

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

**TITLE**

An Evaluation of Stakeholder (People) Participation in Mhlontlo Local Municipality  
Rural Development Programme

**By**

**Student Name:** MBONISWA CORNELIUS NODLABI

**Student Number:** 201 505 788

**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree  
of Master of Business Administration**

**Graduate School of Business & Leadership  
College of Law and Management Studies**

**Supervisor:** Alec Bozas

**Year of submission:** 31 JANUARY 2012

## DECLARATION

I MBONISWA CORNELIUS NODLABI declare that

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation/thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
- (ii) This dissertation/thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
- (iv) This dissertation/thesis does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
  - a) their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced:
  - b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks, and referenced.
- (v) This dissertation/thesis does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation/thesis and in the References sections.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_



## Acknowledgements

I wish to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to the following individuals, without whose assistance, this study would not have been possible:

- My supervisor whose patience and encouragement has made it possible that this dissertation work was completed and presented for examination.
- The Mayor and Speaker of Mhlontlo Municipality, the beneficiary municipality in the programme, for allowing me to use their meetings as platforms to access respondents for the research.
- My family and friends who tolerated incidences where I could not be part of their social occasions in which my presence would have meant a lot to them.
- The University for understanding and granting me this opportunity to finally complete my MBA studies.
- All respondents to the questionnaire who have voluntarily participated in this research.
- And finally everyone who has played a part in ensuring that I arrive at this point.

Everyone has shown kindness and encouragement that has provided me with a sense of calm, and determination when I began to lose faith in my ability to continue. You all have always been positive and very supportive.

## **ABSTRACT**

Since its democratic dispensation, South Africa has been striving to find the right economic tool to confront the challenges of poverty, joblessness, widening income gap and lack of job related skills. Numerous methods have been put to trial in an attempt to rescue the rural masses from the scourge of poverty, joblessness and social degradation, but with limited impact. Literature surveys in this regard attest to social intervention programmes failing, due to the absence or little involvement of beneficiary rural communities in the programme establishment. Renewed rural development initiative at Mhlontlo Municipality occurs within this context.

The study was then undertaken to evaluate stakeholder participation in the planning, the implementation and the monitoring and evaluation of the pilot programme. This is a study of the rural development pilot programme at Mhlontlo Local Municipality in the Eastern Cape. The statistical population for the study included all institutionalised stakeholder's organizations, as critical components of engagement to realise the programme setting. The study target participants were 90 adult individuals involve in local stakeholder's public participation institutions.

A self-completed questionnaire was administered to the 90 target participants with 64 returned completely filled. The results were analysed using statistical mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variance and presented as tables and graphs. Findings were that there was more participation in the programme implementation phase, than in the programme planning and monitoring phase. Assessment of programme outputs by respondents was diverse and inconclusive. This was attributed to poor participation by programme stakeholders in programme's planning.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Description	Page
Title Page	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Abstract	v
Table of Contents	vi
List of Figures	ix
List of Tables	ix
 <b>CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION</b>	
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Motivation for the Study	4
1.3 Purpose of the Study	5
1.4 Problem Statement	7
1.5 Study Objectives	9
1.6 Research Questions	9
1.7 Research Design	10
1.8 Limitation and Assumptions	11
1.9 Chapter Summary	12
 <b>CHAPTER TWO : LITERATURE REVIEW</b>	
2.1 Introduction	13
2.2 Literature Review Context	14
2.3 Rural Development : A Theoretical Perspective	14
2.3.1 Agrarian Reforms	15

2.3.2	Inequality, Poverty and Rural Livelihood	17
2.3.3	Infrastructural Development	20
2.3.4	Economic Development	21
2.4	Overview of Rural Development Programmes In South Africa	23
2.4.1	Preamble	23
2.4.2	Apartheid Era	23
2.4.3	Reconstruction and Development Programme	24
2.4.4	Rural Development Strategy	25
2.4.5	Republic of South Africa Constitution	26
2.4.6	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme	26
2.4.9	Provincial Growth and Development Plan	27
2.5	People Participation in social and economic intervention Programmes	28
2.6	Conclusion	33

### **CHAPTER THREE : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

3.1	Introduction	36
3.2	Description of the Case	37
3.3	Aim and Objectives of the Study	38
3.4	Research Design	38
3.4.1	Methodology	38
3.4.1.1	Introduction	38
3.4.1.2	Quantitative	39
3.4.1.3	Qualitative	40
3.4.1.4	Triangulation	41
3.4.2	Chosen Research Approach	42
3.4.3	Research Strategy	43
3.4.4	Research Instrument	44
3.4.4.1	Design	44
3.4.4.2	Pilot Testing and Modification	45
3.4.5	Population and Sample Size	46

3.4.6	Target for the Research	47
3.5	Data Collection and Analysis	48
3.6	Fieldwork	49
3.7	Conclusion	50
<b>CHAPTER FOUR : PRESENTATION OF RESULTS</b>		
4.1	Introduction	51
4.2	Analysis of Respondents' Profiles	51
4.3	Analysis of Programme Definition and Design Participation	57
4.4	Programme Execution / Implementation Participation Analysis	59
4.5	Programme Monitoring and Evaluation Analysis	61
4.6.	Comparative Analysis across Programme Participation Statements	63
4.7	Assessment of the Perception of Stakeholders on the Programme Results/Outcomes/Impact.	64
4.8	Conclusion	64
<b>CHAPTER FIVE : DISCUSSIONS OF RESULTS</b>		
5.1	Introduction	66
5.2	Discussion of Results	67
5.2.1	Demographics	67
5.2.2	Participation in Programme Definition and Design	68
5.2.3	Programme Execution / Implementation Participation	69
5.2.3	Programme Monitoring and Evaluation Participation	70
5.2.4	Programme Outcomes/ Impact Assessment	70
5.3	Conclusion	71

## **6. CHAPTER SIX : CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

6.1	Introduction	73
6.2	Objective One	74
6.3	Objective Two	75
6.4	Objective Three	76
6.5	Literature Review	78
6.6	People Participation	82
6.7	Suggestions for Future Studies	84
6.8	Conclusion	85

<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>		<b>88</b>
---------------------	--	-----------

<b>APPENDIX.1</b>	Questionnaire	94
-------------------	---------------	----

<b>APPENDIX. 2</b>	Ethical clearance	99
--------------------	-------------------	----

### **LIST OF FIGURES**

<b>Number</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Page</b>
4.2.1	Respondents Distribution per Institutions	52
4.2.2	Gender Analysis	53
4.2.3	Analysis of Respondents Ages	53
4.2.4	Respondents Settlement Patterns	54
4.2.5	Respondents Literacy Levels	54
4.2.6	Respondents Roles in the Municipality Area	55
4.2.7	Respondents Experience in their Respective Roles	56
4.2.8	Respondents Households Analysis	56
4.3.1	Analysis of Participation on Programme Definition and Design	59
4.4.1	Programme Execution/Implementation Participation	61
4.5.1	Programme Performance Monitoring and Evaluation	63



## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Number</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Page</b>
4.3.1	Programme Definition and Design Participation	57
4.3.2	Analysis across Programme Definition and Design Participation Elements	57
4.4.1	Programme Execution / Implementation Participation	59
4.5.1	Programme Performance Monitoring & Evaluation	61
4.5.2	Comparison across Statements of Participation	63
4.7	Cumulative Assessment	64

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

---

### 1.1 BACKGROUND.

From cradle to grave humans are dominated by some level of the inequality (Green, 2009). The extent of global inequality is enormous and ending it is one of the greatest challenges of this century (Green, 2009). Poverty and inequality have become a global concern as both are not confined within national borders (Green, 2009). Accordingly inequality strains human talents, undermines society institutions and reverses the effects of economic growth on poverty eradication.

Equally, rural people migrating to industrialised cities is a direct consequence of poverty and inequality confronting rural areas (University of Tokyo, 2005). Rural areas are exposed to social deterioration and unstable ecosystems, while urban centres are becoming exposed to environmental hazards.

For many developing nations, poverty alleviation is a driver of the nation's economic and social policy mix (Martin, 2001). Confronted by a similar situation, South Africa since its democratic dispensation, has been striving to find the right mix of result driven economic tools to confront the challenges of poverty, unemployment, and shrinking economy (RDP, 1994). Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994) articulates the need for a people-driven integrated and sustainable programme to help the country.

Despite progress claimed by Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) and Hendricks and Fraser (2003) in the delivery of basic services, the country is still grappling with finding a workable solution to deal with stagnating service delivery and job creating economic, particularly in rural areas (CDW handbook, 2003).

Since the RDP conceptualization, the following has been implemented to address

the plight of the marginalized rural poor; the Rural Development Strategy (1995); the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996); the Rural Development Framework (1997), Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (1999), and Local Economic Development (2006) are a few of the programmes crafted to rescue the rural masses from the scourge of poverty, unemployment and social degradation.

Following the national policy framework underlying the country socio-economic planning, the Provincial Government of the Eastern Cape in 2004 crafted its own Provincial Growth and Development Plan (2004). The plan was seen as an improvement from the reactive planning of the past. It was seen to be capable of freeing the province from inequalities and imbalances of the homeland and apartheid administrations; through an integrated and balanced development (PGDP, 2004). Despite this, the 2007 Millennium Development Goals review indicated that the country was still embattled by these problems and facing new challenges of fast growing numbers of households, shifting composition of the country's economy, increase migration into city centres and new demographics posture evolving (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010).

The Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy (ECRDS) (2010) in supporting this statement attests to the province grappling with same challenges and rural people remaining victims of the scourge of poverty. According to ECRDS (2010) 39% of rural population is migrating to urban centres of the remaining 61% rural settlers 42% is underdeveloped and living in abject poverty.

Despite these programmes as South Africa enters the third term of the Developmental Local Government era, the country's rural socio-economy structure is crumbling. Research scholars such as Kole (2005) and Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) agree that the devil is not the failure of the policy prescript, but the capacity to execute these policy prescripts by government. Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) (1992) attributes failures of the rural development initiatives to rural development strategies that rarely integrate rural people in the development planning.

Kole (2005) blames the rural development challenges of the country to the socio-political disparities of apartheid segregationist policies. The present urban-rural divide is responsible for an imbalance in production and consumption factors, with urban areas emerging as production and consumption centres while rural areas push into poverty and economic stagnation. Thabo Mbeki's (2003) South Africa of two economies is an accurate description of the entrenched divide and condition of the lives of rural communities.

The 2009 rural development shift as defined by Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) and Hall (2009), is proclaimed as the most comprehensive focus to re-energise rural development. Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) argue that this shift in Rural Development strategy is a significant improvement on shortcomings of the previous policy provisions on rural development. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reforms, as a custodian institution, continues on this mission with its predecessor strategies as a dedicated government institution to create a solution to rural problems. Eastern Cape Province as a rural province is the best candidate for the intervention. The path to the 2009 Comprehensive Rural Development initiative, suggests the national government in general and the province in particular, continue to face the daunting challenge of finding a workable economic mix to deal with the challenge of developing rural areas.

With the underdevelopment in rural areas providing opportunities on one hand and social instability on the other there are limited options available. This programme must be one that address both the negative effect the rural underdevelopment and circumvents development problems in the cities.

This research aimed to explore the extent and content of stakeholder participation by the target community in the programme planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. The impact of this policy position regarding the interventions made on rural development in the province and the provincial planning paradigm to change the lives of the rural poor remains area for further research.

## 1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THIS STUDY

Third World countries are the geopolitical space characterized by social pathologies (UFH, 2003). University of Fort Hare (2003) blames SA's first five years of democracy that have caused the twenty years of homeland industrialization shut down. This change is blamed for the increasing number of rural households who are dependent on the state, as against making a living out of available natural resources. Also exacerbating the rural household's plight is the aftermath of apartheid's 1950 – 1960 betterment planning and cattle culling programme directed at rural areas (UFH, 2003). This apartheid rural development programme was in response to what was perceived to be failing traditional forms of land management and agricultural practices, which were not responsive to population growth and its subsequent pressure on environment (UFH, 2003).

A number of failed rural development programmes by the present government to alleviate poverty and underdevelopment have added to the list. This situation is persisting in an environment where rural dispossession is excessive and many rural South Africans are living in distressing conditions (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Poverty and inequality according to Adams, Cousins and Manona (1999) affect 50% of the people of South Africa. These are people defined as poor using a South African poverty line (Adams, Cousins and Manona, 1999). Accordingly, poverty is affecting rural people as statistics shows that 72% of the poor people live in rural areas against 28% of urban population categorised as poor. In this poverty mix 60% are women found heading rural households and living under extreme poverty (Adams, Cousins and Manona, 1999).

According to Delius and Schirmer (2001) the situation has become so difficult that members of the rural population cannot take initiatives on their own. The situation Green (2009) refers to as human consequences of inequality. By Green's hypothesis rural communities are rendered powerless, frustrated, exhausted and experiencing a sense of exclusion. Hence poverty and inequality can be ranked alongside slavery and apartheid evils (Green, 2009). Poverty is the root cause of much institutional confusion and weakness confronting rural dwellers (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Hill's (2007) "failed development" hypothesis attributes these conditions to often

popular dissatisfaction with governments.

If indeed, 2009 ushered in a new era in rural development response, in the form of political and bureaucratic shift as argued by Hall (2009), its evaluation stand to contribute toward its improvement, expansion and refining. According to Delius and Schirmer (2001), rural development should be driven from realistic resources and understanding of rural people. The shift observed by Hall (2009) can thus be of effect to re-energize rural development initiatives to eradicate the spatial legacy of the apartheid era, and reduce poverty amongst rural people if it promotes social cohesion and institutional revival of rural households. Although this research work is limited to one pillar of rural development programmes, its findings should however suggest some means by which the present policy position can be enhanced, extended and advanced.

### **1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

South Africa is directed by its Constitution (1996) to effectively discharge a responsibility to plan, coordinate and implement a programme of rural development amongst some of its key development state mandates. The African Union Development Agenda cited in Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) identified “Sustainable Development” at economic, social and cultural levels as key development priority. The goals of this resolution has been poverty alleviation, altering expenditure and manufacturing patterns through a sustainable use of available natural resources for economic and societal development. South Africa has an obligation towards global objectives of sustainable development and reduction of income inequalities confronting second world economies (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams; 2010). Attaining these goals requires better targeting, more effective coordination and integration of poverty intervention programmes across all spheres of government (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams; 2010)

An evaluation of the current provincial initiative is essential for measuring the success of the programme in addressing the problem pressures as detailed above, and the continuous suffering by the rural masses. Albeit progress made towards changing the lives of the people of the country in general, it is general perceived that

failure to make a visible dent in the rural development problem by predecessor policy intervention has not been the failure of policies, but the extent to which they were monitored and evaluated.

With the province having identified Mhlontlo Municipality as its pilot to test the application of its plan, its intended subsequent roll-out will be influenced by how the government has performed in the pilot. This evaluation will therefore give effect as to the effectiveness of the new approach and reduction of the learning curve effect.

Poverty and inequality are the objective realities continuing to affect rural people, albeit rural development attempts since 1994 until the 2009 shift. Needed then is Comprehensive diagnosis of the provincial rural development path to 2009 shift in order to give effect to policy strength and weakness in contributing materially to the goal of halving poverty by 2014.

In the same context, numerous legislations in the country and development practitioner opinions, unanimously advocate high level participation by any recipient community in a development programme. Arguments advanced claim that poverty reduction and income redistribution in economic development, stands to benefit more those that the efforts are directed at. Enhancement of participation by these communities not only guarantees ownership and buy-in, but is an ingredient to sustainability.

The Equally Process Approach to rural development requires that the local population are central drivers of their own development destiny (Kole, 2005). This assertion is equally shared by contemporary Development theories, which advocate local planning and decision making as essential tenets of successful development strategies. Parker (1998) in Kole, supports the idea of empowerment of the developed through ensuring effective participation by chief beneficiaries of the development programme. Such an approach result in sustainable development reduced rural poverty and maximised returns for the country's economy.

Community participation in rural development programmes should thus be seen as a process ingredient through which beneficiaries are empowered to influence the

programme's activities (Kole, 2005). Siyongwana (2000) asserts that people are the central tenet of economic development, therefore development should be people driven and integrated. Accordingly an enriched rural development programme can be achieved through collaboration between peasant knowledge and basic science.

For this study, an evaluation of people participation directed at Mhlontlo Municipality communities and other social partners will help provide key lessons for enhancement by policy makers on the effects of participation impact against provincial targets. On the overall the study will add to the requisite knowledge on the rural development studies. It is hence the tenet of this study to evaluate the effectiveness of stakeholder participation in the Rural Development Programme by the Eastern Cape Government at its pilot site in Mhlontlo Municipality. The study will offer an independent and fresh perspective to the programme. It is undertaken with the sole objective of critically understanding the programme execution and performance.

#### **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Mhlontlo Municipality is a rural municipality with 96% of its population living in rural settlements (IDP 2010-2011). Characterising rural settlements is 71% of the households that are informal dwellings with only 29% categorised as semi-formal dwelling (IDP 2010-2011). HIV/Aids infections are prevalent and contribute to 9% of the communicated diseases in the area. The majority of its people remain less educated and having not gone beyond grade 12 (IDP, 2010-2011). Compounding the situation in the area is the absence of essential basic infrastructural services like sanitation, electricity, water, and rural roads network.

The situation above confirms Adams, Cousins and Manona (1999) assertion that poverty and inequality is prevalent in rural area of South Africa. Delius and Schirmer, (2001) and Adams, Cousins and Manona (1999) equally attest to approximately 50% of rural individuals and households categorized as poor and that poverty is largely rural.

Further Adams, Cousins and Manona (1999) attest to 60% of rural households that are female-headed and poor and that poverty is extreme in provinces comprising



former homelands areas. Supporting this statement, Delius and Schirmer (2001) acknowledges that former homelands rural households make up 70% of the national 77% poverty rate. Transkei amongst the stated homelands provides the visible evidence of this poverty gap.

Prevalent indicators of poverty are identified as high food insecurity; very high levels of unemployment; rural households earning unevenly below R1500 per month, lack of access to land and high levels of inequality (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Rural development programmes have since been seen as an urgent state priority (Dunmade, 2010). The underlying reasons being the potential to create sustainable employment opportunities and immediate strategy to delivery on rural inequality and poverty (Dunmade, 2010).

The South African government efforts through the Rural Development Strategy (1995); the Rural Development Framework (1997), Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (1999), Provincial Growth and Development Plan (2004) and Local Economic Development (2006) are the few failed experiences crafted to rescue the rural masses from the scourge of poverty, joblessness and social degradation. This is blamed on investments in rural development that is far below expectation (Dunmade, 2010).

Lack of rural community participation in project planning and implementation has also been identified as one of the causes for the failure of rural development projects (Dunmade, 2010). Shah (2009) made similar observation about the mid-seventies rural development programmes that never produced the intended results of substantial reduction of poverty, because of a minimal participation by the intended beneficiaries in planning and implementation. The other cited contributor to rural development failure is the problem of rural development being everybody's business (Delius and Schirmer, 2001) when in fact it should be the rural people's business for they should set their own agendas, priorities and methods to achieve what rural development is meant for.

It is in the background mapped above that this research work is intended. Of significant interest is the exploration of the extent and content of the target

community and other social partner engagement in the realization of the aims and goals of this social intervention programme. The research will be premised on exploring the experience that community participation is often demanded while practice indicates that it is often side-lined because of the costs involved. An evaluation of Stakeholder Participation in Mhlontlo Municipality rural development programme is undertaken based on the perspective above.

### **1.5 THE STUDY OBJECTIVES WERE TO:**

- Investigate the involvement of local stakeholders in the initiation and design of the provincial Rural Development Programme in Mhlontlo Municipality.
- Examine the levels of participation by the local stakeholders in the programme implementation.
- Assess the conclusions by the stakeholders on the programme results

### **1.6 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- To what extent has the department of Rural Development in the province, as lead agent behind the programme, engaged with Mhlontlo Municipality local stakeholders that are targets for intervention in the initiation and design of the programme?
- How much social facilitation was conducted to ensure effective mobilization of communities behind the programme and empowerment done to enable informed stakeholder participation in programme implementation?
- What are the impressions thus far of local stakeholders on the programme performance towards intended results?

## **1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN**

### **1.7.1 METHODOLOGY**

For this study a qualitative methodology of research will be employed. According Thomas (2003), the methodology provides for a systematic investigation of stakeholder participation in the realization of the programme goals. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) in support of the methodology argue that it provides for studying the phenomenon in its complexity and is a statistical approach to explaining a social world. In the context an “evaluation research” approach will be applied. The method as detailed by Clarke (1999) is a methodical application of the social research approach to an assessment of the conceptualization, design, implementation and usefulness of a socio-economic intervention programme. As an applied research tool the methodology would facilitate a collection of information about the implementation, operation and effectiveness of the programme (Clarke, 1999).

### **1.7.2 RESEARCH APPROACH**

A case study as a tool of research is adopted to gather facts about the subject. Richardson (1993) sees a case study as able to explain the problem and inspire readers to look for solutions. With regard to the subject, this case study is intended to give enough information for the reader to appreciate the challenges faced by development practitioners. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) attest to case study usefulness in investigating how society overtime responds to circumstances. Grosf and Sardy (1985) also assert that a case study is of use when a researcher’s goal is to gain an insight into background, current and environmental interactions of a particular unit.

Pursuant to this approach, a comprehensive analysis of documents that relate to the rural development construct and specific policy position regarding this Rural Development Programme will be conducted. This secondary data collection will serve as the main method of gathering information relating to the programme objectives and experiences.

A standardised questionnaire was administered to a group of respondents. The

targets for the questionnaire survey was made up of councillors, Municipality officials, Community Development Workers (CDWs), Ward Committees and traditional leaders whose day to day tasks are to support development needs of the Mhlontlo Municipality and thus share direct interest in the programme's performance.

## **1.8 LIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS**

### **1.8.1 LIMITATIONS**

Partington (1996) argues the output of any research undertaking is generally constrained by the methodology employed. The study only seeks to evaluate one pillar of rural development from which to make an inference as to the effectiveness of the social intervention programme, and the extent to which it had been applied to gain overall programme goals of poverty reduction and sustainable development. Given that not all the pillars will be evaluated, the results will give effect only to the pillar of focus. The study will therefore remain unfinished in this context.

The use of representative sample stratified along political, cultural, and traditional lines and targeting those who can read and write may give inconclusive evidence as to the subject of this research. The evaluation is based on the public policy execution and its effectiveness, but is not intended to determine the success and failure of public policy, but to examine factors that can help the attainment of programme outcomes.

Partington (1997) argues that one of the evident weaknesses of qualitative methodology is its labour intensiveness nature; hence a greater amount of time is consumed in collecting, processing, analysing and reanalysing diverse data. This requires skills and expertise, which are beyond the researcher.

### **1.8.2 ASSUMPTIONS**

Underlying this study are the following assumptions.

1. Respondents in the study would be willing adults with the capacity to share

their experiences in working in the programme and share their perceptions of programme performance with regard to its intended outcomes.

2. Responses by participants would be informative and will inspire the researcher with a fresh opinion on previous held assumptions about People Participation in the rural development programmes.
3. The practice of programme evaluation will be appreciated, and hence the study outcomes will be useful to decision makers, development practitioners and programme managers.

## **1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

### **1.9.1 CHAPTER ONE**

This chapter sets out the background; outlines what motivated the study, spells out the research purpose, problem statement, possible limitations on the research objectives and questions and summarises the research design and fundamentals assumptions of the study.

### **1.9.2 CHAPTER TWO**

Chapter 2 is a review of literature on Rural Development as a subject in order to explore the theoretical and practical context within which rural development can be pursued and to establish justification placed on people participation as a prerequisite to rural development enhancement. The review has thus far led to the formulation of the critical research question as guiding foundation for the design of the research project.

### **1.9.3 CHAPTER THREE**

This chapter is concerned with research methodology, builds upon chapter one research objectives and design, through a consideration of a number of assumptions which underpin and rationalize the research design and explored a theoretical context is to enable the determination of the parameters of the study plan, data gathering and analysis.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

---

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2005) argue that progress in science is made by continuous accumulation of knowledge through reference to the work of others and build on that work. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) adds that researchers belong to the society of knowledge seekers who have travelled into the unknown to fetch insight, truth or a light for those who are still to explore the unknown to discover it much easier. Literature survey thus exists to determine what others have written about the subject.

Informed by these scholars, this literature survey begins by acknowledging that nations have continuously struggled to solve the problem of scarcity of natural resources in a quest to satisfy the needs for all (Schiller ,2000). This core struggle of an economic science has made Schiller (2000) define economics as a science striving to strike balance on how best to allocate scarce natural resources amongst competing human needs.

Distinguished economists, the likes of Adam Smith (1776) with his market mechanism model, Karl Marx with both his DAS Capital of 1867 and Communist Manifesto of 1848 have attempted to model economic solutions by addressing economic choice. Later Maynard Keynes (1930) wanted to reconcile the two contrasting economic ideas by proposing a balanced economic thinking between the state role and the market role.

Olivier, Van Zyl and Williams (2010) tapping from the wisdom of contemporary development economists acknowledges that economic development should not only promote economic growth and structural improvement, but should seek to improve the wellbeing of the general population, integrates social and political considerations as key drivers of economic developments. Accordingly, this task pursued through a

variety of theories, methods and practices which aid the determination of appropriate practices and policies. Pursuant to the arguments above, it is appropriate to conduct a literature survey of such practices and policies so as to construct a literature body of this study.

## **2.2 LITERATURE REVIEW CONTEXT**

Martin (2001) describes rural development as the struggle against absolute poverty, the reduction of regional imbalances and rural livelihood development. Meaning rural development should aim at promoting human development and creating a favourable environmental climate for rapid, inclusive and broad-based economic growth. Rural Development Framework (1997) recognises rural development as entailing building local democracy and development, local economic development and rural livelihood, local infrastructure development, social sustainability and local capacity to plan and implement.

Considering Ferreira's (1997) perspective, rural development entails making land available for development, proper environmental planning, and institutionalised participation by rural people, economic development and promoting sustainable agricultural practices. Accordingly rural development ideas are diverse

Notwithstanding this diversity nature, for the purpose of this study it will suffice to re-examine literature on Agrarian Reforms; Inequality, Poverty and Rural Livelihood; Infrastructural Development; and Economic development as these are elements considered key for rural development. Extensive focus will be on the impact the construct People Participation has on success or failure of rural development initiatives.

## **2.3 RURAL DEVELOPMENT : A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE**

Pursuant to the context given above, a comprehensive literature review of rural development will be conducted considering four critical topics namely Agrarian Reforms; Inequality, Poverty and Rural Livelihood; Infrastructural Development; and Economic development.

### **2.3.1 AGRARIAN REFORMS**

Kuhnen (1982) defined Agrarian Reforms as creation of active, permanent, and productive livelihood in rural settlement. Adams, Cousins and Manona (1999) see it as referring to a defined transformation of terms and circumstances under which land is held, used and transacted. Rural land occupancy restructuring stands to improve people's rights to land thus providing people with safety of occupancy (Adams, Cousins & Manona, 1999).

According to Kuhnen (1982) systems of land tenure are not immutable as changes in the natural environment, economic factors, technological innovations, population size, and political factors cast structural changes in it. But often land tenure reforms lag behind the innovations in rural development and fails to adapt as required, because communal land ownership systems are institutionalised, culturally intertwined thus difficult to change (Kuhnen, 1982).

Because of this dynamism and varying factors influencing land tenure systems, an ideal global land tenure system does not exist (Kuhnen, 1982). The Kenyan model of transformed system is a case in practice but the model remains what Kameri-Mbote (2005) refers to as incompletely reformed land tenure system.

The demise of the agrarian society in the rural areas of South Africa can be traced through the development changes experienced in Southern Africa during the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Harrison, 2001). Massive plantation and exploration of mineral resources experienced during the period created an exodus of rural labour from rural areas as a migrant labour force (Delius and Schirmer, 2001).

Amongst factors attributed to the migration of rural labour was sudden cultural integration of peasant society by compelling rural youth to leave their tilling livelihood and become cheap migrant labour force through imposition of head tax and restricted access to land (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Kay (2009) links this to urban-bias industrialisation policies that overlooked the need to invest in peasant farming programme that stood to yield more output per hectare, create more employment or self-employment and render huge impact on poverty reduction as compared to large



industrialisation.

The diminishing land size for the millions of African peasants meant that the residents' compactness in rural settlements increased from 60 persons per square mile to 110 persons per square mile (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Before then rural Africans were able to generate about 25% of their income from agricultural output (Delius and Schirmer, 2001).

By this practice, peasant communities were redefined and reproduced as a mode of production to serve the interest of capitalist world (Harrison, 2001). Kay (2009) terms this an Urban Bias thesis. Accordingly the peasant social systems collapsed as rural areas were transformed into labour reservoirs of the labour hungry mine houses and the entire rural population livelihood became dependent on urban wages (Harrison, 2001 and Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Kay (2009) attributes the collapse of the peasant social systems to the miss allocation of resources by the state mainly due to the Urban Bias thesis which survives by extracting surplus wealth from rural people through countless measures (Kay, 2005). The often cited greatest effect of urban bias thesis is an untold level of inequality between rural and urban settlements and sometimes within rural people themselves.

Despite this agrarian problem confronting the rural communities, the majority of rural people in the countryside and their livelihoods still dependent on farming (Rigg, 2006). This makes the land availability question indispensable to a regeneration of agriculture amongst rural households.

Nevertheless May (2000) in agreement has argued that land reforms enhances stability in rural income but cautions though that land ownership alone cannot achieve improved level of living for the rural households. Government in this regard is not only called to transfer land but to also restructure rural market to the benefit of the rural poor. For many rural people in the former Bantustan areas, their economic and social decisions have been conditioned by their unequal and distorted access to markets, services and opportunities (May, 2000).

### **2.3.2 INEQUALITY, POVERTY AND RURAL LIVELIHOOD**

Poverty and inequality are two social pathologies characterizing the rural area of the Eastern Cape according to the University of Fort Hare socio – economic survey (UFH, 2003). These social ills are critical influencing factors of the rural livelihood. In this topic these three social concepts are then explored in order to lay a theoretic basis for this study.

#### **2.3.2.1 POVERTY**

Coleman (2001) describes poverty as more than monetary deficient, but also as a denial of opportunity and choices, low achievement in wellbeing, schooling, nourishment and other facets of human being development. These poverty attributes are what Manona (2005) terms non-monetary dimensions of poverty and are cited as equally the critical pillars for sustainable rural development by the Eastern Cape Provincial Rural Development Strategy (2010). In the continuum of extensive literature on how to describe and quantify poverty defining and measuring poverty along absolute poverty measure suffices (Ahsan, 2001).

An absolute poverty approach sets ideal earnings required to maintain a minimal level of nourishment, which in turn results into a benchmark of a poverty base line (Ahsan, 2001). This respectively causes those falling below the line to be declared poor. Ahsan (2001) have added to the non-monetary measure of poverty; categories such as health and educational accomplishment, high life expectancy and other individual development components.

#### **2.3.2.2 INEQUALITY**

The increasing gap between the urban and rural people characterising the developing countries is blamed on neo-classical economic theories of accelerating development through concentrating investments in the cities on assumptions that rural poverty will be alleviated by the trickle down benefits from the urban industrial growth (Kpomuvie, 2010). This notion is supported by conventional wisdom that income disparity encourages economic development as an average propensity to

save increases with wealth level. Thus by redistributing earnings in favour of the rich, the economy-wide average propensity to save and the fraction of GDP devoted to capital formation would rise, thereby promoting economic growth (Odedokun and Round, 2001).

Odedokun and Round's on the contrary argues that the bigger the sum total by which the average income in an economy surpass the median income, the larger the measure of inequality facing the poor. This accordingly forces the poor families to abandon investments in human capital, thereby widening wealth and income inequality gap thus lowering the reserve of human resources in the economy (Odedokun and Round, 2001).

### **2.3.2.3 RURAL LIVELIHOOD**

Maria (2009) described rural development as a method of achieving a desired future in the countryside by extending the renewal of rural institutions, procedures and culture in the rural space. A worldwide consensus is that the deprived humanity is in the rural world and that the answer to rural poverty depends on the innovative use of rural land for farming (Rigg, 2009). Accordingly land is accepted as a fundamental livelihood asset under the assumption that secure, safe and affordable land creates space enough for sustainable reduction of poverty (Rigg, 2009).

Pursuant to livelihood development, the Africa Union Development Agenda (2001) proposes that sustainable development should integrate the economic, social and cultural aspect in order to enhance reduction of hunger, varying spending and manufacturing patterns and sustainable management of natural possessions as a foundation for economic and societal advancement. Brundtland Commission (1987) argues for sustainable development that aims at economic development which fosters a qualitative preservation of natural environment for the next generations.

Characterising the 21<sup>st</sup> century and now rural households is an emergence of multi-income sources (Barrett, Reardon and Webb, 2001). This diversification is driven by low risk-bearing capacity caused by absence of persistent financial inflow which would create a strong incentive to select a portfolio of activities in order to calm

earnings flows and spending by households, due to limitation in the labour market, land markets, and uncertainty in climatic conditions (Barrett, Reardon and Webb, 2001). Given this context asset, activity and income diversification is the central tenet that defines livelihood strategies for rural households (Barrett, Reardon and Webb, 2001).

Notwithstanding the aforesaid, the emerging trend in the rural development paradigm is the evolving international labour market ability to offer employment to rural communities and thus creating a reduction of a more generalized poverty crisis (Rigg, 2009). Rigg (2009) models rural livelihood transformation using East Laguna in the Philippines. Experience from this region indicates that there has been a consistent reduction of farming income to rural household from 90% to 36%, while the share of non-agricultural sector to household income rose fourfold from 13% to 64% (Rigg, 2009). Accordingly this experience in rural economic diversification and incremental shift from farm to non-farm livelihoods has a repeat in the Central Plains of Thailand.

Rigg (2006) and Frank and Biggs (2001) attest to agricultural livelihood becoming a preserve of the elderly. Argued by Franck and Biggs (2001), is a fact that one third of agricultural labour force of Japan was more than 65 years old by the early 1990s. Rigg (2006) in collaboration argues that agriculture households have been unable to reproduce themselves; hence large hectares of land are seen lying abandoned.

According to Bryceson (2009), Sub-Saharan Africa deagrarianization process has resulted into a reduction of labour directed toward agricultural production within peasant households. Equally observed is a fact that Deagrarianization in rural Africa has also triggered “depeasantization” (Bryceson, 2009). With it Depeasantization has rendered male household heads’ decision-making power waned, giving women and youth within rural households more scope for economic autonomy. Resultantly peasant families and social systems have lost their coherence as social and economic units and has opted to pursue two or more livelihoods activities in trying to offset losses in one area (Bryceson, 2009).

Also defining the rural livelihood trend is an increase in targeting of women for the

Sustainable Rural Development and Food Security Programmes (Walingo, 2009). Delius and Schirmer (2001) attributes this to the fact that women are statistically many in rural areas and that female-headed households are the biggest number amongst the poor (Walingo, 2009). Across the globe women are the major rural force that can be entrusted with assuring sufficient nourishment, wellbeing and intellectual development of children (Walingo, 2009). Amongst these women, there are unmarried mothers with Children but without any social support system available (Delius and Schirmer, 2001).

Female poverty is as the result of the migrant employment methods which causes rural males to leave for urban employment while leaving women and children behind. These women are subjects of men according to rural tradition, and they remain with no right over rural property, and lack access to institutions that provide opportunities and buffers from shocks and crisis; hence these women are victims of deprivation and food insecurity (Walingo, 2009).

The foregoing perspective and a substantial body of literature, suggests that efficient focus on women through development initiatives and resource allocation, can achieve significant improvement in household food security, poverty eradication and rural livelihood (Walingo, 2009 and Delius and Schirmer, 2001).

### **2.3.3                   INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT**

Infrastructure development is seen as a core government function to encourage private investment in land (Olsson, 2004). Economic growth in East Asian countries is direct evidence of the infrastructure output effect on creating pre-investment conditions for private sector participation. Infrastructure development helps to improve rural development through its effect on economic output, increase in rural non-agrarian jobs, and improved communication between rural and urban sectors (Fan and Zhang, 2004). Because the rural non-agrarian economy is becoming a main determinant of rural income, investing on rural infrastructure is critical to increase the general earnings of the rural inhabitants (Fan and Zhang, 2004).

Even developed nations have identified a new possibility in rural development of

exploring the rich rural natural amenities (Taylor, 2006). Accordingly rural areas in America are experiencing an increase in rural population, and hence economic regeneration. Fostering this Amenity Led Development is the distance from urban centres, existence of developed social facilities and nature-based tourism business (Taylor, 2006). Taylor (2006) cautions though for a need to ensure a sustainable use of these amenities through ensuring maintenance of their quality and value characteristics by creating a balanced demand between the growing amenity-base tourism, and rooted recreational development. This challenges stands to be mitigated through resisting a blind application of urban policies to rural areas, by ensuring proactive and inclusive planning and correctly assigning the development responsibility to a key government sphere (Taylor, 2006).

#### **2.3.4 LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

The core challenge to rural economic development is to enable a larger number of rural households to participate in economic activities of production, processing and marketing through job creation and entrepreneurship programmes (Hall, 2009). Accordingly, van der Ploeg, Renting, Brunori, Knickel, Mannion, Roest, Sevilla-Guzman and Ventura (2000) argue that rural development is to be recognised as a multi-level process designed to respond to the shortfall in the modernisation paradigm. The assertion is premised on the notion that rural development has a capacity to produce a variety of non-importable public goods, such as landscapes and natural value. But for rural territory to offer these economic values, it requires that rural areas are re-organised (van der Ploeg et al, 2000).

Rural development should thus serve as an innovative model for the farming sector in response to the failed 1990 industrialisation model of scale-enlargement, intensification, and specialisation (van der Ploeg et al, 2000). Consequently the revival of rural development should attempt to focus on individual farm households, by redefining and crafting it into a new strategy, with interrelations and value networks (van der Ploeg et al, 2000) so as to re-attract young men and women, now unwilling to working in agriculture (Hendricks and Fraser, 2003).

Ashley and Maxwell (2001) attest to Small Farm Holders, as a relevant driver for

rural economic development, as have withstood the negative effect of economic globalisation. This is because small holder farming uses family labour that sometimes endures self-exploitative sacrifice, hence having a competitive edge over global competition (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001). To small scale farmers global competitive pressure remains of no effect given the limited space required and efficiency with which a smallholder farm can be managed (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001).

Accordingly rural development should seek to create new products/services and associated markets (van der Ploeg et al, 2000), thus enabling efficient utilisation of rural resources. This challenges the reconfiguration of rural resources such as labour, land, the ecosystem and countryside into resource bases oriented towards new needs, perspective and interests (van der Ploeg et al, 2000).

Pursuing small scale farming by bottom up thinking on rural agribusiness development stands to roll on without serious challenges (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). This is supported by the observation that small scale agri-business asset vulnerability framework is less affected by vulnerability shock. Enabling the small scale agriculture business venture, policy makers are advised to remove barriers to trade and mobility for small business, thus creating a variety of non-farm opportunities in the process (Ellis and Biggs, 2001).

Also the scourge of rural poverty and inequality calls for rural development and policy initiatives that explore alternative methods of rural economic development ( Brennan and Luloff, 2005) .With rural people rendered powerless by inequality and poverty , cooperatives represent a viable economic option to change their lives (Dogarawa, 2005). Dogarawa (2005) base this on the philosophy that togetherness offer a group of people abundant opportunities to explore and achieve their goal, thus making cooperatives the strong, vibrant, and viable rural development option.

According to Dogarawa (2005) Cooperatives have withstood the test of 160 years as an effective way for people to exert control over their economic livelihoods. While historically, agricultural cooperatives have been a popular route taken to aid economic development a new trend is on the use of cooperatives in the

manufacturing sector as relevant supplements of economic development thus contributing to rural economic development (Brennan and Luloff, 2005).

Even in this modern global market economy, governments are considering cooperative economy as useful mechanisms to manage risk (Dogarawa, 2005). Cooperative strategy allows for the retention of decision-making in rural communities, thus contributing to social and economic well-being of rural communities (Brennan and Luloff, 2005). Accordingly the aforesaid achieved because cooperatives allows for the maximisation of local resources, namely human, economic, and natural and creation of sustainable economic development in areas that traditionally have had little opportunity.

## **2.4 OVERVIEW OF THE RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES OF SOUTH AFRICA**

The current rural development initiative is pursued at the backdrop of numerous rural development efforts. Scanning these is of critical insight to the depth of the challenges and the lessons to be learnt for this study.

### **2.4.1 PREAMBLE**

Poverty eradication, inequality and the high rate of unemployment remain the greatest challenges for rural development (RDP, 1994 and Shah, 2009). The government of the ANC since its 1994 democratic election has put to trial a number of poverty alleviation programmes through rural development projects.

Like in Pakistan these programmes have never delivered to expectation (Shah, 2001). As such the pace of development in rural areas has hardly been changed. This overview is thus intended to critically review these programmes as to establish the link with the current shift.



#### **2.4.2 APARTHEID REGIME APPROACH**

The prominent social, and economic intervention programme of the era is identified as 'betterment planning' programme fostered by the 1939 Proclamation 31 (Manona, 2005). This approach was more on land use conservation through reduction of rural livestock and controlled human settlements (Manona, 2005). The critical impact of betterment planning as argued by Manona included decrease in the extent of agrarian plots allocated to rural household, imposed limit on the livestock numbers and movement, and compulsory community restructuring. Africans in the process were systematically evicted from their land, confined to small designated settlements called reserves or white farms in various tenant relationships (Hendricks and Fraser 2003). Their competitiveness in this regard was completely removed, and every attempts of marketing their agricultural products, cruelly suppressed (Hendricks and Fraser, 2003).

As land shortage and population pressure started to take their toll, increase in underutilisation of arable fields and significant decline in cultivation practice successfully wrecked African agriculture (Hendricks and Fraser, 2003 and Manona, 2005). This was followed by an incremental reduction in livestock hence the high levels of rural poverty evident in the former homeland areas is attributed to this apartheid betterment settlement planning (Manona, 2005). This legacy, compellingly poses a question as to whether post-apartheid South Africa can be able to rehabilitate the impact (Hendricks and Fraser, 2003).

The apartheid government's subsequent attempt to redress rural poverty was through the establishment of parastatals, which were mainly located in Homelands area. Agricultural parastatals were a common strategy, were used to address poverty in the Bantustan (Kepe, 2005). These were focused on agricultural output namely irrigation schemes, agricultural co-operatives, and breeding schemes (Kepe, 2005 and Manona, 2005).

Kepe (2005) apportioned the failure of these projects to achieve their intended goals to their dependence on government funding. As the result these parastatals never resolved the problem of poverty nor the related economic, political or social issues

were addressed nor were the goals attained (Kepe, 2005).

### **2.4.3 RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME**

The basis for rural development strategy emanates from the broad structure of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010). This concept emanated from the democratic government establishment in 1994 to address the inequalities and acute poverty created by the apartheid government (Kole, 2005). Accordingly the programme aimed to overhaul the service delivery imbalances faced by South Africans in general and in particular those resident in rural settlements.

Regardless of the RDP policy guidelines, Kole (2005) argues that development programmes underpinned by RDP principles could not be sustained. The setback was identified as being poor coordination amongst agents and an absence of focus on engagement with beneficiaries of the programme (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010). The subsequent disestablishment of the RDP office meant that departments assigned the responsibility of implementing RDP programmes relating to their key performance areas were characterised by the absence of binding co-ordinating mechanisms (Olivier, Van Zyl and Williams, 2010). The unintended results were then unsynchronised methods of championing rural development (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010).

### **2.4.4 RURAL DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY**

Subsequently, renewed attempts to revive rural development were put in place under the leadership of the Rural Task Team (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010) which produced a 1995 “Rural Development Strategy” document. Underlining the strategy was a desire to create greater equality in rural settlements through tenure security, land restitution and reforms (Kole, 2010). Shortcomings with the strategy have been the absence of transversal monitoring and evaluation work (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010) and reduced focus on other components of rural development, other than infrastructure development (Kole, 2005). According to Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) the state weaknesses in the implementation were compounded by

an absence of a monitoring-evaluation policy and structures and systems needed to ensure the sustainability of providing rural development services. Despite certain achievements observed, this social intervention strategy was overwhelmed by troubles of organization and communication (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010).

#### **2.4.5 CONSTITUTION OF THE RSA OF 1996**

There are three sections in the Constitution of the Republic that set critical developmental obligations on the state. These sections direct the government to ensure equality; non-discrimination; human dignity and sustainable development underpinned by safe and healthy environmental (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010).

Section 239 establishes five state entities within the rural development environment, namely the Land Bank, the Agriculture Research Council, the Independent Development Trust, the National Development Agency and the proposed Rural Development Agency (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams, 2010).

The Constitution also makes reference to developments that are meant for supporting the concept of South Africa as a developmental state. Nonetheless Olivier, van Zyl and Williams (2010) critically remark that the Constitution does not hold a distinct integrated plan, indicating as to how these various references to development are linked to one another, nor does it provide proof of an integrated vision of how the perceived development must be achieved.

#### **2.4.6 INTEGRATED SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

The period 1999 to 2009 has been flooded by a numerous attempts by government aimed at rural development initiation across the country (Olivier, Van Zyl and Williams, 2010). Amongst these the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) was announced in the State of the Nation Address of 1999. The strategy was developed to address the shortfalls of uncoordinated and unsustainable efforts of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (Kole, 2005).

Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy as a strategy, not a programme, did not have a dedicated budget or tangible project-level deliverables (Kole 2005). Its focus was on coordination and integration of poverty alleviation through social programmes and transfers in a multi-dimensional space. ISRDS (2000) had identified the pervasiveness of poverty and poor service delivery as key focal challenges confronting rural communities (Olivier, van Zyl and Williams 2010). These were challenges, which the country was not able to resolve through the many rural projects that were put in place as instruments to fight poverty and rural underdevelopment.

Further exacerbating the plight of the rural poor identified in ISRDS (2000) was the lack of an empowerment programme for rural communities and centralised planning found inhibiting effective beneficiary participation. Since stakeholder participation remained minimal, even projects linked to the strategy could not be sustained or turned into self-sufficient long term projects (Kole, 2005). Instead, established rural infrastructure resultant from ISRDS became white elephants (Oliver, van Zyl and Williams, 2010).

#### **2.4.7 PROVINCIAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

Pursuant to the national policy framework for socio-economic planning, the Eastern Cape Provincial Government in the year 2004 formulated its own Provincial Growth and Development Plan (PGDP, 2004). The plan was hailed as an improvement from previous development plans that were sector-driven, disjointed and was considered a comprehensive bridge from the reactive planning of the past (PDGP, 2004).

This provincial growth plan was occasioned by the need to redress the wide-spread and deepening poverty in the province estimated to affect 67% of the Eastern Cape people; the less than optimal economic expansion estimated at 2.4% and stagnant job creation sector; the high level of joblessness estimated at 55%; the geographical, political & economic split between the previous Cape Provincial Administration and the former Bantustan Administration and to redress the service delivery co-ordination failures within the state (PGDP, 2004). As a development framework the plan was therefore seen in the context of creation of the Eastern Cape Province devoid of

inequalities and imbalances inherited from the past administration through an integrated and balanced development; enhancement of provincial growth and poverty eradication underpinned by human capital development.

Despite the articulations in the PGDP (2004), Kepe's (2005) review of the post-apartheid government rural economic development argues that the province is struggling to come up with new ideas on how to restructure or replace the ailing parastatal infrastructure left over from the previous government. In Magwa Tea, for example, economic, political and social issues remain unresolved to the extent that neither the problem of poverty is resolved, nor the other goals relating to economics, politics or social issues are achieved (Kepe, 2005). Alongside, Manona (2005) has concluded that the dual methodology of PGDP, of using agriculture for poverty reduction on the one hand, and economic development on the other, was not working and was compounding the rural development initiative.

Reviewing PDGP (2004), Hendricks and Fraser (2003) attest that flourishing industrial and service sectors are a requisite to sustainable economic development and eradication of rural and urban poverty. Nonetheless farming as cited a driver of PGDP is seen as having restrictions as an economic growth tool over the extended term horizon and in sustaining the continuing development of the province (Hendricks and Fraser, 2003).

## **2.5 PEOPLE'S PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME**

Process Approach to rural development requires that the local stakeholders are central drivers of their own development destiny (Kole, 2005). This option is also shared by contemporary Development theories, which advocate local planning and decision making. This topic seeks to provide the context and content therefore of People's Participation.

### **2.5.1 THE RATIONAL**

"In the 21st century, only nations that share a commitment to protect basic human rights and guaranteeing political and economic freedom everywhere will be able to

unleash the potential of their people and assure their future prosperity”, (Leve, 2007, p.11). Leve (2007) attest to human deprivation and poverty-related misery as influential risks to freedom from strife and social stability and therefore arguing that rural development, as a programme that is intended to lessen the number of poor people, decreases chances of social instability.

For rural development to be efficient and effective, democracy and decentralisation are critical conditions (Johnson, 2001). Accordingly Johnson argues that this is to make the state more responsive to local needs and aspirations; hence the improvement in systems of governance is in favour of efficient use of state resources. Pursuant to this the World Conference on Agrarian Reforms and Rural Development (WCARRD, 1979) declared people participation as a human right. Attributed to the declaration was a commitment to ensure political power is transferred to the marginalised in order for them to effectively participate in their economic and social development.

“The “failed development hypothesis” by Hill (2007) is indicative of a popular dissatisfaction with the government intervention programme as the result of irregular, unfinished, or inadequately executed development initiatives.” To prevent this WCARRD (1979) urged governments and donor agents to concede rights of self determination to rural populations by ensuring rural people are enabled to participate effectively in institutional development, implementation and evaluation of rural development programmes. Alongside, FAO (1992) blames failures of many rural development initiatives funded by the World Bank in Africa to a lack of participation by the rural poor in the development planning and an absence of an active role played in the development activities.

Supporting the notion is an argument that planning is the art and science of ordering the use of available resources in the manner that benefits the interest of society (Olsson, 1990). This suggests that decentralisation, participation, equitable allocation and use of local knowledge are the essential tenets of sustainable planning.

Shah (2009) critical review of the mid-seventies community development, integrated rural development and basic needs rural development approaches is a conclusion

that Government Agencies never produced the intended result of a substantial reduction in poverty. Dunmade (2010) in agreement remarks that, despite rural development having been a high priority of many developing countries governments and voluntary organizations, its success rate has been below expectation.

Dunmade (2010) and Shah (2009), attribute this failure to absence of active, effective and lasting participation by intended beneficiaries in the programme planning and implementation. Another cited contributor to rural development demise is the problem of rural development being everybody's business (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Accordingly Delius and Schirmer argue that rural development should be rural people's business for they are to set their own agenda, priorities and methods to achieve what rural development entails. The state and other actors on rural development should only institute structures that render support to rural people initiatives and thereby the pitfall that rural development is everybody's business, shall be avoided (Delius and Schirmer, 2001).

Pursuant to this, a form of stakeholder governance based on cooperation between community and other social actors, is a non- disputable prerequisite for sustainable development (Böcher, 2010). Kole (2005) remarks also that there is general consensus by global rural development practitioners that effective participation by rural communities in defining and designing their socio-economic intervention programme is critically necessary. According to Böcher (2010), this cooperation is not a given fact, but evolves before reaching a sustainable level and requires political engagement and tolerance. The path to sustainable cooperation is a critical aspect of this research project. Because such a coalition is an ingredient for a win-win solution to rural development and Böcher (2010), describes this solution as local partnership, which is to remain open to participation of newcomers rather than to establish a close shop entity.

Process approach to rural development by Ellis and Biggs (2001) describes rural development as a participatory process that should give power to rural households into taking control of their development. This argument is premised on a rise of the participatory methods of the 1980s, which evolved into participatory learning and action by the 1990s. Citing Long and Long (1992), Ellis and Biggs argue of the

actor-oriented perspective on rural policy as encouraging participation in rural development by the deprived people with a different understanding of the events of change in which they are involved.

The paradigm mapped above has subsequently seen an increase of non-governmental organisations as critical agents of rural development and gender elements positioning the experience of rural women as the results of rural politics that needed closing (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). This wave of change recognised the needed to help rural communities into organising themselves into social, economic and cultural institutions, needed to support their development programme (WCARRD, 1979).

Delius and Schirmer (2001) urge for a rural development approach that helps rural people to help themselves by building upon their organisational capacity as the rural poor. This is argued in Chu (2001) as establishment of social cohesion for economic development and deprivation eradication. Chu (2001) argues that the needed organisational capacity of the rural poor will help them to engage productively, thus reducing uncertainties amongst themselves. Such social cohesions are therefore critical societal instruments to channel economic and political transactions. Developing these institutions requires sensitivity to different role-player's culture, religion, traditions and socio-economic standing (Shah, 2009). The World Conference on Agrarian Reforms and Rural Development has hence affirmed people participation as essential for realignment of political power in favour of the marginalised group for social and economic transaction (Shah, 2009).

### **2.5.2 WHY IS PEOPLE PARTICIPATION ESSENTIAL?**

According to Harrison (2001), rural community, as a peasants' society has gone through a variety of imposed representation as though are derived from them. In most of such representations peasants had been categorised as either passive victims or an exploited class, or a mass of petty entrepreneurs and traditional communities (Harrison, 2009). Accordingly numerous dialect arguments about peasant community has occupied both a political and economic platform as whether it is extinct, or whether it has redefine its structure to be in line with the capitalist



force.

Given these assumptions, rural community participation in government intervention programmes has suffered a top-down management process, limiting communities into passive co-option and consultation rather than active agents (Brown, 2000). The resultant participation eventually doing very little to empower them and redress area of relational conflicts.

Needing acknowledgement is the fact that peasant society has not been evaporated by scourge of market and commodity forms, but has redefined itself to be able to diverge forces within a capitalist society (Harrison, 2001) and that rural development is a participatory practice that seeks to empower rural households in taking command of their destiny (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). These two scholars were taking the tune from Long and Long's (1992) actor oriented perspective. Accordingly the perspective advocate for participants in rural development as actor, with different understanding of the methods of transformation in which they are drawn in. For in colonial and apartheid times, state imposed development projects upset the peasant conditions of living with no clear or secure improvement in their living standard (Harrison, 2001). Peasants had resisted such development by confrontational rebellion, sabotage and subterfuge to purposively render those initiatives defunct (Kole, 2005).

### **2.5.3 HOW IS STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION PRACTICED?**

Brown (2000) argues that people participation should equal people's empowerment. Accordingly this empowerment entails a process by which people are enabled to take control over their problems and secure better livelihoods with their ownership of the productive assets as one critical element. Reinforcing the ideal, FAO (1992) argues that true participation by rural poor can be made possible when rural people themselves are made to pool their resources and efforts in pursuit of the objectives they set by themselves. Accordingly empowerment is a political and socio-economic resourcefulness of communities to secure their sustainable livelihood as the means to reconcile and influence their long-term development goals (Brown, 2000). Limiting rural people participation in the empowerment game however remains a lack of

social cohesion (FAO, 1992). This is so because rural people are isolated, under-educated, and dependent on the elite and lacking means to advance their cause (Brown, 2000).

For such social cohesion, Ahsan (2001) proposes that rural people must be encouraged to organise themselves into informal institutions underpinned by trust, community will and deepness of voluntary activism. Ke-young (2001) assert that institutions encourage individuals to engage in productive activities by providing incentives, establishing a stable structure of human interaction and reducing uncertainty. Accordingly institutional approach to development enables a multidisciplinary learning process. This is found possible in a societal environment where rural poor are organised into small, democratic and informal groups (FAO, 1992).

According to Ahsan (2001) developing social capital of a society requires the strengthening of the entirety of the social organs through 'rules' and 'conduct'. Given that many informal institutions evolve rather than being designed by man, how these evolutionary changes occur over time, is difficult to explain as this path does not resemble a Pareto enhanced evolution (Ahsan, 2001).

Böcher (2008) proposes a form of stakeholder governance that is a co-operation between communities and social actors. Governance in this regard is proposed as a tool responsible for setting the rules of the game, as against conducting the 'play of the game' (Ahsan 2001). Stakeholder governance as argued by Böcher (2008) is there for a win-win coalition. Because the plays must be conducted by rules, governance institutions become the necessary instruments to monitor performance and provide for any required restitution (Ahsan, 2001). The broadness of the governance scope includes every effort of ensuring that the ball is in play, personally and coercively (Ahsan, 2001).

Matthews (1989) in Ahsan (2001) notes the incremental character of institutional change and how these incompetent routes of change can persevere through time, mimicking a random walk principle. Adding on the notion is a gender paradigm advocating for women as actors the equal of men in the participation chain (Ellis and

Biggs, 2001).

## **2.6 CONCLUSION**

The review of prior studies and scholastic articles had been conducted to acquire some understanding of the concept Rural Development, and more specifically people participation, as a development paradigm. Although there is general agreement in the literature body about many of the models and approaches on rural development, there is however no minimal agreement on a theoretical framework to guide rural development strategies. This leaves a novice scholar with confusion and difficulty in the conceptualisation and application of the construct, rural development.

What is evident though, is a reality that the decade long economic growth in the country has done very little for rural people. Most scholars in the rural development field continue to agree that South Africa exists as a country of dual economies (PDGP, 2003; Olivier, Van Zyl and Williams 2010; Manona, 2005 and Hendricks & Fraser, 2003). In the same country the first economy individuals live side by side with the second economy individual. This being a true resemblance of the colonialism of a special type wherein the haves and the have not's shared in all material respects, the same territorial boundaries.

The challenge confronting the new initiative by the country, to transform rural settlement is perhaps to first postulate whether rural development would mean developing rural areas into rural economic sectors, uniquely designed and competitive enough to enter the global market and, whether indeed rural development can deliver to the ambition of its own products, service and associated market (van der Ploeg et al, 2000).

To this effect, most development scholars appear to agree that key to rural development will be a reconfigured rural land tenure system in order to enable rural people to make investment in their land (Kuhnen, 1982; Adams, Cousins and Manona, 1999, Harrison, 2001 and Delius and Schirmers, 2001). As existing land tenure arrangements are a sure impediment to the realisation of the rural development reconfiguration. A century old modernisation era has failed to remove

the communal land tenure system from the history of land ownership and management.

Cited as contributors to rural development lagging urban development, is the further commercialisation of rural labour at the expense of agrarian livelihoods, limited access to land by rural households for viable use of land as a tradable asset, and skew land distribution, which has a direct effect on prevalent rural poverty and inequality (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001; Hendricks and Fraser, 2003; Ellis and Biggs, 2001 and van der Ploeg et al, 2000). All these have left rural people dependent on remittances from the urban economy and government transfers. Notwithstanding this perspective, a true picture remains that the majority of rural households are still dependent on land for their livelihood (Rigg, 2009).

Further compelling the undertaking of comprehensive rural development programmes is the entrenched countryside deprivation and the persistent drain on rural community's possessions (Adams, Cousins and Manona, 1999). Thus threatening social cohesion and stability in situations highly characterised by severe overcrowding and contested rights and claims.

Emerging trends therefore propose that rural development be pursued alongside other non-agrarian activities for the construction of viable rural livelihoods (Ellis and Biggs, 2001). In this context Ellis and Biggs argue that rural poverty alleviation would not only depend on agricultural practice as a unique solution, but would follow a cross-sectional and multi-occupational diversification.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

---

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Nachmias and Nachmias (1987) define 'research methodology' as a system of open rules and trial through which a study is conducted and against which assertion for knowledge is measured. Accordingly this system of conventions and procedures is a normative component of a scientific methodology. These rules enable universal communication, constructive criticism and social science progress (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1987). According to Nachmias and Nachmias, methodology also provides for logic on the factual findings upon which a reliable inference can be drawn.

Pursuant to this understanding of research methodology, three different research methodologies have been explored in order to find a relevant fit for the study. Given the tenet of this study was to evaluate stakeholder participation in the government rural development programme and that the phenomenon studied was a social intervention programme, a qualitative methodology of research was then used. Thomas (2003) in supporting the choice argues that it allows for a research finding to flow from raw data collected through qualitative instruments.

With reference to the aim of evaluating stakeholder participation in the planning, execution, monitoring and evaluation, Clarke (1999) and Babbie (2004) propose an evaluation research approach. This is because the approach does not look for a discovery of new knowledge about the programme, but to study the effectiveness of the social intervention programme thus helping to improve its functioning. Evaluation research accordingly seeks to address the descriptive, normative and cause and effect categories of research questions (Clarke, 1999).

A case study approach was adopted to evaluate the subject of interest as it is capable to provide for the utilization of various tools of research to acquire

information about the subject of the research (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003 and Robson, 2002)

In this regard a self-completed standard questionnaire was used to draw responses from respondents on a representative sample of the stakeholders. Both the research methodology and research instruments were used on the assumption that they would provide a self-sufficient and new viewpoint about the programme.

### **3.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE CASE**

Mhlontlo Municipality is a category “B4” rural municipality situated in the north eastern part of the Eastern Cape Province. It is covering a total of 282,614 square km with a population density of 73.3 people per square km (IDP, 2010 – 2011). Of its population 96% living in rural settlements, with only 4% categorised as urban dwellers. Characterising rural settlements is 71% of the households that are pure traditional dwellings with only 29% categorised as semi-modern dwelling (IDP 2010-2011).

Statistically the municipality has 9% HIV/Aids infections. This statistics however do not account for how many are under treatment and the accessibility of such treatment. The municipality literacy level is 21% with 65% having not gone beyond grade 12 (IDP, 2010-2011). According to the IDP (2010-2011) 73% of the total population is living in poverty with a Gini Coefficient of 0.67 as a measure of poverty level.

The Municipality IDP (2010-2011) acknowledges some significant improvements in health infrastructure in the form of clinics and hospitals. Remaining a feature of poverty trapped society, is the levels of service rendered by those facilities. IDP (2010-2011) argues that a ratio of 1:70,000 doctor to patient is a critical reality confronting health systems in the area.

Municipality IDP (2010-2011) describes school infrastructure as made up of 229 prefabricated structures, 378 mud structures, 41 wood structures and 13 metal structures. This infrastructural backlog is responsible for the appalling pass rate in

grade 12 and is an indication of the severe effects of school infrastructure setbacks. Compounding the situation in the area is the absence of essential basic infrastructural like sanitation, electricity, water, and rural roads network.

### **3.3. AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study was to evaluate stakeholder participation in the rural development programme planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. In resolving this research problem, three research objectives were set to:

- Investigate the involvement of local stakeholders in the initiation and design of the provincial Rural Development Programme in Mhlontlo Municipality.
- Examine the levels of participation by the local stakeholders in the programme implementation.
- Assess the conclusions by the stakeholders on the programme results

### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

In this section, three methodologies of conducting research are explored in order to inform the study research approach and strategy. This is followed by an explanation of the nature of the research instrument, its design and testing.

#### **3.4.1 METHODOLOGY**

In any research work, research methodology is essentially an indispensable tool for consideration. This is because it enables a determination of the kind of data needed in order to make meaning of the research problem (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Accordingly, three research methodologies are then explored in this section.

##### **3.4.1.1 INTRODUCTION**

In setting up a research plan, it is essential for a researcher not only to choose a feasible research problem, but also to be able to consider the kind of data to be investigated (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Qualifying this assertion, Leedy and Ormrod argue that data collection about a particular problem requires viable means

of collecting and interpreting the data. Accordingly, this is done to avoid a research programme, beginning with a good problem statement but eventually prove to lack practical data for collection and interpretation (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). Given this assertion, it has been important to begin this section with a comparative review of the research methodologies in order to select the best to address the research problem.

According to Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler (2005) the differentiation between the types of research methodologies is based on the kind of information required to study a phenomenon. There are therefore no pre-determinates as to which methodology is more suitable as often in new situations a research would start with a qualitative study exploring the new phenomenon and subsequently follow with a quantitative study to test the validity of propositions (Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2005).

Quantitative methodology is mostly associated with science and relies more on quantitative information, because in science there are certain patterns of relationship between things that occur with rigidity deemed to be laws (Berg, 2004 and Blumberg, Cooper and Schindler, 2005). Social science on the other hand does not have such prescriptions, but rather social life operates within fairly regular patterns of substantial logic (Berg, 2004). Social science research therefore is to make sense of different patterns obtained through creating, probing, testing and refining theory (Berg, 2004). In this context, the theory of qualitative research is seen as articulating attempts to explain reality; to classify and organise events; describe them and predict future occurrences (Berg, 2004).

According to Berg (2004) qualitative research methodology is seeking to respond to problems by probing societal settings and the people who dwell in these settings. This means that qualitative researchers are often curious of how human beings organise themselves and their settlements, and to interrogate patterns of people behaviour (Berg, 2004).



### **3.4.1.2 QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY**

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) describe quantitative research methodology as a method used to probe a relationship between variables measured in order to illustrate, predict and govern a phenomena hence often referred to as the usual, investigational and positivist methodology.

Both quantitative and qualitative approaches employ similar processes of formulating hypothesis, reviewing literature, collecting data and analysing it, but differ by quantitative study ending with confirmation or disproval of the hypothesis tested (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005).

Concurrently Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003) argue that quantitative research involves numerical data to help someone provide answers to research questions and making the research meet its research objectives. This numerical data is a quantitative data hence the approach (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003).

### **3.4.1.3 QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY**

Berg (2004) defines qualitative methodology as research strategy suitable to provide answers to societal problems and the people affected by those problems. The methodology is a social science tool that is more focused on how people interact and are organised. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) the methodology focuses on the phenomenon that occurs in natural settings by studying it in all its complexity.

Accordingly the methodology encompasses the techniques that are non-statistical, but are ideal for an analysis of a social environment through an explanation of a social setting studied. Bryman (1984) view the methodology as not looking so much for the causes, but seeking to uncover the meaning of social events, and its processes based upon understanding the live experience of human society from the actor's point of view.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) describe the methodology as encompassing several approaches to data acquisition hence a suggestion that there is little to avoid being

perceptive, susceptible and partial with qualitative research methodology. Although this assertion is in contrast to those who attest to maintaining objectivity in all research projects, advocates of qualitative research methodology namely Eisner (1998), Moss (1996) and Wolcott (1994) cited in Leedy and Ormrod argue that although objectivity is appropriate for the studying of physical events, but it is not the case when studying human events.

In this regard Finch (1986) argues that qualitative research is a phenomenological one, where the actor's standpoint is the practical point of departure and the focus is on the real life experiences of people. Hence the methodology enabling the discovering of narrative findings and the possibility of altering the research plans in the event of accidental discovery (Finch, 1986).

#### **3.4.1. 4 TRIANGULATION METHODOLOGY**

A new paradigm in research methodology is a debate on how qualitative and quantitative research methodologies can be combined in research work so as to triangulate findings (Blaikie, 1991). Blaikie argues that the use of triangulation method is a quest to overcome the problems of research bias and validity posed by the exclusive use of the two contrasting methodologies. According to Olsen (2004), triangulation is not only aimed at simple validation of research results, but also at deepening and widening the scholar's wisdom. Blaikie (1991) further states that triangulation stands to overcome the deficiencies of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies by capitalising on their individual strengths. This ensures that research is interdisciplinary, complete and useful in the socially situated environment of data collection (Olsen, 2004).

Bryman (2006) defines triangulation as entailing an assumption that quantitative and qualitative research methodologies may be combined to triangulate findings thus made mutually corroborative. Jick (1979) defines it as a mix of research methodologies in the study of the same research problem.

Critics however argue that triangulation is to be applied to natural ontological and epistemological assumptions with varying theories and methods (Blaikie, 1991).

Others are of opinion that there are few guidelines on 'how, when and why different research methods may be combined' (Bryman 2006, p.16). A further limitation associated with triangulation is insufficient detail on how convergent data can be collected and interpreted (Jick, 1979).

Needless of the critical arguments advanced above, social science needs a more integrated epistemology than two competing one (Olsen, 2004). In social science triangulation finds more use in the validation of the process to ensure that variances reflected are of the traits not the methods used (Jick, 1979) and as such qualitative and quantitative methods should be regarded as complementary, rather than rival.

In putting triangulation in practice Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) propose that a set of practical research designs need to be embraced. This practical research design required by a scientific reality that for a research to produce results must based on a routine approach of combining two research methodologies beginning at research design stage (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006). Available are two approaches namely priority decision approach and sequence decision approach. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) describes priority decision approach as meaning a decision taken on a principal method with the other becoming a complementary method. Sequence decision approach requires a decision as to whether the complementary method should precede or follows the principal method.

### **3.4.2 CHOSEN RESEARCH APPROACH**

The tenet of this study was to evaluate stakeholder participation in the government rural development programme piloted in Mhlontlo Municipality. The phenomenon investigated is a social intervention programme to which Thomas (2003) recommends qualitative methodology of research. According to Thomas (2003), the methodology allows for study outcomes to flow from recurrent and dominant themes common in raw data collected through qualitative instruments.

Equally Leedy and Ormrod (2005) recommend a qualitative research methodology, because it provides for studying this social phenomenon in all its complexity. In agreement, Finch (1986) attests that qualitative research approach allows for the

study of social problems on small scale through a non–statistical method from which a researcher may explain the social world studied.

An in-depth evaluation of the subject was then pursued through an evaluation research approach proposed by Clarke (1999) and Babbie (2004). As a purpose research method (Babbie, 2004) evaluation research is distinguished from other research methodology by the purpose it seeks to serve (Clarke, 1999). It is a type of research strategy designed to enable programme drivers make wise decisions about the future of the programme (Clarke, 1999).

Clarke (1999) and Patton (1986), thereto define evaluation research as “a systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcomes of a programme for use by specific people to reduce uncertainty, and improve effectiveness of the programme. Babbie (2004) defines it as a practice of monitoring a social intervention programme that it has yielded to the set goals. Programme evaluation research is therefore meant to evaluate the impact of a social intervention programme (Babbie, 2004). Accordingly, social Intervention being a purposeful undertaking within a social context toward a social problem for the purpose of producing some intended results.

Evaluation theory would therefore relate to discovering the functionality of a social intervention programme; whereas a social intervention programme entails a systematic response to a perceived problem pressure (Clarke, 1999). By this statement Clarke implies that evaluation research is about the implementation, operation and effectiveness of policy position designed to bring about change.

Both Clarke (1999) and Babbie (2004) state that evaluation research does not seek to discover new knowledge about the programme instead is to study the effectiveness of the social intervention programme and helps to improve the programme functioning.

### **3.4.3 RESEARCH STRATEGY**

A case study as a tool of research is adopted to gather facts about the subject (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2003 and Robson, 2002). Both scholars define a

case study as a plan for undertaking a study which involves a practical examination of an occurrence within its real-life situation by means of a multiple source of evidence. According to Richardson's (1993) a case study, "Builds a halfway house between abstract concepts and the real life experience". It thus provides the basis to connect managerial and ethical conference (Falkenberg and Worceshym, 2007).

Richardson (1993) sees a case study as able to describe the problem and inspire the researcher to look for a solution. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) it remains a useful tool for investigating how society over time responds to circumstances.

Grosov and Sardy, (1985) assert that a case study is of use when a researcher's aim is to acquire some insight into background, present and circumstantial connections of a particular occurrence. According to Berg (2004) a case study involves a systematic method of gathering information about social settings to enable a researcher to comprehend the functionality of a subject. He sees a case study not only as technique, but rather a practical process that involves a number of data collection measures.

The case study method will then help the evaluation of the subject of interest in this regard as it remains a technique that provides for the utilisation of various tools of research to acquire information about the subject of research.

#### **3.4.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

Regardless of the type of instrument to be used to collect research data, research instrument should be carefully designed before put to use. This will assist to determine the nature of information do to gather in order to explicate research questions. In this topic research design and its pilot testing are explained.

##### **3.4.4.1 DESIGN**

As a data collecting tool, the questionnaire technique has become a research instrument of choice. According to Saunders, et al (2003) the instrument enjoys wide application in areas of experimentation and case study research. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill describe a questionnaire as an inclusive technique of information gathering, whereby respondents are subjected to the same set of questions in a

prearranged order. It is an economical method of data collection from a substantial large sample and available tool through which to reach out to a sufficient number of participants (Golafshani, 2003).

A questionnaire, according to Saunders, et al (2003) can be best put into use for descriptive research wherein it can assist to identify and describe the inconsistency in different phenomena. Also of importance is the fact that it is a carefully designed questionnaire that promises a high response rate, validity and reliability of data. Golafshani (2003) agreeing with this assertion, argues that a well-crafted questionnaire can successfully collect information on an overall performance of the test system, as well as data on precise components. This well designed instrument being the one that guarantees validity and reliability of results (Gomm, 2008). Gomm (2008) defines these two concepts as meaning objective tools of scientific research judgement. Validity is accordingly whether the instrument will measure the variable of interest as accurately as purported.

For evaluation of stakeholder participation a comment from Faham, Hosseini and Darvish (2008) is that a questionnaire should begin with a respondent's demographics. Participation analysis then follows Faham, Hosseini and Darvish's (2008) suggestion, by searching for participation in the planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. Golafshani (2003) in addition argues for the inclusion of demographic questions for the participants in the questionnaire, which can be employed to compare results and approval of the test system.

For measuring of the mentioned variables, respondents were given a matrix to rate each variable of the participant's demographic profile and participation in rural development programmes.

#### **3.4.4.2 PILOT TESTING AND MODIFICATION**

As suggested by Golafshani (2004), the research tool was designed through a sequence of steps that included reference to existing instruments and use of empirical data. Participatory questions followed from the suggestion by Faham, Hosseini and Darvish (2008) on questioning of participation in the planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. Following this has been an intense

review by the supervisor before the questionnaire was put to pre-testing and piloting. Pilot testing according to Berenson and Levine (1996) ensures that the research instrument is logically organised, clear and can capture the data needed to respond to the research questions. The questionnaire was then pilot tested on a sample of five respondents within the population group that is the target for the study. These individuals were given the cover letter and questionnaire and asked to fill it in. Behavioural reaction such as indecision, skipping questions and asking one another were then noted.

Following pilot testing, the questionnaire was modified for ease of understanding and logical flow of content questions. The questionnaire was subsequently reviewed to accommodate traditional leaders and ward committees who earlier were to be the subject of an interview given their competency levels to respond to the questionnaire. The purpose of pilot testing the questionnaire was to check whether questions were understood as intended, that the question sequence is logical to the respondents, and to guard against other surprises. Based on the pre-test and pilot testing it has been concluded that the questionnaire had satisfactory test—retest consistency and internal reliability.

### **3.4.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLE SIZE**

Brown (2000) argues that people participation should equal people empowerment. FAO (1992) argues that true participation by rural poor can be made possible when rural people themselves are made to pool their resources and efforts in pursuit of the objectives they set by themselves. Limiting rural people participation in the empowerment game however remains as a lack of social cohesion (FAO, 1992). For such social cohesion, Ahsan (2001) proposes that rural people must be encouraged to organise themselves into informal institutions based trust, community will, and deepness of voluntary activism. Ke-young (2001) asserts that institutions encourage individuals to engage in useful activities by providing incentives, establishing a stable structure of human interface and thus reduces uncertainty.

Given this theoretical basis, five stakeholder institutions were identified to be of existence in Mhlontlo for survey. These five stakeholder institutions being the Community Development Workers, Ward Committees, Ward Councillors, Traditional

Leaders and Municipal Officials. These are public participation institutions that are statutory, rurally orientated and widely used for consultative purposes. They were selected because of their representativeness of the larger rural community of Mhlontlo Municipality.

A representative sample of 90 individuals was then purposively sampled and provided with questionnaires to fill at different encounters. Purposive sampling was adopted because random sampling could have failed to yield informative results (Mabry, 2008). Sixty four (64) respondents from the ninety (90) targeted respondents returned their questionnaires completed.

#### **3.4.6 TARGET FOR THE RESEARCH**

In studying stakeholder participation in rural development programmes, rural communities became the target for this research. Arguing in favour of rural choice Harrison (2001) attests to rural people often suffering imposed representation and Brown (2000) arguing that they are subjected into a passive co-option or consultation rather than being active agents.

A case study of Mhlontlo Municipality as a provincial pilot was then conducted. Of target for participation evaluation were available public participation institutions which are highly representative of rural people. By the Municipal Demarcation Act (1998), the municipality has a total of 26 wards resulting in it having 26 ward based public representatives; the ward councillors. These councillors are directly accountable to their individual's rural constituencies and are entrusted with the responsibility to identify the needs of the communities and consider the prioritised needs through an IDP (Municipal Structures Act, 1998).

Also assigned a community mobilisation responsibility and service delivery monitoring in the 26 wards are Community Development Workers. These were established upon the proclamation made by President Mbeki in his state of the nation address in 2003. Announcing these, the president said: "We are determined to ensure that government goes to the people so that we sharply improve the quality of the outcomes of public expenditures intended to raise the standards of living of our people" (SONA, 2003, p.10). CDW are seen by the government as essential for



the removal of developmental bottlenecks; reinforcement of public participation in government programmes and mobilisation of the poor into an organised voice (CDW Handbook, 2003).

Municipal Structures Act (1998) also establishes ward committees by directly elected community representatives. Their role in terms of the act is to identify needs of their respective constituencies within the wards and ensure that those needs are captured in the municipality IDP through their ward councillor.

Fourth are municipality officials in the Local Economic Development unit of the municipality. These are better placed to show interest in the programme as their functional area links directly to the programme's functioning. The units had thus been identified as participatory institutions in this regard.

Fifth, associated with rural settlement is a historic, established and recognised institution of traditional leadership. This institution continues to hold influence over rural communities and has custodian control over the rural land which the programme seeks to transform.

The five groups above are what this study describes as primary stakeholders. People in these groups reside within rural communities, hence this development affecting them directly. Common about them is their interest that there is development in Mhlontlo, but the groups remains diverse and sometime competitive over who holds hegemony over the communities they represent. Primary data was then collected by means of a questionnaire administered to ninety (90) respondents randomly selected across the institutions stated.

### **3.5 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS**

The case data is mainly made up of primary data, with its main source being participants in the research to whom a questionnaire was administered. Participants were supplied with self-completed standard questionnaires and each questionnaire was accompanied by a consent letter stipulating the rights of participants.

Participants were advised that there was no known harm to them participating in the study, that their participation is voluntary and are free to withdraw at any given time.

The descriptive nature of questions led to descriptive data collected. This being data taking the form of words rather than numbers. Data collection and analysis were jointly pursued given that the researcher worked simultaneously within an environment of processes, rather than a sequence of distinct linear steps (Bochke, 2001).

Case data was then collected from a representative sample drawn from population structures (Greenfield, 2002). The approach being purposive sampling as qualitative study often concerns the statistical facts not the sampling units (Bochke, 2001). Accordingly each individual participant within a population structure was sampled by probability sampling to reduce bias. This enabled each participant in the structure to have a non-zero chance to be selected. Descriptive statistics was then a basic instrument of analysis.

Often data collected from qualitative research methodology is voluminous hence Creswell (1994) in Saunders, Lewis and Schindler propose that data analysis is conducted simultaneously with data collection, interpretation and narrative reporting. This implies simultaneous activities of collecting information from the field, sorting it into categories and formatting it into story picture and qualitative text.

### **3.6 FIELDWORK**

Consent to conduct research work with Mhlontlo Municipality stakeholders was secured from the Mayor and the Speaker respectively. With the consent from these council authorities, municipal officials under public participation programmes co-operated to the extent that the researcher was allowed access to a ward committee training session, municipal officials arranged for questionnaire distribution and public participation events utilised for distribution of other questionnaires to traditional leaders and ward councillors. From the sampled ninety (90) participants sixty four (64) responded sufficiently.

### **3.7 CONCLUSION**

The methodology described in the preceding sections has helped in understanding what was to be discussed in this chapter. With the intent of the evaluation research being to determine fundamentals societal forces that influence rural development, the approach allowed the researcher to assume naturalistic environment where the 'actors' involved in the social practice may be found.

Based on these tools of research, data for qualitative analysis was then collected and subsequently analysed to generate meaning from it. The descriptive nature of the research questions suggested of descriptive statistics as suitable tools to describe and explore relationships amongst the data.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

---

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

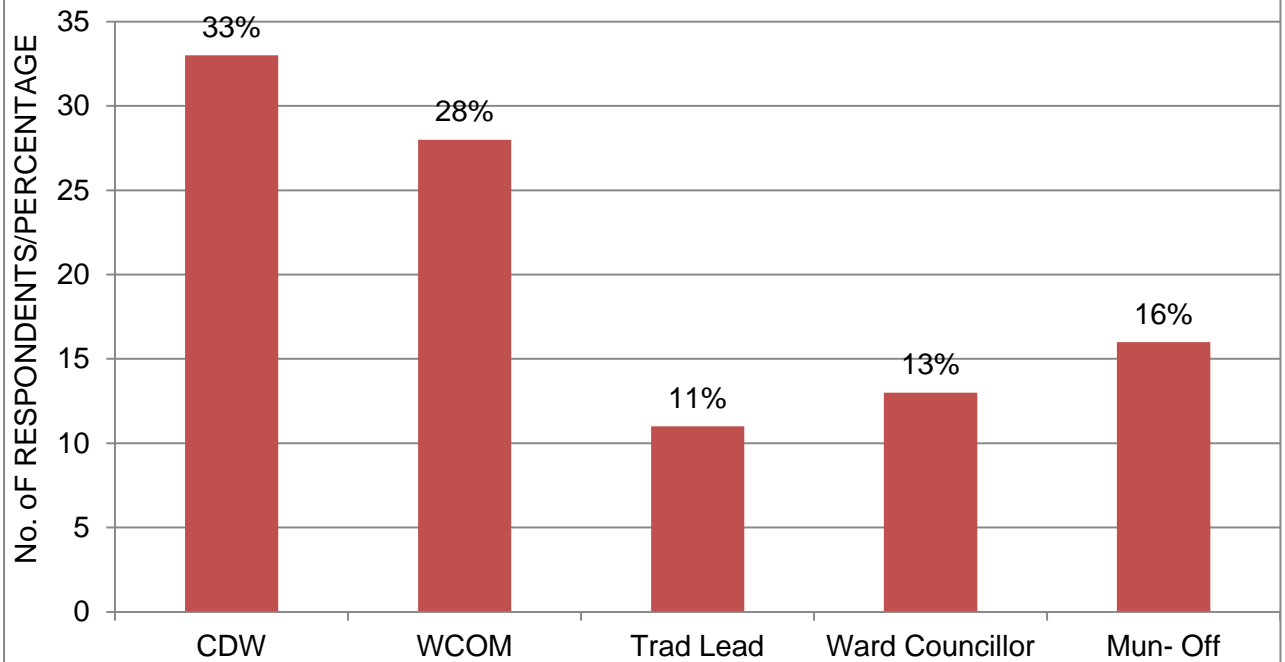
A self-completed questionnaire was the only data collection instrument used for this study. The questionnaire presented the respondents with four main elements of participation evaluation namely: demographic profile, programme definition and design, programme execution/ implementation and programme monitoring and evaluation. Independent variables measured were then tabulated under each element and are sufficiently reflected in the results tables and figures.

For data analysis, descriptive statistics was used. Descriptive statistical mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variance were all calculated for each rating. Standard Deviation and Coefficient of Variance were mainly used to test the reliability of the mean in describing the research results. These results are first explained in narrative and then presented in table and graphical form for reference and completeness.

#### 4.2 ANALYSIS OF RESPONDENTS DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The self-completed questionnaire was administered to a total of 90 respondents in a purposive sample made up of participants from Community Development Works, Ward Committees, Ward Councillors, Traditional Leaders and Municipality Officials. A total of 64 respondents completed their questionnaires out of the target population of 90. This represents a 71% response rate. According to figure 4.2.1 below the biggest response was from Community Development Workers (33%), followed by ward committees (28%) and least was from traditional leaders (11%), just below councillors (13%). Municipal Officials are at third position representing 16% of the total respondents.

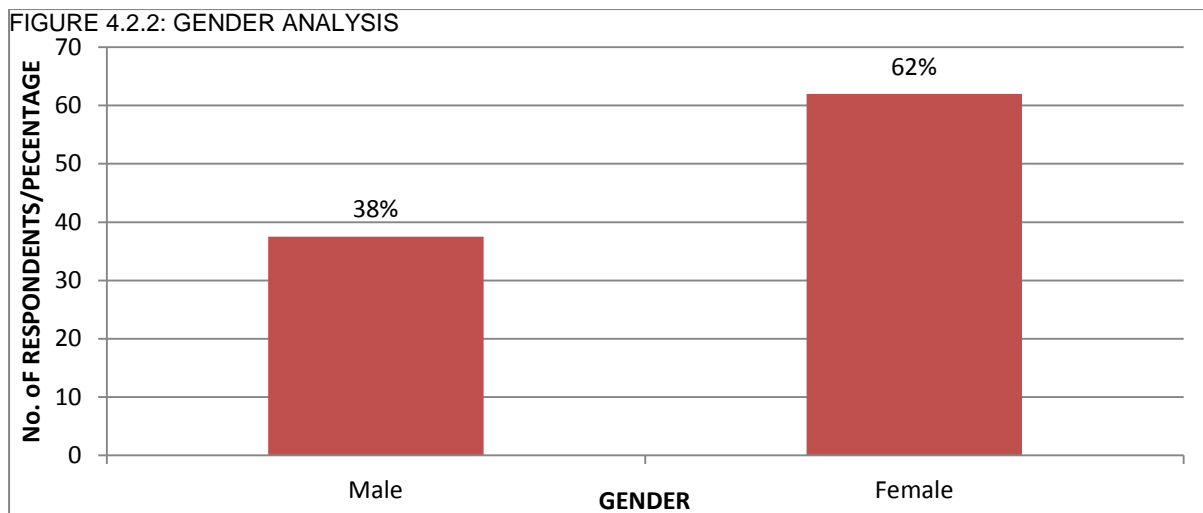
FIGURE 4.2.1: RESPONDENTS DISTRIBUTION



NB: CDW :- Community Development Worker : WCOM: - Ward Committee : Trad . Lead :-Traditional Leader : Wcounc. :-Ward Councillor : Mun- Off :-Municipality Official

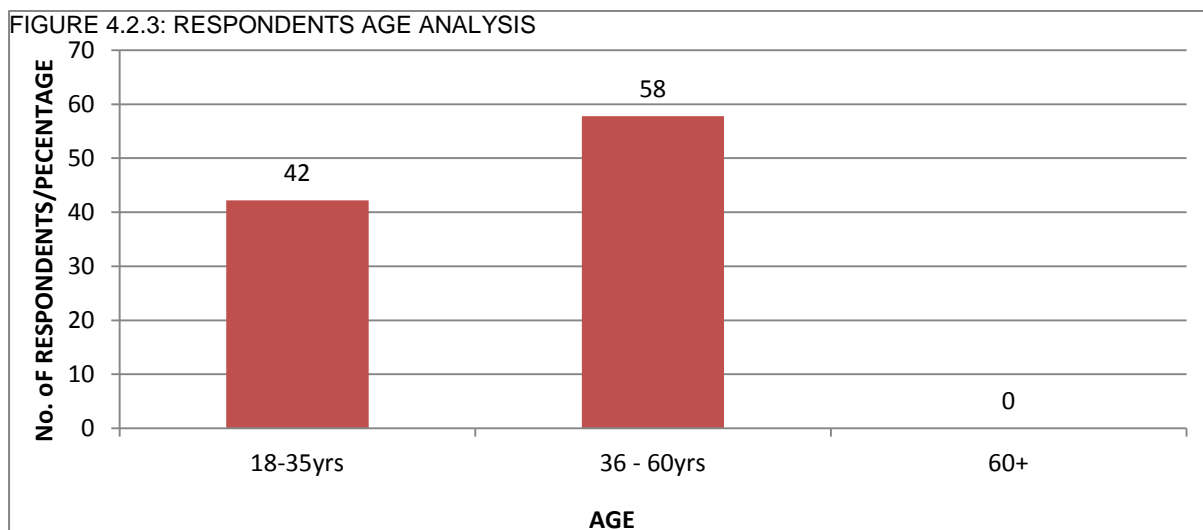
**Gender:** Analysis of results by gender shows a huge participation gap between female and male respondents. Results indicate that female respondents made up 62% of the total number responded as against males 38%. See figure 4.2.2 below.

FIGURE 4.2.2: GENDER ANALYSIS



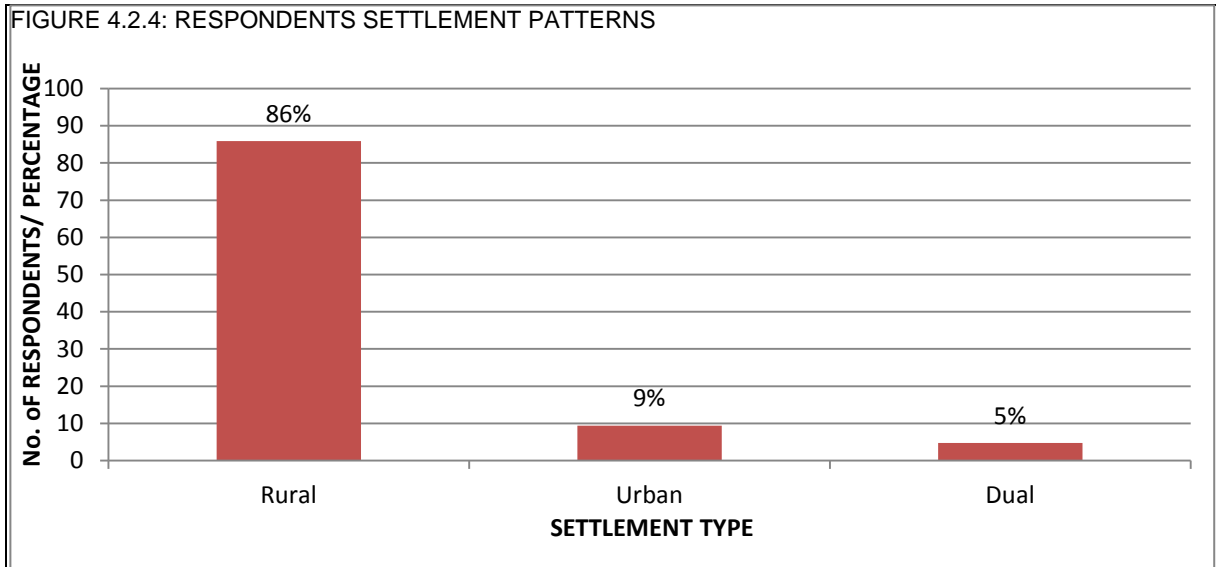
**Age:** Results of age group analysis show marginal differences between the two groups of naturally active individuals. Participation spread indicates that 58% of the total respondents were age between 36 – 60 years, with the remaining 42% reporting that they were between 18 -36 years of age (See figure4.2 3).

FIGURE 4.2.3: RESPONDENTS AGE ANALYSIS



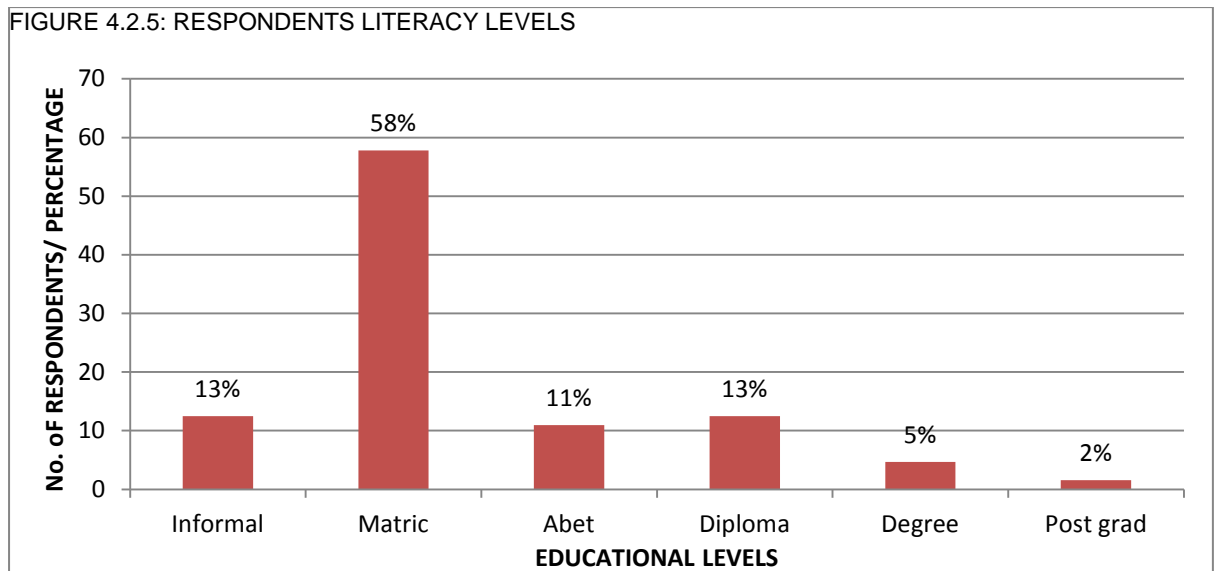
**Residence:** On settlement analysis the results suggest that a significant number of respondents were from rural settlements, with 86% responding as such. Very few have reported to be of dual settlement 5% while 9% has indicated their permanent areas of residence as urban. These results are attributed to purposive sampling which was rural bias to effectively test rural community participation in a programme designed to solve their socio-economic problems. In this regard reference is made to figure 4.2.4.

FIGURE 4.2.4: RESPONDENTS SETTLEMENT PATTERNS



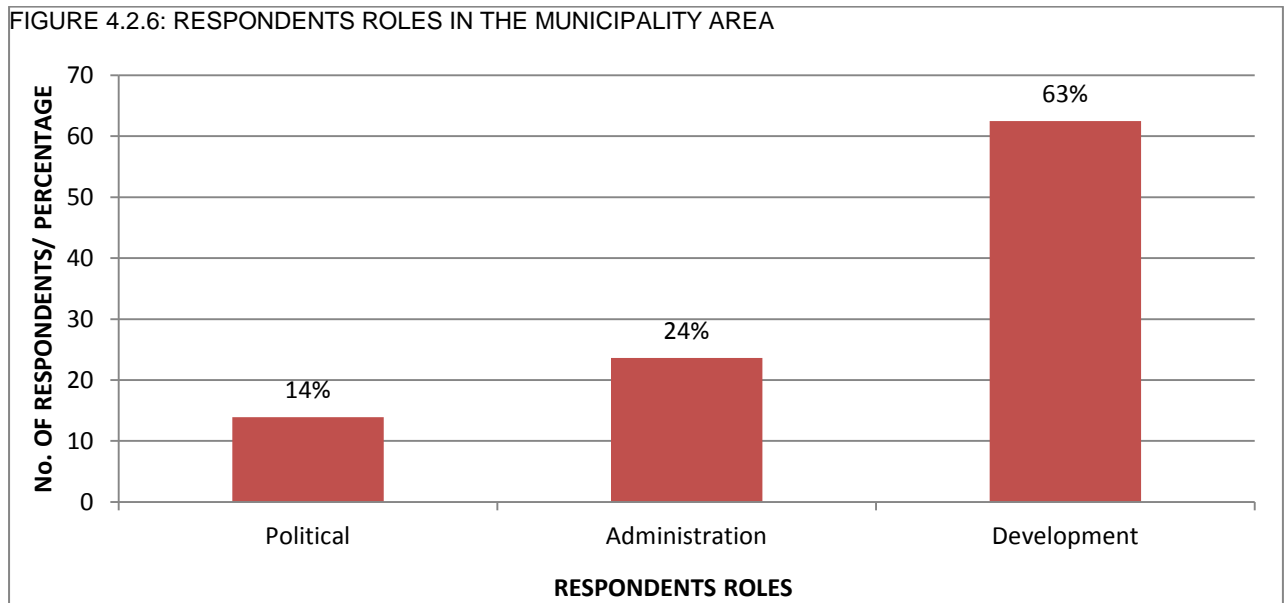
**Educational:** IDP (2010-2011) places literacy level of the area at 21% of the total population. The results of this study support the IDP sentiments of very low literacy in the area. Respondents with no formal education constituted 13% of the results. The majority of the participants sat at High School qualification (58%). The remaining respondents' qualifications range from Abet (11%), Diploma (13%), Degree (5%) and Postgraduate (2%). (See figure 4.2.5).

FIGURE 4.2.5: RESPONDENTS LITERACY LEVELS



**Role:** Another demographic feature that shows significant influence on the respondent participation has been what the respondents define as their functional role in the area. Most respondents have responded that their role in the area is

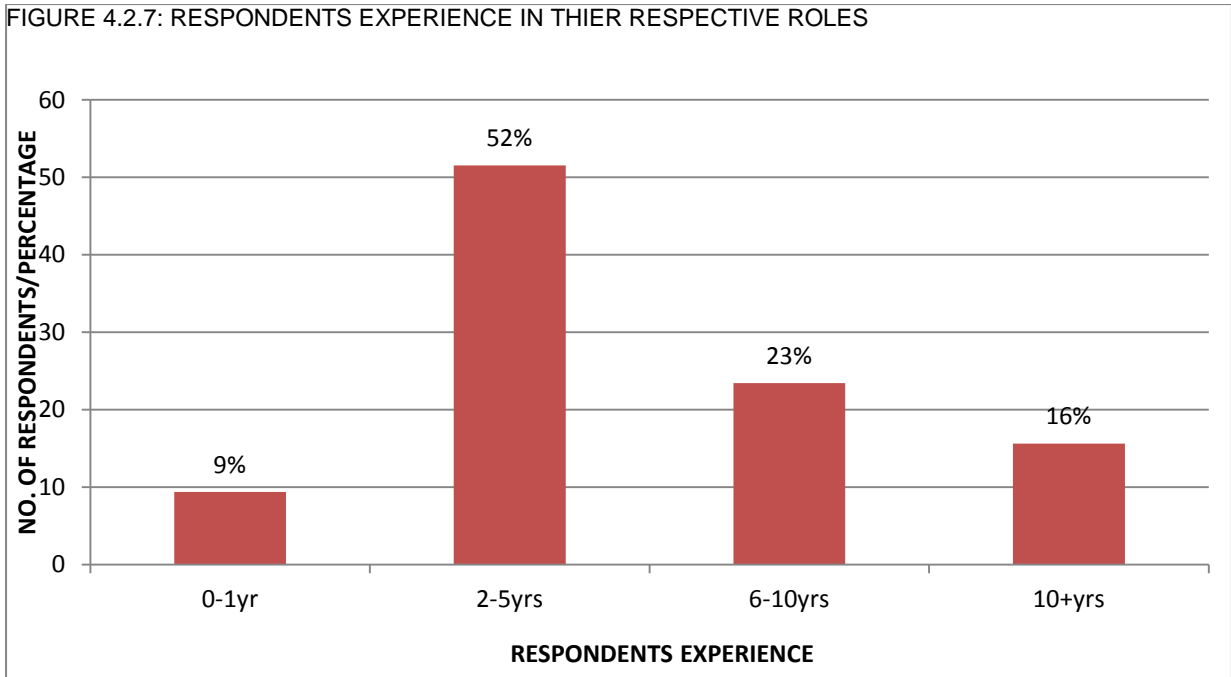
developmental. Only 14% of respondents have defined their role as political. Those who described their area of responsibilities as providing administrative support constituted 24% and the rest (62%) reporting that they are doing development work. The extent of the questionnaire however, was not to explore the nature and depth of involvement in development work. Some respondents have responded that their responsibilities are dual across different functions tested (See figure 4.2.6).



**Experience:** In their respective roles, the majority at 52% were respondents whose experience ranged between 2-5 years. Very few have responded that have experience of less than a year at 9%. The results confirm the fact that the ward councillors and ward committees have just been recently elected into their areas of responsibilities with some being re-elected. Equally for Community Development Workers some had just been appointed. On the majority Community Development Workers, Traditional Leaders and Municipality officials can be said to have experience ranging from 6 – 10 years and 10+ at 23%and 16% respectively. See figure 4.2.7

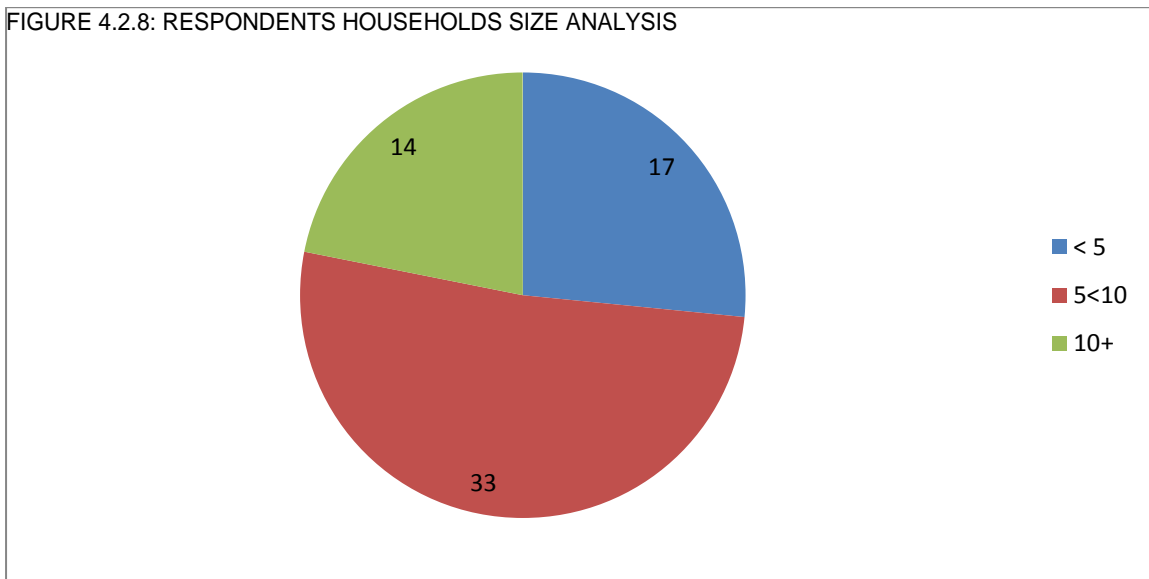


FIGURE 4.2.7: RESPONDENTS EXPERIENCE IN THIER RESPECTIVE ROLES



Analyses of respondents based on household size appear to follow a normal distribution curve. In the centre are respondents at 52% who claim their household size ranges from five (5) persons to ten (10) persons. On the left at household size five (5) and less with 27% of respondents while on the right at 22% were respondents of household size 10 or greater. See figure 4.2. 8. Below.

FIGURE 4.2.8: RESPONDENTS HOUSEHOLDS SIZE ANALYSIS



### 4.3 ANALYSIS OF PROGRAMME DEFINITION AND DESIGN PARTICIPATION

TABLE 4.3.1: Programme Definition and Design Participation

STATEMENT	MEAN	SD	CV	RANK
6. Participation on Setting the Programme Annual Target	12.8	3.83	0.30	1
5. Participation on Programme Risks Identification	12.80	5.26	0.41	2
4. Participation on Rural Opportunity Identification	12.80	6.83	0.53	3
7. Participation in Developing the Programme Action Plan	12.80	6.94	0.54	4
3. Participation on Review of Previous Social Intervention Programme	12.80	8.98	0.70	5
2. Participation on Alignment of Current Programme with Previous Programmes	12.80	10.03	0.78	6
1. Participation in Defining the Problem	12.8	12.03	0.94	7

Table 4.3.1: shows that participation in the programme definition and design at setting annual targets has ranked No. 1 based on its lowest Coefficient of Variance. Participation in programme risks, and rural development opportunities identification taking second and third respectively, while participation in developing the programme action plan, review of previous social intervention programmes, alignment of the current programme with previous programmes and defining the problem ranked from 4 to 7 respectively.

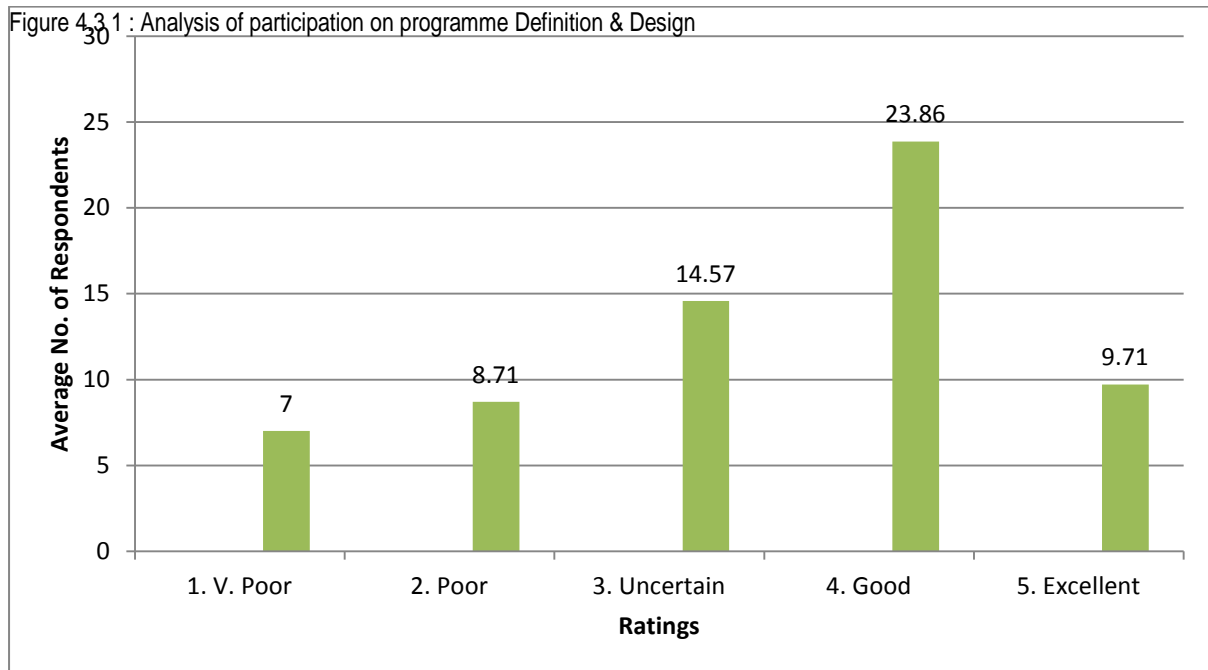
TABLE 4.3.2: Analysis across Programme Definition and Design Participation Elements

STATEMENT \ RATING	1. V. Poor	2. Poor	3. Uncertain	4. Good	5. Excellent
Participation in Defining the Problem	1	8	12	33	10
Participation on	2	9	17	28	8

Alignment of Current Programme with Previous Programmes					
Participation on Review Previous Social Intervention Programme	9	9	20	24	2
Participation on Rural Opportunity Identification	6	5	16	20	17
Participation on Programme Risks Identification	8	10	18	18	9
Participation on Setting the Programme Annual Target	14	11	10	19	10
Participation in Developing the Programme Action Plan	9	9	9	25	12
MEAN	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>10</b>
STANDARD DEVIATION	<b>4.47</b>	<b>1.89</b>	<b>4.24</b>	<b>5.40</b>	<b>4.50</b>
COEFFICIENT OF VARIANCE	<b>0.64</b>	<b>0.21</b>	<b>0.28</b>	<b>0.23</b>	<b>0.45</b>
Ranking	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>

On average, the majority of respondents (24) rate participation at programme definition and design as good and these results rank No. 2 in terms of the results measure of variation being the second lowest. Fifteen (15) respondents at an average are those who are uncertain about participation at this level of the programme. These results ranked No. 3 by coefficient of variance. Nine (9)

respondents rated programme participation on programme definition and design as poor and ranks No.1 at lowest coefficient of variance. Seven (7) and Ten (10) respondents are two extremes rating participation as very poor and excellent respectively. (See table 4.3.2 above). Results variation rankings 1, 2 and 3 by Coefficient of Variance indicates that the mean as a measure of central tendency is reliable, while results ranking 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> are indications of wide dispersion amongst respondents as to participation was very poor or excellent.



#### 4.4 PROGRAMME EXECUTION / IMPLEMENTATION PARTICIPATION

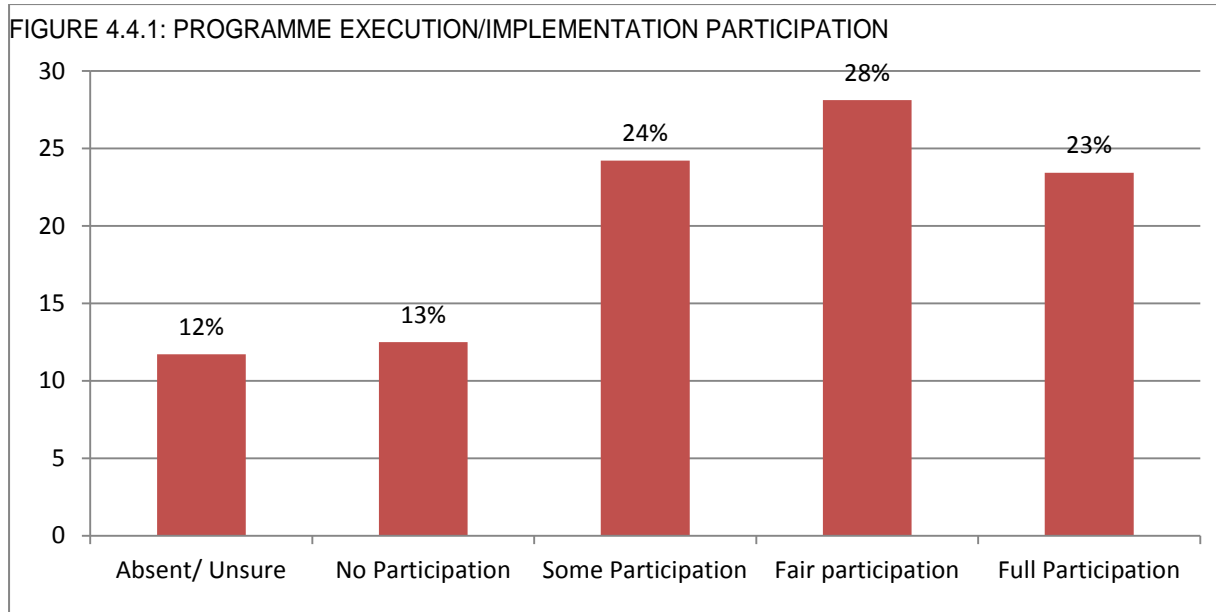
TABLE 4.4.1: PROGRAMME EXECUTION / IMPLEMENTATION PARTICIPATION

ELEMENTS	RATING				
	Absent/ Unsure	No. Participati on	Some Participa tion	Fair participati on	Full Participation
Implementation training/ workshops	9	6	16	17	16
Implementation committees	9	8	15	16	16
Implementation	4	5	18	19	18

review meetings					
Project Action Planning	8	13	13	20	10
Mean	7.50	8.00	15.50	18.00	15.00
%	11.72	12.50	24.22	28.13	23.44
Standard Deviation	2.38	3.56	2.08	1.83	3.46
Coefficient of variance	0.32	0.45	0.13	0.10	0.23
RANKING	4	5	2	1	3

Table 4.4.1 is a presentation of programme implementation participation analysis.

The results show that rating programme statement variables as fair participation (CV: 0.10), some participation (CV: 0.13) and full participation (CV: 0.23) have the lowest variances. They are therefore ranked 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Ratings absent/ unsure and no participation show the responses were widely dispersed by having the most high variance values and are hence ranked No. 4 and 5 respectively. The latter two cases have equal lowest average respondents at 8 respondents in both cases. From fair participation, some participation and full participation weights, a deduction can be made that on programme implementation there has been some amount of fair participation by programme beneficiaries. Figure 4.3.2 below complements the picture.



#### 4.5 PROGRAMME MONITORING AND EVALUATION ANALYSIS

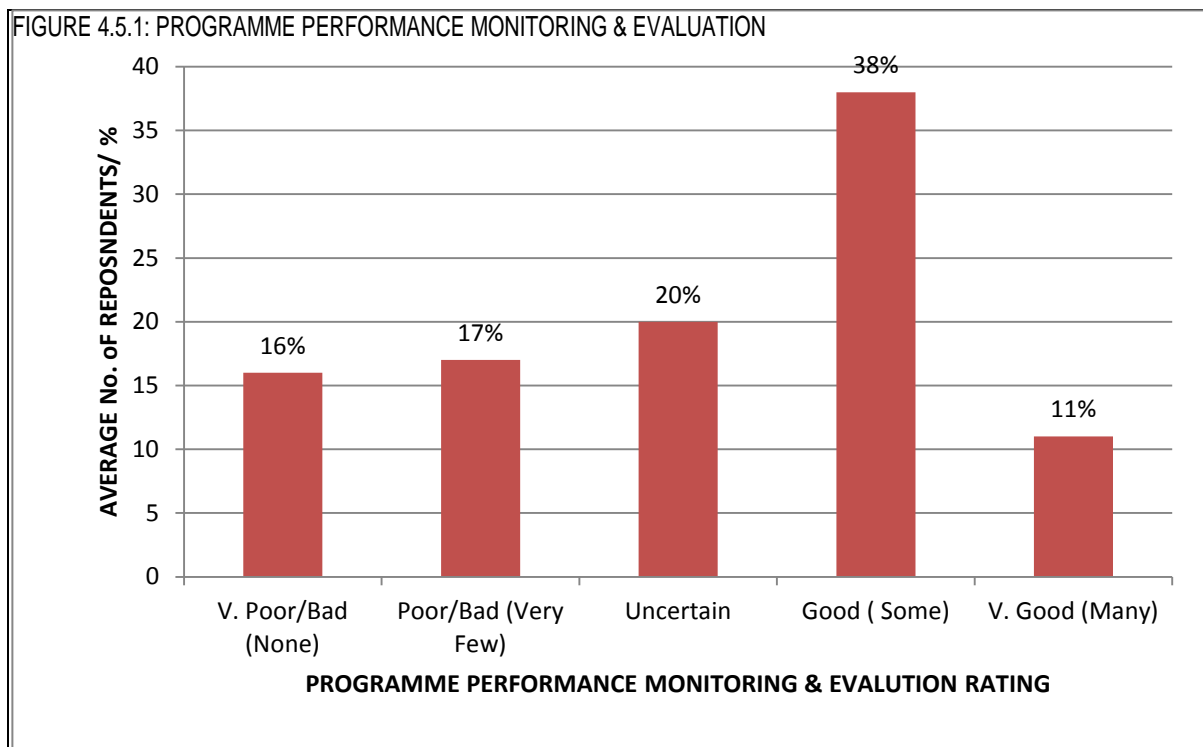
TABLE 4.5.1: Programme Performance Monitoring and Evaluation

ELEMENTS	RATING				
	V.Poor/Bad (None)	Poor/Bad ( Very Few)	Uncertain	Good /Some	V.Good/many
Reducing Unemployment	9	9	12	28	6
Providing Food Security	7	8	17	29	3
Ensuring Land Tenure Security	8	12	17	22	5
Contributing To Social Cohesion & Women Empowerment	7	8	10	28	11
Rural People Skills Audited	16	12	12	19	11
Rural People Skill Development	17	12	9	19	7
Infrastructural Development	10	8	14	25	7

Rural Economic Development	19	11	9	21	4
Poverty Alleviation	7	11	14	23	9
Job Creating Projects	2	19	5	31	7
Mean	10	11	12	25	7
%	<b>16</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>11</b>
Standard Deviation	5.4	3.3	4	4.3	3
Coefficient of variance	0.54	0.30	0.33	0.17	0.43
Ranking	5	2	3	1	4

The greatest number of respondents has on average rated programme monitoring and evaluation participation as having been good and that the programme has resulted in some job creating projects being undertaken. Twenty five (25) at respondents 38% have rated programme monitoring and evaluation as “good”. In terms of the coefficient of variance analysis rating programme outcome/impact as “good” and having created some employment has ranked No. 1 given its least coefficient of variance CV: 0.17(Good/ Some job creating projects). Programme rating poor and very few jobs creating projects has ranked No.5 at CV of 0.54 (Poor/ few job creating projects) with an average number of respondents totalling 10. Uncertain, Poor/ very few and Very good/many have ranked 3 (Uncertain), 2 (Poor/ very few) and 4 (Very good/many) respectively with corresponding average respondents being 12, 11 and 7. See table 4.5.1 above.

For completeness, percentages are included. 38% of respondents have rated programme monitoring and evaluation participation as having been good and that the programme has some job creating projects. This is followed by those who have indicated that they are uncertain at Twenty percent (20%). Seventeen percent (17%) of respondents have rated monitoring & evaluation participation as poor with the programme having very few job creating projects. Sixteen percent (16%) and eleven percent (11%) have respectively rated the participation on monitoring and evaluation as very poor with no job creating projects and very good with many job creating projects.



#### 4.6. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ACROSS PROGRAMME PARTICIPATION STATEMENTS

TABLE 4.5.2 : COMPARISON ACROSS STATEMENTS OF PARTICIPATION

STATEMENT	MEAN	SD	CV	RANK
Programme Definition & Design	13	4.2	0.35	3
Programme Execution/ Implementation	13	2.7	0.21	1
Programme Monitoring & Evaluation	13	4	0.31	2

**SD:** Standard Deviation

**CV:** Coefficient of Variance

Summary analysis of overall participation in the programme is presented as table 4.6.1 above. With statement mean equal, coefficient of variation has remained the measure of reliability available. On the basis of variation participation on programme execution and implementation at CV 0.21 is ranked No. 1. This substantially, rates participation on programme implementation as having been fair. Some level of participation is on programme monitoring and evaluation by ranking 2 at CV 0.31 and last, with minimal level of participation, is on programme definition and design at CV 0.35. Close analysis between programme definition-design and programme monitoring-evaluation indicates a marginal variation difference of CV 0.04. An



indication of some correlation between the variables analysed.

#### **4.7 ASSESSMENT OF STAKEHOLDERS PERCEPTIONS ON THE PROGRAMME RESULTS/OUTCOMES/IMPACT.**

TABLE 4.7: Cumulative Results and Analysis

Variables	Negative	Positive
Reducing Unemployment	30	34
Food Security	32	32
Land Reforms	37	27
Social & Women Empowerment	25	39
Skills Development	34	30
Infrastructure	32	32
Economic Development	39	25
Poverty Alleviation	32	32
No. of Job Creating Projects	26	38
Mean	33	31
Standard Deviation	4.61	4.61
Coefficient of Variance	0.14	0.15
Ranking	1	2

Table 4.7 presents cumulative results along with their analysis. Ratings from very poor and uncertain are clustered to refer to negative results. Alternatively ratings from some participation, to very good participation, are clustered into meaning positive results. Negative rating had a mean of 33 and Coefficient of Variance 0.14 while positive rating had a mean 31 with a Coefficient of Variance 0.15. By these two measures, namely the mean and variance, programme results, outcome and impact is rated negative. This meaning that overall, the respondents have not seen the programme performing as expected.

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

The analysis above indicates some inter-group response rate discrepancies which can be attributed to the timing of data collection. The CDW and Ward Committees

with the highest response rate completed their questions while they were in the induction workshop by South African Local Government Associations (SALGA) and were expected to return the questionnaire during a break requested specifically for the field work. Municipal officials equally were better placed to enable them to respond as required; hence there were 100% returns from the targeted officials. Ward Councillors and Traditional leaders were less likely to complete their questionnaire as they were not in a similar situation as with CDW and Ward Councillors. Traditional leaders who participated are only those of young age, leaving the majority old age and mostly male not participating.

In the analysis above, demographic elements, gender, education, role and household size appear to have had a profound influence on respondents' participation in the survey. Females, those with high school qualifications, development practitioners and respondents from households of between 5 to 10 members have participated much more than other groups.

Evident from the results analysis above is consistency on reporting of fair participation on programme execution/implementation than on programme definition and design and programme monitoring and evaluation participation. Least variation difference between the latter two programme phases is also indicative of some level of correlation. A further look at programme monitoring and evaluation based on cumulative results findings, has rated programme results, outcome and performance as negative. A comprehensive discussion of these results is however presented in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

---

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Data concerning stakeholder participation in the social intervention programme presented in this dissertation were drawn from answers on self-completed questionnaires that were administered to respondents. There was no opportunity to examine research respondents understanding of the questions recorded on the questionnaires.

Nevertheless, the open-ended questions have enabled respondents to present their views at three participation level statements presented for testing. The number of participants reached out in the research across a range of participating institutions has assured a comparison across demographic groups and statistical testing for significant differences in the statements variable. However, results regarding programme monitoring and evaluation should be treated with caution, as the line of distinction between services delivered prior the programme initiation and those as the result of the actual programme outcome, is far from distinct.

By the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), municipalities are charged with a development responsibility. In the function, municipalities are to plan Local Economic Development, Rural Infrastructure development and coordinate the delivery of basic service. The Municipal Infrastructural Grant is a dedicated budget by national government to municipalities to support this delegated responsibility.

On the contrary the programmes in the rural development programme mirror those stated above as package of developmental local government approach. The pilot municipality has a dedicated budget to drive infrastructure which the Department of Rural Development has not. In this pilot programme, some infrastructural development attributed to the programme might in fact be the result of earlier

intervention by the municipality but not acknowledge by the re-engineering of rural initiative. This is the weakness which may threaten the reliability of the impact assessment results.

Nevertheless, a general deduction from the results is the fact that the programme is well known by the rural communities and even by the least of the rural poor in the area. Results evincing this assertion are drawn from responses by 55 rural respondents from a total of 64.

## **5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS**

Below is a detail account of findings regarding this study.

### **5.2.1 DEMOGRAPHICS**

In concurring with Faham, Hosseini and Darvish (2008) participation of rural people in social intervention programmes varies according to their social and economic status. Results in this study have shown that those with high school qualification have exceeded both those with informal level of education and those with education beyond high school qualification. This scenario is attributed to the fact that those with minimal education standards perceive the social intervention programme as providing opportunities that the ordinary job market cannot offer, given the extent of competition. Those with higher levels of education may look down on the programme on the understanding that it may not offer something more competitive than what they have attained already.

The findings of the study show minimal difference on participation by age. An almost equal number of respondents from age groups 18 – 35 and 36 – 60 have participated. Age as a factor on participation is also denounced by the research finding of Faham, Hosseini and Darvish (2008). The three attest to age having no significant influence on the level of participation by rural people.

Females in the study have outnumbered their male counter parts. This is attributed to the fact that in general rural women are numerically a larger group and many have the responsibility of heading rural households (Delius and Schirmer, 2001). Walingo (2009) agree that women in any rural settlement are often in excess amongst the

poor and are the ones often entrusted with assuring sufficient nourishment, well-being and mental development of the children, hence the evaluation of the programme of this nature may be of significant interest to them. Gender, as a demographic variable has had a prominent influence on the outcome of this study.

According to Faham, Hosseini and Darvish (2008) rural household size is a factor with influence on social level of participation in a social intervention programme. Similar findings by this study support their observation. Not too small a family size and not too big a family size had influenced the participation variable tested. It being arguable that small household families often do not have experience of high socio-economic pressures that need social intervention, while very big household families may be indicative of that family members are under such desperate pressure that they cannot even associate with other social forces.

Another demographic feature appearing to influence participation in the social intervention programme is the functional interest the respondent shares with the subject of intervention. Results in this regard support the participation level shown by Community Development Workers and Ward Committees. These respondents, by the nature of their functions are responsible for development support.

### **5.2.2 PARTICIPATION IN PROGRAMME DEFINITION AND DESIGN**

Participation rating on this programme stage ranks poor participation as No.1. This ranking defined by Coefficient of Variance and the least Coefficient of Variance being indicative of generalisation reliance that can be placed on those results. Rating participation as poor has CV 0.21. Results on programme statement rating good had CV 0.23 and those uncertain had CV 0.28.

The three ratings are the ones with least coefficient of variations and the other two programme statement ratings have their coefficient of variations too wide to consider. Poor rating leading, good rating following an uncertain rating, gives some inconsistency on the participation generalisation. This suggests there might have been bias towards certain communities or participation by respondents is just perceived.

A fair conclusion therefore would be that at this stage of the programme realisation, there was no sufficient participation. Even a comparative analysis of the three programme phases by variation measure, indicates that phase one of the programme establishment ranks last of other two programmes namely programme execution and programme monitoring.

### **5.2.3 PROGRAMME EXECUTION / IMPLEMENTATION**

Rating participation at programme execution and implementation by variables some participation (0.13) fair participation (0.10) and full participation (0.23), some participation ranks No. 2; fair participation ranks No. 1 and full participations ranks No. 3 by variation. Corresponding mean values of each tested variable has been calculated to be 16 for some participation, 18 fair participation and 15 full participations.

The three variation measures are the least and appear correlated to the mean number of respondents. These findings trends and consistency are an indication of conclusive evidence that participation at this programme phase was indeed sufficient. It can thus be safely accepted that the outcomes of this study are indications that a considerable contribution by stakeholders in the rural development programme on programme execution and implementation has taken place at this phase concerning programme implementation and execution.

Often participation at programme implementation stage has its self-selling factors. This is where beneficiaries are starting to experience the results of the promised intervention. The incentives associated are the compelling measures drawing them to the programme. This, though good, is a threat to programme long-term sustainability. As participation on soft phases of programme operationally overlook the need to liberate the targeted beneficiaries, but put them in the trap of poverty where they cannot appreciate taking themselves out. Nonetheless, variation analysis between the three elements of participation evaluation shows that there was some indication of consistency, in the rating of this element as sufficiently observed.

### **5.2.3 PROGRAMME MONITORING AND EVALUATION**

Using variation analysis, rating participation on programme monitoring and evaluation as; “poor, uncertain and good”, resulted in rankings of 2, 3, and 1, respectively. These three ratings are having the minimal coefficient of variations compared to the other two, namely very poor and very good. Very poor and very good are equally having the minimum Mean response rate. Based on these three ratings, participation by stakeholders ranging from poor, uncertain to good is significant. The two negative ratings cumulatively neutralise the one good rating at this programme stage. Hence these findings are suggesting that even though there was participation, the appearance is that some element of inconsistency on engagement of stakeholders within the target population occurred. Based on this argument, participation on programme monitoring and evaluation can be concluded to have been insufficient.

### **5.2.4 PROGRAMME OUTCOMES/ IMPACT**

Qualifying Mhlontlo Local Municipality for rural development initiatives is its appalling communication infrastructure, absence of essential basic services and high levels of unemployment. Rural under-development, poverty and inequality in the area are undermining national government efforts for a prosperous society. In this study it was equally essential that beyond stakeholder participation, stakeholders’ perceptions of programme performance is tested. Nine monitoring and evaluation assessment were further analysed to determine the stakeholder’s perception in this regard. Ratings from very poor, to uncertain were grouped as implying negative assessment; while ratings from good to very good as implying positive assessment.

The purpose was not to quantify outcomes or impact, but to get the perception of the stakeholders. Findings in this regard rate an overall impact as negative. This supported by 33 respondents at CV 0.14 as against 31 respondents at CV 0.15. Of caution though is the insufficient participation in the programme planning phase by the stakeholders. This presents a potential limit of programme impact, performance and sustainability assessment by beneficiaries; for it requires a level of awareness of programme goals that beneficiaries can effectively participate in programme impact

assessment.

### **5.3 CONCLUSION**

The finding of this study shows that the level of participation of rural communities in the rural development programme pilot in Mhlontlo Local Municipality was overall, reasonably fair. Strengthening this fair level of participation is the presence of established institutions of public participation supporting rural people participation in matters designed to resolve their socio-economic condition. Fair participation though derives from sufficient participation in at least one stage of the programme establishment.

Participation along the three strategic elements of the programme was however not uniform. Participation at programme implementation was fair to good, with the results backed by minimal level of variation. Participation on programme definition and design and programme monitoring and evaluation both appear to lag programme participation on implementation phase.

Participation on planning and control phase intra-variation is very minimal hence a deduction can be made that no participation in one, impacts on another. This suggests some level of correlation between these two phases. Quite arguable in this regard might be that poor participation on programme planning leave beneficiaries with little frame of mind along which to test whether the programme is performing as expected. This qualifies the assertion by Harrison (2001) that rural people often suffer imposed representation and Brown (2000) that these people are just subjected to passive co-option rather than being active agents.

Often associated with working with rural people is the assumption that rural communities lack capacity requisite for planning and evaluation. The too technical nature of programme design stage overlooks that human beings are by nature intelligent beings that plan, execute and monitor results. Barriers to them participating at this level are communication jargon, often intended to keep them at bay.



Minimal participation at the planning stage often limits community long-term views of the programme and as such risk the long-term programme ownership. Their lack of understanding of the projected future of the programme, limits them to what they are told without a programme extracting from them valuable knowledge that can be harnessed into the new vision.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

---

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review reveals that characterising the third world nation is the scourge of poverty, inequality and social degradation. In this plight the rural people are the most affected and neglected. In agreement Green (2009) argues that, the 21<sup>st</sup> century world is dominated by inequality and poverty. Odedokun and Round (2001) attributes it to economic stagnation characteristics of the third world country. Coleman (2001) describes poverty as absence of income sources, lack of opportunities from which to derive income, Limited ownership on land and low achievement in all aspects of human development. Absence of income creates inequality and widens wealth gap (Odedokun and Round, 2001). According to Delius and Schirmer (2001) access to secure, safe and affordable land by rural people is a sufficient condition for sustainable reduction of poverty.

Most rural development literature attests to resolving five critical challenges when developing rural people. Accordingly rural development entails resolving rural settlement land questions, poverty, Inequality and unstable rural Livelihood by investing in rural infrastructural to support local economic development. People Participation is embraced as an overall enable to achieving the results of rural development. The five critical areas and people participation are none exclusive drivers of rural development but a coherent whole that can make rural development work.

Nevertheless the tenet of this study was not to evaluate performance on all pillars of rural development but only on people participation. Wide range of scholars in the likes of Leve (2007), Johnson (2001), Hill (2007), FAO (1992), Shah (2009) and Delius and Schirmer (2001) agrees that failure by many rural development programmes is the result of poor participation by rural communities. The research was then premised on exploring the experience wherein community participation is often claimed while practices indicating that it is sidelined because of the costs

involve.

Given this perspective the study begun with an assumption that the poverty stricken rural people of Mhlontlo municipality have been victims of failed development theory. This was based on understanding the remoteness of the area and that provincial government is cash trapped to spare rural people of Mhlontlo municipality an opportunity to reasonable participate in efforts to intervene in their socio-economic plight. Research results however give a more optimistic picture. The results of the research are indicative of a fair participation by rural communities of Mhlontlo Municipality. Abundantly is the fact that the government initiative in the area is well known and received. This being evidence of massive stakeholder mobilisation but not a conclusive evidence of stakeholder participation. For stakeholder participation requires more than information sharing but winning stakeholders into partnership in driving the programme. Nevertheless programme facilitators in this case have failed to fully transfer the social intervention initiative to its rightful owners the rural poor but have sought to retain the programme and co-opt the communities into its implementation.

## **6.2 OBJECTIVE ONE**

### **6.2.1 FINDINGS**

Objective one of the study was to investigate the extent of local stakeholder participation in the initiation and design of the provincial Rural Development Programme in Mhlontlo Municipality. The majority of respondents (24) rated participation at programme definition and design as good and these results rank No. 2 in terms of the results measure of variation. Fifteen (15) respondents are uncertain about participation at this level of the programme. The result ranks No. 3 by coefficient of variance. Nine (9) respondents rated participation on programme definition and design as poor and ranks No.1 with least variation. Others 7 and 10 respondents are two extremes rating participation as very poor and excellent respectively. Results variation rankings 1, 2 and 3 indicate that the mean as a measure of central tendency is reliable while results ranking 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> are indication of wide dispersion for consideration.

## **6.2.2 CONCLUSION**

Findings based on the results above suggest that participation on the programme definition and design was not consistent amongst respondents. Supporting this is the programme rating poor which has ranked No. 1 when using the coefficient of variance as measure of consistence amongst respondents. This leading into a conclusion that participation at this programme stage was poor.

## **6.2.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Programme definition and design is a critical stage of programme establishment. All stakeholders to programme are to grasp and champion this foundation of programme initiation for it to deliver to the expectation of all. Essential to effective stakeholder participation is a high level of awareness of programme goals. With findings suggesting that this area was poorly handled, rural communities of Mhlontlo municipality are only limited into accepting what has already defined for them. This risks a coherent alignment between the programme goals and established means of surviving by rural people. Necessary then for the programme implementing agent revised its stakeholder involvement strategy along the extent and quality of participation.

## **6.3 OBJECTIVE TWO**

### **6.3.1 FINDINGS**

Objective two of this study was to examine the levels to which the local stakeholders have participated in the programme implementation. The results show that rating programme statements as fair participation (0.10), some participation (0.13) and full participation (0.23) had the lowest variances. They are therefore ranked 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Ratings programme statements as absent/ unsure (0.32) and no participation (0.45) shows that responses widely dispersed and have ranked No. 4 and 5 respectively. The latter two cases had equal and lowest number respondents

(8).

### **6.3.2 CONCLUSION**

These findings are resoundingly positive along the fact that participation at this programme phase was sufficient. This conclusion comes from three ratings within which there was some consistency in rating participation as fair. These ratings were some participation (0.13), fair participation (0.10) and full participation (0.23) ranking No. 2, 1 and 3 respectively by coefficient of variation. All had lowest Coefficient of variances and correlated to the mean number of respondents. The findings trends and consistency gave conclusive evidence that participation at this programme phase was sufficient. It can thus be accepted that the results of this research shows, there was a significant participation by stakeholders in the programme implementation stage.

### **6.3.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Often participation at programme implementation stage has its own self-selling factors. This is where beneficiaries are starting to experience the results of the promised intervention hence participation in this phase is incentives driven. Negative about this is threat posed on programme long-term sustainability. As emphasis on participation in programme implementation alone overlook the need to liberate the target beneficiaries but put them in poverty trap. It is hence recommended that participation by stakeholders at this phase should not be overemphasis on the expense of the other phases of programme establishment.

## **6.4 OBJECTIVE THREE**

### **6.4.1 FINDINGS**

This objective sought to assess participation on programme monitoring and evaluation and get the impression of the stakeholders on the programme results/outcomes/impact. A greatest number of respondents have rated programme monitoring and evaluation participation as good and that the programme has

resulted into some job creating project being undertaken. Twenty five (25) respondents rated programme monitoring and evaluation as good (38%). This programme rating also rank No. 1 using coefficient of variance (0.17)being lowest. Programme rating poor (0.54) ranked No.5 of with Ten (10) respondents. Uncertain (0.33) with 12 respondents, Poor/ very few (0.30) with 11 respondents and Very good/many (0.43) with 7 respondents have ranked 3, 2 and 4 respectively

Rating participation on programme monitoring and evaluation, as poor, uncertain and good, has ranked 2, 3, and 1 respectively. These three ratings are having the least Coefficient of variations compare the other two namely very poor and very good. Very poor and very good are equally having the minimum mean response rate. Based on the three consistent ratings, participation by stakeholders ranging from poor, uncertain to good is significant.

With the purpose not to quantify outcomes/impact but to get the perception by the stakeholders' further analysis of results on cumulative frequencies rate an overall impact as negative. This supported by 33 respondents at CV 0.14 as against 31 respondents at CV 0.15. These findings are suggesting that participation was inconsistency within the target group. Based on this argument, participation on programme monitoring and evaluation was insufficient.

#### **6.4.2 CONCLUSION**

A comparative analysis between programme definition-design and programme monitoring-evaluation indicates a least variation difference of CV: 0.04. This implying that the two programme phases are correlated. Accordingly, insufficient participation in the programme planning phase by the stakeholder impacts negatively on the programme evaluation and monitoring. Engagement of stakeholders at programme planning stage should thus be performed with enabling programme monitoring attitude. As participation compromised at programme planning carry over to other phases of the programme

With regard to programme impact/results/outcome, respondents have generally rated all these elements negative. This meaning that the programme has not yet

started yielding the intended results. These results however need to be accepted with a critical mind given that respondents have not sufficient participated in the programme planning phase.

### **6.4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The Department of Agriculture and Rural Development as the programme implementing agent is further cautioned on roles ambiguity between it and the municipality. Needing clarification is the fact that both organisations exist in the same space and are tasked to respond to the plight of the same constituency through use of the same tools. Distinction between programme specific impact and municipality impact remains unfortunately blurred. Hence respondents perceptions about the programme cannot be accurately tested without cross over to the work the municipality.

## **6.5 LITERATURE REVIEW**

Literature survey was conducted to determine what others have written about the subject. Key findings in this regard suggests that critical path to rural development is on addressing agrarian reforms, inequality, poverty and rural livelihood, infrastructure development and local economic development. These findings are discussed in details below.

### **6.5.1 AGRARIAN REFORMS**

#### **FINDINGS**

Agrarian reforms in the rural development context entail the resolution of three critical questions namely status of land ownership, innovative use of land and reliance on agriculture as a driver of rural development. The current system of land ownership in rural areas only confers the right to use the land to the rural household without powers of disposition (Kuhnen, 1982). Absence of this power limits investment on rural land hence massive rural land often lying unused and unprotected. Rural communities other than absence of power of land disposition also experience limited land space, and with available land not suitable for agriculture due to overuse (Delius and Schirmer, 2001).

## **CONCLUSION**

Adoption of agriculture as means of rural development is constrained by this natural reality. Complicating the matter is a shift on agrarian livelihood that makes it unprofitable to engage on productive agriculture.

## **RECOMMENDATION**

With food security remaining a humanitarian problem in our rural area, agrarian livelihood cannot be abandoned instead should be integrated into other means to create sustainable rural livelihood. Focus should be on eco-tourism and agrarian productivity as integral products.

### **6.5.2 INEQUALITY, POVERTY AND RURAL LIVELIHOOD**

#### **FINDINGS**

Poverty is defined by Ahsan (2001) as absence of income required to maintain a minimal level of nourishment. Odedokun and Round defines inequality as referring to mean income in an economy exceeding the median income, causing borrowing limitations in financing human capital development. Delius and Schirmer (2001) have argued for land as acceptable livelihood asset.

Rigg (2006) and Frank and Biggs (1999) both attest to a fundamental shift to agricultural as means for rural livelihood. According to them rural livelihood is de-agrarianising and rural household practicing agriculture is become old. Further limiting reliance on agriculture is a threat of global warming which calls for de-industrialisation of productivity and adoption of small farm scale means of agricultural production.



## **CONCUSION**

Rural poverty is the result of a rural system of land ownership that limits rural people creative use of their land. Insecure land tenure makes them unable to secure funding to improve their living condition because even the land that they hold cannot be used as collateral for such funding arrangement.

## **RECOMMENDATION**

The solution to rural poverty, inequality and livelihood lies on speedy resolution of the land question. This is to encourage interest in investing in rural land as marketable asset.

### **6.5.3        INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT**

#### **FINDINGS**

The literature review attests to economic growth being linked to government investment in rural infrastructure. Findings by Fan and Zhang (2004) conclusively indicate that infrastructure development creates pre-investment conditions for private sector participation. In return rural development thrive on the effect of economic output linked to agricultural productivity, increased rural non-farm employment, and reversed migration into urban sectors.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Many rural people got attracted to urban settlement because of the ease of accessing social amenities. Rural infrastructure development provides these and helps thus the retention of the human capital and motivates them to find viable opportunities to explore in their areas.

#### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Rural infrastructure development should target a creation of a sustainable rural

communication network and provision of basic services. This will enable exploration of rural opportunities to create rural needs and products/service. In the like of Asian shift more should be on unique tourism product the like of medical tourism of India economy.

#### **6.5.4 LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

##### **FINDINGS**

Most of the literature referred to identifies the core challenges to rural economic development as a need enable a large number of rural households to participate in economic activities of production, processing and marketing. This is in order to create employment and self-employment and avert social disaster of reliance on welfare transfers (Hall, 2009). This rural re-organisation requires the restructuring of rural economy in a manner that will result into significant change to relational patterns between society and the industrial world (van der Ploeg et al, 2000). Rural development should thus seek to create new products/services in order to make entry into global markets (van der Ploeg et al, 2000). This shift will enable efficient utilisation of rural resources.

##### **CONCLUSION**

Acceptable is a fact that the world has abundant commodities to allow free entry by any new product. Product/service that will make entry into the existing globalised commodity market are those that are distinct and satisfying a unique need.

##### **RECOMMENDATION**

The proposal for a new products/service by rural economy should embrace this understanding but justifiable is that agrarian associated products can no long find space in the competitive global economy.

## **6.6 PEOPLE PARTICIPATION**

### **FINDINGS : OBJECTIVE ONE**

WCARRD (1979) declares peoples participation in any social intervention programme as right. This participation practiced to ensure a decentralisation of authority to plan, implement and monitor equitable allocation of resources and use of local knowledge (Olsson, 1990). People participation at this programme ensures that rural communities are empowered with knowledge of the problem identification, definition and scoping so that every community member is committed to the same results. Programme goals are set and means to achieve them identified. Risks areas are clearly identified help manage expectations

### **CONCLUSION**

This is part of programme establishment is often overlooked by programme facilitators. Mhlontlo communities alike have not been spared an opportunity to influence the direction of their programme. Instead they have been co-opted into accepting it as a quick fix to rural frustrations.

### **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Rural people have survived rural life for centuries. Absence of modern means of production meant that they were satisfied with low productivity and have sustainable livelihood. Efforts to development them should acknowledge this and enhance their rural live for it to support the current and future generations

### **FINDINGS: OBJECTIVE TWO**

Rural community participation in government intervention programmes often suffers a top-down process (Brown, 2000). Often rural people are only limited into passive co-option and consultation without making then take control of their destiny (Brown,

2000 and Ellis and Biggs, 2001). This form of participation does not empower them and does very little to shift power balance in favour of the rural poor (Brown, 2000).

Limiting rural people participation in the empowerment game however remains a lack of social cohesion (FAO, 1992). This so because rural people are isolated, under-educated, dependent on elite and lacking means to advance their cause. For rural people social cohesion, Ahsan (2001) and Ke- young (2001) proposes that rural people must be organise into institutions to enable a stable structural human interaction.(FAO, 1992) argues also that a multidisciplinary learning process occurs in a societal environment where rural poor are found organised into small, democratic and formal /informal groups.

## **CONCLUSION**

Programme facilitator of Mhlontlo rural pilot had available four institutions to engage with in community mobilisation programme. These are statutory institutions representative of local communities on matter of engagement with regard to intervention made in their social life. Absence of quality participation cannot thus be blamed on people non-willingness to engage on voluntary community work but on the extent to which the programme facilitators were willing to part with the programme through transferring it to its rightful beneficiaries. These groups and the municipality officials were target for this research as they all acts in the interest of rural development. The variable programme implementation/execution participation by rural people was then tested using this representative sample.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

Participation on programme implementation relies heavy on the community willingness to take charge of their destiny. Participation should not only be looked at as compliance with theoretical prescripts but the needed core functions of development facilitation in order to plan for future transfer of the programme

## **FINDINGS: OBJECTIVE THREE**

Most scholars are recognising the multidimensional character of rural development. Rural Development Framework (1997) recognises rural development as entailing building local democracy and development, local economic development and rural livelihood, local infrastructure development, social sustainability and local capacity to plan and implement. Ferreira (1997) perspective describes rural development through making land availability for development, proper environmental planning, institutionalised participation by rural people, economic development and promoting sustainable agricultural practices. According to Ellis and Biggs (2001) rural development ideas are diverse and uneven along different school of thought, opinion makers, agencies and governments.

## **CONCLUSION**

Evidently rural developments ideals are vast and diverse. But for minimal impact, every rural development programme should seek to resolve agrarian reforms; inequality, poverty and rural livelihood; infrastructural development; and local economic development as these are elements considered key for rural development. In the chain people's participation is overarching.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The programme pillars as stated above are core functions of rural development to be monitored and evaluated. Programme evaluation on its own should be considered an additional pillar given that programme failures are the results of performing the same mistake performed by similar programmes before.

### **6.3 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES**

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the extent to which communities of Mhlontlo municipality were engaged into the establishment of the programme. The study was not to explore as whether the programme is delivering to its intended objectives. Assess of programme results was more to test participation consistency

over all phases of the programme realisation. An actual performance of the programme remains untested and suggested for future research study.

#### **6.4 CONCLUSION**

Abundant evidence points to the fact that the neo-classical policies of economic development have however not worked for the rural poor instead have worsen their situation. Many nations have since embraced the need for the development of rural areas. First world countries pursuing it as means to mitigate the problems of massive urbanisation threaten the environmental. On the contrary for the underdeveloped world nation's rural development remains a survival economic strategy and the need to close the widening inequality gap amongst people of the same nation.

Available literature acknowledges efforts to change the plight of rural people, be it by international donor organisation, United Nation intervention programme and governments programmes to rescue these poverty trapped individual. All according the evaluation by development practitioners have yielded less than expected results. Close interrogation points to these programme being imposed to the beneficiary nations with no reference to enhancing their long held survival strategies. This has resulted into a new generation of dependent individual with very little of effort to take initiative to change their living conditions.

Literature blame this to development approaches that denies rural people a say on how their socio-economic situation can be changed. Often these imposed ideas find rejection or are incompatibility with the survival norms by the rural people. Hence recent years have seen more of rural people involvement theories emerging to find a better strategy of participation in rural development. Many such theories have critically lifted the need for people participation as essential strategy to make rural development programme work for its intended beneficiaries. This notion acknowledging the cultural and social factors that need consideration for the programme to work. But more critical is a development agent enabling strategy that rural people are organised into institutional formation in order for them to participate effectively and sustainable. These strategies require that rural people should be empowered to contest ownership of the programme than co-opted as passive

agents.

Given the perspective above this study was begun with an assumption that the poverty stricken rural people of Mhlontlo municipality have been victims of failed development theory. This assumption based on the rural nature of the area and financial trapped provincial government. Assumed was that rural people of Mhlontlo municipality have not been engaged on efforts to intervene in their socio-economic plight. Research results however give a more optimistic picture. The results of the research are indicative of a fair participation by rural communities of Mhlontlo Municipality. Evident is the fact that the government initiative in the area is well known and received. This being evidence of massive stakeholder mobilisation but not a conclusive evidence of stakeholder participation. For stakeholder participation requires more than information sharing but winning stakeholders into partnership in driving the programme.

Argument by Johnson (2001) that participation by rural people does not reduce poverty but does strength the livelihood of rural poor worth embracing. It is surely not the information dispersion that can provide this but a form of participation that empowers rural poor. Finding on this study indicated that though on average, participation has been fair but gaps exist on the programme definition and design and programme monitoring and evaluation participation. This leaving only programme execution or implementation participation as the only area handled sufficiently. Lack of sufficient participation in the latter two areas remains a cause for concern and had a potential of limiting programme impact, and performance assessment. Findings also revealed that non-participation at programme planning has affected beneficiary capacity to monitor and evaluate the programme due to absence of reference planning paradigm

Equally evident from the findings is the fact that the programme appears to repeat the pitfalls of its predecessor programmes. Kepe (2005), Manona (2005) and Hendricks and Fraser (2003) acknowledge that for the rural poor Eastern Cape area there has been some massive rural investment by previous homeland and apartheid governments. These unfortunately have found no reference in the establishment of the pilot programme.

Had there been extensive evaluation of these previous intervention programmes, lesson learnt would indeed have provided for the intended results. Equally absent is indication on how rural poor have help shape the programme in order to fit it into their social systems. Absence of these critical elements challenges the quality of participation by rural stakeholders.

This research has focussed on stakeholder participation in the rural development programme in Mhlontlo municipality. The study has determined that problems exist in programme design and monitoring participation which adversely impact on the ability of the programme to be effective in addressing the identified rural socio-economic problem. Suitable recommendations have been made that will be of value to the provincial administration to improve the participation of stakeholders in this programme.



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams M., Cousins B. and Manona S., 1999. *Land Tenure and Economic Development in Rural South Africa: Constraints and Opportunities*, (Working paper 125) (SW1E5DP) UK: Overseas Development Institute.
- Ahsan, S.,2001. *Institutional Framework and Poverty: A transition Economy Perspective*, (Discussion Paper No. 2001/136) Helsinki: United Nations University.
- Akpomuvie, B., 2010. Self-Help as a Strategy for Rural Development in Nigeria: A Bottom-Up Approach. *Journal of Alternative Perspectives in the Social Sciences*, 2(1), pp. 88-111
- Ashley, C. and Maxwell, S., 2001. Rethinking Rural Development. *Development Policy Review*, 19(4), pp. 395 – 425
- Babbie, E., 2004. *The Practice of Social Research*.10<sup>th</sup> ed. Belmont: Thomson/Wadsworth.
- Barret, C., Reardon, T., and Webb, P., 2001. *Nonfarm Income Diversification and Household Livelihood Strategies in Rural Africa: Concepts, Dynamics and Policy Implications*. Ithaca (NY): Cornell University.
- Bell J., 1999. *Doing Your Research Project: A Guide for First-time Researchers in Education and Social Science*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Berenson, M. and Levine, D., 1996. *Basic Business Statistics: Concepts and Application*. 6<sup>th</sup> ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall
- Berg, B., 2004. *Qualitative Research Methods: for the Social Science*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Blaikie, N., 1991. A critique of the use of triangulation in social science research. *Quality & Quantity*, 25, pp. 115 -136.
- Blumberg B., Cooper D. & Schindler P., 2005. *Business Research Methods*. Maidenhead (UK): McGraw Hill.
- Böcher, M. 2008. Regional Governance and rural development in Germany – the implementation of LEADER. *Sociologia Ruralis*, 48 (4), pp. 372-388.
- Bochke, S., 2001. *Valuing Perspectives: A Grounded Theory of Mentoring in a Distance Education Environment*. M.Phil. Alberta: Athabasca University.
- Brennan,M. and Luloff, A., 2005. A Cooperative Approach to Rural Development in Ireland: Cultural Artifacts and the Irish Diaspora as an Example. *Journal of*

- International Agricultural and extension Education*, Spring 12(1), pp. 16 - 22
- Brown, K., 2000. Innovations for Conservation and Development. *Geography Journal*, March 168(1), pp. 6 – 17.
- Bryceson, D., 2009. Sub-Saharan Africa's Vanishing Peasantries and the Specter of a Global Food Crisis. Available at: url=<http://montlyreview.org/2009/07/01/sub-saharan-africas-vanishing-peasantries-and-the-specter-of-a-global-food-crisis>. [Accessed: 03/07/2012]
- Bryman, A., 2006. Integrating Qualitative and Quantitative Research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research*, 6(1), pp. 97 – 133.
- Chambers, R., 2006. *Rural poverty unperceived chapter in: Rural Development: Putting the last First*. London: Longman.
- Clarke, A., 1999. *Evaluation Research: An Introduction to Principles, Method and Practice*. London: SAGE
- Delius, P. and Schirmer S., 2001. *Towards a Workable Rural Development Strategy*. (Working Paper 3 – 2001) Trade and Industrial Policy Secretariat. JHB: University of Witwatersrand.
- Department of Provincial and Local Government., 2003. *Handbook on Community Development Workers*. South Africa.  
Available at: <http://www.info.gov.za/issues/cdw.htm>. [Accessed : 28/02/2011]
- Department of Agriculture and Rural Development., 2010. *Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy*. Available at : <http://www.ecprov.gov.za/agriculture>. [Accessed : 28/02/2011]
- Dogarawa, A., (2005). The Role of Cooperative Societies in Economic Development. *The Nigerian Journal of Administrative Studies*, 3(2), pp. 1-12.
- Dunmade, I., 2010. Collaborative lifecycle design – A viable approach to sustainable rural Technology development. *International Journal of Technology Management & Sustainable Development*, 9 (2), pp. 149 -158
- Faham E., Hosseini M. and Darvish K., 2008. Analysis of Factors Influencing Rural People Participation in National Action Plan for Sustainable Management of Land and Water Resources in Hable-Rub Basin, Iran. *American Journal of Agriculture and Biological Sciences*, 3(2): pp 457 – 461.
- Fan, S. and Zhang, X., 2004. Infrastructure and regional economic development in rural China. *China Economic Review* 15, pp. 203– 214
- Ferreira, J., 1997. *Sustainable Agriculture and Rural Development*. Australia: Griffith

University.

- Food and Agricultural Organisation,. 1992. *Why People Participation: Participation on practice-lessons from the FAO People Participation Programme*. Rome: FAO, pp. 44. Available at: <http://nird.ap.nic.in./clit/rrd150.html>. [Accessed 05 May 2011]
- Frank, E and Biggs, S., 2001. Evolving Themes in Rural Development 1950s – 2000s. *Development Policy Review*, 19(4), pp.437 – 448.
- Golafshani, N., 2003. Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report*, December 8 (4): pp 597-607
- Gomm, R., 2008. *Social Research Methodology: A Critical Introduction*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Green, D., 2009. *From Poverty to Power. How active Citizens and effective states can change the world*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Jacana Media (Pty) Ltd.
- Greenfield T., 2002. *Research Methods for Postgraduates*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Arnold.
- Grosf, M. S. & Sardy, H., 1985. *A research Premier for Social and Behavioural Science*. Orlando (FL): Academic Press Inc.
- Hall, R., 2009. A fresh start for rural development and agrarian reform? *Policy brief*, 29 July. PLAAS, University of Western Cape, SA.
- Hardy, M., & Bryman, A., ed., 2004. *Handbook of Data Analysis*. London: SAGE Publication.
- Harrison G., 2001. Peasants, the agrarian question and lenses of development. *Progress in Development Studies*, July 1(3), pp.187 - 203.
- Hendricks, F. and Fraser, G., 2003. Obstacles to Agricultural Development in the Communal Areas of the Eastern Cape: Report for the Eastern Cape Provincial Growth and Development Plan. Available at : <http://www.ecprov.gov.za> [Accessed : 28/02/2011]
- Hesse-Biber, S and Leavy, P., 2006. *Emergent Methods in Social Research*. London: SAGE.
- Isserman M. A., 1998. Conclusion: What do we want from Theory in Rural Development? *Growth & Change*. Summer, 29, pp. 344 – 35.
- Jick , D. T., 1979. Mixing Qualitative and Quantitative Methods. Triangulation in Action. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, December 24, pp. 602.
- Johnson, C., 2001. Local Democracy, Democratic Decentralisation and Rural Development: Theories, challenges and Options for Policy. *Development Policy Review*, 19(4), pp.521 -532.

- Kameri-Mbote, P., 2005. Land Tenure, Land Use & Sustainability in Kenya: Toward Innovative Use of Property Rights in Wildlife Management. *International Environmental Law Research Centre*
- Ke-young, C., 2001. *Building Institutions for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction: Collective Values, Behavioural Norms, and Rules*, (Discussion Paper No. 2001/98), Helsinki: United Nations University.
- Kepe, T., 2005. Magwa Tea Venture in South Africa: Politics, Land and Economics. *Social Dynamics* 31(1), pp. 261 – 279.
- Kole, N., 2005. *An Evaluation of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme Highlights Stakeholder Mobilisation and Engagement*. M.Phil. Pretoria (SA): University of Pretoria.
- Kuhnen, F., 1982. *Man and Land: An introduction into the Problems of Agrarian Structure and Agrarian Reforms*. Translated from German by Muller Kenneth. Verlag breitenbach: Breitenbach.
- Leedy, P. and Ormrod, J., 2005. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. 8<sup>th</sup> ed. Upper Saddle River: Pearson-Merril Prentice Hill.
- Leve, L., 2007. "Failed Development" and Rural Revolution in Nepal: Rethinking Subaltern Consciousness and Women's Empowerment. *Anthropological Quarterly* 80(1), pp. 127-172.
- Lind, D., Marchal, W. and Wathen, S., 2005. *Statistical Techniques in Business & Economics*. 12<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Mabry, L., 2008. Case Study in Social Research. In: P. Alasuutari, L. Beckman and J. Branmen, ed. *Social Case Study Research Methods*. Los Angeles: SAGE
- Manona, S., 2005. *Smallholder Agriculture as Local Economic Development (Led) Strategy in Rural South Africa: Exploring Prospects in Pondoland: Eastern Cape*. M.Phil. Cape Town (SA): University of Western Cape.
- Maria, S., 2009. Relations between rural development projects and urban migration: the köykent Project in Turkey. *Ciencia Rural*, 39(6), pp.1873 – 1879.
- Martin, O., 2001. *Reaching the Poor. Fine Tuning Poverty Targeting using a 'Poverty Map' – The case of Mozambique*. (Discussion Paper No. 2001/133), Helsinki: United Nations University.
- Mbeki, T., 2003. *State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa*. Available at: <http://www.info.gov.za/issues/cdw>.
- Mhlontlo Local Municipality. 2010. *Integrated Development Plan 2010-2011 Review*.

- Mhlontlo Municipality.
- Miers, M., Rickaby, C., and Pollard, K., 2007. Career choices in health care: Is nursing a special case? A content analysis of survey data. *International Journal of Nursing Studies* 44, pp. 1196–1209.
- Nachmias, D. and Nachmias, C., 1987. *Research Methods in the Social Science*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: St Martin's Press.
- Odedokun, M. and Round, J., 2001. Determinants of Income Inequality and its Effects on Economic Growth: Evidence from African Countries. (Discussion Paper No. 2001/103), Helsinki: United Nations University.
- Office of the Premier.,2004. *Provincial Growth and Development Plan*. Available at : <http://www.ecprov.gov.za>
- Olivier, N.J.J, Van Zyl, C. and Williams, C., 2010.Rural Development within the Context of Development, Sustainability and Rural Issues – Some Constitutional, *Policy and Implementation Perspectives*, 13 (1), pp. 101 - 234.
- Olsen, W., 2004. Triangulation in Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Methods Can Really Be Mixed. In: M. Holborn, ed. 2004. *Development in Sociology*. Ormskirk: Causeway Press.
- Olsson, J., 2009. Improved road accessibility and indirect development effects: evidence from rural Philippines. *Journal of Transport Geography*, November 17(6), pp. 476 – 483.
- Patton, M. 1986. *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Method*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed.CA:Sage Publication
- Partington, D., 1997.*Management Processes in Projects of Organizational Change: Case Studies from Four Industries*. PhD. Cranfield University.
- Province of the Eastern Cape., 2010. Eastern Cape Rural Development Strategy:"Ilima Labantu".Available at : <http://www.ecprov.gov.za>
- Provincial of the Eastern Cape., 2004. Provincial Growth and Development Plan. Available at : <http://www.ecprov.gov.za>
- Rigg, J., 2006. 'Land, farming, livelihoods, and poverty: rethinking the links in the rural South.' *World development*, 34 (1). pp. 180-202.
- Robson, C. 2002. *Real World Research: a resource for social scientist and practitioners-researchers*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Rural Development task Team (RDP) and the Department of Land Affairs.1997.Rural Development Framework. Available at :<http://www.gov.za>.

- Saunders M., Lewis P. & Thornhill A., 2003. *Research Methods for Business Students*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. FT-Prentice Hall
- Shah, A. I., 2009. People's Participation in Rural Development Projects in the North-West Frontier Province of Pakistan: A comparative Review and Analysis of Sarhad Rural Support Programme(SRSP) and Integrated Rural Development Project(IRDP). *African and Asian Studies*, 8, pp. 175 -184.
- Siyongwana P.Q. *The Selection of the Capital City of the Eastern Cape Province*. Mthatha(EC):UniversityofTranskei.  
[http://www.pacte.enrs.fr/IMG/pdf\\_22\\_Siyongwana-2.pdf](http://www.pacte.enrs.fr/IMG/pdf_22_Siyongwana-2.pdf)
- Taylor, G., 2006. Amenity – Led Rural Development: Theory, Method and Public Policy. *Journal of American Planning Association*, Spring, 73 (2), pp. 181 - 191
- Van der Ploeg, D. et al, 2000. Rural Development: From Practices & Policies towards Theory. *Sociologia Ruralis*, October, 40(4), pp. 391 – 405.
- University of Fort Hare. 2003. *Eastern Cape Agricultural and Rural Livelihoods Study: Prepared for the Provincial Growth and Development Plan*. Alice (SA): Fort Hare Institute of Socio-Economic Research
- Walingo, M. K., 2009.Role of Livestock Projects in Empowering Women Smallholder Farmers for Sustainable Food Security in Rural Kenya.*African Journal of Food, Agriculture, Nutrition and Development*, October, pp. Maseno University. Kenya
- Ward, W. and Hite, J., 1998. Theory in Rural Development: An introduction and Overview. *Growth & Change*, Summer, 29, pp. 245 – 258.

# APPENDIX 1

RESEARCHER: M BONISWA CORNELIUS NODLABI: 0741828576      SUPERVISOR: ALEC BOZAS: 082 334 4477

## VOLUNTARY SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

### PART 1: DEMOGRAPHY PROFILE OF RESPONDENT

GENDER	: Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>	AGE : 18-35yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	36-60yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>	61+ yrs	<input type="checkbox"/>
RESIDENCE	: Rural	<input type="checkbox"/>	Urban	<input type="checkbox"/>	Dual	<input type="checkbox"/>				
EDUCATION	: Informal	<input type="checkbox"/>	Matric	<input type="checkbox"/>	Abet	<input type="checkbox"/>	Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>	Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
EXPERIENCE	: 0-1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>	2 to 5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	6 to 10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>	11+ years	<input type="checkbox"/>	Post Graduate Dip. /Deg	<input type="checkbox"/>
ROLE	: Political	<input type="checkbox"/>	Administration	<input type="checkbox"/>	Development	<input type="checkbox"/>				
HOUSEHOLD SIZE	: Less than 5	<input type="checkbox"/>	5 to 10	<input type="checkbox"/>	10+	<input type="checkbox"/>				

*NB : tick with an √ where appropriate*

PART 2 : PROGRAMME DEFINATION & DESIGN PARTICIPATION

Rate your participation level in contributing towards the Province Rural Development Programme in Mhlonlo on the following issues.  
Rate according to 1 – 5 as explained.

Explanatory	1. Very Poor	2. Poor	3. Neutral/Uncertain	4. Good	5. Excellent
Participation in defining the problem	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
Aligning this Programme with current or past social interventions	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
Reviewal of current or past social intervention programmes	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
Identification of New Rural Development Opportunities/Projects	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
Risk Identification in the New Path	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
Setting Programme Annual Targets	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>
Developing the Programme Action Plan	1. <input type="checkbox"/>	2. <input type="checkbox"/>	3. <input type="checkbox"/>	4. <input type="checkbox"/>	5. <input type="checkbox"/>

NB : Tick with a ✓ where appropriate



**PART 3 : PROGRAMME EXECUTION/ IMPLEMENTATION PARTICIPATION**

Rate your participation level in the execution / implementation of the programme in Mhlontlo on the following issues. Rate according to 1 – 5 as explained.

**Explanatory:** 1. Absent/Unsure 2. No Participation then 3. Some Participation then 4. A fair amount of participation and 5. Full participation

- Participation on programme implementation training/ workshops 1.  2.  3.  4.  5.
- Participation on programme implementation committees 1.  2.  3.  4.  5.
- Participation in programme implementation& review meetings 1.  2.  3.  4.  5.
- Provided with action plans clearly stating milestones& resources allocated 1.  2.  3.  4.  5.

**NB : Tick with a ✓ where appropriate**

**PART 4 : PARTICIPATION ON PROGRAMME MONITORING & EVALUATION**

Rate the programme in terms of it reducing unemployment.

Very Poor	Poor	Uncertain	Positive	Very Positive

Rate how food security has improved since the programme was launched

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate the progress on land tenure security : Land rights transferred to local communities

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate the programme contribution on social cohesion & women empowerment

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate the skills audit on programme related skills as:

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate training on programme related skills as:

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

NB : Tick with a ✓ where appropriate

Rate Progress in infrastructure development

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate Rural Economic Development investments since programme initiation

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate the programme projects impacts on poverty eradication

Very Poor/Bad	Poor/Bad	Uncertain	Good	Very Good

Rate this Project/Programme in terms of Job Creation

None	Very Few	Uncertain	Some	Many

NB : Tick with a ✓ where appropriate

*END OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. THANK YOU VERY MUCH*

## APPENDIX 2



Research Office, Govan Mbeki Centre  
Westville Campus  
Private Bag x54001  
DURBAN, 4000  
Tel No: +27 31 260 3587  
Fax No: +27 31 260 4609  
kmbcp@ukzn.ac.za

6 December 2011

Mr M C Nodlali (201505788)  
Graduate School of Business

Dear Mr Nodlali

**PROTOCOL REFERENCE NUMBER: HSS/1268/011M**

**PROJECT TITLE: An Evaluation of Stakeholder Participation in the Mhlontlo Municipality Rural Development Programme.**

In response to your application dated 30 November 2011, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.  
**PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.**

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



.....  
Professor Steven Collings (Chair)  
Humanities & Social Science Research Ethics Committee

cc. Supervisor – Mr Alec Bozas  
cc. Mrs Christel Haddon