

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS AND LIVELIHOODS
IN LEPELLE-NKUMPI MUNICIPALITY OF LIMPOPO PROVINCE
OF SOUTH AFRICA

BY

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the impact of the community development projects on the livelihoods of the people. The aim of the study is to assess the impact of the community development projects and the livelihood of the community of Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality.

The study examines the operations and performance of the community development projects since they started. The objectives of the study are to assess the impact of the community development projects on the livelihood of the beneficiaries and the community in terms of income, jobs and living standards, as well as identify and recommend appropriate intervention strategies where necessary.

The finding of the study revealed that the community development projects did have an impact on both job creation and income generation, although the income part of it is not satisfactory. The other findings were the skewed participation where women were dominating.

The study reveals that the government and the private sector should play an active role in training the beneficiaries, encourage youth participation in order to ensure sustainability of the projects, and also expose the project members to different technologies available in agriculture to ensure mass productions which will translate into better incomes from the projects.

DECLARATION

I declare that the research conducted on community development projects is my own work and it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university and that the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as a complete reference.

Name: Nziane E.M.

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Signature: -----

Date: -----

DEDICATION.

Dedicated to the memory of my late grandmother, Favasi Magodweni Nziane, who instilled in me the importance of education and hard work.

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I would like to give a standing ovation and hearty round of applause to a friend, John Byamukama who worked very hard to help make me understand the interpretation of the research findings – for the inspiration and perspiration that define a true friendship.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS.

AU	-	African Union
CAADP-		Comprehensive African Agricultural Development Program
CASP	-	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programs
CBO	-	Community Based Organisation
CDM	-	Capricorn District Municipality
CDPs	-	Community Development Projects
DBSA	-	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DPLG	-	Department of Provincial and Local Government
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GMA	-	Game Management Area
IDP	-	Integrated Development Plan
IRD	-	Integrated Rural Development
LED	-	Local Economic Development
Lrad	-	Land re-distribution for Agricultural Development
NEPAD-		New Economic Partnership for African Development
PDA	-	Participatory Development Approach
PPMC-		Participatory Project Management Cycle
PRA	-	Participatory Rural Appraisal
RDP	-	Reconstruction and Development Program
REAP	-	Rural Enterprise Advancement Program
RRA	-	Rapid Rural Appraisal

Table of contents

Chapter 1. Background	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Problem statement	1
1.3 Motivation of the study	2
1.4 Aim and objectives	2
1.5 Research questions	2
1.6 Operational definitions	3
Chapter 2. Literature review	5
2.1. Introduction	5
2.2. Community development projects and livelihoods: conceptual approach	8
2.3. Empirical evidence on community development projects and impact on livelihoods in South Africa	12
2.4 Regional and global perspective	13
2.5 Theoretical framework	14
2.6 Synthesis of issues	23
Chapter 3 Research methodology	26
3.1 Research design	26
3.2 Area of study	27
3.3 Population sampling	27

3.4	Choice of instruments	27
3.4.1	Secondary data source	27
3.4.2	Primary data source	27
3.5	Data collection methods	28
7	Data analyses	29
Chapter 4. Presentation of results and discussion		31
4.1	Introduction	31
4.2	Presentation of findings	31
Chapter 5. Conclusion and recommendations		66
5.1	Introduction	66
5.2	Conclusion	66
5.3	Recommendations	69
List of tables		
	Table 4.1: Gender distribution of respondents	32
	Table 4.2: Marital status of respondents	34
	Table 4.3: Household size of respondents	36
	Table 4.4: Head of household	37
	Table 4.5: Relationship with household	38
	Table 4.6: Satisfaction with project size	42
	Table 4.7: Project members	42
	Table 4.8: Years of establishment	44
	Table 4.9: Registration	44

Table 4.10: Project activity	45
Table 4.11: Distribution on funding	46
Table 4.12: Distribution of desired income	49
Table 4.13: Source of advice	51
Table 4.14: Community perception	54
Table 4.15: Frequency of visits	54
Table 4.16: Distribution of opinion on farming in Limpopo	56
Table 4.17: Distribution of previous occupation	57
Table 4.18: Major challenges	59
Table 4.19: Possible remedies	59
List of graphs	
Figure 4.1: Age distribution of the respondents	33
Figure 4.2: Educational qualification of respondents	35
Figure 4.3: Basic income sources	37
Figure 4.4: Years in farming	39
Figure 4.5: Training	40
Figure 4.6: Project size	41
Figure 4.7: Distribution of participation	43
Figure 4.8: Growth constraints	47
Figure 4.9: Amount in rands	48
Figure 4.10: Attendance of project activities	50
Figure 4.11 Attitude of participants' children	53
Figure 4.12: Opinion on the advice of the extension officer	55

Figure 4.13: Distribution of living standards	58
Appendix	71
A. Questionnaire	71
References	87

Chapter 1

Background on community development projects and livelihoods in the Lepelle-Nkumpi municipality

1.1 Introduction

Lepelle-Nkumpi is one of the municipalities within the Capricorn District in the Limpopo Province and is located in the southern part of the district. The municipality is predominantly rural, with a population of approximately 227 965 people and it covers 3 454.78km², which represents 20.4% of the district's total area. 95% of the total land falls under the jurisdiction of the Traditional Authorities (Integrated Development Plan (IDP), 2006 -2011).

The IDP (2006-2011) reflects that more than seventy five percent of the people depend on the income of others for survival. About seventy two percent of the population lives below the breadline, with an employment rate over forty five percent.

Black South Africans were densely settled in communal areas during the colonial and apartheid period in the so-called homelands. They were unemployed and ill-placed to participate in the economy, except as unskilled and semi-skilled labourers (Ngomane, 2006: 202). This triggered the introduction of community development projects aimed at poverty as well as unemployment reduction. These projects are initiated by the LED and poverty reduction initiatives, mostly introduced by national and provincial government departments. The supporting role of the state lies in a developing climate conducive to institution-building and helping to establish fledgling organisations by building and nurturing them, and recognising them as participatory forums and bodies (Swanepoel and De Beer, 1997:62).

1.2 Problem statement

In response to the many development challenges facing the Lepelle-Nkumpi municipality a number of community development projects have been initiated. However, it is not clear what impact these projects have made on the livelihoods of beneficiaries and whether they are sustainable or not.

1.3 Motivation of the study

Media reports indicate that the success and the effectiveness of anti-poverty interventions are based on the political considerations that privilege the amount of state expenditure on poverty (Sunday Times, September 28 2003: 2) to the detriment of other objectives of the poverty alleviation programmes, such as job and income creation (Kwaw, 2006: 1).

The inability of the current poverty interventions that are part of the Provincial economic growth strategies to open opportunities for socio-economic up-liftment of the majority of the African population is a concern to all (Kwaw, 2006:2).

Therefore, little is known about the programmes, project design, and their possible impact on beneficiaries (Kwaw, 2006: 5).

1.4 Aim and Objectives

The aim of the study is:-

- To assess the impact of the community development projects on livelihoods of the beneficiaries and the community in terms of incomes, jobs and living standards; and
- To identify and recommend appropriate intervention strategies where necessary.

1.5 Research Questions

- What is the nature of the community development projects (CDPs)?
- How sustainable are they?
- How have the CDPs impacted on jobs?
- What jobs have been created through CDPs?
- What income has been generated for members?
- How has the wider community benefited from the projects?

1.6 Operational Definitions

Poverty

According to the World Bank (2001:2), poverty can be defined as the lack of, or the inability to achieve, a socially accepted standard of living. Lack refers to no command over economic resources, for example, basic food, shelter, or income to buy the basic needs. Whereas inability is associated with incapability failure to participate productively in a society. According to Todaro and Smith (2006: 805), poverty is a situation where a country or section of a population is, at most, able to meet only its subsistence essentials of food, clothing and shelter so as to maintain minimum *levels of living*.

Household

This is a basic unit of analysis in many microeconomic and government models. It consists of all the persons who occupy a housing unit. Census Bureau (n.d).

Household income

It includes the income of the householder and all persons 15 years and older in a household, whether related to the householder or not (wordnet.princeton.edu/perl/webwn).

Inequality

The existence of disproportionate distribution of total national income among households whereby the share going to rich persons in the country is far greater than that going to poorer persons (Todaro and Smith, 2006: 53).

Community development

Refers to the health, housing, education, and welfare (including economic welfare) conditions of individuals, households, and communities within a locality (Hindson and Vicente-Hindson, 2005:12).

Sustainable development

Sustainable development is the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs (Swanepoel and De Beer, 1997: 31).

Participation

This is the act of sharing in the activities of a group, the condition of sharing in common with the others (*wordnet.princeton.edu/perl/webwn*)

Vulnerability

Is the potential to suffer harm or loss, related to the capacity to anticipate a hazard, cope with it, resist and recover from its impact (DFID, 1999-2005)

Food security

It is the physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food by all South Africans at all times to meet their dietary and food preference for an active and healthy life (Department of Agriculture, 2002:15).

Chapter 2

Literature review: community development projects and livelihoods

2.1 Introduction

The emphasis on community development in South Africa emanates from the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) (South Africa, 1994: paragraph 1.3.3) which is conceptualised to bring about social development by means of a people-driven process. The processes involve that communities must take responsibility for their own development, and as a result, they have to be empowered to do so (Tamsane, 1998:67).

Most of the rural small-scale farmers in African countries wish to improve their standard of living, make profit, generate income, increase wellbeing, and improve food security and sustainability of environmental resources, Mukhala (1999) as cited by Masiteng and van der Westhuisen (2001:75).

In community development projects, the challenge the government institutions are facing is where the farmers are farming as a group, non-active members were found to create problems and conflict among other active members. Less active members demand the same share as the actively involved participants. On a comparative basis, the argument resembles the findings by Masiteng and van der Westhuisen (2001:80).

According to Machethe (2004:9), small holder agricultural growth cannot be achieved without access to farmer support services, where these farmers can significantly increase agricultural productivity and production.

The Comprehensive Agricultural Support Program (CASP) was introduced in South Africa to address the problem of lack of access to farmer support services. It appears to have incorporated some of the lessons from the agricultural development experience of the 1960s (Machethe, 2004:9).

This observation is based on the fact that the programme attempts to provide a wide range of services simultaneously rather than emphasising one of the elements of a progressing rural structure (Machethe, 2004:9).

Poverty and food insecurity in South Africa is the result of several centuries' of colonial and apartheid policies designed specifically to create general conditions unfavorable to the wellbeing of black people in its all aspects, especially in the former homelands (Department of Agriculture, 2002:18).

Impelled by its social and economical imperatives, successive white governments throughout the greater part of the twentieth century transformed agrarian nineteenth century society through a two-pronged strategy that set in motion a process that would simultaneously cripple and debar African farming and entrepreneurial development. The strategy enabled and entitled white farmers and industrialists as leaders and chief beneficiaries of industrial development (Department of Agriculture, 2002:18-19).

According to the Department of Agriculture (2002:19), the decline of African farming led to the gradual loss of agricultural and rural capital, wealth, farming and entrepreneurial skills and experiences. Farming and rural enterprise activities ceased to be a window of African entrepreneurial opportunity, management, and technical development.

To a greater extent these historical legacies led to the current situation, in which a majority of citizens (particularly Africans) do not have food security (Department of Agriculture, 2002:19).

The interventions by the apartheid government included the establishment of the smallholder irrigation schemes in the former homelands of South Africa, where the incidence of poverty is always high (May, 2000; Aliber, 2003: 158). These smallholder irrigation schemes present an attractive opportunity for development of local livelihoods (Van Averbeke and Mohamed, 2006:5).

Each homeland was to cater for a particular cultural or language group. To give credence to the concept of independence, it became imperative that the economy of the different homelands improved, because without exception they were islands of underdevelopment and poverty (Bernart, 2001:481). Almost half of the population continues to live under poverty datum line (Adelzadeh, 2006 as cited by Triegaardt, 2006:3).

It is estimated that just over 22 million people in South Africa live in Poverty (DBSA, 2005a: 122). Poverty and inequality in South Africa have racial, gender, spatial and

age dimensions. The concentration of poverty lies predominantly with black Africans, women, rural areas and black youth (Triegaardt, 2006:4). Poverty and inequality go hand in hand with unemployment. The unemployment rate is 26.7% or approximately four and a half million people (Stats SA, 2005:32).

Given the enormity of the poverty backlog in the country, an LED fund program was launched by National Government in 1999, especially with the aim to fund local government-led poverty alleviation projects. (Binns and Nell, 2002: 198). Since 2002 all local governments are expected to embark upon what has been termed Integrated Development Planning, which has been defined as a participatory approach to integrate economic sectoral, spatial, social, institutional, environmental and fiscal strategies, in order to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and across population in a manner that provides sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and the marginalized (DPLG, 2000:15).

Agricultural development projects in Africa have predominantly followed the input-output development model, which assumes that a country's economic, and social development can be extremely introduced (Donnelly-Roark, 1998:25) as cited by Hart, Burgess, Beukes and Hart (2005:104). The projects based on these models have not achieved sustainable development because they were not grounded in a participatory approach. The participatory toolbox e.g. Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA), Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), etc. were seen as models to provide that platform (Hart et al, 2005:106).

Hart, Beurgess, Beukes and Hart (2005:106) Proposed a Participatory Project Management Cycle (PPMC) as framework and platform for managing participatory projects.

A case study conducted on PPMC during 2002-2003, indicated that by identifying each phase and the associated activities, the PPMC makes project managers and local participants aware of what is required in terms of activities, timing, methods and tools during each phase i.e. it communicates to all involved as to what need to happen where, when and how (Hart, Burgess, Beukes and Hart, 2005:107).

Cleary (2003:4) indicates that a sustainable livelihoods approach is noted as aiming to promote development that is sustainable, not just ecologically, but also

institutionally, socially and economically in order to produce genuinely positive livelihoods outcomes. This is to be achieved through a variety of approaches: People-centered, responsive and participatory, multi-level, conducted in partnership, sustainable (with the four key dimensions of sustainability, being, economic, institutional, social, and environmental), and dynamic (Cleary, 2003:4).

Cleary (2003:4) also identifies a pentagon of five capital assets that are available to rural people i.e. human, social, physical, financial and natural capital.

The promotion of sustainable livelihoods is a key objective in the FAO strategic framework 2000-2015 (FAO, 2005:1). In FAO, people-centered development is used as an umbrella term to include a wide range of approaches or frameworks used by FAO and other development agencies and their partners. These approaches include the sustainable livelihood approach, farming systems, social, economic, and gender analysis, Gestion de Terroise, IRD, market analysis and development for community based tree and forest product enterprises, participatory development approach (PDA) and farmer field schools (FAO, 2005:2).

People-centered development is not a new paradigm but an umbrella, which can cover not only “approaches”, but also best practice principles that build on the belief that centrally or extremely mandated development projects and programmes do not result in successful development if they do not respect the priorities of communities’ needs and their roles in an informed decision-making process (FAO, 2005:2)

2.2 Community development projects and livelihoods: conceptual approach

Poverty is increasingly becoming the most important cause for a multitude of social and economic disasters, the magnitude of which is affecting close to 70% of the world population (World development Report, 2003:83). Brooks (2002:6) maintains that while agricultural output is growing in Africa, productivity, as measured by the average productivity of agricultural land and labor, has declined over most of the last two decades.

Rising agricultural productivity is regarded as the first step in the process of agricultural transformation and achieve the poverty reduction objectives in order to reverse of the observed productivity trends (Brooks, 2002:6; World Development Report, 2003:83).

South Africa is classified as an upper middle-income country, with one of the most skewed distribution of income and inequality in the world. The country's Gini-coefficient is estimated at 0.68 calculated from the 1996 population census data (Marais as cited in FAO, 2004: 2). The new South Africa, after the apartheid regime, inherited marginalised groups living in abject poverty. According to Terreblanche (2002:133), about 40% to 50% of South Africa's population can be classified as living in poverty, while 25% of the population can be categorised as ultra poor. Julian *et al*, (1998:4) assert that it is conventional to draw up a poverty line reflecting the monetary value of consumption, which separates the poor from the non-poor. For South Africa, this cut-off point can be defined by considering the poorest 40% of households (about 19 million people or just fewer than 50% of the population) as poor. The National Treasury (2003: 7) indicates that 43% of the households suffer from food poverty.

The Rural Industries Innovation Centre – R11C (1997:29, as cited by Arnold 1998:6) also found that the main users of these products are poor members of the community, and that they depended on veldt products due to the lack of access to alternative sources of livelihood.

The majority of the world's poorest people live in rural areas and are engaged in subsistence agriculture. Rural development, the effort to improve the living standards of these people and make the process self sustaining, is currently a major goal of many national plans and even some foreign assistance programs (Todaro, 1977, Lele, 1975:334 as cited by Bryant and White, 1980:2). An expanded concept of rural development takes into account the many components of the economy and society which have an impact on life in rural areas and which affects the incomes of rural people, (Bryant and White, 1980:4). Bryant and White (1980:4) argue that since the causes of rural poverty are multiple and interdependent, they must be addressed simultaneously in many sectors. However, the strategic problem therefore, is to identify which of those components is likely to have the greatest multiplier effect on the other factors, as well as those where some leverage exists for bringing about change (Bryant and White, 1980: 4).

Poverty and unemployment are urgent problems in the rural areas in South Africa (Mahlati, 2000:188). Only 18% of those who are employed in the agriculture sector

are women and many others rely on irregular income from seasonal work (South Africa, Department of Labor, 2004:9).

Ngwane *et al* (2002, as cited by Botha, Van der Merwe, Bester and Albertyn, 2007:3), state that although income-based poverty focuses on an important dimension of deprivation, it only gives a partial picture of the many ways in which human lives can be blighted. General thinking on poverty eradication strategies focuses on the conceptualisation of poverty as multifaceted rather than being due to the lack of income alone (Chemhuru and Nhamo, 2004:62).

There is a strong correlation between the level of education and the standard of living: the poverty rate among the people with no education is 69%, compared with 54% among people with a primary education, 24% among those with secondary education, and 3% among those with a tertiary education (May, 1998: 5).

May (1998 5) also indicates that there is also a correlation between poverty and ill-health, although this is more difficult to measure. Access to effective health care is a specific to a particular social and environmental situation.

Faced with this outlook, government formulated the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy, which reiterated government's commitment to the existing economic policy framework, identified many of the structural weakness inhibiting economic growth and employment, and focused attention on market-based in order to address them (May, 1998:7). The strategy recognizes that a sustained reduction of inequalities requires accelerated job creation, which in turn requires structural transformation to achieve higher and more labor-absorbing growth within the economy (May, 1998:7)

Labor market may not be the main instrument for the eradication of poverty; an effective, successful process of poverty eradication is only achievable through coordinated government strategies and action. Other labor policy areas (welfare and health, etc.) should be included (May, 1998: 14).

According to Machete (2004:2), the role of agriculture in the economy is generally acknowledged. One school of thought argues that since the majority of people in most developing countries lives in rural areas and are engaged in agricultural production or agricultural related activities, agriculture is the most effective way to reduce poverty (Machete, 2004: 2)

The second school of thought recognises the contribution of agriculture to poverty alleviation but attaches more importance to non-agricultural activities e.g. rural non-farm enterprises and social services. According to Machete (2004: 3) results of the studies conducted in several counties indicated that the pro-poor role of agricultural growth could be dramatic, and much more effective than other sectors at reducing poverty and hunger. According to FAO (2004:12) agricultural growth has strong and positive impact on poverty often significantly greater than that of other economic sectors. Machete (2004: 4) indicates that farming is the greatest contributors to household income where more than 40% of the total household income is generated from farming. Non-farm income includes old-age pension, remittances, wages, and family business (Machete, 2004:4).

One of the encouraging developments in recent years has been the growth in support for home gardens, especially in peri-urban and urban areas, where small plots of vegetables in particular, can contribute significantly to both livelihoods and nutritional standards (Department of Agriculture and Land Affairs, 1998:7).

Participatory development is more difficult to design and implement than development managed by administrators, but requires more social learning, taking risk, co-ordinated skills and patience (Bryant and White, 1984:1). Many political leaders campaign promises. Participation is difficult to implement and not knowing how to implement it as well as not anticipating the practical difficulties that follow, their commitment to participation becomes diluted when the inevitable difficulties arise (Bryant and White, 1984:1).

2.3 Empirical evidence (community development projects and impact on livelihoods in South Africa)

The commission (1955) recommended that the smallholder irrigation schemes be used as one of the strategies to provide full-based livelihoods to black families in the "Bantu Areas". By contract, the commission (1955) found that nationwide the mean annual income among the rural families with livelihoods that were completely land based was 57 British pounds.

The commission (1955) counted 122 smallholder schemes, existing or under construction, covering a total area of 7 538ha. The second era of the smallholder irrigation was from 1930-1960 and can be referred to as the smallholder canal

schemes (Backeberg and Groenewald, 1995: 4). These were constructed after the Second World War (Van Averbeke and Mohamed, 2006: 4).

The third period of the small holder irrigation development was established in the independent homeland era which lasted from 1970 until 1990 and was an integral part of the economic development of the homeland (Beinart, 2001: 55). In 2002, the Limpopo Province broadened the scope of its irrigation scheme rehabilitation intervention by launching a comprehensive revitalization program called RESIS (Revitalization of Smallholder Irrigation Schemes) (Limpopo Department of Agriculture, 2002: 18). In 2005, Commercialisation became the principal development objective of RESIS; the shift in emphasis was possibly influenced by the Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) Strategy that was introduced in SA (Department of Agriculture, 2006: 6).

Additional evidence on community development projects is from a case study of livelihoods and farming among plot holders homesteads conducted during the period of 2003 to 2006 at Dzindi area in the Vhembe District of Limpopo Province (Averbeke and Mohamed, 2006: 18).

One of the challenges facing South Africa is job creation and development of people's skills (Kotze and Staude, 1996) as cited by Botha *et al* (2007:3).

Bembridge (2000) as cited by Averbeke and Mohamed (2006:11) reported that the proportion of plot holder homesteads living below the poverty line on for small holder irrigation schemes ranged between 50% and 75%. This questions the impact of small-scale irrigation on livelihood and poverty. In the case of Dzindi area in Vhembe district of the Limpopo Province, the positive impact of irrigated agriculture on the homestead income was evident when the scheme was compared with a selection of rural dry land settlements in South Africa (Averbeke and Mohamed, 2006: 3). In black rural communities livelihood stresses and shocks are part of the people's daily life experiences. Life histories of a selection of plot holder homesteads at Dzindi showed that at one stage or another, circumstance had forced them to rely on farming their plot for a Livelihood (Averbeke and Mohamed, 2006: 3).

In the Eastern Cape communal farming contribute one third of the total land area and supports 63% of the six million inhabitants (Lategan and Raats, 2005:260). This area

is also affected by the twin socio-economic ills of poverty and unemployment, the latter close to 50% (Lategan and Raats, 2005:260).

2. 4 Regional and global perspective

Baumann (2000:136) emphasises the need for sustainable livelihoods to incorporate political capital as an endogenous asset within livelihoods framework. She also emphasises that this is also important in terms of ensuring local participation and empowerment. In addition, changes in local power structures are going to find themselves in opposition to local elites, to such an extent that SLAs may face considerable resistance when there are attempts to organize the local population into groups for changing the local access to resources. Baumann (200: 136) examined the use of sustainable livelihoods (SL) in the following districts in India, Dehradun (Utter Pradesh), and Rayagada (Orissa).

There was also the Getion de Terroirs approach to rural development that emerged from the Francophone West African states as an attempt to improve upon existing approaches to local rural development (Cleary, 2003:9). In terms of its introduction world wide, this has happened only to a limited degree, with some trials in some areas of Latin America, she added.

South Africa's food security policy is located within a broader regional (targets national, household, and individual food security) and international context (SADC's food, agriculture and natural resource unit is based in Zimbabwe) (Department of agriculture, 2002:12).

2.5 Theoretical framework

2.5.1 Introduction

Development concerns people. It focuses on the millions of persons who are in abject poverty across the world. Development is described differently by various interest groups and philosophers (Kortze, 1997:2). In the western world development has been regarded as change since the 1950s and the focus generally was on economic change and growth of developing countries (Regan and Ruth, 2002:24). In the third world, development was and still is expected to identify and address the needs of unemployed, poor and deprived people through development efforts

(Coetzee 1989:2). All people want a wealthy life and for that reason the wellbeing of people is the basis of development (Coetzee and Graaff, 1996:14).

Coetzee (1989:3) mentions that the western contribution to development was accompanied by hidden motives. External involvement in development efforts often resulted in a position of power over and domination of a developing country and power is generally accompanied by exploitation (Freire, 1998:91).

For the purpose of the study the following development theories will be discussed; modernisation, dependency theory, sustainable development, and the basic needs theory. The investigation of community development follows, as these theories are reflected in the idea of community development as it developed over time. The discussion on community development projects and livelihoods is useful for this study because it will evaluate on the impact these projects have made on the community.

2.5.2 Modernisation theory

Developed from the need for economic growth in the second half of the 1950s. According to Coetzee (1989:4), the idea of modernisation was a form of change that focused on the influence coming from outside to the less-developed world. The solution for the less-developed world was simple: ignore tradition and follow the route to development as examined by the developed western countries (modernity) (Davids, 2005:9; Coetzee and Graaff, 1996:39; Coetzee, 1989:17).

Leys (1996:10) explains that the theories of modernisation emphasised that the values of the modern world would be spread out through education and technology development aid programmes to the less-developed countries (LDC). To some theorist the problem of underdevelopment was just a shortage of capital, (Leys, 1996:16).

Rostow (1990:4) explained development in five stages.

1. The traditional society is in a stage when almost no history exists (Rostow, 1990:4-6).
2. Societies are guided to enable them to imitate the economic history of the European countries and to have growth resulting in development (Rostow, 1990: 6-7)

3. The take-off happens when economic growth occurs independently. Accumulated interest becomes part of the mode of growth and structures of the society (Rostow, 1990: 7-9).
4. The society progresses to maturity and enhances the criteria of modern efficient production. GNP indicates the progress (Rostow, 1990: 9-10).
5. The society is present in the stage of high mass consumption (Rostow, 1990: 10-11).

Modernisation as explained by Rostow assumes that economic and social change of societies take place along a development continuum starting from traditional underdevelopment to modernity. Progress always will be a possibility and improvement will automatically follow, should the correct procedures (the third world imitating the development steps of the west) be followed (Coetzee and Graaff, 1996: 56).

According to Rist (1999: 101) and Coetzee and Graaff (1996: 58), modernisation did not always evolve in spite of favorable circumstances. Rostow argued that should any of the stages experience obstacles, foreign capital could be used to remove those obstacles to development on LDCs. (Davids, 2005:11; Coetzee and Graaff (1996:58). Bauer (1995: 56) disagreed with the idea as aid recipients severely restrict private internal investment.

From the 1960s to 1980s the former underdeveloped homelands of South Africa were provided with infrastructure for agriculture, education, and industry by the South African apartheid government. These underdeveloped areas were extremely poor and unemployment rampant (Cock, 1980:45).

The aim was to institutionalise and support the policy of separate development and to expose the people living in these areas to modernisation. The envisaged development did not occur nearly to the extent envisaged and the trickle down effect was not achieved (Coetzee, 1989: 39; Leys, 1996:10). People who qualified at universities in these areas could not find employment. This was a typical example of unbalanced growth and the progress of modernisation as the economy could not provide employment for the educated people (Coetzee and Graaff, 1989:5).

Sharp criticism exposed modernisation as an effort to justify northern countries use of domestic growth and foreign aid as methods of fighting communism. Southern countries expected an improved future, promised by modernisation, while the new ruling class of the South was benefiting only themselves and not the poor people (Regan and Ruth, 2002:32; Rist, 1999:109). The critique resulted in reaction and counter-reaction and the Dependency theory as a critique of modernisation.

2.5.3 Dependency Theory

The dependency theory was a reaction to the shortcomings of modernisation and it was mostly the Latin American countries that spearheaded the reaction. These countries had enjoyed independence for more than a century but had not benefited from modernisation and its promises. Coetzee and Graaff (1996:74) argue that the same processes that led to growth and prosperity of the capitalist west in the past broadly caused underdevelopment in the Third World. The elite of the Third World that dominated the developing countries specialist export orientated economies had a dependent relationship with capitalists in the more advanced countries (Coetzee and Graaff, 1996: 74). Todaro (1989:79) describes dependency as a spiraling phenomenon to which multinational corporations aid agencies and multilateral assistance organisations such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund contributed. The actions of the elite prevented rather than enhanced genuine development efforts and resulted in the perpetuation of underdevelopment in the Third World.

Todaro (1989:78) refers to this situation as the neo colonial dependency and regards it as indirect Marxist thinking. Frank (1995:28) believes that the unequal exploitive power relationships between the center (developed countries) and the periphery (less developed countries) prevented poor nations from becoming self reliant and independent in their development efforts. The end result of external interference was the poor people concerned took up a passive role that was forced onto them by outside forces as they were robbed their own free will (Vorster, 1989: 72).

As with modernisation, there were problems with the dependency theory and different criticisms of dependency. Regan and Ruth (2002:32) argue that the dependency theory attributed the wealth of developed countries unfairly to colonial exploitation. Dependency did not attend sufficiently to the cultural aspects of development. Internal factors that contributed to underdevelopment were ignored

(Davids, 2005:16). The de-linking strategy could lead to self destruction rather than self-reliance.

The improvement of human conditions in particular material conditions was the underlying motivation of development in the western world. The need existed for development to be based on human well-being and basic human needs as defined by ordinary people. The basic needs approach was an effort in development thinking to move in such a direction.

2.5.4 The Basic Needs Approach

The concept of the Basic Needs approach made its first appearance in 1972 when Robert McNamara the President of the World Bank gave his annual speech to the governors of the bank. He was concerned about the dramatic conditions of the people of the South who were unable to change their own circumstances out of poverty because most basic needs were not being satisfied (Regan and Ruth, 2002:32). It also was a call for greater public development assistance. Countries were encouraged to establish growth targets in terms of essential human needs: nutrition, housing, health, literacy, and employment (Rist, 1999:163).

The Basic Needs Approach (BNA) was seen as a new paradigm striving for an increasing social justice. Development in BNA terms included food, shelter, clothing, health and education but also extended to other needs, goals, and values. Development was further regarded freedom of expression (Coetzee, 1989:154). It was believed that people must have the right to share their ideas and to receive ideas and stimuli. Development implies the right to have work and experience personal fulfillment through work (Coetzee, 1989:155).

The BNA did not supply all answers for effective development. Needs were based on cultural perception and to understand needs in a universal and cross-cultural setup was not as straight forward. The BNA was in coherence with the mainstream economies. This implies that unlimited growth was needed to reach a point of final satisfaction (Rist, 1999: 168-169). The BNA made a distinction between economic growth and needs satisfaction, but the focus remained the material aspect of development and not human issues.

The focus of BNA on what the basic needs of poor and deprived people are did not develop into a methodology of how the basic needs could be met in development

programmes (Friedman, 1992:60). The BNA lost its support in the Third World, but appeared again in the idea of participatory development (De Beer, 1997: 27). The idea of development that enhances the basic needs of the people and simultaneously looks at the constraints in the environment reappeared in the theory of sustainable development. Sustainable development forms an integral component of a people centered approach that is reflected in community development.

2.5.5 Sustainable Development

Environmental matters were not part of the development debate in the 1960's and 1970's. The environmental concerns of the North namely the loss of the ozone layer, the loss of biodiversity as well as acid rain, combined with the Bruntland report in 1987, provided stimulus for this debate (Adams, 2001:1). The vision of sustainable development of the Bruntland report was to maintain and revitalise the world economy (Adams, 2001:72). This meant that the fulfillment of the basic needs of the people through sustainable development had to serve economic development firstly.

The South shared the concerns of the North, but was more concerned about the poor, water supply, bad sanitation, soil erosion, depletion of wood supplies, and environmental health in general. These were the aspects that had a direct impact on the poverty situation of the people of the South. The developing countries were of the opinion that capital resources could be spent on efforts to address the environmental problems of the South instead of undermining the livelihoods of the poor (Redcliffe and Sage, 1995:5)

One of the approaches of sustainable development is that economic growth will enhance technological power and wealth. The potential is then created to revitalise the exhausted ecological resources (Treurnicht, 1997:87). However, it is unclear of how technology can be effective in the context.

Sustainable development demands co-operation and support on different levels. Guidance at individual government, intergovernmental and inter agent level should be linked with the role of NGO'S and local community (African National Congress, 1994:4&5). Sustainable development needs to be implemented where people are able to learn and empower themselves to act at a local level. Adams (2001:365) concurs with the idea by stressing that sustainable development is possible only as development from below.

In South Africa, the environmental problems can be traced back to the separate development of apartheid. Parts of South Africa were overpopulated due to forced removals and migration. The livelihood for families could not be sustained on the small and infertile land occupied (Conwell, 1996:82)

Sustainable development cannot be separated from community development. Development programmes that are based on people's participation and empowerment need to include the creation of environmental awareness. Cornwell (1996:86) states that a common environmental ethos and ideology need to be established in South Africa.

2.5.6 Community Development

2.5.6.1 Defining "community"

The term "community" usually refers to a group of people of the same locality. These people share an interdependency that originates from their efforts to make a living. The United Nation's definition refers to communities of individuals at the lowest level of aggregation at which people organise themselves in groups to be involved in community development and in some ways dependent on each other (Swanepoel, 1997: 18-19) Local communities may or may not share the same ethnic, racial or class characteristics (Groenwald, 1989:257). In South Africa the policy of separate development divided the population according to race into separate groups. This policy resulted in racially homogenous communities specifically in urban areas (Davids, 2005:18).

2.5.6.2 The evolving of the idea of community development

The idea of community development is not a new one. In the colonial times, getting communities to take on responsibility for their own development was regarded as part of efficient colonial government. The emphasis was on self help (Roodt, 1996:313). In the 1950's to 1960's the assistance of a more developed community to a less developed community was prominent in community development (Jeppe, 1980:8). The trickle-down effect was a determinant for effective community development (Roodt, 1996:313). The influence of modernisation was evident in this top-down approach. The Elite benefited and local community initiative was absent.

2.5.6.3 People-centered community development

People-centered community development places the emphasis in development projects on the action and the enhancement of the ability of the people to participate in the process (Davids, 2005:18). It also implies that self esteem and living standards of the participants improve through their own doing (Jeppe, 1985:30)

People-centered community development implicates participation in decision making and implementation of development programmes and projects. People participate in monitoring and evaluation as well as the share in the benefits of the development opportunity. They become actors in the development process.

The participation of people contributes in different ways. The development project has greater acceptance as people take ownership of the project. Participation motivates people to become self-reliant with regard to their own development. It is a method of ensuring equity as it provides opportunities for marginalised groups such as women to influence development initiatives. Participation of the people can result into capacity building and empowerment of the organisation as well (Davids, 2005:20).

Successful community development is determined by a range of contributing factors such as sustainability, adaptiveness, ownership, simplicity, the roles of the bureaucracy, agents and NGO's (Davids, 2005:18) The role of bureaucracy changes from inhibiting and prescriptive to capacity building and support in people centered community development. Government becomes the enabler and is adaptive in its approach. **2.5.6.4 Other initiatives on community development**

In Brazil the main problems of the integrated rural (IRD) was the over-reliance on technology and attempts to teach such technologies to small farmers. The project designers failed to take into account the fact that the logic of subsistence farmers is much more complex than the profit maximising assumptions usually applied to large scale farmers (Cleary, 2003:24). It would appear that sustainable livelihood-type (SL-type) approaches have much to offer the farmers, given their explicit use of local knowledge (Cleary, 2003:24)

In a case study – CONASA (Community-Based Natural Resource Management and Sustainable Agriculture) that was conducted on 01-January 2004-05, project works to improve the livelihoods of communities in the Game Management Area (GMA) of

Sichifulo, Mulobzi and Bbilili in Southern Zambia indicated the following challenges (FAO, 2005:4):

- During the diagnosis phase the project did not benefit from the full complement of livelihood disciplines which became evident only during the implementation stage. Key community stakeholders were absent at the planning stages and so some community priorities were not addressed during the project implementation.
- The absence of a steering committee at the inception phase meant that initially the project suffered from low momentum as it did not have a cohesive group of stakeholders to drive the activities.
- The project found that the Community Based Organization (CBO) structures were threatened if they did not have support of local government as the weak linkages between the CBO (micro-level) and the local government (meso-level) impeded the implementation of some activities.
- Lack of financial management skills meant that, at certain points, access to resources was lacking, which affected the momentum and project flow.

The challenge for the utilisation of livelihood approaches in emergencies is that it is extremely challenging to quantify impact on different capital assets. This means that the approach is best used in conjunction with other tools to in order drive detailed programming responses (Castro, 2002:4).

Research results over many decades have suggested that agricultural production is the result of a process of interaction between a number of dependent variables (yield, profit and sustainability) and independent variables (personal, production, institutional and environmental factors). This is mediated by decision-making process that is, in turn, influenced by a number of intermediate variables (Duvel, 1991) as cited by Lategan and Raats (2005:269).

This complex system of interrelationship also constitutes the operational environment of the agricultural extension educationists and researcher investigating the efficiency of adoption patterns and practice applications of farmers (Lategan and Raats, 2005:270). This also holds true for the Rural

Enterprise Advancement Programme (REAP). According to Lategan and Raats (2005:275), the establishment of the REAP is an important continuation of the involvement of the University of Fort Hare in the promotion of the growth of the South African developing agricultural sector through increasing participation in commercial agricultural activities in an attempt to reduce poverty and increasing purposeful job creation.

Although CD movement faltered in the 1950 in Asia, the World Bank and the USAID replicated the IRD projects in Africa from 1976-1988 (World Bank, 1988:194).

The IRD projects were later reported to have had little to offer to a majority (70%) of the resource poor farmers in Malawi (Thompson, 2002:231 and World Bank 1988:194).

The major failing of the most IRD projects was their lack of a technologically sound basis of improving rural incomes, Lack of coordination as well as lack of sustainability of the projects (McClelland, 1996) and the dependency syndrome (GTZ, 2003).

Mwangwela and Duvel (2006:108) point out that the principle of maximum community participation is based on the notion of self-determination, self-reliance, self responsibility and self-help as a normative goal. This implies that involvement should be extended to the ultimate empowerment and ownership of the development process.

But this does not seem to be not the case as the communities even now are failing to sustain the community development projects. The communities still rely on the donors and government to sustain their projects.

The holistic approach to social interventions aimed at alleviating poverty is therefore propounded Ngwane *et al* (2002:122) state that although income-based poverty focuses on an important dimension of poverty, it only gives a partial picture of the many ways in which human lives can be blighted.

2.6. Synthesis of issues

The core aim of community development development projects is to alleviate poverty. The poor are not all the same. There are different poor stakeholders/first

level of differentiation- gender, age, socio-economic class, location, etc. have different income earning options.

Understanding these differentiations is important/centre of framework/key to understanding their needs and aspirations.

- Assets/capital/resources- natural (e.g. land, water, forest, etc).
- Human (e.g. strength, good health, information, skills, ability, capabilities, traditional & local knowledge).
- Physical (eg.infrastructures, roads, water, electricity supply, schools, etc).
- Financial(e.g. cash, savings, credit, cattle, jewellery).
- Social (family, relatives, NGO & community, institutional support). Network & relationships important in livelihood of the poor. Informal and formal social linkages provide social safety net in difficult times; provide emotional & psychological security, reciprocal obligations, support in times of need. Social organisation (self help/pressure groups) play role in helping poor, enable poor to make voices heard.
- People combine resources to make a 'livelihood'. Important to understand 'strengths' and 'weaknesses' in relation to resources, determine opportunities to change their livelihood.
- Direct influencing factor- governance, politics, power, patronage, access to resources, knowledge and information, policy, regulation, service delivery, economics, markets, religion, social norms, gender, age, education, etc.
- Indirect influencing factors/Vulnerability context- natural resource seasonality, rural infrastructure, technology, economic growth, population, health & diseases, risks to climate change, flooding, drought, employment opportunities &, market demands, ownership, conflict, globalization, diversification (fishing, tourism, etc)
- Livelihood strategies (LS) – reflect ways in which direct and indirect influencing factors affect ability of the poor to use resources effectively, to create viable, sustainable livelihood. Otherwise be forced to adopt fragile, unsustainable livelihood that leaves them in poverty or very vulnerable.

- LS- of the poor are diverse and complex reflecting variations in opportunities available- e.g. for fishing communities, depended on fishing, fish processing, agriculture, tourism, petty trading, laboring, boat building, net mending, aquaculturist,etc.
- Interlinkages between incomes and employment activities, many of them linked to Vegetables, poultry and Small stock.
- Key livelihood strategy may include greater youth engagement in productive activities as early as possible. To get integrated into mainstream economic activities, growing awareness of the long term value of education for children as a livelihood strategy.
- Considerable specialization in some skills (e.g. hydroponics, Poultry production, Organic farming, etc).
- Incomes or return from economic are low/marginal, leads to poverty. Poor also lack skills, knowledge, attitudes, organizational ability, confidences, finance, patronage linkages, access to resources, information and rights, especially amongst 'hidden poor' or those left out from many poverty-focused development efforts.
- Migration may become strategy to seek better access to resources or seek better opportunities.
- Poverty link to various issues: i) low incomes ii) unemployment or underemployment, iii) indebtedness, iv) poor health, v) low education. vi) drugs & crime, vii) size and composition of family, viii) number of income earners, ix) ownership of assets, etc.
- Livelihood Outcomes- improvements in well-being, health, incomes, happiness, knowledge, stable natural resources, choices, security, inclusion, poverty alleviation.
- Livelihood outcomes may improved, but for those whose livelihood have worsened- living under growing resource, population and economic pressures, sustainability may be dubious.

Chapter 3

Research methodology

3.1 Research design

A qualitative research design was adopted for the study. The primary goal for using this approach is defined as describing and understanding where the researchers have always primarily been interested in describing the actions of the research participants in great detail and attempting to understand these actions in terms of the actors' own beliefs, history and context (Babbie and Mouton, 2006:271). The advantage of using a qualitative research method is that it generates rich, detailed data that leaves the participants' perspectives intact and provides a context for healthy behavior (Weinreich, 2666: 2).

A research design is the plan according to which we obtain participants (subjects) and collect information from them (Welman and Kruger, 2002: 46). In it we describe what we are going to do with the participants, with a view to reaching conclusions about the research problem (Welman and Kruger, 2002:46).

According to Babbie and Mouton (2006:72), research design addresses the planning of scientific inquiry and strategy for investigation. There are two major aspects of research design: firstly, you must specify as clearly as possible what you want to find out, and secondly, you must determine the best way to do it (Babbie and Mouton, 2006:72). According to Babbie and Mouton (2006: 72), as mathematicians say, a proper-framed question contains an answer.

Babbie and Mouton (2006:72) further elaborate that in a scientific inquiry you need to make observations and interpret what you have observed, and before you can observe and analyse, you need to plan. You need to determine what you are going to observe and analyse, why and how (Babbie and Mouton, 2006:72).

Verschuren and Doorewaard (1999:16) distinguish between two types of research designs namely, a conceptual research design and a technical research design. A conceptual research design determines what, why, and how much we are going to study, where we mainly use concepts and the relationship between concepts (Verschuren and Doorewaard, 1999: 16).

3.2 Area of study

The area of the envisaged study was Lepelle-Nkumpi local Municipality, one of the local municipalities within the Capricorn District Municipality in the Limpopo Province found in the Southern part of the Capricorn district, about 61km from Polokwane. This area is predominantly rural with a population of about 227965 and covers 3454.78km², which represents 20.4% of the district total land area. The municipality is divided into 27 wards, which comprises a total of 110 settlements. Approximately 95% of the land falls under the jurisdiction of the Traditional Authorities (IDP, 2006: 10).

3.3 Population/Sampling

No sampling methods were used because the entire population will participate in the research. The population comprised of 85 respondents. The respondents are farming on both vegetables, broilers, nursery and goats.

3.4 Choice of instruments

3.4.1 Secondary data sources

The researcher made use of secondary sources such as journals, municipality documents and all other literature that will contribute to enriching the findings of this study.

3.4.2 Primary data source

Data were collected using both observations, interviews (both structured and unstructured interviews). Questionnaires were used during the interviewing process. The instruments were the most appropriate sources for information in the evaluation of those community development projects. Participants were subjected to those instruments so as establish the performance of the projects.

3.6 Data collection Methods

Data were collected from all the participants in the community development projects through interviews and observations so as to ensure that all the relevant information was captured. The researcher made use of observations as well structured and unstructured interviews.

3.6.1 Observation

Participant observation was used by the researcher as a data collecting technique in this study. Strydom *et al.* (2002: 289) discuss participant observation as a valuable procedure for data collection in qualitative studies as it has an exploratory character. Babbie (2004: 285) and Strydom *et al.* (2002:280) support the notion that participatory observation implicates a continuum from complete observer to complete participant with a variety of degrees of involvement inbetween.

The challenge was to make regular notes on observations and experiences in the research field and to convert it into field notes as soon as possible in order to reduce errors. Observation was followed up with informal one-on-one interviews.

3.6.2 Interviewing

According to Strydom *et al.* (2002: 292), interviewing is the method of data collection most often used in qualitative research. Babbie (2004: 299) describes this technique as qualitative field interviewing. Strydom *et al.* (2002: 292) depict the interview in the qualitative research sense as a conversation that presents a two-sidedness. Babbie (2004: 300) explains that qualitative interviewing implicates the interaction between the interviewer and the respondent. As Babbie (2004: 300) advises, the interviewer had a general idea about questions to be posed and guided the interview accordingly. A closer relationship between the interviewer and the respondent was possible. The interviewer could show his human side when asking questions and answering. He could show feelings. Oakley (1884: 49) describes this as the reciprocal character of interviewing. Such interviews provided a greater range of information deep insight about the respondents. The respondents became participants in this nature Frey (1994: 370).

Different types of interviews were conducted in this research. The original aim was to observe the impact of community development projects in the municipality of Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality. Unstructured and structured interviews methods were implemented. One-on-one interviews were used to obtain information from the project members in the municipality. The informal interview (unstructured)

resulted in respondents on occasions forgetting that they were being interviewed, as questions followed from the immediate context.

The structured interview schedule was also used as one of the methods of collecting data. The structured interview schedule is the data collection technique most common used in social survey (Miller and Brewer, 2003: 253). A structured interview is when the interviewers are present, asking questions and helping the respondent, examples are face-to-face interviews or a telephone survey (Miller and Brewer, 2003: 253). The advantages of structured interviews as outlined by Miller and Brewer (2003: 253) are:

Cheapness- Questionnaires are very cost effective e.g. No expenses in terms of the time and travel of the interviewer exist. Problems associated with interviewers are avoided with a questionnaire survey. When the respondent must go and look up information, a mailed questionnaire is better because they can do this at their leisure, although it was not useful in the study.

The respondents may be shown to be more willing to give out personal information or to admit to 'unsocial' opinions when filling out any anonymous questionnaire rather than telling the lurid facts face-to-face to an interviewer who is a complete stranger.

Miller and Brewer (2003: 255) also highlighted the criticisms that the respondents may not always be honest in answering a particular question, and such gaps may easily be identified and addressed in the in-depth approaches to data collection methods such as the unstructured interview.

3.7 Data analysis.

Data were analysed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS), with basic commands to use when performing statistical analysis such as univariate analysis, bivariate analysis (tabulations and cross tabulations), and regression analysis, (Babbie and Mouton, (2006:583). A qualitative analysis (non-numerical examination and interpretation of observation, for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships) and quantitative analysis (numerical representation and the manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect, were used (Babbie and Mouton, 2006:446). The analysis of qualitative data was the

concretisation of identified categories and the incorporation of pre-existing knowledge into one theory that is being confirmed, created or added (Nkatini, 2005:40).

There were two basic approaches to follow when addressing the data analyses of recurring themes in qualitative research i.e. the content analyses and ethnographic summary (Welman and Kruger, 2002: 194). The content analyses involved a systematic observation of personal documents and mass media material where this was executed in order to making qualitative analyses of the essence of the content of such an interview (Welman and Kruger, 2002: 195).

3.8 Conclusion

The respondents were fully supportive and patient during the collection of data. No problems were encountered during the process.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the main objective is to analyse and present data collected in the experience of the respondents in terms of the impact of community projects on the livelihoods of the Lepelle-Nkumpi community. Data were gathered through observations, questionnaires, and interviews with respondents participating in various community projects within Lepelle Nkumpi municipality. A total of 85 people were sampled. The data collected were subjected to statistical analysis through SPSS for Ms Windows 14.0. This chapter is divided in eight sections following the introduction.

4.2: Personal characteristics of the respondents

4.2.1 Gender

In terms of gender, a significant proportion of eighty one percent (69) of the respondents were female and only a nineteen percent (16) male (table 4.1). Male participation in the community projects was undesirably small. Females were more actively engaged in community projects. The skew in gender indicated women were in majority because men pursued different interests such as outside employment. The government also encourages women empowerment by funding the projects which were run by women. The results of female domination in agriculture contradicts those found from other studies like Fabiyi *et al* (1991:234) who is of the opinion that in Southwest Nigeria men dominate. Females in the Imo state were rarely allocators of land rights and even their right to use land generally comes from men. The situation might have resulted from different access to and control over land use rights between men and women, and the same applies to South Africa as well.

Table 4.1 Gender of participants

	Frequency	Percent
Valid Male	16	18.8
Female	69	81.2
Total	85	100.0

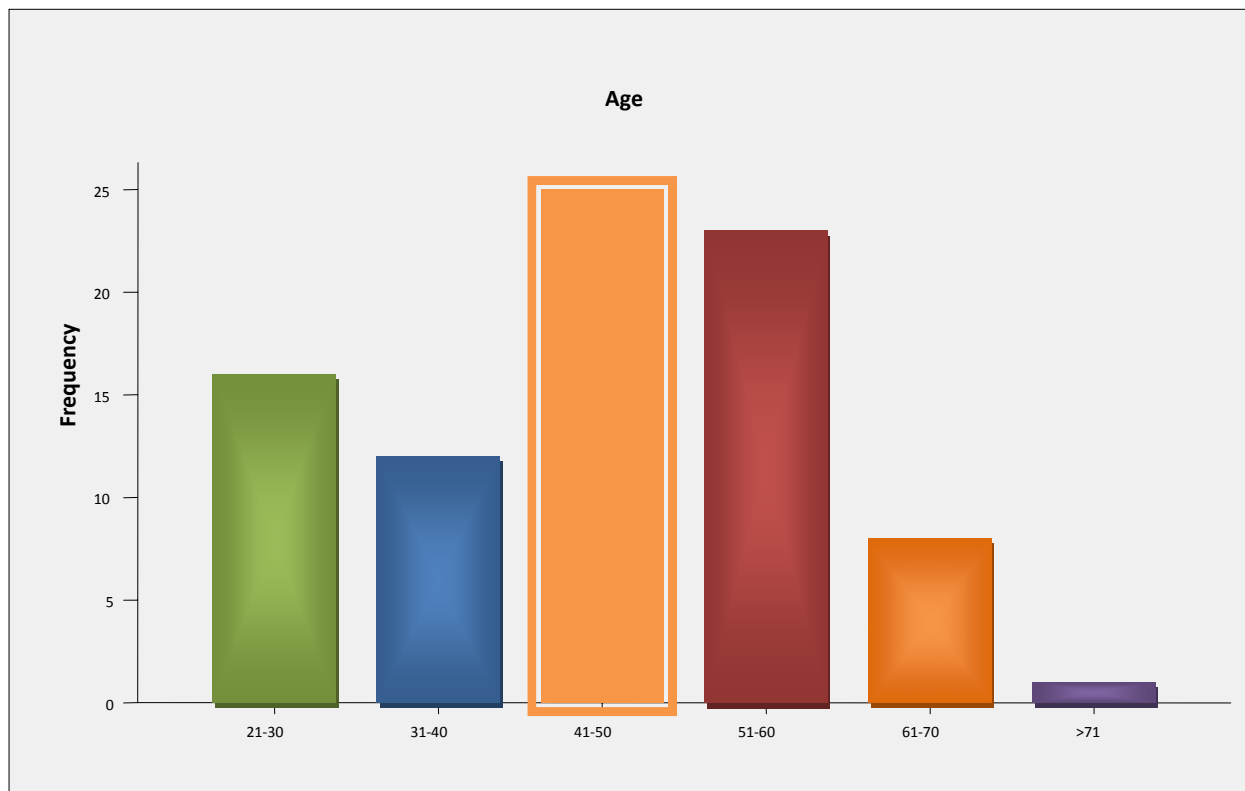
4.2.2 Age of participants

In terms of age a proportion of twenty nine percent (29) of respondents fell between the ages of 41 and 50. This is followed by a close margin of twenty seven percent (23) who were between 51 and 60 years of age. Between 31 and 40 years constituted the lowest percentage of fourteen percent (12), the second last group is eighteen percent (15) constituted by the age group of between 21 and 30. These findings indicated that generally the youth were scarcely participating in community projects. Adults of above middle age were the major participants in the community projects. The adults of above 70 years of age still were eager to remain in the projects. No young persons of below 21 years of age participating in development projects.

The youth also pursued different interests and they did not see agriculture as a business which one can survive in. The study by Malope and Molapisane (2006: 40) confirms the poor participation by youth where it indicated that there was only 9% participation on the side of youth in the Babirwa district compared to 27% adult participation in agriculture. They also indicated poor participation by youth with different interests other than agriculture.

Research results from an article by Bemridge (1991: 482) indicated that youth participation in agriculture was at 4% and adult participation 17%. The majority (21%) of the respondents were between 35 and 50 years of age. The figure 4.1 below shows the frequency level of age groups participatory in community projects.

Figure 4.1 Age distribution of the respondents



4.2.3 Marital status

In terms of the marital status, fifty eight percent (49) were married and thirty four percent (29) were single. Single women had no interest in farming; this could be that they might have pursued other careers other than farming. This factor in conjunction with age and gender indicated that majority of participants were married females above middle aged. Only a small proportion of 2% and 6% (2 and 5) were widows and widowers respectively.

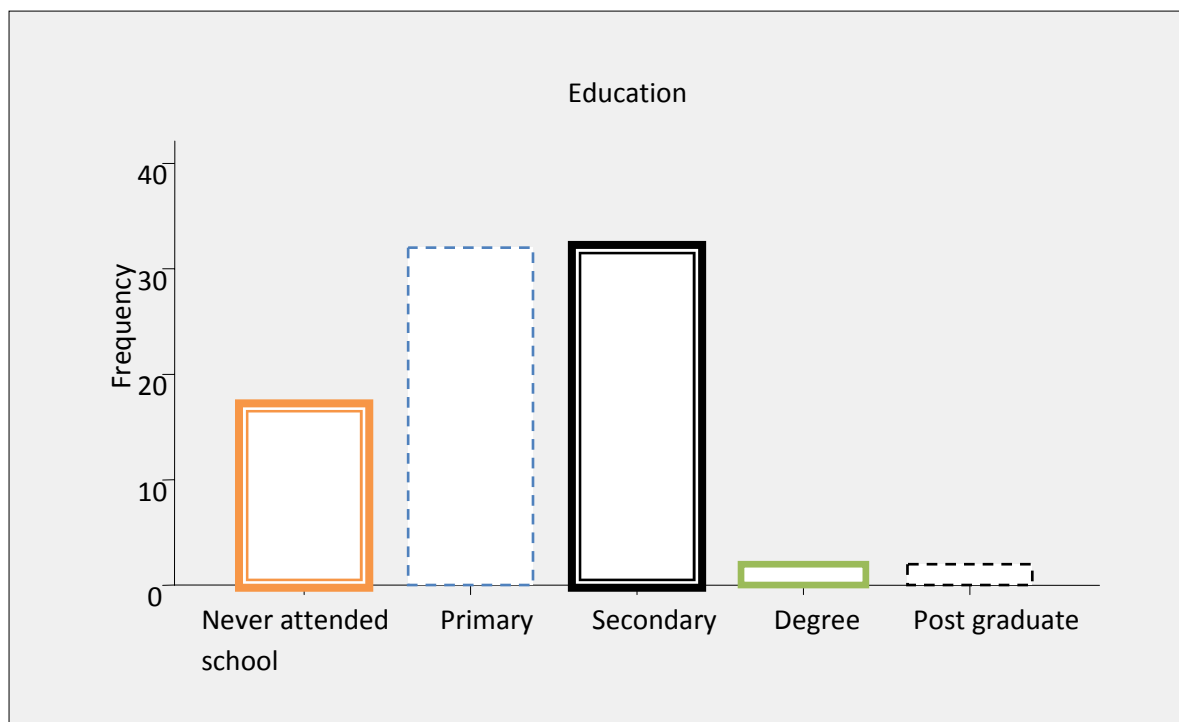
Table 4.2. Marital status of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent
single	29	34.1
Married	49	57.6
Widow	2	2.4
Widower	5	5.9
Total	85	100.0

4.2.4 Education

For thirty eight percent of the respondents the highest level of education was primary and secondary, reflecting thirty eight percent (32). Twenty percent (17) had never attended school and only two percent (2) had bachelor's degrees. Two percent (2) had post graduate qualifications (figure 2). These findings indicated lack of participation in projects from the learned fraction within the communities. The study by Malope and Molapisane (2006: 40) indicated that the respondents with no formal education were 37%, primary education 43%, secondary education 14% and, university 1%. The study by Masiteng and Van der Westhuisen (2001:79) affirms poor participation of graduates in agricultural activities, where the study recorded that 50.7% of dairy farmers in the North Eastern Free State had no formal education. The low literacy level resulted in several complexes and demanding problems during the implementation of long-term plans and programmes. The learned fraction within the community seemed to have better alternatives.

Figure 4.2. Educational qualification



4.2.5 Household size

In terms of the family size a proportion of 48% (41) had between 1 and 3 dependants (table 4.3). The second highest proportion was 31% (26) with depends of between 4 and 6. The lowest percentage was 14% (12) composing of between 1 and 3 dependents and the second lowest was consisted of above 7 dependents with the figure of 14% (12). Family size had more influence on community development projects adoption behavior. Family sizes may not, in real terms, contribute in increasing the resource pool of the farm family, especially if some family members (i.e. school-age children) are not full time workers (Polson & Spencer, 1991).

Table 4.3 Household size of respondents

Household size

	Frequency	Percent
No Dependents	6	7.1
1-3	41	48.2
4-6	26	30.6
>7	12	14.1
Total	85	100.0

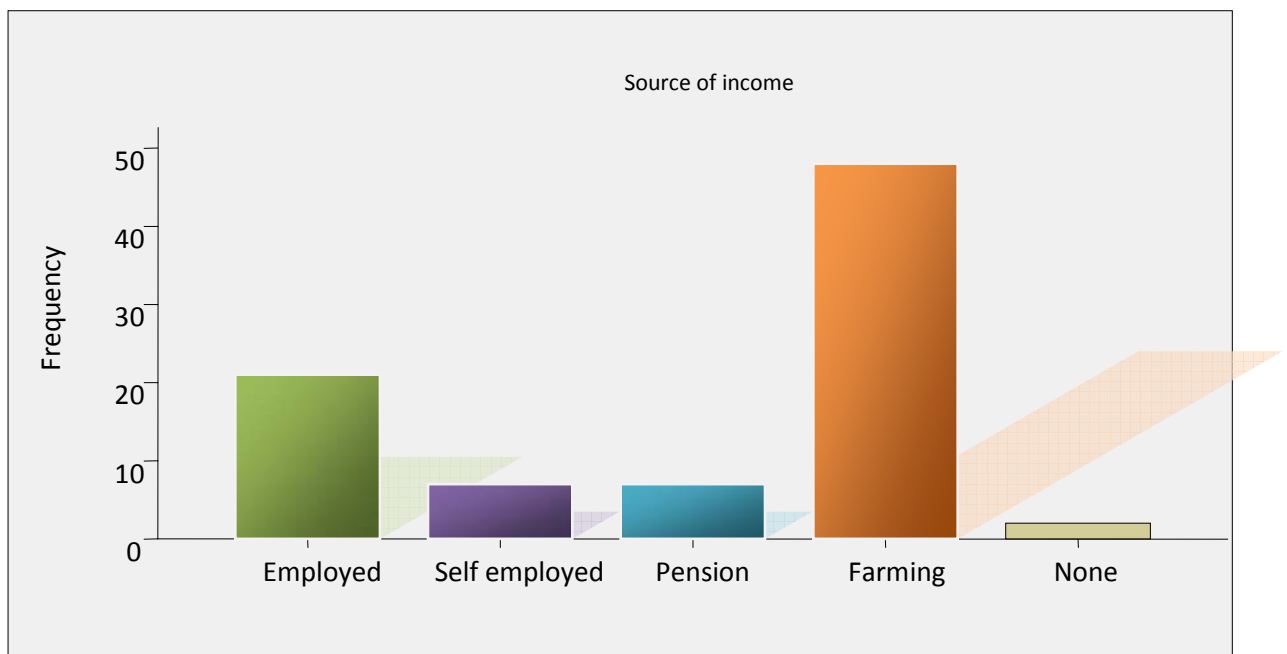
4.2.6 Source of income

A proportion of 57% (49) of the respondents derived their basic income from farming projects (figure 4.3). A proportion of 24% (20) was employed and 8% (7) were pensioners and 8% (7) self employed. These results indicate that farming played a major role in generating income to sustain many households. Only 24% (20) were employed and supplemented the income through income generated from the community development projects.

Since the majority of the respondents depended on the projects, it would be critical to develop strategies to improve the performance of the projects.

The findings by Malope and Molapisane (2006: 41) also affirm the research results by the researcher where it indicates that 63% of the respondents reported that there were no alternative income sources other than agriculture. Those who indicated that there were other sources of income (21%) varied from paid employment, remittance and old age pension. Those who reported lack of alternative sources represented 25% of the respondents. Masiteng (2000:163) states that households receiving both pensions and wage work had relatively low incidence of poverty. There was a wide range of income disparity among these farmers.

Figure 4.3 Basic income sources



4.2.7 Head of household

A proportion of 38% (32) of the respondents were the head of the household and 61% (52) were not head of the household while 1% (1) were single women. Table 4.4 below indicates the frequency levels of head of households and non head of households in the community development projects. Heads household are represented by (Yes) and non households represented by (No). In the studied communities, major production decisions were made by the head of household, and individual family members had very limited input in community development/ farming decisions.

Table 4.4 Head of Household

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	32	37.6
	No	52	61.2
	6	1	1.2
	Total	85	100.0

4.2.8 Relationship to head of household

A proportion of 45% (38) of non-household head respondents were related to the household as wives, 15% (13) daughters and 5% (4) sons (table 4.4). These proportions confirm the earlier finding that the active population fraction within the communities in development projects are middle-age married women. Youth participation was scarcely witnessed as shown in these findings.

Table 4.5 Relationship with head of household

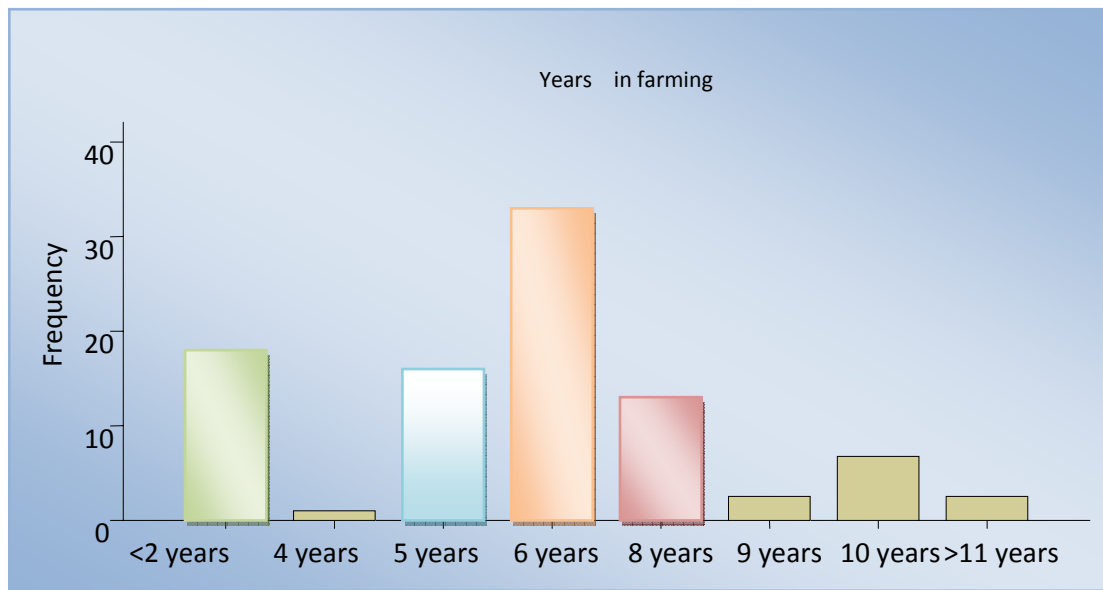
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Wife	38	44.7
	Son	4	4.7
	Daughter	13	15.3
	None	30	35.3
	Total	85	100.0

4.2.9 Years in the projects

A proportion of respondents 39% (33), had spent approximately 6 years on the project (figure 4.4). Twenty one percent (18) had 2 years, about 19% (16) had 5years, and 15% (13) had 8 years spent participating in the projects. One percent of the respondents had participated for about 11years, 9years, and 4years. The

respondents indicated that farming was their only source of income and that it did make an impact in terms of food security, job creation and income generation.

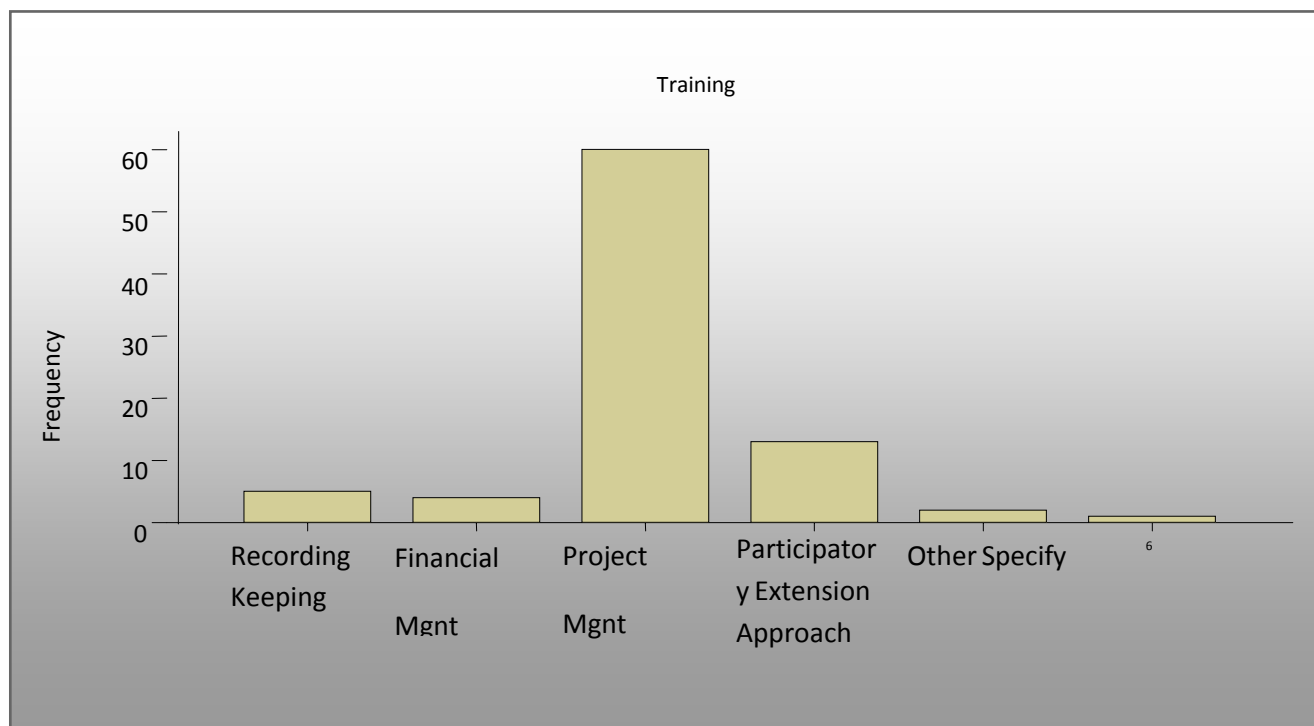
Figure 4.4 Number of years in farming



4.2.10 Training in Agriculture

About 71% (60) respondents received training on project management. A proportion of 15% (13) received training in participatory extension whereas proportion of only 6% (5), 5% (4), and 2% (3) received training in record keeping, financial management respectively (figure 4.5). This finding indicates that there has been willingness from external institutions in assuring sustainability through extensive training.

Figure 4.5 Training in Agriculture



4.2.11 Local leaders

A proportion of 100% (85) support from local leaders was recorded which indicate that local leaders where the community development projects were located offer full dedication in support of their subjects for the excellent success of projects within their jurisdiction. In all six community development projects within Lepelle Nkumpi municipality local leaders were fully involved.

4.2.12 Community involvement

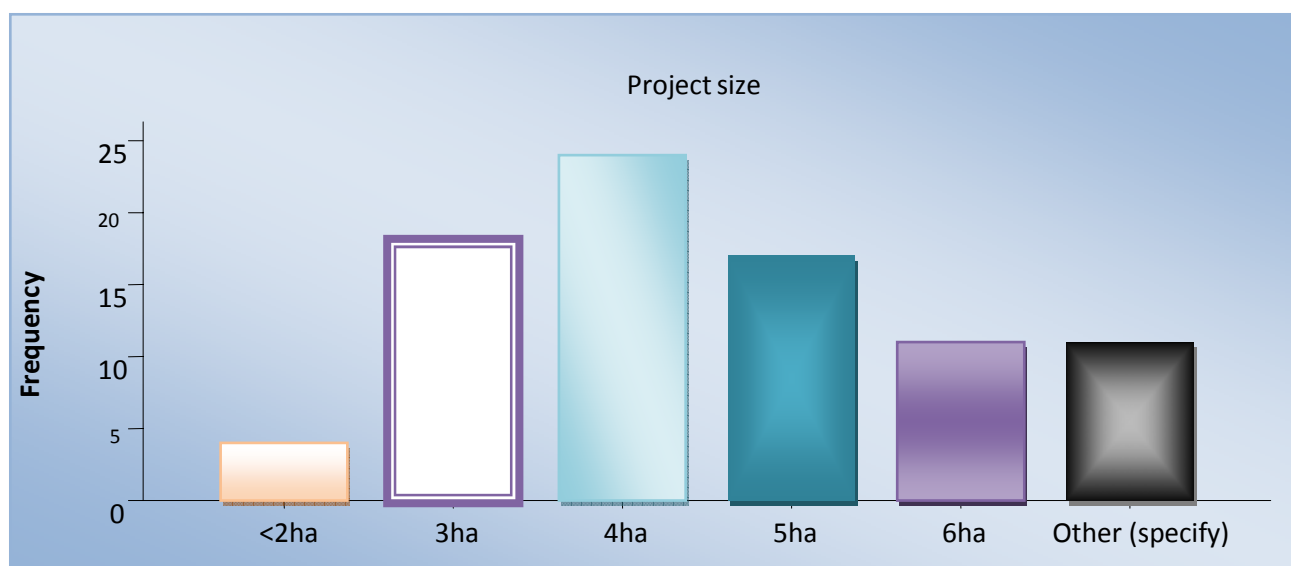
Ninety eight percent (83) of the respondents reported to have received support from the community and only 1% (2) received no support. This indicates that the communities involve themselves and gave support to the community development projects within their areas.

4.3 Establishment of the Project

4.3.1 Project size

The proportion was recorded on a landsize of 4ha with a percentage level of 28% (24) followed by 3ha land with the percentage level of 21% (18) and 5ha land size with the percentage level 20% (17). The land size of 2ha had the lowest percentage of 4% (3) and the second lowest was recorded on a land size of 6ha and other constituting 11% (9) respectively. These findings indicate a significantly wide variation with regard to the plots sizes of community development projects. Most of the projects were established in communal areas. Local Chiefs and indunas were reluctant to allocate more land because the whole community depended on the same land for other agricultural activities e.g. livestock grazing and dry land farming. The local chiefs preferred to allocate a smaller area so that other community members could also benefit.

Figure 4.6 Project size



4.3.2 Satisfaction with project size

The results indicate that 64% (54) of the respondents were not satisfied with the size of their community development projects. A proportion of 36% (31) was satisfied. This finding indicates that projects participants were not pleased by the size of their project.

Table 4.6 Satisfaction with project size

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	31	36.5
No	54	63.5
Total	85	100.0

4.4.15 Project members

A proportion of 79% (67) has more than 8 members constituting the projects membership. Proportions of 5% (4), 6% (5) and 11% (9) consist of 1, 5 and 6 members respectively. The finding indicates that most of the community development projects spread arms to accommodate a large number of memberships. In community development projects, the challenge the government institutions are facing is where the farmers are farming as a group. Non-active members were found to create problems and conflict among other active members. Less active members demand the same share as the actively involved participants.

Table 4.7 Project Members

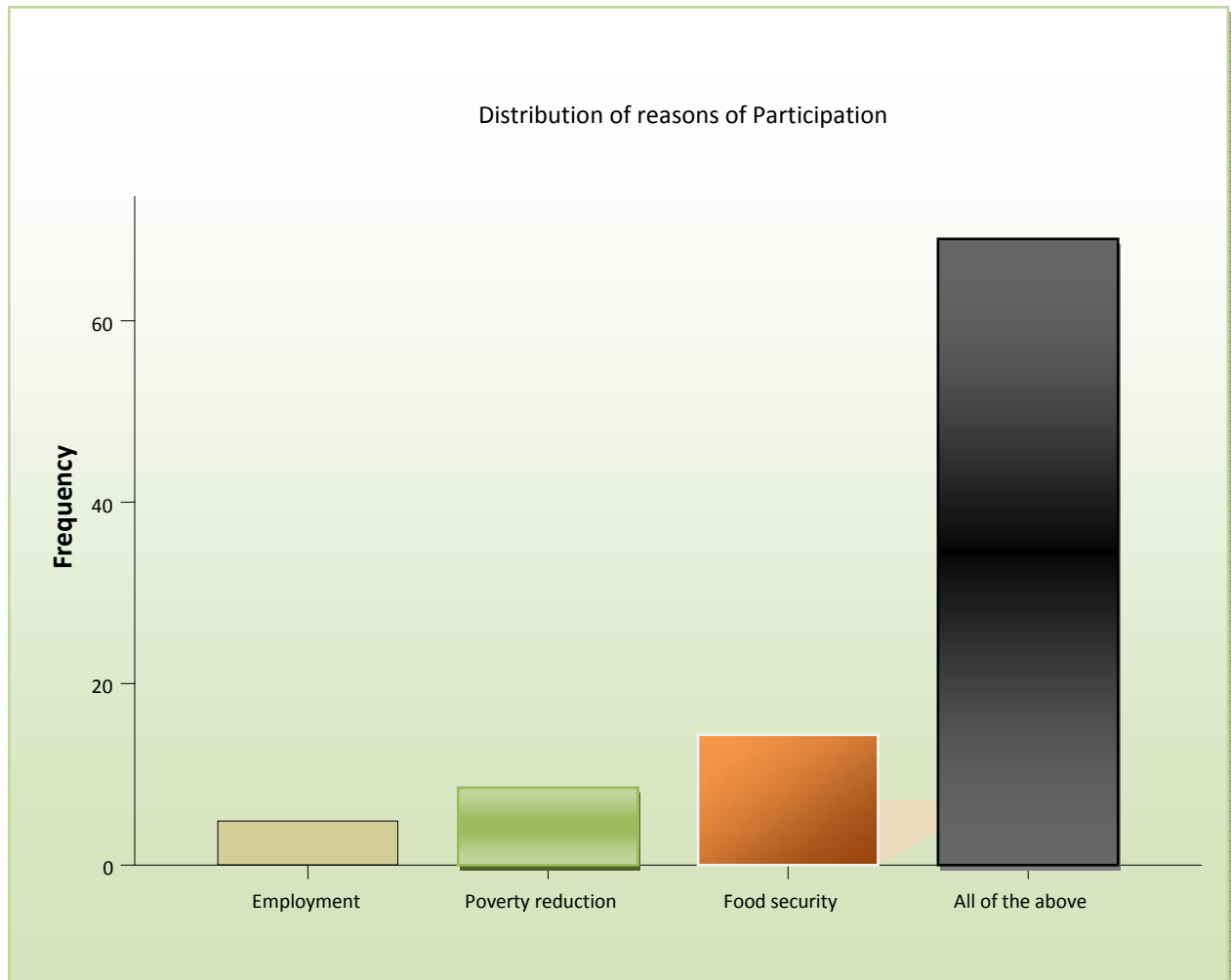
	Frequency	Percent
1	4	4.7
5	5	5.9
6	9	10.6
>8	67	78.8
Total	85	100.0

4.3.5 Reasons for Participation in the CDP

A proportion of 81% (69) of the community development projects contribute to three major social dimensions, namely, employment opportunities creation, poverty alleviation and food security (table 4.7). These figures of 1% (1), 4% (3) and 14% (12) contribute in only either of the above three factors thus employment, poverty reduction and food security respectively. These findings indicate that the community development projects have been spread to embrace a number of key socio-economic constraints. Since the majority of the project members were women, they

were also involved in the decision making processes. There were no variations in participation in terms of age, gender, except in terms of training received. The project members have shown some consistency in the number of years participating in community development project despite the challenges they faced.

Figure 4.7 Distribution of reasons of participation by farmers



4.3.6 Years of Project Establishment

74% (63) were involved in the community development project for at least six years. A lower percentage of 25% (21) were involved in the projects between 4-5 years and only 1% (1) consisted of projects with 2-3 years of operation (table 4.8). This finding indicates the positive sustainability of the community development projects as the percentage rises with increase in years.

Table 4.8 Years of Project establishment

	Frequency	Percent
2-3 years	1	1.2
4-5 years	21	24.7
>6 years	63	74.1
Total	85	100.0

4.3.7 Registration

A proportion of 39% (39) of the community development projects was registered as closed corporation and 54% (46) registered as co-operative (table 4.9). This finding indicates that communities desire team work rather than sole operation. This is supported by data on project membership where a majority of projects was composed by more than five members. There is a positive relationship between farmers' membership of farmers associations and adoption that implies that the more social organisations farmers belong to and participate in its activities, the more likelihood there is of their predisposition to adopt new farm technologies. The table below indicate levels of registration type (Cc or co-operative).

Table 4.9 Registration

	Frequency	Percent
Closed corporative	39	45.9
Co-operative	46	54.1
Total	85	100.0

4.3.8 Project activity

A proportion of 55% (47) was obtained from crop production (table 4.10) followed 19% (16) from other activities whereas 14% (12) and 12% (10) came from poultry and dairy respectively. These findings indicate that a proportion of (81%) of the community projects are agriculturally based. Agricultural sector plays a center role in rural community development through providence of employment opportunities

creations, poverty reduction and food security. Crop productions remain the highest agricultural practice adopted by a majority of community projects participants.

Table 4.10 Project activity

	Frequency	Percent
Poultry production	12	14.1
Crop production	47	55.3
Dairy production	10	11.8
Other (Specify)	16	18.8
Total	85	100.0

4.3.9 Suppliers

A proportion of 95% (81) bought farming inputs from farmer’s co-operatives and 5% (4) from retailers. This finding indicates that community projects buy inputs locally. There is no expansion of input resources.

4.3.10 Funding

About 74% (63) had acquired funding in the form of government grants. The data detail a very low funding percentage of 1% (1) from private donors and at least percentage of 25% (21) project members contribute to their own projects. This funding states that government attempts to fund the community projects however the private institution does not contribute in funding the projects. Funding contribution of 25% (21) from project participants further indicate that project members are eager for the success and sustainability of their projects.

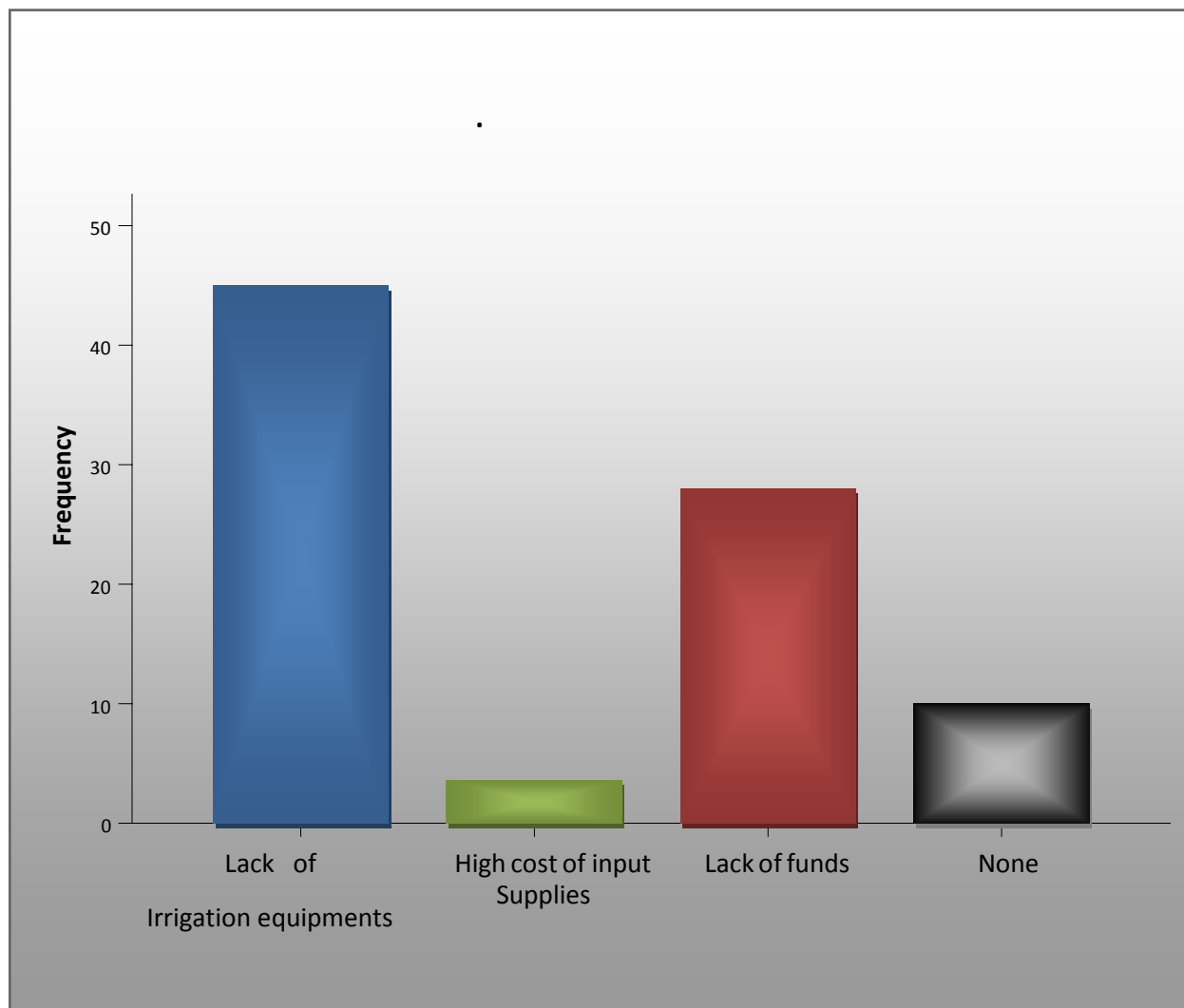
Table 4.11 Distribution on Funding

	Frequency	Percent
Contributions From project members	21	24.7
Government grants	63	74.1
Private donors	1	1.2
Total	85	100.0

4.3.11 Projects growth constraints

A lack of irrigation equipments is the major project growth obstacle with a contribution of 53% (45). This finding indicates that irrigation in rural farming projects is the serious limiting factor as a majority of projects engage in crop production and therefore water access is the most vital factor of plants growth. This is followed by a lack of funds: 33% (28). Lack of funding was the detrimental cause of all limiting factors labeled. High costs of inputs supplies and others did not portray a major effect with a contribution of 2% (2) and 11% (9) respectively.

Figure 4.8 Growth Constraints



4.3.12 Income

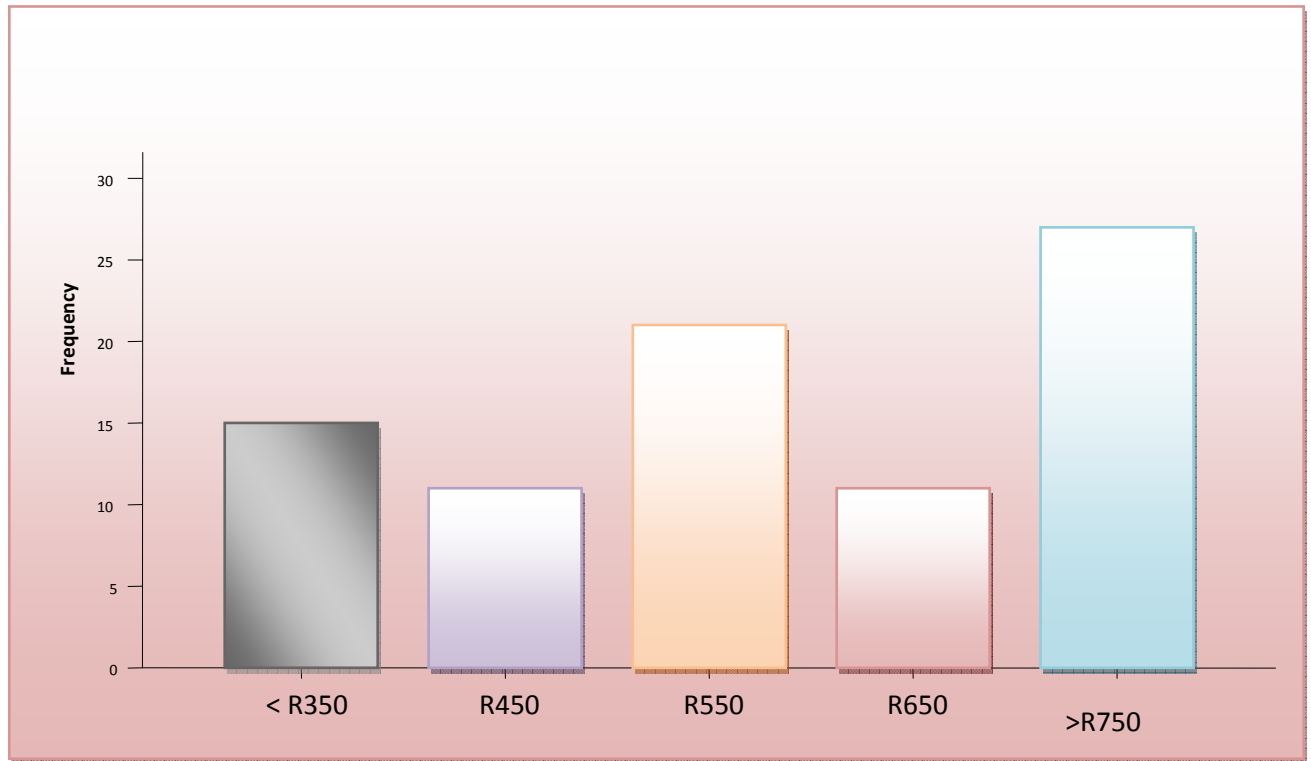
A proportion of 95% (81) received income from the community development projects. Only a 5% (4) did not receive income from participation in the community development projects. These findings indicate that there are definite benefits for members from participation in the projects and that these are playing a role in addressing the socio-economic aspects of the community.

4.3.13 Amount in rand

The highest proportion of 32% (27) received an income of above R750 per month. The second highest proportion is R550 and R649 with the percentage value of 25% (21). A proportion of 12% (10) received between R650 and R729. This finding indicates the projects are not providing sufficiently and are therefore not reliable as

the data indicate that still about 68% (39) of the respondents receive less than R750 per month. The graph below indicates the income frequency level received from community development projects.

Figure 4.9 Amounts in Rand

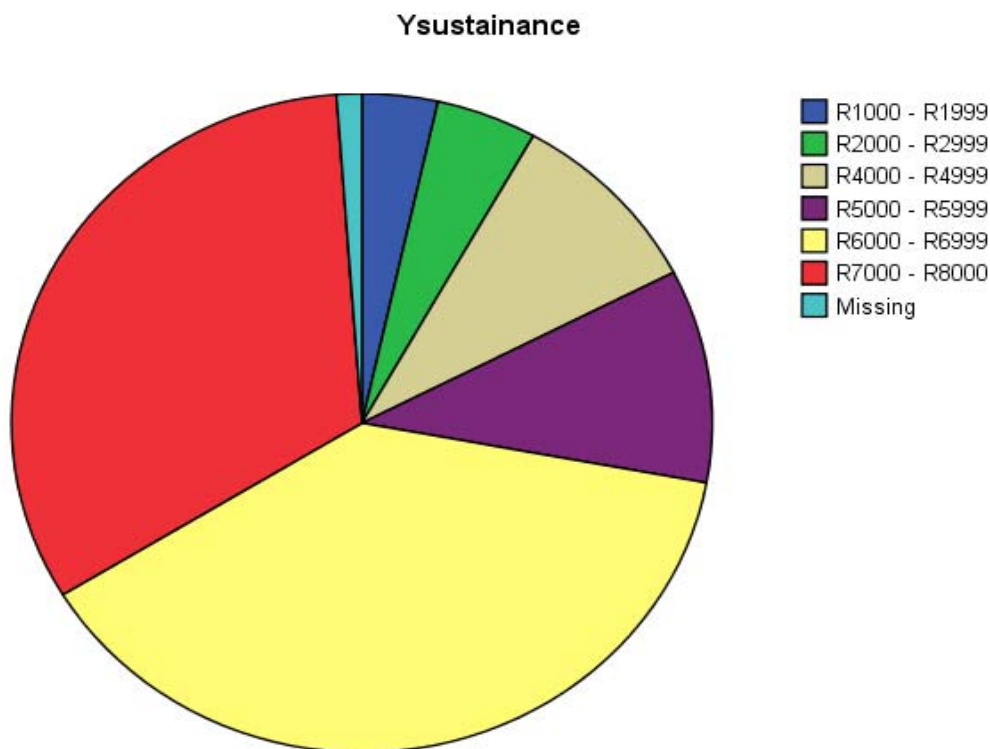


4.3.14 Satisfaction with the income

In terms of income satisfaction, an overwhelming majority of 100% (85) of the respondents were not satisfied with the amount of income accrued from the community development projects. These findings reflect maximum dissatisfaction the result of which contradicts the aspect of sustainability.

Table 4.12. Distribution of desired Income

	Frequency	Percent
R1000 - R1999	3	3.5
R2000 - R2999	4	4.7
R4000 - R4999	8	9.3
R5000 - R5999	9	10.5
R6000 - R6999	33	38.4
R7000 - R8000	28	32.6
Total	85	100.0

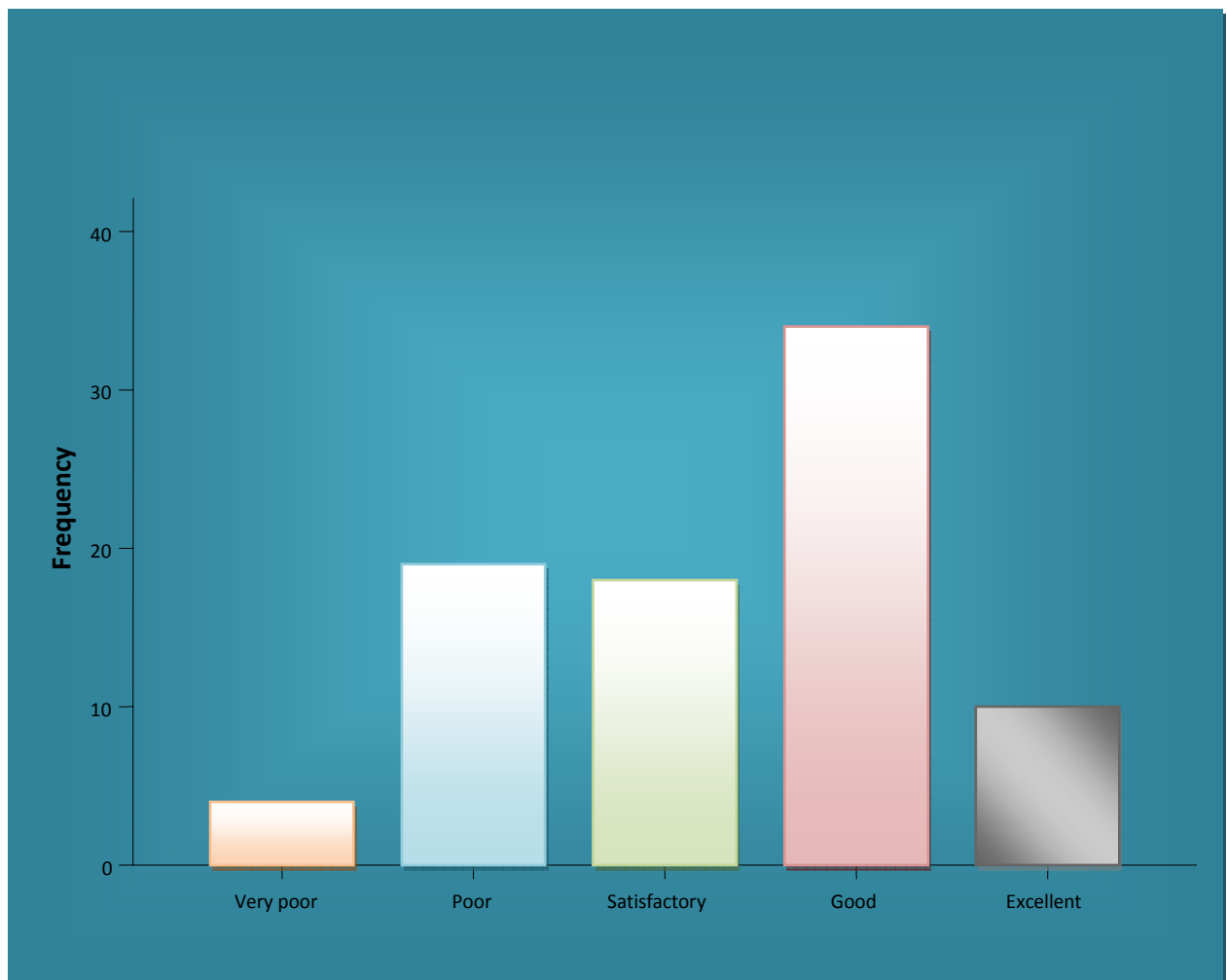


4.3.15 Attendance

With regards to sufficient attendance on project activities results indicate that 40% (34) attended sufficiently. About 11% (9) claimed an excellent level on project activities attendance whereas about 22% (19) were on a satisfactory level. A proportion of 22% (19) and 4% (4) are on poor and very poor status respectively with

regard to project activities attendance level. This findings indicate that projects participants are determined and dedicated to their projects as shown by the data roughly around 73% of project participants actively involved in the activism undertook and only a small fraction of about 27% (23) do not devote much of their time on project activities execution. The graph below indicates frequency levels of project member's attendance on project activities ranging from very poor up to excellent.

Figure 4.10 Attendance on Project Activities



4.3.16 Advice

About 82% (70) received advice and guidance from agricultural extension workers. A proportion of 14% (12) received advices from other sources whereas only small proportions of 1% (1) and received it from consultants e g. LIBSA, MAFISA, etc. About 2% utilised both. This finding indicates that consultation is not the culture of rural farmers and extension services play a vital role in providing all the required information.

Table 4.13 Source of advice

	Frequency	Percent
Agricultural Extension worker	70	82.4
Consultant	1	1.2
All of the above	2	2.4
Other (specify)	12	14.1
Total	85	100.0

4.3.17 Satisfaction with available funds

About 61% (52) of respondents stated that they did not receive enough funds. only a proportion of 39% (33) received funding at a satisfactory level. This finding indicate that although project members are determined in different project running but there is still lack of fundamental capital to expand and maintain their production. This finding goes in conjunction with the earlier findings where projects were only funded from government and by its own members. There is lack of participation by private institutions. The table below indicates the funding frequency levels on funding satisfaction.

4.4 Economic aspects

4.4.1 Job creation

In terms of job creation, 56.5% (48) believed that these community development projects had created jobs for people. The remaining 43.5% (37) believed that no jobs had been created. The findings in terms job creation refute the purpose of these community development projects. Although the existence of these projects is based on poverty alleviation the results are a disappointment. About 183 seasonal jobs (see figure 4.11) has been created by community development projects.

4.4.2 Transport

A proportion of 86% (73) did not have transportation for their products. Only a small proportion of 34% (12) had access to transportation of projects products. This finding indicates that lack of transportation is also a factor limiting income maximisation.

4.5 Social aspects

4.5.1 Theft

A proportion 98% (83) of the respondents was affected by the theft of their products. Only a small fraction of 2% (2) was immune from these detrimental scenarios. This finding provides a clear picture of insecurity of products from the community projects. This is one of the factors that limit income generated from community projects.

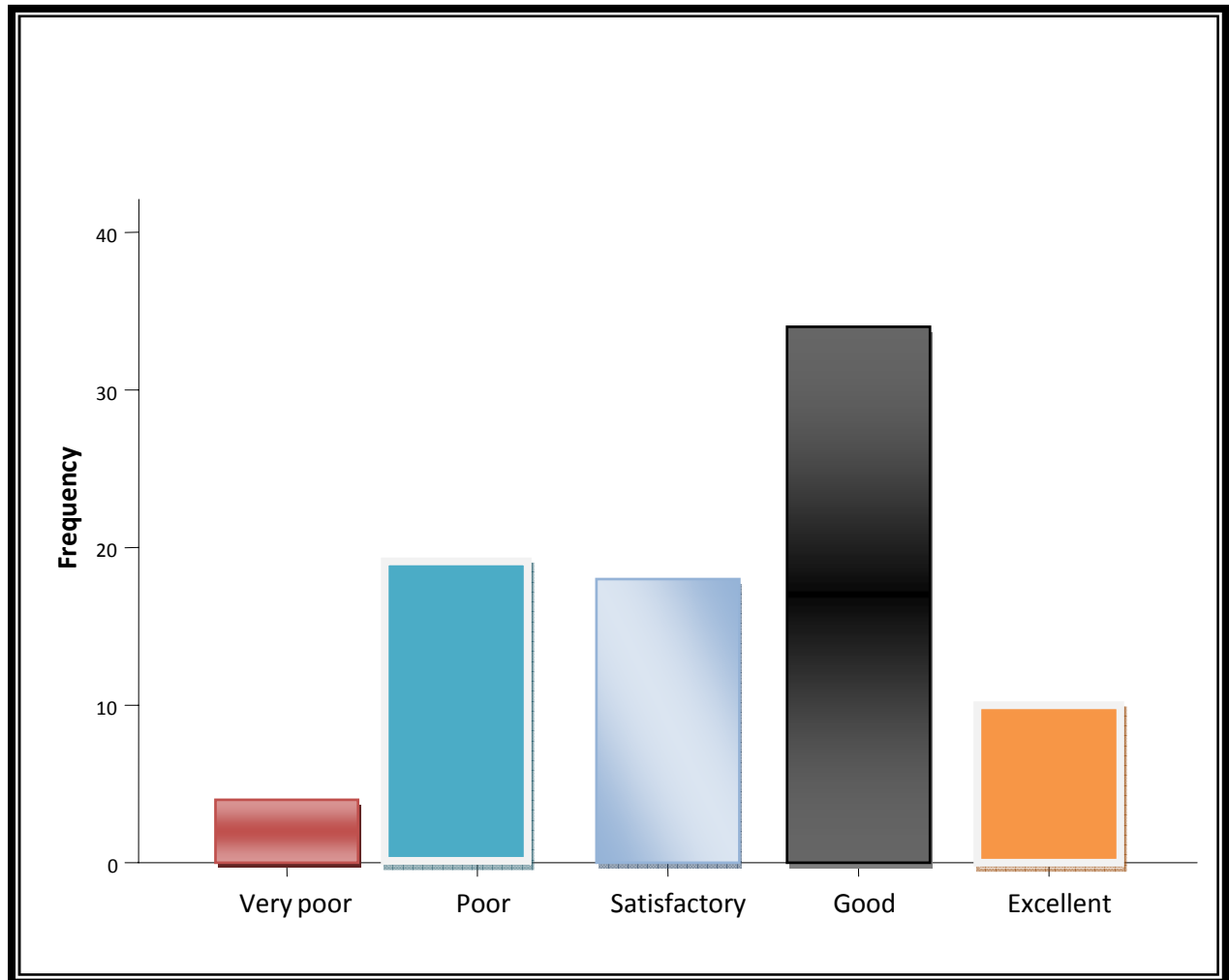
4.5.2 Project members not withstanding the theft

About 80% (68) of the respondents did not get discouraged. At least 20% (17) though were discouraged from participation in community projects. This finding indicates that despite the highest level of theft project members are still determined to continue participating.

4.5.3 Attitude of respondent's children towards agriculture

With regard to respondents' children attitude on taking agriculture as a career a proportion of 12% (10) rated it as excellent, 40% (34) were positive, 21% (18) as at satisfactory. A proportion of 22% (19) and 5% (4) was poor and very poor respectively (figure 4.11). These findings indicate that farmers' children generally develop interests in the farming sector which signifies the future inheritance of projects to next of kin. This has the possibility of improved operation by the second generations.

Figure 4. 11 Attitude of the participants Children



4.5.4 Perception of community towards community development projects

Generally communities share fair perception on the community projects. Above 90% (77) of the respondents experienced perception beyond satisfactory level and only a small proportion of 3% (3) satisfactory level. The table below indicates the frequency levels of perception on community projects perceived by respondents from community.

Table 4.14 Community Perception

	Frequency	Percent
Very poor	1	1.2
Poor	2	2.4
satisfactory	20	23.5
Good	54	63.5
Excellent	8	9.4
Total	85	100.0

4.6 Extension services

4.6.1 Frequency of visits by extension officers

About 31% (26) of respondents received less than 3 visits by extension officers per month. 18% (15) received weekly visits and 18% 5 visits per month. About 25% (21) receive 6 visits per month and 8% (7) more than 7 visits (table 4.15) These findings indicate that though there is a large inconsistency in expert visits to projects sites the visits were fairly frequent. Almost above 69% (59) received more than three visits monthly which signifies that extension officers are available to help.

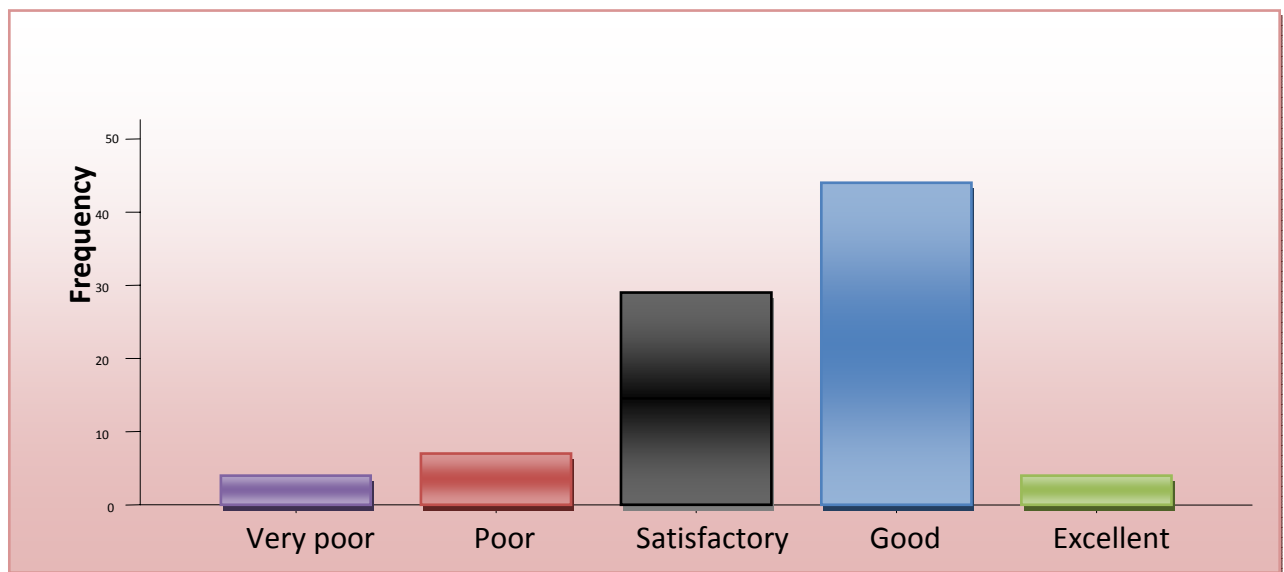
Table 4.15 Frequency of visits

	Frequency	Percent
< 3 times	26	30.6
4 times	15	17.6
5 times	15	17.6
6 times	21	24.7
> 7 times	7	8.2
6	1	1.2
Total	85	100.0

4.6.2 Opinion on the advice of extension officers

About of 52% (44) rated as good advice, and 34% (29) of respondents who rate it satisfactory (figure 4.12). About 4% (3) believed it was excellent while only small proportion of 7% (6) and 1% (1) believed it was poor, and very poor respectively. This finding indicates that respondents generally appreciated the information and advices they received from extension workers.

Figure 4.12 Opinion on the advice of the extension officer



4.6.3 Opinion about farming in Limpopo

About 30.2% (26) of respondents rated farming in Limpopo as being in a good state (table 4.16). Approximately 13% (11) believed it was excellent, while 45.3% (38) rated it as satisfactory. About 7% (6) and approximately 4% (3) rated it poor and very poor respectively. This finding indicates that rural farmers are satisfied with the farming conditions in Limpopo. Only 10% (9) rated it below satisfactory level.

Table 4.16 Distribution of Opinion on Farming in Limpopo

	Frequency	Percent
Very poor	3	3.5
Poor	6	7.0
Satisfactory	39	45.3
Good	26	30.2
Excellent	11	12.8
Total	85	100.0

4.6.4 Records

A proportion of 100% (85) kept records of project activities, times applied and methodology. This finding indicates that all of the running projects have all the relevant data on historical practice which pave the way for proper implementation of improvement techniques.

4.7 Human resource development

4.7.1 Committee

All of the respondents had appointed committees to oversee and administer the running of the projects. Only the project members were allowed to take part in the election and appointment of the projects members. This finding provides the picture that there is a professional running of the projects in which committees are elected and vested with power to represent, decide, and amend internal control and broader administration for the smooth running of the projects.

4.7.2 Previous occupation

About of 61% (52) had previously been unemployed, the second largest proportions of 35% (30) were self-employed and a small proportion of 1% (1) was always employed. These findings indicate that community development projects have played a vital role in creation of employment opportunities. This shows that a reasonable percentage of self-employed (35%) also extended business through incorporation of community development projects participation. The table below

indicates frequency level of different activities respondents engaged in before participation in community projects.

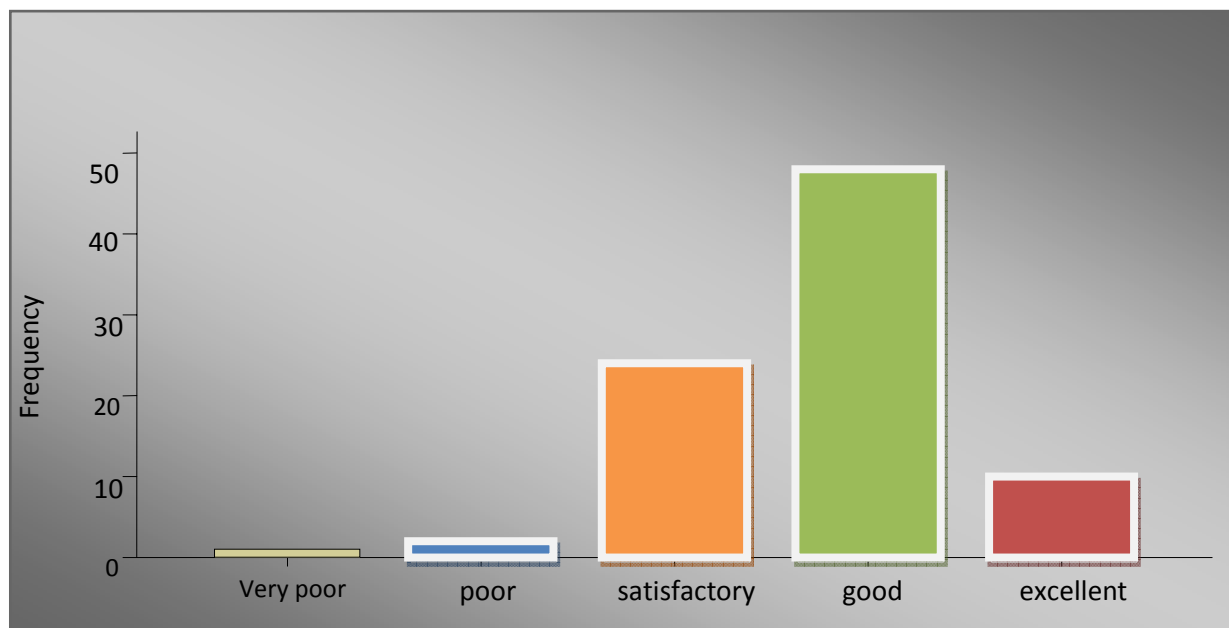
Table 4.17 Distribution of Previous Occupation

	Frequency	Percent
Self employed	30	35.3
away employed	2	2.4
Unemployed	52	61.2
Other (Specify)	1	1.2
Total	85	100.0

4.7.3 Living standard

About 57% (49) of respondents' welfare rated at good. 28% (24) rated it satisfactory, 12% (10) rated excellent and only small proportion of 2% (2) and 1% (1) poor and very poor, respectively (figure 4.13). This finding indicates that the living standards of the respondents have been improved by community developments projects. A fraction of 12% even improved beyond average. Only three percent reported that there was no impact. The graph below indicates frequency levels of the impact of community development projects on the welfare status of the respondents.

Figure 4.13 Distributions of Living Standards



4.7.4 Major Challenges

About 39% (33) had limited access to markets. A further 26% (22) were challenged by high instances of theft and only a small proportion of 3% (3) was affected by lack of project members' participation (table 4.18). About 19% (16) was challenged by high costs of input. These findings reveal that the major production challenges are lack of measures in place to be exploited to connect community projects with the wider market. However, commitment by members remains relatively high. The challenges were not the same across the projects. They differed according to the training and the literacy levels of the respondents. Also, bigger groups seemed to have more problems with regard to participation than smaller groups.

Table 4.18 Major Challenges

	Frequency	Percent
Lack of participation by members	3	3.5
Theft	22	25.9
Limited market access	33	38.8
Lack of farming equipments	6	7.1
high cost of inputs	19	22.4
Other (specify)	2	2.4
Total	85	100.0

4.7.5 Possible remedies

About 59% (50) of the respondents proposed increased to market access (table 4.19). A further 22% (19) suggested value adding and 19% (16) suggested increased access to credits. These findings indicate that rural farmers' main limitation is access to markets. They believed if market access can be improved for rural farmers that it will enhance opportunities for expansion. While a minority proportion believed that access to credits and value is significant for exploration.

Table 4.19 Possible remedies

	Frequency	Percent
Increased access to markets	50	58.8
Value adding	19	22.4
Increased access to markets	16	18.8
Total	85	100.0

4.7.6 Community benefits

A proportion of 94% (80) of respondents believed that community development projects benefited the community economically through provision of employment, food security, poverty reduction, and income. Only a small proportion of 5% (4) shared a contrary view. A proportion of 1% (1) was not sure of either of the above. This finding indicates that the communities' projects play a vital role in the economic development of rural communities.

4.7.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, chapter four was about the results, interpretation and finally the discussion of the results. While positive aspects from the community development projects were acknowledged, based on the various variables, there were more challenges, key points like the sustainability of these projects that prompted a few critical reflections of the very essence of this study. Some of the points discussed were in line with issues of market access, networks, the future of agriculture without youth participation, issues of attitude, and the dependency syndrome to mention but a few. Although such studies cannot act conclusively they stimulate debate as to whether indeed the existence of these community development projects are the solution for the plight of the poor, especially in rural areas.

4.8 Emerging issues

A number of important issues emerged from the study.

4.8.1 Constraints dimensions of the projects

The study was in agreement with government aims and especially the commitment to various programmes like RDP, GEAR and now ASGISA to eradicate poverty. The mere existence of these community farms was indicative of government commitment. According to May (1987:7) sustained reduction with regard to inequalities requires accelerated job creation which in turn requires structural transformation in order to achieve higher and more labor-absorbing growth within the economy. From the observations, the issue of "more labor-absorbing growth" was indeed a reality.

The study also identified government as the highest funder for these community development projects. According the findings, about 74% were government grants

that were availed to these community projects. This is a positive sign of commitment to support its own people in eradicating poverty. It is interesting to note that 25% of the funding came from the committee members on the farms.

The deployment of agricultural extension officers from the Department of Agriculture to the various farms to offer all kinds of support is remarkable of government. The findings revealed that a satisfaction level of 92%, in recognition of the support offered by the extension officers existed. The need for agricultural extension officers is very vital as they are trained officers who constantly advises as well as extend their technical skills, and new technologies in the projects.

The study also registered a proportion of over 90% of the participants on the farms who has either received training in project management, financial management or record keeping. The imparting of such skills would go a long way into ensuring the sustainability of these farms. The members on these community development projects would know how to manage the project, its finances, have accountability to sum it up effectively. The efficient management of the whole project is emphasised.

4.8.2 Economic dimensions

The respondents indicated dissatisfaction with regard to the income they received from the projects. This need a strong motivation from the government side and other sectors like the private to encourage them to use other technologies which can allow them to have mass production on a small area of land, because the local Chiefs and Indunas are reluctant to give more land to project members.

Bearing in mind that poverty and unemployment are a nightmare in rural areas, the perception as well as involvement of the members in the community development projects was very positive. Many of the members admitted that the farms had created employment (183 jobs created) for them and that they were able to get some form of income from selling farm produce.

The studies were in agreement with Machete (2004: 4) who indicates that farming is the greatest contributors to household income – more than 40% of the total household income is generated from farming. There is a correlation between the size of land and the production capacity. Obviously large proportions of land allow huge amounts of production and in return more revenue. if well utilised. However, recent technological hydroponics and intensive farming have developed ways of achieving

mass production with moderate land. For instance, hydroponics technology suggests a ratio of a quarter hectare to 6ha if the conventional method is utilised. The majority of respondents had between 2 to 6ha of land. Many of the respondents were not satisfied with this size of land and wanted to acquire more. About 39% of the respondents had experience of over 6 years in farming which was a sign that of consistency as well as good exposure and experience in this sector.

In as much as the projects seemed to be successful, there are many challenges that need to be addressed to ensure that the essence of these community development projects is realised. To begin with, the findings in the study showed that 39% of the projects were suffering from access to markets. Lack of market access is an impediment to not only to the growth, but also to have sustainability of such projects. Produce needs to be sold otherwise it goes to waste which will result in negative morale among members involved in community development projects.

In addition, the respondents complained about the lack of farming equipment like machinery, tractors, and irrigation schemes. Lack of such equipment does impact on the production. Technology reduces labor strain and high productivity occurs. The other challenge was the high cost of resources namely fertilizers and seedlings which are very expensive. Finally the issue of theft was reported to be a serious challenge affecting community development projects.

4.8.3 Social dimensions

The social aspect in this study was informed by the overall community support towards individuals involved in the development projects especially the households, the local chiefs, private organizations, and other well wishers. It is not only known that the highest percentage of poverty rests in rural areas but the people in their communities acknowledge this unfortunate calamity and are determined to work ways to overcome this problem. It is important to note that in terms of gender composition, this study registered 81% females in the community development projects. This was in agreement with studies done by FAO (1985:241) that women play a significant role in agriculture, the world over. Of the 70% of the agricultural workers, 80% were food producers, 10% of those who process basic foodstuffs are women. They also undertake 60 to 90% of the rural marketing; thus making up more than two thirds of the workforce in agricultural production.

All the community development projects had appointed committee members to offer guidance and leadership in these projects. Many projects in the past had collapsed due to the absence of steering committee at the projects which meant that initially the project suffered from low momentum as it did not have a cohesive group of stakeholders to drive the activities. Leadership is an important aspect of community building. Its presence manifests a sense of direction. For the community development projects to be a success, good leadership is required as well as good followership.

The presence of local leaders in development is a sign of positive transformation. Local leaders have an important role to ensure that their subordinates are living healthy, empowered, in harmony with each other and committed to work. Local leaders can be stumbling blocks in the process of development. The findings in the study indicated 100% support from local leaders.

4.8.4 Critical reflections

The purpose of this paper was to investigate the impact of community development projects on livelihoods, the nature, operations, performance, and level of sustainability and the extent to what the communities beneficiaries. Critical reflections follow.

4.8.4.1 Funding for growth of business

The study acknowledged government as the main funder of the community development projects as part of its commitment to address past inequalities facing black rural households who are the majority in this category. The spirit of self reliance should be encouraged. In terms of sustainability, it is questionable whether these community development projects are viable for generations to come. The findings showed a lifespan of over 6 years in farming and yet the income was less than R1000 per month. From observation in the study, a dependency syndrome was detected especially in terms of the maintenance of equipment, buying of input supplies, transport, and over reliance on government support for minor support is also a factor.

Provision of credit from private institutions would not be a solution if not well managed. Agricultural activities are long term based and yet involve a lot of high risk. Mwangwela and Duvel (2006:108) pointed out that the principle of maximum

community participation is based on the notion of self-determination, self-reliance, self-responsibility and self-help as a normative goal. This ought to be done practically. During the inception of the community development projects a lot of funding was injected into the business and yet to date some of these projects still wait on government for financial support.

4.8.4.2 Project size

The size of the project only determines the total production of goods, but also the revenue as well as the salaries or wages to participants involved on those farms. Although advanced technology in agriculture may refute this (as was mentioned earlier), it is still important to have enough land in direct equation with the participants. For a project to be sustainable, size is important because then enough revenue can be generated out of produce to even allow saving of the profits.

4.8.4.3 Income verses job creation

The amount of revenue generated from a project should complement the amount of labor put into the project thus also creating jobs. The results in the studies showed a life-span of over 6 years of farming and intensive hard work and yet the rewards in terms of the salary were not satisfying. The recurrence of such inadequacies could de motivate prospective farmers and as a result discourage seeking employment in this area.

4.8.4.4 Age, education and skills

From the study, in terms of age the biggest participants in community development projects were in the age category of 40 to 60 years and these constituted only 56% of the total respondents, with the youth were 18%. Such results that question the issue of sustainability of these community development projects. What is the future of agriculture without the youth being involved. We also note with interest from the variable on education, that 38% of those involved in the projects had only gone as far as primary and secondary level. Furthermore, 20% of the participants had not attended any formal education, lastly only 2% were bachelor degree holders as well as post graduates. With reference to the above one would conclude that agriculture is not for the educated. Or that those educated are not prone to poverty and as a result do not engage in these community projects.

In addition, the sustainability of community development projects needs skills transfer to young generations. Obviously the youth from these participating households are not interested in agriculture, have better options, or possibly the participants themselves do not see it necessary to transfer such skills to their children.

4.8.4.5 Marketing networks

Successful farming projects are those that enjoy market supremacy. Ideal projects should have marketing networks laid down and even contacted long before the beginning of the projects. The experiences in many African settings in regard to farming are that quite a number of farmers only market their produce after harvesting. For sustainability to be achieved marketing networks have to be well streamlined and strategies put in place to effect that.

4.8.4.6 Attitudes of project members

Negative tendencies and selfishness are an impediment to the sustainability of these community development projects. In an interview one of the project members said “I cannot teach my children they should struggle on their own for fear for expansion due to high rates of theft in the area”. These and others destroy government efforts in its commitment to alleviate poverty in rural communities.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction.

A dissertation of limited scope such as this one cannot solve the problem of what can be done to improve or change on the impact of community development projects in the municipal area. There are also limitations to achieve the primary aim namely to establish the guidelines on how to improve the effectiveness of the community development projects, increase in job creation, improve the income of the project members, and improved standards of living because of its limited scope.

If one examines the first 15 years of democracy, progressive policy frameworks have been developed with the enabling legislation. Human and legal rights are being entrenched, but the acid test will be the ability of policymakers and development practitioners to make a difference in the lives of the large number of poor people.

The research is recommended to establish, for an example, the guidelines for involving other civil servants together with the private sector in using participatory approaches in all development efforts in the rural community. Furthermore, the research is recommended on political factors, so that they clearly understand the negative impact of a top-down approach on community development. A bottom-up approach to community development has its benefits to promote self reliance and ownership of the development projects. Comparative studies or research on the theme of community development participation in community development projects is recommended, so as to enrich the discipline of development studies in general and the community development field in particular, and to gain a more comprehensive understanding of community development as a practice.

5.2 Conclusion

A number of community development projects have been introduced, although it is not clear on the impact these projects have made on the livelihoods and the beneficiaries of Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality. Their sustainability is also questioned.

The major weakness is the inability of the current status of income –generating projects which allows for sustainable funding of unsustainable projects, some of which are on the verge of collapse (Kwaw, 2006:2).

There is a great deal of unpublished research concerning community development projects and its impact on the beneficiaries in terms of job-creation and income generation.

In the context of the current status of poverty in the Limpopo Province, the available literature on the government income generation project approach to income poverty alleviation is scanty, with a great deal of unpublished research (Aliber, 2005 as cited by Kwaw, 2006: 5)

Therefore, little is known about the programmes, project design, and their possible impact on beneficiaries (Kwaw, 2006: 5). The findings revealed that there is a positive impact these projects have made in terms of income generation, job creation and food security, even though the incomes received is still very low.

The aim of the envisaged study was to assess the impact of the community development projects on the livelihoods of the community of Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality. The objectives of the study was to assess the impact of the community development projects on livelihoods of the beneficiaries and the community in terms of incomes, jobs and living standards and to identify and recommend appropriate intervention strategies where necessary.

The research questions were to look at the nature of the CDP's, their sustainability, how they have impacted on the lives of the beneficiaries, jobs that have been created by the CDP's, the incomes generated for members and also the way in which the wider community has benefited.

From the study the researcher captured poor participation by the youth in the community development project which questions the sustainability of those projects where the percentages decrease with increases in years. Other researchers also concurred with the researcher's findings.

On educational level, the researcher captured the biggest margins of the participants in the community development projects who attended school up to both primary and secondary levels. The findings indicated the lack of participation of the learned fraction within the communities. The research also revealed that a larger proportion of the respondents derive the basic income from farming, which is a positive sign.

The majority of the respondents have spent more than 6 years on the projects. There are factors which motivated them, including the technical support from the Departments of agriculture, health and welfare, local municipality and other private organisations. The Department of Agriculture together with the two agricultural colleges provided training to the members of the community development projects.

The majority of the respondents showed dissatisfaction with regard to project sizes they were allocated. This is one of the reasons these projects are generating too little income for the beneficiaries.

The number of the members is related to the success of the project, because from one of the comparative studies captured earlier in the study, it was indicated that some project members were unwilling to work and always absented themselves, but demanded equal share of income at the end of the month. This de-motivated some of the project members.

The research also showed poor funding arrangements from the private sector. The majority of the projects were funded by the government and some members made their own contributions.

The growth constraints found by the researcher were: - lack of irrigation equipments, lack of funds, high cost of input supplies. Other constraints did not portray a major effect.

The majority of the respondents indicated that they received income from community development projects. This finding indicated that there is a broad benefit by members from participating in the projects and the projects are playing a role in addressing the socio-economic aspects.

The researcher highlighted that the highest paid member in the community development projects received R750-00 per month. The majority of members showed a skewed dissatisfaction with the income where they indicated that they would be satisfied if they could earn around R7000 to R8000 per month.

The research findings also captured the challenges faced by the community development projects: lack of participation by members, theft, limited market access, lack of farming equipments, and the high cost of input supplies.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the literature and the research finding, the following recommendations are made on community development projects and livelihoods in Lepelle-Nkumpi municipality. The government should encourage the youth to actively participate in all issues of community development by offering bursaries to further their studies in the field of agriculture. The government, together with the private sector should provide more training on community mobilisation, participatory approach to community development, and project management.

The local chiefs, indunas and local municipalities should allocate enough land to the projects because the study revealed dissatisfaction by project members with regard to the size of land allocated. This has impacted directly on the income and production.

The Department of Agriculture should assist in the training of beneficiaries on the new technologies in agriculture e.g. hydroponics, environmental house (in case of broiler production), value adding, organic farming as well as intensive farming systems where beneficiaries can create tremendous income in a small-sized area.

In as much as the projects seemed to be successful, there are many challenges that need to be addressed in order to ensure that the essence of these community development projects is realized. To begin with, the findings of the study showed that 39% of the projects were suffering from access to markets. Lack of market access is an impediment to not only the growth, but also the sustainability of such projects. Produce needs to be sold otherwise it goes to waste creating a negative morale among members involved in community development projects.

The government should create a conducive for the markets to operate effectively in the rural communities e.g. facilitating the building/ establishment of a fresh produce market in case of vegetables and contract growers.

Those people working in community development need to critically consider the factors that deter community development and come up with effective strategies and recommendations to ensure that everybody in the community participate in community development activities.

APPENDIX A

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS AND LIVELIHOODS IN LEPELLE-NKUMPI MUNICIPALITY OF LIMPOPO PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA.

In response to the many development challenges facing the Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality a number of community development projects have been initiated. However, it is not clear what impact these projects have made on the livelihoods of beneficiaries and how sustainable they are.

The aim of the envisaged study is to assess the impact of the community development projects on the community of Lepelle-Nkumpi Municipality.

You are hereby kindly requested to complete this questionnaire.

Enumerator: _____

Respondent's Name: _____

Project Name: _____

A. Personal Characteristics

1. Sex

- 1. Male
- 2. Female

2. Age

- 1. 16 – 20 Years
- 2. 21 – 30 Years
- 3. 31 – 40 Years
- 4. 41 – 50 years
- 5. 51 – 60 years
- 6. 61 – 70 years
- 7. > 71 years

3. Marital Status

- 1. Single
- 2. Married
- 3. Widow
- 4. Widower
- 5. Divorced

4. What is the highest standard you have passed at school?

- 1. Never attended school.
- 2. Primary
- 3. Secondary
- 4. Degree
- 5. Post graduate

5. How big is your family?

- 1. No dependents
- 2. 1-3 dependents
- 3. 4-6 dependents
- 4. >7 dependents

6. Where do you get finance for your basic requirements?

- 1. Employed.
- 2. Self employed
- 3. Pension.

- 4. Farming
 - 5. None
 - 6. Other (specify)
-
-

7. Are you the head of the household?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

8. If no, what is your relationship with the head of the household?

- 1. Wife
 - 2. Son
 - 3. Daughter
 - 4. Brother
 - 5. Sister
 - 6. None
 - 7. Other (specify)
-
-

9. Occupational status of the head of the household

- 1. Away employed
 - 2. Commuter daily.
 - 3. Unemployed
 - 4. Self-employed.
 - 5. Project member
 - 6. None
 - 7. Other (specify)
-
-

10. How long have you been involved in agriculture?

- 1. < 2 years
- 2. 3 years
- 3. 4 years
- 4. 5 years
- 5. 6 years
- 6. 7 Years

- 7. 8 Years
- 8. 9 Years
- 9. 10 Years
- 10. >11 Years

11. How many people in the household are of school going age, but are not attending school?

- 1. None
- 2. 1
- 3. 2
- 4. 3
- 5. >4

12. What courses or training have you had in Agriculture?

- 1. Record keeping
- 2. Financial management
- 3. Project management
- 4. Participatory Extension Approach
- 5. Other (specify)

B. Establishment of the project.

13. Was the traditional authority involved in the establishment of the project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No.

14. Was the whole community involved?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No

15. How big is the project?

- 1. <2ha
- 2. 3ha
- 3. 4ha
- 4. 5ha
- 5. 6ha

6. Other (Specify)

16. Are you satisfied with the size of the project?

1. Yes
2. No.

17. If no, what size do you prefer?

1. 2ha
2. 3ha
3. 4ha
4. 5ha
5. 6ha
6. None
7. Other (Specify)

18. How many project members are participating in the project?

1. 1
2. 2
3. 3
4. 4
5. 5
6. 6
7. 7
8. >8

19. Why are you participating in the project?

1. Employment
2. Income
3. Poverty reduction
4. Food security
5. All of the above

20. Year of establishment of the project

1. 1 year
2. 2-3 years
3. 4-5 years

4. >6 years

21. Do you own a plot outside the project?

1. Yes

2. No

22. How big is the plot?

1. <2ha

2. 3ha

3. 4ha

4. 5ha

5. >6ha

6. None

23. Forms of legal entity

1. Closed corporation

2. Co-operative

3. Sole trader

4. Pty (ltd)

24. Type of project activity

1. Poultry Production

2. Crop Production

3. Dairy Production

4. Other (Specify)

25. What is the current status of the project?

1. Active

2. Not active

26. If not active, Why?

1. None

2. Members not participating inclusively

3. Financial challenges

4. Lack of equipment to operate

5. Other (specify)

C. Financial aspects

27. Where do you get money to conduct your farming?

- 1. Contributions by project members.
 - 2. Grants from government departments.
 - 3. Donors
 - 4. Loan from Banking Institutions.
 - 5. Other (specify)
- -----

28. Are you able to meet the financial requirement of your project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

29. If not, why?

- 1. Lack of irrigation systems
 - 2. Cost of input supplies
 - 3. None
 - 4. Other (Specify)
- -----

D. Economic aspects

30. Have you employed someone to help in your project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

31. If yes, how many?

- 1. 1
- 2. 2
- 3. 3
- 4. 4
- 5. 5
- 6. None

32. Have you employed relatives?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

33. Do you benefit from the Project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

34. If yes, how do you benefit?

- 1. Employment
- 2. Income
- 3. Poverty reduction
- 4. Food security
- 5. All of the above

35. Do you earn income from the project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

36. If yes, in which way?

- 1. <R350
- 2. R450
- 3. R550
- 4. R650
- 5. >R750

37. Are you satisfied with the income you receive from the project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

38. If no, how much do you need to sustain you lives?

- 1. R1000-R1999
- 2. R2000-R2999
- 3. R3000-R3999
- 4. R4000-R4999
- 5. R5000-R5999
- 6. R6000-R6999
- 7. R7000-R8000

39. In which way do you involve the head of the household?

(In case the respondent is not the head of the household).

- 1. Moral support
- 2. Project member
- 3. Financial support
- 4. Transport
- 5. Take part on project activities
- 6. None
- 7. Other (Specify)

40. Where do you buy your farming inputs?
- 1. Farmers co-operative
 - 2. Retailers
 - 3. Hawkers
 - 4. Super markets
 - 5. Other (specify)

41. Are you a member of the farmers co-operative?
- 1. Yes
 - 2. No

42. Do you have own transport?
- 1. Yes
 - 2. No

43. What do you do with the income generated from the project?
- 1. Buy food for the family
 - 2. Buy clothes for the family
 - 3. Send children to school
 - 4. Provide shelter for the family
 - 5. All of the above
 - 6. Other (specify)

44. What other sources of income do you have?

- 1. Self employed
- 2. Old age pension
- 3. Child grant
- 4. Disability grant
- 5. None
- 6. Other (Specify)

45. How much do you spend on food per month?

- 1. <R300
- 2. R400
- 3. R500
- 4. R600
- 5. >R700

46. Do you think the project has solved some of the problems in the community?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

47. If yes, in which way?

- 1. Employment
- 2. Income
- 3. Food security
- 4. Poverty reduced
- 5. All of the above
- 6. Other (specify)

E. Social aspects

48. Is theft a problem in your area?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

49. If yes, does it discourage you to conduct agriculture?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

50. What is your children's attitude towards farming as future career?

- 1. Very poor
- 2. Poor
- 3. Satisfactory
- 4. Good
- 5. Excellent

51. What is the perception of the community towards the project?

- 1. Very poor
- 2. Poor
- 3. Satisfactory
- 4. Good
- 5. Excellent

F. Extension services

52. Where do you get advice and guidance to conduct your farming?

- 1. Agricultural extension worker
- 2. Consultant
- 3. Farmer-to-farmer sharing
- 4. Farmers days
- 5. All of the above
- 6. Other (specify)

53. How many times does the extension worker visit you per month?

1. <3 times

2. 4 times

3. 5 times

4. 6 times

5. >7 times

54. What is your opinion about the advice that he is giving you?

1. Very poor

2. Poor

3. Satisfactory

4. Good

5. Excellent

55. What have you got in your house in working order?

1. Radio

2. TV.

3. Home theatre

4. All of the above

5. None

56. What is your opinion about farming in Limpopo?

1. Very poor

2. Poor

3. Satisfactory

4. Good

5. Excellent

57. Do you listen to the agricultural radio programmes?

1. Yes

2. No

58. How often-times per month?

1. <3 times

- 2. 4 times
- 3. 5 times
- 4. 6 times
- 5. >7 times
- 6. None

59. Do you get useful information?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

60. How do you rate the information?

- 1. Very poor
- 2. Poor
- 3. Satisfactory
- 4. Good
- 5. Excellent

61. Do you keep records of income and expenditure for your project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

62. Who trained you to keep records?

- 1. Extension worker
- 2. Consultant
- 3. Farmer-to-farmer
- 4. All of the above

5. Other (specify)

63. Do you measure your performance?

1. Yes
2. No

G. Human Resource Development

64. Is there any management Committee for the project?

1. Yes
2. No

65. If yes, how many members?

1. None
2. 3
3. 4
4. 5
5. 6
6. 7
7. 8
8. 9
9. 10
10. >11

66. What is your function?

1. Chair person
2. Vice-chair Person
3. Secretary
4. Treasury
5. Manager
6. Other (Specify).

67. Is there a constitution for the project?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

68. If the agricultural extension worker is absent for a long period will you manage all the agricultural activities?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

H. Status of development

69. What were you doing before joining this project?

- 1. Self employed
- 2. Away employed
- 3. Unemployed
- 4. Other (specify)

70. How do you rate the living standard now than then?

- 1. Very poor
- 2. Poor
- 3. Satisfactory
- 4. Good
- 5. Excellent

71. What are the main constraints you have to cope with?

- 1. Financial constraints
- 2. Theft
- 3. Limited Market access
- 4. Lack of participation by members
- 5. High cost of input supplies
- 6. Other (Specify)

72. What are the main challenges of the project?

- 1. Lack of participation by members
- 2. Theft
- 3. Limited Market access
- 4. Lack of farming equipments
- 5. High cost of input supplies
- 6. Other (Specify)

73. What suggestions would you make to improve matters for the farmers?

- 1. Increased access to markets
 - 2. Value adding
 - 3. Increased access to credit
 - 4. Other (specify)
- -----

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