptions are time and place bound. The characteristic which is key for a paradigm is its dynamism of changing over time and place (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2011:235).

The discipline of Public Administration has been ever-evolving by nature through various successive paradigms which contributed to many viewing the discipline as being deficient in a universally accepted theoretical understanding (Van Dijk & Thornhill, 2011:15). The

changes in the scope and theoretical orientation of Public Administration had a bearing on the discipline, causing it to undergo the various paradigm shifts which occur when difficulties begin to appear in the utilisation of existing paradigms (Van Jaarsveldt, 2010:28). Gruening (2001:21) argues that the difficulties render existing paradigms obsolete in addressing contemporary realities and problems, while the paradigm shift additionally occurs when a more plausible approach in explaining empirical phenomena emerges, with a scope and orientation that is partially or fully incompatible with the existing paradigm.

Smit *et al.* (2007:30-49) argue that more recent attempts at developing Public Administration Theory relate to accepted Organisational Theory that identifies different administrative theories, divided into classical and contemporary theories. The various classifications above serve to prove that generic administrative phenomena could be identified (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:103). However, it should be obvious that various schools of thought contain some characteristics that could be related to Public Administration. These examples prove that no single one is perfect. That may also be the reason for using terminology such as approach/school/movement to emphasise that some of the so-called theories do not constitute theory. They are efforts to systematise arguments, views and conclusions concerning particular phenomena. It is the duty of scholars of Public Administration to realign the relevant theories/schools/movements to suit the requirements of the discipline. These schools/movements and even paradigms could well be precursors to the development of theories (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:103).

Contemporary governments believe that the hierarchical structures and top-down approaches to policy implementation no longer address the problem situations faced by policy-makers. Public administration should exhibit a more client-centred approach, emphasising public involvement in policy formulation and implementation. Therefore public organisations have to be redesigned and the focus is placed on innovative leadership and co-operation amongst employees in order to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in public service delivery (Dobuzinskis, 1997:300-302).

While attempts have been made to categorise and develop theory in support of Public Administration, the study acknowledges that detailing the following as specific paradigms used in the study of the discipline does not imply that these paradigms meet the scientific

requirements for a theoretical paradigm. Scholars (as will be mentioned in the following sections) have titled these developments to be paradigms, but the study recognises that these should rather be seen as proposed theoretical perspectives than scientific paradigms. Paradigms that emerged within contemporary views on the study of Public Administration include the New Public Administration, New Public Management and New Public Service Paradigms.

2.2.2.1 The New Public Administration

Denhardt (2008:102-103) argues that the New Public Administration Paradigm highlighted the anomalies within the traditional theories, although it was unable to provide for alternatives. From this perspective, what emerged is that public administrators should not only be responsible for policy implementation, but also for policy formulation – thus extending the boundaries of public administration. The reciprocal nature between public administration and political science was strengthened by focussing on the public organisation as not operating on the periphery of politics, but in its mainstream.

New Public Administration emphasised the concepts of relevance, social equity, adaptation and client-focus to be the central themes for a contemporary perspective on the study of the discipline. Cameron (2009:382) points out that societal reality required the discipline to respond in a manner it was unable to fulfil.

Public Administration could not address the complexities found in contemporary public organisations, which meant a renewed interest in areas such as *inter alia* comparative Public Administration, policy-making and administrative rationality (Thornhill & Van Dijk, 2010:103). Denhardt (2008:105) maintains that New Public Administration intended to understand the impact of policies on society, in order to describe more effective means of satisfying client demands. As a paradigm, New Public Administration did not have much success, and theory to underpin this proposed paradigm was never developed. This led to the introduction of New Public Management which is driven by the need to ensure the quality and efficiency of public services (Rahman *et al.*, 2013:298).

2.2.2.2 The New Public Management

Denhardt (2008:137) posits that it was the financial meltdown in the 1970s that led to the development of the New Public Management (NPM) Paradigm. Emphasis was placed on improved public productivity, performance-oriented organisations and employees,

increased accountability and decentralised decision-making, all in an effort to create a more effective public organisation. The NPM Paradigm goes beyond the separation of politics from administration and uses the economic market for political and administrative relationships (Rahman *et al.*, 2013:298). All that is required are rational inputs and outputs to satisfy the demands of the public. Consideration for the common good is absent from this approach. Within the market driven principles, public organisations are made to compete, due to their exposure to market forces. Bagby and Franke (2001:626) perceive the language of contracts and transactions within the New Public Management to be replacing the language of politics with its consideration for equity, fairness and the common good. This paradigm offers an analytical checklist to transform the actions of government, through managerialism, which is a school of thought that promotes social progress through economically defined productivity through the application of sophisticated technologies; through a disciplined labour force; through the measurement of performance improvements and through managerial discretion (Denhardt, 2008:139). Henry (2010:320) argues that the paradigm of combining Public Administration with other disciplines led to the concept of management eventually replacing traditional administration, which led to the origination of the NPM. The paradigm shift from Public Administration to the NPM incorporated a move in the basic design coordinates of public organisations by becoming less distinctive from the private sector, while the degree of discretionary power enjoyed by the middle and lower level public managers increased with the loosening of centralised organisation control (Kalimullah *et al.*, 2012:11).

The emergence of debates in the late 1980s in developing countries, especially those in Africa, centred on the requirements of efficiency of government (Amoako, 2004:5). According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (United Nations, 2010:15), the debates provided greatly needed impetus for newer approaches to public service reforms such as the NPM. A great focus of these management reforms targeted the haphazard manner in which the majority of African states were being managed by their respective governments. Amoako (2004:5) states that the less organised nature of government was plagued by a web of maladministration challenges like systemic clientelism, abuse or misuse of state resources, nepotism, voracity and institutionalised corruption, ambiguous government, role ambiguity, mostly aligned to politicians and a lack of delegation of power and authority (Amoako, 2004:5). These challenges impacted the manner in which governments delivered their public services. There emanated a need for

a paradigm that would immensely improve government efficiency. The paradigm of the NPM started to influence the discipline of Public Administration in the late stages of the 20th Century, especially African states which began to grasp and adopt the NPM during the early 1990s. Cheung (1996:41) and Haque (2004:6) postulate that historically the origins of the NPM are linked to the Public Choice Theory of institutional economics.

The NPM is the use of a private sector economic market model to regulate and calm hostile political and administrative relationships, which is its main substance (Hope, 2001:120). Zungura (2012:248) states that Public Choice theorists have an inclusive view of rationality in the decision-making behaviour of individuals. The relationship between government and its people is the factor that determines citizens' perception on the effectiveness of the government's service rendering which philosophers regard as the Public Choice Theory (Zungura, 2012:248). According to Howard (2001:37), the Public Choice Theory is a superimposition of economics on political scenarios by treating political mechanisms such as the voting behaviour of ordinary citizens as a means through which preference for public goods are rationally translated into socio-economic development policies made by their political representatives.

The Public Choice Theory incorporates ideologies which economists use when analysing the actions of ordinary people in the marketplace and applying these to the collective actions of public decision-making in society and the public service at large (Zungura, 2014:248). This theory follows a concept that individuals in a society are thought to use their rationality to make choices, similar to what happens when they buy commodities in the marketplace, where their selection is based on what best suits their preferences and expectations from a wide range of available choices. The main principle of the theory is its ability to show that people make rational decisions on what is best for them in their daily lives, and usually stay motivated to maintain their desire for their preferences (Hughes, 2003:12).

Zungura (2014:248) states that the Public Choice Theory assumes that public servants have tendencies to selfishly value their interests over those of their constituencies. This may lead to the public service being at risk of being affected by the egocentric interest of public servants, unless it incorporates some private sector market principles which accord the public some choice of a variety of services (Zungura, 2014:248). The gradual evolution undergone by the NPM has to assume a more rigorous and robust stance and character

in public administration practices that go far beyond the assumptions of Public Choice theorists' principles. The assumption of selfish public servants may not be applicable in the 21st Century where the public service is guided by the principles of the NPM (Hughes, 2012:12).

There is a link between Public Choice Theory and the NPM Paradigm which is centred on the mention that the best outcome of promoting government efficiency in the 21st Century involves a greater influence of market forces and a lesser role of the government in some form of liberal democratic fashion (Kalimullah *et al.*, 2014:14). The government becomes a moderator in this set up where the private sector inspires the public service, characterised by an emphasis on quality public services, public service competition and customer satisfaction. The execution of the mandate of the public service is traditionally based on the classical era practices of bureaucratic organisation styles and at times finds it difficult to entice public officials to perform, therefore the due emphasis on managing poor performance and accountability enforcing mechanisms (Kalimullah *et al.*, 2012:11). Public Choice theorists are also seen to be advocating for alternatives that allow competition and choice and the return of as many activities as possible to the private sector, to encourage service quality and competition in the public service. Quality services are the key determinant of customer satisfaction and brand loyalty for private sector businesses, and so is citizen satisfaction which is equally crucial for public services (Kalimullah *et al.*, 2012:11).

Despite the NPM being inspired by the Public Choice Theory, the field of Public Administration has evolved beyond the rationality of people in a market setting to incorporate various fundamentally vital requirements. Such intertwined necessities include *inter alia*, public service ethics, professionalism, accountability, monitoring and evaluation (Hughes, 2003:12).

Mubangizi and Theron (2011:38) contend that while the dominant managerial prescripts associated with the emergence of the NPM were rooted in institutional economics, the success of public institutions depends on therapeutic or psychological skills aimed at bringing about the positive behavioural changes required for a more people-centred service delivery model. The NPM requires an equally important contribution from human capital as drivers for the changes it aims to achieve, because it does not function in isolation. These drivers include managing the public service for sustainable socio-

economic development aimed at alleviating poverty and addressing inequality (Mubangizi & Theron, 2011:38). The modern day public service requires a management system hinged upon a technocratic approach of doing things right and doing the right thing. The contemporary 21st Century public service requires managers to use their skills to build effective entities which are responsive, quality-driven and right-sized, while being inspired by the private sector customer concept.

The 1990s saw the Republic of South Africa adopting the NPM, upon realisation of the need for developing countries to shun traditional public administrative models for more cost-effective and efficient ones through paradigm shifts (Hamza & Bradill, 2009:127). According to Schwella (1999:337), the Mount Grace Conference of 1991 led to numerous resolutions made to transform Public Administration to be development oriented, responsive, efficient, economically innovative and proactive. The resolutions of the Mount Grace Conference principally sought to propel Public Administration towards revamping public service efficiency in a development orientated state. The emergence of the NPM in the Republic of South Africa was succeeded by a wave of public service statutory and policy interventions aimed at re-routing the public service to effective and efficient government. Such reforms targeted ensuring that the discipline of Public Administration was reflective to constantly equip public servants with the skills and training required for a development oriented government in a democratic state (Schwella, 1999:337).

2.2.2.3 The NPM Principles

Van de Walle and Hammerschmid (2011:192) view Christopher Hood (1991) as the founding father of the NPM. As a Public Administration paradigm, the NPM has core principles that serve as the pillars through which Public Administration fosters reforms towards government efficacy. Such principles also seek to ensure that the NPM inspired public service reforms are entrenched in Public Administration scholarship and subsequently impart requisite skills to the public servants. Hood (1991:15) established seven principles of the NPM Paradigm as follows:

- constant and consistent output controls;
- discipline and economy in resource allocation;
- explicit standards and measures of performance;
- emphasis on private-sector models of management;
- competition in the provision of quality public commodities;

- desegregation and decentralisation of the management; and
- hands-on entrepreneurial and professional organisational management.

Many of the principles put forward by Hood (1991) are reactions to the mechanistic and rigid nature in which traditional bureaucracy has shaped the public service. These principles sought to make sure that the NPM drives public service reform in a manner that would revolutionise socio-economic development. Overall, Hood (1991) strove to establish a more efficient public service totally devoid of the problems caused by the residue of classical Public Administration. In the same vein, performance management specifically aimed to ensure the optimal performance of public servants. Such can be achieved when the government has the ability to reward productivity after measuring outputs. Besides the principles postulated by Hood (1991), scholars such as Van de Walle and Hammerschmid (2011:192) additionally identify *inter alia*, productivity, service quality orientation, decentralisation and constant accountability for results as the key pillars of the global public management revolution inspired by the NPM.

The preceding characterisation of the NPM gives a vivid glimpse into the character of P(p)ublic A(a)dministration in a globalised modern world. Upholding the principles of the NPM in a digitalised 21st century public service would be a stepping stone for the establishment of the developmental state in Africa.

On a continent where the majority of states attained freedom from colonial bondage during the last three decades of the 20th Century, adopting the NPM as a manual according to which the newly independent states could adopt practices aimed at redressing and addressing socio-economic problems and stimulating development was a step in the right direction for Africa (Amoako, 2004:5). To this effect, the NPM has characteristics which help inspire the building of state capacity for sustainable development in a democratic development-oriented state. The core components of the NPM include the strengthening of control and directing functions at the centre, flexibly devolving authority, fostering public accountability, improving human capital development, optimising the utilisation of ICT, developing competition and improving the quality and the provision of responsive tailor-made services (Pollitt & Dan, 2011:6; Hope, 2001:121; Jorgensen & Kickert, 1995:501).

The features outlined in the forgoing section implicitly show that the NPM is a paradigm which values the contribution and innovativeness of human capital, an aspect so critical that managerialism is a human capital intervention to bring about public service efficiency. Moreover, the features provided by Jorgensen and Kickert (1995:503) are the foundation for an understanding of how further devolution and flexibility can ensure public service efficacy, enforce public accountability and improve internal public service competition. A key feature of the time compliance of the NPM in the 21st century centres on its emphasis on the use of ICT to catalyse service rendering, a practice that is cost effective, prompt and that improves the quality of the commodities that the public requires. Overall, quality monitoring and regulation help keep the government on track with its priorities and programmes, because they timeously reduce defects, utilise resources to the fullest and keep its 'customers' gratified. In view of the above, it is posited that the principles stipulated under the NPM would enable better service delivery to those areas that are in dire need of socio-economic upliftment.

2.2.2.4 Components of NPM

As indicated in the previous section the NPM was borne out of the current deficiencies of the traditional public administration system. Many countries including those in Africa sought to change the way services were being delivered to the communities and identified that the only way was to change their approach in ensuring that there would be more accountability to the people. As a result, key components of the NPM as suggested by Pollitt (1995) are briefly described below.

2.2.2.4.1 Customer orientation

The NPM is inspired by the private sector concept of customer orientation. According to Pollitt & Dan (2011:6), the NPM emphasises treating public service consumers as public service customers and adopting continuous quality improvement techniques such as Total Quality Management (TQM). Private sector businesses are inspired in a competitive market by the need to progressively satisfy the needs and wants of their customers. TQM would be achieved by offering quality products while balancing costs and pricing. Satisfied customers are likely to remain loyal to products, brands and organisations. Thus, the NPM incorporates the private sector customer concept into the public service to ensure that citizens are treated as service customers or clients of the government, and that the

government should sustainably gain its public service customers 'confidence through a constant and consistent satisfaction of their needs and wants'.

2.2.2.4.2 Managerialism

Managerialism refers to relative reliance on using professional managers in carrying out or planning of tasks or activities (Oxford Dictionary, 2014b:2). From a technical angle, managerialism is conceptualised as a way of borrowing and utilising managerial techniques, which are usually employed by large profitable companies in the private sector, into public entities (Ntshoe *et al.*, 2008:393). In addition, Ntshoe *et al.*, (2008:393) expound the concept of managerialism by mentioning the techniques stressed by managerialism theorists which encompass the use of internal cost centres, fostering of competition amongst employees, marketisation of the public service, and periodic monitoring of efficiency through a measurement of overall outcomes and individual performance. Similarly, managerialism is supported by the premise which values and stresses that the management is a cardinally vital asset to an organisation for the achievement of target goals (Terry, 1998:196).

2.2.2.4.3 Organisational restructuring

Hope (2001:121) observes another characteristic feature of the NPM in the public service as its preference for leaner, flatter and specialised organisational forms over large bureaucratic ones. The mechanistic features of traditional bureaucratic organisations should be fragmented into smaller manageable units for improving efficiency and functionality of governments. The NPM vividly requires the public service to right-size their departments and entities to dismantle the structures that may be favouring rigidity, ambiguity and bottlenecks.

Succinctly, organisational restructuring ensures that the public service has the right apparatus and systems in place for the furthering of the goals of contemporary governments, which include the persistent construction of democratic developmental states with sustainable socio-economic development.

2.2.2.4.4 Privatisation and competition

According to De Vries and Nemec (2013:8), the NPM characteristically exhibits the neo-liberal aligned approach to management where the government is democratic and plays a regulatory and enabling rather than an autocratic role of promoting socio-economic

development. The creation of market-inspired competition and the quasi-privatisation of some public service organisations are key determinants in improving governmental efficiency in a developmental state. In principle, privatisation implies a marked reduction in the role of the government in the ownership of assets and the rendering of public services by way of an increase in the involvement of the private sector in social and economic development (Chirwa, 2004:220).

2.2.2.4.5 Total Quality Management

The NPM advocates for generic quality improvement philosophies such as TQM (Pollitt & Dan, 2011:6). Principally, TQM requires organisations to constantly and consistently employ quality assurance, where every aspect of the product production process is checked against quality standards because the cost of retaining an old dissatisfied customer is higher than recruiting a new customer, therefore the need for consistent satisfaction of customers. TQM helps organisations to reduce defects and improve product quality and general customer satisfaction. Incorporating the TQM philosophies into the public service is essential, since public service organisations should avoid wasting public funds, constantly and consistently keep public service customers satisfied and promote sustainable socio-economic development.

2.2.2.4.6 Citizen participation

Citizen participation refers to the open, transparent and democratic process through which individuals and groups within society cooperatively exchange views, influence decision-making processes and play an active role in the social, economic or political development that affects their daily lives (Mafunisa & Xaba, 2008:454). Although classical management models acknowledge the need for community involvement in the daily activities of governments, they do not include citizen participation as one of their core values. The NPM therefore builds upon the active role that citizens can play in the determination of how a government executes its mandate. Therefore, the study argues that service rendering under the NPM should take a bottom-up approach, where government is informed about the needs of its people, what services should be offered and how to offer these services.

2.2.2.4.7 Budgetary reforms

Problems that have rendered the bureaucratic model obsolete include corruption, and maladministration affecting public finances can be solved by adopting sector-wide budgetary reforms. Additionally, these financial reforms would effectively help address ills such as financial misconduct in the public service. Within the Republic of South Africa, the dawn of the NPM dispensation saw various policy interventions being implemented to help transform the manner in which government functions at the local level. Such policy programme interventions are financial management related statutes like *inter alia*, the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) (No. 1 of 1999), together with periodically reviewed National Treasury Regulations (NTR) aimed at introducing budgetary reforms. Since the adoption of the NPM inspired reforms in the Republic of South Africa, the financial management environment has improved due to the enactment of robust laws that have given effect to robust budgetary reforms in the public service (Van Wyk, 2004:411). Given the budgetary reforms, the study argues that provincial governments in South Africa can derive positive benefits from these reforms by way of ensuring more accountable expenditure practices. Such practices can ensure that the public is given greater value for their money, and can aid the retention of donor confidence in projects funded by non-governmental organisations. Sustainable budgetary reforms foster stringent monitoring and evaluation interventions aimed at eliminating wastage of resources (Van Wyk, 2004:411).

2.2.2.4.8 Performance management

Performance management implies the management function designed to manage people through the constant evaluation of on-the-job employee performance against a set of standards and then communicating that information to the employees for the sake of improving employee productivity (Makamu & Mello, 2014:105). A key goal of public service performance management is the matching of the optimal performance of public servants against predetermined performance criteria. Such a matching is aimed at constant improvement of the individual employee's performance (De Waal, 2013:360). Brauns and Wallis (2014:152) view performance management to be concerned with the managing of the organisation to achieve the level and extent of performance planned for, providing for monitoring mechanisms and for the overall evaluation of policy programmes in the public service. In the same sense, the NPM duly promotes the entrenchment of a

performance management culture in the public service as a way of conducting a track and trace of individual and organisational performance (Hughes, 2012:8).

Characteristically, performance management holds explicit merits in the public service such as allowing for timeous remedial action to correct deviations and variances, employee motivation and avoidance of wastage of public resources (Van Dooren *et al.*, 2015:185). Paterson and Mafunisa (2005:547) support the use of this practice since it serves as a diagnostic process for determining the training and human capital development needs of public organisations.

2.2.2.4.9 Public accountability

The notion of public accountability implies a tacit obligation for government officials, elected officials, appointed and professional officials, to answer for the discharge of responsibilities entrusted to them by those authorised to scrutinise them (Kalema, 2007:251; Khalo, 2013:581). Public accountability further involves the exposition, explanation and justification of decisions, actions and managerial answerability for implementation of agreed tasks based on agreed criteria of performance (Day & Klein, 1987:7; Van der Walddt, 2013:79).

In addition public accountability is the duty to answer regarding the fulfilment of assigned duties within the context of authority and provided resources (Moeti *et al.*, 2007:100). In laymen's terms, accountability seeks justification for how the public service chooses to spend public funds on certain policy programmes over others. In principle, public accountability demands that the actions of public institutions be publicised to promote public scrutiny (Nzimakwe, 2009:101). Constitutionally, the public service is obliged to promote accountability as stipulated in Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (South Africa, 1996) which declares that the government must be transparent and accountable (South Africa, 1996).

2.2.2.4.10 Optimisation of the use of Information and Communication Technology

Hope and Chikulo. (2000:27) link the need to use ICT to increase efficiency as one of the push factors which led to various governments shunning classical management approaches for the NPM Paradigm of Public Administration. Also, the optimisation of the

use of information and technology is a key feature of the NPM (Jorgensen & Kickert, 1995:501). Globalisation has seen a digitalised 21st century driven by a rapid surge in the use of ICTs in business and government, and this is another key catalyst to improve government efficiency in the developing world. Therefore, the NPM is largely dependent on the utilisation of digital technology to spur and sustain socio-economic development in any state. Thus, governments in developing countries like the Republic of South Africa have embarked on massive digitalisation drives to keep abreast with developments elsewhere in the world, and above all the NPM reforms (Jorgensen & Kickert, 1995:501). The above, particularly the components of the NPM, have been adopted to create a system that is amongst others focussed on the communities in terms of service delivery, while at the same time ensuring that management is accountable for rendering services to the people. It also ensures that local government officials who have been elected by the people are accountable for service delivery and highlights the need for the use of limited financial resources in the provision of services (Jorgensen & Kickert, 1995:501). It is argued, however, that corruption may increase, given that managers are given more leeway to perform their duties. Furthermore, key indicators to measure performance may not be in place (Hope & Chikulo, 2000:27). Despite the shortcomings of some of the components, it is envisaged that the NPM would go a long way towards ensuring accountability, and services are people driven so as to alleviate the poverty situation in the rural areas. The paradigm shift to the NPM is that public office bearers are not just responsible for policy implementation, but also for policy formulation. The idea here is that they are conversant with existing socio-economic conditions of community members. It is thus posited that any poverty alleviation strategies created must directly speak to current existing conditions of the communities, with the hope that any improvements are as a direct result of correct and practical policies. In the context of South Africa, it is assumed that any attempts to alleviate poverty amongst the communities clearly necessitate full community involvement in identifying current issues, and that they are part and parcel of strategies in addressing those issues, while those responsible for the implementation of these strategies such as the public administrators apply the requisite know how in ensuring that these strategies are applied, and that the intended recipients are benefiting from these strategies. However, any form of progress in poverty alleviation amongst rural communities can be realised if there are clear public service reforms in which office bearers are held accountable for the failure of the strategies or programmes meant to deal with poverty amongst communities. There must be proper communication channels

between the rural communities and office bearers to foster smooth progress of any strategies that need to be implemented. The next section looks at the role of the state in mitigating poverty.

2.3 THE FUNCTION OF THE STATE AND HUMAN RIGHTS

The following section discusses the state, starting with the conceptual and theoretical framework, the theories behind the state, the functions of the state including the state as a policy-maker, the functions of the state with regard to human rights and basic needs as human rights.

2.3.1 The conceptual and theoretical framework of a state

Heywood (1997:5) defines the state as a political association that establishes sovereign jurisdiction within defined territorial borders and exercises authority through a set of permanent institutions that are recognisably public in that they are responsible for the collective organisation of communal life. Collins (2010:808) defines the state as a sovereign political power or community, the territory of such a community, the sphere of power in such a community, number of areas of communities having their own government and forming a federation under a sovereign government. Sovereignty is the political power that a nation has to govern itself, the position or authority of a sovereign, while sovereign means being independent of outside authority, not governed by another country, supreme in rank or authority (Collins, 2010:792). The state, in the words of Oppenheimer (1926:24-27), is the organisation of the political means; it is the systematisation of the predatory process over a given territory. According to Schwartzman (1953:11), the state claims and exercises the monopoly of crime, the state forbids private murder, it punishes private theft, but itself lays unscrupulous hands on anything it wants, whether the property of citizen or of alien. From this argument it can be deduced that the state is able to do what is right or wrong. It is in its will to choose what it must do or what it recognises as its goals or objectives, whether it is good or bad. The state provides a legal, orderly, systematic channel for the predation of private property; it renders certain, secure and relatively peaceful the lifeline of the parasitic caste in society (Nock, 1929:143).

The state, according to De Jouveneale (1949:100-101), is completely in its genesis a social institution, where a community establishes itself under one definite territory and is subject

to no outside control. In essence there can be no community without the people to form it, and no common life without the people living in a well-defined area (Heywood 1997:5). With this in mind the state could be a form of political association which cannot be merged or unified with any other political associations, though it may merge other such associations. One state is distinguished from another by its own independent structure of political authority (Heywood (1997:5). A state is made up of a community that lives in a well-defined territory without any external interference. There is an organised government that creates and administers laws over the community members within the defined territory.

The state as a legitimate territory, inclusive of an authoritative structure and citizens has evolved over centuries: a political establishment within delineated territorial borders that institutes sovereign authority through a set of public institutions that are funded by public revenue and that are subsequently responsible for the collective organising of communal life (Heywood, 1997:113).

2.3.2 The functions of the state

Historically, there have been important shifts in the perception about what the state is for, and what functions it ought to fulfil, and the state functions refer to the scope of the state and the types of tasks a state assumes (World Bank, 1997:57). As the 1997 World Bank in its World Development Report argues, there are certain core functions that any state should perform as a minimum. The report defines minimal functions as: the provision of security, the administration of justice (including the rule of law), and the provision of public health (World Bank, 1997:77). However, this is dependent on the level of development of each state so much so that in addition to providing the minimal functions it may also have to play a role in the provision of social welfare

Ghani *et al.* (2005:12), Chesterman (2005:81) and Fukuyama (2006:19) proposed a list of ten state functions which have received considerable attention. These state functions include:

- legitimate monopoly on violence;
- administrative control;
- management of public finances;
- investment in human capital;

- creation of citizenship rights and duties;
- provision of infrastructure;
- market formation;
- management of state assets;
- effective public borrowing; and
- maintenance of rule of law.

The Overseas Development Institute (2007:24) and Simon (2015:69), require the rendering of certain critical internal core or constitutive capacities that are the foundation of the state's functions. The political settlement which includes the restoration of a functioning and legitimate government and of constitutional rules, sits at the core of the state functions. This is established upon three core functions of the state such as the public administration function, security and the rule of law.

The next layer consists of those key public goods or outputs that a state should provide: justice beyond the rule of law, management of the economy and public services such as health and education. It is essential to keep in mind that all domains are closely interlinked and that their relationship is dynamic and cross-cutting (Fukuyama, 2006:55).

According to Dobbins *et al.* (2007:66), the functions of the state can be distinguished as constitutive domain functions and output domain functions, which are political settlement and regime, security and rule of law, administrative and service delivery functions.

From the discussion above, it can be posited that the state has the function to ensure that public administration is effective, efficient, staff is qualified and skilled, and that service delivery is ranked top on the list of priorities. Service delivery and administrative capacity should entail implementing of programmes according to policies to eradicate poverty.

2.4 THE CONCEPT OF DEMOCRACY AND THE DEMOCRATIC STATE

The following section discusses the conceptual and theoretical frameworks of the democratic state. The concept of democracy is also discussed in this section, with democracy as a human right requirement.

According to Fakir (2005:1), the democratic state seems to be suggested as giving voice, expediting, crafting and streamlining participatory processes, promoting greater inclusiveness of the poor and marginalised and the deepening and consolidating of democracy in all its facets (diversity, protection and promotion of rights, representation and representativeness, institutional separation of powers and functions, transparent decision-making, accountability and oversight), which themselves become panaceas for effective governance. Research shows that effective democratic governance means better service delivery (Helao, 2015: viii), as the theory suggests that the government then really knows what the people want. But knowing what the people want, without really having either the infrastructure, capacity, managerial ability and process of delivering the elements of democracy themselves will ring hollow in the absence of a change in the material conditions by which people symbolise and internalise the world.

2.4.1 The theoretical concept of democracy

The term democracy had its origin in Greece from the two Greek words, *dêmos* (people) and *kratos* (power) (Schumpeter, 1954:260). Democracy is a form of government, adopted by a state, through which eligible citizens have a free and equal right to determine the route of development, the creation of laws, as well as the social, economic and political direction of the state that have an effect on their lives and future. Democracy can be defined as a form of government in which the ruling power of a state is legally vested and through which such a government displays an embedded social and moral character through which such a government becomes the product and guardian of equality and freedom to the citizens of that state as a whole (Bryce, 1921:20). There is no internationally recognised, collective definition of the term democracy; it can be inferred, based on the scholarly efforts of (Schaar, 1981:23; Helgesen, 1995:29; Thornhill, 2012:34).

Democracy is that institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of a competitive struggle for people's votes (Schumpeter, 1954:269). According to Helgesen (1995:29), the system of democracy is that system that regularly holds elections to fill its executive government positions and seats in its effective legislative body. Democracy does not give due weight

to political repression and marginalisation, which excludes the significant segments of the population from exercising their democratic rights (Diamond, 2001:151).

Democracy does not mean and cannot mean that the people actually rule in any obvious sense of the terms people and rule. Democracy means only that the people have the opportunity of accepting or refusing the men who are to rule them (Schumpeter, 1954:284).

According to Bratton and Van de Walle (1997:235-236), it is important to acknowledge that while democracies might be classified as democratic due to the fact that elections do take place, there is no guarantee that all traditional attributes of democracy are being adhered to. There could be a lack of a number of freedoms such as poor civil liberties regimes, limited societal tolerance, corruption, crime and violence (Haynes, 2001:8).

Held (1994:53–54) contends that a democracy would be fully worth its name if citizens had the actual power to be active as citizens; that is to say, if citizens were able to enjoy a bundle of rights which allowed them to command democratic participation and to treat it as an entitlement. Such a bundle of rights should be seen as entailed by the very notion of democratic rule itself. If one chooses democracy, one must choose to operationalise a structural system of empowering rights and obligations, for such a system constitutes the interrelated space in which the principle of autonomy can be pursued and enacted.

Therefore it can be argued that citizenship in its legal status is attached to a set of rights. This is supported by Brownlie (1971:8-11) in that to be a citizen is to be the bearer of a set of fundamental rights. It can also be concluded that a state is not a state if it has no citizens. This is supported by Brubaker (1992:x) who insists that every state claims to be the state of, and for, a particular bounded citizenry, usually conceived as a nation.

An argument by Diamond and Morlino (1991:10-11), is that the model of liberal, representative democracy encapsulates the thicker understanding of the term to a large extent and consists of the following ten conditions:

- elected officials control the state and its key decisions;
- the independent judiciary and parliament constrain executive power;

- all groups that adhere to constitutional principles have the right to form a party and contest elections;
- cultural, ethnic, religious and other minority groups including historically disadvantaged majorities are free to express their interest in the political process and to speak their language and practice their culture;
- all citizens have multiple channels for expression and representation of their interests and values, including diverse, independent associations and movements, which they have freedom to form and join;
- the government is not the only source of information, as alternative sources of information exist including media, and all the citizens have access to these avenues of information;
- individuals have freedom of belief, opinion, discussion, speech, publication, assembly, religion, demonstration and petition;
- citizens are equal under the law;
- individual and group liberties are effectively protected by an independent and non-discriminatory judiciary; and
- the rule of law protects citizens from unjustified detentions, exile, terror, torture and undue interference in their personal lives.

In the above context the Constitution, (South Africa, 1996), recognises the rights and freedoms of individuals of which these rights include access to basic services. But this may be debatable given the current challenges which local governments are facing in the provision of services (Kanyane, 2014:44). As a result, poverty continues to affect communities in those local government municipalities that are unable to fulfil their mandate of service delivery, because the public service, which is political in nature, has led to infighting amongst individuals tasked with implementing service delivery programmes (Reddy, 2016:1).

There is a need for a supreme constitution to exist for these conditions to materialise. Constitutional democracy combines the features of guaranteed liberty and citizen protection with the democratic features of regular and competitive elections, universal suffrage and equality (De Mesquita *et al.*, 2005:446). Constitutional democracy combines the rule of law with the active participation of the people in politics, that is human rights

and political contestation between political parties and politicians are of equal importance (Lane & Errson, 2003:14). The similarity here with liberal democracy is that in both situations the rights of the community are to be upheld, inclusive of provision of basic services.

2.4.2 Pillars, qualities and indicators of democracy

At the World Summit in 2005, as in the Millennium Declaration in 2000, Member States of the United Nations (UN) recommitted themselves to protecting and promoting human rights, the rule of law and democracy, recognising that they are interlinked and mutually reinforcing and that they belong to the universal and indivisible core values and principles of the United Nations. This commitment was reiterated by Member States in 2007 in General Assembly Resolution A/RES/62/7 (UN, 2005:1). The United Nations lists peace and security, human rights and development as the pillars of democracy (United Nations, 2014:2).

Morlino (2011:253) further developed a framework known as the Tool for Empirical Research on Democratic Qualities Model (TODEM) for democracy, or the four core pillars divided into two categories, which are discussed below, together with their dimensions and indicators (Baker, 1999:276). Beetham *et al.* (2008:26) define the TODEM Model also as the core pillars of democracy and this is discussed below:

- **Institutional and administrative capacity**

According to Morlino (2011:216), if a democracy is to function effectively, then the institutions and the administration responsible for the production of high quality legislation and its implementation, a transparent policy-making process and presence of a professional, neutral, accountable and efficient state bureaucracy have to be in place. The dimension has the following as indicators: the efficiency of the parliamentary services, the existence of a neutral and non-partisan state bureaucracy, and the salaries, working conditions and attendance of members of parliament.

- **Representative and accountable government**

Schmitter (2004:47) defines accountability as an exchange of responsibilities and potential between rulers and citizens. According to Muthien *et al.* (2000:10),

accountability is a concept embedded in a democratic theory and is premised on the strict separation of powers of the executive, judiciary and legislature, on the election of public representatives and on prevailing systems of constitutionalism. In this case those elected are accountable to the electorate for the provision of services. In the context of this study, it is posited that those in position to deal with community issues, especially those that are fundamental to their overall wellbeing, are provided. It is assumed that those elected by the communities are more than capable in providing the needs of the electorate. However, this is dependent on whether the state is able to provide the financial and political backing in meeting the community needs. This also suggests that the state's main objectives must be in line with dealing with the needs of rural communities. The next section examines what a developmental state is, particularly in the context of South Africa, which plays a significant role in the economy and is expected to provide conducive conditions for socio-economic development, geared at poverty alleviation.

2.5 THE DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

The following section defines the developmental state, the conceptual framework of a developmental state, and the general characteristics of a developmental state. The South African experience of a developmental state will be discussed in the following chapter.

2.5.1 Theoretical and conceptual framework of a developmental state

Any discussion about the developmental state is a discussion of how the state can enhance its planning capacity, to enable it to intervene in the economy to achieve its social and economic objectives, wherein the concept of a developmental state offers a sustained critique of the contemporary capitalist economic order and explores alternatives for developing countries (Edigheji *et al.*, 2008:36). The term developmental state links economic, political and institutional structures and dimensions of development. The rise of developmental states is often seen as explaining the remarkable and rapid economic growth rates, development and performance of the east and north east Asian countries known as the 'Asian Tigers' (Kwon, 2005:478; Moon & Prasad, 1994:113; Sindzingre, 2004:39; Fritz & Menocal, 2006:44; Maserumule, 2007:19; Nzewi & Kuye, 2007:131). With regard to Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan, Fritz and Menocal (2006:45) argue that these states underwent rapid economic growth and a radical socio-economic

transformation, moving from being poor agrarian societies or city states in the 1960s to producers of high technical, high value-added goods by the 1990's (Kwon, 2005:478).

A state prioritises sustained economic development through particular patterns of industrial development, intricate relationships between public and private sectors and a complex of necessary policies. A developmental state definition seems to propose that developmentalism and the developmental state may seem to suggest that the state is the answer to issues of poverty, high unemployment and inequality, as is the case in South Africa (Subira, 2011:20). Taking its cue, but somewhat crudely caricaturing the discourse emerging in the public service and from the locus of political power and office, the proposition is that managerial effectiveness, technocratic efficiency and streamlined procedures and processes for the delivery of public goods and services alone will give concrete expression to a developmental or delivery-oriented state (Fakir, 2005:1). In conceptualising the developmental state, Fritz and Menocal (2006:2) argue that the role of the state in development has undergone several permutations over the past fifty years, and they further elaborate on the fact that state-led development is encouraged and supported world-wide.

The adoption of a developmental and/or democratic form of state has a distinctive path of evolution. Leftwich (1994:7) is of the opinion that democratic development is an evolutionary phenomenon and has an affiliation to modernity, therefore democracy becomes the result of socio-economic development. Przeworski *et al.* (2000) and Van Dijk and Croucamp (2007:666,667) explicate the fact that usually democracies transpire as a consequence of economic development and despotic regimes expire as nations turn towards economic development. In stark contrast is the customary pathway of despotism, then developmental state status and much later a democratic status.

Governments, and then by mere implication their bureaucracies, espouse a distinct character, role and competence when a state is associated with the developmental philosophy (Johnson, 1982:17; Leftwich, 2000:133; Fukuyama, 2006:27; Edigheji, 1999:7). Considering the nature of government within a developmental state against two extremities, the state either reveals itself as weak, fragile, absent, erratic or inept, or it unveils a strong state (Fukuyama, 2006:ix,x; Lim & Jang, 2006:24).

Rai and Lievesley, (1996:29) and Mann (1997:11) state that the key feature of a strong or hard state is the ability of a state to execute logistically political pronouncements across the broader spectrum of the state. According to Onis (1991:123), strong or hard states, whether democratic or authoritarian, stimulate and encourage entrenched interface and discourse between state elites and influential societal entities. According to Rai and Lievesley (1996:30), it is not only the volume of the bureaucracy that is of importance, but that the institutionalising of effective controls by political executives and the state's engagement in the collective public are significant institutional factors that support a strong state towards rapid economic growth, and government guided by the rule of law enables a perpetual political, social and economic environment (Fukuyama, 2006:25-26).

Castells (1992:55) defines the developmental state by including the Theory of Authenticity as maintained, stable, elevated quotients of economic expansion. He furthermore includes organisational transformation in the state's industrious structures as having an effect on both the national and international economy. In addition to Castells' (1992:55) description of the developmental state, Mkandawire (2001:290) adds the presence of a developmental philosophy. Successful developmental states display characteristics of both economic achievements and a strong state structure, that are able to formulate and implement policies (Mkandawire, 1988:290). According to Edigheji (2009:88), the first perspective is an exertion of the developmental state that depicts a perception where political elites hold superiority over the philosophy of development. The second perspective, as outlined by Edigheji (2009:89), underscores organisational constitution, and the third perspective outlines political organisations that facilitate the inclusion of citizens to agree on the developmental agenda (Abdullah, 2008:2).

Contrary to popular belief, developmental states emerge when the leadership of that state is threatened by abnormally restrained socio-economic and socio-political circumstances (Barbara, 2008:311; Leftwich, 2007:69). Hjort (2008:42) identifies international influences such as:

- Globalisation defined as that the condition of globalisation is considered to imply that nations are integrated (in terms of production and consumption) into networks (markets) that transcend the regional classifications (Barbara, 2008:313).

- ICT defined as a broad-based technology that supports the creation, storage, manipulation and communication of information.
- Knowledge-based new economy defined economic growth that is based on the creation, distribution and use of technology that represents physical and human capital (Feldman, 2001:878).
- Deregulation in the global economy; deregulation defined as the elimination of government power in a particular industry, usually enacted to create more competition within the industry (Leftwich, 2007:69).
- Global recession defined in the International Monetary Fund Bulletin as a contraction in world real per capita gross domestic product (GDP) accompanied by a broad decline in various measures of global economic activity (Hjort, 2008:42)).

From the above the study can deduce that a developmental state plays key roles in the creation of political systems that are designed to govern but also ensure that people's rights are upheld or protected. In this context, political systems in place must ensure that key basic services are provided which is a key basic right to the community. Various other organs such as the media and civil society play a key role in highlighting socio-economic conditions of the electorate which need to be addressed.

2.5.2 Dimensions of a developmental state

This section looks at the key dimensions of a developmental state which include political, economic and social dimensions. Several countries have emerged from being called developmental states after the post war and depression eras (Johnson, 1982:68). Fukuyama (2006:25) and Leftwich (2007:63) define three specific dimensions of development, of which the first dimension is economic development. The objective or intent linked to economic development is simply a sustained proliferation of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita. Natrass and Seekings (2002:215) add the facilitation of re-distribution as another intent, which shapes the economic dimension. Fukuyama (2008:25) describes the second dimension as political development and classifies it as a more complex dimension with three objectives or intents linked to it. These objectives are as follows: State building forms a part of political development as intent, which comprises a lawful domination of forceful authority, determining the state's protective and crafting an administrative aptitude that can effectively perform managerial duties of public

bureaucracies such as service delivery to the citizens of the state. The rule of law as political development intent provides a lucid, prescribed set of laws within which the state should execute its tasks. Another significant intent of political development is democracy. Democracy shapes the implementation of common autonomy through combined and cooperative voting. Democracy is simultaneously an effective tool through which monitoring and evaluation of government's programmes can take place. The third dimension is the social dimension. Fukuyama (2008:26) describes the social dimension as a crucial, unpredictable dimension between the economic and political dimensions. Examples of the intentions listed against the social dimension are nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital (Fukuyama, 2008:26).

Based on the general consensus that a developmental state is central to the economic growth of any country, Bagchi (2000:398) defines the developmental state as a state that has prioritised economic development in its policies, designing policies that effectively enable the promotion of such a goal. According to Hjort (2008:42), the economic, social and political dimensions of a developmental state are simultaneously contending and collaborating, while Leftwich (2000:58) creates an awareness of the fluctuating combination of internal and external forces that have a direct impact on the development route a state may wish to follow to become a democratic developmental state (Chalker, 1994:87; Holmquist & Ford, 1994:116; Wiseman, 1997:94). The political, economic and social dimensions will now be described in more detail.

2.5.2.1 Political dimension

The essential, prevailing, capricious element, regulating the formation and character of developmental accomplishments in human societies, is undeniably its political dimension (Leftwich, 2007:4). According to Leftwich (2007:191), politics influences states and states affect development and therefore development eventually becomes political. Considering the political dimension within the landscape of a state, it is almost obvious that it is here where the political affairs of a state are based, as it is influenced by national and international political, economic and social influences. Fukuyama (2008:25) delineates state building, the rule of law and democracy as typical elements belonging to the political dimension of a state. State building comprises determining the state's protective area and crafting an administrative ability that can effectively perform the managerial duties of a public service for service delivery to the citizens of that state within a system of public

administration. The political dimensions taken by some of the developmental states are state building, democracy and rule of law.

2.5.2.2 Economic dimension

Development is about economic, material progress, nothing else (Van Arkadie, 1995:109). The economic dimension within a state is that part of the state that is concerned with the economic welfare of a state and its citizens. Within a developmental state, an economic dimension is recognised, particularly that there would be a collection of policies that would accentuate national control of the economy, labour and capital formation. Such a collection of economic policies is described as economic nationalism. The economic dimension in a developmental state would furthermore promote a sustained, rapid economic growth and enable facilitation of redistribution (Natrass & Seekings, 2002:215).

Japan's developmental phenomenon is described as a post war economic renaissance (Beeson, 1987:109). Lopez and Valdez (2000:202) postulates that considering the devastation caused by World War II to many countries on the globe, Japan, as one of these countries, transformed itself from an economy and infrastructure that was obliterated and a country that was encumbered with war debt, to the third strongest global economy as it followed the United States and the Peoples Republic of China. Vestal (1993:187) explains that Japan's economic dimension is typified by four divergent phases during sustained recovery, an era when it sharpened its economic resurgence through policy instruments to encourage the rationalisation and modernisation of select industries with economic independence as intent, followed by a differentiated period of industry, commerce and capital liberalisation. The purpose of policy during this period was to exactly fortify the Japanese economy with the intent to achieve developmental goals and to concretise sustained economic progression (Vestal, 1993:189). The economic dimension remained a high priority during the 1970s, but Japan began to include an intent that speaks about a better life for its citizens.

South Korea adopted one of the models of Japan into its developmental trajectory, namely industrial and financial conglomerates that promoted credit-based industrial financing (Woo-Cumings, 1999:191). Kim (1997:2) reveals the details of a South Korean impoverished agricultural lower class that struggled financially, and an elite upper class

that had no interest to change the living conditions of the poor, until General Park Chung Hee led a military coup on May 16, 1961. The rationale behind this action was twofold: it had to bring an end to a government that was unskilled and immoral; and it had to ignite economic development (Kim, 1997:2). South Korea's developmental status was formalised by sequential alterations to the way in which the public and private sectors conducted their business and interacted with each other (Kim, 1997:2). According to Woo-Cummings (1999:93), South Korea distinguished itself as an exceptional and model developmental state by providing the evidence of a consistent, rapidly growing economy, measured over a period of over thirty years, while South Korea's economic success revolved around the market and state (Woo-Cummings, 1999:94). In this regard, the state acted as a catalyst for socio-economic growth, especially in areas where communities required support in the form of community projects and industrialisation that boosted their socio-economic standing.

2.5.2.3 Social dimension

According to Woolcock (2009:82), getting the social relations right is a crucial component of both the means and ends of development. The passages that follow highlight Japan and South Korea's social dimensions respectively, with an accent on nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital as intents. Fukuyama (2008:26) describes the social dimension as a critical, unpredictable dimension in a state. The social dimension within a state can be explained as including elements such as nation building, national identity, social equality and social capital. Nation building refers to the activities initiated by the government of a state to institute a sustained national identity amongst its citizens. Such initiatives would for example include citizen values and behaviour, the protection of different languages spoken by citizens, as well as the history and diverse cultures within a state. It can therefore be said that the primary objective of the act of nation building is to unite the citizens within a state that would result in political stability, as well as the sustained prosperity and independence of such a state. Woolcock (2009:82)) highlights the following elements as inseparable from the concept of national identity as follows: citizens within a state have common values, a mass culture, a public belief system, traditions and legal equality within a communal area that is directed by a government and a collection of laws. Some other key social dimensions are briefly examined below:

- **Social equality**

Egalitarianism, which is a context that enables relative measurement to ascertain individual benefit, compared to others, is unreservedly related to the social equality context (Jensen, 2003:589). Arguably, Wylde (2012:156) states that social equality has achieved the same accolades in Japan and South Korea as their economic prosperity, but with a difference. Even though the state is pivotal to economic and social success, it is merely one of the role players together with society and the private sector (Wylde, 2012:158).

- **Social capital**

Social capital is central to operational performance in contemporary economies and is the essential pre-requisite for even, free-thinking egalitarianism, and also the collaboration between two or more individuals at the one end of the scale and multi-faceted intricately pronounced doctrines at the other end (Fukuyama, 1999:3). Putman (1995:668) links social capital with traditional virtues such as trust. High trust societies are interlaced with voluntary organisations and have social capital, which makes for the growth of large corporations in highly technical fields, while low trust societies tend towards small family-owned businesses trading in basic goods (Fukuyama, 1995:1). According to Ishida (1993:67), Japan is an educational credential society which translates as the reliance on educational achievements, measured amongst the more sophisticated echelons of society on the complete quantity of domestic affluence and possessions. Putnam (1995:669) concurs by summarising the essence of social capital by terming it “relationships matter”. South Korea identifies social and economic capital as interconnected intents that will result from globalisation. In this case, social networks and group membership are viewed as the basis to capital access. The above dimensions highlight how previous developmental states were able to put in place mechanisms to overcome challenges brought about by war and economic depressions. As a result, strong decision-making together with encouraged unity amongst the people are important in overcoming socio-economic challenges. However, various factors may have to be taken into consideration in the current scenario for developmental states like South Africa, where alignment and coordination of rural development programmes, amongst others, is a challenge (Olivier *et al.*, 2010:102).

In light of the above, a developmental state is able to mobilise its resources to foster economic growth which are in line with its social and economic objectives, objectives that may influence the level of community development. However, depending on the policies adopted by the state can have an impact on the communities. The next section looks at various policies in the context of poverty eradication in a developmental state.

2.6 DEVELOPMENTAL POLICY FOR POVERTY ERADICATION IN A DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals Report of 2018 shows that many countries in recent years remain stunted, having regressed in terms of development and its tangible indicators such as life expectancy, poverty and hunger (United Nations, 2018:4-5). While natural factors such as drought or famine and diseases like HIV/AIDS may have played a role, issues such as governance and leadership should also be factored into the equation.

According to Maserumule (2007:212), “the idea of planning for development can be linked to a developmental state, because the developmental state is that type of state radically planned in a manner that makes it possible and necessary for government to influence the duration and pace of economic and social development, rather than leaving it to the dictates of the markets.” Planning is a critical tool for effecting development, with some authors pointing to its great value when applied in consultation with the members of communities for whom such development is intended.

According to the United Nations (2009:1), there have been various errors relating to developmental theory. Such errors include the following: that ‘socialism’ in poor countries can be built without industrialisation; that ‘capitalist’ development will reduce poverty when markets are given their freedom; that industrialisation is possible without an effective and involved state; that building such a state is largely a top-down and technical process of institution building; that developmental states and state-led development is possible in all contemporary states; and that the reduction of poverty is a matter of steering enough of the right resources to the right places and the right people.

Poverty reduction and general improvement in welfare, in short, is not simply a matter of enhancing aid flows, designing appropriate policy regimes and supporting institutional development. Examples can be drawn from various cases highlighting different policy regimes, and institutional set-ups in diverse socio-economic contexts can promote poverty reduction, as seen in countries such as Uganda, Vietnam, Mauritius, the Republic of Korea and Cuba (World Bank, 2004:112; United Nations, 2006:43). Poverty reduction is a matter of politics. But where the politics are not equal to the task it is, first and foremost, a matter for donors to identify, nurture, encourage and support those social and political forces which are necessary for forming the kinds of growth coalition which will demand, design and implement the institutional arrangements which will deliver pro-poor growth and social provision (World Bank, 2004:113).

Reduction of poverty in recent and contemporary history has generally been attributable to two processes: economic growth, which creates opportunities and jobs, and political processes which develop and sustain institutional arrangements that provide both safety nets and redistributive provision in welfare regimes. Neither has been possible without direct intervention and action by effective states, and both have only occurred quickly where such states have not only been effective but developmental. The work done by the UNDP International Poverty Centre in Brazil provides ample evidence of this, where the government has played a leading role by assisting vulnerable families in rural areas to access the formal job market as well as support family farming initiatives. Further assistance in the form of technical support to improve agricultural production is done by the state (United Nations, 2015:1). This example highlights the various approaches in dealing with poverty reduction which South Africa can adopt in its efforts.

In the case of Botswana, with the narrow sectoral growth, rural development is however significant in terms of its contribution to national income and may contribute very little to poverty reduction if its contribution to job creation is limited (Selolwane, 2007:57). Equally, dedicated redistributive practices through the tax system can reduce poverty, but can also suffocate growth and compromise capital accumulation, as can a redistributive system of pervasive patronage through neo-patrimonial politics (Callaghy, 1988:73; Hyden, 2006:44; Bratton & Van de Walle, 1997:79).

Basically there are two conceptualisations in literature of development as is manifested through the development agencies and development planning or policies. The first one,

according to Ferguson (1990:9-10), views the development machinery as an implement accessible to a planner, but needing good advice on how to utilise it. Within this arrangement, the locale of policy analysis is vital. This view of development planning and development agencies construes the development system as a collective effort to fight poverty, improve livelihoods and other forms of progress (Kuye, 2011:171).

The second conceptualisation is by the neo-Marxists who see development planning and the agencies themselves as a contradiction of development. This neo-Marxist ideology is based on the theory that capitalism is a reactionary force and thus an obstacle to development and also a cause of poverty (Ferguson, 1990:10).

Ferguson (1990:11) argues along the same neo-Marxist lines, constructing conjectures that define poverty is a symptom of powerlessness. In addition, international aid projects are by nature weak in terms of making the radical changes in political and economic structures that could alone empower the poor. As such, aid projects cannot be expected to help eradicate poverty as they only perpetuate the system which in the first place causes poverty.

Hyden (2006:44) indicates that there is little empirical evidence to support assumptions that the activities of rural development programmes lead to the improvement of the lives of the rural poor. To begin with, development is inescapably political (Leftwich, 1994:365). This insinuates that the aim of policy will be to ensure that scarce resources are effectively distributed across a wide spectrum of needs. In theory, decisions on the allocation of resources efficiently and economically imply that often programmes have to be aligned to the needs of the poor. Even so, this is hardly the case in practice, as lack of consultation with the poor, poor advocacy and conflict of political and economic interests prevail. This show-ground of conflicting political and economic interests against those of the rural and urban poor is captured in Hyden's (2006:45) definition of rural development as a complex set of institutions and initiatives encompassing multiple and often contradictory interests. In light of the above, government's participation in addressing poverty is important, since it is able to mobilise available resources in trying to address rural community issues. This implies that any strategies designed to address poverty must have the state's blueprint. It is hoped that with the state's involvement rural development of communities can be sustainable.

2.7 DEVELOPMENTAL PUBLIC SERVICE

A developmental public service and administration may be defined as a politico-administrative structure with the capacity to deliver services to the public in a manner that goes beyond the Weberian criteria of a trained and professional bureaucracy that merely interprets legislation and policies and follows orders to the letter. Such a public service must be able to go beyond the call of duty and be selfless in rendering services to the public; it must be highly skilled, professional, experienced, and have highly motivated, goal-directed personnel with the capacity not only to fulfil the mandate of the government of the day, but also to sacrifice and contribute to the development of a strategic vision for transforming society (United Nations, 2005:12). Such a public service would be geared towards the efficient and effective implementation of progressive policies aimed at eradicating poverty and promoting a democratic, egalitarian governance system through, amongst other processes, effective monitoring and evaluation, strategic contribution to the organisation's overall mandate and systematic implementation (Adei, 2008:15). A wider definition of the term might include the need for high ethical standards amongst public servants and the political office-bearers, under whom they work, as well as a public and private sector environment that is not conducive to maladministration and corruption.

The delivery of public services poses a continual challenge that can negatively affect the well-being of communities and the achievement of a developmental state once the full extent of the dynamics becomes apparent. Also of significance to the delivery of public services is the interplay between powerful role players such as politicians, development advisers and technical experts, civil society organisations and other stakeholders (Maphunye, 2009:42).

Lane (1993:2-3) suggests that a developmental public service and administration might straddle the divide between Weber's 'ideal type' bureaucracy and the NPM, which introduces private sector practices into public institutions. Weber's ideal type bureaucracy falls short of creating a structure capable of supporting the ideal public service, as it emphasises administration based on written documents, formal training for officials, hierarchically organised tasks, and a career bureaucracy. While these qualities may be acceptable as some of the requirements that would help develop a professional civil/public service in Africa, the ideal of a developmental state requires much more from state

functionaries including public officials who understand, but seek to change, the objective conditions under which the citizens live. The relationship between the type of public administration and the ideal developmental state is that such an administration is fundamental, as it is capable of defining the character of the state itself. In many cases, a combination of skill and technical knowhow might prove to be a challenge, owing to the 'brain drain' phenomenon, but few can dispute the fact that a well-oiled public administration machine will be an indispensable cog in the wheel of the developmental state (Leftwich, 1995:405-420).

Public administration is tasked with the job of elaborating on and detailing of broad policy frameworks as put forward by political office bearers. This entails the entire policy process, from formulation of policies, to the implementation where these detailed policies have been adopted by political office bearers and the review of policies (Kuye, 2011:171). In the context of the above, a developmental public service suggests the need for the political will to ensure that the affected communities' needs are addressed urgently. It requires the utmost dedication on the part of those entrusted to implement policies that would address poverty. It is posited that any framework designed for poverty alleviation must amongst others include a public service that is not just qualified, but is willing to ensure that all the strategies are implemented in mitigating poverty in the targeted communities.

2.9 CONCLUSION

Conscious and consistent governmental policies ensure changes that affect the economic, social and political dimensions. The failure of the Neo-liberal Development Model led to a renewed interest amongst development scholars and policy-makers in assessing the developmental state framework as a viable alternative to neo-liberalism.

The usefulness of understanding a developmental state is that it enables researchers, policy-makers and planners, development experts, think-tanks and other role players to draw on relevant information when choices have to be made on developmental issues. Increasingly, development advisors, governments and organs of civil society in a state view the developmental state as the best means for states to resolve their developmental challenges.

From the discussions above, it can be argued that the democratic developmental state is seen as a way of building capacity of the state to provide basic goods to citizens, putting an end to poverty, rural development that improves the livelihoods of citizens and policy that is influenced through public participation. The importance of a democratic developmental state in addressing economic, social and institutional challenges should be backed up by the desire and ability on the part of the state to create leadership competencies administratively and politically, to ensure effectiveness in policy and programme implementation and resource deployment.

In addition, it can be argued that politics and policy which are targeted at poverty eradication, democracy and delivery, transition and transformation, are essentially complementary rather than conflictual. Casting them on conflictual and mutually exclusive grounds serves only to stultify debate, at best, and hold the roll out of public goods and services, which includes services and programmes aimed at poverty eradication, to ransom. The need for a developmental state that emphasises performance, managerialism, technical and bureaucratic efficiency and effectiveness, and institutional rationalisation and transformation, must co-exist with the idea of a democratic state that creates a voice for the poor and marginalised, that promotes, enhances and protects the rights that accrue, but pursues the obligations owed to it by citizens, and which inculcates diversity, responsiveness, representation and representatively, the institutional separation of powers and functions, transparent decision-making, accountability and effective oversight. In this regard, any institutional framework geared at addressing poverty should take cognisance of the fact that politics together with policy may influence any attempts to deal with poverty.

The next chapter discusses the theoretical, statutory and regulatory frameworks for sustainable rural development, poverty and poverty eradication.

CHAPTER THREE

THE STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORKS: SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT, POVERTY AND POVERTY ERADICATION

“The primary purpose of the development text (like most others) is to convince, to persuade, that this (and not that) is the way the world actually is and ought to be amended. But ideas about development do not arise in an institutional or literary vacuum. They are rather assembled within a vast hierarchical apparatus of knowledge production and consumption sometimes known as...the ‘development industry’. This industry is itself implicated in the operation of networks and of power and domination that in the Twentieth Century have come to encompass the entire globe” (Crush, 1995:5).

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is based on the review of the statutory and regulatory frameworks informing rural development for poverty eradication both globally and locally. The chapter further elucidates the constitutional and other legal requirements with regard to poverty eradication, as well as the current poverty eradication strategies. Emphasis is placed on rural development, poverty and poverty eradication. The chapter also focusses on the various types of poverty, its policy implications, the measurement of poverty, and historical approaches to poverty. Various concepts closely related to poverty, such as inequality, vulnerability, social exclusion and under-development are all analysed with an emphasis on poverty eradication strategies linked with sustainable rural development in a democratic developmental state.

Hall *et al.*, (2006:168) argue that the policies, programmes and legal frameworks of governments relating to development in rural areas of almost all governments can be divided into those that concentrate on providing support for and stimulating agricultural development, and those that contend with comprehensive rural development. With respect to agricultural development, all nations consider farming as an essential industry. Policy and legal interventions in this regard range from support and extension policies to

structural reform in agriculture. With respect to comprehensive rural development, there are three main categories: those that are included with policies for depressed, marginal and remote areas, those aimed at the development of the rural sector *per se*, and those that are based upon the radical reform of rural society.

The policy and legal framework for rural development in South Africa includes almost all the intervention categories listed by Bunce (1982:190-201). The precedence that government gives to sustainable rural development is reflected in the plethora of parliamentary legislation and policies from the post-1994 ANC government (and some still in force from before 1994). For the purposes of this thesis, only some pertinent Acts and guiding policies are highlighted. It is therefore by no means an exhaustive framework, but it does provide a broad perspective on the legislative and policy environment within which planning for a sustainable livelihood takes place. The purpose of this framework is to establish the enabling environment that has been created to support sustainable rural livelihood development. Firstly, the chapter conceptualises rural development and discusses theories related to rural development.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISING RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The shift in rural development priorities has directed the methodologies and concepts of rural development from the technological, managerial and centralised approaches, to more constructionist, participatory and decentralised perspectives of rural change (Akram-Lodhi *et al.*, 2007:10). The concept of rural development is meant to bring about a positive change in the lives of people (Kay, 2009:131). This change could be in various forms or types which are ultimately designed to improve the wellbeing of the people. However, until recently the term rural development has been looked at from an economic standpoint, but has now been extended to also include political as well as socio-technological aspects of society (Pachon *et al.*, 2016:271). In its current sense development may be used to unearth the potential of the society. In real terms it could also suggest a policy and its programmes created to bring about the required change in social, economic, political or technological spheres of life. In its real sense it is argued that development is concerned with raising the human profile in all aspects to attain both personal and community goals. It must be noted that development is potential related and can be reached in the same level as existing development potential of the area which can be measured in relation to

existing unexploited resources, human potential, margin of sophistication and the “political will” to implement development policies (South Africa, 2011).

The term rural development is of great interest and is generally a recognised term in both the developed and the developing world (Kay, 2009:131). However, the challenge is coming up with a universal definition that speaks to the term rural development. As a result it has been used under several narratives such as community development, integrated rural development and even green revolution. The current ones include sustainable agriculture and new doubly green revolution (Maxwell *et al.*, 2001:2). Despite this, the main drive of rural development is improving the quality of life of people living in the rural areas (Teilmann, 2012:22). Others such as Singh *et al.*, (2009:148) define rural development as a comprehensive and multi-dimensional concept which includes the growth of spatial planning, agriculture and its related activities, infrastructure, community services and facilities. According to Singh *et al.*, (2009:93), rural development means an overall development of the rural areas to improve the lives of those in the rural areas. Guinjoan *et al.* (2015:499) define rural development as the overall socio-economic improvement of the rural areas, taking cognisance of the environment with the sole aim of improving the quality of life of the resident population. The definitions provided above include the goal of rural development as signifying the upliftment of the general standards of living of the rural inhabitants.

Halfacree (1995:23) indicates that defining rural development is to be looked at in the context of how people living in the rural areas perceived as rural and where common perceptions are found, could be used as definition for rural. He further indicates that the definition of the term rural can be approached on the basis of Social Representation Theory, which originates from social psychology. This theory attempts to highlight community understanding of the complex environment in which they find themselves (Halfacree, 1995:29). This approach therefore indicates that the use of numbers which are used in various socio-cultural indicators are not used to define the term rural, but rather what people perceive as rural based on the predominant level of economic activity, particularly agriculture, which equates to their own current living conditions (Olivier *et al.*, 2010:228).

The above approach clearly identifies “the rural people” and relates to common terms used and understood by the people in everyday conversations (Halfacree, 1993:29). The Social Representation Approach was applied to define rural through interviews with the local people in the rural areas of the United Kingdom. This approach led to the identification of dimensions that are commonly found to describe ‘the rural’ and can, hence, be applied as a designation of rural. It can be argued that this approach creates a dynamic definition that changes with time, as new perceptions of what is considered rural emerge. In addition, the definition is not spatially anchored and Halfacree (1993:33) argues that space is a social product and, hence, produced by the inhabitants of the local area and not by any demarcated lines on a map. This means that identifying a common definition is not possible, since rurality is differently perceived amongst different rural inhabitants.

However, this approach by Halfacree (1993:33) may not be useful in the context of its application by policy-makers and other non-governmental agencies in areas that are lagging behind in development, which is why more concrete definitions of rural areas are required, so that better applications are found to cater for such areas. It is plausible that these other definitions are descriptive and, hence, take as their point of departure what is already regarded as rural and is often supported with statistics (Halfacree, 1993:33). One of the first comprehensive attempts to define the rural on the basis of a set of statistical data was the Index of Rurality (Clope, 1977:36) that categorised England and Wales into four categories: extreme rural, intermediate rural, intermediate non-rural and extreme non-rural, together with urban areas. The index was calculated on 16 variables reflecting socio-economic characteristics. The Rurality Index (Clope, 1977:38) relied on 1971 census data and was reproduced using 1981 (Clope & Edwards, 1987:39) and 1991 data (Harrington & O'Donoghue, 1998:180), and in both instances the index was found applicable. In addition, the index has been applied to examining land use change and to illustrate differences amongst various health problems between rural and urban areas (Yong & Yanhua, 2016:58). The Index of Rurality is therefore a step towards the development of an operational definition for policy-makers and development agencies, because the index provides a means of separating areas on the basis of statistics.

There have been several attempts by international organisations such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and well as the European Union to

define what rural is by creating operational units. The OECD uses the population density at municipal level and the existence of urban areas within the municipality's borders as its point of departure (Gallardo-Cobos, 2010:44). This definition however does not take into consideration the national and local differences within member countries. In contrast, the European Union has left the definition of rural areas to its member countries, while providing continued support for rural development through the rural development programmes (Gallardo-Cobos, 2010:48).

In the context of South Africa, rural areas are defined as sparsely populated areas in which subsistence agriculture is the mainstay of the local people, and they are dependent on natural resources, inclusive of villages and small towns, that are spread out over these areas (as conceptualised in Chapter 1). These include large settlements of the former homelands that were created during the apartheid era, that are dependent on amongst others migratory labour and remittances (South Africa, 1997:4). Hart *et al.* (2005:1151) have a similar definition in which rural is termed as areas that are sporadically populated and people are dependent on agriculture or natural resources. These areas are inclusive of villages and small towns that serve the rural areas. Rural areas are often characterised by small populations, greater out-migration than in-migration, low incomes, dependency on agriculture and have a traditional lifestyle (Phillips & McLeroy, 2004:1661).

Statistics South Africa defines rural as farms and traditional areas characterised by low population densities, low levels of economic activity and low levels of infrastructure (StatsSA, 2010:113). The similarity of the above definitions of rural is that these areas are characterised by farming and a lack of infrastructure needed to improve people's livelihoods. Rural development is termed as a multi-faceted approach, aimed at improving rural lives by provision of services and infrastructure which lead to increased opportunities for income generation. It is also characterised by increased political involvement of the local people who are more represented in the political spheres (Meissner, 2015:102). Other attempts have also been made to define rural development. Chambers (1983:147) defines rural development as a strategy used to enable a specific group of people, poor rural women and men, to gain for themselves and their children more of what they want and need. It involves helping the poorest amongst those that seek livelihood in the rural areas to demand and control more of the benefits of development.

Rural development is a major priority for the South African government in addressing the discrepancies of the apartheid system (Moselane, 2015:20; Gwanya, 2010:16). However, it is imperative that local communities are part and parcel of any initiatives to develop their areas. This is why development programmes must be born out of community involvement in highlighting their needs, so much so that development programmes address these needs (Moselane, 2015:21).

Existing legislation in the context of South Africa ensures that community participation is done so that communities are included in the development of their areas. Several legislative frameworks support public participation in development in South Africa. For instance, Chapter 7 of the Constitution, 1996, stipulates that communities are encouraged to get involved in local government matters (South Africa, 1996); while the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act, 16 of 2013 indicates that any amendments to policies, land use schemes and procedures for development purposes must be done in a transparent process through public participation, so that all concerned individuals make contributions on issues that directly affect them. The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998 also indicates that all municipalities are required to create systems that heighten community participation in local government. These acts therefore suggest that any development plans must be done in consultation with the local communities; hence there must be adequate and effective participation of the local residents at ward level (Mogaladi, 2007:14). The current challenge here is that these acts have not translated into sustainable livelihoods for the rural communities. A plausible reason for this is the lack of long term commitment on the part of the authorities to ensure that communities take full responsibility for any development projects which at the same time must improve their living standards (Ramaphakela, 2015:68). Several theories and models of rural development have over time been created and applied to improve community livelihoods. These are examined in the next section.

3.3 THEORIES AND MODELS OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

The previous section looked at how rural development has been conceptualised over time, and how this has impacted the way rural development is viewed. In light of this, various rural development models are examined below, from the initial to the current models that are being applied presently.

3.3.1 Classic Economics Theory

This theory first emanated in the late 18th Century in Europe on the eve of the Industrial Revolution. These economists were led by Malthus, Ricardo and Smith. To them progress was perceived from an individual level, where privately owned wealth was encouraged under certain conditions that favoured wealth accumulation through investment (Harris, 2007:3). According to these economists, free trade, private property and competition were seen as the foundations that would spur economic development, reduce poverty and bring on social and moral improvements of humankind. However, freewheeling capitalism is often criticised for bringing wealth only to the rich, whereas the poor get poorer (Dang & Sui Pheng, 2015:144). Early theorists such as Rostow (1960:183) viewed rural development happening through various historical stages which are briefly outlined below:

- The traditional society where subsistence agriculture is the mainstay of the economy.
- The pre-condition for take-off where there is a change in community attitudes, increased expectations, structures and value systems. At this stage there is a rise in the level of investments which out-grows population growth.
- The take off stage where there is growth in per capita output resulting from exploration of mineral wealth, which also triggers further growth in secondary interdependent sectors such as transport.
- The drive to maturity where the society uses modern technologies that foster higher investments. This leads to growth of the national income.
- The age of high mass consumption where there is high consumption of durable goods, and increased rural to urban migration, resulting from economic opportunities at the destination area, as well as greater use of automobiles.

Karl Marx (1862) suggested that workers' hard earned work was being exploited by capitalists and that the free market system encouraged by the likes of Rostow and Smith created poverty for many workers. Private ownership should be abolished and the economy should be planned and managed by the state, which had the interests of all the citizens at heart. However, the socialist form of governance would not work, as historical experience of socialist economies showed little or no improvement as evidenced by the collapse of the former Soviet Union (Dang & Sui Pheng, 2015:5). The Karl Max Socialist Theory highlighted the various perspectives of how development can or may take place

under certain conditions. However, there are weaknesses to this theory as a result of assumptions that are not realistic. Despite this, rural development can take place in the context of certain conditions that must be applicable and lead to the desired objective (Gwanya, 2010:18).

3.3.2 New Growth Theory

This Theory originated as a result of the failure of the Neo-classical Approach which emphasised international dependence (Dang & Sui Pheng, 2015). Under this Theory, more emphasis was placed on the development of human knowledge, which means increased investments in human capital. It posited that knowledge of the individual can be re-used at no cost at all. Investments in human capital can lead to sustained growth. Furthermore, with this knowledge other sectors can benefit from it. However this form of investment must be sustained to enable continued growth. This Theory suggested the need for government and public policies to support further investments in human capital, as well as to encourage private investments in knowledge-intensive industries such as computer software and telecommunications (Meier & Stiglitz, 2000:343). This Theory underpinned the importance of equipping communities with knowledge, as well as the tools required to acquire information such as boosting telecommunications. Human capital development in the form of upskilling of rural communities is a key priority in South Africa, particularly in the area of agriculture (Gwanya, 2010:18), and must form part of any strategy created in alleviating poverty.

3.3.3 Gandhian Model of Rural Development

This Model was developed for rural India and was found to be all-inclusive and people-centred (Simon, 2015:2). This Model attached supreme importance to moral values and gave preference to moral values over material conditions (Simon, 2015:2). Unlike other models that encourage industrialisation, this Model suggested that it would only help a few and lead to the concentration of power in a few hands. It contributed to passive or active exploitation of villages and also replaced manpower which ultimately led to unemployment. The Model further indicated that industrialisation would encourage rural to urban migration and to avoid this there was a need to revive the villages where most communities lived (Namita, 2014:133; Simon, 2015:3;). In the context of this study the above Model did emphasise the need for development to be people centred, as they are

the beneficiaries of any level of economic development that is ultimately geared at improving their living conditions. At the heart of this Model is that the morale aspect of development from a religious point of view may not be realistic, however it may suggest the need for good governance and accountability amongst officials responsible for implementing development strategies (Sayeed, 2016:44). The above Model derided industrialisation based on the fact that industrialisation encouraged individual material gain at the expense of human dignity, particularly the spiritual aspect of human existence (Joseph, 2012:33). Those that support this model point to the fact that natural resources continue to be depleted at an alarming rate at the expense of industrialisation. Yet current benefits of industrialisation have also benefited the rural communities through employment opportunities, as well as other related developments in the form of infrastructure (Pandey *et al.*, 2013:95). The New Growth Theory highlights the need for human capital development, which is relevant in the current South African context. Many of the rural communities amongst others require related skills to manage programmes which they must take over and manage in the long term. In addition to boosting agriculture, there is also a need to introduce other related technologies such as ICTs, which are important in improving communication, access to markets and relevant information. As a result of its attributes, the New Growth Theory is relevant to this study, as it encourages people development through skills development with the hope that projects initiated will continue to run and benefit the communities through income generation. This theory highlights the fact that any strategy created must incorporate the need for skills development, as well as initial local and central government interventions to start programmes. The next section examines rural development in South Africa in the context of current theories and how government has been able to deal with poverty.

3.4 NEW AGENDA FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

A process to change the development approach to rural areas began in 2005 with the National Land Summit which affirmed several issues that government and other stakeholders had begun to flag as areas that needed a rethink by both policy-makers and implementers of land and agrarian reform. Prior to the Land Summit, a ten-year review (in 2005) of land and agrarian reform implementation highlighted a number of gaps in the policy and legislative framework (Gwanya, 2010:10).

The 2007 ANC (ruling party) National Policy Conference identified rural development, land reform and agrarian change as critical pillars of South Africa's programme of economic transformation (Gwanya, 2010:10). The Policy Conference further acknowledged that programmes of rural development, land reform and agrarian change must be integrated into a clear strategy that seeks to empower the poor, particularly those who already derive all or part of their livelihood from the exploitation of productive land (Gwanya, 2010:10).

Rural development was then included as one of the priorities in the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) i.e. the key output of a broader planning framework that enhanced strategic medium term prioritisation and ensured that the policy decisions taken by Cabinet informed planning exercises throughout government. It set out the way in which government translated its mandate into priorities, and set out a mix of programmes that would be deployed to achieve its objectives for the electoral mandate period (South Africa, 2009:28).

The overall priority was to develop and implement a comprehensive strategy of rural development that was aimed at improving the quality of life of rural households, enhancing food security through a broader base of agricultural production, and exploiting the economic potential that each region enjoyed. This strategy would include, amongst others, the aggressive implementation of land reform policies and stimulation of agricultural production with a view to contributing to food security. This included focussing on institutional support that created economies of scale and facilitated access to business services and markets (Gwanya, 2010:11).

Nonetheless, government has not achieved its aim of transforming apartheid geography. The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) was conceived as a strategic priority within the government's current Medium-Term Strategic Framework. It seeks to address poverty and food insecurity through maximising the use and management of natural resources. It also seeks to rectify past injustices and improve the standard of living and welfare through rights-based interventions that address skewed patterns of distribution and ownership of wealth and assets. The primary objective is to "facilitate integrated development and social cohesion through participatory approaches in partnership within all sectors of society" (South Africa, 2012:46).

The ultimate vision of creating vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities will be achieved through a three-pronged strategy based on a coordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; rural development infrastructure, and an improved land reform programme (Adanacioglu & Olgun, 2011:3390). Agrarian transformation means the “rapid and fundamental change in the relations (systems and patterns of ownership and control) of land, livestock, cropping and community” (Kepe & Hall, 2016:9). It also focusses on, but is not limited to, the establishment of rural business initiatives, agro-industries, co-operatives, cultural initiatives and vibrant local markets in rural settings, and the empowerment of rural people and communities, especially women and the youth (Fährmann & Grajewski, 2013:561). Land reform is a national priority and is further entrenched in Section 25 (4) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

A three-pronged land reform programme aiming at tenure reform, restitution and land redistribution was launched in 1994. Approximately 7 million hectares of the required 24 million hectares of agricultural land have been redistributed through these programmes (South Africa, 2012:63). The programme recognised value of land as a catalyst for poverty alleviation, job creation, food security and entrepreneurship. The revised land reform strategy was to include mechanisms for the effective development and beneficiation of land reform beneficiaries and the categorisation of beneficiaries through targeted allocation; facilitating secure access to land; protecting the land rights of farm workers and addressing basic needs for farm dwellers, including water, sanitation, electricity, housing, creating decent jobs on farms and establishing agri-villages for local economic development (South Africa, 2012:64). A developmental approach to the settlement of restitution claims was to be taken. In addition, all distressed land reform projects implemented since 1994 were to be recapitalised through programmes that sought to increase the productivity levels, employment and gross value of these farms. In changing the patterns and systems of ownership and control over land, fundamental changes had to be effected to the current land reform agenda (South Africa, 2011:23). The land reform agenda was to further focus on reviewing the Restitution, Redistribution and Tenure Reform Programmes. The focus would be on expediting the processing of settled claims and the settlement of outstanding claims. Major reforms in the land tenure system are necessary in addressing the distorted power relations relative to productive land in South Africa and to safeguard limited agricultural land (Kepe & Hall, 2016:13). The national

government is developing a Green Paper on Rural Development, Agrarian Transformation and Land Reform, proposing a complete overhaul of the land tenure system. In this regard a proposal is made for a three-tier land tenure system, namely, state land under leasehold, private land under freehold tenure but with limitations and foreign land ownership with precarious tenure linked to productivity and partnership models with South African citizens (South Africa, 2012:17).

In realising the above intentions, a number of legislative and policy frameworks have been developed and implemented with lessons learnt, as described below, first from an international perspective and thereafter from a local perspective.

3.5 INTERNATIONAL INTERVENTIONS FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Recently the general emphasis has been that any form of rural development to take place must involve the citizenry and that any form of decisions taken must be taken jointly with the local officials responsible for implementation of local development programmes. Current interventions point to the fact that such decisions no longer have to be centralised (Phulisani, 2009:17). Current focus is on rural agriculture and to a lesser extent the non-farm economy, whereby it is envisaged that promotion of agriculture and existing natural resources would make a positive contribution to economic growth. However, other key role players such as multi-lateral or bilateral aid agencies, non-governmental organisations, and ultimately local governments, need to be active stakeholders in ensuring rural development leading to increased economic growth (Hoddinott, 2002:149). In India, increased investments in rural infrastructure in transport and information technology to connect all rural areas has been advocated for to aid rural development in agriculture, which would lead to job creation in the rural areas (Joachin *et al.*, 2006:93). In 2001 the German government launched the Active Regions Project with the aim of amongst others fostering rural-urban connections; strengthening rural areas and creating additional sources of income; to promote agriculture that was compatible with existing natural resources and was nature friendly (United Nations, 2010:54). Each of the regions developed project plans that were shared and integrated to form a comprehensive development plan. This would ultimately encourage regionality and partnerships within the regions, which subsequently led to increased job opportunities and direct investments

(United Nations, 2010:55). Chapman and Slaymaker (2002:76) contend that ICTs have partly played a key role in rural development in the developed countries through its promotion of education and knowledge acquisition. With rural ICT development, local communities are able to access markets for their agricultural products by engaging with potential buyers which would enable them to have access to outside markets.

South Africa is also a signatory to the 1995 Copenhagen Declaration which emerged from the United Nations World Summit on Social Development. In terms of this declaration, signatories undertook to develop a country specific measure of poverty by 1996 (United Nations, 1995:71). South Africa also had obligations in terms of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals to halve poverty and unemployment by 2015, which South Africa committed to reaching by 2014. However, in 2012 the Sustainable Development Goals replaced the Millennium Development Goals which started a global effort in 2002 to amongst others see a total reduction of poverty (United Nations, 2015:39). The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted by all United Nations Member States in 2015, provides Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which are an urgent call for action by all countries, developed and developing in a global partnership. The SDG's requires that ending poverty and other deprivations must be complemented by strategies that improve health and education, reduce inequality, and spur economic growth. Like many other countries, South Africa is a signatory to meeting the SDGs, placing inequality and poverty at the forefront of its National Development Plan (Fofana *et al.*, 2018:43). However, to meet this target, economic growth must exceed over 4% per annum (Fofana *et al.*, 2018:44) which must be accompanied by having in place an income redistribution strategy of social assistance to cover 10% of the population to end hunger by 2030.

Other international covenants and treaties that commit signatory states to the advancement of the socio-economic rights of their inhabitants that South Africa has signed include: the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966, the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights, 1981, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, 1990, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women 1979, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1969 and the Commission on Sustainable Development, 1992. Signatories to these commissions affirm the need for all concerned nations to adhere to the rights of

individuals, which include amongst others the rights to access to basic services. In the context of this study, South Africa needs to ensure that any framework for rural development takes cognisance of some of the above covenants and treaties.

However, these international agreements do not bind countries to direct resources to rural areas, and there are no punitive measures for non-compliance (Findlay, 2006:77). It should also be noted that communities are rarely active participants in driving the development and finalisation of these treaties and conventions. Despite the signing of international conventions and the development of sectoral rurally focussed programmes, rural areas remain underdeveloped (Gwanya, 2010:10). Three key reasons for this have emerged: Firstly, there appears to be a lack of a common definition of “rural development”. Indicators of deprivation or lack of access to services are used to attempt to define what is needed in rural areas. What counts as rural or urban is extremely difficult to define. This is especially so, given the deep, continuous and intertwined relationships of urban and rural in South Africa (Gwanya, 2010:11).

Secondly, budgets for and planning of these programmes cut across the different government departments. There is no incentive for seamless budgeting and planning for rural development across the different spheres of government. The core challenge is the reprioritisation of funds to rural areas through a single budgetary and planning cycle (Gwanya, 2010:12).

Rural development is a cross-cutting programme that calls for partnerships with many stakeholders, both within and outside government. Yet there are no enforcement mechanisms for integrated planning and implementation of government programmes of government. Thirdly, very few of these programmes, especially the service delivery programmes, have fully decentralised service points. In the case of free basic services, for example, it was found that the token collection rate was low due to the fact that the cost of the token is far lower than the cost of travelling to the token collection point (Gwanya, 2010:12; Parker and Kirsten, 1995:246).

South Africa is one of the co-sponsors of Resolution 25/6 of the UN-Habitat Governing Council that approved the International Guidelines on Urban and Territorial Planning (IG-UTP) (United Nations, 2015:63). This policy document synchronises with other policies

adopted by UN-Habitat, namely the International Guidelines on Decentralisation and Strengthening of Local Authorities (2007) and the International Guidelines on Access to Basic Services for all (2009) (United Nations, 2015:64).

The purpose of the International Guidelines on Urban and Territorial Planning (IG-UTP) is to provide a global framework for improving policies, plans and designs for more compact, socially inclusive, better integrated and connected cities and territories that foster sustainable urban development and are resilient to climate change (United Nations, 2015:65). It views urban and territorial planning as more than a technical tool, but also an integrative and participatory decision-making process to address competing interests. Furthermore, it represents a core component of governance at national, regional and local level, promoting local democracy, participation, transparency and accountability to ensure sustainable development (United Nations, 2015:66). The above clearly highlights the need for a framework that speaks to proper planning for rural areas that would ultimately encourage sustainable development. This would also mitigate rural-urban migration, which is a common phenomenon as a result of skewed development towards the urban areas, as well as also mitigate the growth of slum dwellings in the urban areas.

According to the Human Science Research Council (2010:58), several international policies and treaties have influenced the ways in which governments and civil society organisations conceptualise and implement poverty eradication policies and strategies generally, and the extent to and ways in which such strategies are informed. The year 1999 saw the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) establish a policy for the first time, through a series Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) in response to civil society demands to reduce the unsustainable debt that the poor developing countries owed to multi-lateral financial institutions (Zuckerman & Garrett, 2003:32). Since then, in many developing countries, PRSPs have become mandated national economic plans directed at eradicating poverty. It is thus envisaged that such poor countries are able to devote some of their national incomes in developing rural areas, rather than devote these incomes to servicing their international debts.

Of importance is that the IG-UTP, the National Development Plan (NDP) and the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) all reflect an understanding of the interconnectedness of rural and urban areas, especially in rural Africa, as well as the

diversity and distinct needs of various groups; and the importance of supporting and developing strong local governance to enable sustainable development (Zuckerman & Garrett, 2003:32). This suggests that any comprehensive framework developed, especially in the context of rural development, must take into consideration urban development, due to the interlinkages between urban and rural areas.

3.6 THE REGULATORY AND POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI) arising from the World Summit on Sustainable Development in 2002 called for the building of rural infrastructure, diversifying the rural economy and improving transportation and access to markets, market information and credit to support sustainable agriculture and rural development. It also recognised that agriculture plays a crucial role in addressing the needs of a growing global population and is inextricably linked to poverty eradication, especially in developing countries (United Nations, 2003:61). International development practitioners such as development agencies, argue that for development to be effective, one of its central elements has to be community participation. South Africa has also acknowledged, through the development of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS), that the success of development would be enhanced by local community participation. This type of community involvement draws local governance issues into the rural development arena, in that the success of development at this level depends on, amongst other things, governance mechanisms (De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998:38). Kole (20015:1) argues that South Africa, like other African countries, is faced with several rural development challenges, challenges that can be dealt with through commitment from all stakeholders, including the communities that have been impacted negatively by under-development. Numerous rural development initiatives have been undertaken in South Africa. These include policy developments such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the Development Facilitation Act, 67 of 1995, programmes such as the Land Reform Programme (LRP), as well as strategies such as the Rural Development Strategy of 1995. These initiatives were not efficiently implemented, hence the development of the ISRDS (Kole, 2005:1).

Rural development in South Africa is influenced more by past politically motivated experiences than by rural-urban market economics. Rural development was and still is influenced by segregationist policies created during the apartheid era (De Beer *et al.*, 1998:40). Between 1948 and 1976, South Africa's economic development is argued to have been influenced by the Group Areas Act 41 of 1950, the Promotion of Bantu Homelands Citizenship (Act, 26 of 1970) and the general 'Grand Apartheid' Policy (Bannister, 2000:12). Due to the accelerating industrialisation and mechanisation at that time, the implementation of the "Bantustan" policy was facilitated (Bannister, 2000:12). This was caused by developments drastically reducing the labour requirements of agriculture and industry. These acts assigned the ownership and occupation of land and buildings according to racial divisions and compelled all black people to become citizens of a homeland that corresponded to their ethnic group.

With the repeal of most apartheid legislation, rural development in South Africa occurred within a context of the need to generally improve the living standards of the majority of the previously disadvantaged, who mostly resided in these areas (Kloppers & Pienaar, 2014:38). Although the programmes of this period were not specifically targeted at rural areas, they had an impact on the level of development in these areas.

3.6.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

In 1996, the South African government adopted a constitution that outlines government's role and responsibilities in terms of people, human rights of citizens and government institutions. The Constitution allowed several groupings, political parties and government to realise that rural development needed to be highlighted if the majority of the previously disadvantaged were to benefit from the new dispensation (Kole, 2005:6).

The Constitution of 1996 protects human rights, enshrines democratic principles such as equality and freedom, and guarantees all citizens the right to access to basic needs, goods and services such as health care, water, food and social security (Section 27), as well as the right to access land on an equitable basis, subject, that is, to the state's capacity to realise these rights. At the same time, though, the Constitution endorses property rights and in this sense protects the *status quo* with respect to relations of production. Another important component of the Constitution is the determination of national and provincial government's legislative competencies, and policies related to (and in fact subordinate to)

national frameworks, policies and norms and standards (Section 104 and 146, and Schedule 4). Schedule 4 determines that rural development is regarded as a functional area of concurrent national and provincial legislative competence. In other words, government can formulate rural development policies, provided they are in line with national frameworks (South Africa, 1996).

Sections 104 and 106 of the Constitution led to the establishment of the three spheres of government, each with its own set of responsibilities. However, all three are based on the principle of co-operative governance. National government was mainly assigned policy responsibilities, while provincial government became responsible for the monitoring and implementation of policy and local government was given developmental responsibilities, although it was still in a transitional phase (South Africa, 1996).

Sections 24 and 27 of the Constitution establish the framework for the implementation of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme. These sections state that everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or wellbeing; and to have the environment protected, for the benefit of present and future generations, through reasonable legislative and other measures that prevent pollution and ecological degradation; promote conservation; and secure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting justifiable economic and social development (South Africa, 1996).

According to Bannister (2000:15), it was in 1995 that government introduced the Rural Development Strategy led by the former Department of Land Affairs. The strategy aimed to “create greater equality in (the use of resources) in rural areas, especially land, through tenure security, restitution and reform programmes. It is argued that this strategy dealt mostly with infrastructure components of rural areas”, and set out the mechanisms by which rural people and their elected representatives at rural district councils and local councils could take charge of the development process in their own areas (Kole, 2005:2). In general it is posited that rural people and rural women in particular, bear the largest burden of poverty and suggested that if the inequalities and inefficiencies of the past could be changed, rural areas could become productive and sustainable, and as a consequence local government operations must emanate from the rural areas, as a first step in alleviating poverty where the affected can be part and parcel of policy formulation (United

Nations, 2015:54). From the above, it can be argued that various policy frameworks have been created since 1995 to deal with inequalities which have further resulted in poverty. However, these have not been effective as a result of poor planning and implementation of these policies.

3.6.2 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994-1996)

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was launched as an ANC policy document before the democratisation of SA and was formalised in September 1994 as the government's White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (Binns & Nel, 2002:921). Its primary purpose was to address the socio-economic challenges of post-apartheid South Africa, by alleviating poverty and resolving the deficiencies of social service provision country-wide. The RDP was the guiding framework that determined the Government of National Unity's policies in its first term, and led to the Rural Development Strategy (October 1995), the Urban Development Strategy (October 1995) and the Rural Development Framework (May 1997) (Binns & Nel, 2002:921).

The RDP was seen as a people-centred socio-economic policy framework that provided a starting point for redressing the injustices of the past developmental efforts (Davis *et al.*, 2005:18). According to Binza (2006:493), the RDP also aimed at redistributing the country's resources and it was regarded as the first official socio-economic policy in the country with the intention to address the structural and other problems inhibiting socio-economic development.

The RDP had six basic principles, namely an integrated and sustainable programme; a people-driven process; peace and security for all; nation building; linking reconstruction and development and the democratisation of South Africa. The five key programmes that sought to achieve these principles included meeting basic needs; developing human resources; building the economy; democratising of the state and society and the implementation of the RDP (Binza, 2006:493). Developmental local government was viewed as the primary vehicle for delivery and as such, the RDP gave local government the broad mandate of meeting the basic needs of communities, as well as promoting a people-centred and democratic local government (South Africa, 1994:67).

Following the election of South Africa's democratic government in 1994, rural development was mostly addressed based on the main challenge which the country faced at the time, namely addressing inequalities created through apartheid (South Africa, 1994:67). This led to rural development becoming part of the general development programme, the RDP, which also dealt with general urban economic development. Ultimately, the RDP sought to overcome the overall service-delivery imbalances created by apartheid (South Africa, 1994:67).

Facing the "deep-seated structural crisis" (Ngomane, 2012:11), the ANC-led government attempted to put together a policy framework that could address the variety of problems being faced both economically and otherwise. Through the RDP the ANC sought "to mobilise all people and the country's resources towards the final eradication of apartheid and the building of a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future" (Ngomane, 2012:11). The programme sought to attain socio-economic growth and basic needs delivery, while at the same time addressing the legacy of injustice. The programme put emphasis on "people-centred, integrated and sustainable development" that is democratic and participatory (Ngomane, 2012:13; Gwanya, 2010:18). Here, the programme noted a need for integrated, well-coordinated and sustainable strategies, to be conducted in and integrated amongst all three spheres of government, along with civil society, business and parastatals, and that development is not about the delivery of goods to a passive citizenry, but about active involvement and growing empowerment (South Africa, 1994:68). In taking this approach, the government would build on the many forums, peace structures and negotiations that people were involved in through the land. The RDP White Paper, presented to Parliament in 1994, noted "minority control and privilege" within the economy as a major obstacle to the achievement of an integrated developmentally orientated economy (South Africa, 1994:69). The central government also acknowledged that the people most affected by economic policy should participate in the decision-making, and that the government would also have to be restructured to fit the priorities of the RDP.

The programme would link growth, development, reconstruction, redistribution and reconciliation into a unified programme, held together by a broad infrastructural programme that would focus on creating and enhancing existing services in the electricity, water, telecommunications, transport, health, education and training sectors (South Africa, 1994:69). It also put emphasis on programmes to meet basic needs and enhance

human resource development, and placed a major emphasis on social infrastructure and development programmes that addressed poverty and inequality. However, as a development policy document, it had a number of shortcomings. Firstly, it looked more like a 'wish list' than a strategy document focussing on opportunities and constraints. Secondly, it made no attempt to set priorities, or to assign responsibility for the implementation of each programme component. Thirdly, it lacked mechanisms for inter-departmental coordination. Finally, local government, which had been assigned constitutional responsibility for promoting socio-economic development, did not have adequate planning and implementation capacity (South Africa, 1994:69). While the government appeared to have been content with the RDP's broad thrusts, problems began to surface from 1995. The economy in particular was not growing at the envisaged rate (Ngomane, 2012:13). The orientations of the programme also came under critical scrutiny as investors and international financial institutions began demanding greater clarity on national economic policy (Ngomane, 2012:13).

Initially, the RDP enjoyed general support, providing a mechanism for reconciling the diverse attitudes towards South Africa's development challenges, while simultaneously acknowledging, to some measure, the realities of resource constraints (Blumenfeld, 2015:8). However, the RDP lacked implementation impetus, as it did not assign responsibilities for the implementation of its programmes, or provide mechanisms for inter-departmental coordination and setting priorities considering the relevant opportunities and constraints (Ngomane, 2012:13). This, in part, led to the closure of the RDP Office under the Presidency in 1996, and the shift in focus to other policies and legislation to achieve "people-centred, integrated, sustainable and participatory development (Mackay, 2003:3940). Although the RDP had been set aside, the primacy of its main tenet, namely the alleviation of poverty and addressing socio-economic problems, still dominated the ongoing policies and strategies of government for rural development.

3.6.3 The Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity (1995)

Pursuant to the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (1994), the RDP Office in the Presidency compiled a Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity, published as a general notice in October 1995 (South Africa, 1995:16). The vision

of this strategy was focussed on freedom from poverty, employment, diverse agriculture and commercial and service sectors in country towns and greater access by rural people to government support and information. It set out mechanisms by which rural people and their elected representatives at rural district and local councils could assume responsibility for the development process in their own areas, placing rural people at the centre of this strategy (South Africa, 1995:17). This, of course, necessitated the prioritisation of building local government in rural areas. The Rural Development Strategy acknowledged certain realities pertaining to the rural areas of South Africa, namely (South Africa, 1995:17):

- the high levels of poverty, especially amongst those in women headed households;
- agricultural dualism, both in land use and support services;
- spatial chaos and stark contrasts between the former homelands and the areas around them, in terms of settlement patterns, land ownership and use, transport and other infrastructure;
- historical restrictions on entrepreneurial development, and poor support; and
- new local government structures set up in 1995, with no history or experience of planning, democracy or service.

The goals and strategies for rural development in terms of this strategy and in addition to other government initiatives included the following (South Africa, 1995:18):

- Creating structures of local government and local coordination that will allow rural people to set the priorities for development in their communities, supporting their access to government and non-government funding in promoting local economic development, influencing the infrastructure investment programme and maintenance of assets created, and access and control of service delivery.
- Necessity and insistence on involving communities in planning and managing projects and their budgets, and maintenance of assets.
- Creating greater equality in resource use in the rural areas, especially of:
 - land, through better security of tenure, restitution and reform programmes, and farmer support to all producers;
 - water, through the extension of services, extension of rights, and charges in terms of the Water and Sanitation Act;

- financial services, for production inputs, infrastructure development and access to land, through extension of services and appropriate policy development; and
- management, through training and capacity building of local government and community organisations.
- Increasing access to social services through the provision of physical infrastructure and services such as water and sanitation, transport, health services, and schooling.
- Increasing farm and non-farm production in poor rural areas, and increasing the incomes of poor rural men and women.
- Improving the spatial economy of rural South Africa, including through coordination and co-operation with the southern African region.
- Creating access to information for planning and implementing development projects and programmes at local level.
- Giving voice to the concern of the poorest, least organised community members through community development facilitators.
- Ensuring the safety and security of rural people.

Although it was intended that this document should serve as a basis for a white paper on rural development, it did not proceed further than a discussion document (Gwanya, 2010:19), simply because it did not take into consideration the main role players, the rural people. This led to the Rural Development Framework of 1997. This too remained a white paper on rural development simply because the main actors, the rural communities, were not engaged on the core issues affecting them. The lesson learnt here is that the main actors, in this case the rural communities, must be an integral part of any rural development strategies, if there is going to be success in achieving their main goals of poverty alleviation.

The next section explores the Rural Development Framework of 1997.

3.6.4 The Rural Development Framework (1997)

The Rural Development Framework was launched and adapted in May 1997 by the government with an attempt to provide specific guidelines with respect to involving rural people in local government and decisions affecting their lives, as well as increasing rural local government's capacity to plan, implement and assemble essential information for

planning, monitoring and evaluating both the process and progress of development. In addition, it promoted the increase of employment and economic growth in rural areas; provision of affordable infrastructure and services in rural areas and ensuring social sustainability in rural areas (South Africa, 1997:5). The framework was aimed at addressing the inequalities and under-developed state of the rural areas during the apartheid government, while also describing the manner in which government, working with the rural communities, would achieve rapid and sustained reduction in absolute rural poverty (South Africa, 1997:3). This framework describes how government, working with rural people, could achieve a rapid and sustained reduction in absolute rural poverty (South Africa, 1997:7). The framework attempts to answer questions on how to involve rural people in decisions affecting their lives, through participation in rural local government; how to increase employment and economic growth in rural areas; how to provide affordable infrastructure and improve services in rural areas and resolve the problems posed by the remote, low-potential areas into which people were crowded during the apartheid era; how to ensure social sustainability in rural areas and how to increase rural local government capacity to plan and implement and assemble the essential information for planning, monitoring and evaluating both the process and progress of rural development initiatives (South Africa, 1997:8).

According to the former Department of Land Affairs (South Africa, 1997:9), the Rural Development Framework was developed from the premise that rural development is the business of everyone in the rural areas; rural people should be thus set their own agenda for the development. Mahlati (2011:7) argues that the framework postulates that rural development is about enabling the rural communities to take control of their destiny, by dealing effectively with rural poverty through the optimum use and management of their natural resources. The transformation of rural life must be strengthened by policies that allow for the growth in an equitable way. This should be done by means of the redistribution of economic and political power and participation of the communities (Mahlati, 2011:7).

The former Department of Land Affairs (South Africa, 1997:5) portrayed the Rural Development Framework to recognise severe obstacles and constraints to development such as:

- landlessness, overcrowding and inappropriate farming methods on commercial farms that cause severe land degradation and soil erosion;
- land ownership and development patterns that reflect political and economic conditions left from the apartheid era; and
- apartheid spatial planning that created a rural landscape lacking in economic opportunities for the disadvantaged majority, especially women.

Perhaps the most enduring contribution of this framework to rural development in South Africa was its working definition of what rural areas constitute, which is still used by most government departments (Backenberg, 2009:1). This definition was influenced by the prevailing circumstances of rural communities prior to 1994, including that of former homelands. Mahlathi (2011:70) maintains that the rural population represents 70% of the world's poor and in South Africa's situation, poverty is endemic in the rural areas.

Backenberg (2009:1) argues that life in the rural areas of South Africa is complex, as it is characterised by many inconsistencies such as lack of communication networks, substandard roads and transport services, poor access to basic services such as water and sanitation, as well as infrastructural problems. Mahlathi (2011:72) agrees, stating that the majority of people in rural areas live under conditions of poverty, with food insecurity, low income and education, lack of acceptable housing and the absence of adequate services.

The Rural Development Framework focussed on rural infrastructure, public administration, local government and rural non-farm employment. It emphasised the need for coordination for rural development and relevant information for development purposes. However, despite its contribution regarding the definition of rural areas, this also ended as a discussion document (South Africa, 1997:8). However, the biggest challenge to this framework was a lack of proper structures in the rural areas. Part of the challenge faced by local governments was how to term a rural area, as this had financial and socio-economic implications. There was also a lack of communication amongst the various stakeholders leading to duplication of services (Everatt, 2008:303). A lesson learnt here is that clear and concise planning and management of programmes is key for their success, as a lot of resources, especially financial resources, are spent on these rural

development initiatives which for the most part have not born any fruit (Ngomane, 2012:31).

The next section analyses the White Paper on Local Government of 1998.

3.6.5 White Paper on Local Government (1998)

The purpose of the White Paper on Local Government (1998) was to establish developmental local government, in association with its constituents, groups and communities, in order to create sustainable human settlements that provide a decent quality of life and meet the social, economic and material needs of communities in a holistic way. This was in accordance with local government being established as one of the three spheres of government in 1996, rather than a statutory institution. In 1998 the Municipal Demarcation Act, 27 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998:8) and the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 117 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998:8) were promulgated to give territorial and structural effect to the policy.

The White Paper on Local Government (South Africa, 1998:9), built on the broad mandate given to local government by the Constitution and the RDP, that of addressing basic needs and redistributing capital spending to poor communities, which forms the central idea behind municipal integrated development planning (IDP) (South Africa, 1998:11; Koma, 2012:10). It also emphasised that municipalities must particularly encourage the equal and effective participation of marginalised groupings such as women, by including strategies aimed at removing obstacles to and actively encouraging their participation in local government (South Africa, 1998:10).

The following principles for the provision of infrastructure and services by municipalities are detailed in the White Paper on Local Government (South Africa, 1998:74), namely equal and affordable access for all citizens to at least a minimum level of services, providing quality products and services, being held accountable for services provided, an integrated and sustainable approach towards service delivery and the promotion of democracy. One of its significant contributions is the loose categorisation of settlement types, as it facilitates an understanding of the diversity of settlements in South Africa. This white paper as seen above was created on the assumption that local municipalities play a major leading role in stimulating local economic development, namely job creation,

economic growth and poverty alleviation (Koma, 2012:10). This is key for this study: local municipalities as key stakeholders in the design and implementation of a rural development framework. However, the white paper alluded to the fact that many local municipalities face challenges, especially financial challenges, and were not able to meet their basic obligations (South Africa, 1998:12). This state of affairs continues with several of them relying on national government support (Hungwe, 2017:33).

The next section investigates the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy of 2001.

3.6.6 Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) (2001)

The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy, launched at the end of 2000 and later evolving into the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP) and the Urban Renewal Programme (URP), had as its principal aim the integration of existing institutions, planning mechanisms, management and funding of the three government spheres (South Africa, 2001:4). The expectation was to respond more effectively to the needs of disadvantaged communities, specifically through the efficient application of public funds, and to contribute to rural poverty reduction. It mainly targeted former homeland areas and attempted the introduction of a spatial focus to address poverty and underdevelopment. Additionally, it defined an integrative approach towards development: a collection of services, anchor projects, linkages, offshoots and financing protocol (South Africa, 2001:9).

The vision of the ISRDS was to “attain socially cohesive and stable rural communities with viable institutions, sustainable economies and universal access to social amenities, able to attract and retain skilled and knowledgeable people, equipped to contribute to growth and development” (South Africa, 2001:11). To attain this vision, the ISRDP stipulated better coordination of sectoral department delivery, with the pivot being demand driven development in the context of empowered local government. Municipal IDPs were designated as the principal instrument for integration, with technical and management assistance provided through ISRDS/P structures to develop local capacity. The objectives for this vision were as follows (South Africa, 2001:13):

- coordination and integration: To achieve integrated service delivery through co-ordinated planning, resource allocation and implementation by government and other stakeholders;
- efficient and effective local government: To strengthen the capacities of local government entities so as to facilitate the inputs of various stakeholders in order to deliver integrated services responsive to community priorities;
- participation and empowerment: To enhance the capacities of communities to articulate their priorities and participate in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of their Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and the ISRDP.
- sustainable economic growth: All ISRDP nodes should achieve economic growth (including job and income creation and increased productivity) and equity, based on redistribution and empowerment;
- sustainable social development: Supporting social change that promotes the well-being and access to social services of rural communities; and
- environmental sustainability: Access and benefit sharing in ISRDP nodes where programmes are implemented that protect, conserve and ensure sustainable use of natural resources.

Some of the challenges that the ISRDS/P faced included the difficulty of horizontal coordination between the sector departments of different spheres of governments, selection of appropriate rural nodes and lack of an independent budget for poverty relief efforts. Coordination proved to be especially difficult, considering that it could potentially include every national and provincial department, due to the multi-faceted nature of poverty and appropriate responses to it. In terms of rural node identification, the ISRDS did not necessarily take cognisance of the macro pattern of spatial economic development (Harmse, 2010:429) and neglected to include several municipal areas in South Africa with very low levels of development nodes (Fox & Van Rooyen, 2004:188). In addition, intervention at district municipal level failed to consider the involvement of communities at village, ward or local municipal level in the planning stages of intervention, preferring to view them as beneficiaries at the reporting stage (Fox & Van Rooyen, 2004:188). With regard to the lack of an independent budget, the ISRDP aimed to alleviate poverty by creatively harnessing the resources that were already available, however it could not enforce integrated planning and implementation. There has always been a need for rural

communities to be sustainable, which means that programmes/strategies must be self-sustaining. Key to this study is the proper coordination of all role players or stakeholders in the implementation of any strategy. Therefore, any framework must ensure that all key role players are involved in any sustainable programmes related to rural development.

3.6.7 Breaking New Ground: Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements (BNG) (2004)

During September 2004 the National Minister of Housing launched the “Breaking New Ground: A Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements” Policy. Also known as the Breaking New Ground (BNG) Policy, this plan reflects a change in policy from “the provision of housing” to “the creation of sustainable human settlements” (South Africa, 2004:14). It was aimed at integrating previously excluded groups into cities and giving them access to the socio-economic benefits which cities can bring. Although it targeted urban environments, the principle of “sustainable human settlements” was also applicable in sustainable rural livelihood development (South Africa, 2004:15).

The BNG detailed four primary objectives (South Africa, 2004:15):

- Sustainable human settlements: “well-managed entities in which economic growth and social development are in balance with the carrying capacity of the natural systems on which they depend for their existence and result in sustainable development, wealth, creation, poverty alleviation and equity.
- Integration: Spatial restructuring and integration by utilising housing as an instrument for the development of sustainable human settlements. Additionally, intra- and intergovernmental institutional integration is required in terms of integrated planning and coordinated investment.
- Providing housing assets: ensuring property can be accessed by all as an asset for wealth creation and empowerment, as well as supporting the functioning of the entire residential property market.
- Upgraded informal settlements: progressive eradication of informal settlements and urban inclusion to overcome spatial, social and economic exclusion.

The aim of this plan under the Housing Department was to provide decent housing to the citizenry in South Africa and since its inception, the government housing budget was on the rise up to 9 billion in the 2007/2008 period from 4.8 billion in 2004. It was projected to

rise to 15.3 billion in 2011 (South Africa, 2008:8). The target was the eradication of all informal settlements by 2014 (South Africa, 2008:8). However, it was posited that the current trend of funding of the housing project was not sustainable due to unforeseen rising costs, especially in construction materials (Trusler, 2009:61). The World Cup that was to be staged in 2010 also diverted some of the funding to local world cup projects, thereby further stalling the housing project. Other challenges such as lack of government coordination and lack of interest from the private sector did not enable the government to realise its targets. There was still and there is still a huge housing backlog, which as of 2010 stood at 2.1 million. Of great concern was that much of this project was geared to addressing housing urban needs (Trusler, 2009:62). The rationale here was that there was a need to focus immediately on the general infrastructure of the rural areas first. Housing needs is one of the urgent issues that need to be addressed in the rural areas, and any programme or strategy to address rural poverty must include provision of proper housing.

3.6.8 Rural Transport Strategy for South Africa (RTS) (2007)

The purpose of the Rural Transport Strategy was the delivery of rural transport infrastructure and services in order to serve as a significant catalyst for sustainable economic development, improved social access and poverty alleviation in South Africa's rural areas (South Africa, 2007:23). The rationale and key operational aims of the Rural Transport Strategy were "firstly to achieve improved *strategic guidance and coordination* – both within the transport sector and within the broader cluster of key rural service delivery sectors – and secondly, to facilitate *accelerated service delivery* in neglected geographical and functional areas" (South Africa, 2007:24). The necessity for improved guidance and coordination can be understood when considering the complex variety of rural transport service delivery agents, funding sources and mechanisms within the transportation sector, many of which involve the private and SMME sectors, and rural communities. In addition it should promote coordinated nodal and linkage development (South Africa, 2007:25).

The delivery of most rural transport infrastructure and services would increasingly become a local government responsibility, funded through consolidated capital grants, the equitable share mechanism and transfers of monies in terms of the National Land

Transport Transition Act, 22 of 2000). To guide and support this, and serve as the principal short-, medium- and long-term mechanism for the implementation of the rural strategy, a Rural Transport Development Programme (RTD Programme) was established (South Africa, 2007:25). Some of the actions suggested in this programme formed part of the gazetted rural transport strategic actions specified in the National Land Transport Strategic Framework (NLTsf). Seen together with the NLTsf, the RTD Programme would be the principal guiding mechanism in terms of which the national and provincial spheres of government would perform their short-, medium- and long-term delivery, as well as facilitation and coordination roles.

The Rural Transport Strategy of 2007 set out to (South Africa, 2007:26):

- Create a greater general appreciation of the potential catalytic development role of rural transport infrastructure and services, and the need to mobilise additional resources for this purpose.
- Provide the strategic guidance that is needed to ensure that the delivery of rural transport infrastructure and services is, indeed, sustainable, sufficiently responsive (i.e. in relation to typical rural conditions and transport demands), and developmentally effective (i.e. succeeding in addressing the economic and social access needs of the rural poor and other disadvantaged groups) and contribute to general job creation and economic upliftment in rural areas.
- Highlight how greater alignment and developmental synergies can be achieved, especially with those sectors that must serve a dispersed population from centrally located nodes, facilities and markets (e.g. health, education, and business support services) and those sectors involved in the provision of linkage infrastructure and services (especially telecommunications and other ICT-based services).
- Indicate some of the actions to be undertaken within the ambit of the Rural Transport Development Programme.

The RTD Programme comprised of 21 strategic actions that were grouped into four action areas, as listed below (South Africa, 2007:27):

- alignment with ISRDP and related initiatives;
- high-leverage focus projects and programmes, broken down into three components, namely:

- High-leverage Rural Transport Infrastructure (RTI) projects and programmes dealing with the provision of rural transport infrastructure;
- High-leverage Rural Transport Service (RTS) projects and programmes dealing with the provision of rural transport services; and
- The promotion of non-motorised and intermediate transport,
- regulation and safety; and
- capacity building and monitoring.

As highlighted before the aim of this Strategy was to ensure that road infrastructure development would be used to stimulate rural development. The challenge faced here was that most local municipalities did not have the required skills to manage and maintain such roads, especially technical skills (South Africa, 2007:27). For any strategy such as this one to be successful, there is a need to have the right ingredients in place such as government commitment, the financial resources, effective planning and management, as well as adequate skills to implement, monitor and evaluate the strategy. The above strategy realised the importance of improving rural infrastructure in boosting rural economic development. Any successful institutional framework for sustainable rural development must ensure amongst others that those responsible for its implementation are capable and have the requisite skills in ensuring that rural projects are well managed.

3.6.9 War on Poverty Programme (2008)

The War on Poverty Programme was instituted by the Presidency in 2008 and could in some instances be declared as the direct forerunner for the Comprehensive Rural Development Plan. In accordance with this Programme, an Anti-Poverty Inter-Ministerial Committee was established to coordinate and to integrate service delivery across spheres of government and non-government organisations (The Presidency, 2008). It required all levels of government to align their operation towards implementing a rural development programme. The Programme acknowledged that poverty was rife in the rural areas and was first piloted in seven provinces, with the exception of the Northern and Western Cape. The government acknowledged the huge backlogs with regard to the provision of health, education, water supply and housing amongst others in the rural areas, and recognised that agriculture had a major role to play if rural economies were to be resuscitated (Majova, 2018:101). The government also recognised that there was no common anti-poverty strategy; no information about the living conditions of the poor, and that most services

provided were not properly coordinated and were provided on an *ad hoc* basis (South Africa, 2009:28). One of the key outcomes of this Programme was coordination, communication and cooperation amongst national and local governments and other stakeholders such as non-governmental organisations in implementing this Programme. The relevance of this programme for this study is that it shows that with all the relevant stakeholders working together and with national government backing poverty, alleviation of poverty in the rural areas is possible. However, this must be sustained with the rural communities able to run and benefit from rural projects. However to facilitate better social cohesion with all sectors of the economy, another plan was designed which is discussed below.

3.6.10 Comprehensive Rural Development Plan (CRDP) (2009)

The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) (Strategic Priority Number 3 within the government's current Medium-Term Strategic Framework) was approved on 12 August 2009 by Cabinet (South Africa, 2009:13). The strategic objective of the CRDP (South Africa, 2009:13) was to facilitate integrated development and social cohesion through participatory approaches in partnership with all sectors of society, achieved through a three-pronged strategy based on a coordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; strategically increasing rural development; and an improved land reform programme. Its purpose was thereby to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities that (South Africa, 2009:14):

- addressed poverty and food insecurity through maximising the use and management of natural resources;
- rectified past injustices and improved the standard of living through rights-based programmes that addressed skewed patterns of distribution and ownership of wealth and assets; and
- facilitated integrated development and social cohesion through participatory approaches in partnership with all sectors of society.

The most important strategy pursued in achieving the CRDP's strategic objectives has been agrarian transformation. Agrarian transformation in this context meant the "rapid and fundamental change in the relations (systems and patterns of ownership and control) of land, livestock, cropping and community" (South Africa, 2009:15). The objectives of the Agrarian Transformation Strategy included but were not limited to (South Africa, 2009:15):

- social mobilisation to enable rural communities to take initiatives;
- the establishment of sustainable settlements (providing access to basic services and economic opportunities; meeting basic human needs; and developing appropriate infrastructure);
- the establishment of cooperatives and enterprises for economic activities, wealth creation, and the productive use of assets;
- the promotion of non-farm activities for the strengthening of rural livelihoods;
- leadership training, social facilitation and the development of familiarity with CRDP objectives and socio-economic independence;
- skills development and employment creation (especially for youth, women and people living with disabilities);
- the democratisation of rural development, as well as the participation and ownership of all processes, projects and programmes by rural communities;
- coordination, alignment and cooperative governance (local municipalities, traditional councils, provincial government and rural communities);
- the participation of non-governmental organisations including faith-based organisations, community-based organisations and other organs of civil society; and
- the promotion of social cohesion and the provision of access to human and social capital.

Key to the success of any programme is mobilisation of local communities and encouraging them to take initiatives in identifying what are the issues that need to be addressed. This is important for ownership and motivation, for the participating communities to take the programme forward. This is important for this study because it highlights the need for the beneficiaries to be part and parcel of any form of initial planning and implementation of any sustainable projects that would benefit them for a long term period.

Thus, the study argues that the cornerstones of implementing the CRDP are community socio-economic profiling, community participatory processes and intergovernmental cooperation. Profiling assisted in contextualising development and developing a community engagement strategy to be congruent with the War on Poverty Campaign Approach. To support community participatory processes, the CRDP proposed the

construction of new and revitalisation of old infrastructure for socio-economic development, as well as facilitating the access to information via ICT. Furthermore, social mobilisation of rural communities to take initiative included such actions as establishing community structures where they did not exist, mobilising stakeholders to support community empowerment, skills development initiatives in line with identified needs and opportunities, and the participation of NGOs. However, this programme did not take into consideration the impact of some of the projects on the environment, which is crucial for future sustainability of rural communities. The White Paper on Climate Change briefly discussed below was formulated to address this.

3.6.11 National Development Plan (NDP) (2012)

The National Planning Commission in the Presidency was responsible for the compilation and implementation of the National Development Plan (South Africa, 2012:19). The DPME is the successor to the National Planning Commission, which was established as part of government's efforts to improve long-term planning and to determine a common set of objectives and priorities for South Africa as a whole (South Africa, 2010:3). The National Planning Commission (NPC) was situated in the Presidency and consisted of an advisory body of 26 people drawn largely from outside government, chosen for their expertise in key areas. In 2012 it published the National Development Plan (NDP), which states that it “envisions a South Africa where everyone feels free yet bonded to others; where everyone embraces their full potential, a country where opportunity is determined not by birth, but by ability, education and hard work. Realising such a society will require transformation of the economy and focussed efforts to build the country's capabilities. To eliminate poverty and reduce inequality, the economy must grow faster and in ways that benefit all South Africans” (South Africa, 2012:24).

The goals and objective of the NDP (South Africa, 2012:23) were an economy that would create more jobs, build capabilities, improve infrastructure, build environmental sustainability and resilience, improve the quality of education, provide quality health care for all, build safer communities and fight corruption. The NDP recognised that rural communities require greater social, economic and political opportunities and therefore gave specific attention to environmental sustainability (an equitable transition to a low-carbon economy) in Chapter 5 and an integrated and inclusive rural economy in Chapter 6.

The NDP (South Africa, 2012) served as the key policy document of government for the next 20-year phase of development in South Africa, focussed principally on the economic advancement of the poorest South Africans. To give effect to the NDP, a five-year implementation plan, namely the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) was approved by Cabinet for 2014 to 2019 (Radebe, 2014:9). Its purpose was to serve as a prioritisation framework; aimed at focussing government efforts on a set of manageable programmes. The strategic objectives and targets for rural development and land reform are summarised as follows (Radebe, 2014:9):

- Improving land administration and spatial planning for integrated development. Improving food security. Increasing access to quality basic infrastructure and services, particularly in education, healthcare and public transport.
- Growing sustainable rural enterprises and industries characterised by strong rural-urban linkages, increasing investment in agro-processing, trade development and access to markets and financial services - resulting in rural job creation.

Specific actions to achieve these goals include (South Africa, 2012:23):

- developing and implementing spatial development plans to guide how land is used, while prioritising the 27 resource-poor district municipalities;
- acquiring and allocating 2 million hectares of strategically located land for land reform;
- developing under-utilised land and bringing into production 1 million hectares of land in communal areas and land reform projects;
- expanding land under irrigation by an additional 1 250 hectares; and
- eradicating infrastructure backlog in rural schools, rural health facilities and providing rural communities with ICT infrastructure.

The National Development Plan presented a holistic view on how to improve the socio-economic status of the citizenry and encompassed land reform amongst others in improving rural community lives. However, a clearer framework on dealing with land reform was needed which is briefly examined below.

3.6.12 Rural Development Policy Framework (RDPF, 2013)

According to the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, the Rural Development Policy Framework (South Africa, 2013:4) came about as a consequence of

the effects of the dispossession of land and deprivation of land use rights, culture and social cohesion of rural black South Africa, particularly the Natives Land Act of 1913.

The principal mechanism identified through which the aims of the RDPF were to be achieved was the CRDP. To determine the extent and efficacy of rural development initiatives within the CRDP, certain measurements were identified. Firstly, basic human needs (shelter, water, sanitation, food, electricity, etc.) had to be met; secondly, rural enterprise and infrastructure (social, economic, ICT and other enabling infrastructure) had to be developed; and thirdly, rural industries for example, agri-processing, village markets and credit/finance facilities had to be established (South Africa, 2013:17). The above suggests that any rural development initiatives can succeed when rural community basic needs have been met.

The other implementation mechanisms included social mobilisation (based on community and household profiling), a council of stakeholders as planning and monitoring body (inclusion of community in the development process), the CRDP management system (cooperative governance, inclusion of the private sector and community and local leadership) and a Rural Development Agency (RDA) (South Africa, 2013:18). The purpose of the RDA was to mobilise, coordinate and manage resources; finance rural development projects; and coach and train participating co-operatives in business and managerial skills. However, instead of a “new” agency, it should rather have been a rationalisation of existing rural development agencies (South Africa, 2013:18).

Other support systems for the framework expounded upon included: a reformed communal tenure system; a democratised rural administration system; a Rural Investment and Development Financing Facility (RIDFF); a National Rural Youth Service Corps (NARYSEC); an Animal and Veld Management Programme (soil rehabilitation, re-greening the village space and decongesting the village space); a River Valley Catalytic Programme; and the revitalisation of rural towns and villages. The proposal from the Department (South Africa, 2013:26) for a Rural Investment and Development Financing Facility (RIDFF) was to ensure that the necessary institutional capacity to support the implementation of the CRDP could be provided.

The Framework (South Africa, 2013:25) emphasised the differential reality of rural areas with respect to demographic, social and economic contexts, as well as institutional capacity, which required area-specific strategies for the development of sustainable human settlements. New forms of rural settlements were proposed, as well as the transformation or improvement of existing ones. Some of the iterations of sustainable human settlements that the RDPF supported included agri-villages, SMART villages (Sustainable, Managed Assets, Resources and Technology) and agri-parks.

The framework identified two elements integral to achieving rural development, namely collaboration between a variety of partners (including alignment between different government departments and spheres) and the social mobilisation and organisation of rural people into functional groups, so that communities could effectively take charge of their own development (South Africa, 2013:26). The Rural Development Policy Framework promoted the involvement of the community and other spheres of government in the implementation of rural development programmes.

The next section explores the National Environmental Health Policy of 2013.

3.6.13 National Environmental Health Policy (2013)

The National Environment Health Policy (South Africa, 2013:18) aspired to provide a national framework for the provision of environmental health services in the country, determining the vision for environmental health and influencing health outcomes. The impetus for this policy comes from the Medium Term Strategic Framework (2009-2014) for the National Development Plan, which had as one of its goals the improvement of the health status of the South African population. It considered that avoidable environmental risk factors (with particular effect on the poorest and the most vulnerable groups of society), could be mitigated, with the broadening and deepening of the extent and scope of community involvement and social mobilisation in all aspects of health provision at local sphere (South Africa, 2013:18). Government endeavoured, through this policy, to identify development needs in environmental health, particularly for populations which lack awareness and services due to historical imbalances (South Africa, 2013:19). This was meant to be achieved by outlining environmental health services, the promotion of inter-sectoral collaboration in the provision of environmental health services and by integrating

environmental considerations with the social, political and development needs and rights of all individuals, communities and sectors. This policy therefore stated the following objectives (South Africa, 2013:19):

- promoting a legal and regulatory framework that ensures mandatory, but also supports voluntary compliance, and also facilitates policy implementation by various actors;
- formulating an institutional framework that enables efficient coordination and collaboration of the various sectors and stakeholders that have environmental health related responsibilities;
- ensuring an effective institutional capacity for rendering environmental health services;
- strengthening the capacity of environmental health personnel to become efficient agents and catalysts for desired change;
- adopting a partnership approach with the purpose of facilitating holistic and integrated planning in environmental health;
- facilitating the development and maintenance of an effective Environmental Health Management Information System;
- strengthening international co-operation on issues affecting environmental health;
- improving monitoring of environmental health conditions that may impact on the physical environment and human health;
- promoting community participation and development through empowerment in environmental health, to contribute to promotion of own health; and
- contributing to strengthening environmental hygiene programmes as part of disease prevention and health promotion.

The policy underlined the need for provision of health services and the role various actors needed to play in its implementation. At the heart of this policy was community participation through empowerment. However, a key question to be critically analysed is whether local departments were equipped to manage this framework at local level. The next section analyses the Draft Integrated Urban Development Framework of 2014.

3.6.14 Draft Integrated Urban Development Framework (2014)

The Draft Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF) (2014) was compiled by the Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), primarily in response to the National Development Plan (South Africa, 2012:9), particularly Chapter

8. Although the foremost concern of the IUDF was to provide an urban policy perspective, it also recognised the need for a spatial transformation agenda that was all-encompassing. In this regard the IUDF had been substantively informed by the NDP in its calls for spatial redress, improved spatial efficiencies and social inclusion. The IUDF also recognised that urban and rural areas were dynamically linked through flows of people, and natural and economic resources (South Africa, 2014:32). Rural development and urban development policy frameworks should strengthen these linkages, as a mechanism to achieve sustainable and inclusive development by (South Africa, 2014:32).

- linking functional geographical areas through various levers and other strategic initiatives;
- creating synergies between enterprises in urban and rural areas; and
- developing value chains between various economic sectors.

There are several strategies and proposals made in the IUDF that could support the development of sustainable rural livelihoods, for example speeding up land tenure, supporting municipalities to implement the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 (SPLUMA), developing models for civic education, building institutional capacity to engage with communities and exploring co-production mechanisms for finding solutions to local government services.

One of the policy levers espoused by the IUDF that has particular relevance to the development of sustainable rural livelihoods is that of empowered active communities. The IUDF (South Africa, 2014:22) stated that empowered active communities result in robust and sincere public participation processes, innovation and productivity, as well as improved lives of people and their physical environment. Some examples included community policing forums, school governing bodies and ward level service delivery improvement plans.

The IUDF did recognise that there were challenges in achieving its vision, which include the following (South Africa, 2014:17):

- inadequate skills and experience in government and civil society;
- lack of innovative, co-produced solution to service delivery dissatisfaction;
- limited understanding of government structures and operations; and

- a dearth of forums to promote participation and social cohesion.

Perhaps the most important contribution of the IUDF to sustainable rural livelihood planning was its emphasis on promoting active citizens who participate meaningfully in the planning and development of their immediate environment, and the proposals it made in this regard. The above suggests that any institutional framework for sustainable rural development may have to encompass other possible links between rural and urban development. However, common challenges still remained, such as an inadequate skills base at local government level, which needed to be urgently addressed. The National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security is briefly discussed below, at it is relevant to sustainable development.

3.6.14 National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security for the Republic of South Africa (2014)

As stated in Section 7.2.7, Section 27 of the Constitution, people have the right to access to sufficient food and water. The National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security was compiled to provide a broad framework for the fulfilment of this constitutional imperative, as well as to serve as a guideline to national, provincial and local government in pursuit of food and nutrition security at every level. It was considered as part of the NDP and was approved by Cabinet in September 2013, with the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF) and the Department of Social Development (DSD) nominated as lead agencies to implement the policy, supported by other line function ministries. As with most policies that aim to address a multi-dimensional issue, it emphasised well-managed inter-sectoral coordination, and the integration of existing policies and programmes in health, education, and environmental protection, as well as in agrarian reform and agricultural development (South Africa, 2014:12).

The strategic goal of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy was to ensure the availability, accessibility and affordability of safe and nutritious food at national and household levels. To achieve this, the policy intended to build on existing initiatives and systems, and to put in place mechanisms that ensured stricter alignment, better coordination and stronger oversight. In this process, it provided a framework for various strategies that included increased and better targeted public spending in social programmes which impact on food security; efforts to increase food production and

distribution, including increased access to production inputs for the emerging agricultural sector; leveraging government food procurement to support community-based food production initiatives and smallholders; and the strategic use of market interventions and trade measures which would promote food security (South Africa, 2014:18).

This section has examined several policy frameworks that were created by various national departments to deal with the challenges facing South Africans and how they could improve their general socio-economic conditions. The early frameworks such as those before 1999 highlighted the stark inequalities that significantly contributed to poverty, especially amongst rural communities such as the Rural Development Framework of 1997. However critical challenges existed in its implementation and it remained a discussion paper. Post 2000 several policy frameworks were created, such as the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy of 2001; the Comprehensive Plan for Sustainable Human Settlements of 2004 and the Rural Transport Strategy for South Africa (RTS) of 2007. These strategies, though with different objectives, were designed to improve rural communities. However, challenges with these strategy frameworks highlighted poor coordination and communication between the various stakeholders. The National Development Plan of 2012 and the Rural Development Policy Framework of 2013 further emphasised the need for land reform which was critical to deal with current inequalities, while the Rural Development Policy Framework further emphasised proper coordination between various stakeholders as well as the rural communities as key initiators of development projects. Recent policies such as the NDP of 2012; the RDPF of 2013, the RTS of 2007 and the CRDP of 2009 are more relevant for this study, as they highlighted key pillars for rural sustainable development, but also showed key challenges still facing their implementation. Any new institutional framework for sustainable development must therefore take into account the need to address initial challenges for its successful implementation and sustainability.

3.7 SYNTHESIS: POVERTY OVERVIEW AND ERADICATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to Aliber (2002:1) and Shinns and Lyne, (2003:31), the particular configuration of poverty in South Africa is a fairly straightforward outcome of colonial and apartheid engineering. The most salient elements of this engineering were large-scale land

dispossession, the establishment of increasingly overcrowded and poorly resourced homelands for the majority black population, and the migratory labour system that formed the backbone of the country's mining and industrial sectors. The geographical, racial and gender dimensions of contemporary poverty are in large measure the legacy of this historical experience (Borat & Kanbor, 2006:1192).

There are different perspectives on well-being and development that conceptualise and measure poverty in different ways. According to Barrientos *et al.*, (2010:62), in developed countries the social participation and inclusion perspectives define poverty as exclusion from cooperative activity where those in poverty are unable to take part in their communities' social life at a minimally acceptable level. In developing countries the dominant view tends to be the perspective which defines poverty as the inability of an individual or family to command sufficient resources to satisfy basic needs (Barrientos *et al.*, 2010:65). All in all, therefore, poverty can be understood as a reflection of the inability of individuals, households, families, or entire communities to attain a minimum and socially accepted standard of living measured in terms of basic consumption needs or income required to satisfy those needs (Kehler, undated). In line with this, family poverty can be described as a state in which a family earns less than a minimum amount of income (Barrientos *et al.*, 2010:67)—and where the insufficient income hampers the family's ability to adequately cover basic costs of living, including paying for food, shelter, clothing, education, health care, utilities and transport (Ahmed, 2005:11).

Section 3.3 of this chapter examined several theories of rural development starting with the Classic Economies Theory. This theory encouraged free enterprise and assumed that individuals are self-motivated to take advantage of favourable trade and entrepreneur conditions to improve their own living standards. This, according to the theory, would lead to reduction in poverty and economic growth. It further assumed that countries are similar as far as styles and cultures are concerned. Yet in reality this may not be the case, especially from a developing country perspective where the majority of people in developing countries still live in poverty (Graaff, 2001:64), and this theory suggested that modernisation takes place as a result of open and free enterprise, but has not really taken place in many developing countries.

In the context of South Africa, several of the rural development frameworks suggest a state led agenda in alleviating poverty amongst the most vulnerable people (Gwanya, 2010:21). The approach envisaged here is integrated rural development whereby the state, through its organs, provides basic social services to people, especially the vulnerable in both urban and rural areas. Integrated Rural Development was considered to be a pro-poor, rural development strategy, participatory in nature, in which the rural poor were expected to run their own development agenda. There was no specific focus on any particular activity, but on several activities which could be agricultural and non-agricultural activities (Livingstone, 1979). Apart from upscaling subsistence agriculture into commercial farming linkage to this type of farming such as agro-processing, agribusiness and related rural industries were also introduced to diversify rural economies. This would ultimately lead to increased employment opportunities and create local demand for produced goods. Key to the success of this approach was local participation of the rural communities (Nemes, 2005:14) who were to be empowered by their participation and thus take part in national development (Nemes, 2005:14). However, as already seen, some of the failures of these frameworks were partly due to a lack of full participation of the rural communities, especially from the initial planning phase (Nemes, 2005:14; De Janvry, 2004:88).

Related to the above approach is the Basic Needs Approach which envisages the provision of human basic needs such as clean water, basic shelter, food, clothing and security (Harvey, 2008:124). Most developing countries including South Africa have devoted some of their national budgets to subsidising health facilities, education, housing, provision of clean water and other facilities. Such services provided by the state are referred to as public goods (Obadan, 2008:87). In general, it was expected that the communities in need of such goods identified these items, and strategies lay in the hands of these people in providing solutions to some of these challenges. However, the issue with this approach was that the affected people did not necessarily determine what they urgently needed, but these were determined by the local governments and in some cases international agencies. In some cases it is not clear what basic needs are, and they may vary depending on what the state considers or terms basic needs. In addition, the task of providing such needs to all citizens is an enormous one, and it may not necessarily be possible to ensure that all citizens do receive these basic needs (De Janvry, 2004).

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the conceptualisation and various theories of rural development, as well as previous and current regulatory frameworks used to deal with rural development in South Africa. The need to eradicate poverty, especially in the rural areas, must be dealt with holistically, as this would enable rural communities. As already highlighted, the term rural development is of great interest globally and is generally a recognised term in both the developed and the developing world. But the challenge has been coming up with a definition that is acceptable and rightfully speaks to or resonates with rural development. As a result it has been used under several narratives such as community development, integrated rural development and even green revolution. These narratives relate to the changing circumstances which could be socio-political and even environmental aspects, all which need to be taken into consideration. In the same vein theories of rural development have also evolved with the times, with the initial ones proposing self-motivation which would lead to enrichment of individuals. However the late 19th Century theories of rural development suggest that any strategies for rural development must focus on the needs of the poor, and that this must envisage their total participation in formulation of policies which ultimately they would run themselves.

In the context of South Africa, several policy frameworks have been designed to deal with the plight of the poor, with more recent focus on the rural communities. However challenges such as proper coordination, commitment, as well as the inadequate ability of those tasked to implement rural strategies have plagued these rural frameworks. What this means for this study is that proper structures must be in place, all relevant stakeholders must be involved, especially the rural communities, to ensure that rural development frameworks are applicable and the projects sustainable. The next chapter provides for the international best practices of sustainable rural development for poverty eradication.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICES OF SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT FOR POVERTY ERADICATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The research in this chapter aims to present the international best practices in providing rural development for implementation with the aim to eradicate poverty. Therefore, this chapter reviews international rural development programmes, specifically looking at best practices globally, lessons learnt in the implementation of such programmes and strategies to eradicate poverty through rural development. This is done in order to advise or to guide the programmes set in South Africa for improvement and implementation. Rural development and poverty eradication strategies have become the core of development in the country, due to the poverty gap existing between rural and urban communities, hence the shift in focus to rural development as a strategy to eradicate poverty and continue to monitor the implementation of the programmes to eradicate poverty (Mubangizi, 2009:446).

Rural area poverty eradication programmes in the country clearly follow a development framework through the implementation of policies and programmes which are highlighted in this study. All the programmes aim at ensuring increased access to basic services for people residing in rural areas and the delivery of socio-economic infrastructure in deep rural areas in one way or the other. However, this is dependent on how poverty is defined and measured.

The Republic of South Africa embarked on a developmental route since democracy. At first it was the Reconstruction and Development Plan (RDP) which propagated an activist role for the state to intervene in the economy, engender economic growth, and redistribute wealth. The Growth, Employment, and Redistribution (GEAR) Programme, implemented in 1996, gave prominence to market forces in setting the development agenda. In 2011, the South African government-appointed National Planning Commission (NPC) released the National Development Plan (NDP), which committed the nation to 'building a capable

state' that would eradicate poverty and create 11 million jobs, including 1 million rural jobs, by 2030 (National Planning Commission, 2012:31).

South Africa and in particular the DRDLR, may benefit from considering international best practice for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication. This, according to Hamilton (2014:53), is the reason that South Africa identified rural development as the key strategy to fight unemployment and poverty in rural communities. Considering international best practices may help the DRDLR and other rural development stakeholders in monitoring the performance of programmes. This has and can affect the prospect of the government advancing the livelihoods of the rural poor (World Bank, 2013:7). Moynihan and Vasconcelos (2014:28) argue that at the centre of rural development is the community participation which translates to a more accountable public service that ensures service delivery.

In some African countries, as well as those in South East Asia, agriculture is the mainstay of the local economies (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2016:12). But this has not transformed the livelihoods of the citizenry who continue to live in poverty. Rising out-migration from the rural areas to the urban areas, particularly of the younger, able bodied as well as skilled population, clearly shows that staying in the rural areas is not a viable option, particularly with the lower levels of development coupled with high unemployment rates (Naseem, 2002:1). Furthermore, rural communities still face the prospects of hunger, resulting from crop failures. The added lack of technology, finance and knowledge, as well as a lack of access to markets where they could sell their harvests, further entrenches poverty within and amongst the communities. This is why there is a growing need to totally transform the rural areas, which means increased agricultural productivity, rising non-agricultural employment opportunities, more access to services and infrastructure, which all have a policy implication. According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), rural transformation must be inclusive, whereby rural people are brought into the mainstream economy and reap the benefits of the current economy (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2016:13). For it to bear any fruit, rural transformation must take place within the context of structural transformation taking place within the country. Where agricultural productivity is increased it leads to the diversification of production patterns, as well as the increase in the general living conditions of people within the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2016:15).

Globally there have been attempts by governments and partner agencies to institute programmes to deal with poverty in rural areas. With the use of various approaches, attempts have been made to improve the lives of rural people. With specific examples the next section looks at various programmes which have been implemented in order to boost the rural economies.

4.2 RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN LATIN AMERICA

In South and Central America, rural poverty has remained high, and while many countries in the region have shown marked socio-economic development, including relatively high growth rates, rural communities have continued to live in abject poverty (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2016:15). As small scale farmers and rural workers in Mexico and other Central American countries continue to examine what the future holds, the lack of opportunities, especially for the young people, has created a platform for people to abandon the rural areas for the urban centres or even opportunities in other countries (Schneider *et al.*, 2014:165). Governments, policy-makers and rural populations continue to be concerned about rural poverty and food insecurity (Bateman & Brochardt, 2013:6). Additionally, governments and international donors have become increasingly concerned about rural development and food security, after seeing the negative effects on the rural sector caused by the increase in natural disasters and drought associated with climate change (McGranahan & Satterthwaite, 2014:4). The growing concern about rural poverty has not yet translated into sustained action (Christiaensen & Todo, 2014:58). Despite this, there are some examples of continued investment in the rural people through agriculture and local economic development. Below are some of the rural development programmes in some of the selected countries in this region which are also explored.

4.2.1 Rural development in Brazil

The following section explores rural development programmes in Brazil.

4.2.1.1 Food Acquisition Programme

There have been some positive policy changes with regard to rural development in Brazil from the early 1970's up to the mid-1990's. Rural development was seen as a way of providing social assistance to the poor, but also as a means of uplifting rural communities. This is why the government designed new policies that would enable local players to be

actively involved in planning, design and implementation of these policies that were created to improve their wellbeing (Schneider & Nierdele, 2010:393). This also meant that all forms of decision-making were decentralised to local councils, with regard to the implementation of these policies focussed on sustainable development. Under its former leader Luiz Inacio Lula Da Silva, a comprehensive approach was created to deal with the plight of the rural people that suffered from hunger. The Zero Hunger Strategy was sponsored by two Brazilian government ministries, namely the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food Supply and the Ministry of Agrarian Development, whereby food was bought from local farmers (Leao & Maluf, 2012:63). The Food Acquisition Programme was specifically created to address the challenges of rural poverty, hunger and food insecurity through ensuring that local products were sold in local markets, some of which were purchased by local government. This Programme provides funding to cooperatives, as well as other local organisations linked to local farmers to build food reserves, where foodstuffs can be stored for post-harvest periods when supply is lower and the market price is more favourable. The added advantage of the programme to the local community is that it uses the governments' purchasing power to support small rural farmers, as well as ensuring that these small farmers' products are given first preference in the purchase of their farm products (Mesquita & Bursztyn, 2017:1049). According to Mesquita and Bursztyn (2017:1049), some of the key components of this Programme include:

- identifying and defining whose products can be bought through this programme;
- ensuring that government purchasers buy the products at fixed, fair prices based on market averages from the local farmers, with no bidding process that may impact negatively on the prices; and
- instituting a system of direct food purchases from family farmers by the government.

In addition to government purchases, part of the food stuffs are sold to schools and hospitals through the local municipalities. In 2009, the national government passed a law ensuring that local government purchased at least 30% of all local food products from the local farmers to be used for the school meal programmes (Agapto *et al.*, 2012:103). One key aspect of this Programme is that contracts are signed with local community cooperatives, organisations and even family farmers, to buy food products from them at fixed prices for a 12 month period. All products are guaranteed to be sold at fixed prices

and are also sold to the open market. This Programme also ensures that the cooperatives, as well as other local community organisations, are equipped with skills related to financial planning, organisational management and are also encouraged to work together to gain access to the open market (Adelman *et al.*, 2013:55). Since its inception in 2003, farmers have been allowed to sell more of their products, and the number of rural families selling food through the Programme has also increased to about 48 000 families by 2011 benefitting from the Programme (Grisa & Schmitt, 2013:101). Also by the end of 2011 over 350 different farm products were purchased from these families, compared to an initial 35 products in 2003 (Agapto *et al.*, 2012:103). This Programme covers 45% of the country which equates to 5564 local municipalities. The results of this Programme have seen a significant increase in family incomes, as well as close working relationships between local municipalities and cooperatives. Furthermore, it has also led to increased support for organic agriculture, with those families engaged in this form of agriculture receiving at least 30% more income than those who used conventional methods (A & Norton, 2011:139). The Programme also ensures that a minimum quota of women headed households participate in the programme, thereby boosting incomes and overall wellbeing of women in general (Adelman *et al.*, 2013:57).

One identified limitation of the Programme is that only families and local cooperatives that are registered with the government benefit. There is, thus, a strong argument made for the requirement that small producers work through cooperatives or associations; which fosters efficiency and reduces costs, as well as making both marketing and technical assistance easier. In limiting participation to formally organised entities, it excludes the smallest, most marginalised farmers that experience the most extreme forms of poverty (Bateman & Brochardt, 2013:11). There is also the argument that the Programme created indebtedness for some local farmers who had to make advanced purchases for their products, but were later unable to meet their obligation. This was due to lack of skills and weather conditions, and while the government farm insurance programme should have covered for such losses, many of the farmers were not aware of such a programme. Despite these short-comings, the Food Acquisition Programme has promoted rural development in areas where it was implemented (Grisa & Schmitt, 2013:111). The direct purchase of food products from local farmers by government institutions has helped secure reliable markets for these farmers, and it also provided them with a reliable source of income. This programme has further improved the capacities of local civil society

organisations through partnerships with local and federal governments, and it has transformed the public policy-making process with respect to rural communities by involving them in the process of putting together and reviewing the programmes at the local level, recognising that the communities understand local realities and have innovative ideas (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2016:19).

Similar to the above programme, the Fome Zero (Zero Hunger) Programme was also designed to raise rural incomes of the poor families by ensuring that hunger and nutrition were drastically eliminated (Paes-Sousa & Viatsman, 2014:1). The focus was on the demand aspect of food security, cash transfers, targeted food delivery and its supply side through support to small-scale and family farmers. Evaluation of the results of this programme revealed that the programme lowered infant and childhood mortality rates (Paes-Sousa & Viatsman, 2014:1). The national government partially amended its Constitution to include the right to food (United Nations, 2012:32). It should be pointed out that as a result of its vast fertile lands, agriculture is a major contributor in terms of total exports and also plays a significant role in as far as creation of employment opportunities is concerned. This is why there is continued growth in opportunities in agri-businesses such as processing, logistics, retail and processing production. This has and continues to lead to improved development in rural infrastructure. These opportunities are being supported by existing policies such as export support, financial assistance in terms of loans, infrastructure development as well as tax exemptions (Martinelli *et al.*, 2011:426). The importance of the above programmes highlights the need to ensure that rural communities are not just self-sufficient in producing food for their own consumption, but are also to benefit from the sale of their food to other communities. This further uplifts their income levels and improves their overall living standards. In essence, support for any rural programmes is important, but mostly to focus on ensuring their sustainability (Martinelli *et al.*, 2011:426).

4.2.1.2 The Light for All Programme

The aim of this programme, locally known as the Luz Para Todos Programme, was to provide electricity to the citizens of Brazil by the end of 2015, especially amongst the rural communities who mainly relied on electricity supplies from fossil fuels (Valer *et al.*, 2017:1038). It has been indicated that over 250 000 jobs were created as a result of this programme, with at least 2.9 million families now benefiting from it (Nerini *et al.*, 2014:38). There has also been increased quality of life through improved health and education

facilities, as well as service delivery (United Nations, 2012:34). The country is also leading in the processing of bio fuels such as ethanol from sugarcane which supplements its energy and transport needs (United Nations, 2012:37). In 2009 sugarcane production covered more than half of all cropland in Brazil, which translated into continued employment opportunities, but also infrastructure development in rural areas (Valer *et al.*, 2017:1040). Agri-business as it is called leads to other benefits in the industry and services which all accrue to the poor. The results show a positive impact on economic and social development (Rojas-Zerpa & Yusta, 2014:116). Agro-processing which is the processing of agricultural produce, has a positive effect on livelihoods and equality in rural Brazil (Martinelli *et al.*, 2011:426). The provision of services as seen in the above programme leads to other benefits such as job creation, which is crucial in addressing poverty. Any policy must factor in the need for provision of services, which in turn would lead to job creation.

From the above discussion it can be deduced that the effective implementation of sustainable rural development was mainly due to the government of Brazil having designed new policies that enabled local players to be actively involved in the planning, design and implementation of these policies that were created to improve their wellbeing. Communities in the rural areas were participating from the beginning, and they were actively involved in the programme implementation. Participation included forms of decision-making delegated to local councils with regard to the implementation of these policies that are focussed on sustainable development to eradicate poverty. Programmes in Brazil were specifically created to address the challenges of rural poverty, hunger and food insecurity, through ensuring that local products were sold in local markets, some of which were purchased by local government. This means that the programmes were targeting specific needs of the poor people with specific programme outcomes, where results were achieved and also measured. It can then be argued that programmes must be designed with a specific intent and purpose that have performance indicators that are measurable. There was also cooperation from the national government ministries to the level of local government. This implies that the stakeholders of rural development were actively involved in the programme with a common purpose. There was also a market created for products of the Rural Development Programme with the government leading by example by creating purchase contracts for these products. This improved the income

levels of the poor, who are also beneficiaries in these programmes. Government and its ministries must take the lead in creating markets for poor local people.

4.2.2 Rural development in Argentina

The following section discusses rural development in Argentina.

4.2.2.1 Rural development project for the North Western provinces (PRODERNEA)

Similar to Brazil, agriculture in Argentina plays a significant role in as far as exports and job opportunities are concerned (Witkowski *et al.*, 2016:10). In 2001 the country faced its worst economic crises with the devaluation of its currency (Nash, 2012:44). Ironically this period benefited some sectors, especially those in the export market. This included the agricultural sector, which benefited from an increase in the price of exports and the devaluation of the pesos. There was increased production of the soy crop which yielded better international returns than other crops (Mendes, 2011:25). However, in 2003 the government under Nestor Kirchner imposed export restrictions and increased its pricing on all land holdings creating friction between itself and the main agricultural organisations. As a result, a compromise was met between the parties where a high exchange rate for exports and a policy of subsidising concentrated agricultural holdings would be maintained (Nussbaumer, 2004:73).

In Argentina, the indigenous communities are the most affected by poverty (Verner, 2006:1). These communities include farmers, rural labourers and families with no fixed incomes. As in most developing countries, youth unemployment is especially challenging in Argentina, especially in rural areas with migration amongst the youth a common occurrence. The Argentinian government together with international agencies such as the International Fund for Agricultural Development, have developed programmes to reduce rural poverty and increase the incomes of rural communities (Witkowski *et al.*, 2016:10). The broad aim of the PRODERNEA Programme which was implemented in 1995, was to raise incomes of the indigenous and rural communities in four north east provinces of Argentina (Chaco, Corrientes, Formosa and Misiones) as well as strengthening their productivity related to human and natural assets. The project was made up of four key components (Verner, 2006:3):

- provision of financial services to all the stakeholders in the project;
- provision of technical assistance with the aim of supporting local production;
- creation of a special fund for the indigenous people; and
- provision of organisational support to the local community-based organisations, especially the cooperative societies.

The project started under very difficult circumstances as a result of its project design flaws, which included that not all stakeholders were engaged in the initial planning, especially the local communities and women in particular. In addition it also became difficult to access all the communities as a result of the remote nature of some of the provinces (Caballero, 2005:54). The project was implemented in two phases: Phase 1 between 1996 and 2002 and the second phase from 2002 onwards. In the year 2001 when there was a financial crisis in Argentina, as a result of funding challenges, the programme was downscaled. However with a new political dispensation in 2002, there was substantial improvement in the implementation, as there was greater cooperation between the central government, the local authorities of the 4 provinces and the beneficiaries (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:63; Eakin & Wehbe, 2009:363).

As a result of better cooperation between all stakeholders, the beneficiaries were able to use the financial backing to acquire mechanised farm equipment such as tractors (Eakin & Wehbe, 2009:363). Further investments were made in clean water and there was also further production in other farm products such as honey, with overall productivity exceeding over 50% which had a substantially positive impact on food security in the region (Lapegna, 2016:104). Developmental strategies focussed on: strengthening rural producer associations; the participation and strengthening of rural organisations; inclusion of indigenous people in all rural development initiatives; participation of beneficiaries in programme decision-making processes and a cross-cutting gender approach (Giraudy, 2015:22).

To further improve future programme outputs, several key rural development policy recommendations were made which are briefly summarised below (Trivelli, 2019:80):

- Negotiate a framework agreement at the national level, within which specific projects will be negotiated with each jurisdiction. In big nations with centralised constitutional

structures such as Argentina, more review is required for any future project proposals advocating for decentralised implementation in the provinces. There is a need for a thorough analysis of needs to be given to the impact of gradually incorporating the provinces over time, as naturally occurs, and to the specificities and autonomies involved in different administrative and political jurisdictions. Each of the projects under the framework agreement should be negotiated with the provincial authorities accompanied by explicit statements of political intent to implement them by stakeholders. Also, operating regulations beyond general guidelines should be established in the course of each specific negotiation process (Trivelli, 2019:83).

- Support social capital through cooperation amongst various economic actors in rural development, as a strategic thrust for development policies and projects. It is important to exceed the known restrictions of family farming to incorporate the development of all relevant territorial actors. The following elements should be integrated in rural development: supporting the consolidation of existing local and regional organisations; linking producers and the entire rural population with virtuous commercial and industrial value chains; linking producers with all public and private services providing support for production and a better quality of life for rural society (Trivelli, 2019:94).
- Support the rural technical assistance services system so that it can provide holistic responses to the producers' demands. It is thus suggested that expanding the range of technical services beyond the current concentration on aspects of production should include multi-disciplinary teams with experience in areas such as marketing, commercialisation and organisational strengthening, to ensure that the continuity of the technical assistance is guaranteed throughout the process (Trivelli, 2019:94).

According to Trivelli (2019:95), it was also important to support initiatives to develop or strengthen inter-institutional partnerships with public and private organisations, such as for example the National Institute of Agricultural Technology:

- Promote the development of institutional frameworks that promote cooperative contracting of private technicians, with the collaboration of public authorities when necessary, particularly at the project organisation and start-up stages (Trivelli, 2019:98).
- Design and implement differentiated and specialised projects to improve living conditions for the indigenous population. These projects should be independent of

those targeted to commercially oriented family farmers, leading to effective affirmative action. Such projects should be designed and implemented by multi-disciplinary technical teams trained to work with indigenous people, in participatory initiatives under the leadership of social actors that focus on improving the lives of the target groups. A consistent institutional framework is also necessary, that provides for advocating and developing policies that meet the needs of beneficiaries (Trivelli, 2019:86).

- Environmental sustainability should play a central role in rural development strategy. The challenge associated with a larger pressure on natural resources (water, soil, vegetation) as a consequence of the expansion of the agricultural frontier, more intensive production methods, and a limited environmental awareness is a key issue that needs to be addressed beyond the possibilities of individual projects. This situation calls for policy dialogue at local, provincial and national levels focussing on sustainability (Trivelli, 2019:99).

The deduction to be made from the above discussion in proposing an institutional framework for sustainable rural development is that the national government must agree to the implementation framework with the provincial government. There must also be a thorough review of needs of the community, with the community being actively involved. Community participation should also include political organisation with a political intent made clear. A technical team must be established to resolve technical issues during implementation. It is also important to support initiatives to develop or strengthen interinstitutional partnerships with public and private organisations which offer technical expertise and financial support.

4.2.2.2 The Jefas Programme

The Jefas Programme was created in the late 2001 during the economic crisis that gripped the country, focussing on the unemployed populace that fell below the poverty and indigence lines (Verner, 2006:37; Weller, 2016:275). To minimise corruption thereby ensuring its effectiveness, several conditions were imposed, and are briefly listed below (Verner, 2006:37; Weller, 2016:275):

- applicants must show that they are indeed unemployed by presenting a sworn statement and that they have dependants such as children who are in school and have been vaccinated;

- all applicants must register for any form of assistance in person and not through intermediaries;
- applicants that benefit from this programme must do some form of community work as well as participate in training courses to increase their employment prospects in the future;
- small organisations that offer jobs to unemployed heads of households are to receive a short-term subsidy from the national government for partial payment of the individual's salary; and
- all key stakeholders such as local government officials, non-governmental organisations as well as faith-based organisations will assist in reviewing applications, so that the programme continues to assist those who really need it.

This programme was financed from export taxes obtained from grains and oil seeds, with the government expected to raise over a billion dollars each year in additional revenues, nearly sufficient to finance the subsidy (Tcherneva, 2013:401). This programme was widely seen as successful, because it reduced overall unemployment, as well as compensating those who lost during the 2001 crises, thereby reducing extreme poverty (Zhang, 2013:11). With further assistance from the World Bank, the programme expanded to cover 2 million households, even though this programme did not necessarily focus on the rural poor. Revenues from government exports could be invested in programmes that can further generate revenue from exports of products from rural communities.

In the context of South Africa it can be deduced from the above discussion that for rural development to be effectively implemented, there should be proper measures to target and record the beneficiaries in the programme. The beneficiaries need to be taken into consideration, and the review and approval of these beneficiaries should be performed by an independent body consisting of representatives from all stakeholders. The programmes for rural development require adequate funding and should be provided for.

4.2.2.3 PSA-Social Programme for Agriculture

This programme started at the beginning of 1994, to provide credit especially for the rural peasants covering about twenty-one provinces (Manzanal, 2000:77; Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017:2). Within a seven year period about \$30.6 million in credit had been transferred to the peasant sector. It had assisted close to 38 000 households which

represented a quarter of the Argentinean peasant population that took part in over 5 800 projects providing credit, training, technical assistance and marketing support (Food and Agriculture, 2017:2). The two main objectives of the programme are listed below (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017:3):

- to contribute to the increase of rural community households' incomes; and
- to promote the participation and social organisation of the local community sector in decision-making processes regarding policies and programmes.

The aim of this programme was to directly target the peasants as the beneficiaries, who were small scale farmers living in mainly rural Argentina. The structure of the programme was that it was administered at national level, while at provincial level all projects were evaluated. The implementation of the programme required and encouraged beneficiaries to participate at all levels, including the design phase supported by extension workers. The extension workers also assisted in identifying and organising the groups of beneficiaries. Once the project was approved for a particular group, technical assistance was thus provided in the form of field visits and meetings. These groups were strongly advised to be part and parcel of decision-making processes by attending local and regional meetings (Wingeyer *et al.*, 2015:2231). The programme had three forms of credit to support various activities which included: consumable products costing less than \$200 were subsidised, and were to be reimbursed for delivery of part of production to community institutions; the second form was credit offered for traditional crops which included lower risk activities, and the third form was credit for innovative and experimental activities, which involved about 7.2% of total credit reaching less than 5% of the household beneficiaries. The maximum amount of loans per family was \$1200, with the average over \$600. Each group had on average 6.5 farmers (Wingeyer *et al.*, 2015:2231).

The PSA regulations ensured that all credit beneficiaries used the credit received for its intended purposes, and were made to attend training courses to ensure that the projects did not fail. The PSA adopted a lower interest rate of 6% per year which depended on the activities of each group, with varying conditions of repayment of between one to seven years. The success of the PSA lies in the fact that over 80% of the beneficiaries had access to credit within the targeted population, with nine out of ten of the targeted population accessing credit for the first time (Viglizzo *et al.*, 2011:113). In general, there was also a high level participation in the policies and processes by the peasants, and most

of the project's objectives were met, such as improvement in the quality and quantity of production; adaptation of better technologies and skills and increased household assets (Viglizzo *et al.*, 2011:113). By the year 2000 more women beneficiaries had access to credit, which at that time represented about 28% of all recipients (Wingeyer *et al.*, 2015:2231). Despite some of the successes of this programme, the amount of credit was not sufficient for the beneficiaries, and accessing these loans was a lengthy process (Benencia, 1997:43). Of great concern, were the high default rates of the peasants towards making repayments on the loans, which eventually made the programme unsustainable towards the latter part of its life cycle (Sturzenegger & Zettelmeyer, 2006:81). Some of the reasons for the high default rates were due to natural calamities, crop failure or low output-price issues; mistakes in assessing the poverty level (or debt-capacity) of potential clients, providing over-sized credits, and an unwillingness to repay the credit by some farmers who were aware of the PSA's inability to effectively enforce repayments (Sturzenegger & Zettelmeyer, 2017:83). It is imperative that policies designed to alleviate rural poverty take cognisance of the vulnerabilities of agriculture, especially the reliance on nature. Climatic changes are not easily predictable which may create variations in outputs (Tapella, 2002:18).

The learning derived from these programmes is that although programmes were implemented by the national government, there was evaluation performed by beneficiaries, and this was an independent activity from the national government. Community or stakeholder participation was encouraged at all levels, such as from designing of programmes until the programme implementation phase.

From the above exploration, it can be deduced that there is need for cooperation between various stakeholders in promoting and preserving rural development programmes. Therefore, the development of an institutional framework must take cognisance of the need for cooperation amongst stakeholders, whilst ensuring that any rural development programmes preserve the environment.

The PSA Programme made financing for participants available and eased up the process to access the finance facility in the form of loans that were granted to peasants/farmers. There was tailor-made debt payment of the credit afforded to participants, which was also seen as an incentive to participate in the programme. Repayment of funding made

available for rural development programmes creates an opportunity for rural development to be sustainable and to be extended further to more beneficiaries.

Another deduction to be made is that the programmes were designed with the objectives to: sustain themselves by re-investing back into the programmes, make financial resources available, and budget provision which are critical requirements for successful implementation of sustainable rural development programmes to eradicate poverty. These were adequately planned for and made available. Beneficiaries from the programmes were actively participating and giving back to the programme to sustain it. There was also proper identification or targeting of beneficiaries. All levels of government were involved from national to local government. The effective implementation of rural development programmes requires rural poverty strategy to be well focussed on the truly poor families, and on helping young families to make the transition to life in rural areas. This will require a more targeted focus on education for poor families and on the acquisition of skills required to compete in an increasingly urban world.

4.3 RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN ASIA

About 70% of the world's rural population are found in Asia and the Pacific. Agriculture still remains the largest employer in these regions, despite its declining share of the gross domestic product (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017:3). The per capita arable and permanent cropland availability in the region is less than half of that of the rest of the world (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017:4). It is estimated that around 2.8 billion people in this region were undernourished, most in the two populous nations of China and India. The high levels of rural poverty and hunger in the region persist due to lack of secure livelihoods for the marginalised rural poor, lack of adequate non-farm rural employment opportunities, declining public investment in agriculture and rural development, lack of participatory decision-making and the inability of rural producers to take advantage of the new opportunities created by the liberalisation and globalisation of agricultural trade (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017:13).

While many countries in the region can internally mobilise the resources needed to meet sustainable development needs, the poorest nations lack adequate funds for their basic investment needs. Providing the poorest nations with access to developed world markets can be a highly effective way to generate the funds needed for investment in sustainable

rural development (Food and Agriculture Organisation, 2017:14). It is critical that other related investments such as road infrastructure are done in the rural areas. This and other rural investments would have a direct impact on rural agriculture. Any framework must incorporate developments in infrastructure that would boost rural agriculture. The following discussion will highlight programmes implemented in Russia, India and China.

4.3.1 Rural development in Russia

The contemporary relevance of ensuring sustainable rural development is stipulated, on the one hand, by the growing economic and social backwardness of rural territories, and on the other hand, by their ultimate importance for the nation in such issues as food security, preservation of soil and environmental resources, and the utilisation of agricultural, production and labour potential. One of the key conditions of sustainable rural development is sufficient employment, which provides rural inhabitants with a sustainable income which is competitive in comparison to urban territories (Erokhin *et al.*, 2014:18).

4.3.1.1 Tourism development in Yurino Village

Russia is undergoing a variety of industrial and social reforms, as it attempts to move beyond its Communist past. Tourism and the infrastructure to support tourism were never developed under the Soviet Union. However, the Russian Republic recognises the economic potential of tourism and is making efforts to modernise or develop the nation's attractions and tourism infrastructure (Molchanenko, 2013:21). About 27% of the entire Russian population lives in rural areas. However, rural to urban migration has contributed to the fall in the rural population, especially the young and economically active people moving to larger cities. Agriculture is the major economic activity in the rural areas, accounting for nearly half of all rural jobs. In general, sustainable rural development means providing for the economic, social and environmental needs of rural communities, which must translate into improvement of quality of life, better infrastructure and population increase (Petrikov, 2007:2). The previous rural development strategies have not assisted the rural communities. This has partly been due to a lack of financial assistance urgently required for rural development programmes. As a result, there have been no proper facilities, which has been further exacerbated by the fact there has been poor coordination between local government departments with regard to implementation and better agricultural policies (Zhuravel, 2011:34).

Local policies have favoured urban areas at the expense of rural areas. There has been a general neglect of any form of agricultural investment in the rural areas, so much so that local production has continued to decline (Petrikov, 2007:6). However, the national government has identified historical and cultural resources as an important contributor to local economic growth (Ramathun & Williams, 2010:66). Part of these historical sites included an old estate which belonged to the Sheremetevs, who fled the country during the Communist revolution. Attempts have been made to restore the estate, which is located along the Volga River. This initiative was implemented together with local government and the communities, with the aim of creating economic opportunities and protecting the local heritage. Initial funding was sought from the state government (Ramathun & Williams, 2010:67). A key advantage of this area was its rich history, as well as a favourable location near the local Volga River making it easy for tourists to access the town via water (Ramathun & Williams, 2010:67). In addition to the estate, there are scenic attractions that local and international tourists could look forward to. This also led to increased cruise ship travel on the Volga River (Kovalenko, 2012:88).

However, the remoteness of the area and the lack of tourism experience in management was an initial drawback. In addition, due to the harsh winter season the river freezes for long periods, which means that tourists can only visit the area for 6 months (Ramathun & Williams, 2010: 66). Of great concern are the political ideologies still embedded within the community, who feel that their involvement is insignificant with regard to decision-making, which they see as still done by political leaders (Kovalenko, 2012:89). Key approaches include the creation of more recreation areas, and the upscaling of the local culture, which is inclusive of preparation of indigenous food cuisines and traditional dance. There is also a need for stakeholder participation, including local communities, so that they can reap the benefits of tourism (Ramathun & Williams, 2010:67). Job opportunities other than agriculture must be exploited to the advantage of the rural communities. This means that any potential framework must also look at other opportunities outside agriculture.

The stakeholder participation is essential, as non-governmental organisation groups typically facilitate communication and discussion amongst stakeholders and help to lay out a process by which the community may proceed towards its shared goals. This allows effective and active participation of the community. Involvement of development experts and interest groups invited to participate in the community planning process for a rural community occurred, which also served as information sharing about the programme and

its goals. Issues of culture can also impede rural development progress and goals, which are barriers that must be taken into account at the planning phase. Local stakeholders, actors and the structures of local government must be identified as conditions that must be overcome for collaborative planning to work in rural development.

4.3.1.2 Rural development in the Stavropol Region

The Stavropol Region is one of the entities of the Russian Federation which has a distinct agricultural specialisation, which includes food security, preservation of soil and environmental resources, and the utilisation of agricultural, production and farm labour potential. The region is located in southern Russia with a land mass area of 66.2 thousand square kilometres of land, including 58 000 km² of arable land (Kiseleva & Orlyanskaya, 2012:14). Further to the distinct agricultural specialisation in this region, the retail sector is also a dominant sector in the region and the overall economic growth of the region is well above that of other regions and the national average. The region is also dominated by the agricultural sector and contributed about 24.8% of the region's income in 2011. The total volume of agricultural production of the Stavropol Region in 2011 was over two billion euros which was 15.4% more than the previous year. In 2011, plant production increased by 20.2% and animal production by 5.9%. As a result of the agricultural sector over 156 000 people were employed by 289 agricultural organisations. The main agricultural crop was wheat with grain crops forming the mainstay of production (Bonderenko, 2011:72).

Nearly 43% of the population in this region live in rural areas, which is why the state government has realised the need for rural development in these areas. Rural urban migration is dominant in this region similar to other areas in Russia, and this is a direct threat to sustainable development leading to further deterioration of the rural economies (Kiseleva *et al.*, 2013:52). The rate of unemployment in rural areas of the Stavropol Region is still very high, above 30% in 2011 (Kiseleva *et al.*, 2013:52). Unemployment rates have continued to rise, particularly in the rural areas, as a result of low economic activity. Other issues that rural populations have to contend with are lack of basic facilities and the fact that most of the rural populations do not have the requisite skills, which hampers any technological and innovative expansion of industries (Kiseleva & Orlyanskaya, 2012:28). Realising the challenges in the region, the Russian Federation incorporated the Federal Target Programme, a programme that was initiated in 2014 lasting for 6 years with three key priorities as listed below, including (Erokhin *et al.*, 2014:19):

- ensuring that the needs of the rural populations are addressed, inclusive of young families in proper dwellings;
- development of facilities in these rural areas such as social and transport infrastructure; and
- provision of grants for local initiatives to rural communities.

However, the above key priorities need to be supported by regional and local administrators in the following ways (Erokhin *et al.*, 2014:19):

- provision of free relevant information, finance, management and extension services to the rural people;
- provision of affordable credit facilities to rural communities, especially those who want to start businesses;
- tax rebates for small and medium agricultural enterprises and farms at their developmental stages; and
- development of rural infrastructure such as transport and communication facilities as well as social and entertainment centres.

The diversification of local economies and expansion of other income generating opportunities for the rural communities is necessary for rural sustainability. This envisages moving away from traditional agricultural activities (Erokhin *et al.*, 2014:21). The region is famous for its other potential tourist attractions including a good climate, spa resorts and picturesque landscapes. In addition, current transport networks such as road, air and railway networks allow for easy access to the area. However, compared to other foreign and local Russian regions, this region is not a favourable tourist destination (Kiseleva *et al.*, 2013:23).

The local communities would need to be first sensitised about the benefits of tourism to their area. Rural tourism in the region is forecast to grow which is why the involvement of the rural communities is necessary for new employment opportunities (Kiseleva *et al.*, 2013:23). An inflow of tourists would also increase the demand for local products such as local foodstuffs resulting in increased supply and development of local industries. Agriculture alone cannot transform rural areas. All potential avenues for income generation that would boost economic growth must be factored in for any sustainable form of rural development (Erokhin *et al.*, 2014:22). In essence, the dependence on one sector

to transform rural economies may not be sustainable. The above example clearly indicates that any institutional framework must encompass other sectors that have the potential to be sustainable.

The above discussion emphasises the importance of inclusive rural development that also targets the youth. The areas of providing relevant information, finance, management and extension services to the rural people are critical on the side of the public sector, to ensure the effective implementation of sustainable rural development. To ensure sustainability of rural development programmes, it is vital to ensure that rural development programmes generate some form of income. There must be diversification of development initiatives, rather than focussing on one development area.

4.3.1.3 Local tourism development in Arkhangelsk Region

Like many other rural communities in Russia, issues such as unemployment, depopulation and poverty are a common occurrence. However, local authorities in the Arkhangelsk Region have taken initiatives to identify the tourism potential of the area. The capital of the region called Arkhangelsk as of 2011 had a population of just 355,000 people. This area is located to the north west of Russia covering about 411,000 square kilometres (Silinskaya, 2011:1). The region has several potential tourist attractions such as educational, event, pilgrim, cultural and natural ecological tourism (Silinskaya, 2011:3). Issues such as capacity building, strengthening law enforcement, creation of social services, more financial support and increased land management are urgently needed to uplift local economic development (Semenova, 2012:101). The area has a huge cultural and historical heritage with more than 3 000 monuments in the area alone. These could further boost the local economies through tourism attraction. However, for any realisation of the area's development potential, challenges such as proper land management need to be urgently dealt with (Semenova, 2012:113).

In order to boost local economies, particularly the rural areas, the national government is making efforts to improve infrastructure of all rural areas with the view of igniting economic growth in line with general world development trends. However, challenges such as effective long term planning are still not a priority amongst local authorities, who mainly focus on short term initiatives. Promoting local cultures as well as identified monuments is key to rural regional development (Semenova, 2012:114). The 2012 estimates have

indicated that tourism has raised over 1 billion Russian Rubles for the local economy, and due to the growth of tourism in the region, infrastructure investments such as construction of new hotels and employment opportunities have occurred (Semenova, 2012:114).

The critical effectiveness factors of the programmes discussed above could be attributed mainly to the environmental analysis performed wherein the areas targeted were mapped in terms of strengths and opportunities that could be capitalised on. There is a need to perform research so that rural development programmes follow an innovative approach and so that developmental goals are met. Agriculture alone can transform rural areas, therefore, rural development does not have to focus on only one strategy. There must be other means that are blended with the main strategy and this will create other opportunities that complement each other. Other critical success factors that are emphasised are funding provision, active community participation, proper targeting of areas earmarked for rural development and role of political leadership. The provision of information relating to programmes and their objectives are also key to the success of rural development. Emphasising responsive public leadership, inclusive growth, decent employment and social protection, as well as allocating more resources for essential services and ensuring access for all are amongst the lessons learned.

4.3.2 Rural development in India

Rural development is the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in rural areas. According to the 2011 Census, 68.84% of the population lives in villages (Sandeep, 2012:28). The backwardness of the rural sector would be a major impediment to the overall progress of the economy. India is predominately an agricultural country and farming is their main occupation. According to the 2011 Agricultural Census of India, an estimated 61.5% depend on agriculture. Technical developments in the field of agriculture have increased the gap between the rich and poor, as the better-off farmers adopted modern farm technology to a greater extent than the small farmers. The India Rural Credit Review Committee in its report cautioned that if the fruits of development continue to be denied to large sections of rural community, while prosperity accrues to some, the tensions between social and economic factors may not only upset the process of orderly and peaceful change in the rural economy, but even frustrate the national efforts to set up agricultural production (Mehta, 2011:3588). Most of the labour force in India depends on agriculture, not because it is remunerative, but

because there are no alternative employment opportunities (Sandeep, 2012:69). This is a major cause for the backwardness of Indian agriculture. A part of the labour force now engaged in agriculture needs to be shifted to non-agricultural occupations (Santhi & Kumar, 2011:33).

4.3.2.1 Wasteland Development Project in Ajmer District of Rajasthan

Gangopadhyay *et al.* (2008:83) posit that 6 out of 10 people in the Ajmer District live in rural areas. This is supported by Sharma and Hrima (2011:88), who argue that this is the reason that India has designed strategies that focus on poverty reduction, better living conditions, access to better communal facilities, as well as improved infrastructure. Like most nations on the Asian continent, agriculture plays a leading role in provision of employment to the population in India and accounts for a fifth of the nation's national income (Gangopadhyay *et al.*, 2008:83). Through the Wasteland Development Project strategies, a number of programmes are being implemented such as (Nandanwar, 2011:63):

- An integrated rural development programme that enables the rural poor to have access to subsidies and work opportunities. This programme also includes training of the youth for self-employment, empowering of women and provision of tools for rural artisans.
- Programmes related to employment of rural families, especially in unskilled labour for a specific period of time per year. Such families are to receive continued incomes through training and capacity building.
- A food for work programme that enables provision of food through wage employment. In this programme the food prices are subsidised to needy families.
- Rural housing and land reform programmes which ensure that rural families get free housing and land.
- A water management programme designed to provide water, especially in the drier periods for agricultural activities such as construction of dams and irrigation schemes (Gangopadhyay *et al.*, 2008:93-99).

Over the years India has continued to implement various rural development strategies which have provided some key lessons for any future rural development initiatives elsewhere. These include holistic self-employment schemes, ensuring that any rural

development programmes are managed by the recipients, infrastructure development for easy access to outside markets and emancipation of women (Nandanwar, 2011:58). According to Wandschneider (2004:18), key observations and lessons learnt regarding small towns and rural areas include:

- That areas mainly have small scale businesses employing less than five workers and could include unpaid family labour. Any form of development strategies should be geared at a specific region. Economic activities are interlinked with surrounding regions through production, employment and other services. The growth of any area is dependent on its surrounding hinterland and linkages with other urban centres. It is posited that such rural towns act as consumption outlets, local production areas as well as processing centres. Rural areas with high agricultural potential and extensive farming systems have better rural-urban linkages.
- Low investment leads to low income generation. Establishment of processing plants in rural areas is a challenge and hugely dependent on demand, level of technological input, access to transport, technical expertise of the local community and related support services. Processing plants could range from flour and rice mills to dairy processing plants. It is posited that processing plants, especially those related to the agricultural sector, are highly responsive to competition and local demand.
- Local management of rural development initiatives is seen as a catalyst for better planning and decision-making. However, the overall custodian of such initiatives with regard to provision of technical know-how and financial backing is the government authorities. In essence good local governance and cooperation between the local government and programme beneficiaries are key to a successful implementation of rural development projects. Any large enterprises in small rural towns provide greater socio-economic opportunities and also lead to increased economic infrastructure, technical assistance and networks.

The Wasteland Development Project was initiated in 1995 in Ajmer District of Rajasthan in the five villages of Massina, Amba, Dumara, Bhwanta and Sardhana. The aim of this project was instituting soil and moisture conservation measures; improving water table levels; providing fodder and fuel wood and improving the socio-economic livelihoods of the rural population (Sharma & Hrima, 2010:68). The Wasteland Development Project

was completed in 2002. In the past much of the area had become unproductive for agriculture, a key mainstay in the area. Another key challenge facing the local community included the scarcity of water, especially during the dry season, which necessitated community members to collect water some five kilometres away (Sharma & Hrima, 2010:68). A survey of India 1994/1995 revealed that the pressure on land resources has increased manifoldly with the increasing human and animal population, and land and soil are degrading at fast rates due to human activities (Sharma & Hrima, 2010:68). Key rural development interventions include improving the quality of life of the local communities, raising water supply levels, increasing fodder supply for their livestock and fuels, as well as increasing supply of wood. To further improve crop production the local government authorities also advocate for better soil and moisture conservation measures by planting of trees (Lal, 1994:71). Water scarcity is a very common occurrence, especially during the long dry winter periods, which necessitates the construction of water storage facilities such as dams and trenches (Sharma & Hrima, 2010:68).

As a result of the soil conservation measures, land for cultivation increased three fold. One of the key successes of this project was community involvement and their management of the projects, so much so that without government intervention in the form of technical support, the local rural communities were able to take the lessons of this project elsewhere (Sharma & Hrima, 2010:33). The overall vegetation of the areas has also returned, which is critical in minimising soil erosion and moisture retention. This has also raised the fodder and fuel wood used by the general populace (Nandanwar, 2011:98).

As a result of policy interventions of rural development, local farmers were trained in various farming activities which had a positive economic impact in terms of increased yield production. Related to the Wasteland Development Project was the Community Lift Irrigation Programme which was started a year later than the anticipated start date. The aim was to provide irrigation facilities to the local farmers. Lifts were constructed within six months and used to carry water to the land. However, certain conditions had to be met for starting a community lift irrigation project such as: a minimum of ten farmers were required and one lift was to irrigate about hundred hectares of land. Several rural villages such as Raijgarh, Shaympura and Soodi benefited from this project (Sharma & Hrima, 2010:68). This project enabled farming to take place throughout the year and not only during the rainy season. It has also enabled the farming of other crops apart from the traditional crops due to availability of water (Nandanwar, 2011:98). However, financial support from the

local government was withdrawn and the management of the project was solely in the hands of the farmers' committee.

From the above it can be deduced that rural development is effective when communities in that area are actively involved and there is a close relationship between the environment and the community living within that area, as the community derives sustenance from it. It is only the rural community who can restore health to the environment, outside actors can only facilitate but never substitute for the community. The strength of the rural development policy lies in the decentralisation of decision-making processes by involving local institutions, NGOs, government departments and community at the grass root level. It is an effort on the part of the government to remove the stumbling blocks that pose a delay in the process of rural development. In this project, to make it successful, proper institutional arrangement was provided from state level to village level. These institutions helped in making the project broad-based, sustainable and equitable. The project clearly demonstrated the need to also include women in rural projects, and the need to train all recipients so that they ultimately took ownership of these projects in which they were included. Any potential sustainable rural development framework must incorporate the need for training and inclusivity of women in the projects.

4.3.2.2 Kalyanpura Watershed Programme in Bhilwara District of Rajasthan

The district has about 5.6% of the entire population of which seven out of ten households live in rural areas (Boelee *et al.*, 2013:511). It is heavily reliant on groundwater, which is heavily polluted due to fluoride, nitrate chemicals and salinity (Varade *et al.*, 2013:623). The District of Bhilwara is famous for processing activities such as printing and weaving. Its ground water has been polluted as a result of its dyeing houses (Chowdary *et al.*, 2013:14).

The Kalyanpura Watershed Programme was launched in 2007 with financial backing from the local government of Bhilwara District and the Rural Development Trust, a rural development agency in India. Its aim was to strengthen the ecological and institutional foundations for better and viable rural livelihoods in the district. Key to this programme's objectives were water resource conservation and enriching the soil for agriculture, which is the main economic activity of the region. The community was heavily engaged and involved, ensuring that (Varade *et al.*, 2013:619):

- they were taught how to undertake soil and water preservation measures;
- opportunities were created for eco restoration by improving biomass cover through re-vegetation measures in the commons and private wastelands;
- effective cooperation between the local community and relevant stakeholders occurred to fast track progress in the projects; and
- awareness was raised amongst all the affected communities on the importance of the watershed projects.

Furthermore, local community institutions were created for future sustainability and ownership of assets produced through this project. Key activities included soil and moisture conservation; drainage line treatment, regeneration activities, livelihood promotion, as well as initiatives on arable lands (Pandey *et al.*, 2013:81). During the project period several water harvesting structures were constructed instead of the traditional dams which have helped to mitigate the scarcity of water, especially through the dry seasons and drought. As a result, local farmers have continued to benefit from better water and soil conservation practices through increased and improved crop yields, which have translated to increased household incomes. The increased incomes have also enabled investments in education. In addition, most of the arable areas are now farmlands due to increased irrigation (Murugiah & Ventatraman, 2013:31). Community participation is important and the implementation process of rural development should ensure that local communities are duly informed of the aim and the benefits of potential projects that are to be implemented within their area. This must be factored into any potential frameworks geared for poverty eradication.

There was an effective public-private partnership, as the various institutions formed during the project are functioning as expected, all systems are in place and there is active participation of the community in providing support to these institutions. People are aware that sustainability will ensure equitable flow of benefits. This essentially translates to maintenance of the assets through adherence to regulations of use. Rules and regulations have been framed for grazing and fodder collection in the protected pasturelands. In all villages access to the protected pasture lands is regulated and collection of fodder is against a small contribution. This money is credited into the village development fund. There is increased focus on livelihoods and convergence with other government

programmes. The agricultural extension programmes also further enhance the sustainability of the programme. There is a need to develop sustainable livelihoods through linkage with markets outside the watershed area.

4.3.3 Rural development in China

The Chinese government introduced a series of rural development policies beginning in 2002, that were established as a national goal, a “*xiaokang*”, which means all around better off society, and gave top priority to the triad of agriculture, rural areas and farmers. This was an effort to address the growing income disparities between rural and urban residents in China (Chen & Scott, 2014:23). Agricultural farmers, on the one hand, can make important economic, social and environmental contributions to rural development by adopting alternative strategies and activities (Marsden, 2009:54). On the other hand, these farmers face great challenges for further development, including limited access to land and capital, a massive loss of labourers, low market competitiveness, weak internal management and limited government support (Lammer, 2012:63).

Marsden (2003:32) identifies three distinct agrarian production paradigms that link rural development to sustainable development, namely the Agro-industry Paradigm, the Post-productivist Paradigm and the Sustainable Rural Development Paradigm. These three paradigms differ in internal logic, ideology, scientific rationality and regulatory arrangement (Marsden *et al.*, 2002:16). The Agro-industrial Paradigm follows the logic of neoclassical economics and promotes specialisation and economies of scale. The Post-productivist Paradigm is based on the belief that the agricultural sector in developed economies is being marginalised through a move away from food production and toward the consumption of the countryside (Marsden *et al.*, 2002:32). Marsden (2003:46) argues that both of these two development paradigms are unsustainable.

In comparison to these two paradigms, the Sustainable Rural Development Paradigm redefines the relationship with nature by highlighting the multi-functionality of agriculture and works toward an alternative food supply chain to counter the scale and price rationalities of large-scale agri-business (Marsden *et al.*, 2002:18; Darnhofer, 2005:309). The Rural Development Paradigm explores opportunities in the agricultural sector related to resource use, livelihood strategies and institutional arrangements. This paradigm reasserts land-based agricultural production as a central dimension in achieving rural

sustainability and highlights the crucial roles of farmers in revitalising the rural economy (van der Ploeg *et al.*, 2000:41; Marsden *et al.*, 2002:21). The Rural Development Paradigm emphasises the ability and skills of farmers and generates different economic values from the same ecological resource (Marsden, 2009:55).

To identify an activity as a rural development activity, Marsden *et al.* (2002:22) postulate that the aggregated effect of this activity must meet the following three conditions:

- it is a response to the cost-price squeeze on agriculture and adds income or employment opportunities to the agricultural sector;
- it corresponds to the needs and expectations of the population and expresses new relationships between the agricultural sector and society; and
- it implies a redefinition, recombination and/or reorganisation of rural resources and develops new businesses and/or opportunities within rural society.

The diversified activities can take place on-farm and/or within the local economy, either within the scope of agriculture or outside of it (van der Ploeg *et al.*, 2002:63).

The Cooperative Programme for Rural Development is defined by the International Co-operative Alliance (ICA) as an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic, social and cultural needs and aspirations through jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise (United Nations, 2001:34). Cooperatives can deliver pro-poor growth in a manner that is owned and controlled by poor and small-scale farmers themselves (Lammer, 2012:63). Nevertheless, farmers' cooperatives in developing countries face many challenges due to the lack of capital and business management capacity (Birchall, 2004:74).

The following section discusses the Farmers Professional Cooperatives (FPC's) in China.

4.3.3.1 Farmers Professional Cooperatives

Internationally, cooperatives have been a central institution in social development, poverty alleviation, employment creation and participatory development (United Nations, 2001:35). Under the Agro-industrial Paradigm, agricultural producers face a reduction in economic margins as a result of the cost-price squeeze (van der Ploeg, 2000:74). Small-

scale farmers in developing countries face numerous challenges in connecting to agricultural services and in accessing markets, especially value-added markets (Barrett, 2008; Kruijssen *et al.*, 2009). By working collectively, farmers' cooperatives can significantly reduce transaction costs and increase the bargaining power of farmers in the supply chain (Bosc *et al.*, 2002:6). Compared with the Capitalist Agri-business Model, this model has the potential to be more inclusive of the most resource-poor, small-scale farmers (Kruijssen *et al.*, 2009:46). Kirschenmann *et al.* (2008:3) view this model as an encouraging trend with real benefits to the local communities. Farmers' professional cooperatives (FPC's) have grown rapidly in rural China over the past twenty years. They have become an important institution in rural China in attempting to achieve the vertical integration of agricultural production, processing and marketing. However, findings about FPC's are controversial. Realising the potential to combine capitalist and socialist components, Huang (2011:110) advocates FPC's as alternatives to large agri-business companies for integrating small-scale farms with processing and marketing, and predicts that FPC's could outcompete agri-business if they were given the same state subsidies and privileges. Others suggest that FPC's would likely be transformed into capitalist agri-business and be cooperatives in name only if farmers could not sustain anti-capitalist political mobilisation (Hale, 2013:73; Lammer, 2012:67). Gürel (2014:69) further points out that many FPC's in contemporary China are company-like cooperatives that are similar to agri-business in terms of their shareholding and decision-making structures and the production relations which they facilitate.

4.3.3.1.1 Dai Zhuang Organic Farmers Professional Cooperative

Dai Zhuang Village, south of Jurong City in Jiangsu Province, is situated on hilly land with 1,040 hectares or 2,570 acres (approximately 666.7 hectares or 1,648 acres of farmland, 60% of which is hilly-slope land) and a population of 2,900, which is around 866 households (Liang & Hendrikse, 2013:253). At the time of establishing the cooperative, it was the poorest village within Zhenjiang City, despite boasting rich natural resources (Garnevskaja *et al.*, 2011:72). Before the establishment of the Dai Zhuang Organic Farmers Professional Cooperative, conventional crops, including wheat and rice, were produced. After a comprehensive study, a senior researcher at the Institute of Zhenjiang Agricultural Technology and Science (IZATS), facilitated the establishment of this cooperative in 2006. Since that time, the senior researcher has continued to serve as an on-site technical

consultant, and the village secretary has served as the cooperative leader, attending to the daily management of activities in the cooperative (Chen & Scott, 2014:64). Dai Zhuang Organic FPC was the first organic farmers' cooperative in Jiangsu Province. Its main products are organic rice and strawberries. Products are sold through various channels, including direct sale to companies which accounts for 60% of sales, while to individuals it accounts for 20% to 30%, through its own specialty stores locally and via agencies in large cities. Home delivery was offered in 2007 and 2008 but was discontinued, due to the high cost. Given the small volume of production, this cooperative faces challenges in supplying a large food retailer (Chen & Scott, 2014:66).

The leader of the Dai Zhuang Farmers Professional Cooperative planned to combine crop cultivation and breeding geese in this case to offset the low productivity of organic rice farming and to increase farmers' income. Financing for the drip irrigation systems installed by the Tonglu Cooperative was partially supported by the Zhejiang Provincial and Municipal Government (Yan & Chen, 2013:93).

4.3.3.1.2 Tonglu Peach Farmer Professional Cooperative

Yangsang Village, in the northern part of Tonglu County, in Zhejiang Province, is situated in a mountainous area with 519 hectares of farmland and 155 ha or 383 acres of forest land and a population of 861 and 285 households. Peaches have been grown in this area for approximately 170 years. Compared to other areas in China, rural communities in Zhejiang Province are wealthier and farmers have greater entrepreneurial skills (Garnevska *et al.*, 2011:112). The per capita income in this village was around US\$2,000 in 2008. With the support of local government agencies, the Tonglu Peach Farmers Professional Cooperative was initiated in 2004 by a few local large-scale peach farmers, which was the first farmers' cooperative in Tonglu County. A local large-scale peach farmer has acted as the elected cooperative leader since its founding. The cooperative leader has high school education and is active in marketing and establishing social networks. Peaches and cherries are the main products of this cooperative. Peaches are sorted into two grades: first-class peaches are gift packaged and are procured by companies and government agencies as gifts for employees, or are sold at specialty fruit markets in large cities; second-class peaches are sold at wholesale markets. Agri-tourism is also a channel for this cooperative to sell its products (Chen & Scott, 2014:61).

With the support of the Tonglu Municipal Government, the Tonglu Farmers Professional Cooperative collaborated with several other Farmers Professional Cooperatives in the same area to host visitors during the period of Flower Festival (lasting for four months from late March to mid-July). During the festival period, they organised many activities, including cultural performances, demonstrations of local agricultural products, tastings, sales, signing sales contracts, picking local fruits, and homestays with rural households. Agri-tourism also called “agri-tainment”, experiencing life in a rural area has become a popular form of rural tourism for many urban people in China. The Tonglu Farmers Professional Cooperative had four technicians, all of whom had attended technical training sessions organised and financed by the Bureau of Agriculture in Tonglu County. These training sessions were offered by experts and researchers from Zhejiang University and the Academy of Agricultural Science at the city and provincial levels. After attending training courses three to four times per year for two to three years, the leader and these technicians established an extension programme in 2004 to provide on-site technical support to local farmers (Chen & Scott, 2014:64).

4.3.3.1.3 Yuexi Organic Kiwifruit Farmers Professional Cooperative

Yufan Village in Yuexi County, Anhui Province, is situated in a cool mountainous area with 950 hectares of farmland, 68% of which is paddy field and the rest is dry land, and 850 ha of forest land and a population of 1,005 and 257 households. It is the poorest village in the area (Choi *et al.*, 2007:42; Long *et al.*, 2010:459). The Yuexi Organic Kiwifruit Farmers Professional Cooperative was established in 1999 in Yufan Village with the support of a Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit Project, the Organic Food Development Centre (OFDC), and the local government. The cooperative produced organic kiwifruit and water bamboo. A former village officer has served as the elected cooperative leader because he knows the local situation well and is willing to devote himself to local development. Following the end of Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit project support in 2003, the Organic Kiwifruit Farmers Professional Cooperative was divided into two groups in 2006: the Kiwifruit Farmers Professional Cooperative and the Water Bamboo Farmers Professional Cooperative. The latter has been growing rapidly (Choi *et al.*, 2007:44). The withdrawal of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit Project posed a difficult challenge to the Kiwifruit

Farmers Professional Cooperative to continue organic farming, due to the high certification costs, a shortage of funding, and limited access to value-added markets to garner a sufficient price premium. As a result, the cooperative discontinued organic kiwifruit farming. Organic kiwifruits had been exported with the assistance of the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit Project, while non-organic kiwifruits had been sold domestically through various channels since the project support ended. Water bamboo is delivered to large cities such as Shanghai, Nanjing and Hefei and sold at wholesale markets. More recently, the retirement of the Kiwifruit Farmers Professional Cooperative leader also created difficulties, as members lacked confidence in the new leader (Long *et al.*, 2010:461).

From the above discussion it can be deduced that to build a stronger rural community and improve the living conditions of rural households, community-based rural development initiatives, especially farmers' cooperatives, have been promoted in these countries through policy support. The first national Farmers' Professional Cooperative Law was implemented in 2007 to formalise and standardise farmers' professional cooperatives in China. Therefore, the regulatory environment strengthens and supports rural development and creates an environment for effectiveness. The stable legal environment, together with various supportive government policies, has created a favourable political and economic environment for developing farmers' professional cooperatives in China. Initiatives to support the above farmers' professional cooperatives included product branding, which was developed by all three farmers' professional cooperatives, with the goal of improving the reputation and market competitiveness of their products. Secondly, ecological and local characteristics of products certified organic, green, hazard free and geographical identification were simultaneously highlighted in all three farmers' professional cooperatives. These formalised standards and labels show the attributes of product quality. The Chinese government has played an important role in promoting farmers' cooperatives by implementing the Cooperative Law and developing a series of favourable policies. This has been particularly significant at the provincial and local government levels, although the extent of support varies by province, based on economic capacity. Financial support and subsidies for rural development typically take the form of investment in rural infrastructure, crop storage and processing facilities.

In terms of social integration, on the one hand, the farmers' cooperative programme provides a platform for farm members to exchange experiences and gain new knowledge, which further reinforces the ties and enhances social integration amongst members. Rural development programmes with strong government support were better positioned for economic success.

4.4 RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Several approaches have been used in trying to foster rural development in Africa. The initial approach was the application of technologies with the hope that it would have a knock-on effect to other areas and a development focus approach with emphasis on rural development. The goal here is poverty alleviation. Recently the community-based approach has been widely recognised, as it involves the beneficiaries in the planning and implementation of projects (Baah-Dwomoh, 2016:131).

4.4.1 Market Oriented Smallholder Agriculture Project (MOSAP):

Angola

Angola is located to the south west of Africa and has been trying to rebuild its nation after a long civil war that ended in 2002 (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:67). A lot of efforts were geared towards building its socio-economic infrastructure. Accordingly, the country remains a "well-endowed mineral resourced nation with a high potential for agricultural development on the continent" (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:67). As reported, prior to its independence in 1975, agricultural production was the mainstay of the economy. The country's major exports were in maize and coffee, mainly produced in the central highlands. This unfortunately collapsed as a result of the civil war and production was mainly confined to subsistence level (World Bank, 2016:3). The Market Oriented Smallholder Agriculture Project (MOSAP) was in line with the national government's key strategy of revitalising the rural economy, which called for strengthening of the overall capacity in food crop and fisheries production; re-introduction of local trade and markets; the sustainable development of natural resources and re-structuring of legal frameworks and local institutions. The main focus was on the small holders in the rural communities, the need for all stakeholders' participation in this project and proper planning implementation and monitoring to be done by local authorities.

Special vulnerable groups such as women were also the main focus, especially their ability to access land (World Bank, 2016:13).

In essence, the goal of this project was to enable rural communities to increase their outputs so that they could benefit from improved access to markets. This would have been possible through the creation of rural-urban commercial market links. This project was also seen as a way to create institutional capacity from two research centres and rural extension services in Malanje and Bie. The project beneficiaries were 50 000 farmers from the regions of Huambo, Malanje and Bie. These areas were selected because they were mostly affected by the civil war (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:70). The indirect beneficiaries were to be the local governments, and the National Department of Agriculture in the form of capacity building in project processing and implementation (World Bank, 2016:15). Private sector agencies were also to be strengthened in the form of capacity building in relation to the creation of investment proposals and development plans. A total of \$33 million was earmarked for the project with the World Bank, the Angolan government and the International Fund for Agricultural Development making financial contributions to the project. The project was initially meant to have started in 2005, but only started in 2010 due to a review of financial considerations and also a lack of capacity from the local and national governments (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:69). There was also a lack of quality service providers amongst the local population (World Bank, 2016:20). These were required for a range of activities such as civil construction and capacity training of small farmer groups, as well as community-based associations; and government institutions to support the production and marketing of production goods. After the initial challenges, the national government fully committed itself to ensuring that the project was implemented (World Bank, 2016:20).

Disbursements increased annually and proper monitoring and evaluation mechanisms were in place to ensure that project objectives were being met. By 2013, there was a 10% increase in agricultural production in maize, cassava, soybeans and potatoes. Over 50 000 farmers were trained, together with 210 technicians in the agricultural field (World Bank, 2016:22). Training covered aspects such as crop farming methods and conservation, as well as marketing channels. Agricultural schools also had a set curriculum which empowered the beneficiaries in more advanced agricultural techniques. As a result of training, farmers were able to access markets for their farm produce through the creation of farmer organisations. There was also increased mechanisation of farms

with better farm technologies introduced to increase crop production. Given the initial challenges and the fact that Angola had just emerged from a devastating war, the project was deemed satisfactory on the following aspects (World Bank, 2016:22):

- many of the small-scale farmers were operating at basic levels of subsistence production, which lessened any prospects for scarcity of food;
- there was a huge increase in female participation of this project (43% of farmers are women) as they were trained and participated in farmer associations;
- there was also equal participation of men and women in design and planning of farmer field school activities;
- the project also led to an increase in basic literacy levels which was fundamental for technical training; and
- farmer associations were further enhanced to empower their beneficiaries and to develop organisational and leadership skills required for exercising ownership of projects and outcomes of this project, which exposed many farmers to implementation and management activities that were crucial for the success of the project.

One of the risks to the long term sustainability of the project was the lack of continued support to the farmers in terms of production and marketing. Support must always be available from the local and national government, especially with regard to the provision of inputs such as seeds and other relevant materials. Furthermore, the long term strategic goals for this sector will determine whether there is sustained investment in improving capacity and skills that would translate into greater commerce and profits to the farmers. Infrastructure development such as good roads is still a huge challenge in these regions, which continues to hamper further developments, especially in respect of the sector (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:67).

From the analysis above, it can be deduced that there was identification of beneficiaries like smallholder farmers that were identified in the rural areas in line with government's key initiatives of rebuilding the economy. The local authorities performed the stakeholder identification and analysis for all stakeholder participation in this project and proper planning, implementation and monitoring took place. The risk to the long term sustainability of the project is the lack of continued support to the farmers in terms of production and marketing, and to mitigate this, there were disbursements to enable

farmers to access markets. The long term strategic goals for this project determined that there is sustained investment in improving capacity and skills that translate into greater commerce and profits to the farmers. Lack of infrastructure development such as good roads continue to hamper further developments, especially in respect of the agricultural sector.

4.4.2 Maragadi Development Programme: Niger

This programme was launched by the national government with the support of international agencies to stem deforestation taking place in the south in one of the most densely populated areas. The objective was to use farmers to naturally regenerate the land through reforestation, land reclamation and rural development. The programme subsequently was called “sowing seeds of change in the Sahel”, based on the assumption that if properly trimmed and protected, native tree species could survive and conserve the soil, even in the harsh climate of the region (World Bank, 2016:23).

The country is considered to be one of the poorest in the world, with many of its developmental challenges linked to its location; comprising mainly of the Sahara Desert characterised by frequent droughts. The poor or limited natural resources are compounded by its high annual population growth rates, which place pressure on existing fertile lands, leading to deforestation and overgrazing. These accelerate desertification and soil erosion. It was therefore necessary to preserve the country's fragile and limited land resources through the use of appropriate farm practices that would preserve and sustain the fragile ecosystem (World Bank, 2016:21). Previously efforts had been made to initiate reforestation initiatives such as movement of trees that have done well in other areas. Expensive afforestation programmes did not yield much success, because seedlings had to be imported, and were also ineffective due to the harsh weather conditions of the area. Future success of any afforestation programmes were thus dependant on local knowledge of the farmers with regard to preserving tree stumps that would later grow before any farming could take place on the land; selection of the strongest stems from the tree were to be re-planted (World Bank, 2016:23).

The advantage of this approach was that farmers did not require much expertise on the selection of the appropriate stems and there were no significant financial implications, since farmers used the stems and roots that were already available. Initial efforts to foster this form of cultivation were met with resistance, as farmers did not see any benefits of

stem and root planting as well as crop farming (United Nations, 2012:54). Stems and roots planted grow and develop within a twelve month period allowing for further identification of more stems which are also replanted. This accelerates the reforestation process (World Bank, 2016:23).

As a result of this approach, 5 million hectares which is about 4% of the nation's land mass have been reforested. The benefit of this has seen increased food security as well as animal farming, biodiversity and expanded income generation to the farmers through the sale of firewood and timber. This has had a direct positive impact for over 2 million people. The success of this type of programme highlights the need to engage local communities in the use of existing resources in finding solutions to local challenges. Like many other rural sustainable development projects of this nature, women and other vulnerable groups are at the forefront of development issues. This initiative has enabled women to spend less time fetching wood and looking for food, whilst spending more time on other activities (United Nations, 2012:55). They are able to generate more income from the sale of surplus wood.

The study seeks to propose an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development for eradication of poverty in South Africa. The international best practices highlighted some factors that re-emphasised a critical need for the implementation of sustainable rural development.

The following section discusses specific factors that are regarded as learnings from international best practices, that should be applied in the context of South Africa to support an institutional framework that ensures effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development to eradicate poverty. This will assist the government of South Africa to ensure local economic development through the implementation of sustainable rural development in rural areas.

4.5 LEARNINGS FROM INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICES

The historical past of the 'apartheid system' created geographic differentiation, each with its own political, social and economic systems. The rural economy is presently facing enormous challenges in terms of lack of socio-economic infrastructure, public amenities and government services, low literacy and skills, the poor status of agriculture, decay of social fabric and the underutilisation of resources (Gwanya, 2010:19). Although there are

potential opportunities in the agriculture, tourism, mining and manufacturing sectors in South Africa, these remain under-exploited (Gwanya, 2010:19).

South Africa has learned lessons through earlier efforts to put in place a national rural strategy. These started with the Reconstruction and Development Programme 1994–1996, although this was more of a ‘wish list’ than a strategy document, and the Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity (1995), which ended as a discussion document (Jeffery, 2010:245). The Rural Development Framework (1997) attempted to address the challenges from their earlier processes, and most importantly attempted to define rural areas. The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (2001) later evolved into a programme, and was valued for mainly targeting former homeland areas and attempting to introduce a spatial focus to deal with poverty and underdevelopment. Yet it too had a number of weaknesses (Jeffery, 2010:245).

In 2007, the ruling party through the National Policy Conference began work towards a comprehensive rural development programme (Jeffery, 2010:245). This led to the current Comprehensive Rural Development Programme whose vision is: ‘to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities’. The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme seeks to address poverty and food insecurity through maximising the use and management of natural resources, rectifying past injustices and improving the standard of living through rights-based interventions that address skewed patterns of distribution and ownership of wealth and assets and facilitate integrated development and social cohesion through participatory approaches in partnership with all sectors of society (Brits, 2014:507).

Below are the key learnings for consideration that proved to have supported the best practices for implementation of rural development. The learnings are arranged thematically as follows:

4.5.1 Active community participation in the implementation process

Experience from discussions has shown that rural development programmes are much more likely to reflect local priorities, reach their goals and be sustainable if and when they are designed and implemented with a high degree of involvement and participation by the beneficiaries and local stakeholders. Rural development programmes are supposed to be

planned, designed, prepared and implemented with active and significant community participation in terms of decision-making.

Active participation would imply that affected communities initiate changes, not that they merely accept, or do not object to, changes offered to them by outside agencies. Sustainability has been problematic for the rural development programmes, since true participation helps to ensure that only investments which have prospects of being sustained, are financed.

4.5.2 Integrated and coordinated approach to rural development

Given the absence of strong institutions where most of these programmes are implemented, donor agencies and government should consider mitigating weak government institutions by setting up special programme management inspectorates or units. Staff of the programme management inspectorates or units should also often be given incentives in the form of allowances and operating means not available to the regular government agencies. Under this approach, in which several line agencies are involved in implementation, it should be possible that a coordinating committee be set up with each sectoral ministry or national department responsible for activities in its sector within the rural development programme. Such committees often work effectively together and are able to ensure effective coordination.

4.5.3 Training and development of public officials

There is a need to train and develop public servants, starting from the leadership level, to display technical and professional capacities, professionalism, integrity, transparency, accountability, effectiveness and responsiveness in conducting public affairs and delivering public goods and services to all people including those in the rural areas. Training and development should enable public officials to achieve a deeper understanding of the diversity of people's needs, desires and aspirations, and to develop effective relationships across public institutions and with non-state actors, which is essential for responsive and accountable action. Public officials should be equipped with skills related to financial planning and organisational management.

4.5.4 Strengthened intergovernmental relations

South Africa needs to address the identified weaknesses, relations, coordination failures and governance complexities of organs of state that are involved in rural development. Intergovernmental relations are needed between the national government, provincial government and local government, as well as development agencies of government. Developing a true partnership implies participating in decision-making and implementing rural development policies that the provincial and local governments help to design. This requires a high level of commitment, effective knowledge sharing and competence on the part of national, provincial and local representatives.

4.5.5 Incentivise compliance and achievement of programme outcomes

There is a need to introduce incentive conditions for government grants and loans to support recipients who can demonstrate a positive performance of projects they already initiated and are struggling to float in the market due to lack of credit or start-up capital. The incentive must have conditions linked to performance, for instance an incentive on exporting where the incentive is only paid once a beneficiary starts exporting and there is proof thereof. There must also be incentives for staff that are involved in rural development, as this will entice competent staff to get involved in rural areas. Their performance in reaching programme outcomes must have incentives.

4.5.6 Institutional capabilities

The capabilities of government institutions in the implementation of sustainable rural development are critical. Well-functioning, effective and coherent public institutions at national, provincial and local levels are imperative. This is ensured by robust transparency, performance management and accountability mechanisms built into their fabric, as well as the capacity to achieve and demonstrate effective results that respond to public needs. Public administration, serving as the bedrock of the rule of law, and effective delivery of essential public services is critical to development. Great importance is placed on establishing effective monitoring systems and ensuring the accountability in service provision. Rural development is everybody's business and participation of local communities and the public sector is necessary to make such development successful.

4.5.7 Access to sustainable rural finance for rural development

For the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication, it is vital to ensure securing widespread access to efficient and sustainable financial services and capital, without which the benefits of the rural development cannot be realised in full. This requires a significant expansion of financial resources and budgets, as well as major improvements in the efficiency and institutional sustainability of rural financial systems to benefit the poor in rural communities. Rural financing is a microcredit methodology that seeks to facilitate financial services locally, rather than a more centralised formal banking system. Rural financing includes financing, rural credit, rural banking or village banking. Rural financing is seen as the business of accepting money deposits and giving out advances, as well as improving the livelihood of the rural poor. Rural financing can be realised in ways such as integrating financial markets to the rural area and creating specialised banking to cater for the needs of the rural poor. Conditions to access these facilities should be tailor made for rural poor citizens to qualify. Thus, rural financing is tailored to the need of the rural poor and financing of initiatives and strategies to enable poor rural communities to move out of the poverty trap.

4.5.8 Need for innovation and research

There is a need for the promotion of innovation, research and development focussed on the needs of rural people in South Africa and rural producers and firms. This becomes possible by utilising the opportunities offered by the Information and Communication Technology revolution. In most cases where rural agricultural development is the strategy to eradicate poverty, rural producers are not able to access recent technologies in farming and irrigation methods that are sustainable and which ensure sustainability in the use of natural resources such as water. Primitive methods have proved costly and non-effective. The use of Information and Communication Technology becomes handy to research and access the export markets.

4.5.9 Sustainability of rural development programmes

The Oxford Dictionary online (2020) defines the term sustainability as the ability to be maintained at a certain rate or level. Environmentally, sustainability is defined as the avoidance of the depletion of natural resources in order to maintain an ecological balance (Oxford Dictionary online, 2020). In South Africa there is a need for maintaining a certain

level of rural development, especially avoiding abandonment of programmes. This is important given that the financial resources to fund rural development are scarce and should not go to waste.

For rural development to be sustainable, there must be a balance of objectives such as social equity, economic growth and environmental sustainability, and that can evolve rapidly as many young and better-educated people join new non-farm rural jobs provided by sustainable rural development programmes.

4.5.10 Entire value chain for sustainable rural development products

This includes creating a market for local products of sustainable rural development programmes where local products are sold in local markets, some of which could be purchased by local government. The government needs to be at the forefront of procuring produce from rural development initiatives. The government needs to encourage its institutions to target these products and be first in line to prefer these products over others in the market. This will ensure that there is continued growth in opportunities in agri-businesses such as processing, logistics, retail and processing production. This will continue to lead to improved development in rural infrastructure, access to markets and creation of embedded opportunities, while also stimulating the growth of rural towns and intermediate cities and strengthening the links between them and the rural villages.

4.5.11 Effective leadership

Community leaders are critical community-based stakeholders, including politicians, traditional leadership and institutional leaders in rural areas. Traditional leadership, political leadership, focus groups, citizens, women's groups, the private sector, local government, farmers, institutions, water consumers and civic society are salient stakeholders in rural areas (Redmon, 2014:171). These stakeholders help to provide checks and balances, as well as being consumers of rural development services themselves (Boone & Makhani, 2012:89). All these stakeholders are bound by monitoring imperatives in community participation and should participate effectively in rural development programmes. Stakeholder mapping is key in terms of finding a way in which these leaders participate in policy and project design, implementation, evaluation and benefitting (Boone & Makhani, 2012:91). There is a need for strong rural development leadership on the vision, agenda and scope for the programme being supported and

acceptance of this leadership by the rural development stakeholders. Leaders should ensure that the sustainable rural development programmes are gradual, not forced, and should provide a clearer basis for building a clear vision and reducing fragmentation. Effective and skilled leaders must ensure that the planning process for rural development is effective and complementary between national and local sector strategies. The leaders must plan for engagement from the beginning and ensure that what is being targeted at all levels is feasible and achievable.

4.5.12 Integrated funding of rural development

It is critical in the case of South Africa that rural development budgets from all departments mandated to provide rural development and related essential services are aligned, integrated and coordinated as per development partners, and that there is commitment to provide financial support on budget in all cases. This can be achieved through coordinated mechanisms as far as possible, and in all cases fully aligned with the rolling strategy and results oriented framework. This will ensure that rural development budgets are not done in silos that eventually impede the implementation process of sustainable rural development programmes. It is also important to ensure that planning and budgeting are fully aligned with rural development, including audit and procurement, while the coordination is backed up by high-level political leadership.

4.5.13 Monitoring and evaluation

For the purposes of transparency, value for money and accountable financial management systems, there is a need to set up public expenditure reviews and tracking processes, to help track and monitor the efficiency and effectiveness of spending in the rural development programmes. It is imperative to establish monitoring and evaluation systems which can generate relevant data for performance reporting. Emphasis should be placed on monitoring the implementation activities of rural development programmes, where clear roles and responsibilities are mapped, and on clear performance expectations, balanced expectations and capacities, credible reporting and reasonable review and adjustment to deviations. The monitoring process should also emphasise the importance of e-tools and openness of public data, as well as feedback and advice provided by higher audit institutions and other independent oversight bodies.

4.5.14 Programme designs that offer real solutions to rural poverty

The one-size-fits-all mentality led to design issues and failure of rural development programmes. The Organisation for Economic Development of the World Bank, as well as institutions such as the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations concluded in their evaluations of completed area and rural development programmes that many of the problems in programme implementation stem from deficient designs (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 2004). The deficiency in the design of the projects most of the time stemmed from inadequate diagnosis of the development problems which the programme was expected to solve, hence leading to inadequate preparation. The review of international best practices also showed that a significant number of the projects lacked design flexibility, with strict targets set in advance, instead of seeking to build a problem-solving capacity amongst the people involved. This lack of design flexibility often led to goals and objectives that were not realistic or precise.

4.5.15 Public-private partnerships

The complexity of projects within rural development programmes raises several issues about the administrative feasibility of carrying out such projects. A project-related difficulty that is compounded by the complexity is that comprehensive, or multi-sectoral rural development projects are more difficult to design and to administer than single-sector projects. Experience also indicates that they are more difficult to implement. Given that most government departments are organised along functional lines, such as agriculture, forestry, fisheries, health, public works, education and small-scale industry, the incorporation of non-agricultural components into sustainable rural development projects, expecting them to be managed effectively by institutions that were staffed and managed fundamentally by agricultural staff, overloaded management so that implementation suffered (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 2004). The numerous components and executing agencies, entering into many sectors simultaneously, demanded too much from weak institutions. In this case, public-private partnerships assist with the skills, the technical know-how and in most cases the funding of these programmes.

4.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted various case studies of rural development programmes that are taking place around the globe. The lessons learnt from the above challenges are that there

is a need for full commitment, coordination and inclusiveness of all stakeholders for any programmes of this magnitude to be successful. The need for government support in the design and implementation of sustainable rural development cannot be over-emphasised. Coupled with the need for government support, the role of capable public institutions, as well as trained, accountable and visionary public servants are critical. The government must tailor make access to credit, funding and market opportunities to sustain rural development. Public-private partnerships are also essential to finance, design and supervise some rural development programmes.

A good understanding of best international practices is necessary to learn from their successes and failures. At the same time, it is also important to assess the practicability and the applicability of their programmes.

The next chapter presents the findings of the empirical research. The chapter also provides the responses from respondents in relation to the challenges of programme implementation and the sustainability thereof.

CHAPTER FIVE

AN ANALYSIS OF THE SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY IMPLEMENTATION WITHIN SELECTED RURAL VILLAGES

“The National Development Planning envisages an economy that serves the needs of all South Africans - rich and poor, black and white, skilled and unskilled, those with capital and those without, urban and rural, women and men. The vision is that in 2030, the economy should be close to full employment, equip people with skills they need, ensure that ownership of production is less concentrated and more diverse, where black people and women own a significant share of assets, and be able to grow rapidly, providing the resources to pay for investment in human and physical capital” (World Bank, 2018).

5.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africans have reason to be proud of their achievements of the past twenty years. Dating from the election in April 1994, in which the country chose democracy as its badge and a rainbow as its symbol, people have set aside their previous divisions and wholeheartedly embraced one another, united in a shared vision for national progress on an increasingly competitive international stage. Remarkably, the country has managed to achieve and sustain impressive economic growth (Karriem & Benjamin, 2016:34).

The eradication of poverty in South Africa through a sustainable rural development approach has statutory foundation. This chapter presents and analyses empirical findings from research data obtained from interviews and focus group discussions. The theoretical perspective on poverty and sustainable rural development serves as an analytic framework, whereas the final section of this chapter synthesises the findings of the empirical study. The responses are based on the personal experiences of the respondents, in relation to the implementation of programmes that are meant to eradicate

poverty and uplift their overall standard of living. At the same time, this chapter also examines the responses of managers or supervisors who are responsible for the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes in the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Mpumalanga Province, and the Muyexe Village in the Limpopo Province with the objective of poverty eradication. The chapter will also discuss the empirical research methods followed to meet the objectives and answer questions on the research. The empirical study findings are grouped under two broad headings, namely understanding poverty as a basis for poverty eradication and understanding of poverty eradication programme implementation. The core aim of the study is to develop a framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication based on findings from cases in Muyexe, Jabulani Abafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces. The chapter will end with a conclusion to the discussions.

5.2 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH METHODS

This section outlines the research methodology of the study, which includes the research approach, research design, the instrumentation, the target population, the sampling and the data analysis of the study.

The qualitative research approach was selected for this study due to its naturalistic, holistic and inductive ways of studying and understanding a phenomenon and because it is flexible, allowing for the emergence of new ideas and the capability to describe, explain and understand the phenomenon being studied. A qualitative research approach is committed to understanding social phenomena from the actors' own perspectives and examining how they experience their world. In this case the respondents based their responses on personal experiences about poverty and implementation of sustainable rural development in eradicating poverty in their respective areas. The qualitative research approach enabled the researcher to delve deep into the data, while allowing less control over the research situation. The study is concerned with understanding rather than explanation, with naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement, with the subjective exploration of reality from the perspective of an insider as opposed to that of an outsider.

The study used a case study design where documents, physical artefacts, document analysis for literature review for theoretical foundation were used. Interviews and focus groups discussions were conducted, while seeking to collect empirical evidence fairly and rigorously. The study was an explanatory or instrumental case study, which is useful for theory building and gaining new knowledge to inform policy development and generate theoretical insight from a literature review closely grounded in the real experiences of the impoverished communities in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages.

The target population was the population where the study was conducted who possessed specific characteristics, to which the study generalised the results. The characteristics were geographic in that they are situated in rural areas, in this case Muyexe Village in Limpopo and Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Mpumalanga with 1 560 households in total. Therefore this research had two target populations, wherein the first population was officials implementing sustainable rural development programmes and strategies within the DRDLR, and the second target population was the beneficiaries of the sustainable rural development programmes in the community of the Muyexe Village in Limpopo and the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Mpumalanga. The population for this study was therefore the officials in the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication strategies in the DRDLR, specifically in the Rural Development Directorate, as well as the poor community members who were identified as beneficiaries within the programmes. A sample was chosen from each of these populations. The study engaged in non-probability sampling, which is commonly associated with qualitative research, where the researcher's primary aim was to get an in-depth description and understanding, rather than a quantity of understanding.

The sample for administrators and programme implementation officials for unstructured interviews was drawn from the Rural Development Directorate of the DRDLR. Purposive sampling was used, since there were only 2 offices designated for this region. From the Rural Development Directorate in each province, a sample of ten officials was selected from a total of 31 employees. The sample was chosen purposefully as they are responsible for implementation of the sustainable rural development strategy in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages. The beneficiary sample consisted of 20 individuals divided into two groups comprising a set of youths between the ages of 18

and 34 years, and a set of older persons from 65 years and above. These two sets formed two focus groups. Focus groups helped the researcher to gain an in-depth description and an understanding of the perceptions and lived experiences of the poor citizens in the villages. The study sought to establish their perspective on the sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication and the institutional challenges associated with the implementation of these programmes. The age groups selected from beneficiaries are representative of the population composition found in these areas.

The methods used to gather data included a literature review including documents from the DRDLR in the two provinces, focus group interviews and face-to-face qualitative interviews with DRDLR officials. The literature review accomplished several important purposes, in that it provided a framework for establishing the importance of the study and explained to the reader the theoretical context of the concepts being examined, which are poverty and rural development. As the primary focus of qualitative research is meaning, literature assisted to coordinate and orchestrate the growing sense of richness of meaning. The purpose of the literature review in this study was to gain knowledge on the topic of poverty eradication through rural development and the implementation of such programmes in a democratic developmental state. The literature review also helped with the formulation of questions for the interviews and focus groups, based on other studies. The literature review included sources such as books, journal articles, the internet, legislation, theses, dissertations, official documents and IDP reports.

During the study, two separate focus group discussions were conducted in each of the three villages, one involving the youth and one with older community members. Face-to-face interviews with officials who worked in the provincial offices of the DRDLR were also conducted in both provinces. These thus assisted in collecting rich information from the views, opinions and experiences expressed during the focus group discussions and the interviews. The study essentially aimed to explore and discover information by listening to participants' own interpretations. In addition, qualitative face-to-face interviews were conducted to collect additional data, as an attempt to understand poverty from the participant's point of view, to unfold the meaning of people's experiences and to uncover their lived experiences relating to implementation of sustainable rural development programmes. The researcher conducting these interviews was interested in

understanding the experiences of the respondents and the meaning they make of the experiences relating to poverty and sustainable rural development.

Prior to the interviews, the researcher defined the information required, as the information or data supplied must clearly relate to specific questions that the study sought to answer.

Table 5.1 Summary of respondents and data collection method

Province	Area	Face-to-face interview	Focus group interview
Limpopo	Polokwane	5 DRDLR Officials	20 Beneficiaries Muyexe Village
Mpumalanga	Mbombela	5 DRDLR Officials	10 Beneficiaries Jabulani Abafazi Village 10 Beneficiaries Water Smeet Village
TOTAL		10	40

Source: Own illustration (2020)

The study acknowledges that it is critically important to highlight that a broad range of views were solicited to enrich the findings of the study. Participant anonymity was protected and all the interviews were done on the understanding that views or opinions were not going to be credited to individuals in the study, even when explicit consent was given by the interviewee.

As per Table 5.1 the respondents are allocated pseudonyms to show their category as follows:

- LDOI denotes a Limpopo DRDLR official from the face-to-face interview;
- MDOI denotes a Mpumalanga DRDLR official from the face-to-face interview;
- MXBF denotes a Muyexe Village beneficiary from the focus group;
- JBBF denotes a Jabulani Abafazi Village beneficiary from the focus group; and
- WSBF denotes a Water Smeet Village beneficiary from the focus group.

Therefore Participant 1 from the 5 respondents in the Limpopo Department of Rural Development and Land Reform officials is written as Participant 1LDOI, while Participant 5 from Muyexe Village as a beneficiary in the focus group is written as Participant 5MXBF.

5.3 THEMATICAL DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of data in an attempt to make sense of the complex social and subjective world (De Vos *et al.*, 2010:397). The main objective of data analysis is to transform raw input data in the form of facts, figures, observations, perceptions and findings through nuanced and contextualised interpretations that attach meaning to the input data (Cloete, 2007:514). In qualitative research, data analysis is a continuous processing, comparison and assessment procedure that starts when the researcher begins to collect literature on the subject or gains entry into the field to gather empirical data (Cloete, 2007:513).

According to Dey (1993:30), data analysis involves the process of breaking data down into smaller units to reveal their characteristic elements and structure. Thematic analysis of qualitative data is a method for identifying and analysing patterns or themes within qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2006:233). Thematic analysis is a form of pattern recognition within the data. In this method of data analysis, a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question. It represents a level of patterned response or meaning within the data (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006:10).

Thematic analysis was used where the responses of the respondents were examined in relation to each question asked. Where the responses were similar, these were also captured and written in italics to highlight the general view of what the respondents felt on the issue.

5.3.1 Understanding poverty as a basis for poverty eradication policies

This section examines the findings from the interviewed officials in Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces, as well as the beneficiaries in the Muyexe, Jabulani Abafazi and Water Smeet Villages in Limpopo and Mpumalanga respectively.

According to the United Nations (1995:78), poverty has various manifestations, including lack of income and productive resources sufficient to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health; limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate

housing; unsafe environments; and social discrimination and exclusion. Poverty is also characterised by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life (United Nations, 1995:78).

Poverty encompasses different dimensions of deprivation that relate to human capabilities including consumption and food security, health, education, rights, voice, security, dignity and decent work. Poverty must be reduced in the context of environmental sustainability. Reducing gender inequality is key to all dimensions of poverty (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2001:66).

Fundamentally, the study argues that poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living on marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation (United Nations, 1997:14).

According to Addison *et al.* (2008:34), poverty is often conceptualised in one of three fundamentally different ways: as a material condition where people are poor when they have an income or consumption level that is too limited to cover basic living conditions, as a multi-dimensional condition where the poverty of people is context specific, dynamic and social and political, as well as economic, and as a relationally shaped condition where people are poor because social relations, concerning gender, labour and land prevent them from improving their condition.

Participants for the DRDLR in Mpumalanga and Limpopo understand poverty as the state of being poor, a state where one is not able to afford the basic needs inclusive of food. Some comments from the respondents include:

“Poverty is a picture of an individual who does not meet the standard of living, e.g. income to buy food nor clothes” (Participant 5MDOI, 2019).

“Poverty is a state where as a poor person you are without access to basic needs” (Participant 3LDOI, 2019).

According to literature, poverty can be defined as the inability of the poor to command basic needs for the attainment of a minimal acceptable standard of living. It therefore implies that officials understand the meaning of poverty which should inform the interventions to eradicate poverty from rural communities. This definition should be used to guide plans with regard to development plans for rural poor people. Poverty can also be understood as a reflection of the inability of individuals, households, families, or entire communities, to attain a minimum and socially accepted standard of living measured in terms of basic consumption needs or income required to satisfy those needs (Kehler, undated). The traditional immediate basic needs include food, water, shelter and clothing, however the modern lists emphasise the minimum level of consumption of basic needs of not just food, water, clothing and shelter, but also sanitation, education, healthcare and internet (Addison *et al.*, 2008:33).

A common response that emanated from the respondents' understanding of poverty was that poverty meant being poor or the inability of have anything. What was clear from the respondents is that they linked poverty to not being able to have basic needs. Elderly respondents from the focus groups understood poverty as:

“Poverty is being poor, poor and poor with nothing at all” (Participant 7MXBF, 2019).

“Poverty means no income, no money to afford a meal” (Participant 4WSBF, 2019).

However, most of the younger participants, particularly the youth, understood poverty as not being able to have job opportunities. As a 26-year-old man said:

“This thing can be defined as the inability to have job opportunities is what poverty means to us” (Participant 6JBBF, 2019).

Clearly, the youth equated poverty to lack of job opportunities, whilst the older participants equated their understanding of poverty to their inability to have access to basic needs.

5.3.2 Understanding of government's obligation towards developing pro-poor policies

In the Medium Term Strategic Framework, the government of South Africa recommitted itself to speed-up economic growth to create decent and sustainable livelihoods and promote rural development (Gumede, 2009:13). The NDP recognised the need to develop an integrated and inclusive rural economy to enable rural communities to fully participate in the economic and political life of the country. The NDP also recognised that rural development and agricultural development cannot be achieved without successful land reform (Makgetla, 2010:47). Government identified twelve national outcomes and Outcome Number Seven focusses on creating vibrant and sustainable rural communities with food security for all (Pillay, 2007:201). The DRDLR developed the Medium Terms Strategic Framework for 2014-2019, which is based on the National Development Plan Vision 2030. The department's MTSF as outlined above broadly focusses on land reform based on agrarian reform and improving land administration and spatial planning (South Africa, 2014:66).

Through targeted government programmes, the country aspires to achieve the following (South Africa, 2014:64):

- poverty to be significantly reduced in terms of income, access to social services and assets;
- to have over twelve million people benefit from government's social security assistance programme;
- the number of people with access to electricity and water services to be significantly increased; and
- to give over 10 million South Africans access to decent housing.

In the quest to achieve the above, however, some significant challenges are still facing the country. Progress in urban areas stands in contrast to the often extreme levels of poverty that many South Africans in the rural areas endure. Social deprivation and underdevelopment continue to haunt too many rural areas. Consequently, for years rural South Africa saw very little development (South Africa, 2014:66).

Against this background, government reiterated that the fight against poverty remained the most important fight on its agenda (Brits, 2014:507). In this spirit, a need for a new

economic and rural developmental trajectory was identified as an urgent priority, and with this objective government identified five strategic areas as priorities over the next five years (South Africa, 2014:66). These areas include amongst others the creation of decent job opportunities and sustainable livelihoods, education, provision of health services and facilities, rural development, food security, land reform and the fight against crime and corruption (Makino, 2013:4).

The government recognised afresh that the social and economic transformation of South Africa would be incomplete without the implementation of fundamental interventions to address the challenges faced daily by the majority of people in rural areas through sustainable rural development (Brits, 2014:507). These challenges include limited economic activity, inadequate infrastructure, widespread poverty, high unemployment and unmarketable skills levels (Brits, 2014:507).

It is on this note, that the officials indicated that it was necessary that their departments focussed on poverty reduction, because most rural communities live in poverty. The mandate of the departments was to deal with the poverty situation in the rural communities.

The beneficiaries were asked about what they thought of the phenomenon of rural development, and most of them indicated that improved road infrastructure, access to water, and economic opportunities where people can afford necessities clearly indicate rural development. A 28-year-old woman from Water Smeet Village responded as follows:

“Better roads, access to water in our yards or dwellings and job opportunities clearly show that our communities are developing. Most of us have no jobs and the water situation is not good” (Participant 9WSBF, 2019).

An 18-year-old boy from Muyexe Village indicated that rural development equated to:

“Creation of more schools so that we can get an education” (Participant 10MXBF, 2019).

An elderly woman from the Muyexe Village indicated:

“Being able to sustain myself and my family would mean that rural development was taking place” (Participant 4MXBF, 2019).

In essence, the community regards sustainable rural development as a state of being developed to move out of poverty and to be able to be independent and survive, or being able to maintain their living standard sustainably. According to literature, sustainable development refers to a development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The participants' view of sustainability is in line with the above-mentioned definition. Therefore, sustainable rural development can be understood as the improvement of the economic base of rural areas where the environmental and cultural heritage is protected and preserved, and ultimately enhances the life of the rural population. As one participant commented:

“Government needs to provide means to halve poverty or reduce it and in any case our department's mandate is to reduce poverty amongst rural communities” (Participant 10JBBF, 2019).

As stated earlier in this study, South Africa embarked on a journey to restore human dignity by, *inter alia*, eradicating poverty through improved citizens' capabilities, the creation of opportunities and access to basic services, which is a role that government must fulfil in a developmental state (Makgetla, 2010:151). This can be achieved by authoritatively influencing the direction of development through appropriate implementation of policies and strategies. Despite the development frameworks and strategies designed for rural development, the study argues that the situation continues to be the same or even worse, as it seems as though government planners are missing the point.

The officials were asked about rural development programmes and their implementation, with the majority indicating in the affirmative that they are aware of, but not involved in, sustainable rural development programmes aimed at eradicating poverty. Below are the sentiments of an official in the Department of Rural Development in Limpopo:

“There are several rural development programmes geared at eradicating poverty. These are designed based on the needs of the identified communities. But it is very important for the programmes to be implemented effectively so that they positively impact the community” (Participant 3LDOI, 2019).

All of the officials interviewed from both provinces indicated that in the past financial year their respective departments had implemented poverty eradication programmes. In Limpopo, the provision of water was critical for agricultural development. The Mpheni Irrigation Scheme near Mpheni and Muyexe Villages would benefit the beneficiaries, while in Mpumalanga water as well as housing projects were the main focus of the departments.

There was a different opinion from beneficiaries during the focus group discussion. Beneficiaries were of the opinion that they were neglected during the implementation phase of the programmes. As one respondent commented:

“The government does not tell us what is happening. We just get to see people going up and down. They do not ask us what we need and what help we need. It looks like they decide what is necessary for us without asking us what we would like to have” (Participant 6JBBF, 2019).

Another differing opinion was given by a youth from Muyexe Village, with the following comment:

“For me these things are for politicians, because they just think and implement what they think is necessary, for them to have tenders. There was never a time they sat down with us to check the most important aspect of our development. They do not feel the hunger, the unemployment and the poverty we face. How do you then design and plan something for me without me being involved?” (Participant 5MXBF, 2019).

The next section of this chapter analyses the understanding of poverty eradication programmes in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages.

5.3.3 Understanding of poverty eradication programmes implementation

In developmental states, it is the role of government to formulate plans, policies and institutions for poverty reduction, taking control of financial and human resources (World Bank, 2007:19). There are many cases in which the actual conditions and needs of the poor are not accurately reflected in those measures of the government, because there is no mechanism or little awareness on the part of government officials towards respecting the needs and wishes of the poor. It is also not unusual that political decisions take priority

over administration, and it is often difficult to make administrative process consistent with government policy (Sen, 2007:138).

Required approaches towards understanding poverty eradication programmes include (World Bank, 2016:20):

- studying actual conditions of poverty;
- formulating comprehensive plans on poverty reduction based on studies;
- securing funding;
- strengthening partnerships between actors;
- improving awareness/abilities of government officials; and
- monitoring, evaluating and providing feedback.

During the interviews with the officials, the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, was referred to as the cornerstone of their mandate in the department to implement rural development for vibrant and sustainable rural communities. This implementation of rural development programmes is aimed at ensuring poverty eradication amongst communities and is also highlighted as one of the key reasons for the existence of the department. However, other pieces of legislation were also used to govern the mandate of the respective departments. As a Limpopo official suggested:

“The Rural Development Programme; the Rural Development Strategy of 1995; the Rural Development Framework of 1997; the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy of 2001; and the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme of 2009 are the key pieces of legislation that govern our mandate to create an enabling environment to ensure that rural communities have greater opportunities to participate fully in the economic, social and political life of the country, supported by good legislation and policies that facilitate accelerated land reform, access to basic services, socio-economic infrastructure, skills development and job creation for the rural communities” (Participant 5LDOI, 2019).

In relation to the critical success factors of programme implementation, the officials indicated that their rural communities had access to water and proper housing, proper road networks were still being built and that provision of electricity had reached nearly all rural communities. As one official from Mpumalanga put it:

“Government has managed to reach some milestones, in a way to reduce poverty, people now have access to roads, water, electricity and sanitation. For instance, the Water for All Flagship Project, which resulted in some of the water infrastructure backlog being reduced, and there have been improvements made to decrease electricity provision backlogs and there has been the eradication of the bucket system in formal areas” (Participant 3MDOI, 2019).

As highlighted, the purpose of rural development programmes is amongst others to eradicate poverty, raise the standard of living of the rural people, promotion of rural skills, and to create employment and raise the literacy level. However, the overall achievements of the programmes have been characterised by dissatisfaction of some beneficiaries, as they felt that the programmes did not benefit them and did not meet the objective of poverty eradication. As much as the level of achievement is not satisfactory, there has been improvement in access to basic services at both provincial, district and local municipality levels.

In addition, the involvement of the beneficiaries as well as all stakeholders is crucial for programmes to succeed, not forgetting the availability of resources required. In the case of Limpopo, the officials indicated that traditional leaders were crucial for rural development programmes to succeed. One participant commented:

“We had to first consult the traditional leaders in the area earmarked for rural development programmes. Otherwise the communities would not get involved” (Participant 2LDOI, 2019).

Participants were asked about how the department continued to support beneficiaries of sustainable rural development equitably. It is a requirement of the South African Constitution that the provincial governments undertake provincial planning, and to achieve corporative governance, this plan should guide planning between different departments at the provincial sphere. Similarly, it should inform plans at the municipal sphere, while in turn the plan itself must also be informed by the plans from the other spheres of government such as IDP's and the Spatial Development Frameworks. One official stated that:

“In applying the integrated and inclusive approach, public participation and the needs analysis approach directed the interventions” (Participant 4MDOI, 2019).

In respect of receiving information on rural development programmes, participants indicated that they hardly saw any of the officials or received any information, other than from their community leaders. Information received from the community leaders was not always related to the available programmes. This was summed up by a 27-year-old youth from Muyexe Village in Limpopo who stated:

“We have never seen such officials, so we don’t even know these DRDLR officials. We meet with our leaders or ward councillors but not too frequently” (Participant 7MXBF, 2019).

An elderly man in Water Smeet Village presented his thoughts below:

“Individuals that are seen are only the politicians that are involved, and we in the community are not informed in time to participate” (Participant 6WSBF, 2019).

The beneficiaries were also asked to state which committees were present during the implementation of rural development programmes, for evaluation and monitoring purposes. Most of the respondents indicated that there were ward as well as municipal committees. Thus, the profiling approach is key in informing plans, as ideally the National War Room on Poverty, which offers policy coordination and advisory services to the Presidency, utilises household and community profiling methods to create base line information about the community’s and household’s interests of rural development needs, which is then used towards planning, project and intervention development and programme designs. The Community Profiling Framework for the War on Poverty Campaign (South Africa, 2009) states that “a community profile provides an overall understanding of the structure, history, institutions, resource base and quality and quantity of infrastructure and services that shape the livelihoods of households in a given community”. If the framework is not effectively applied, then plans will not be informed.

According to a report by the Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation (South Africa, 2013), the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme is a complex and cross-cutting programme which requires effective partnership between several stakeholders across all spheres of government, amongst numerous departments, as well as with civil society. The DPME further explained that the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme is facilitated by a complex set of interrelated institutional arrangements, such as the Council of Stakeholders, technical committees and political

champions which bring all the various stakeholders together to contribute to the aims of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (South Africa, 2013). The beneficiaries were asked what skills they thought they needed to effectively manage programmes in their areas, with the most indicating that programme management was critical for them to ultimately carry the programme forward. As a 22-year-old woman indicated below:

“We need to be shown how to manage the programme. You cannot come and just bring a programme without showing us how to run it” (Participant 8JBBF, 2019).

However, whilst the younger beneficiaries preferred to gain project management skills, the older beneficiaries requested business skills, particularly those in the Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages. As one participant indicated:

“We want to be able to run the business and sell the products by ourselves. Those officials must teach us business skills” (Participant 10JBBF, 2019).

In essence, the departments must ensure that the beneficiaries are accorded skills such as project management and business management skills for the long-term sustainability of the programmes. This means that careful assessments must be done to understand what the beneficiaries require for the equitable sustainability of all programmes.

Equitable development for rural areas is about using the principle of fairness to create healthy, vibrant and sustainable communities of opportunity (Jones, 2009:33). Equitable outcomes can be achieved when targeted strategies are put in place to ensure that rural communities participate in and benefit from decisions that shape their communities and regions (Vandemoortele, 2009:87). Accordingly, there are some basic principles that underlie equitable community development, which include the need to integrate strategies that focus on rural communities, with those focussed on improving places; the need to reduce local and regional disparities (poverty; social, public and economic infrastructure; unemployment); the need to promote fair investments that are catalytic, coordinated and result in a triple bottom line; and the need to ensure meaningful community participation, leadership and ownership in change efforts. Therefore, the positive impacts of equitable development are seen when the poverty-stricken communities move into the mixed-income, mixed-wealth and diverse communities, with new investments in housing, business and infrastructure (Sandel, 2009:18). Furthermore, the communities benefit from

the improved and maintained social networks and services they use. In that way, the businesses which exist locally will be supported and additional viable businesses are to be created in the community (Woolcock, 2009:51).

The next section explores findings related to priorities of rural development initiatives and the roles of public officials in implementing rural development programmes.

5.3.4 Prioritised interventions and roles of the officials in programme implementation

The interviewed officials indicated that key interventions included amongst others upgrading of the road networks and improving the water infrastructure systems which were urgently underway to uplift the local communities' current dire situation. A participant commented that:

“Food production and food security programmes – the poultry, access to roads in Mkhondo, agriculture and forestry projects as well as a housing project for the homeless are what we’re prioritising in Mpumalanga” (Participant 3MDOI, 2019).

“Upgrading of the road networks towards the villages, as well as improving the water infrastructure systems are what we are focussing on in Limpopo, particularly in certain villages where the situation is dire” (Participant 4LDOI, 2019).

Regarding their roles in the programme implementation and their sustainability, the interviewed officials indicated that their position was to ensure that the rural development programmes were implemented through planning and mobilising of all relevant stakeholders, organising and managing of initial meetings with all stakeholders, and above all, ensuring that each stakeholder clearly understood their roles. This was crucial for successful programme implementation. As one official in Mpumalanga suggested:

“We have to ensure that everybody is on board for the success of these programmes, otherwise we risk failing the beneficiaries if implementation is not properly done” (Participant 1MDOI, 2019).

An official in Limpopo indicated that:

“In the past we have seen programmes fail because most stakeholders were not clear regarding their roles in the implementation process. This time, we

meticulously review everything with them before we start the initial stages of implementation” (Participant 5LDOI, 2019).

In contrast to the above comment, a participant from Jabulani Bafazi commented as follows:

“The government does not regard us partners in our development. They do not take us seriously. The programmes are there to benefit corrupt people in government. We have seen programmes not being completed because the whole need analysis was not performed adequately where beneficiaries were part of the decision” (Participant 7JBBF, 2019).

The above is confirmed by the evaluation done by the DPME (South Africa, 2013:44) in that “coordinating all the relevant actors which contribute to the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme is a momentous task, however the DRDLR has not been able to live up to its role as the coordinating department”. Accordingly, most respondents asserted that it is not appropriate or realistic to expect the DRDLR to play the role of coordinator, because it lacks the authority needed to do so. The absence of a strong coordinator with the authority to mobilise all three spheres of government and the numerous government departments to work together has resulted in stakeholders working in silos, which is undermining the programme. The lack of coordinated planning and implementation also impacts negatively on the success of various sustainable rural development programmes.

As per their evaluation, there is an overwhelming perception from key stakeholders that municipalities are not playing their part in the implementation of sustainable rural development and are not sufficiently committed to the programmes. The sustainable rural development programmes have also been found to not always be aligned to the municipal infrastructure development plans. This is creating a vacuum at the local level. The perception exists that sustainable rural development is an added burden to the already existing duties of municipal employees, hence sustainable rural development is not being prioritised.

The next section highlights the challenges related to the institutional framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development.

5.3.5 Institutional frameworks used for programme implementation and challenges

The National Development Plan was the key document both officials from Limpopo and Mpumalanga said guided them in the implementation of the programmes. As already mentioned, the improvement of road networks and improvement of water infrastructure were important in eradicating poverty. One official commented that:

“Our department is mainly guided by the National Development Plan, which also speaks to the CRDP of Mpumalanga” (Participant 2MDOI, 2019).

Other key frameworks that were mentioned by the officials included Mpumalanga Vision 2030, Strategic Implementation Framework 2013-2030 and the Mpumalanga Rural Development Programme. The Mpumalanga Rural Development Programme was established in 2001 under the coordination of the premier and technically supported by German Technical Corporation (GTZ) and the German Development Service. The main objective of the programme was to contribute to an improvement of the social and economic situation of the rural poor with the focus of creation of income and employment in rural areas (Choi *et al.*, 2007:87).

Most officials from both provinces indicated that a lack of financial resources, political interference and poor coordination amongst all stakeholders were the biggest issues that hampered successful programme implementation. In addition, land claims further hindered any agricultural development, according to the officials. This limited any agricultural development. As one interviewed Mpumalanga official puts it:

“Funding has always been an issue, and this has always hampered the implementation of the programmes” (Participant 2MDOI, 2019).

Another respondent indicated that:

“A lot of the fertile land is either privately owned or is claimed by the various communities, so it becomes difficult for us to allocate land for rural agricultural development” (Participant 4MDOI, 2019).

According to the interviewed officials from both departments, the availability of funds from the onset of the projects was very important for the success of any rural development programme. Specific budgets must be created for such programmes from the beginning,

which must also factor in skills development for the beneficiaries. Another critical success factor was that other departments that were stakeholders in the programme implementation also needed to understand their roles. An official commented that:

“Sometimes programme implementation becomes difficult because other departments are not sure of their roles” (Participant 2LDOI, 2019).

A lack of understanding of the framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes and guidelines for implementation compromises the objectivity of the programme.

The next section discusses the challenges related to services availability.

5.3.7 Availability of services and challenges

Most of the beneficiaries from the Muyexe Village indicated that they still did not have proper sanitation facilities, despite promises from the local government to provide sanitation facilities. There is also no health care facility in the area, and they must travel a distance to the nearest clinic which negatively impacts on the elderly. One focus group participant stated that:

“We also need proper toilets as some of us have to go outside. At night this is dangerous especially if there are snakes. The clinic is also far for some of us. The roads need to be repaired urgently” (Participant 3MXBF, 2019).

The consensus from the beneficiaries in Mpumalanga was that some work has been done by local government to improve their lives. However, more still needs to be done. This includes more job creation opportunities and the eradication of the toilet bucket system, as well as ensuring that all community members have better housing. As a 29-year-old man indicated:

“Not all of us are working or benefiting from these projects and we are overcrowded in these small houses they have built for us” (Participant 9WSBF, 2019).

In response to the challenges of implementation of the programmes, nearly all beneficiaries complained of the slow pace of programme implementation, while those in Jabulani Bafazi Village did not think that the plan was fair, as no proper situational analysis was conducted. This was summed up by an elderly 59-year-old beneficiary from Jabulani Bafazi Village who indicated that:

“The province seems to be more focussed in urban areas, and therefore equity will never be achieved” (Participant 6JBBF, 2019).

A 31-year-old man from Muyexe Village provided his view below:

“The process once it starts should continue and not stop for a long time then start again. This discourages us since some of us forget and then must be reminded again of the implementation process” (Participant 2MXBF, 2019).

From the above analysis the interruptions created a lot of uncertainty amongst the beneficiaries. A lack of proper communication from the local government creates the perception that government does not care about rural economic development. If no proper analysis was done of what the right programmes would be, most beneficiaries would not be motivated to participate in programmes that they felt were not relevant to their needs.

5.3.8 Remedies to the challenges

As much as the interviewed officials from the departments highlighted challenges which they face in implementing rural development programmes, they also highlighted a few solutions that they deemed crucial, as mentioned by one participant:

“There needs to be a coordination of all activities from a central point, with us as officials empowered to make decisions. Some programmes are designed and then sometimes when you need help from a particular department, they cite the budget and the decision-making process. This compromises the success of the programmes. There must be systems and skills training for us to be effective. Projects must be managed systematically” (Participant 4LDOI, 2019).

Another participant commented:

“The fragmented approach for rural development does not help. Skills shortage is problematic within the department, as there is no budget if you want training. All government departments involved in rural development must release their budgets into one rural development vote. Officials must be empowered by their departments to make decisions. The communication department must communicate what we must undertake and allow communities to air their views. We also need to get incentives for successful programmes, while performance must be evaluated” (Participant 2MDOI, 2019).

Most of the interviewed beneficiaries indicated that there is a need for proper communication between the provincial and the local government officials. Any challenges must be dealt with immediately, so that the implementation process can continue. Furthermore, there is a need for an all-inclusive approach where the community forms part of the planning sessions and is not informed once decisions have been made, or where meetings are attended for compliance purposes only. This was summed up by a 35-year-old unemployed woman who stated:

“We need them to inform us if there are challenges, proper communication is key so that we can understand what is going on” (Participant 3WSBF, 2019).

Another 25-year-old unemployed youth suggested that:

“We normally list our needs but what government comes up with is something else. Let all departments be here and we address them. The government must make farms available with support such as finance to enable us to grow. We worked on farms and know what is happening to farm adequately. Even the finance they talk about has demanding criteria to qualify” (Participant 5MXBF, 2019).

The challenges of the current approved implementation plans may emanate from the fact that there is not enough funding, and as a result the process may take longer than expected. It is important therefore that budgets for these rural development programmes are created so that the plans continue without any interruptions.

5.4 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Large numbers of the poor and other marginalised populations in many developing countries are affected by the global economic crisis through slow economic growth and insufficient opportunities for improving and promoting their livelihood (Chibba, 2011:66). In most developing countries, due to weak essential infrastructure, large numbers of peasants are deprived of opportunities for growth and development (Karbasioun *et al.*, 2008:766). To achieve the sustainable development goals, these challenges must be overcome, particularly by adopting comprehensive rural development strategies that empower the rural poor. Therefore, it can be argued that rural development is a comprehensive and multi-dimensional concept, which involves agricultural development and other rural related industries (Zamani Poor, 2001:38). Rural development is a multi-

level, multi-actor and multi-faceted process, that is affected by different elements including developmental models, the relationship between agriculture, industry and society, social and economic aspects and rural economic activities, and individual farm and local policies and institutions (Long *et al.*, 2011:1096). Therefore economic development is an urgent priority for the world to meet the sustainable development goals. Rural development involves economic emphasis on various non-farm activities, ecotourism, handicrafts, off farm activities, and extended social and physical infrastructure (Rivera & Qamar, 2003:89). The ability and strength of local economic interactions are prerequisite for sustainable rural development (Courtney *et al.*, 2006:17). The rural development process consists of fundamental changes in social institutions, administrative structure, cultural systems and reorganisation of social and international economic systems (Iheriohanma & Oguoma, 2010:46).

Although government has had some achievements since 1994, the South African rural population is still facing the challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment. Rural areas are still experiencing high levels of under-development and poor socio-economic conditions. Amongst the myriad challenges in establishing and sustaining rural development are problems relating to inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the implementation of the programmes.

Findings of the study revealed that there is a lack of active community participation in the implementation process of sustainable rural development programmes in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages. The study argues that rural development programmes are much more likely to reflect local priorities, reach their goals and be sustainable, if and when the design and implementation involves high levels of active participation by the beneficiaries and local communities. Rural development programmes are supposed to be planned, designed, prepared and implemented with active and significant community participation in terms of decision-making. This will also promote ownership of the programmes.

The approach to rural development in the above cases reveals that the actors such as government departments and non-government organisations lack an integrated and coordinated approach to rural development (Choi *et al.*, 2007:42). The departments have a silo approach towards rural development programmes. Although the officials are aware of the mandate of their departments, they do not have the powers to make decisions

relating to areas where there are scope overlaps. Only specific departments can implement what they are mandated to do. This impedes the success and sustainability of sustainable rural development programmes. Generally, the participants indicated that there was a lack of collaboration amongst various government departments, who provided little support to existing projects. Adequate support was required to ensure the success of income-generating projects, since most of the project members were in dire need of assistance in accessing funds, capacity building and project management, so as to increase the project's chance of success (Long *et al.*, 2010:459).

The technical design of programmes that require expertise are compromised during the design phase as a result of lack of these skills. This eventually impacts the service delivered (Nash, 2012:44). The fact that most government departments are set up along functional lines, such as agriculture, forestry, fisheries, health, public works, education and small-scale industry, and the incorporation of non-agricultural components into sustainable rural development projects, expecting them to be managed effectively by institutions that were staffed and managed fundamentally by agricultural staff, overloaded management so that implementation suffered.

The empirical study also revealed that public officials did not have the necessary skills and knowledge of computer systems to report performance. The use of the Microsoft Projects system was a challenge and the tracking of programmes was inadequately done. There were also issues of budget unavailability cited regarding training and skills enhancement. The study argues that there is a need to train and develop public servants, starting from the leadership level, to display technical and professional capacities, professionalism, integrity transparency, accountability, effectiveness and responsiveness, in conducting public affairs and delivering public goods and services to all people including those in the rural areas (Lapegna, 2016:104). The study also further argues that public officials should be equipped with skills related to financial planning and organisational management. It was also mentioned that the local government officials charged with the responsibility of facilitating economic development in their municipalities lacked proper knowledge and skills.

Lack of collaboration amongst professionals was also cited as a challenge by officials. The participants highlighted the lack of teamwork amongst professionals and the lack of

support from relevant government departments as issues of concern. They were of the opinion that it was the responsibility of all departments to join forces in community matters in order to eradicate poverty from communities.

The other challenge that was revealed by the study is the lack of access to sustainable rural finance for rural development. For the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication, the study argues that it is vital to ensure securing widespread access to efficient and sustainable financial services and capital, without which the benefits of rural development cannot be realised in full. There was no communication of the financing facilities available and the criteria to be considered. The study argues that conditions to access these facilities should be tailor made for poor rural citizens to qualify. Rural financing must be tailored to the needs of the rural poor and financing of the sustainable rural development initiatives to enable poor rural communities to move out of the poverty trap.

In the Muyexe Village where crop production was initiated, the use of primitive irrigation systems proved to be demanding significant amounts of water in the midst of water scarcity. This revealed that there is lack of research and innovation during the planning of sustainable rural development programmes and limited use of ICT. This type of irrigation could be replaced by conventional methods such as drip irrigation and moisture conservation methods such as greenhouses. The study argues that there is a need for the promotion of innovation, research and development focussed on the needs of rural people in South Africa and rural producers and firms. This becomes possible by utilising the opportunities offered by the Information and Communication Technology revolution. In most cases where rural agricultural development is the strategy to eradicate poverty, rural producers are not able to access recent technologies in farming and irrigation methods that ensure sustainability in the use of natural resources such as water. Primitive methods have proved costly and non-effective. The use of Information and Communication Technology becomes handy to research and access the export markets.

The most fundamental challenge revealed by the empirical study that seems to bring about divisions in communities, is the power struggle between traditional and political leaders that eventually impedes the effectiveness of sustainable rural development programmes. The participants mentioned that most of the communities were in a dilemma, as some felt that they owed their allegiance to traditional leaders, while others viewed

them as old, conservative and resistant to change, and blamed them for impeding development in their communities. Conversely, political leaders were perceived as young, progressive, powerful and able to bring about the required changes to improve people's quality of life. The study argues that community leaders are critical community-based stakeholders, including politicians, traditional leadership and institutional leaders in rural areas. Traditional leadership, political leadership, focus groups, citizens, women groups, the private sector, local government, farmers, institutions, water consumers and civic society are viewed as salient stakeholders in rural areas.

The study also revealed that stakeholders and their roles were not properly mapped and analysed to ensure that expectations are met. The study argues that these stakeholders help to provide checks and balances, as well as being consumers of rural development services themselves. All these stakeholders are bound by monitoring imperatives in community participation and should participate effectively in rural development programmes. Stakeholder mapping is key in terms of finding a way in which these leaders participate in policy and project design, implementation, evaluation and benefitting.

In addition the study revealed that the officials responsible for the rural development programme implementation are not empowered to make decisions during the implementation phase. They always refer to departmental leadership for guidance which takes time and impedes delivery of the programmes. The study argues that there is a need for strong rural development leadership on the vision, agenda and scope for the programmes being supported, and acceptance of this leadership by the rural development stakeholders. Leaders should ensure that the sustainable rural development programmes are gradual, not forced, and should provide a clearer basis for building a clear vision and reducing fragmentation. Effective and skilled leaders must ensure that the planning process for rural development is effective, and complementarity between national and local sector strategies must take place. The leaders must plan for engagement from the beginning and ensure that what is being targeted at all levels is feasible and achievable.

There is still a challenge of budget for rural development programmes. Where programmes are interrelated, the budget would still be held by the responsible department which delays implementation due to release of funds and the approval processes. The study argues that it is critical in the case of South Africa that rural development budgets

from all departments mandated to provide rural development and related essential services are aligned, integrated and coordinated, and that there is commitment to provide financial support on budget in all cases within the required timelines as per project milestones. This can be achieved through coordinated mechanisms as far as possible, and in all cases fully aligned with the rolling strategy and results oriented framework. This will ensure that rural development budgets are not done in silos that eventually impede the implementation process of sustainable rural development programmes.

During the interview with officials of the DRDLR it was revealed that there was no system that measures the performance of the sustainable rural development programmes. What exists is the performance management system for officials' key performance areas, not specifically measuring the performance on the implementation of the sustainable rural development programmes. The study argues that for the purposes of transparent, value for money and accountable financial management systems, there is a need to set up public expenditure review and tracking processes to help track and monitor the efficiency and effectiveness of spending in the rural development programmes. The study further argues that there is a need to establish monitoring and evaluation systems which can generate relevant data for performance reporting. The empirical research revealed that there was no system to generate relevant data for the performance reporting on programmes.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This section has shown the importance of involving all stakeholders for the implementation of rural development programmes in both the Limpopo and Mpumalanga case studies. It is important that the financial resources are readily available, so that rural development programmes from inception to their completion continue without interruptions. Key to the implementation of rural development programmes is the urgent improvement of infrastructure such as the road networks, which is a clear catalyst for rural economic development. Lack of proper integration of rural development programmes and financial constraints were amongst the key challenges mentioned by officials responsible for implementation of rural development programmes, whilst amongst the beneficiaries in Mpumalanga, the projects were not sustainable and not all beneficiaries benefited from such rural projects. In Limpopo, breakdown in project implantation and lack of

communication created a negative perception of the local government. Better communication and sustainable projects are key in solving misconceptions and upliftment of the general economic conditions of the beneficiaries. The next chapter proposes a framework that could be used in dealing with some of the short-comings of the rural development programmes examined.

CHAPTER SIX

AN INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT AIMED AT ADDRESSING POVERTY IN SOUTH AFRICA

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The DRDLR was established in 2009, in line with the ANC as the governing party's Polokwane Conference resolutions. For the first time in history, a department was dedicated to the social and economic development of rural South Africa (South Africa, 2013). The study acknowledges that the department is committed to ensuring that South Africans who reside in rural areas enjoy the same benefits as their urban counterparts, so that they are also covered by the blanket of human rights and basic dignity guaranteed in the Constitution (1996). The previous chapter examined responses regarding the understanding of poverty as basis for poverty eradication, as well as the understanding of poverty for beneficial implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. The empirical study also highlighted challenges that impede the implementation of rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication in the selected communities of the Mpumalanga and Limpopo Provinces. This chapter attempts to suggest the creation of a framework that aims to effectively deal with the flaws of previous and current weaknesses of existing frameworks for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa. This chapter therefore responds to one of the objectives, which is to develop an institutional framework that supports effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa. For that reason, this chapter proposes an institutional framework developed to support effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa. Gaps in the administration of poverty eradication through rural development are also identified. Citations in the previous chapters placed emphasis on the Comprehensive Rural Development Plan, the National Development Plan and the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy on intensifying the fight against poverty and inequality and other social ills that are evident in communities across the

provinces. Sustainable rural development has thus become the approach to eradicate poverty in these communities. The chapter further recommends how poverty in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces, respectively, should be targeted to provide the basic human needs, the creation of economic opportunities and the empowerment of communities and individuals to access these opportunities.

The framework presented in this chapter considers best practices as discussed in Chapter 4, with overarching objectives to target poverty and eradicate it through sustainable rural development. The chapter will also unpack the conceptual meaning of a framework, due to the crucial significance to the study. The concept assists the development of an institutional framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication.

6.2 CONCEPTUALISING AN INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

The objective of the following section is to discuss the meaning and implications of a framework as a concept in the context this study, which proposes an institutional framework that aims at implementing sustainable rural development that targets poverty eradication. A framework can be defined as a guide that is used to ensure that policy programmes detail and cover all required components towards the determination of their success (Jackson, 2010:212). The term “institutional framework” refers to a set of formal organisational structures or rules used to guide activities for service provision. The Oxford Dictionary (2016:5) describes a framework as denoting the basic structure that underlines a system, concept or text. A framework is a tool used as a precondition for the successful implementation of activities (Jackson, 2010:212). A framework can also be defined as a detailed intervention tool that is used to guide the creation or design of a programme, or to meet a set goal. The Business Dictionary Online (2020) defines a framework as a broad overview or outline of intertwined items that supports a given approach to a specific objective and serves as a guide that can be modified towards ensuring that the objectives are attained or met.

Concisely, a framework is a guide with numerous interdependent elements that seeks to collectively promote the sustainable attainment of the goals of policy programmes (Haurovi, 2016:237). A framework furthermore seeks to improve the manner in which

policy programmes such as rural development are implemented in an effective, economic and efficient manner. The study seeks to develop an institutional framework that supports effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa. The proposed institutional framework needs to ensure effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes to eradicate poverty.

Effectiveness can be described as the achievement of the objective set. The study argues that something is effective when it has realised the objective set, i.e. achieved the set result. Thus, effectiveness is the measure of the achievement of the planned result or the expression of how much it was successful in transforming objectives into results. In this present case, effectiveness can be defined as whether it was successful, or how much it was successful, in realising the objectives set in the rural development strategy. Furthermore, effectiveness has the capability of producing a desired result or the ability to produce desired output. When something is deemed effective, it means that it has an intended or expected outcome, or produces a deep, vivid impression. Effectiveness is defined as being adequate to accomplish a purpose; producing the intended or expected result (Dictionary.Com Online, 2020).

The efficiency concept is applicable to the activities of the public sector including policy-making and implementation of programmes of the public policy (Common Wealth of Australia, 2013:4). Efficiency always means a relationship between a certain output and a certain input category. In the case of evaluation of spatial development programmes, the indicators of output, result and effect are related to resource or input indicators (Nabradi *et al.*, 2008:23). Efficiency is concerned with the best relationship between resources employed and results achieved, while effectiveness is concerned with attaining the specific objectives set and achieving the intended results (European Council, 2002:45). Efficiency is often a measurable ability to avoid wasting materials, energy, efforts, money and time in doing something or in producing a desired result. In a more general sense, it is the ability to do things well, successfully, and without waste (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English Online, 2020). In more mathematical or scientific terms, it is a measure of the extent to which input is well used for an intended task, function or output. It often specifically comprises the capability of a specific application of effort to produce a specific outcome with a minimum amount or quantity of waste, expense, or

unnecessary effort. Efficiency refers to very different inputs and outputs in different fields and industries (Barke & Newton, 1997:320). Efficiency is doing things right; effectiveness is getting the right things done (Barke & Newton, 1997:320).

The need to focus on and measure development results has been recognised at each of the four high-level forums on rural development effectiveness, namely those in Rome, Paris, Accra and Busan in 2003, 2005, 2008 and 2011, respectively (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2018:10). Efforts to modernise, deepen and broaden rural development effectiveness have led to the formulation of frameworks, strategies and plans in most international rural development institutions, including at the International Fund for Agricultural Development. Development effectiveness is understood as the extent to which the development intervention's objectives were achieved, or are expected to be achieved, taking into account their relative importance (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2011:20). Effectiveness has become a core operational principle of international rural development organisations (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2011:22).

Furthermore, a consensus has emerged that generating evidence by monitoring and measuring results can play a strategic role in informing programme and policy development decisions, and in making them more likely to achieve rural development objectives (Segone, 2008:43). Sound, relevant and frequent information about the progress of a given intervention allows decision-makers to assess whether progress is being made, whether results are being achieved, and whether changes need to be introduced in order to reach expected impacts. Indeed, managing for results leads to better decisions, which in turn contributes to the achievement of rural development results (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2011:28).

Effectively supporting development is not just about generating evidence on individual interventions, it is also about effectively managing development institutions (Schiere, 2016:112). The scarce resources used for rural development must be employed as efficiently and effectively as possible, to ensure value for money. Effective development thus requires examining the policies, procedures and use of resources of institutions working in development (Schiere, 2016:112).

The concept of sustainable development – stressing the coordination of economic, social and environmental considerations, is an indispensable basic principle of all developments in the 21st Century, including rural development. According to the definition published in the famous Brundtland Report, sustainable development is a form of development which meets the needs of the present generation without endangering the chance of the future generations to be able to meet their own needs (Csete & Lang, 2005:313). If the objective is sustainability, sustainable development means the way to the realisation of which the local development provides the best solution (Moseley, 2003:227). For rural development to be sustainable, it must focus on people's priorities and their basic needs, ensuring ecological, but also social and cultural sustainability, participation in and equitable access of people to economic, social, cultural and political processes that affect their lives, the need for good governance, that is governance which includes participatory, transparent, accountable, effective and equitable governance, which promotes the rule of law and human rights (Csete & Lang, 2005:313).

The study seeks to propose an institutional framework for effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication.

6.3 PROPOSED INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

Chapter 4 reviewed several examples of community projects from a global perspective and highlighted the weaknesses of these examples. Any proposed institutional framework must take into consideration some of the weaknesses identified in these case studies, such as lack of commitment, poor coordination and the level of stakeholder involvement and engagement in the proposed projects. Some of these weaknesses were also highlighted in the previous chapter.

The institutional framework presented in this chapter is one that ensures efficient and effective implementation of sustainable rural development, with a goal and objective of poverty eradication. Thus the framework aims at achieving realisation of set goals and programme outcomes. Cognisance is taken of the task that the various components of the framework have in achieving goals intended to effectively and efficiently eradicate poverty in the rural communities via the implementation of sustainable rural development. The framework of the study is a process workflow framework placed within an institutional context that has differing components, which are equally vital to steering the

implementation framework of fiscally responsible and responsive sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication. Therefore the proposed institutional framework also seeks to both address the identified study problem, while at the same time ensuring that institutions deliver services in a model that complies with the requirements of the democratic developmental state and the NPM as argued in Chapter 2. According to Gregory (2002:238), overall, the NPM is a wave of reforms that seeks to free government from the traps of bureaucratic organisation that has been blamed for the ineffectiveness and inefficiencies that plagued the public sector prior to its adoption.

The summarised proposed institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development with outcomes intended to eradicate poverty in rural South Africa has the following steps or components:

- macro and micro environment analysis;
- institutional arrangement for coordination and integration;
- prioritisation and linking of budget to outcomes;
- identification of the key stakeholders;
- identification of the targeted areas;
- identification of the targeted beneficiaries;
- selection of the priority policy interventions;
- implementation of the selected policy interventions;
- monitoring of implemented interventions; and
- evaluation and review of results.

The institutional framework is presented in the following Figure 6.1.

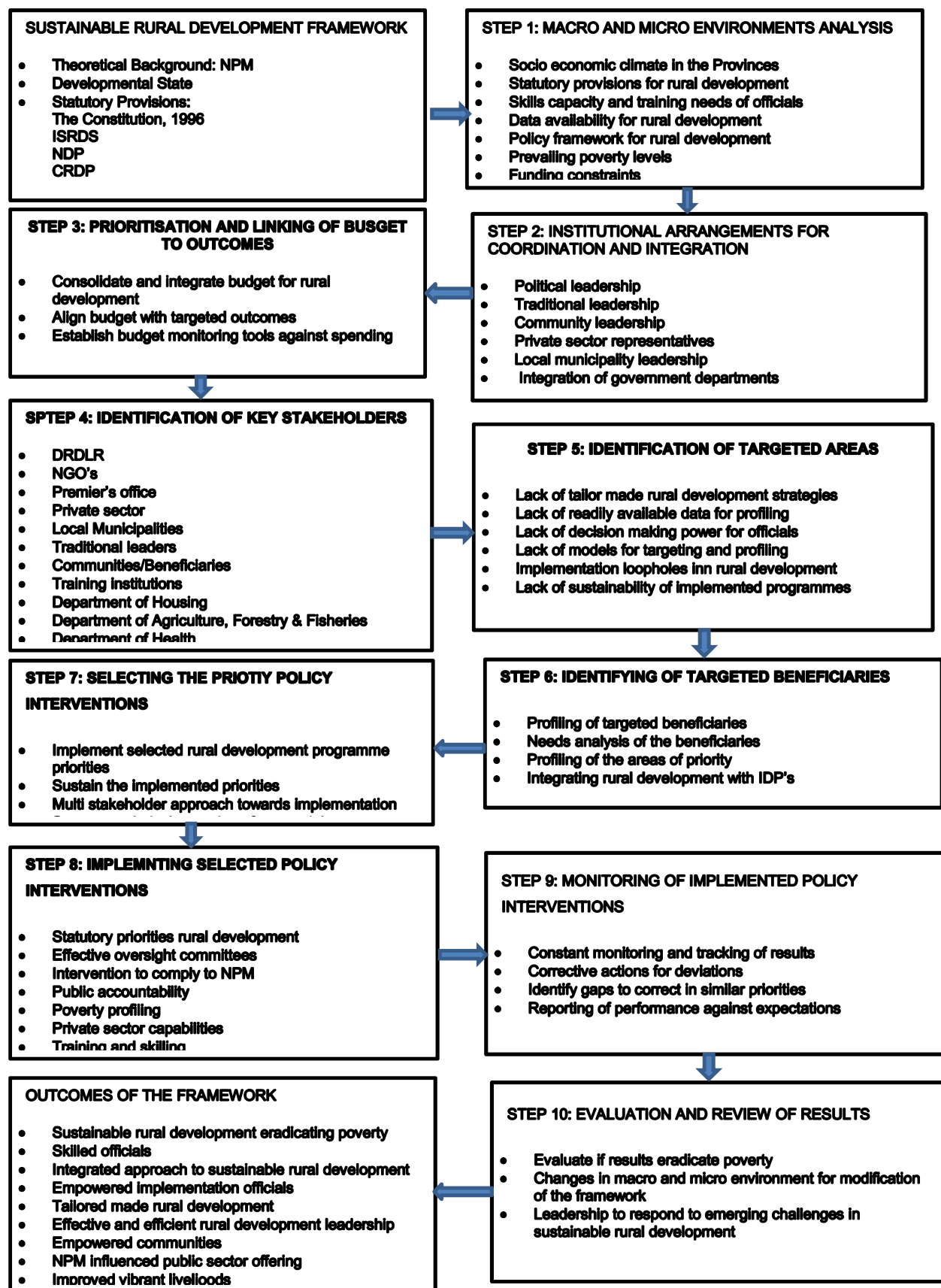


Figure 6.1: A proposed institutional framework

Source: Own Illustration (2020)

The following section analyses the steps within the proposed institutional framework for effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development.

6.3.1 Macro and micro environmental analysis

The first step in the proposed framework for effective and efficient implementation of rural development is the analysis of the situation or the environment. This will include the exercise to analyse the environment from where the sustainable rural development is being managed or implemented. This is the environment where the ground is laid for the identification of tools and guides necessary for the eradication of poverty, and the interventions that are to be undertaken for the eradication of poverty in South Africa. The macro environment includes the external environment whereby the factors are beyond the influence of the institution involving the legal, economic, demographic, social and political factors (PESTLE). In principle the institutions do not have control over these factors, but still have to comply with the requirements of the macro environment (Nieuwenhuizen & Groenewald, 2008:16).

The micro environment refers to the factors that are internal to the institution and can be controlled to the benefit of the institutional wins and gains in achieving the goals set. These factors include amongst others internal operational procedures and policies, human resources and plans in response to the macro environment (Nieuwenhuizen & Groenewald, 2008:13).

The proposed institutional framework for effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development requires that the macro and micro environment analysis be carried out by the DRDLR, NGO's, traditional councils and municipalities to achieve the goal of poverty eradication.

The assessment of the macro and micro environments ensures that the implementation of the proposed framework aligns to the implementation of government wide socio-economic development strategies that take into consideration effective and efficient service delivery within the prescripts of the regulation and available resources. Developmental states fast track the development initiatives of their economies and communities by abiding by all the statutes and regulations (Marwala, 2009:3).

6.3.2 Institutional arrangement supporting coordination and integration

According to Ringim *et al.*, (2016:52), efficient and effective implementation of sustainable rural development requires the involvement of relevant government institutions such as line departments, banks, training and research centres or women and youth councils. This is also the view of Deaton (2002:34), who argues that effective implementation of poverty eradication programmes requires stronger institutions in the state, the private sector and civil society, and in poor rural communities themselves. Furthermore, the involvement of NGO's from rural communities, church-related development agencies, national federations of NGOs and small rural development-oriented NGOs is necessary. The inclusion of selected NGOs is of course important, as they usually have more of the confidence of the people, are less hierarchic and bureaucratic and provide services more expediently and timeously.

The selection of government institutions or departments and NGO's depends naturally also upon the type of service to be provided and upon the capabilities and willingness of these agencies to provide the beneficiary groups with the required services and facilities. For example, if a programme requires water provision, the Department of Water and Sanitation needs to be involved. It should also be considered whether one or more of these organisations are able and prepared to second to the project some of their capable officials or field workers in the programme as participation agents.

In order to obtain the required project support for the beneficiaries, workable integration and coordination mechanisms are needed for obtaining effective policies, allocation of resources and delivery of services to meet the various needs of the groups. It is critical to set up a programme integration and coordination committee. The committee should be formed with representatives of all relevant government institutions, local municipalities, traditional leaders, NGO's, the project staff, in particular the group promoters, and the beneficiaries or their groups where these have been formed. The committee should aim at promoting beneficiary participation and at solving related implementation problems, in particular the timely delivery of services and facilities to the rural poor groups.

The main functions of the coordination and integration committee are as follows:

- to provide to the project staff the main orientations and guidelines for the planning, implementation and evaluation of beneficiary participation according to the basic project documents;
- to help recruit and train the required project staff such as the participation agents (group promoters);
- to promote effective two-way communication channels between low income groups in the project areas and support government and NGO officials at various levels;
- to obtain the necessary training and support for the beneficiary groups from government and/or NGO bodies;
- to help administer and control the project funds for group formation and action;
- to promote the consolidation of the project's participatory actions and their multiplication in other areas of the country; and
- to perform any other function that will enhance the success of the project.

Given the above expectations of rural development programmes, it was commonly agreed that a successful rural development programme would demand some form of co-ordinated development at the rural level, and therefore this led to the introduction of the concept of integrated and coordinated rural development, a model that emphasises coordinating and integrating the various sectoral actions of the state at the local level with participants in the rural communities including the private sector and NGO's.

The project coordination team also needs to be capable and take initiatives in favour of adjusting the programme's implementation modalities to improve programme performance. These adjustments include mobilising several partners that are not foreseen at project design; introducing the communal level as the core for local planning; implementing a value-chain approach; and directly managing several rural engineering works. The coordinated and integrated participatory approach will greatly improve the capacity of rural communities in terms of planning and managing local development initiatives, and will help meet the needs expressed by rural communities during participatory needs assessments.

6.3.3 Prioritisation and linking of budget to outcomes

Sriskandarajah *et al.*, (2018:49) state that one of the main challenges faced by rural development seems to be the issues around the sustainable use of resources including funding, the resilience of rural communities to environmental uncertainties, challenges arising from the intensification and reconfiguration of global mobility patterns and the critical analysis of the political economies of new strategies for rural economic development based on the sustainable use and management of resources. Rural development implementation must focus on redrawing the contours of state intervention in rural societies and economies, including the potential rationalisation of expensive rural public services and re-evaluation of state support (Sriskandarajah *et al.*, 2018:49).

The Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean posit that (ECLAC) for rural development policies and programmes to be reinforced for success, social public investment must be protected from budget cuts, especially at a time when the poverty eradication process has stalled (Artecona *et al.*, 2019:219). As pointed out by the ECLAC, insufficient tax revenues and social spending impede the creation of a virtuous circle of sustainable rural development (Artecona *et al.*, 2019:220).

Budgets are to be linked to the outcomes targeted for rural development with the services that are ultimately delivered. Budgets for rural development must be more transparent, with efforts to increase public participation in the budgeting process (Africa, 2019:12). South Africans are invited to scrutinise budget information and provide opinions on government service delivery. There must be more reliance on public participation to strengthen the budgeting system and make it even more reliable.

The findings from the study revealed that outcomes that should be linked to rural development budgeting must amongst others include:

- Improving livelihoods in rural communities by providing support through the development of infrastructure and prioritising the revitalisation of towns in the poorest districts.
- Supporting rural economic transformation by facilitating the development of infrastructure for rural enterprises.

- Creating sustainable and vibrant rural communities through facilitating the development of rural enterprises and industries in areas with economic development potential and opportunities.
- Facilitating rural infrastructure development to improve access to social and economic infrastructure, and providing income generating opportunities through improved physical infrastructure in rural areas.
- Creating rural enterprise and industrial development to enable an institutional environment for sustainable rural development, and providing social and economic development and sustainable livelihoods in rural communities. Its functions are based on the social mobilisation of communities to ensure that rural communities take ownership of rural development projects and programmes; the establishment of rural development forums and partnerships; increased food security; the promotion of youth development and social organisation; the creation of jobs through cooperatives and the development of rural enterprises and industries.
- Training of rural youth in various skills sectors that include administration, agriculture, construction, education, engineering, health and safety, hospitality, renewable energy and transport, to match the economic priorities of the communities and provinces from which they were recruited.

The creation of a dedicated ministry on rural development with a flagship intervention programme and funding streams must not turn off investments by other government departments in rural areas. There is merit in the idea of assembling a more comprehensive picture of total government investment in rural areas. However, focus should be on piecing together a coherent account of rural public investment from fragmented departmental expenditures, which goes beyond the scope of the status of key rural development interventions. Government should aim at spending a significant amount of fiscal resources on a single programme and fiscal resources which must be spent wisely and effectively to ensure improvement in the lives of rural residents through sustainable rural development. This should include that rural development funds must be ring-fenced from different departments and agencies into one budget pool focussed on poverty eradication.

6.3.4 Identification of the stakeholders

The promotion of the development of human and physical resources in rural areas requires recognising the fact that local people themselves are the main implementers of

development projects. If the people participate passively in projects, they become inactive and will depend on external inputs. In order to avoid this situation, local decision-making in project planning and implementation is important (Trigo *et al.*, 2013:112). Therefore it can be argued that at the centre of stakeholder involvement is the community itself, where rural development is implemented. Rural development which has taken different policy measures at different times in different countries of the world, is assuming a position of eminence in the global socio-economic discourse. An issue, which, hitherto, was considered too complex for the rural people, who were earlier regarded as incapable of partaking in the art of diagnosing the rural problems and designing of the solutions, is that they must participate fully in the matters that concern them (Tirivayi *et al.*, 2013:98). Differences or lack of cooperation of communities with projects owing to inappropriate communication techniques or consultations have been known to lead to colossal wastes of scarce human and material resources.

Goetz and Jenkins (2001:107) argue that there should be total community involvement in rural development. To ensure this, rural development organisers should delegate powers to local leaders at all levels of the population who should account for the exercise of that power. Also, a more suitable community participation approach using the people's institutions and leaders is imperative. Kruijssen *et al.*, (2009:144) define community participation as a means to educate citizens and to increase their competence. Community participation is a vehicle for influencing decisions that affect the lives of citizens and an avenue for transferring political power. However, community participation can also be a method to co-opt dissent, a mechanism for ensuring the receptivity, sensitivity and even accountability of social services to the consumers. Liang and Hendrikse (2013:248) define community participation as a process by which citizens act in response to public concerns, voice their opinions about decisions that affect them, and take responsibility for changes to their community. Scott *et al.*, (2014:161) suggest that citizen participation may also be a response to the traditional sense of powerlessness felt by the general public, and when it comes to influencing government decisions people often feel that health and social services are beyond their control because the decisions are made outside their community by unknown bureaucrats and technocrats. Sultan and Larsen, (2011:16) define community participation as collective efforts to increase and exercise control over resources and institutions on the part of groups and movements of those hitherto excluded from control. This definition points toward a mechanism for

ensuring community participation. Tisenkopfs *et al.*, (2010:76) define community participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. Community participation in rural development programmes would imply the involvement of a significant number of persons in situations or actions that enhance their well-being, for example, their income, security or self-esteem (Chowdary *et al.*, 2013:332).

The study argues that in addressing the lack of community participation, as evident in the findings presented in the previous chapter, the concept of community participation can then be referred to as the active involvement of the rural people in the decisions and matters that concern their well-being. It includes active participation in their needs identification, solution planning and implementation. This type of new involvement requires identification with the movement, which only grows out of involvement in thinking, planning, deciding, acting and evaluation focussed on socio-economic development. It is indeed a mental process as well as a physical one. For sustainable development, it connotes the capacity to improve the quality of human life, while living within the carrying capacity of the supporting eco-system (Kruijssen *et al.*, 2009:144). Sustainability of rural development is the continuation of benefit flows to rural people without the programmes or organisations that stimulated those benefits in the first place (Oni *et al.*, 2005:67). Development involves changes, the most of which are in the attitudes and actions of those people who become participants, individually or in groups in the process itself.

The Bottom-Up Approach, also called the Bottom-top Approach or Rurism Strategy, implies that development starts with the people (Oni *et al.*, 2005:87). It is a political development strategy. Rurism is a coherent national and social-value system in which human and material resources are mobilised and allocated from the lower echelon of the economic and social strata to the top. It is free from any foreign ideology and infection. It promotes self-reliance and self-consciousness into balanced development of human and material resources. It is the idea approach. However, it is costly and rather slow. Rural youths should be mobilised through economic empowerment programmes, in order to position them for participation in development projects. This could be done by government through creation of employment opportunities such as regular supply of electricity in the rural areas. The rationale for community participation is as follows (Oni *et al.*, 2005:88):

- more will be accomplished;

- services can be provided at lower costs;
- participation has an intrinsic value for participants;
- participation leads to a sense of responsibility for the project;
- participation guarantees that a felt-need is involved;
- participation ensures that things are done the right way; and
- use of indigenous knowledge and expertise.

It can be argued that the best approach is the one that will involve the rural people and the government from the early stage of problem identification to solution designing, project execution, evaluation and management. It is a hybrid approach born out of merging the government approach and the rural people's self-help approach. It is probably the only method that can mobilise all the resources (government and the people), achieve the stated objectives, satisfy the rural areas and ensure national growth and development.

6.3.5 Target rural areas for inclusiveness

Rural development aims at improving rural people's livelihoods in an equitable and sustainable manner, both socially and environmentally, through better access to assets (natural, physical, human, technological and social capital) and services, and control over productive capital, in its financial or economic and political forms that enable them to improve their livelihoods on a sustainable and equitable basis (Rigg, 2006:198).

According to Deaton (2002:136), poverty still reflects apartheid settlement patterns. Most of the poor households are found in the former Bantustan regions, informal settlements and historically black townships. Therefore improving economic opportunities through implementation of rural development programmes in these areas is critical. Inclusive growth is a concept that advances equitable opportunities for economic participants during economic growth with benefits incurred by every section of society. The definition of inclusive growth implies direct links between the macro-economic and micro-economic determinants of the economy and economic growth. Inclusive rural development is defined as development that not only creates new economic opportunities, but also ensures equal access to the opportunities created for all segments of society, particularly for the rural poor (Ali & Deininger, 2015:12).

The study's findings revealed that people living in rural areas are significantly poorer than those in urban areas. This poverty has many dimensions such as low or very low income levels of the poor, higher incidence of health risks and lack of appropriate medical services, illiteracy or low educational levels and limited access to government service delivery points. Poverty levels are relatively higher in groups for which farming is the main income source (Ali & Deininger, 2015:14). It can be argued that targeted areas for rural development implementation should be rural areas where poverty levels are higher than urban areas.

Inclusiveness requires that governing structures, either formal or informal, be representative of, or give voice to, a wide range of diverse interests, including those of the poor in the rural areas (Schneider & Niederle, 2010:45). Inclusiveness purports that deprivation, impoverishment and poverty are due to exclusion from effective decision-making authority and seeks to redress this by empowering groups which have been historically disenfranchised, especially the rural poor. As such, inclusiveness relates closely to issues of empowerment of the rural poor, participatory democracy, civil society organisation, including the role of NGOs and the media, and decentralisation of the offering of public services (Schneider & Niederle, 2010:44).

The study argues that the goal of inclusiveness in rural development is to strike a balance between economic and sustainable rural development. In other words, instead of only focussing on the economic outcomes as in traditional models, inclusive rural development focusses more on equity.

6.3.6 Identifying the targeted beneficiaries

To achieve the Sustainable Development Goals, especially the goal of halving the proportion of people living in hunger and extreme poverty by 2030, more resources and new aid instruments are required (Scott *et al.*, 2014:160). But this is not enough. Significantly improved targeting of resources, policies and actions is essential. This is especially the case for the three quarters of the world's extremely poor and food-insecure people who live in rural areas, most of whom make their living from agriculture, principally as small-scale farmers and entrepreneurs, and as landless workers (Fleischer, 2012:24). The challenge is to ensure that they reflect the concrete and particular constraints and opportunities faced by poor people themselves. It is also to vigorously promote targeted

rural poverty reduction strategies in the context of national policy, budgeting and programming processes, to improve the livelihoods of rural poor people and, in turn, enhance their contribution to overall poverty reduction (Waddington *et al.*, 2014). Rural poor people are not a single, homogenous group in any part of the world. Usually they are independent producers and wage workers whose livelihoods principally depend on agriculture and agriculture-related activities. The poor are [smallholder] farmers, herders, small entrepreneurs, fishers and landless agricultural labourers. They are members of indigenous groups, minorities and scheduled castes. They are those with the least land and water, and with the least control over the assets they do have. They typically have little access to formal financial institutions for capital of any sort (Fleischer, 2012:24). They often have very little access to modern technology and very little preparation for the development and management of modern forms of association. More often than not, they are women, and, as such, have special difficulties in accessing key development resources, services and opportunities (Scott *et al.*, 2014:160). Frequently the rural poor are socially excluded, isolated and marginalised groups on whom those responsible for the development of modern institutions and services have all too often turned their backs. Their lives are characterised by vulnerability and insecurity, which make it difficult for them to take risks that could lead them out of poverty (Fleischer, 2012:24). These were also the findings as revealed in the discussions presented in the previous chapter.

Deaton (2002:178) argues that whereas poverty may affect a wide range of people in different circumstances, the most vulnerable groups are:

- Older people, despite the broad coverage and reach of state old age pensions: income at old age is still limited. In many households, the state old pension support is eroded by dependency of unemployed able-bodied members of the households. Inadequate income and declining health status means that they are predisposed to poverty.
- The unemployed, especially the youth, who comprise a significant majority of the unemployed and have low levels of education, the major cause of poverty for the majority is lack of earned income due to unemployment.
- Children, especially those who grow up in poor families. Social assistance efforts have to be reinforced, and we have to ensure that children access education to enable them to escape the poverty trap.

- Women, especially single parents and particularly black women are vulnerable to poverty because they both face persistent gender discrimination and generally have extensive care-giving responsibilities. Critical support areas include expansion of provision of basic household infrastructure such as running water and electricity at an affordable cost, and improved access to training and economic opportunities.
- People with disabilities, who are associated with difficulties of physical access, high living costs, low incomes and problems of social exclusion. This has major effects on employability. Social assistance is essential to provide a safety net for them.
- People living in poor areas – poverty still reflects apartheid settlement patterns.

The following are guiding principles for identifying target groups such as poor rural communities (Raitzer & Kelley, 2008:108):

- focus on rural people who are living in poverty and experiencing food insecurity, and who are able to take advantage of the opportunities to be offered;
- expand outreach to proactively include those who have fewer assets and opportunities, in particular extremely poor people as referred to in Sustainable Development Goal One;
- include marginalised groups, such as minorities and indigenous people, and address their specific needs; and address gender differences and have a special focus on women within all identified target groups for reasons of equity, effectiveness and impact – with particular attention to women heads of household, who are often especially disadvantaged;
- recognise that relative wealth or poverty can change rapidly due to external shocks and that this vulnerability needs to be addressed;
- clearly identify at the programme or project design stage who the intended target groups are and why, and consistently apply these categories, during implementation, in monitoring and evaluation (internal and external) of targeting performance with consideration of cases when better-off people may need to be included – due to economic and market interdependencies, to avoid conflict, or to engage them as leaders and innovators so that risks of excessive benefit capture can be carefully monitored;

- identify and work with like-minded partners at local, country, regional and international levels to develop a shared understanding of both the dynamics of rural poverty in different contexts and successful targeted approaches;
- pilot and share learning on successful approaches to targeting hard-to-reach groups; and
- build innovative and complementary partnerships with actors that can reach target groups.

The proposed institutional framework suggests that the following groups of people should be the most targeted when designing and implementing sustainable rural development programmes (Heard, 2012:68):

- the poorest, the poor and the vulnerable rural people;
- people with fewer skills and assets;
- people who face multiple forms of deprivation and are more likely to be left behind including women, the youth, indigenous populations and ethnic minorities, persons with disabilities, refugees and people living in fragile contexts due to climate change, environmental degradation or conflict; and
- people identified in government poverty reduction policies and strategies.

In the case of Mpumalanga, the empirical research revealed that there is no proper matrix applied in identifying and targeting of beneficiaries. There was no evidence of the approach followed to identify these beneficiaries and the criteria followed to get them into the programmes. The inclusion of the above groups of people will ensure that the targeted beneficiaries are representative of poor communities.

6.3.7 Selecting the priority policy interventions

The process of priority-setting is inherently political, which means that it is a process where societal values and goals are important, and resulting priorities reflect a compromise amongst stakeholders. The aim of the process is to select amongst different options for addressing the most important rural development needs, as highlighted in the rural development sector situation analysis, in the best way (Terwindt *et al.*, 2016:4).

This notion concurs with Clark *et al.*, (2016:360), who posit that the process of priority-setting is inherently political; it is a process where societal values and goals are important, and resulting priorities reflect a compromise amongst stakeholders, including the

population. Blackwood and Bunting (2016:44) argues indeed that citizens are the principals and decision-makers of the priority-setting process. In health, priority-setting determines the key objectives for the sector for a given period, thus directly feeding into the content of the rural development strategy. The priority-setting exercise generally follows a situation analysis and precedes decisions on resource allocation and planning. Actors such as government or departments have a formal responsibility for priority-setting. In an inclusive approach, stakeholder groups of various levels are consulted (Hipgrave *et al.*, 2014:190).

The study's findings revealed that priority-setting in rural development should be done for the following reasons:

- priority-setting is necessary to adapt to a changing context;
- it identifies challenges expected to be prominent in the future;
- priority-setting addresses challenges raised during the situation analysis; and
- implicit priority-setting happens if it is not consciously made explicit.

Rural development interventions should be based on realistic budgets, an understanding of what rural people want and how existing interventions could be improved and linked to the priorities of people on the ground. This requires extensive and careful research, as well as innovative thinking on the part of policy-makers. The research requires officials and stakeholders to gather this information from rural poor people before designing programmes for implementation. This will ensure the best fit programmes being implemented to meet real needs of people on the ground.

6.3.8 Implementation of the selected policy interventions

This section discusses the implementation of selected policy interventions that are in line with an institutional framework for effective and efficient sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. The study proposes that the DRDLR and other stakeholders implement all of these interventions for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes to eradicate poverty in rural South Africa.

The theoretical background of the study draws from the paradigm of the NPM, the theoretical concepts of poverty, rural development, the legislative or statutory framework of poverty eradication strategies and the developmental state. The international best

practices of rural development approaches all discussed in the previous chapters were intended to propose an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. In the following sub-sections the study outlines the interventions for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication.

The origin of the framework emanate from the literature review and international best practices analysed in the previous chapters. The following section presents the elements.

6.3.8.1 Promote public sector accountability

Accountability requires that governing structures remain answerable for their actions and open to sanction (including dismissal) if they violate say, principles of inclusiveness and lawfulness. This grounds poverty and deprivation in the culture of impunity which effectively precludes poor groups from holding authority figures to account (Alford & O'Flynn, 2012:43). Accountability relates closely to issues of corruption, transparency and access to information. Interventions that support public accountability include promotion of access to information, audits and investigation of corruption by the media and NGOs (United Nations, 2013:21).

Responsive and accountable public governance begins with the state leadership working with the citizens to formulate and agree on a vision for the country that will guide the development efforts focussed on the well-being of the people (Bourgon, 2011:24). Findings from the focus group in Mpumalanga revealed that the communities were not informed of programmes implemented and were not involved in the decision-making process of the programmes implemented. Accountable governance engages the people in the processes of decision-making and policy-making, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. It focusses plans and action of public leadership and government on the needs of the people and involves them in identifying those needs. It provides access to public information, constantly listens to the people and ensures that government and its agencies are open to people's inputs and scrutiny. Most importantly, it develops institutions, structures, systems and practices that promote and support the involvement and participation of the people and ensure equal access to services by all.

Accountability draws attention to the centrality of the social contract between the state and citizens. That is, states need to respond to the real needs of the people and be accountable for their decisions and actions to them. Citizens should fulfil their part of the contract by participating in democratic processes, contributing to taxes and generally participating in civic life.

6.3.8.2 Promote intergovernmental relations

Section 40(1) of the Constitution (1996) states that government is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres of government which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated. The distinctive element refers to the autonomy enjoyed by the spheres; that is, the degree to which each sphere is the final decision-maker on a particular matter that falls within its area of competence. To this end the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 13 of 2005 was promulgated to establish a framework for the national government, provincial governments and local governments to promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations; to provide for mechanisms and procedures to facilitate the settlement of intergovernmental disputes; and to provide for matters connected therewith. The Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 13 of 2005 provides that government in the Republic is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres of government which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated; and all spheres of government must provide effective, efficient, transparent, accountable and coherent government for the Republic of South Africa to secure the well-being of the people and the progressive realisation of their constitutional rights. According to the Intergovernmental Relations Act, 13 of 2005, one of the most pervasive challenges facing the country as a developmental state is the need for government to redress poverty, underdevelopment, marginalisation of people and communities and other legacies of apartheid and discrimination. The challenge of poverty is best addressed through a concerted effort by government in all spheres to work together and to integrate as far as possible their actions in the provision of services, the alleviation of poverty and the development of citizens, people and the country (Masehela *et al.*, 2012:348).

Kahn *et al.* (2016:69) concur that the promotion of intergovernmental relations is crucial for sustainable rural development in stating that governments worldwide have had to reorganise and reposition themselves to respond to socio-economic challenges that face their societies. Their roles in fighting underdevelopment and the pressure to extend socio-

economic benefits have received a great deal of coverage in their developmental agendas.

In conducting their affairs, the national government, provincial governments and local governments must seek to achieve the object of the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 13 of 2005 including (Kahn *et al.*, 2016:69):

- taking into account the circumstances, material interests and budgets of other governments and organs of state in other governments, when exercising their statutory powers or performing their statutory functions;
- consulting other affected organs of state in accordance with formal procedures, as determined by any applicable legislation, or accepted convention, or as agreed with them or, in the absence of formal procedures, consulting them in a manner best suited to the circumstances;
- co-ordinating their actions when implementing policy or legislation affecting the material interests of other governments; avoiding unnecessary and wasteful duplication or jurisdictional contests; and
- taking all reasonable steps to ensure that they have sufficient institutional capacity to consult, to co-operate and to share information with other organs of state; and to respond promptly to requests by other organs of state for consultation, co-operation and information sharing.

It can be deduced that effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes requires organs of state to consult, cooperate and share information to ensure a concerted effort that avoids duplication of efforts and wastage of resources. National, provincial and local government should foster intergovernmental relations to successfully implement sustainable rural development to eradicate poverty.

6.3.8.3 Profiling poverty and beneficiaries

Poverty profiles show how various poverty tools can be of considerable value to policy-makers in strengthening the poverty eradication impact of government spending (Kakwani & Son, 2005:292). Poverty profiles can play an important role in understanding poverty and formulating poverty reduction policies (Pyatt, 2000:27). The primary step in determining the degree of poverty is establishing a poverty line that specifies in monetary terms a society's judgment regarding the minimum standard of living to which everybody

should be entitled. Once the poverty line is determined, poverty profiles may be established, which provide overall estimates of poverty, distribution of poverty across sectors, geographical regions and socio-economic groups, and a comparison of key characteristics of the poor versus the non-poor. The method of setting the poverty line can greatly influence poverty profiles, which are the key to the formulation of poverty reduction policies (Kakwani, 2002:103). According to Castaneda *et al.* (2018:233), using the poverty line, the extreme poor live primarily in rural areas, have larger families with a greater number of children, have low educational attainment, and work in agriculture. Gisela and Summer (2019:93) observe similar characteristics, with the extreme poor in rural areas experiencing more overlapping deprivations in education and in access to basic infrastructure such as water, sanitation, electricity and housing than their urban counterparts, as well as lower access to health care and economic opportunities.

The rural extreme poor lack supporting mechanisms, such as social protection and access to finance, to cope with and manage risks. Extreme poor people are more vulnerable to climate shocks and weather events (World Bank, 2016:55); they are the most unprotected and have the least access to coping mechanisms.

Geographical targeting is also becoming an important means for channelling public resources to the poor. Many governments use geographical targeting in programmes such as food aid, public works and delivery of health care and education (Elbers & Lanjouw, 2000:58). This approach is commonly referred to as poverty mapping. Poverty profiles show how poverty varies by geography and subgroups across society. Poverty profiles are extremely useful in formulating the most effective economic and social policies to combat poverty (Dollar & Kraay, 2001:33). They identify regional location, employment, age, gender and other characteristics of the poor (Deaton, 2002:73).

According to Zhao (1999:770), a poverty profiling index will amongst others include the following:

- deprivation conditions;
- living conditions;
- productive assets; and
- geographic conditions.

Daley (2015:93) argues that a final area of interest is to look at poverty amongst different age groups at household level, presenting the percentage of people in an age group such as children and youth, living in poor households. Eradicating extreme poverty will also require dedicated and integrated interventions that reach the extreme rural poor directly (Davis *et al.*, 2016:44).

From the above, the study argues that it is imperative that the effective and efficient implementation of an institutional framework for sustainable rural development for poverty eradication should take into account the importance of poverty profiling, as well the beneficiaries. This includes the conditions of the poor, the deprivation in their circumstances, the productive assets and geographic conditions. This will strengthen policy formulation instead of the universal approach to sustainable rural development for poverty eradication. Profiling of poverty and beneficiaries will also ensure that interventions of sustainable rural development reach the poor directly.

6.3.8.4 Public-private partnerships

A public-private partnership (PPP) is defined as a contract between a public sector institution and a private party, where the private party performs a function that is usually provided by the public sector and/or uses state property in terms of the PPP agreement. Most of the project risks such as technical, financial and operational are transferred to the private party. The public sector pays for a full set of services, including new infrastructure, maintenance and facilities management, through monthly or annual payments. In a traditional government project, the public sector pays for the capital and operating costs, and carries the risks of cost overruns and late delivery. PPPs are generically defined as 'a form of cooperation between government and business agents – sometimes also involving voluntary organisations such as NGOs, trade unions and development agencies or knowledge institutes that agree to work together to reach a common goal or carry out a specific task, while jointly assuming the risks and responsibilities and sharing resources and competencies (Amoako-Tuffour, 2016:39).

There are various types of PPS such as service contracts, management contracts or lease contracts, concessions, build-to-operate and joint ventures (Pfisterer *et al.*, 2009:101). The rationale for the establishment of PPP's is financial reasons, including risk diversification (De Jong *et al.*, 2010:33), development reasons, collaboration (Kuriyan & Ray 2009:1668), efficiency (Pfisterer *et al.*, 2009:102) and ideological or political reasons

(Kruesmann & Timmermann, 2009:4). Therefore, the implementation of rural development should consider the inclusion of the private sector for successful implementation.

The struggle against poverty requires involvement, not only of the state, but also of business, NGOs, students and others. This support can take several forms, such as mentoring new businesses or community organisations, volunteering in poor communities, assisting organisations representing the poor or providing funds. The study argues that government should develop an explicit strategy for working with existing structures to prioritise the elimination of poverty, encourage concrete commitments outside of the state and get feedback on programmes. Government should consider establishing a high-level council comprising major stakeholders to advise on and help monitor and implement the poverty eradication strategies.

6.3.8.5 Information and Communication Technology infrastructure

ICT plays a major role in all aspects of national life: in politics, in economic life, as well as in social and cultural development. ICT is rapidly transforming our lives, the way we do business, access information and services, communicate with each other and entertain ourselves. ICT fuels the global economy. ICT also relates to human rights, helping, at best, to support freedom of expression and the right to information according to the Article 19 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Zobayer *et al.*, 2018:1751). In 1998, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Member Countries agreed to define the ICT sector as a combination of manufacturing and service industries that capture, transmit and display data and information electronically. The important factor in this broad definition is that, as it breaks the traditional dichotomy between manufacturing and services, activities producing and distributing ICT products can be found everywhere in the economy (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2001:41). The definition, thus, paves the way for understanding the multi-dimensionality of ICT and its applicability in helping reduce poverty across various sectors.

ICT plays a pivotal role in supporting a culture of democracy, democratic processes and civic values that uphold a democratic system. Interventions on the so-called e-government usually involve processes on electronic interaction between government and the citizens. The aim is to provide for citizens' access to information and knowledge about the political process, services and available choices, and facilitate transformation of passive

information access to active citizen participation by informing, representing, encouraging to vote, consulting and involving the citizens. ICT can have a major role in creating a more well-informed and active citizenship, undermining closed and undemocratic regimes; and supporting the watchdog role of citizen groups (Walch, 2003:24).

ICT can facilitate speedy, transparent, accountable, efficient and effective interaction between the public, citizens, business and other agencies. This not only promotes better administration and a better business environment, but also saves money in costs of transactions in government operations (Walch, 2003:45).

The study argues that the lack of systematic and transparent recording and public documentation of government data that the poor need has a negative effect on development outcomes. This will misdirect policy and have a negative impact on the effective and efficient implementation of an institutional framework for sustainable rural development. For the poor, getting access to even the most common type of government information or documentation can be a nightmare requiring multiple visits, waste of time and bribes. ICT can be used to get rid of such malpractices and to speed processing of documents.

6.3.8.6 Designing rural development interventions in a developmental state

For rural development to be effective, there is a need for a developmental state, a state which actively intervenes to bring benefits that accrue across society and builds consensus amongst the various layers of society around long-term national objectives. A developmental state is recognised for its willingness to improve performance and increase public confidence through policies, leadership, resources, institutions, policy adherence and accountability (Evans, 2014:224). This concurs with Williams (2014:42), who argues that a developmental state is one that is competent, a state whose “competence is deeper than excellence in policy development, negotiation of trade regimes, monetary and fiscal management”. State competence is thus a function of “transparency of resource allocations for the purposes of economic development, good intra- and inter-departmental co-ordination, as well as co-ordination with other development actors and development beneficiaries themselves (Pillay, 2007:205). Furthermore, state competence is also a central determinant of the quality of social service rollout, and can thus not be divorced from the full range of social services required at the local level (Chipkin, 2013:108). Only under these conditions of heightened co-ordination and partnership with other

stakeholders would the state win trust, inspire confidence, and be responsive to the needs of other economic actors, and must forge effective partnerships with civil society, as well as an issue-focussed relationship with the private sector. Lastly, it needs to competently provide a whole range of social services that will enhance the wellbeing of citizens. Sustainable rural development should have the improvement of rural livelihoods as its primary goal. This calls for integrated and sustainable rural development (Satgar, 2011:81). It should be a production-based approach - emphasising the empowerment of beneficiaries to become producers, not consumers. It might be underpinned by land reform. Integrated rural development should promote a culture of entrepreneurship. Central to this is the expansion and development of rural infrastructure as an element of the promotion of sustainable rural development. Emphasis needs to be given to the promotion of co-operatives, which will become a key means of poverty reduction (Chibber, 2014:47).

The establishment of an efficient and disciplined public service is recognised as a key feature of successful developmental states. Moreover, successful developmental states maintain their autonomy from predatory elites through establishing public services that are committed to advancing national development goals (Amsden, 1989:48; Evans, 2014:222). While the South African state displays a capable public service in some instances, there is widespread recognition, including by government, that the public service is inefficient, lacks skilled personnel, has poor management, due to cadre deployment, and is dysfunctional in many provinces and municipalities, all of which undermine the realisation of developmental state objectives (Von Holt, 2010:25; Chipkin, 2013:54). Most successful development states have strong central planning agencies with cross-cutting powers to intervene in government departments and ensure that long-term development plans are implemented (Erasmus, 2014:24).

6.3.8.7 Training and development of implementation officials

The public sector is the connecting link between the state and the people. As such, it responds to public demands and is the incubator of public trust or mistrust in government. Determinants of trust include technical and professional capacities, professionalism, ethics, integrity, transparency, accountability, effectiveness and responsiveness of public servants in conducting public affairs and delivering goods and services to the people (United Nations, 2015:33).

According to Subban and Theron (2015:499), South Africa as a developmental state suffers from a lack of management capacity in the public service. Hence, a national imperative focusses on addressing talent management and building a cohort of qualified and competent public servants. The synergistic link between public sector management and the content of public administration can be associated with and contribute to addressing critical skills shortages in the public service. In this regard, a range of soft skills deemed necessary for the developmental agenda in South Africa is a focal point of contemporary public administration. From a training perspective, methodologies include problem-based learning, performance-oriented and situation-emergent training, a project management approach to managerial problems, and emphasis placed on indigenous management of knowledge in a developmental context. We hope that these innovative approaches would address the wide managerial gap in the public administration environment. Therefore it can be deduced that public sector management and officials need to be performance oriented, skilled in project management, able in problem-solving to effectively and efficiently implement an institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication.

Van Dijk and Croucamp (2007:668) argue that the concept of administrative efficiency seems to call for the increased intervention of the state in determining the competence of officials, how organisations will be structured, and their responsibilities, while the oversight function of government is strongly emphasised. In a developmental state, the purpose of realising economic growth can only be achieved by a bureaucracy committed and competent to carry out the functions given to it. Realising the developmental state will depend on the ability of the bureaucracy to respond to the challenges of productivity (Van Dijk & Croucamp, 2007:669). Therefore it can be argued that the effective and efficient implementation of an institutional framework for sustainable rural development for poverty eradication requires a public service that is competent, well-structured and contains responsible public servants.

Kroukamp (2010:161) raises some significant points in highlighting that, in order for governments globally to achieve their social objectives by improving the general welfare of inhabitants, there is a public demand for new visions from political leaders and public officials. In this respect, training can play a meaningful role. Therefore for the state to achieve its objective for successful implementation of sustainable rural development for

poverty eradication there must be capable and visionary public officials who are properly trained.

Public servants, including senior political and technical leaders, must develop the requisite competence of knowledge, skills and attitudes to consult with citizens and partners with a broad range of stakeholders to effectively respond to their needs. In meeting the challenges of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, public servants should be trained to operate bureaucratic hierarchical systems and also learn new ways of engaged and participatory administration (United Nations, 2008:40).

The study argues that the public sector has to play a proactive role in developing the skills which it needs. This requires a more long term approach to developing skills and a professional ethos of public service, by turning every workplace into a training space so that learning can take place on-the-job. It is also critical to ensure that public officials are adequately supported in order to develop the skills they need during the course of their career of implementing sustainable rural development programmes. Steps should be taken to improve the quality and relevance of training by making better use of the expertise that already exists in the public sector. Targeted measures also need to be put in place to support departments in attracting and developing the skills they need to implement sustainable rural development programmes. The Department of Public Service and Administration should pilot a mentoring programme for new managers and graduate recruitment to help departments attract and develop talented graduates with a passion for rural development. Training and skills were highlighted in the previous chapter as one of the challenges facing the effective implementation of sustainable rural development programmes.

6.3.8.8 Review of policies and legislation

Poverty reduction is in the main a task for economic policy and requires some anti-poverty programmes directed at the rural poor (World Bank, 2001:23). Rural development policy is, however, constantly changing. These changes result from the structural transformation of rural economies, changes in the national economy and international markets, a shift in the political system, or a new ideology governing development interventions (Welteji, 2018:3). For this reason, understanding the evolution of rural policy is a necessary condition to identify potential areas for reform. Moreover, this further requires a review

and understanding of how national development plans have embedded rural development efforts (Welteji, 2018:4).

It can be argued that policies and legislation for poverty eradication through the implementation of sustainable rural development should be reviewed to ensure that they build on the work of the years since the dawn of democracy in South Africa. The policies and legislation that have contributed to promoting economic growth and employment, providing basic social services, improving human development, protecting vulnerable groups and enhancing social cohesion within the overall framework of sustainable rural development should be revisited, to ensure that gaps and limitations are addressed, while also ensuring that their review should be results focussed. Many government rural development programmes should target those most in need. Policies should ensure that departments also take account of the needs of the rural poor communities when allocating budgets. This could be for example, that youth from poor backgrounds are specifically targeted through initiatives such as no-tuition payment at Technical and Vocational Education and Training Colleges and assistance with transportation to access these colleges, while making budget provision for such policy.

The purpose of reviewing policies and legislation for poverty eradication programmes is not to argue for a complete overhaul of these policies, principles and approaches, but a continuous improvement of these policies and legislation to include addressing recent challenges and meeting needs of the poor in rural areas based on the current situation. The efforts should also be focussed on reviewing policies and legislation to facilitate access to economic opportunities. Amongst others for example, for many unemployed people, particularly the young, subsidised employment opportunities, job search assistance and other workplace-related training opportunities will enable the acquisition of skills and workplace experience that is important for them to access formal skills-based jobs.

6.3.9 Monitoring of implemented interventions

Monitoring is generally defined as a continuing activity that involves the collection of data on a regular, ongoing basis, in order to track inputs, outputs, outcomes and impact, while the project/programme is being executed (Capone *et al.*, 2014:19). Monitoring is a continuous assessment both of the functioning of the project activities in the context of implementation schedules and of the use of project inputs by targeted populations in the

context of design expectations. It is an internal project activity, an essential part of good management practice, and therefore an integral part of day-to-day management. Monitoring can be defined as a continuing function that uses systematic collection of data on specified indicators to provide management and the main stakeholders of an ongoing development intervention with indications of the extent of progress and achievement of objectives and progress in the use of allocated funds. Thus, monitoring embodies the regular tracking of inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts of development activities at the project, programme, sector and national levels, and measures of rural development success (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2011:48). Monitoring is a planning and management tool which provides the project management with regular and continuous feedback that can be used to make decisions, manage the project more successfully and plan for better project activities in the future. Monitoring is a crucial part of the project management that is carried out to observe the progress of the project implementation and to ensure that inputs, activities, outputs and external factors (such as the project assumptions) are proceeding according to the plan. Moreover, monitoring is also a tool to identify problems, which may occur during project implementation, so that corrective measures can be taken before the project is affected adversely.

Monitoring assesses the quality, quantity and timeliness of the project input. The quality and timeline of rural development programmes will be assessed through a monitoring system (Chapman & Mancini, 2008:67). Monitoring assesses the extent to which project activities reach the targeted individuals and communities and the acceptability and actual use of rural development. Monitoring tracks the cost involved in implementing the programme, the extent to which actual implementation of a programme coincides with the implementation plan and the overall progress, development and barriers of rural development programmes' implementation, which are important inputs for supervision (Sartorius & Carver, 2006:88). Monitoring identifies operational constraints to rural development effectiveness, thus helping officials and project managers to improve implementation. Monitoring determines whether a rural development programme or initiative is meeting national or some other accepted standards. Monitoring provides information to improve project targets (Molund & Schill, 2007:112). Monitoring serves as a vehicle to increase community participation and informs decision-making on the future of rural development programmes.

6.3.10 Evaluation and review of interventions

Effective project management and implementation would ensure that necessary information on the status of the project is provided to the stakeholders (Kusek & Rist, 2004:71). Evaluation, on the other hand, may use monitoring data, but is carried out at distinct and discreet moments of time to determine the worth or significance of a development activity, policy or programme. Incentives and motivation should be built into the rural development system (Ravallion, 2008:103). These could be in the form of citations, honourable mentions, honorary titles and prizes, competitions between villages, towns and local government areas, or organising rural development days to select the best farmers, cleanest communities and accident-free communities. Evaluation is a periodic assessment of the relevance, performance, efficiency and impact of the project in the context of its stated objectives (Rynn & Hiscock, 2009:63). It usually involves comparisons requiring information from outside the project in time, area or population. Evaluation can be defined as the process of determining the worth or significance of a development activity, policy or programme, to determine the relevance of objectives, the efficacy of design and implementation, the efficiency or resource use, and the sustainability of results. An evaluation should enable the incorporation of lessons learned into the decision-making process of both partner and donor (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2002:18).

Evaluation in rural development is carried out for three purposes: to provide information for decision-making on any improvements needed for programme management and implementation, to assess the results of the programme to demonstrate to what extent the programme has achieved its objectives and as a means to empower the communities and other programme stakeholders (Ravallion, 2008:77). From the empirical research findings, it was discovered that there is no proper system that monitors and evaluates progress and achievements of sustainable rural development programmes in Limpopo and Mpumalanga. There is no system that is used to assess the results of the programmes implemented.

According to Deaton (2002), evaluation in the proposed framework should have the following benefits:

- Evaluation will support the policy-making, especially budget decision-making, performance budgeting and national planning. These processes focus on government

priorities amongst competing demands from citizens and groups in society, including poor people who need relief in this case.

- Evaluation can support the government's deliberations by providing evidence of the most cost-effective types of government activity, such as different types of employment programmes, health interventions, education, food security, housing and infrastructure development in rural areas. The terms that describe the use of evaluation include evidence-based policy-making, results-based budgeting and performance-informed budgeting.
- Evaluation will help government in the policy development and policy analysis and in rural programme development.
- Evaluation will help government and rural development stakeholders to manage activities at the sector, programme and project levels. This includes government service delivery and staff management.
- Evaluation will identify the most efficient use of available resources, which will assist to identify implementation difficulties.
- Performance indicators in the evaluation process can be used to make cost and performance comparisons and performance benchmarking amongst different administrative units, regions and districts. Comparisons can also be made over time that help identify good, bad and promising practices, which can prompt a search for the reasons for this performance. Evaluations or reviews are used to identify these reasons. This is the learning function of evaluation and is often termed results-based or results-oriented management.
- Evaluation will enhance transparency and support accountability relationships by revealing the extent to which desired objectives are attained.
- Evaluation will provide the essential evidence necessary to underpin strong accountability relationships, such as the government to the civil society, including the poor in the rural areas and stakeholders. Evaluation will also support the accountability relationships within government, such as between sector departments and local government. Strong accountability, in turn, can provide the incentives necessary to improve performance.

The effective implementation of sustainable rural development programmes needs progress to be evaluated from time to time, to ensure that these interventions are still aligned to the desired outcomes. This will also enable implementers to institute corrective

actions during the process, while ensuring the role of periodic assessment of the relevance, performance, efficiency and impact of the project in the context of its stated objectives. This will assist in minimising wastages of resources such as funds for rural development.

6.3.11 Outcomes of the proposed institutional framework

The illustration of the proposed institutional framework for sustainable rural development depicted the last stage as the desired outcomes. The study aimed at proposing an institutional framework for effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. The study observes that after implementation of the various components of the framework, there are anticipated outcomes. The outcomes of the proposed institutional framework are listed as follows:

- sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication;
- skilled and capable public sector officials;
- a coordinated and integrated approach to sustainable rural development;
- empowered implementation officials;
- active community participation;
- improved intergovernmental relations;
- effective public-private partnerships;
- results-based performance by leaders and public officials;
- targeted rural development;
- effective and efficient rural development leadership;
- empowered communities;
- the NPM influenced public service offering; and
- improved vibrant livelihoods.

The following section highlights critical success factors based on international best practices and literature review. These success factors of the institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development that must be taken into consideration for the effective implementation of sustainable rural development programmes.

6.4 CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

The above illustrated proposed institutional framework for implementing sustainable rural development for poverty eradication has the following success factors to be considered:

- The macro and micro environments, including social and political variables, must be considered and community members must be informed about rural development to be implemented in their vicinities (Molund & Schill, 2007:112). A broader spectrum of these factors are age, culture, political leadership, gender and others which should be aligned towards involvement and improved participation by the community in the programmes rolled out for their benefit for poverty eradication.
- The critical stakeholders such as political leadership, the private sector, technical officials, traditional leadership, municipal representatives and NGO's remain important in sustainable rural development initiatives (Sartorius & Carver, 2006:88). Departmental officials including communities must be in collaboration with other role players in areas where capacity building, financing and other forms of support are needed to sustain rural development and achieve goals.
- Monitoring, evaluation and performance audit principles are key in ensuring that frameworks such as implementing rural development succeed (Ravallion, 2008:103). These functions serve as critical success factors in the processes that ensure accountability, efficiency, transparency, effectiveness, integration, equity, ethical and democratic conduct in a developmental state such as South Africa.
- A continued quest for improvement in the many practices aimed at enhancing political, private sector/public participation and community involvement in the various activities of programme implementation such as planning, design, implementation and monitoring of rural development targeting poverty eradication is crucial (Deaton, 2002).
- An intense involvement of political office bearers in the coordination and integration of rural development programmes that are not rolled out in silos (Zobayer *et al.*, 2018:1751). The role players that are mandated to provide essential services such as health, water, education, housing, including ICT and infrastructure, much be lobbied together to pool resources such as budget and staff expertise to ensure successful implementation of rural development programmes (Zobayer *et al.*, 2018:1751). These role players should be involved from the phases in planning, implementation and monitoring. It is very important to allow community members

to be involved at the very beginning, and this gives them a sense of ownership of these processes and ultimately the programmes themselves.

- The sustainability of rural development programmes is a key concern for this proposed framework and it encompasses communities being aware of its implications (Welteji, 2018:3).

At the top of the framework as depicted in Fig 6.1 is the sustainable rural development framework. The theoretical background already discussed in the previous chapters highlighted that although South Africa undertook a developmental route since its democracy after the first democratic election in 1994, there are still communities that are trapped in poverty. Significant numbers of poor people are in the rural areas such as villages.

The theoretical framework of public administration and the related paradigms, the theories of a state, the democratic state, the developmental state and the democratic developmental state are all theories that are to be considered to draw from their prescriptive requirements in implementing sustainable rural development. The various approaches to rural development and the eradication of poverty in a democratic developmental state are also key factors which were discussed in Chapter 2.

The legislative and statutory provisions for rural development in South Africa are also critical to ensure that the proposed framework is compliant with the prescripts of the law and policies of South Africa, in respect of rural development. These statutory and legislative requirements include the Constitution, the NDP, the CRDP, the ISRDS, the NGP, the RDP, the Rural Development Framework and the Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity.

The following section discusses the components of the proposed framework. At the very beginning are the macro and micro factors that include theoretical background, the developmental state, and the statutory or legislative provisions that were all discussed in the previous chapters. The background revealed the current status and also exposed the gaps that need to be closed when designing a to-be situation. The concepts of poverty and poverty eradication were also discussed in the context of the study, and the locus of the study such as the NPM was also examined, from which the guidelines and various steps of the proposed framework were derived.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter proposed an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development for poverty eradication in rural areas of South Africa. The effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes was discussed and weaknesses were identified, in order to recommend how poverty in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces should be targeted in the provision of basic human needs, the creation of economic opportunities and the empowerment of communities and individuals to access these opportunities, while ensuring that the objective of poverty eradication is achieved.

The national government has made it explicitly clear that poverty eradication is at the forefront of its mandate in uplifting poor rural communities. As a result, the objectives of sustainable rural development implemented by various national, provincial and local rural development departments are to be designed to target specific rural communities. For any rural development framework to be effective, several elements must be taken into consideration. It should be noted that whilst poverty affects various individuals at different periods of their lives, it is the vulnerable people that are most impacted, such as the children, women, elderly groups, unemployed youth and people with disabilities. Special mention should be made of women, especially single parents, and particularly black women, who are vulnerable to poverty because they face both persistent gender discrimination and generally have extensive care-giving responsibilities. Critical support areas should include expansion of provision of basic household infrastructure such as running water and electricity, and improved access to training and economic opportunities. The study further concludes that rural development should be sustained as a strategy with objectives to eradicate poverty.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Rural development in general refers to the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas. Traditionally, rural development focusses on the exploitation of land-intensive natural resources, especially agriculture. This has changed considering the broad framework of sustainable development. Thus, in addition to agriculture, rural development nowadays focusses on tourism, niche manufacturers and recreation. In this regard, socio-economic actions play a significant role in the development process. This includes development of education services, entrepreneurship and physical and social infrastructure. The implementation of rural development programmes that do not address community needs and poverty eradication implies failure in the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes.

This study focussed on the proposal of an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication.

The study contains seven chapters which covered various topics and are summarised in the next section.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This section presents the summary of the seven chapters and also offers the summary of the significance of the study in terms of contribution to the existing body of knowledge in the discipline of Public Administration and the practice of public administration.

7.2.1 Summary and conclusions of the chapters of the study

Chapter 1 provided a background to the study, the problem statement, the research questions, research objectives, purpose of the study, research approach, research design, instrumentation, ethical considerations and the significance of the study. It also

described the context of the problem to be studied. The research questions (RQ) and research objectives (RO) of the study were discussed in Chapter 1. An illustration of the research questions and research objectives with corresponding chapters is presented below.

Table 7.1: Summary of research question, research objective and corresponding chapter

Research Question (RQ)	Research Objective (RO)	Corresponding Chapter
How can poverty be conceptualised and contextualised within the discipline of Public Administration and in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state?	Conceptualise and contextualise poverty within the discipline of Public Administration and in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state.	Chapter 1 and Chapter 2
What are the theoretical as well as national and international regulatory frameworks for sustainable rural development for poverty eradication?	Determine the theoretical as well as national and international regulatory frameworks for sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication.	Chapter 3
What could be presented as international best practice for sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication?	Identify international best practices that would lead to the successful implementation of rural development strategies amongst rural communities.	Chapter 4
What are the institutional challenges affecting the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa?	Determine the institutional challenges that impede the effective and efficient implementation of existing sustainable rural development strategies in eradicating poverty in the rural areas of South Africa.	Chapter 5
What institutional framework could be recommended to support the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa?	Develop an institutional framework that supports effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa.	Chapter 6 and Chapter 7

Source: Own illustration (2020)

Chapter 2 conceptualised and contextualised poverty and poverty eradication within public administration in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state. This Chapter addressed RQ1 and RO1 of the study. The chapter started by discussing the theoretical framework of public administration and the related paradigms, the theories of a state, the democratic state, the developmental state and the democratic developmental state. The role of public administration in the democratic developmental state was also discussed in this chapter, as well as approaches to rural development and the eradication of poverty in a democratic developmental state. The NPM and the developmental state together form one pillar that gives effect to the origins and principles

guiding sustainable rural development with an outcome-based approach such as poverty eradication. Since the NPM adopts a bottom-up citizen-centred approach to development, its use in a democratic developmental state such as South Africa can be crucial to improve implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication. The NPM was used because it calls for the enforcement of public accountability and performance monitoring. Furthermore, attention was given to the need to address poverty effectively to achieve the objectives of the rural development strategies in the context of South Africa as a democratic developmental state.

Chapter 3 discussed rural development and the shift in rural development priorities which directs the methodologies and concepts of rural development from the technological, managerial and centralised approaches to more constructionist, participatory and decentralised perspectives of rural change. This chapter answered RQ2 and RO2 of the study. The concept of rural development is meant to bring about a positive change in the lives of people. Rural development is identified as a major priority for the South African government in addressing the discrepancies of the apartheid system. It was highlighted in this chapter that it is imperative that local communities are part and parcel of any initiatives to develop their areas. This is why development programmes must be born out of community involvement in highlighting their needs, so much so that development programmes address these needs. There are several legislative frameworks which support public participation in development in South Africa. Chapter 7 of the Constitution, 1996 stipulates that communities are encouraged to get involved in local government matters, while the Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 indicates that any amendments to policies, land use schemes and procedures for development purposes must be done in a transparent process through community or public participation, so that all concerned individuals make contributions on issues that directly affect them. The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 also indicates that all municipalities are required to create systems that heighten community participation in local government. The chapter conducted a review of the statutory and regulatory frameworks informing rural development for poverty eradication in South Africa and internationally. The chapter elucidated the constitutional and other legal requirements with regard to poverty eradication, as well as the current poverty eradication strategies.

As the chapter sought to determine the theoretical as well as the national and international regulatory frameworks for sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication, a literature review was conducted on rural development, poverty and poverty eradication. The chapter also focussed on the various types of poverty, its policy implications, the measurement of poverty and historical approaches to poverty. The chapter discussed various concepts closely related to poverty, such as inequality, vulnerability, social exclusion and underdevelopment. The discussion linked poverty eradication strategies with sustainable rural development in a democratic developmental state.

An in-depth discussion of the legislative and regulatory framework supporting rural development in South Africa was undertaken in this chapter. The point of departure was the Constitution of 1996, which protects human rights, enshrines democratic principles such as equality and freedom, and guarantees all citizens the right to access to basic needs, goods and services such as health care, water, food and social security. Schedule 4 determines that rural development is regarded as a functional area of concurrent national and provincial legislative competence. The RDP of 1994 was seen as a people-centred socio-economic policy framework that provided a starting point for redressing the injustices of the past developmental efforts, aimed at redistributing the country's resources, and it was regarded as the first official socio-economic policy in the country with the intention to address the structural and other problems inhibiting socio-economic development. The Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity of 1995 was focussed on freedom from poverty, employment, diverse agriculture and commercial and service sectors in country towns and greater access by rural people to government support and information. The Rural Development Framework of 1997 was an attempt to provide specific guidelines with respect to involving rural people in local government and decisions affecting their lives, as well as increasing rural local government's capacity to plan, implement and assemble essential information for planning, monitoring and evaluating both the process and progress of development. The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy of 2001 had as its principal aim the integration of existing institutions, planning mechanisms, management and funding of the three government spheres.

The Comprehensive Rural Development Plan of 2009 was to facilitate integrated development and social cohesion through participatory approaches in partnership with all

sectors of society, to be achieved through a three-pronged strategy based on a coordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation; strategically increasing rural development and an improved land reform programme. The National Development Plan of 2012 aimed at an economy that would create more jobs, build capabilities, improve infrastructure, build environmental sustainability and resilience, improve the quality of education, provide quality health care for all, build safer communities and fight corruption. The NDP recognised that rural communities require greater social, economic and political opportunities and therefore gave specific attention to environmental sustainability. The chapter also discussed the Rural Development Policy Framework of 2013, which emphasised that basic human needs such as shelter, water, sanitation, food, health and electricity must be met; rural enterprise and infrastructure such as social, economic, ICT and other enabling infrastructure must be developed; and rural industries for example, agri-processing, village markets and credit/finance facilities must be established.

Chapter 4 focussed on the international best practices and lessons in the effective and efficient implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy aimed at poverty eradication. The chapter addressed RQ3 and RO3 of the study. Lessons and best practices were drawn from developmental states globally. Comparisons were made with South Africa to determine gaps and differentiations. In addition, the chapter focussed on salient international practices with regard to rural development, poverty and poverty eradication. Consideration was given to international case studies, international views on causes of poverty, global poverty eradication strategies, policies and the new agenda on poverty eradication through rural development.

Practices from Latin America indicated that effective implementation of sustainable rural development was mainly due to the government of Brazil having designed new policies that enabled local players to be actively involved in planning, design and implementation of these policies that were created to improve their well-being. Communities in the rural areas were participating from the beginning and they were actively involved in the programme implementation. Participation included forms of decision-making delegated to local councils with regard to the implementation of these policies, that were focussed on sustainable development to eradicate poverty. This means that the programmes were targeting specific needs of the poor people with specific programme outcomes, where results were achieved and also measured. There was also cooperation between the

national government ministries and the level of local government, which implies that there was a coordinated approach towards rural development. There was also a market created for products of the rural development programme with the government leading by example by creating purchase contracts for these products. This improved the income levels of the poor who were also beneficiaries in these programmes. Government and its ministries must take the lead in creating markets for poor local people.

Asian rural development practices indicated that stakeholder participation is essential, as non-governmental organisation groups typically facilitate communication and discussion amongst stakeholders and help to lay out a process by which the community may proceed towards its shared goals. The involvement of development experts and interest groups invited to participate in the community planning process for a rural community, which also served as information sharing about the programme and its goals, was noted. Issues of culture can also impede rural development progress and goals, which are barriers that must be taken into account at the planning phase. Local stakeholders, actors and the structures of local government must be identified as conditions to be overcome for the success of the programmes.

Chinese rural development experiences in the chapter highlighted how to build a stronger rural community and improve the living conditions of rural households, community-based rural development initiatives, especially farmers' cooperatives, and have been promoted in the country through policy support. The first national Farmers' Professional Cooperative Law was implemented in 2007 to formalise and standardise FPCs in China. Therefore the regulatory environment strengthened and supported rural development and created an environment for effectiveness. The stable legal environment, together with various supportive government policies, created a favourable political and economic environment for developing FPCs in China. Initiatives to support the above FPC's included product branding, which was developed by all three FPCs, with the goal of improving the reputation and market competitiveness of their products. The chapter also summarised the key learnings from international best practices for consideration in South Africa, which included amongst others the active participation of communities in the implementation process, coordination and integration of rural development, market creation and access, financing, access to credit, training of public officials, making budgets available for rural development, effective political leadership, monitoring and evaluation.

Chapter 5 discussed the findings related to the implementation of a sustainable rural development strategy for poverty eradication in South Africa. The empirical findings for two case studies were presented and discussed to address RQ4 and RO4 of the study. The chapter was arranged in themes such as understanding poverty as a basis for poverty eradication policies, the understanding of government's obligation towards developing pro-poor policies, understanding of poverty eradication programme implementation, roles of public officials in the implementation process, the challenges encountered in the implementation process, as well the remedies for the identified challenges. The chapter presented and interpreted the results obtained from the focus group discussions of participants from the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages, as well as the results of the face-to-face qualitative interviews obtained from officials in the DRDLR in the provincial departments. The findings were centred on how the current rural development strategies and policies have gone about serving the objectives of eradication of poverty, as well as institutional challenges identified in the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes. This chapter presented the findings of the study and gaps identified in the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication in South Africa, in accordance with the current government's agenda on poverty eradication. The chapter discussed the lack of community participation, the lack of coordination of programmes of sustainable rural development at different spheres of government and the empowerment of public officials in the implementation process, as well as the lack of programme monitoring and evaluation.

Chapter 6 sought to propose the development of an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development, aimed at poverty eradication for the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. This chapter also answered RQ5 and RO5 of the study. Gaps in the administration of poverty eradication through rural development were identified. The chapter discussed implementation priorities of the sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication in the Muyexe, Jabulani Bafazi and Water Smeet Villages in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces. At the centre of this proposed institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development, are the active participation of the community, the coordination of rural development from all sectors,

adequate funding of rural development programmes, targeting of beneficiaries and areas for development, intergovernmental relations and monitoring and evaluation of programmes.

Chapter 7 provides a summary of the study and outlines the achievement of the objectives of the study. In addition to answers provided in Chapter 6 to address RQ5 and RO5, this chapter provides additional answers, conclusions and recommendations. The chapter offers recommendations on the implementation of the rural development framework developed in Chapter 6, followed by a conclusion. With regard to the recommendations of the study as discussed in this chapter, these are in addition to the framework in Chapter 6. The framework and recommendations discuss various ways in which the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development for poverty eradication can be achieved.

7.2.2. Summary and conclusions on the contribution of the study

The following section discusses the summaries and conclusions of the significance of the study from the perspective of contribution to the body of knowledge of the discipline of Public Administration and public administration as a service.

7.2.2.1 Contribution to the discipline of Public Administration

The study sought to contribute to the body of knowledge of the discipline of Public Administration by expanding on the theoretical enrichment of the discipline. The study locus was the NPM Paradigm of Public Administration. The theoretical significance is in the context of poverty eradication through the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes in a developmental state. The study explored the existing features of the NPM such as accountability, customer satisfaction, citizen participation, total quality management, budgetary reforms, organisational restructuring and the use of ICT. The study examined the importance of implementation features such as mapping poverty, coordination and the integration of rural development. The study also analysed the importance of design of programmes, prioritisation of budgets for rural development and tailor-making of rural development priorities.

7.2.2.2 Contribution to public administration as a service

The applicability of the proposed institutional framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development for poverty eradication is the practical significance of the study. This relates to the national, provincial and local government organs of the state that are involved in rural development. The study and its empirical findings are a demonstration of problem identification and collecting data and analysing the data to propose a solution. The findings of the study may have a far-reaching impact on the side of the DRDLR, rural development agencies, the private sector, local government and non-governmental organisations.

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations discussed in this section are supplementary to the proposed institutional framework for effective and efficient sustainable rural development. The recommendations are as follows:

7.3.1 People-centred rural development that empowers communities

Citizen engagement and public participation that involve all stakeholders can increase not only more accurate problem definition and solution generation, but also ownership and public accountability. This creates the people centeredness of the solution. The empowering of communities includes outreach to the socially marginalised and vulnerable groups. A human rights-based development approach demands that all citizens irrespective of sex, age, religion, ethnicity, origin and economic and social status have the opportunity to participate in decision-making processes that affect their lives. In fact, the influence of citizens leads to services reaching those who need them most. Citizen engagement can occur at economic, political, social and cultural levels. It can also have different approaches, ranging from a one-way provision of information and consultation, to two-way collaboration with citizens and involvement of them in decision-making, and even oversight of the implementation of the sustainable rural development programmes. Meaningful engagement needs some prerequisites, including strong political commitment, access to information, an enabling environment in terms of comprehensive legal and institutional frameworks, structures and processes, complemented by capacity building. The first step entails the provision of public information.

7.3.2 Governance

Sustainable rural development hinges around responsive governance. Responsive public governance requires responding efficiently and effectively to people's real needs. This entails a necessity to anchor policies, strategies, programmes, activities and resources, taking into account people's expectations, with particular attention paid to local ambitions. Responsive and accountable governance is a key enabler, as well as an integral part of the vision of sustainable rural development. Addressing the challenges related to pillars of sustainable development will require the development of adequate institutional, human, financial and material capacities in government and governance as a whole. Decentralised governance, in particular, is instrumental for fostering development, which takes place at the local community level. Local governments can achieve better results by engaging local communities, as they may be more in tune with local needs and may find local solutions to address them.

7.3.3 Capable rural development centred public administration

Unlocking the human potential for public sector performance is the lifeblood and strength of the public sector. Strengthening the capacity of national public administration is one of the best measures that developing countries such as South Africa can undertake to attain sustainable rural development goals. Competent, diverse and ethical public officials under a credible leadership, engaged citizens and empowered communities are a strong composition of effective sustainable rural development. Public servants, including senior political and technical leaders, must develop the requisite competence of knowledge, skills and attitudes to consult with citizens and partner with a broad range of stakeholders, to effectively respond to their needs through the implementation of rural development programmes. Public officials are supposed to be subject matter experts drawn from different sectors, in order to secure that replicable policies, expertise and evidence should be drawn from all relevant sectors, and citizens consulted to ensure that proposals are realistic.

7.3.4 Coordination of rural development in all sectors including community participation

The developmental potential of using technology in government can reduce counterproductive tendencies towards silos that isolate public officials and their

departments, thereby stimulating integration and coordination within government. Active community participation and engagement encourages local ownership by providing feedback to governments on public policy implementation. Citizen engagement has additional functions and benefits for development, such as giving citizens a voice in decision-making processes that affect their lives. Citizen engagement contributes to inclusive public planning processes in which the concerns of a greater number of the recipients of public goods and services can be examined and accommodated. Emphasis for community participation should be on planning processes as a key objective in achieving organisational effectiveness. Planning maps the direction of an organisation's activities. It supports efficient coordination processes and delegation of responsibility, thereby contributing to enhancing accountability. Therefore, local ownership of development objectives in planning, implementation and monitoring processes is important to achieve inclusiveness, responsiveness and accountability. It is important for governments to capitalise on the e-tools and open data potential to enhance their interaction with citizens, in order to strengthen information sharing and participation, which contributes to more accountable governance. ICT provides a platform to better integrate, coordinate and accelerate economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development.

7.3.5 Innovative public administration for e-rural development through ICT

Innovation in the public service can prevent stagnation in public administration, through the use of ICT. ICT empowers innovations for connectivity between governments and their constituents. These systems enable public organisations to standardise responses and achieve equality in their communications and interactions with citizens, as much as they enable customisation and flexible processes. The enormous potential of ICT tools for greater efficiency, cost reduction, quality of public services, convenience, innovation and learning should be explored by governments. ICT provides means to improve the quality and responsiveness of public services, expand the reach and accessibility of both services and public infrastructure, and allow citizens to experience faster and more transparent forms of access to government services. ICT also helps governments to share information with citizens and is becoming an effective measure to enhance their e-participation in decisions about policies and service delivery options. Innovative communication channels that connect decision-makers and their stakeholders contribute to raising public demand

and expectations of accountability. ICT provides a platform to better integrate and accelerate delivery on all three pillars of sustainable development.

7.4 POSSIBLE AREAS OF FUTURE RESEARCH

Future studies on institutional frameworks for the implementation of sustainable rural development can focus on the following areas:

- designing a justice-based approach towards sustainable rural development; or
- translating poverty concerns into sustainable rural development.

7.5 CONCLUSION

The study proposed an institutional framework for the effective and efficient implementation of sustainable rural development aimed at poverty eradication. The findings of the study hinged around the importance of community participation as the most critical effectiveness factor in the implementation of sustainable rural development. The government of South Africa has developed and implemented rural development strategies and policies since democratisation of the country. For programmes to be effective, there must be targeting of the poor and their needs to be met. Problem identification is critical in this case. The structure of the public sector is fragmented, as departments are established on political mandate. Therefore, when rural development needs to be implemented, there must be a central coordination to avoid stagnation of programmes due to the silo approach towards rural development. There must be coordination between the national, provincial and local government, as well the different government departments. The link between rural development and the community is public administration, which requires skilled and trained officials. The study recommends the use of the institutional framework proposed as well as the recommendations. As poverty continues to disfigure communities, the approach to implement rural development strategies to eradicate poverty needs to not be complacent.

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ANNEXURE 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
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ETHICS APPROVAL CERTIFICATE OF PROJECT

Based on approval by the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Arts (FA-REC) at the meeting held on 2017-11-14, the North-West University Research Ethics Regulatory Committee (NWU-RERC) hereby approves your project as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-RERC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the project may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

Project title: An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases.															
Project Leader/Supervisor: Prof Gerda van Dijk															
Student: M. Mokgala															
Ethics number:	N	W	U	-	0	0	7	3	8	-	1	7	-	A	7
	Institution				Project Number					Year			Status		
Status: S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation															
Application Type: Single study															
Commencement date: 2017-11-14															
Expiry date: 2019-12-31															
Risk: N/A															

Special conditions of the approval (if applicable):

- The questionnaire must be presented to the ethics committee for ethical evaluation.
- Translation of the informed consent document to the languages applicable to the study participants should be submitted to the FA-REC (if applicable).
- Any research at governmental or private institutions, permission must still be obtained from relevant authorities and provided to the FA-REC. Ethics approval is required BEFORE approval can be obtained from these authorities.

General conditions:

While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:

- The project leader (principal investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-RERC via FA-REC:
 - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project, and upon completion of the project
 - without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
 - Annually a number of projects may be randomly selected for an external audit.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the FA-REC. Would there be deviation from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-RERC via FA-REC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-RERC and FA-REC retains the right to:
 - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project;
 - to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modification or monitor the conduct of your research or the informed consent process.
 - withdraw or postpone approval if:
 - any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected,
 - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the FA-REC or that information has been false or misrepresented,
 - the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately,
 - new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.
- FA-REC can be contacted for further information via Yvette van der Merwe (13128388@nwu.ac.za) or 018 285 2301.

The RERC would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the RERC or FA-REC for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

ANNEXURE 2: LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA



School of Social and Governance Studies
Faculty of Arts
P. Bag X6001, Potchefstroom 2520
Republic of South Africa
Cell: +27 (0)71 427 8946
E-mail: mokgala.mosekami@gamil.com

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH STUDY WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

Title of study: An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases

My name is Mosekami Mokgala, a part-time student at the above university, student number 23187778, engaged in an academic research study with the above mentioned title towards fulfilling the academic requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Public Management and Governance) at the North-West University in Potchefstroom. The main focus of the study is to collect data on the current framework for the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes/strategies aimed at poverty alleviation in the Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces. The study will examine processes, procedures and operational tasks undertaken in the normal activities of implementing and administering sustainable rural development programmes for poverty alleviation.

In light of the above, this letter seeks to request permission from the DRDLR to allow the researcher to interact with the relevant office bearers, officials and stakeholders in the gathering of the empirical data through interviews and focus group discussions. The researcher pledges to abide by strict ethics and professionalism in the process of collecting, analysing and publishing data, hence the ethical rights to privacy and confidentiality for the participants in the study are duly guaranteed. The researcher anticipates the study to be of significant benefit to the DRDLR. Upon completion of the study, the findings can be made available to the DRDLR on request and the researcher will publish these in an academic thesis and academic journal.

Your cooperation and assistance in this academic endeavour is greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Mosekami Mokgala

Date: ____/____/____

ANNEXURE 3: PERMISSION LETTER



rural development & land reform

Department:
Rural Development and Land Reform
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL: DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM
Private Bag X833, Pretoria, 0001; 184 Jeff Masemola Street, Pretoria; Tel: 012 312 8911; Fax: 012 323 6072;
Email: DGOffice@drdlr.gov.za

Mr MP Mokgala
P. O. Box 2122
ERMELO
2350

Dear Mr Mokgala

APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

Thank you for your application providing details of your research in relation to your thesis.

The Department has no objection to your request to conduct research; however, the following must be adhered to:

- The final copy of your research report must be submitted to the Department prior to your final submission to the Institution of study.
- Files and records may not be removed from the Department's archives.
- Photocopies of official records may not be made for public purposes.
- Names of individuals from official records may not be published.
- Access to the records must be arranged in collaboration with the Head of Office, or in the case of National Office, with the Directorate: Information and Innovation Management Services.
- The Department reserves the right to restrict access to files of a sensitive nature.
- Access to classified information will not be granted if you have not been security cleared.
- Supply annual proof of registration from your University to the Department.

The Department will not be responsible for your travelling and accommodation expenses during this time of conducting the research.

You will need to sign the attached letter of indemnity before conducting research in the Department.

Departement van Landelike Ontwikkeling en Grondhervorming - UmNyango Wezokuthuthukiswa Kwezindawo Zasemakhaya Nezinguguko Kwezomhlaba - Muhasho wa Mvelledziso ya Mahayani na Mbuyedzedzo ya Mavu - Ntzwulo ya Nhlukukiso wa Mathokozisa na Antwiso wa Misava - Lefapha la Tihabololo ya Magae le Nthwalfato ya Mafatshe - Lefapha la Tihabololo ya Dibaka tsa Mahae - Kgoro ya Tihabololo ya Dinagamagae le Peakanyoleswa ya Naga - ISebe loPhuhliso lwamaPhandle noBuyekezo lwemiHlaba - UmNyango wokuThuthukisa iNdawo zemakhaya nokuBuyiselwa kweNatha - Litiko Letekuthuthukiswa Kwentindzawo Tasemaphandleni Ntinguguko Kutemhlaba

**APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM**

Your co-operation to meticulously adhere to the aforementioned will be highly appreciated.

Kind regards



MS R SADIKI

ACTING DIRECTOR-GENERAL: RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

DATE: 2019.07.02

ANNEXURE 4: FACE TO FACE INTERVIEW GUIDE



Title: An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases

FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM (DRDLR) OFFICIALS

1. In your own words describe the term poverty?
2. In your own words, please describe what is meant by rural development and land reform?
3. What is the relationship between poverty, rural development and land reform?
4. In what way does your department focus on poverty and specifically poverty eradication?
5. Why do you think it is important for your department to focus on poverty eradication?
6. What is the nature of your rural development programmes?
7. Why do you think it is important for your department to effectively implement sustainable rural development programmes aimed at poverty eradication?
8. What legislations guide the mandate of your department?
9. How many sustainable rural programmes were implemented by your directorate/section in the past five years that were aimed at poverty eradication?
10. What were those programmes and their related achieved milestones?
11. What in your opinion were the critical success factors and lessons learnt from these programmes of sustainable rural development?
12. In line with the principles of equitable access to services across race, gender and class, how did your department continue to support various beneficiaries of sustainable rural development, including emerging black commercial farmers, communities in communal ownership, farm workers and cooperatives?
13. How do you ensure that programmes that you implement for rural development are sustainable?

14. What aspects do you deem critical and where more emphasis should be to ensure the sustainability of rural development programmes
15. What values are promoted or drive the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes?
16. What are the administrative interventions in this department that are tailored towards supporting the establishment of institutions that are effective in implementing sustainable rural development programmes?
17. What are your roles and responsibilities towards governance, accountability, transparency and responsiveness?
18. List the key experience and the related skills development you underwent biased towards sustainable rural development?
19. What are your roles in the development of the Approved Provincial Implementation Plan?
20. Where do you think there is an opportunity for improvement within the development process of the Approved Provincial Implementation plan?
21. What current process flow/model is used in ensuring sustainable rural development?
22. What are the best practices you are aware of that could be included in the current implementation plan or process flow for sustainable rural development programmes?
23. In your view what are the institutional challenges financially, capacity, processes and resources wise facing the DRDLR with regard to sustainable rural development?
24. What do you regard as the possible solutions to these challenges?

ANNEXURE 5: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE



Title: An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MUYEXE VILLAGE, JABULANI ABAFAZI AND WATER SMEET COMMUNITIES

1. What is your definition of poverty?
2. What is your opinion on the phenomena of sustainable rural development?
3. What is of importance to you that suggests that there is sustainable rural development in your area which addresses poverty eradication?
4. In line with the principles of equitable access to services for all South Africans, what services are accessible to you that improve your livelihood?
5. What do you know about the DRDLR?
6. How often and by what means do you receive information about available programmes and their objectives from the DRDLR officials?
7. Where or how do you think the DRDLR can improve the effective implementation of sustainable rural development programmes aimed poverty eradication in your area?
8. What is your involvement or participation during the implementation of a sustainable rural development programme?
9. At what stage of a programme is your involvement or participation?
10. What opportunities do you think are not yet exploited that must be included as sustainable rural development programmes for poverty eradication?
11. What skills or attributes do you think the officials from DRDLR should have to enable them to effectively and efficiently implement sustainable rural development programmes?

12. During profiling of your community for the implementation of sustainable rural development programmes, who are the participants and what information or details are requested?
13. How do you get progress information about a programme that you are a participant in?
14. Which services would you say are still not accessible to this community?
15. What are challenges that you still face as community in this area that sustainable rural development should still address?
16. What do you want to see as remedies or solutions to these challenges?
17. What is your understanding of community empowerment?
18. How did programmes of sustainable rural development empower you as a community?

ANNEXURE 6: CERTIFICATE LANGUAGE EDITING

KNG LANGUAGE EDITING SERVICES

“Say It With Style”

21 August 2020

To Whom It May Concern

CONFIRMATION OF LANGUAGE EDITING OF A DPHIL DISSERTATION:

An institutional framework for sustainable rural development aimed at addressing poverty in South Africa: selected cases

Herewith confirmation that the abovementioned dissertation, by Mr Mosekami Mokgala, has been language edited.

Yours sincerely



K.N. Groenewald