



COLLEGE OF LAW AND MANAGEMENT STUDIES

**Local Economic Development and Rural Women: A Case Study of the Vulindlela
Region, KwaZulu-Natal**

By

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Public Administration

**School of Management, IT and Governance
College of Law and Management Studies**

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DECLARATION

I, **Vivagum Govender**, declare that:

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.
- (ii) This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
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Signature: 

Date: 18-March-2019

DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this dissertation to all the women in the world.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this dissertation was a lesson in patience, endurance and above all, perseverance. There were so many times when I decided to give up. When I thought the challenges I encountered were insurmountable, my Supervisor Dr Qwabe, encouraged me to keep going. Thank you dearly for your unwavering faith in my ability to complete this project. Your invaluable comments and supervision gave me the confidence to carry on.

My daughter who is my source of inspiration, thank you for your constant encouragement to complete this project. This is for you!

To Patrick and Refiloe, bless you both for your time and patience, particularly Patrick for so kindly assisting me with the data analysis.

Thank you to the Discipline of Public Governance of the School of Management, IT and Governance for giving me the opportunity to fulfill my personal ambition.

GLOSARY OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BBBEE	Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment
CBO	Community Based Organization
CRDP	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
DBSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa
DCoGTA	Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
DPLG	Department of Provincial and Local Government
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDC	Industrial Development Corporation
IFAD	International Fund for Agriculture Development
ISRDS	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LED	Local Economic Development
LGTA	Local Government Transitional Act
MSA	Municipal Systems Act
MFMA	Municipal Finance Management Act
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NGP	New Growth Path
NJPA	National Joint Programme of Action
RDF	Rural Development Framework
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SEDA	Small Enterprise Development Agency
SMIG	School of Management, IT and Governance
SDBIP	Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan

UN

United Nations

UNDP

United Nations Development Programme

ABSTRACT

In South Africa, almost half of rural households are headed by females even though they are the most disadvantaged and poorest sector of the population. In light of this, it is critical for rural women to be empowered economically in order to sustain their households. This study focused on local economic development opportunities for rural women as a strategic intervention for creating income generating activities in order to help them sustain their livelihoods, as well as to support their households. Local economic development is essentially about building up the economic capacity of a local area and can only thrive in a climate that is conducive for growth and development. Local government plays a pivotal role in fostering a climate that is conducive for local economic development to thrive. The study was conducted in Vulindlela, a rural district within the Msunduzi Municipality, in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Vulindlela, like any other rural area in South Africa, is characterized by extreme poverty, lack of basic infrastructure and a significantly high level of unemployment. The objective of the study was to establish the perceptions that the women of Vulindlela have, with regard to accessing local economic development opportunities. The research was quantitative in nature. Quantitative data was collected using a structured questionnaire with open ended-questions such as, “other” or “comments” at the end of each question, in order to solicit in-depth information. The research sample was drawn using non-probable, convenience sampling. The female respondents in this study indicated that they encounter numerous challenges in their endeavor to access local economic opportunities. Furthermore, the study results reveal that women do not have the same opportunities as men. Finally, driven by a wide scope of stakeholder interest, this dissertation recommends the implementation of a gender responsive budget and investment in infrastructure, meaningful execution of gender sensitive programmes such as affording women an equal opportunity to participate in local economic development initiatives.

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CHAPTER 1

AN INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter encapsulates the content and structure of this dissertation and commences by providing a brief background of the study, followed by the statement of the problem. Also, embodied in this chapter are the research questions and objectives, as well as the preliminary review of the literature, theoretical framework, and research methodology. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the study limitations, and, an overview and outline of all chapters.

The following section provides a brief background which contextualizes the study.

1.2 Background of the Study

In South Africa, we have a myriad of policies and legislation to ensure that all forms of discrimination against women is eradicated. The Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 of the Constitution (RSA, 1996) which is the cornerstone of democracy, renounces all forms of discrimination and provides, *inter alia*, that the state must respect, promote and fulfill the rights of all its citizens (RSA,1996). Notwithstanding the provisions set out in the Constitution, women, particularly rural women, remain the most vulnerable and marginalized in the country (Raniga, 2017:216; Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo, 2016:356; UN, 2014:9; Bower, 2014:107). According to statistics revealed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), rural women constitute one-fourth of the world's population (UN 2012). The Commission on the Status of Women (UN, 2012) reported that seventy percent of the developing world's 1.4 billion extremely poor live in rural areas. Sub-Saharan Africa is home to nearly one-third of these.

To reiterate the above, Laughlin, Bernstein, Cousins, and Peters (2013:2) as well as Bower (2014:107) state that in South Africa, poverty continues to be concentrated in rural areas and many of the poorest and most vulnerable continue to be women. Females constitute 53.4% of the poor, according to the 2011 National Census (StatsSA, 2014). This study was conducted in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), one of the nine provinces of South Africa. At 56.6%, KZN remains one of the three provinces displaying the highest levels of poverty in South Africa (StatsSA, 2014).

Research conducted by Bower (2014:15) reveals that 44% of rural households in KZN are headed by females. In light of this, there is a need for urgent intervention to create economic generating activities in order for women to sustain their livelihoods and support their households.

In an effort to address the level of poverty particularly in rural areas, the Government realized the potential role of Local Economic Development (LED). The legislative context for LED activity in South Africa was anchored in 1996 with the requirement in the national Constitution for local authorities to implement social and economic development (Rogerson, 2008:310). According to Abrahams (2003:188), the object of LED is to improve standards of living, attain a good quality of life, alleviate poverty and enhance local economic activities in order to create employment for sustainable rural livelihoods. The aim is to integrate the disadvantaged and marginalized communities into the economy, but more importantly, empower people to be self-sustaining.

According to Eshetu (2014:1) women empowerment is central in rural development. It is instrumental for reducing poverty, improving the living conditions of rural people and building a food secure world. The full potential of LED can only materialize if policies and programmes are gender inclusive. However, the potential of LED to address poverty is being undermined by discriminatory social norms, incentives and legal institutions (Raniga, 2017:216).

Historically, South Africa has been, and continues to be a patriarchal society. Women are seen as homemakers, caregivers and not as entrepreneurs. Economy generating activities have always been dominated by men, whilst women have always been sidelined when it comes to securing finances, soliciting business partners or even finding markets to sell their products. In fact, women's activities have been confined to the concept of breeder-feeder-producer (Omoyiba, Eghareuba and Iyanna, 2010:3369). Women are viewed as being typically responsible for cooking, childcare, cleaning, collection of firewood and water whilst men are typically seen as entrepreneurs (Fletschner and Kenney, 2011:5).

The following section provides a brief statement outlining the research problem.

1.3 Research Problem Statement

The study delineates the importance of LED in creating employment, alleviating poverty and empowering people to be independent. LED has been a statutory requirement for local authorities for more than ten years (Rogerson, 2014:206). Despite such a lengthy existence, LED has not had any significant impact on the livelihoods of rural women. Research conducted by Bower (2014:107) and Laughlin, *et al* (2013:2) reiterates statistics revealed by Statistics South Africa (2014) showing that women continue to be the most impoverished sector of the population. Furthermore, research conducted by Lawson (2012:66) on behalf of the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (DCoGTA) and the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) reveals that to date, success rates in LED across municipalities in South Africa have been limited.

Associated with the research objective, the following research questions constituted the basis for this study.

1.4. Research Questions

- 1) What are the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?
- 2) What interventions are implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs), local government to foster a climate that is conducive for these rural women to access LED opportunities?
- 3) How effective are these interventions on the lives of these rural women?
- 4) What is the perception of the rural women with regard to opportunities for economic empowerment?
- 5) What possible solutions can be proposed to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?

The following objectives guided the course of this study.

1.5 Research Objectives

- 1) To establish the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities;

- 2) To determine the interventions implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government that target the rural women specifically;
- 3) To establish the effectiveness of these interventions on the lives of the rural women;
- 4) To establish the perceptions that the rural women have with regard to opportunities for economic empowerment; and
- 5) To propose possible solutions to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities.

1.6 Significance of the Study

As O’Leary (2017:3) points out, research should not only be about fulfilling the requirements for a degree. The main objective should be about making a contribution to the betterment of a situation. That being said, there is a need to improve the socio-economic conditions of rural women. Despite the vast amount of literature on rural development initiatives and programmes, there is a conspicuous lack of mention of the plight of rural women and initiatives employed to address the hardship and suffering endured by them. Despite LED being hailed as a strategic intervention for job creation and stimulating economic generating activities, rural women experience numerous challenges in their endeavor to create and sustain economic generating activities so desperately needed for their survival. Moreover, legislation and policies on rural development are gender-neutral, which obviously does not address the needs of rural women. To support this argument, Vyas-Doorgapersad (2014: 329) mentions that the following researchers: Mathye (2002), Tsuari, (2010) and Penceliah (2011) have found in their studies that municipal outputs are not gender-specific. Economy generating activities continue to be dominated by men.

The information solicited from this research can be quite useful to policymakers. In this regard, as O’Leary (2017:4) points out that research can be a key tool for informed decision-making. Therefore, this research is intended to guide the Municipality’s LED Unit in designing projects that would target female entrepreneurs and more importantly, influence Government to look into the laws, policies and regulations regarding LED, equity and gender balance issues.

The following section is an outline of the preliminary literature review for this study.

1.7 Preliminary Literature Review

Based on the research objective, which is to establish the experiences of rural women in the Vulindlela area with regard to accessing LED opportunities, a comprehensive literature review was undertaken, in order to ascertain the views and perceptions of other researchers and scholars on the subject matter.

The existing literature reveals that poverty remains rampant in the rural areas of South Africa, and rural women are still the most disadvantaged and poorest sector of the population (Laughlin, *et al.*, 2013:2; Bower, 2014:107). Local economic development has been recognised as a critical approach to pursue in South Africa in order to address the unemployment and poverty in rural areas (Lawal *et al.*, 2016:355). According to Arriati and Chasomeris (2015:432-435), LED can contribute to economic growth, job creation and poverty alleviation.

In South Africa, the rural/urban divide is stark in terms of poverty. More than two-thirds (68.8%) of rural dwellers live in poverty compared with less than a third (30.9%) of residents in urban areas (StatsSA, 2014). Statistics further show that 44% of rural households in KZN are headed by females (Bower, 2014:115), who evidently constitute the highest percentage of the poor (StatsSA, 2014). Vulindlela, a rural district in the province of KZN, is characterized by high levels of unemployment as illustrated by the provincial unemployment rate of 39% (Darbes, Van Rooyen, Hosegood, Ngubane, Fritz and McGrath, 2014:5).

According to Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo (2016:355), entrepreneurship is a vital avenue by which women could empower themselves towards participating in economic development where they are unable to secure any other form of employment. Local economic development is recognized as a critical approach to pursue in South Africa, within the context of local authorities, pro-active actions by local communities and the need to ensure that development is pro-poor in its focus and outcomes. Local economic development based on sound business principles can contribute to economic growth, job creation and poverty alleviation (Arriati and Chasomeris, 2015:432-435). In India, for instance, micro-enterprises are hailed as the best tool for rural women to add to the family income (Mazumda and Ahmed, 2015:166).

Eshetu (2014:1) states that women empowerment is not only beneficial to women themselves. It is also deemed crucial for rural development and is instrumental for reducing poverty, improving the living conditions of rural people and building a food secure world. According to a report by the United Nations (UN, 2014:8), women's participation in paid work has substantial benefits for children because of women's tendency to invest their income in the wellbeing of their children. That said, however, women continue to experience numerous challenges as they venture into the entrepreneurial sector. These include, for example, inadequate access to finance, competing demands on time, which is particularly connected to household chores and family concerns, lack of skills and access to support services (Lawal, *et al.*, 2016: 355-358).

The full potential of LED can only be realized if policies and programmes are gender inclusive. However, this potential is being undermined due to discriminatory social norms, incentives and legal institutions (Raniga, 2017:216). For example, women do not have control over and access to land or livestock which serves as collateral for securing loans. Banks, for example, are more inclined to target the male head of the household as a potential client and fail to recognize that women are active, productive and engaged economic agents with their own financial needs and constraints (Fletschner and Kenney, 2011:2-3).

In addition to gender inclusive policies and programmes mentioned above, LED can only be effective in an environment that is conducive for economic development prospects. It is incumbent upon local government to create and support an enabling environment for LED to thrive. In the new democratic South Africa, the role of local government is not only to provide basic services, but to also be developmental, meaning that they also serve as agents of economic development (Tsatsire, Taylor and Raga, 2010: 272; Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010: 44).

As a commitment to addressing poverty in South Africa, the post-apartheid Government promulgated a number of Acts and Policies to catapult economic development, among which, is the Constitution (RSA,1996), The White Paper of 1998, Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act 27 of 1998 and Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003. Macro-Economic policies such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), and the Growth, Employment and

Redistribution (GEAR) strategy had a profound influence in devising the aforementioned Acts. Despite the plethora of legislation and policies that have been devised to address the inequities and injustices of the past, there are still huge gaps in the implementation, and patriarchal institutions continue to marginalize rural women (Raniga, 2017:216; Lawal, *et al.*, 2016:356; Eshetu 2014:1; UN, 2014: 9).

The next section is a brief discussion on the research design and methods

1.8. Research Design and Methods

According to Punch (2011:62), research design entails the plan of action or strategy to be employed in the execution of the research project in order to yield the desired results. Research method refers to how the data will be collected. In other words, what mechanisms or equipment will be used to collect the relevant data? This could either be through the use of questionnaires, interviews, observation or documents (Denscombe, 2014:4).

1.8.1 Research Design

Creswell (2014:3) mentions three types of research design, that is, (a) quantitative; (b) qualitative; and (c) mixed methods research. A study can be more quantitative than qualitative or vice versa whereas, mixed methods resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative (Creswell, 2009:4; Creswell, 2014:3).

Qualitative research seeks to understand the way people experience events, places and processes. These methods aim to answer questions about the “what”, “how” or “why” of a phenomenon rather than “how many” or “how much” which are answered by quantitative methods (McGuirk and O’Neill, 2016:10).

Quantitative research can be defined as research that explains phenomenon according to numerical data which are analysed by means of statistics.(Yilmaz, 2013:311) Quantitative research uses specific instruments such as a questionnaire which has set questions with set response formats that are standardized (Laher, 2016:322).

Mixed method research entails the mixing of qualitative and quantitative components within a study. Mixing refers to the process whereby qualitative and quantitative data are interlinked to produce a fuller account of the data. This integration can occur at any stage of the research (Halcomb and Hickman, 2015:3).

For this study, the researcher used the quantitative research design since the aim was to profile the sample in terms of numbers, for example, the proportion of the sample in different age groups, or to count the frequency of occurrence of opinions, attitudes and experiences, similar to the approach adopted by Rowley (2014:309).

In this study, the aim was to establish 1) the percentage of women experiencing challenges such as lack of access to credit 2) the frequency of occurrence of opinions/perceptions that rural women have with regard to opportunities for local economic development.

1.8.2 Research Method

The researcher used self-administered questionnaires. As asserted by Rowley (2014: 309-310), this is most commonly used in conducting quantitative research where the purpose is to collect data from a relatively large number of study participants approximately between 100 and 1000. In this study, the researcher collected and analyzed 132 questionnaires. The questions were carefully chosen in order to answer the research questions. However, the questions on the questionnaire are not an exact match of the research questions, which is not unusual (Rowley, 2014:312). The important thing is that the questions were couched in a language that was easily understood by the local community. The researcher employed an isiZulu speaking student to administer the questionnaires. The questions were translated into isiZulu.

1.8.2. Research strategy

A research strategy is a general orientation to the conduct of research. Thus, quantitative research can be represented as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data. By contrast, qualitative research can be construed as a research strategy that uses words rather than numbers (Bryman, 2016:32-33).

1.8.3 Study Site and Participants

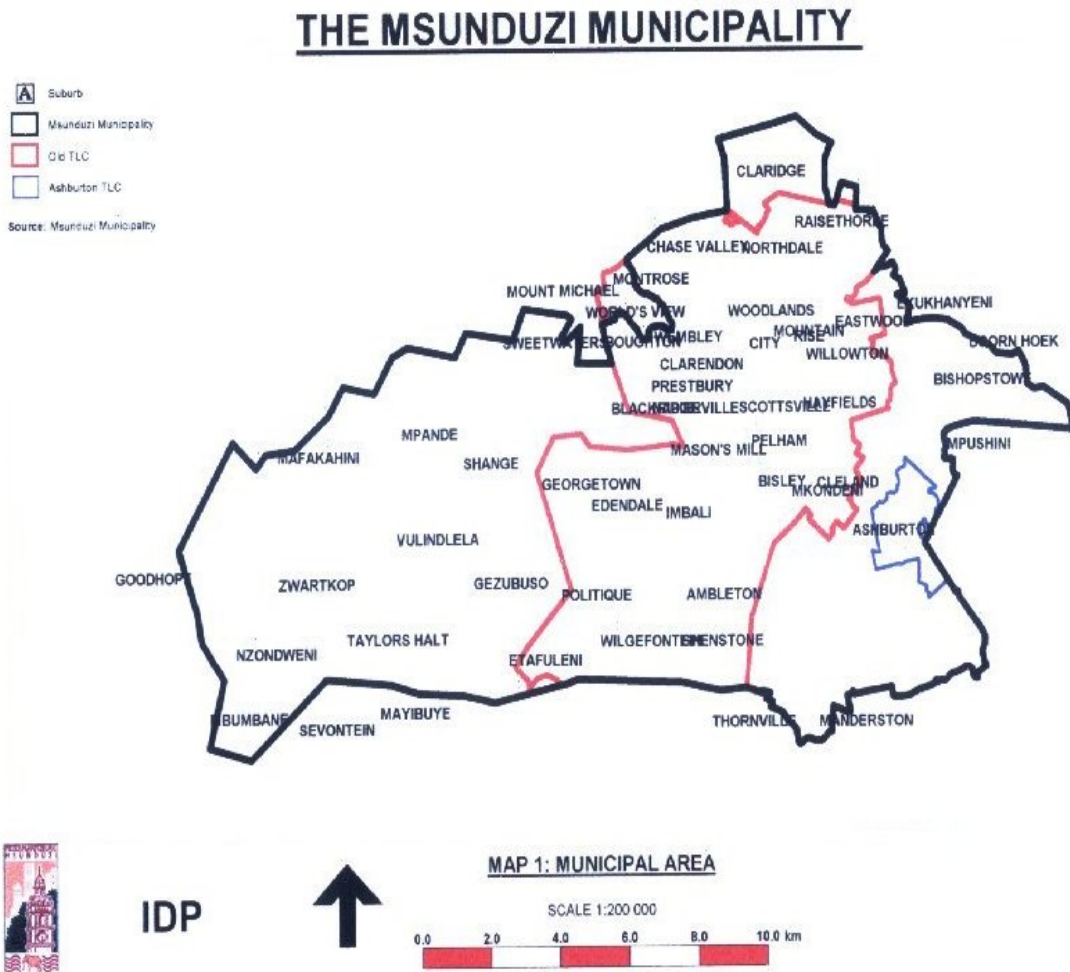
The study was conducted in Vulindlela, a rural district, located within the Msunduzi Municipality in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Map 1-2 below presents the geographic location of Vulindlela. Being an ex-apartheid homeland, Vulindlela inherited a legacy of poverty and under-development. This has further been exacerbated by the traditional system of land allocation and land use, and the challenges associated with gaining access to land for productive economic development in areas that are owned by the Ingonyama Trust (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:38). The majority of the land belongs to the traditional authority through the Ingonyama Trust and is made up of nine wards, of which five are under the traditional leadership and four are under the ward councilors of the local government municipal system (Kharsany, Cawood, Khanyile, Grobler, Mckinnon, Samsunder, Frohlick, Abdool-Karim, Puren, Welte, George, Govender, Toledo, Chipeta, Zembe, Glenshaw, Madurai, Deyde and Bere, 2015:3).

Vulindlela is a rural community, comprising predominantly isiZulu speaking people. According to the National Census data (StatsSA, 2011), the study area has an estimated 95641 households with an estimated 367,906 individuals. Of these, 48% are males and 52% are females (Kharsany *et al.* 2015:5). The IDP for Vulindlela district municipality states that, “the population of Vulindlela are the poorest in the Msunduzi Municipality.” The key role players for overseeing the future development of the area is the Msunduzi Municipality, The Traditional Councils and the Ingonyama Trust Board (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:6 &27).

The selected Wards comprise all rural inhabitants who come from the same socio-economic background and characteristically reflect the following:

- High unemployment with low levels of education (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:35);
- Low income and lack of economic opportunities (IDP, 2016:35);
- According to Kharsany, *et.al.* (2015:2), at 27.9% KZN Province has the highest prevalence of HIV/AIDS infected people. Vulindlela is cited as being the epicenter of the virus and there are more females that are infected compared to males;
- Lack of access to basic services (water, sanitation, health care) (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:35); and
- Lack of infrastructure (tarred roads, transportation system) (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:35).

Map 1- 1: Map of the Msunduzi Municipality



Source: <http://devplan.kzntl.gov.za/municipal/IDPs/Msunduzi/combined/IDP.htm>

1.8.4 Target Population

Findings of a research depend critically upon the respondents. The first step in identifying potential respondents is to consider the “population” for the study (Rowley, 2014:318). A “population” can consist of certain types of objects, organizations, people or even events. Within this “population”, there will be only certain types of objects, organizations, people or events that will be pertinent to the study (Walliman, 2011:94; Denscombe, 2014:21). The appropriate population for this study was the inhabitants of the Vulindlela region in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. Since Vulindlela is approximately an hour away from the researcher’s residential area, it was a convenient choice for the researcher to gain access to the population. In addition to that, the inhabitants of the area are

deemed to be the poorest in the Msunduzi Municipality.” (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:6 &27). Therefore the population was deemed to be the appropriate population for this study.

1.8.5 Sample Size

The target population was 200. However, the researcher was only able to get 132 questionnaires answered.

1.8.6 Sampling Strategy

There are basically two types of sampling procedures, that is:

- Probability sampling; and
- Non-probability sampling (Walliman, 2011: 95)

Probability sampling is representative of the population from which it is drawn and therefore statistical generalizations about the population can be made on the basis of the analysis of the sample data. In contrast, in non-probability sampling, since every case in the population does not have a known probability of being included in the sample, the representativeness may be compromised (Rowley, 2014:319). In this study, non-probable, convenience sampling was used to draw participants. Whoever was available and willing to participate was included in the study. This is further expounded in chapter five.

1.8.7 Data Collection Methods

Data was collected by administering questionnaires. The questionnaire comprised structured questions. At the end of each question, space was provided for comments.

1.8.8 Data Quality Control

Open response questions are used when we do not want to limit answers. Skillful open questions are high on validity because they get comprehensive answers in the respondent’s own words but are lower on reliability because different interviewers might get different answers (Guthrie, 2010 130).

Closed response questions have pre-determined options for answers. This is less valid than open ended questions because the choices might be restrictive, but is more reliable because the form of the question and answers is set so that research is more replicable. To increase validity, fixed choice response scales often include the category “other” and add open-ended probe questions seeking further explanation often with a simple “why” (Guthrie, 2010:131).

In this study, closed ended questions were supplemented by including an open-ended response such as “comment” or “explain.” This way, the actual words of the respondent can corroborate the option that was chosen in the closed/structured question. This ensures validity of the data. As mentioned above closed/structured questions are high in reliability (Guthrie, 2010:131).

1.8.9 Data Reduction and Analysis

Data analysis entails reducing the large volume of data that was collected by the researcher in order to make sense of it. In the case of quantitative data, tables or averages are used to reduce and analyse data. In the case of qualitative data, grouping textual material into themes is a common practice (Bryman, 2016:11). In this study, since quantitative data was used, it was important to determine how the data would be analysed. Based on the literature by Mash and Ogunbanjo (2014:2), the following broad types of data exist:

- Continuous data – where the numbers are on a continuous scale, such as age. In other words, it is data that can be measured on a scale and compared with other data and is preferable to obtain the actual age rather than asking respondents to select a category. In this way, it is easier to determine the mean, mode, median or standard deviation when the actual ages are collected;
- Categorical data – which represent different categories or set of data sorted or divided into categories according to the attributes thereof, as follows:
 - Nominal data – used for categories that are mutually exclusive, but without any order or progression in size. For example, categories such as yes/no, male/female.
 - Ordinal data – when the categories have some kind of order or relationship to each other such as on a Likert Scale.

In this study, both types of data were collected and analyzed accordingly. The data was initially captured on an Excel spreadsheet, as recommended by Guthrie (2010:170); this should be the first step. Thereafter, it was copied into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The responses to the open-ended questions were written in isiZulu, which is the native language of Vulindlela. The questions were translated by a student who is in his final year of the Bachelor of Laws Degree (LLB) and is proficient in both English and isiZulu.

The following two types of statistics are used to produce the description and analysis of the data (Guthrie 2010:168):

- *Descriptive statistics*, such as percentages and means, summarize numbers and are represented in graphs; and
- *Inferential tests*, analyse statistical significance for testing hypotheses and drawing inferences about the strength of the findings.

In this research, the data was statistically analyzed using descriptive statistics. The research findings are presented in tables. This is deemed to be the most appropriate technique since the aim of this research was to highlight the experiences that the women in Vulindlela, KZN have with regard to accessing LED opportunities. A detailed discussion of the above is presented in chapter five of this study.

1.8.10 Ethical Consideration

Ethical concerns should be at the forefront of any research project including the design, fieldwork and analysis, data collection and storage, dissemination, publication and disposal of data (Swain, 2016:77). According to Punch (2014: 44), “voluntary informed consent” means that:

- (1) participants agree freely to be part of the research;
- (2) they understand what their participation entails and how it will be reported; and
- (3) they feel free to withdraw their agreement at any time throughout the research process.

The questionnaire includes personal questions such as age, gender and educational level. However, it does exclude the name of the participant; therefore, personal questions cannot be tied to a

particular individual. In other words, anonymity is guaranteed. Participation was totally voluntary. Participants were required to sign a consent form and although stated on the consent form, it was also verbally explained to the participants in isiZulu that they may withdraw at any stage, and, at any time, during the process.

The University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) requires staff undertaking research to obtain prior approval from the Research Ethics Committee. A consent letter was attached to the questionnaire clearly indicating the principles of voluntary participation and informed consent. The research assistant was fully apprised of the ethical requirements and about conducting himself in a professional manner. The questionnaire and consent form provided a brief background to the study and the objective. The questionnaire was translated into isiZulu, which is the home language in Vulindlela.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

Due to logistical challenges and financial constraints, the study only covered one particular area, that is, Vulindlela, situated within the Msunduzi Municipality of KZN. The study would have been more beneficial if rural areas from other municipalities were included. This would have yielded a much broader perspective on rural womens’ experiences with regard to accessing economic generating activities. Nevertheless, the recommendations proposed in this study can be replicated to other rural areas in other municipalities in South Africa.

1.10. Key Terms and Definitions

Key terms and definitions used in the study are shown below in Table 1-1.

Table 1- 1: Key terms and definitions

Key Terms	Definition and source
Local economic development	An activity which involves local people working together to achieve sustainable economic growth resulting in economic benefits and quality of life improvements for all in the community (Rogerson, 2014:204)
Rural Areas	Sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including villages and small towns that are dispersed throughout these areas. Areas that include large settlements in the former homelands, created by apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances, and typically have traditional land tenure systems (National Treasury, 2011)

Poverty	Poverty is the inadequacy of income to attain a basic standard of living including access to health, nutrition, education, as well as leisure time (Tsheola, 2012:1).
Empowerment	<p>“Expanding the personal capacities of beneficiary communities in order to mobilise and deploy resources that will enable them to fulfil their basic needs.” (Mazibuko, 2017:49).</p> <p>“Empowerment is about people taking control of their own lives; gaining the ability to do things; to set their own agendas, and change events in a way previously lacking” (Hegarty, 2010:32).</p>

1.11 Chapter Inventory

This study comprises seven chapters. The following is a synopsis of each chapter.

Chapter One:

This chapter provides a brief background which contextualises the study. Also presented in this chapter is an overview of the literature review, the significance of the study, research objectives and questions that guide the researcher. The researcher also introduces the study site and briefly discusses the profile of the target population and how the data was collected. This chapter concludes with a brief discussion on the ethical considerations in conducting research.

Chapter Two

This chapter embodies a discussion on the post-1994 legislative and policy framework which shaped the landscape for local economic development in South Africa.

Chapter Three

This chapter is a discussion of the reviewed literature and specifically focusses on the role of local government in promoting local economic development.

Chapter Four

This chapter presents a discussion on the theories which underpin this study, namely, the Dependency Theory and the Modernisation Theory.

Chapter Five:

This chapter discusses the research design and method, sampling techniques, ethical requirements, objective and need for the study, and provides justification for the choice of methods used by the researcher.

Chapter Six

In this chapter, the researcher presents the acquired data for the study using tables and presenting a discussion on the findings.

Chapter Seven

This chapter is the concluding chapter which entails a recapitulation of the research questions and objectives, as well as the research findings. The latter part of this chapter presents the recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides a background to the study and the preliminary literature review. Also discussed is the significance of the study, the research design and methods, study site and participants, sample size and strategy for data collection. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion on the ethical considerations and a synopsis of each chapter. The next chapter is a discussion on the legislative and policy framework impacting LED.

CHAPTER 2

POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK IMPACTING LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

The previous chapter provided an overview of the study, as well as the background and preliminary literature.

2.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion on the policies and legislation implemented by the African National Congress (ANC) Government to redress the inequities and injustices of the apartheid regime. The Government promulgated a number of Acts and policies, which are discussed in this chapter, to fast-track economic development. The chapter also includes a brief discussion on the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy and the Rural Development Framework (RDF).

The following section is a discussion on the Rural Development Framework (RDF), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy.

2.2 The Rural Development Framework

With the advent of the Zuma administration, rural development became the key focal point in South Africa. This necessitated the implementation of progressive policies and legislation to catapult rural development. The RDF was the first progressive step towards addressing socio-economic development challenges faced by rural communities in South Africa. The RDF is a policy document which describes how government, working with rural people, aims to achieve and sustain the reduction of poverty by means of different programmes that help women to access finance, support and empowerment. As mentioned in the RDF, three quarters of people below the poverty line in South Africa live in rural areas. Of these, the youth, the elderly and women are particularly vulnerable. It appears that the number of women living in poverty in rural areas is growing faster than male numbers due to customary practices and inheritance laws which reduce their ability to take up economic activities (Ramaphakela, 2015:1). These features described by

Ramaphakela (2015:1) are evident in Vulindlela, KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa (Vulindlela, IDP: 2016).

The next section is a discussion on the Reconstruction and Development Programme, as well as, the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy and its influence on the legislative framework.

2.3 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy

According to Machaka (2012:4), there are two macro-policies that have shaped the environment within which social development and anti-poverty programmes have operated. These are the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR). According to Madumo (2015:161), not only legislation played an important role towards ensuring effective municipalities, but developmental programmes and strategies such as the aforementioned made a meaningful contribution.

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) policy document published in 1994 placed great emphasis on the notion of LED through its support for community based development and locality based initiatives (Reddy and Wallis, 2012:79). According to Kamara (2017:100), RDP was a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress and sought to mobilize all South Africans and the country's resources towards eradicating the effects of apartheid. Since its inception at the birth of democracy, the RDP influenced a range of policies and legislation that made its way to various Acts of Parliament. For example, the notion of public participation and representativeness reflected in the RDP is articulated in the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, as well as the Constitution (Nkuna, 2011:627).

However, the RDP which was meant to open doors for women to influence development in their communities, and ensure a better life for them, did not live up to the expectations, as women, especially rural women, continued to be isolated from the mainstream economic development (Ramaphakela, 2015:23). The GEAR, on the other hand, was a strategy for rebuilding and reconstructing the economy of South Africa in line with the goals of the RDP. The GEAR was

introduced as an overall strategy to replace the RDP (Seduma, 2011:21). The objective of GEAR was to provide basic services to the poor, alleviate poverty, achieve economic growth and give effect to the socio-economic rights in the Constitution (Kamara, 2017:100).

The following section is a discussion on the post-1994 legislative framework, which shaped the landscape of local economic development for the entire country.

2.4. Post-1994 Legislative Framework and Local Economic Development

In order to address the development challenges that South Africa faces, the African National Congress (ANC) Government implemented a plethora of policies and legislation to promote and support reconciliation, decentralization, local empowerment, participation and development at the local government level (Kamara, 2017:99). These include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, the White Paper on Local Government of 1998, Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act 27 of 1998, Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003.

2.4.1. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996

Chapter 10 of the Constitution (RSA, 1996) enunciates, among others, that “Public administration must be development oriented”. The state is obliged to create an enabling environment within its capacity and resources to ensure that developmental objectives are achieved (Karriem and Hoskins, 2016:326). According to Vyas-Doorgapersad (2010:46), a developmental state is characteristic of, *inter alia*:

- a state that intervenes strategically in the economy to promote social development; and
- a state concerned with addressing the socio-economic needs of its entire population, especially the poor, the marginalized and the historically disadvantaged.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, is the supreme law of the country, prescribing and placing great responsibility on municipalities to facilitate LED. Furthermore, the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2) in the Constitution states that the government is expected to implement initiatives to alleviate poverty, unemployment and foster rural development (Seduma, 2011:19).

In line with the Bill of Rights, women's equality is recognized as been important for realizing the developmental vision, because unless the transformation process consciously aims to rectify the social, economic and political marginalization of women, local government will not be become democratic, accountable, effective, participative and developmental (Dhlodhlo, 2010:43).

The notion of a local sphere of government is articulated in Section 40 of the Constitution (Nkuna, 2011:624). Section 151 of the Constitution (RSA 1996) makes provision for the establishment of municipalities at the local sphere, with executive and legislative authority vested in its municipal council.

Section 152 of the Constitution states that the objects of local government are:

- To provide democratic and accountable government for local communities;
- To ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner;
- To promote social and economic development;
- To promote a safe and healthy environment; and
- To encourage the involvement of communities and community Organizations in the matters of local government.

The importance of local government in promoting economic development is documented in the Constitution (SALGA 2010), and in this regard, Section 153 entrenches the developmental duties of municipalities by stating that a municipality must:

- Structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes;
- Give priority to the basic needs of the community and to promote the social and economic development of the community; and
- Participate in national and provincial development programmes.

The structure of the South African Government is established by the Constitution. The Constitution provides for three spheres of government, including the National, Provincial and Local spheres. According to Section 40(1) of the Constitution, these spheres of government are "distinctive, interdependent and interrelated". In principle, local government does not occupy a subordinate position but is a distinctive sphere of government and is an integral component of the democratic state (Malefane, 2011:978). The relationship between the spheres of government is regulated by the Intergovernmental Relation Framework (IGRF).

Accordingly, various roles and responsibilities have been assigned to the national, provincial and district municipalities on matters of supporting and building capacity for local municipalities to carry out its constitutional mandate of service delivery and LED. The role of National Government is to mobilize resources, role players and interest groups for the sake of achieving economic growth and creating jobs to alleviate poverty. (Kamara, 2017:102). Provincial government, in turn, facilitates, monitors and guides the implementation of sectoral programmes, such as LED. Local government operationalizes national and provincial initiatives in conjunction with various non-governmental organizations and the private sector; since local government is the sphere of government closest to the people and interacts on a daily basis with the community it serves, specific emphasis is placed on its developmental service delivery role (Madumo, 158:2015).

2.4.2 White Paper on Local Government of 1998

In line with LED, the White Paper on Local Government formally introduced the notion of a “developmental local government” (RSA, 1998). Essentially, this means that local government must initiate a collaborative spirit with their communities in order to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve their quality of life (Rogerson, 2014:206). Furthermore, the White Paper on Local Government advocates active participation of communities in both planning and implementation of municipal strategies. In this regard, the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is one of the key tools for municipalities to foster development (Malefane and Mashakoe, 2008: 475; Reddy, 2014:7).

The White Paper (1998) stressed that developmental local government must play a central role in representing communities, protecting human rights, and meeting basic needs, and focus its efforts and resources on improving the quality of life for our communities, especially those members and groups that are often marginalized or excluded, such as rural women (Dhlodlo, 2010: 31-32).

As outlined in the White Paper on Local Government, developmental local government has four interrelated characteristics. These are (RSA, 1998):

- a) Maximising social development and economic growth;
- b) Integrating and co-ordinating;
- c) Democratising development; and

d) Leading and learning.

According to Nkuna (2011: 630-631), the above characteristics contextualize the notion of a developmental state. With municipalities being at the local sphere, the word “local” in “local economic development” context denotes local government level as the most appropriate place to foster local economic development (Phago and Tsoabisi, 2010: 157).

The following is a discussion on the characteristics of a developmental local government as espoused in the White Paper on Local Government (RSA, 1998).

- a) *Maximizing social development and economic growth:* The provision of basic services enhances the quality of life of citizens and increases their social and economic opportunities by promoting health and safety, facilitating access to work, to education and stimulating economically productive activities (Koma, 2010:114).
- b) *Integrating and coordinating:* Enhancing the economy and job creation cannot be undertaken solely by local government. Within any local area, various stakeholders contribute to development. These include national and provincial departments, state parastatals, trade unions, community groups and private sector institutions. It is incumbent upon local government to provide a vision and leadership for all those who have a role to play in achieving LED (Nkuna, 2011:631-632).
- c) *Democratizing development:* Municipal councils play a central role in promoting local democracy (Nkuna, 2011: 632). In addition to representing community interests within the council, councillors should ensure that citizens and community groups are involved in the design and delivery of municipal programmes (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:47). Therefore, public participation is critical to local governance and more importantly, in facilitating socio-economic development (Reddy, 2014:7).
- d) *Leading and Learning:* Extremely rapid changes are occurring at the global, regional and local levels, which necessitates more innovative ways of doing things. Therefore, local communities need to rethink the way they are organized and governed. Across the globe communities have to find new ways to sustain their economies, protect their environments, improve safety and eliminate poverty (Nkuna, 2011:633; Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:47).

As outlined in the White Paper (1998), local authorities are entrusted with the following roles, among others, in order to promote LED (Dhlodhlo, 2010:5):

- Support for small and medium businesses through the provision of training and support mechanisms and creating optimal infrastructure;
- The improvement of the infrastructure and services in general to enhance economic efficiency and productivity;
- Training and capacity building initiatives;
- Targeted investment to boost potentially growing sectors, tourism, knowledge industries, agriculture; and
- Marketing to attract potential investors and defining the local authority as an economic actor in the local economy with considerable clout and leverage capability.

To give effect to the provisions in the White Paper (1998), local municipalities need to introduce entrepreneurial skills to women to enable them to grow their own local economic activities. Income-generating activities such as sewing, farming, and vegetable gardens can play a meaningful role for unemployed women (Dhlodhlo, 2010:7). Local government can also make a significant impact by investing in the infrastructure such as roads, telecommunications, Information and Communications Technology (ICT), to create and stimulate viable markets, as well as prioritizing training and skills development for women (Treasury, 2011:191; Steiner 2014:5).

2.4.3. Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act 27 of 1998

The Municipal Demarcation Act was the first piece of legislation to deal with the transformation of local government during the interim phase. Based on the Local Government Transitional Act 1993 and the framework provided by the Constitution, the Demarcation Board was established to determine the municipal boundaries for the entire country. This was popularly known as “wall-to-wall” local government. This meant that municipalities needed to be established even in the rural areas which were grossly neglected during the apartheid era. (Nene, 2016:25). The Local Government Transition Act 209 (LGTA) of 1993, which was amended in 1996, makes provision for the implementation of LED in every area covered by a municipality (Seduma, 2011:21).

2.4.4 Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 (MSA) provides for the core principles, mechanisms and processes necessary to enable municipalities to fulfill its Constitutional mandate, including the upliftment of the social and economic standards of local communities. As such, the MSA (2000) empowers local governments to become efficient development agencies for the overall social and economic upliftment of communities (Mle and Maclean, 2011:1367).

The MSA (2000) gives effect to Section 152 of the South African Constitution. The Act regulates the planning, participatory and service delivery system of municipalities. Specifically, Chapter 5 of the MSA (2000) spells out the developmental obligation of local governments. In this regard, Section 25(1) of the Act states that:

“...each municipal council must, within a prescribed period after the start of its elected term, adopt a single, inclusive and strategic plan for the development of the municipality.”

In addition to the above, Section 26(c) of the MSA, makes provision for “the council’s development priorities and objectives for its elected term, including local economic development aims and internal transformation needs”, to be a core component of its IDP (MSA,2000).

The Act also encourages the relationship between local government and the public, putting people at the forefront in the agenda of developmental local government and good governance (Munzhedzi and Phago, 41:2013). In this regard, of great significance is the issue of participatory development manifested in Chapter 4 of the MSA (2000). Specifically, Section 16 (MSA 2000) calls for municipalities to foster a culture of participatory governance by encouraging and creating conditions for local communities to participate in the affairs of the municipality. Section 17 of the Act (MSA 2000) outlines procedures and processes for community participation and the following special needs that the municipality must consider when establishing procedures and processes for community participation (Dhlodhlo, 2010:23):

- People who cannot read and/or write;
- People with disabilities;
- Women; and
- Disadvantaged groups.

2.4.5 Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998

The preamble to the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 (MSA) clearly articulates the mandate of local government as follows:

“...vision of democratic and developmental local government, in which municipalities fulfill their constitutional obligations to ensure sustainable, effective and efficient services, promote social and economic development, encourage a safe and healthy environment by working with communities in creating environments and human settlements in which all our people can lead uplifted and dignified lives”

Essentially, the preamble, as stated above, denotes that municipalities must be empowered to promote and support social and economic upliftment of communities and the provision of basic services to all people, specifically the poor and disadvantaged (Heydenrych, 2012:25). To strengthen democracy and in line with the preamble, the MSA (2000) further introduced participatory local democracy and local development, as well as placed great emphasis on consulting communities as part of engendering and enhancing participatory democracy in the local government sphere (Seduma, 2011:22).

2.4.6 Local Government: Municipal Financial Management Act 56 of 2003

The Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) regulates municipal financial management by setting requirements for the efficient and effective management of municipal finances (Matsiliza, 2012:447). The MFMA further provides for municipalities to develop a budget to ensure the capacity to use, control, monitor, evaluate, and manage the resources and performance channeled towards implementation of LED (Maloka, Mashamaite & Ledwaba, 2014: 219).

2.5 The Policy Guidelines for Implementing LED in South Africa (2005)

An important policy initiative is the 2005 Policy Guidelines for implementing LED in South Africa, which identifies economic growth and poverty eradication as the key overarching goals of LED (Meyer, 2013:97). The 2005 LED Policy Guidelines provide a checklist of the responsibilities of municipalities in LED, which, *inter alia*, are the following (Rogerson, 2011:155):

- Emerge with innovative solutions to local challenges;

- Address localised socio-economic challenges and promote LED whilst contributing to broader national socio-economic objectives;
- Encourage local initiative;
- Seize development opportunities; and
- Develop local skills.

In addition, the 2005 Policy Guidelines consider the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) as being a vital tool for the coordinated development of the local economy in the province, and the role of provincial government is seen as follows (Koma, 2014:43):

- To assume a coordination role taking responsibility for resources allocated from national to provincial government and ensuring that these are correlated with the priorities of the various IDPs;
- To establish LED for a to carry out the work of the National LED Forum and establish dedicated LED units in provincial governments; and
- To assume a role in building capacities of municipalities to undertake LED and in supporting them in its implementation.

Ultimately, the government is responsible for providing support to municipalities to implement their developmental mandate and to provide the overall legislative and regulatory framework for LED (Masuku, Jili & Selepe, 2016:3).

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted the legislative and policy framework designed to facilitate LED. In the post-1994 era, local government is no longer just a service provider but is empowered by the Constitution to assume a developmental role. Also discussed in this chapter are the macro-economic policies which played a crucial and influential role in devising the legislative framework. The chapter concludes with the LED Policy Guidelines which provides a checklist of the responsibilities of municipalities in implementing LED. The next chapter is a continuation of the literature review on local economic development and rural women in a democratic local government context.

CHAPTER 3

POST-1994 SOUTH AFRICA'S LOCAL ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND RURAL WOMEN

“The day rural people would ‘cry only because of beautiful things is the day and moment we would be satisfied that, indeed, the Government would have delivered on the promise of ‘A Better Life For All!’”
(Rural Development Framework, 2013)

The previous chapter entailed a discussion on the legislative and policy framework which is a guiding tool for the implementation of LED. The previous chapter also accentuated the developmental role of local government.

3.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents a review of literature on Local Economic Development (LED) as a strategic intervention to create vibrant and sustainable economic livelihoods for rural women. Also included in this chapter is a review of the literature on the notion of a developmental local government as espoused in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) and its role in fostering an environment that is conducive to creating entrepreneurial opportunities for all in general and for rural women in particular.

The following section provides a definition of LED

3.2 Defining Local Economic Development (LED)

Several scholars provide different meanings of LED. For example, Meyer, Meyer and Neethling, (2016:55) relates local economic development to the local or regional level while Rogerson (2014:204) defines LED as the “increases in a local economy’s capacity to create wealth for local residents”. Moreover, Meyer (2014:625) defines LED as the process with which local government or Community Based Organizations (CBOs) engage to stimulate or maintain business activity and/or employment.

According to the World Bank Report (2011), LED is a collaborative process involving the public, business and non-governmental sectors that work to create better conditions for economic growth and employment generation. The purpose of LED is to build up the economic capacity of a local area to improve its economic future and the quality of life for all. Finally, Nxumalo (2012:20-21) defines LED as a “process in which local governments or CBOs engage to stimulate or maintain business activity and/or employment. The principal goal of local economic development is to stimulate local employment opportunities in sectors that improve the community using human, natural and institutional resources”.

3.3 Local Economic Development and Rural Women

From the above conceptions of LED, it is apparent that the purpose of LED is to build up the economic capacity of a local area and to improve the quality of life for all, including women (Machaka, 2012:16). In the post-apartheid era, LED is of great significance in the development process because of its close association with the principles of community development and socio-economic redress, which were recognized in the first post-apartheid national development strategy, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (Nel and Rogerson, 2016: 31).

The legislative context for LED activity in South Africa was launched in 1996 with the requirement in the National Constitution for local authorities to implement social and economic development (Rogerson, 2008:310). In 2006, a National Framework was devised to guide the policy framework for LED and its objectives. The 2006 Guidelines specified seven core objectives for the framework, namely:

- To shift towards a more strategic approach to the development of local economies and overcome challenges encountered by municipalities in managing non-viable projects;
- To support local economies in realising their potential and encouraging local communities to participate in the development initiatives;
- To promote effective functioning local economies;
- To fight poverty more effectively through local level debates, strategies and actions;
- To improve community access to economic initiatives, support programmes and information;

- To improve the coordination of economic development planning and implementation across government and between government and non-governmental actors; and
- To build greater awareness about the importance and role of localities and regions (Rogerson, 2011:152).

Local economic development is recognized as a critical approach to pursue in South Africa, within the context of local authorities, pro-active actions by local communities and the need to ensure that development is pro-poor in its focus and outcomes. Local economic development based on sound business principles has the potential to stimulate economic growth, job creation and alleviate poverty (Arriati and Chasomeris, 2015:432-435). In India, for example, micro-enterprises have proven to be the best tool for rural women to add to the family income (Mazumda and Ahmed, 2015: 166). Eshetu (2014:1, 2017:43) states that women empowerment is not only beneficial to women, but is also deemed to be central for rural development. Moreover, women's participation in paid work has substantial benefits for children since women have the tendency to invest their income in the wellbeing of their children (UN, 2014:8).

That being said, however, women experience numerous challenges as they venture into the entrepreneurial sector (Chinomona and Maziriri, 2015:837). Particularly rural women, are plagued with challenges such as inadequate access to finance, competing demands on time which is related to household chores and family concerns, lack of skills and access to support services, which severely undermines their ability to access income generating activities (Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo, 2016: 355-358). For example, Vulindlela, in KZN, has the highest number of HIV infected people in South Africa (Kharsany, *et.al.* 2015:2). The duty to care for sick family members invariably becomes the responsibility of the women. As a result, this leaves little or no time for them to venture into any income generating opportunities.

The full potential of LED can only be realized if such challenges are addressed by policies and programmes that facilitate accessibility for rural women. Instead, the full potential of LED is being undermined due to discriminatory social norms, incentives and legal institutions (Raniga 2017:216; Levendale, 2017:8). For example, due to discriminatory social and cultural norms women are prohibited to have control over and access to land or livestock, which serves as collateral for securing loans. In the absence of collateral, banks, for example, are more inclined to

target the male head of the household as a potential client and fail to recognize that women are active, productive and engaged economic agents with their own financial needs and constraints (Fletschner and Kenney, 2011:2-3).

3.4 LED Policy and Implementation

A 2006 survey of LED in South Africa revealed that despite nearly a decade of government encouragement, only 48% of municipalities developed a defined LED policy (Rogerson, 2010:486). According to Meyer (2013:93), international experience demonstrates that local government plays a pivotal role in developing and implementing LED strategies and interventions. The effectiveness thereof will be largely influenced by the variables as per Figure 3-1 below (Koma, 2014:55).

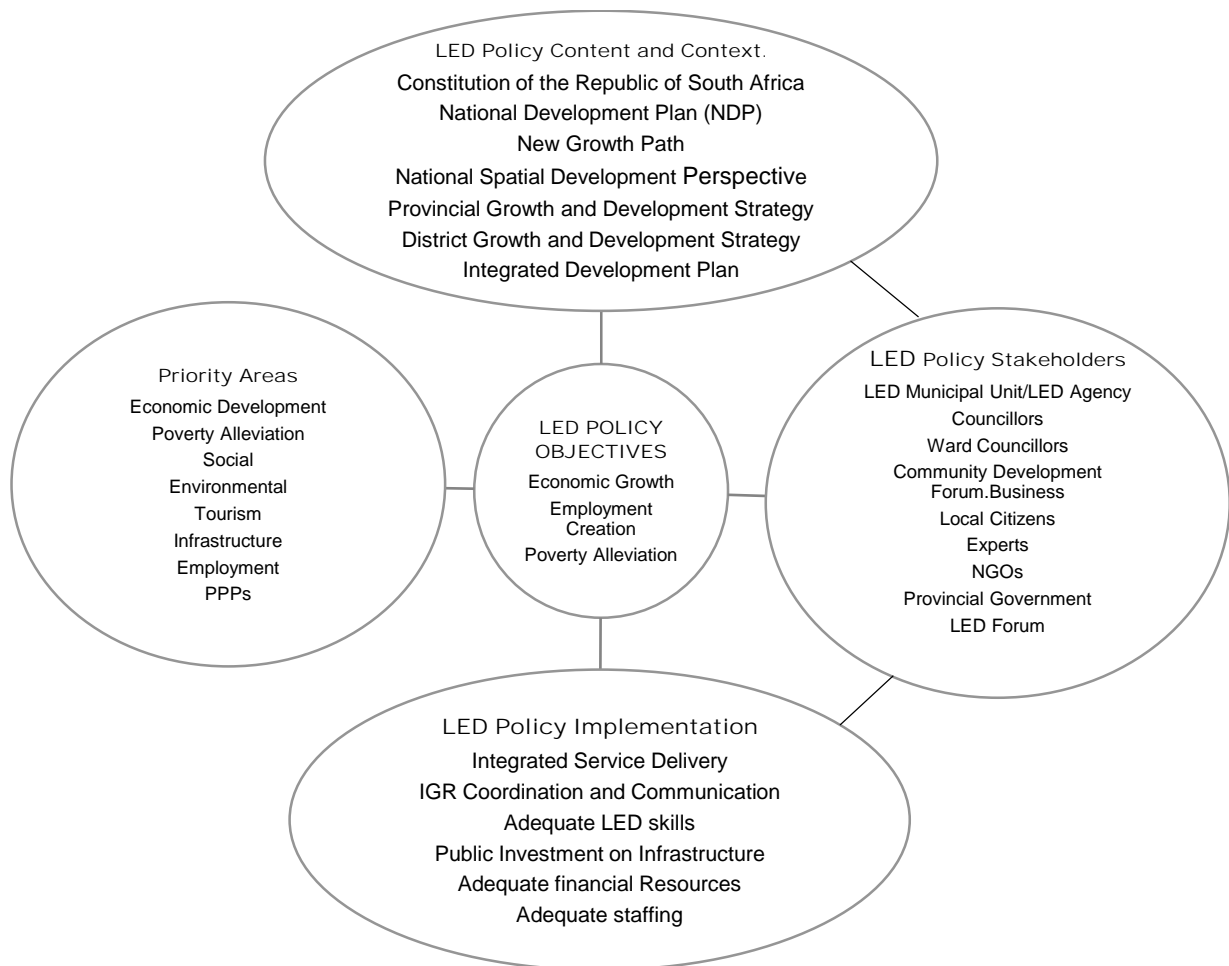


Figure 3-1: LED implementation model

Source: Adapted from Koma (2014:55)

A competent local government with practical and effective policies can serve as a valuable support for vibrant economic development (Ingle, 2014:475). According to Msuku, Jili and Selepe (2016:2), the benefit of LED is enhanced when local stakeholders and local government work jointly in designing and implementing policies and programmes aimed at improving the local economy. This initiative must, however, include women's participation, in line with the Constitutional imperatives of non-racism, non-sexism through the IDP process (RSA, 1996).

3.4.1 LED Policy Content and Context

The Constitution (RSA, 1996) sets out the objectives for local government. Specifically, Section 153 clearly states that local government must promote social and economic development. Furthermore, local government must encourage the involvement of communities, which must invariably include women and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) in the affairs of local government (Koma, 2014:56). According to Reddy (2014:3), the inclusiveness of all stakeholders, and role-players, irrespective of gender and financial status, is important for the economic development of a local area. It ensures socially-just governance and is important to foster growth and development.

Provinces can also make an important contribution by aligning and integrating LED policies into their provincial strategies such as the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS), which is the main tool for guidance, coordination and alignment of development and growth initiatives. The PGDS is, in essence, a strategic document, and although it is not a legislative requirement, potentially, it can assume a vital role in ensuring the effectiveness and coordinated delivery of the objectives of the developmental state. Through the PGDS, provincial governments are expected to play a leading role in ensuring that economic planning, infrastructure investment and development spending takes place in accordance with the principles set out in the National Spatial Development Perspective (NSDP) (Rogerson, 2010:485). The PGDS provides an essential link between national and local development processes and can be important for creating links within LED to ensure that development at the local government level takes place in an integrated manner (Rogerson, 2010:485).

In terms of influencing LED, the provinces have an important role to play in guiding local governments in the evolution of LED programmes through the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) processes and in contextualizing national imperatives. The IDP is a local government planning tool that helps local municipalities to develop a comprehensive and long term plan to advance development and services in their areas of jurisdiction (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2012:372). The IDP requires municipalities to engage with communities they serve regarding their LED initiatives. This reinforces the notion of developmental local government (Nkuna, 2017:623). Moreover, local government has a Constitutional obligation to ensure that planning is inclusive (RSA, 1996). However, representation of men and women in planning remain unequal, particularly in local government. Rural areas are faced with a dire challenge of marginalization of women in decision-making in the development process (Mokoele, 2017:189-190).

In addition, the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) is a requirement under the Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 (MFMA) which gives effect to the Municipalities' IDP and annual budget. The MFMA aligns the municipal budget with the IDP and subsequently, the service delivery budget and implementation plan of a municipality (Madumo, 2015:162). The SDBIP includes, among others, service delivery targets and the achievement of the strategic objectives set out in the IDP. The SDBIPs, therefore, are key mechanisms for monitoring the different responsibilities and targets that each directorate must fulfill in meeting service delivery needs provided to the community (Msundusi Municipality Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Pan, 2018/2019). It is crucial that municipalities operate within their budget in order to ensure that they have adequate funds to spend on equity issues, such as gender mainstreaming. Currently, gender mainstreaming issues are not seen as core functions and viewed as additional expenses for overstretched municipal budgets, Very few municipalities have dedicated budgets for skills development, grants, among other necessities, targeting vulnerable groups, namely rural women (Reddy, 2014:11).

3.4.2 LED Policy Stakeholders

The Local Economic Development (LED) policy implementation model involves LED policy stakeholders, that is, CBOs, NGOs, local government and local communities. In fact, the White Paper on Local Government (RSA, 1998) defines developmental Local Government as a

government committed to working with local citizens, CBOs and NGOs (Koma, 2014:57). Non-Governmental Organizations act as “gap-fillers”, meaning that they provide services where the government falls short or is unable to render the necessary services, for example, skills training for women in the entrepreneurial sector (Mandinyenya, 2014:1). Given the challenges that are faced by the government in job creation and poverty eradication, LED can be strengthened by collaborating with other sectors outside its domain to find practical solutions. The IDP for Vulindlela, in KZN, indicates that the current economy of Vulindlela is largely based on Government interventions with limited private sector income and investment. Economic development opportunities are limited due to, among others, lack of skills and training (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:24-25). Also stated in the IDP is that “the population of Vulindlela are the poorest in the Msunduzi Municipality” (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:27). Therefore, NGOs can play a vital role in areas like Vulindlela.

Local economic development can be strengthened by joint planning by a municipality, its community and business sectors, that is, all economic forces in the local situation have to be brought on board to identify resources, understand needs and work out plans to find the best ways of making the local economy fully functional, investor-friendly and competitively productive (Machaka, 2012:19). Moreover, the White Paper on Municipal Service Partnerships of 2000, encourages partnerships between CBOs and municipalities as these have the capacity to promote economic development (Reddy, 2010:74). Local government is the sphere of government closest to the people and is obliged to promote democracy and participatory development (Mokoele, 2017:192).

To reiterate the importance of stakeholder engagement, Masuku, Jili and Selepe (2016:2) are of the opinion that “LED becomes more effective when local stakeholders and authorities form partnerships with national planning agencies and international donors, jointly designing and implementing initiatives aimed at improving the local economy”. The interaction between the state, civil society and private sector is also reflective of a democracy.

Taking the above into account, municipalities should consider the following (Koma 2014: 58-59):

- Ensure that Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plans (SDBIP) are synchronised with IDPs;
- Effective Intergovernmental relations (IGR);
- Public investment in infrastructure is initiated and spearheaded by government departments and municipalities in order to stimulate and boost local economies;
- Enterprise development is promoted and underpinned by market access, infrastructure such as roads, electricity, adequate funding for start-ups, skills training and capacity building;
- Adequate funding is made available to municipalities in order to initiate LED projects through institutions such as the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA), Industrial Development Corporation (IDC);
- Adequate skills are crucial for the effective implementation of LED policy; and
- Adequate staffing for LED municipal units and agencies should be a top priority.

Furthermore, the 2006 LED Framework explicitly outlines the roles and responsibilities of local government. The following three core roles are identified (Rogerson, 2011:155):

- To provide leadership and direction in policy making (cutting red tape, improving business environment);
- Administer policy, programmes and LED projects; and
- To be the main initiator of economic development through public spending, regulatory powers and promotion of industrial, small business development, social enterprises and cooperatives.

Stakeholders in LED must be able to apply policies in a manner that empowers communities, particularly vulnerable sections of communities such as rural women, to participate and drive their own development (Mazibuko, 2017:32). Rural women know what their development needs, priorities and challenges are, and therefore are in the best position to influence and shape policies and implementation in a meaningful way (Mazibuko, 2017:41). Failure to place women at the centre of LED planning will render all efforts to fight rural poverty fruitless (Mokoele, 2017:192-195).

3.4.3 LED Priority Areas

In an attempt to ensure that local authorities focus on LED as a priority area, it is now compulsory for all local authorities to draw up a five year IDP, which must contain a LED strategy (South African Local Government Association, 2010:3). Prioritizing investment in infrastructure sectors such as transportation, energy, telecommunications, ICT, can have a particularly positive impact on economic growth. Investing in roads, for example, reduces transportation costs of goods, lowers trading barriers and facilitates access to markets. Investing in social infrastructure can also have a positive impact on economic development. For example, investing in schools and hospitals will lead to healthier and more educated people. People will be better placed to acquire business skills and will be more innovative. This in turn will stimulate economic development (Steiner, 2014:5). According to Chiloane-Tsoka (2013:349), lack of education can also be a hindrance since those who enter the entrepreneurial sector usually have at least a secondary level of education rather than those who have only a primary level of education. Literacy levels have serious implications for accessing entrepreneurial opportunities. Education opportunities, especially for women, are crucial for sustainable livelihoods and capacity building (Mazibuko, 2017:35).

Another important factor to ensure effective implementation of LED policy, is having staff that possess adequate LED skills. Municipalities must be adequately funded so that they are able to attract and retain professionally qualified, competent and capable LED policy implementers (Koma, 2014:59). Failure across municipalities to prioritize LED programmes can be attributed to lack of knowledge of local government officials on how to drive meaningful programmes that will serve to eradicate poverty (Dhlodhlo, 2010:7). This further exacerbates poverty and under-development in rural areas and hampers any chances that rural women may have of securing income-generating activities to support their families.

3.4.3 Local Economic Development and Infrastructure Development

A municipality is considered to be developmental if it is able to deliver basic services such as water, sanitation, roads electricity, among others (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:47). By providing roads, for example, the municipality would be creating an enabling environment for rural entrepreneurs, including women, to transport their agricultural products to markets in the urban areas. It is acknowledged in the Rural Development Framework (RDF) that there is an existence

of an economic interdependency between urban and rural areas. Therefore, there is a need for a mutually supportive developmental approach to the two areas.

The RDF is a policy framework which outlines rural development strategies, and how rural development imperatives can be integrated into overarching policy frameworks. The policy seeks to address poverty alleviation, LED, integrating rural and urban development, employment creation, infrastructure provision and local democracy, among others (Eastern Cape Socio-Economic Consultative Council, 2000). Rural-urban dependency refers to the growing flow of capital and goods between rural and urban areas (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, 2013). Therefore, market accessibility is crucial for a successful LED initiative. Moreover, by providing roads, electricity and other basic services, rural areas will attract potential tourists and possibly even investors, which would create employment opportunities for the women in the area (Treasury, 2011:196).

Lack of basic infrastructure imposes high costs on rural populations resulting from longer distances to travel to access goods and services, higher prices of consumption goods and low selling price for their produce. Rural women pay a particularly high price for the lack of infrastructure in time spent accessing water for domestic or agricultural uses, processing and marketing food and other agricultural or non-farm products, collecting firewood and reaching health care services for themselves and their families. Findings of the International Fund for Agriculture Development (IFAD) confirm that rural women spend more than 16 hours a day engaging in household chores (Tanwir and Safdar, 2013:217). This “time poverty” limits their ability to develop or access complementary sources of income (ILO, 2010). According to Akpan (2015:114), poor road and communication network services in the rural areas are a major impediment to the growth of economic activities, especially for women. The challenges of having to commute from distant peripheral areas into business or semi-urban areas are most costly and not accessible for women.

3.4.4 Intergovernmental Relations Co-ordination and Communication

The Constitution of South Africa of 1996 advocates for the promotion of an intergovernmental relationship between all spheres of government on issues related to the development of the economy (RSA 1996) (Seduma, 2011:20). Local government cannot fulfil its mandate without a

partnership with national and provincial government. Therefore, a sound intergovernmental relationship is imperative to ensure the success of a developmental local government. It is for this reason that the rendering of services has to take place within the spirit of cooperative government as stipulated in Chapter 3 of the Constitution. All three spheres of government must be seen as equal partners (Kanyane, 2014:92-93).

However, in terms of LED planning, there is a lack of intergovernmental coordination on how to develop robust local economies and creating jobs and income for local populations, including women, and insufficient attention to “bottom up” planning and consultative processes (Heydenrych, 2012:33). Poor interdepartmental cooperation and lack of horizontal integration has hampered local development planning. Municipalities are facing great difficulties in acquiring planning and budgeting information from sector departments; consequently, this leads to a struggle in planning and implementation of development programmes and projects (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2012: 372-373; Nzimakwe, 2012:140).

Inter-governmental relations means that all spheres of government must work in harmony in order to create a climate that is favourable for effective service delivery and the creation of empowerment opportunities, which would benefit rural women. Parliamentarians have the power to ensure that local government includes gender mainstreaming as a focus and pursue policies such as affirmative action in the awarding of entrepreneurial opportunities, granting of credit and tenders (Levendale, 2017:21).

Rogerson (2010:483) states that there is a pressing need for closer cooperation between all LED stakeholders to avoid duplication of tasks and establish complementary roles, both for different government departments and for other stakeholders. The National Joint Programme of Action (NJPA) for LED was proposed in 2008 to involve the departments of agriculture, minerals and energy as well as the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) and the DCoGTA and to form a potential basis for sectoral integration. Many problems that limit the success of local LED planning in South Africa could be solved by forging more integrated relationships between local, district and provincial authorities in development planning.

3.4.5 Adequate Financial Resources

Municipalities require adequate financial resources in order to initiate LED projects. Funding can be obtained through various avenues, namely, Development Finance Institutions, such as the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA) and the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC). These resources can be allocated in the form of loans, grants and subsidies to municipalities that demonstrate the potential and capacity to drive economic growth and development (Koma, 2014: 58). Financial resources should be channeled towards supporting rural women to create sustainable livelihoods.

To ensure that women have access to funding, Reddy (2014:9) proposes gender responsive budgets, including government spending earmarked for gender-based programs and projects with safe facilities for women and LED strategies that target women entrepreneurs. However, while there has been some progress made in mainstreaming gender equality in local governance, the goal of gender equality at the local level is far from being achieved as this sphere seems to be lagging behind in terms of national guidelines.

In South Africa, the National Development Plan (NDP) and Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) place high emphasis on promoting entrepreneurial activities. The NDP (RSA, 2012) includes a strong focus on gender and proposes the following recommendations, among others, to advance the empowerment of women (Kruger, 2017:14):

- Public employment should be expanded to provide work for the unemployed with a specific focus on youth and women;
- The transformation of the economy should involve active participation and empowerment of women; and
- Security of land tenure should be created for communal farmers, especially women.

These government initiatives seek to provide interventions that minimize challenges faced by entrepreneurs. For example, the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) allocates funding to promote local entrepreneurs, while BBBEE promotes access to markets. However, female entrepreneurs, particularly in the rural areas, continue to encounter numerous challenges, including the inability to access finance to set up their businesses (Karasi, Shambare and Nkondo, 2017:193).

Although LED has been identified as a key role for local government, financial resources directed towards LED initiatives are limited compared to other service delivery priorities of local government. On average, approximately less than one percent of the operating budgets of municipalities is directed towards LED initiatives (Treasury, 2011:200). Moreover, women bear the brunt of mismanagement of funds. As asserted by Reddy (2014:11), municipal budgets are overstretched, therefore, financial mismanagement further compromises the economic capacity of a municipality. Important issues such as gender mainstreaming are often sidelined for other service delivery priorities. In fact, very few municipalities have dedicated budgets targeting vulnerable groups, namely rural women. Once again, rural women are deprived of opportunities to access income generating activities. Where resources are limited, especially at local government level, there is tendency to overlook gender issues and incentives that will empower women economically (PGDS of KZN, 2011:103)

3.4.6 Building Strong Network Governance

Interaction between Municipal LED officials and the private sector is imperative to encourage the sharing of ideas and resource. This is a key factor in getting municipalities to approach and prioritize LED in a more effective manner. In the absence of networks and little interaction between the local authority and the private sector, the local authority interprets its role as a participant in, rather than facilitator for LED, adopting an *ad hoc* project-based approach (Rogerson, 2010:486).

Having discussed the influence of the variables for a successful LED implementation process, it must be acknowledged that municipalities across South Africa are reeling from a highly fragmented, divisive and undemocratic system of the pre-1994 era. As a result, they are now faced with a mammoth task of levelling the playing-fields in respect of service delivery and achieving sound people-led socio-economic development (Khumalo and Thakhathi, 2012:48). The section below discusses some of the challenges that undermine the developmental initiatives including the implementation of LED interventions.

3.5 Challenges Impacting on Local Economic Development.

Vulindlela, a rural sub-district in KZN, is part of the ex-homeland of KZN and inherently remains under-developed. The area is located within the Msundusi Municipality. It is characterized by high levels of unemployment, poor levels of education, a youthful population profile and limited access to income-generating opportunities (Msundusi Municipality, 2016:1). These inherited characteristics prevalent across municipalities in South Africa impose a challenge for local government to effectively execute its developmental mandate. Below are some of the most pressing challenges that local government is faced with.

3.5.1 Institutional and Capacity Challenges

The transformation of local government in the post-1994 era was aimed at rationalizing the local government sphere and turning municipalities into effective and efficient service oriented entities. However, many municipalities across the country are still facing severe capacity constraints such as inadequate managerial skills and technical expertise in order to fulfill the objectives of developmental local government (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:44; IDASA, 2010). The key tool for enhancing the developmental capacity of local government, which is the IDP has not adequately served its developmental intentions. As revealed by Rambuda and Masenya (2017:99), women participation in decision-making in rural areas constitute only four percent of the entire rural population, which means that the majority are not involved in the formulation of developmental plans. The absence of meaningful participation by communities and local stakeholders has undermined the legitimacy of IDPs (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2012: 372).

3.5.2 Lack of Knowledge and Understanding of LED

According to Seduma (2011:29), the implementation of LED programmes encountered numerous obstacles such as poor understanding of local economies, support for unsustainable community projects, among others. Rogerson (2011:158) postulates that for most municipalities, the initial LED practice was confined to small projects, and the majority of which were unsustainable once donor or public funding disappeared. There is a lack of professionalism in LED because of its poor career prospects. Consequently, LED fails to attract or retain officials who might be able to combine business skills with public sector skills. Furthermore, LED is very rarely located in its own department, often operating within a wider unit such as planning and community services

(Rogerson, 2010:489). Local government needs to continuously train officials to adapt to the development philosophy of the national government in order to improve the quality of life for all citizens (Dhlodhlo, 2010:34).

3.5.3 Lack of Access to Land

Increased numbers of households in limited areas of land has led to increased settlement densification, particularly in and around Sweetwaters, Taylors Halt, KwaMncane, Mafakathini and Henley Dam, which constitute the Vulindlela Area. Owing to costs and lack of forward planning, it is not feasible for the Msundusi Municipality to both improve and extend high levels of service to all areas of Vulindlela (Msundusi Municipality, 2016:2).

Severe poverty in the rural areas and high unemployment in the formal economy underpin the rural demand for land. The fact that African women did not historically qualify to own property limited their means of collateral and consequently were unable to secure funding or credit to start businesses (Chiloane-Tsoka, 2013:349). In many traditionally male-dominated rural South African communities, the current gender-neutral legislation has been inadequate in providing women access to land. Where Traditional Authorities rule, such as the Vulindlela area in KZN, local authorities do not have jurisdiction over such matters and are unable to assist women in this regard (Pruitt, 2008:34). Women's lack of access to land undermines their capacity to take advantage of economic opportunities. Although women's movements such as the Rural Women's Movement based in KZN, which advocates for the rights of women with regard to ownership of land exist, decision-making processes around land issues are still male-dominated (Nadasen, 2012:45-47).

3.5.4 Conflicting Roles and Responsibilities

According to Section 81 of the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, Traditional Leaders are afforded the opportunity to address the municipal council on a specific matter that concerns their area. This tends to be a hindrance since Traditional Leaders may sometimes delay the implementation of programmes such as skills and training programmes in LED for women that the municipality may organize in their area of jurisdiction. The expectation is that such interventions must be ratified by them before being implemented in their area of jurisdiction. This may cause

unnecessary delay. This has given rise to conflict in terms of the demarcation of roles of Traditional Leaders and municipalities in respect to development within communities (Madumo, 2015:158).

3.6 Defining Rural Areas and Municipalities in South Africa

The transformation of local government post-1994 led to a large scale re-demarcation of municipal boundaries. Consequently, this created confusion over what constituted a rural area and a rural municipality. In order to define rural municipalities, the method devised by COGTA is used, which is based on the context within which municipalities operate and uses variables such as the number of poor households, the proportion of households with access to basic services such as water, sanitation and electricity and the information on capital and operating budgets. In this context, municipalities can be classified into different categories as shown below in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1: Classification of municipalities.

Class	Characteristics	Number
Metros	Category A municipalities.	6
Secondary Cities (B1)	All local municipalities referred to as secondary cities. They are second tier in the hierarchy of cities, or a second tier administrative unit in a country. https://secondarycities.state.gov/faq/	21
Large Towns (B2)	All local municipalities with an urban core. Huge variation in population sizes. Have large urban dwelling population.	29
Small Towns (B3)	Have a relatively small population; significant proportion of which is urban. Rural areas in this category are characterized by the presence of commercial farms, as these local economies are largely agriculture based.	111
Mostly rural (B4)	At most, one or two small towns exist in these areas, communal land tenure and villages or scattered groups of dwellings and typically located in the former homelands.	76
Districts (C1)	District municipalities that are not water services providers.	25
Districts (C2)	Districts that are water services providers.	21

Adapted from: National Treasury (2011:193)

As per Table 3-1 above, rural municipalities are those classified as B3 (small towns) and B4 (mostly rural) municipalities. The geographic location of B3 and B4 municipalities largely corresponds with the definition of rural areas provided in the RDF. Accordingly, rural areas are viewed as (i) sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including villages and small towns that are dispersed throughout these areas, and (ii) areas that include large settlements in the former homelands, created by apartheid removals, which depend

for their survival on migratory labour and remittances and typically have traditional land tenure systems. In line with this definition, municipalities classified as B3 and B4 are concentrated in KZN, Eastern Cape (EC) and Limpopo (LP) (Treasury, 2011:193).

According to Zulu and Mubangizi (2014: 424), rural areas are described as “large non-agricultural areas characterised by a virtual absence of a modern economy and services”.

The following image is a depiction of a typical rural area in South Africa.



Image 3-2. Rural area in South Africa

Source: <https://www.google.co.za/search?q=images+for+rural+areas+in+south+africa>

In South Africa, there are nine provinces as depicted in Map 3-1 (Map of South Africa), below. Provinces, namely, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Limpopo have the highest concentration of rural municipalities. (National Treasury 2011) .

Map 3-1: Map of South Africa



Source: <https://www.google.co.za/>

3.7 Background to Rural Development in South Africa

The government development strategy was first articulated in the 1994 Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) document, in which the African National Congress (ANC) sought to “mobilize all people and the country’s resources towards the final eradication of apartheid and the building of a democratic, non-racial, nonsexist future.” The programme highlighted the need for a “people-centred, integrated and sustainable development” that is democratic and participatory (Gwanya, 2010:5-6). In line with the prescripts of the RDP, the Government acknowledged that in order to foster the growth of local economies, broadly representative institutions and programmes must be established to address LED needs (Khumalo and Thakhathi, 2012:49). In this regard, the RDP office developed a more comprehensive strategy, known as the Rural Development Framework (RDF) in 1997. However, the Framework attempted to incorporate the rural development programmes of other departments (Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-Mensah and Zuwarimwe, 2013:277), which consequently led to duplication of development efforts (Siyo-Pepeteka 2014:23). This also led to uncoordinated, contradictory decision-making by the

various departments. Due to inadequate staffing, the RDP Office was unable to coordinate and lead government programmes, and consequently shut down in 1996 (Karriem and Hoskins, 2016:329-330).

In 1999, the then President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr Thabo Mbeki, announced the creation of a new strategy, that is, the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS) (Obadire *et al.* 2013: 278). Its objective was to transform the rural economy into an economically viable sector. In 2001, the ISRDS evolved to become a programme known as the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme (ISRDP). However, the ISRDP failed to achieve the desired objective in rural areas due to various challenges, which included lack of accountability as Ministers of equivalent rank refused to account to someone at the same level; lack of coordination and integration and the lack of a clear definition of what rural development entails. As a result, the programme was not sustainable (Siyo-Pepeteka, 2014:24).

During 2009, the Government launched the New Growth Path (NGP) with the ambitious vision to create five million jobs by 2020. The acceleration of rural development was one of the most critical interventions proposed in the NGP as a means to address the structural challenges underpinning both economic and spatial inequalities. The central ministry tasked with dealing with complex challenges around rural development is the Ministry of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) created in 2009. The establishment of the DRDLR was viewed as a turning point for rural development in South Africa since it was the first time in the history of the country that there would be a ministry dedicated to the social and economic development of rural South Africa (Rogerson, 2014:207-211).

The DRDLR was given the mandate to develop and implement the CRDP throughout the country and is the key stakeholder in the implementation of the CRDP for the country. In terms of its Strategic Plan (2010-2013), the DRDLR was given the mandate to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities through the CRDP (Siyo-Pepeteka, 2014:23-24) and of deepening rural job creation and the creation of economic livelihoods (Rogerson 2014:211). The CRDP encompasses all aspects of rural life, from rural housing to rural transport, local economic development, education, health, among others (DRDLR, 2009; DRDLR, 2012).

The following strategies have been put in place for promoting vibrant and sustainable rural communities (Gwanya, 2010:11):

- Social mobilization of rural communities to take initiatives;
- Strategic investments in economic and social infrastructure; and
- Increased economic activity and rural livelihoods.

The CRDP follows three phases in its mission to create sustainable, vibrant communities, that is, (Rogerson 2014: 212):

- First, is an incubator phase with the main driver being that of meeting basic needs;
- Second, is an entrepreneurial development phase which involves the development of medium to large scale infrastructure; and
- Third, is the projected emergence of rural industrial and financial sectors which are driven by SMMEs and village markets.

3.8 Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA)

In 2009, the Ministry of Provincial and Local Government was disbanded and replaced by the Ministry of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) (Powell, 2012:21). The Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, prioritizes good governance and promotes sustainable development in KwaZulu-Natal (CoGTA, 2016). The following are some of the initiatives, among others, which CoGTA undertakes in order to give effect to its priorities:

- facilitating accountable and sustainable local governance;
- facilitating accountable and sustainable traditional institutions;
- promoting integrated development and planning;
- promoting sustainable urban and rural development; and
- developing systems for capacity support, monitoring and evaluation processes (CoGTA, 2016).

The functions of the Department are to:

- manage service delivery in support of effective local government;

- manage service delivery in support of effective traditional affairs;
- manage business support services in support of improving service delivery;
- coordinate provincial disaster management;
- coordinate capacity building and training initiatives for implementation by different programmes;
- coordinate and facilitate special initiatives;
- provide corporate support services, including Human Resource Management, Auxiliary Services, Internet and Communication Technology, Legal Services, Policy and Research; and
- provide strategic financial leadership in support of the Departments service delivery (CoGTA, 2016).

The next section presents discussion on the role of local government in its capacity as a development agency and to promote LED opportunities for rural women.

3.9 Democratic Local Government and Local Economic Development

Chapter 10 of the Constitution (RSA, 1996) enunciates, among others, that “Public administration must be development oriented”. Post-apartheid South Africa embarked on an important democratization and decentralization process (Myeni, 2017:520). The introduction of developmental local government marked a significant transformation of a government system as envisaged in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Since the 1990s, decentralization has been regarded as the cornerstone of good governance by improving efficiency, transparency, strengthening democracy, promoting equitable development. Decentralization is expected to benefit women by creating opportunities for them to participate in the decision-making and development processes at local government levels, which is the sphere of government closest to the people (Williamson and Sithole, 2006:2).

In order to fulfill its developmental mandate, the Government established municipalities throughout the country to provide for developmental duties in both urban and rural areas. The notion of “developmental local government’ placed great emphasis on improving the quality of life of the previously disadvantaged sectors, particularly rural women (Myeni, 2017:520). In line

with the new institutional reform, the Constitution (RSA, 1996) stipulates that “a municipality must structure and manage its administration, budgeting and planning process to give priority to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community”. To add impetus to its developmental role, Reddy (2014:7) states that public participation in local governance is critical in terms of facilitating socio-economic development. In a democracy, all citizens have the right to be part of the development initiative in order to improve their standard of living.

According to Madumo (2015:159), developmental local government is defined as a local government that is committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives. To reiterate, in a democracy, every citizen has a right to a good quality of life as espoused in the Constitution (RSA 1996). Specifically, the Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 of the Constitution, which is the cornerstone of democracy, renounces all forms of discrimination and provides, *inter alia*, that the state must respect, promote and fulfill the rights of all its citizens (RSA, 1996).

Prior to 1994, colonialism and apartheid largely influenced poverty and opportunity patterns in South Africa. Africans, for example, were forced to reside in rural areas formerly known as ‘homelands’ which were largely characterized by high levels of unemployment, lack of access to resources and markets, poverty, overcrowding and poor infrastructure (Moyo, 2013:5155). Rural women who constituted the bulk of the people in these rural areas, bore the brunt of this poverty most, as they had to provide for their families while the majority of men migrated to towns and mines in search of better living conditions. In many cases, migrants never returned to their rural homes and consequently, women became the sole breadwinners of the household (Sekhampu, 2012:410). In order to redress the above inequities and injustices of the past, local government had to be reconfigured in congruence with the advent of democracy.

The word “democracy” means “rule by the people” and is used to indicate a degree of social equality (Nkuna, 2017:633). Democracy in local government is imperative as the local sphere provides for an environment that enables interaction between the government and the people (Madumo, 2015:156). In this context, for example, local government is obliged to ensure that

women are given an equal opportunity in the development processes. In line with the notion of democracy, the Local Government Transitional Act (LGTA) of 1993 mapped out three phases of transition for local government in South Africa as indicated below (Reddy, 2014:1):

- **The pre-interim phase, 1993-1995:** which introduced transitional metropolitan and local councils;
- **The interim phase, 1995-1999:** which reduced the number of municipalities from approximately 1000 to 843 in 1995; and
- **The final phase, 1999 to the election of 5 December 2000:** which reduced the number of municipalities to 283.

Following local elections in May 2011, the number of municipalities was further reduced to 278 (Kanyane, 2014:94). The entire country now has “units of local government” called municipalities (Couzens, 2011:138) that serve rural and urban areas alike (Nkuna and Nemutanzhela, 2012, 360). The LGTA was subsequently amended in 1996 to make provision for the implementation of LED at the local government sphere (Seduma, 2011:21).

Having a Local Government structure is reflective of a democracy. It therefore resonates with the principles of good governance (Muller, 2008:201). According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the principle elements of good governance are:

- **Accountability:** government’s ability to show tangible evidence that its actions and decisions are consistent with clearly defined and agreed upon objectives;
- **Transparency:** government actions are open to scrutiny from public;
- **Efficiency and effectiveness:** government strives to produce quality public outputs and services to citizens;
- **Responsiveness:** government’s ability to respond to rapidly changing environmental and societal changes;
- **Forward vision:** government’s ability to plan for the future and develop contingency plans to mitigate anticipated problems that are likely to occur in the future; and
- **Rule of Law:** the adherence to laws, regulations and codes, which is imperative for a stable and vibrant political and economic climate.

According to the European Union (EU), the five principles, including openness; participation; accountability; effectiveness and coherence underpin good governance (Ferreira-Snyman and Ferreira, 2006:58).

Good governance entails the existence of efficient and accountable institutions, systems and entrenched rules that promote development and ensure that people are free to participate in, and be heard on, decisions and implementation thereof that directly affect their lives. For democracy to materialize at the municipal level, citizens have to be given some role in these processes. This will lead to more accountability and responsiveness, and the level of democracy will improve (IDASA, 2010).

Local economic development is a pillar of development and is about creating a platform and environment to engage stakeholders in implementing strategies and programmes in order to improve the quality of life for all citizens. The core focus of LED is the concept of partnership, economic sustainability, job creation, improvement in the living conditions of local communities (Dhlodhlo, 2010:27-28). In essence, LED is built on the tenets of good governance.

In order to address the extensive socio-economic challenges in South Africa, the Government recognized LED as a strategic intervention at local government level (Thabethe, 2012:747). Local economic development is a core local government mandate, and has, in recent years, received growing attention internationally, largely for its potential to address localized economic and social challenges and promote local development (Nel and Rogerson, 2016:109). According to Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo (2016:355), entrepreneurship is a vital avenue by which women could empower themselves towards participating in economic development where they are unable to secure any other form of employment. According to Qwabe (2004:108), local government can promote LED in various ways. They can either be coordinators, facilitators, stimulators or developers. In this regard, local government can be a:

- (a) facilitator and coordinator through programmes such as the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process, facilitating public participation;
- (b) a stimulator through tools such as incentives, grants, tourism development and business incubators; and

(c) a developer by providing basic infrastructure to stimulate private sector development such as electricity, water and roads (Meyer, 2013:95).

By providing basic services effectively, leveraging municipal spending to create local jobs, and facilitating LED, rural municipalities in particular, can play a crucial role in alleviating the worst forms of poverty and facilitating development in rural areas such as Vulindlela where poverty is extensive (Treasury 2011:191; Vulindlela IDP, 2016:6).

3.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter highlighted the role of LED as a strategic intervention to create employment opportunities and improve the quality of life for the previously disadvantaged sectors of the community, particularly rural women. The effectiveness of LED strategies and implementation are influenced by certain variables, as depicted in Figure 3-1. Also, discussed is the notion of a developmental Local government as the key role-player in fostering a climate conducive for LED to thrive and create entrepreneurial opportunities for women. The next chapter presents a discussion on the theories which underpin this study.

CHAPTER 4: THEORIES UNDERPINNING THE STUDY

The previous chapter provided a discussion on LED being a strategic intervention for creating employment and sustaining the livelihoods of the impoverished rural inhabitants of South Africa.

4.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents discussion on the theoretical framework which underpins this study. The study centres around two theories, that is, the Dependency Theory and the Modernization Theory. There are a myriad of explanations as to why rural women are underdeveloped and how the underdevelopment of this sector of the population continues to pose a constant deterrent to development initiatives throughout the world. The dependency and modernization theories which are presented in this chapter provide a perspective on why rural women seem to be trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty and hardship.

The following section is a discussion of the Dependency and Modernization theories.

4.2 Dependency Theory

According to the dependency theory, there are two distinct economic classes in the world, that is, the developed north and the under-developed south. In economic terms, the world is divided into wealthy and poor countries. Although the world is a system where there is interdependence, the dependency theory postulates that one is more dependent on the other. The South is the producer of raw materials which is required by the North who, in turn, use the raw materials to manufacture goods that have far more value than the raw materials, and this is, in turn, is marketed to the third world countries at a much higher price (Enuka, 2018:134-135).

According to Buthelezi (2001:34-35), the dependency paradigm views Third World countries as being caught up in a dependence and dominance relationship to rich countries. There are two major streams of thought within the dependency paradigm. The first attributes under-development primarily to the capitalist system dichotomy of “rich country”–“poor country” relationship. Dominated by unequal power relationships between the centre and the periphery, proponents of this thought render attempts by poor societies to be self-reliant and independent, very difficult and

even sometimes impossible. According to Arku and Arku (2011:30), the underdevelopment of third world countries can be attributed to the exploitation and stripping of resources and surpluses by the advanced capitalist countries. Hence, it is the dependency of developing countries on the developed countries that has created their underdevelopment. If we compare this to the situation of rural women, what emerges is a similar relationship within rural households, where men are considered as primary income earners and therefore engaged in economically productive work. Women, on the other hand, are relegated to reproductive work such as child-bearing, cleaning, cooking, collecting fire-wood and water, for which they do not earn an income. Women are, therefore, dependent on the men of the household for money. This distinction emanates from the socially constructed perception of a man and a woman and what jobs or activities are deemed to be appropriate.

In addition, Winniefridah (2011:315-319) reasserts the plight of rural women by explaining that women's poverty and dependency date back to pre-capitalism and can be attributed to the patriarchal ideology that favoured male access and control of reproductive resources at the expense of females. Capitalism intensified the exploitation of women's labour through male control of the means of production, thereby rendering women to be vulnerable to poverty and dependency. Where women do agriculture or are involved in exchange economy, it is for petty produce and selling of items relating to domestic work and subsistence agriculture producing beans, nuts and other food produce. This contributes to women's poverty and dependency on male capital, skills, credit markets and banking services. This has caused underdevelopment of women. If female entrepreneurs are given the same support as men, that is, same access to credit, markets, technology, skills training, this will strengthen the LED initiative in rural areas. Women can become self-reliant if they are empowered through LED strategies that are favourable to them, and this will break the cycle of dependency and reduce poverty among rural women.

Furthermore, research by Bradshaw, Castellino and Diop (2013:6) reveals that the origins of women's subordination was linked to their exclusion from the market-place, their limited access to, and, control over resources. It was argued that if women were brought into the productive sphere more fully, not only would they make a positive contribution to development, but they would also be able to improve their economic status. As stated by Sutherland (2009:1), "simply

providing food support, instead of enabling food production, creates and encourages dependency on food provision. Instead, utilise and empower women, and this would have long-term effects that would ripple outwards from the women to their families, communities and society at large”. By employing effective LED strategies targeting rural women, the cycle of dependency on the state can be significantly reduced. For instance, South Africa pays social grants to over 15 million people annually, the majority of whom are the poorest of the poor in rural areas. It costs the government R9 billion to administer these grants (Mahlali, 2012:14).

The reason for the above, as indicated by Sekhampu (2012:410), is that there is a high prevalence of poverty among females in rural areas in South Africa. For nations that were subject to colonization, it is of historical importance to understand how the process of underdevelopment unfolded (Mbothi, 2012:6). For example, in South Africa, the Group Areas Act of 1966, resulted in the forced removal of black people to areas that were under-resourced; there was lack of infrastructure and these areas were not serviced by the apartheid government (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:45). Due to poor living conditions and lack of employment, men migrated to the towns in search of “greener pastures”.

Rural women were left behind to fend for themselves and their families, with no support from government, unproductive land and little to no resources at their disposal, which left them destitute. Such conditions have forged a legacy of poverty and hardship among rural women which perpetuated a form of dependency (Moyo, 2014: 5995). The essence of the dependency theory is that socio-economic dependency generates under-development (Dhlodhlo, 2010:21)

4.3 Modernization Theory

The Modernization Theory which emerged in the 1950s and 1960s, was rooted in capitalism (Matunhu, 2011:65). This theory has been defined as a theory that involves a systematic process to move underdeveloped countries to a more sophisticated level of development (Shareia, 2015:79). According to Matunhu (2011:65), modernization is about traditional societies undergoing drastic transformation in order to become modern. In the modernity discourse, policies intended to raise the standard of living of the poor should ideally consist of disseminating knowledge and information about more efficient techniques of production. For instance,

agricultural modernization process should encourage farmers to try new crops, new production methods and new marketing skills. In general, modernization led to the introduction of greenhouse technology and genetically modified (GMO) food, tractors, among others. The above view was endorsed by Adam Smith, the founder of contemporary economics (Ozler, 2102:334) who pointed out that modernization is about exchanging of older agricultural practices with something more recent (Matunhu, 2011:65).

Therefore, modernization refers to a total transformation of a traditional pre-modern society into the type of technology and associated social organization that characterized the advanced machine power. Another central view of the modernization paradigm is the assertion of the dual economy model. Inherent in this dichotomy is the assertion of diffusion of innovation from the developed to underdeveloped sectors of society whereby accumulated wealth in the modern sector would trickle down to the rural sector of the country. Thus, in the modernization theory, underdevelopment is regarded as an initial condition from which developing countries can escape if they follow the path of economic modernization, as embedded in the view on the stages of economic growth (Buthelezi, 2001:31-34; Obadire, Mudau, Sarfo-Mensah and Zuwarimwe, 2013: 275).

In this regard, Arriati and Chasomeris (2014:434) state that LED is a course of action resulting in development leading to progression, or progression leading to development. In the 1950s and 1960s, development was viewed as a process consisting of stages of economic growth. These stages included the development of agriculture in rural areas (Obadire, *et al.* 2013:275). It was expected that countries would go through these stages for modernization to occur. In the 1960s, W.W. Rostow identified five stages which gave shape to the Modernisation Theory of development, namely:

- The traditional society;
- Preconditions for take-off;
- Take-off;
- The road to maturity, and
- The age of consumption (Shareia, 2015:79).

The following figure is a depiction of the five stages identified by Rostow.

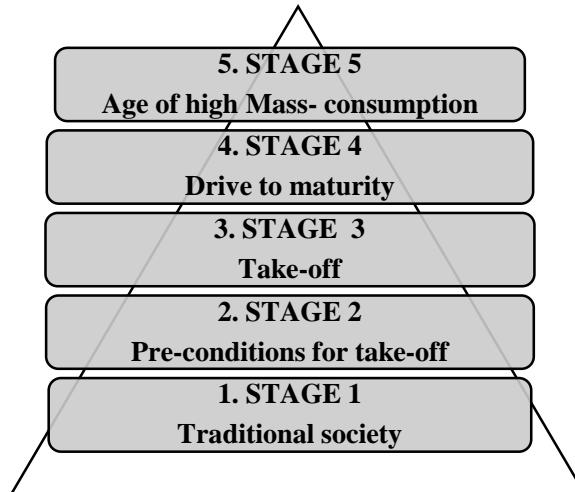


Figure 4-1: Rostow's Five Stages of Economic

Source: Adapted from Green (2008:2)

As explained by Shareia (2015:79), the traditional society, was characterized by a shortage of technology and advanced tools, which resulted in a limitation in production. The first step for advancement from the traditional society in Europe emanated from two significant developments, that is, the emergence of modern science and ideologies and land discoveries which led to an increase in trade. This triggered the pre-conditions for the “take-off” stage. Which saw a proliferation of new industries, for example, the growth of cotton textiles, timber cutting and the rail-road industry. The progression to the stage of “maturity” involved the widespread application of technology. This phase marked the time for growth and expansion. As a society recognizes the need for greater security, welfare and leisure, it moves into the “age of mass consumption.” However, a key criticism of Rostow’s work was its failure to recognize the unique characteristics and concerns of developing countries, which is the main weakness of this theory and, therefore, limits its applicability to this study.

The following is a discussion of the theories that form part of the discourse on the gender aspect of development, that is, Women in Development (WID), Women and Development (WAD) and Gender and Development (GAD).

4.3.1 Women in Development

The Women in Development (WID) perspective was closely linked with the modernization paradigm that dominated mainstream thinking on international development from the 1950s into the 1970s. Esther Boserup's pioneering contribution to the field of gender theories and the research it inspired viewed gender inequality as the effect of women's displacement from productive work caused by the flaws in the modernization process. According to Boserup, colonialism first, then industrialization entrenched women's subordination. The WID perspective focused exclusively on women's productive role, underpinned by a belief that simply improving women's access to education, technology and credit would increase women's productivity (Maseno and Kilonzo, 2011:49-50; Wilson, 2015:805). This approach had several flaws and one of them being that it placed women into already existing patriarchal structures without challenging or changing them (Lesetedi, 2018:196). The WID approach failed to recognize the rural social setting and gender dynamics influenced by culture, class or caste, which poses major constraints for women. Unless policies are designed to address these issues, the participation of women in development will be ineffective and merely an exercise in "tokenism" (Thabethe and Mathe, 2010:94). Based on these shortcomings, WID was replaced by Women and Development (WAD) (Lesetedi, 2018:196), as discussed below.

4.3.2 Women and Development

Similar to the WID approach, the Women and Development (WAD) approach focused on the relationship between women and the development processes, rather than on strategies for integrating women into development. Like WID, the WAD perspective concentrated on the productive sector at the expense of the reproductive side of women's work and lives meaning that the extra jobs of women, such as household chores, child bearing and rearing were not taken into account in mainstream development. These shortcomings in the WID and WAD approach gave rise to the Gender and Development (GAD) approach (Maseno and Kilonzo, 2011:50), as discussed below.

4.3.3 Gender and Development

During the 1990s, a significant theoretical shift in thinking was said to have occurred within the World Bank and United Nations Organizations responding to critiques by several feminist scholars

that WID was attempting to integrate women into development structures that were not only male dominated but inherently patriarchal (Mannell, 2012:21). The Gender and Development (GAD) approach emerged as an alternative to the WID approach. The GAD approach places more emphasis on the needs of women at grassroots level and encourages them to form partnerships in order to uplift themselves from poverty. The GAD approach is premised on the idea that both men and women must participate in developmental processes, including decision-making. The GAD approach views women as a critical component in the success of the developmental process (Moyo, 2014: 5996).

As asserted by Mannell (2012:21-22), instead of placing women in a specific social category which would only serve to create stereotypes, women should be considered as equal partners in development process. This is of particular importance to a post-colonial state such as South Africa where such tendencies can lead to ethnic reductionism. The rationale was to develop a term that would move beyond women as a social category of focus while still addressing the inequality in all spheres of the development agenda, between men and women. The GAD perspective was operationalized at the 4th World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995, through the introduction of gender mainstreaming as a policy which was adopted by all signatories to the UN, including South Africa. Notably, the conference marked the first time the new South African Government officially participated in an international women's conference.

One of the major achievements emanating from this approach is the concept of "gender mainstreaming" adopted by the 4th World Conference on Women in 1995. Gender mainstreaming is a strategy to consider the concerns and experiences of women and men alike in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political and economic spheres so that women and men benefit equally whereby inequality is not perpetuated (Mandinyenya, 2014:18).

This study is premised on the GAD paradigm. The idea is to give women an equal opportunity in the economic development process. For this to materialize, there is a need for policies and programmes that are geared towards gender mainstreaming.

4.4 Critical Analysis of the Dependency and Modernization Theories

It is noted that although some modernization innovations have helped some women in some areas, the success stories are not significant. Regarding men as heads of households, it was assumed that women's position would improve, as did the economic prosperity of their husbands. Literally, modernization meant a process of "bringing up to date" what was taking place, in which there was a replacement or exchanging of older things with something new. Consequently, as men are usually the decision-makers in rural areas, the tendency has been to modernize activities performed by men in preference to women's.

Technological innovation often worked to the detriment of rural women in that it either replaced the work of women or increased their backbreaking load. Modernization, therefore, placed women firmly within the family structure and ignored their role in the labour force. Modernization did not contribute to the upliftment of rural women's conditions. Instead, some form of dependency was perpetuated for rural women who had to rely on the remittances from their husbands or sons who had migrated to urban areas (Buthelezi, 2001:31-34). According to Mawire (2013:41), dependency theorists reject the idea that modernization addresses the problems of poverty and under-development.

Women do not benefit from development opportunities as much as men do and new technologies provided by development programmes deteriorate women's status. The main issue of women in development is their integration into the existing economic development plans, programmes and projects. In this way they will benefit more from economic development opportunities. As asserted by the Neo-classical view, women may benefit equally from economic development if there are state interventions, and policy practices rather than assuming that the case of women could be improved with economic development (Canan, 2012:106).

Modernization and dependency are two different perspectives that attempt to explain the underdevelopment of rural women. Notions such as self-reliance and LED appear to be among the few realistic development options available to the poorest of the poor. Evidence from rural Africa indicates that, as part of the process of surviving, inhabitants of the world's poorest continent are becoming more reliant on indigenous technical knowledge, production systems and livelihoods

and the emergence of non-western forms of LED. Thus far, in development literature, LED has been defined and interpreted in terms of Western economic concepts. In poorer countries, however, it can be argued that LED takes on a much more basic form due to limited technology, resources and external support. This reality leads to the suggestion that LED in the South needs to be recognized and understood as a survivalist strategy (Binns & Nel, 1999:390).

According to Binns and Nel (1999:393), in the South, literature on self-reliance suggests that LED relies far more on community based initiatives, utilizing indigenous skills to ensure survival rather than participation in the global economy. The modernization theory of development argues that in the process of modernization, traditional barriers to mobility and self-expression break down, thereby giving way to new ways of thinking and doing things. The traditional emphasis on the maximization of group welfare is replaced by a new emphasis on self-determination and the achievement of individual level goals. The erosion of traditional norms should free both women and men to take control of their own destiny and behave autonomously to maximize their welfare.

4.5 Theoretical Perspective of Economic Development and Rural Women in South Africa

Within the context of economic development and modernity, South Africa, in general, can be considered a country with above average development. However, it is not without domestic challenges in terms of socio-economic indicators such as unemployment, degrading infrastructure and poverty, which is rife particularly in rural areas. With respect to Rostow's economic development scale, South Africa has entered the "drive to maturity" stage, having surpassed the "take-off" stage during the 20th century (Eltringham, 2012:30).

In South Africa, the post-1994 development paradigm was premised on the assumption that urban development would inevitably cascade to the rural periphery (Rogerson, 2014: 211). Evidently, this did not occur where the wealth of the developed urban area trickled down to the poor rural areas. Evidence based on statistics disproves this assumption in the modernization theory that the wealth/riches of one particular sector will cascade to the poverty stricken sector. Accordingly, the National Census (2011) indicates that the urban/rural divide is stark in terms of poverty. Across South Africa, the levels of poverty are more than twice as high in rural areas (68.8%) than in urban areas (30.9%). In fact, the poverty gap between urban and rural areas increased significantly since

2006 (StatsSA, 2014). In KZN, 56.7% of the total population, and of this, 54% of women reside in rural areas (Thabethe and Mathe, 2010:93). Research done by Bower (2014: 15) reveals that 44% of rural households in KwaZulu-Natal are headed by females, who together with children, constitute the poorest of the poor (Thabethe and Mathe, 2010:93).

In line with GAD, the National Policy Framework on Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality was formulated by the National Office on the Status of Women. This policy framework was adopted by Parliament in 2000 and provides guidelines to local and provincial government with regards to the formulation of laws, policies and procedures which serves to ensure equal rights and opportunities for women and men (Rambuda and Masenya, 2017:102).

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a discussion on the Dependency Theory and Modernization Theory in relation to countries in the North and the South. The analogy of the relationship between the rich countries of the north and poor countries of the south was then used to explain the power relationship between men and women in rural areas of South Africa, and how this has resulted in unequal opportunities in economic development. The theories were used to gain a perspective on the underlying reasons why rural women are the most disadvantaged and underdeveloped sector of the population. The next chapter is a discussion on research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter embodied a discussion on the theories of development. The theories served as an explanation as to why rural women seem to be trapped in a cycle of poverty.

5.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter embodies discussion on the research design and methodology used for this study. Also included in this chapter is an expose of the research strategy, the sampling technique, followed by a brief discussion on how the data will be stored and disposed of. The chapter concludes with a discussion on ethical requirements.

The following section commences with a definition of research and research methodology.

5.2 What is Research and Research Methodology?

Research is a process of gathering data in answering a particular question, and this question will generally relate to a need for knowledge that can facilitate problem-solving (O’Leary, 2017:4). Research methodology refers to a structured set of steps and procedures for completing a research project (O’ Sullivan, Rassel, Berner and Taliaferro, 2017:28). According to Webb and Auriacombe (2006:589), research methodology refers to the methods, techniques and procedures that are used to conduct the research that will ultimately yield the desired results.

5.3 Research Design

Once the objectives of the research have been established, the researcher must then decide which research design will be appropriate to answer the research question (Walliman, 2016:37). Creswell (2014:3) mentions three designs to research, that is, quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research. A study can be more quantitative than qualitative or vice versa. The distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is framed in terms of using words (qualitative), rather than numbers (quantitative) (Creswell, 2014:4; McCusker and Gunaydin, 2015: 537; Babbie, 2014:24). Mixed methods, on the other hand, resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative (Creswell, 2009:4; Creswell 2014:3).

The following section is a further discussion of the research designs mentioned above.

5.3.1 Qualitative Research Design

Qualitative research seeks to understand the way people experience events, places and processes. This method of collecting data aims to answer questions about the “what”, “how” or “why” of a phenomenon rather than “how many” or “how much” which are answered by quantitative methods (McGuirk and O’Neill, 2016:10). Qualitative research design can adopt different types of research strategies, as discussed in section 5.4.

5.3.2 Quantitative Research Design

Quantitative research can be defined as research that explains phenomenon according to numerical data analyzed by means of statistics (Yilmaz, 2013:311). Other researchers such as Patten and Newhart (2018:20) describe quantitative research as research that involves the collection of data in such a way that the data is easy to quantify, thus allowing for statistical analysis. Quantitative research uses specific instruments such as a questionnaire which has set questions with set response formats that are standardized (Laher, 2016:322). Quantitative methods help to answer descriptive questions such as: “what is going on?”, “what is the scope of the problem?” They are also used to assess similarities, differences and associations in the data through statistical analysis (Kielmann, Cataldo and Seeley, 2012:8).

5.3.3 Mixed Method Research Design

Mixed methods strategy involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in tandem (Creswell 2009: 4). In particular, there are three general strategies (Creswell 2009:14), that is:

- Sequential mixed methods procedures in which the researcher seeks to elaborate on or expand on the findings of one method with another method. This may involve beginning with a qualitative interview for exploratory purposes and following up with quantitative, survey method;
- Concurrent mixed methods procedure are those in which the researcher merges qualitative and quantitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem. In this design, the researcher collects both forms of data at the same time and then integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results; and

- Transformative mixed methods procedures are those in which the researcher uses a theoretical lens as an overarching perspective within the design that contains both quantitative and qualitative data.

For this study, the researcher used the quantitative method since the aim was to profile the sample in terms of numbers, for example, the proportion of the sample in different age groups, or being able to count the frequency of occurrence of opinions, attitudes and experiences, as explained by Rowley (2014: 309). Similar to Meyer DF, Meyer N and Neethling (2016:61), this research is based on quantifiable observations, through the use of questionnaires. The aim was to achieve an empirical view of the experiences of rural women in the Vulindlela area in KZN with regard to accessing LED opportunities. Accordingly, the results are reported purely in an empirical manner. Following this approach ensures that the researcher remains objective towards the study and independent from the actual research. This eliminates the issue of the researcher being biased in the collection and analysis of the data (Daniel, 2016:94).

5.4 Research Strategy

A research strategy is a general orientation to the conduct of research. Thus, quantitative research can be represented as a research strategy that emphasizes quantification in the collection and analysis of data. By contrast, qualitative research can be construed as a research strategy that uses words rather than numbers (Bryman, 2016:32-33).

The following section is a discussion on the various strategies that can be adopted for qualitative and quantitative research designs.

5.4.1 Qualitative Research Strategies

The following are some of the strategies which a researcher can adopt for the qualitative research design in order to solicit the relevant data (Creswell, 2009:12):

- **Ethnography:** is a strategy which entails participant observation. The researcher becomes part of the field for some time and observe what is going on. Researchers become part of activities in the field and take notes about what they see and hear (Flick, 2014:42);

- **Grounded Theory:** This procedure enables a researcher to examine topics and related behaviour from many different angles. This procedure can be used to gain new insights into old problems as well as to study new and emerging areas in need of investigation. This method is used to develop substantive theories (Corbin and Strauss, 2015:11);
- **Case studies:** In case studies, researchers hope to gain an in-depth understanding of situations and meaning for those involved. Individuals, events or groups are often examined in case studies (Hancock and Algozzine, 2017:9-10);
- **Narrative Studies:** Narratives are telling stories about events and processes. In this type of study, either existing narratives are collected and analysed or narratives are compiled by doing interviews (Flick, 2014:41); and
- **Phenomenological:** These studies explore the meaning of several people's lived experiences around a specific issue or phenomenon (Hancock and Algozzine, 2017:9).

5.4.2 Quantitative Research Strategies

Quantitative research is a means of testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures. The following strategies of inquiry are typical of quantitative research design (Creswell 2009:12):

- **Survey Research** – In this research strategy, information is collected by interviews or pre-designed questionnaires (Rahi, 2017:2). It is a general term for a research design that aims to collect the same set of data for every “case” in the study. Surveys are the design of choice for descriptive quantitative research questions about prevalence, (for example, how many people in this locality need this service, or have had this kind of experience), or when we want to look for associations between two measurable variables, such as health care experiences and demographic characteristics (Green and Thorogood, 2018:59). Survey research includes cross sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection (Creswell, 2009:12). As explained by Patten and Newhart (2017:19-20), longitudinal studies can be described as research where researchers repeatedly measure traits of the same participants to capture similarity or differences over a period of time. Cross-sectional studies, on the other hand, is a snapshot of one moment

in time. In other words, all data pertaining to a particular sample are obtained at a single point in time (Sedgewick, 2014:1); and

- **Experimental research** - involves the process of variable testing where one variable has an impact on other variables. This strategy is used when a researcher intends to examine cause and effect relationships among variables (Rahi, 2017:2).

This particular study adopted a cross-sectional study design using a pre-designed structured questionnaire for collecting data.

5.5 Data Collection

There are different types of data collection methods, as explained below (Paradis, O'Brien, Nimmon, Bandiera and Martimianakis, 2016: 263):

- **Surveys** – surveys are ideal for documenting perceptions, attitudes, beliefs or knowledge within a clear predetermined sample of individuals;
- **Interviews** – used to gather information from individuals 1-on-1, using a series of predetermined questions or a set of interest areas. They can be structured or unstructured. Interview data are often used to generate themes, theories and models;
- **Focus groups** – are used to gather information in a group setting, either through pre-determined interview questions that the moderator asks of participants or through a script to stimulate group conversations;
- **Observations** – are used to gather information in situ using senses: vision, hearing, touch and smell. Observations allow the researcher to investigate and document what people do, their everyday behaviour, and try and understand why they do it;
- **Textual or content analysis** – used to investigate changes in official, institutional or Organizational views on a specific topic or area. This can include newspaper or research articles, governmental reports, meeting notes and photographs.

In this study data was collected using the survey method. A structured questionnaire was given to participants in the research.

5.5.1 Primary Data

The researcher used self-administered questionnaires. As asserted by Rowley (2014:309-310), this is most commonly used in conducting quantitative research where the purpose is to collect data from a relatively large number of study participants which is approximately between 100 and 1000. In this study, the researcher collected and analyzed 132 questionnaires. The questionnaire attached as Annexure 1 has twenty-seven closed-ended questions. A criticism of closed questions is the loss of spontaneity in the respondent's answers and the removal of the possibility of interesting replies that are not covered by fixed answers (McGuirk and O'Neill, 2016:12). In order to overcome this limitation, as proposed by McGuirk and O'Neill (2016:13) and also used by Mazibuko (2017:62) at the end of each question, the researcher inserted an answer option such as "other (please specify)" or used a combination of questions that requested some comment on the option chosen in a closed question. For example, in the questionnaire, closed-ended questions have an open-ended probe, soliciting further explanation. For example, Question 11 asks: *What is your perception on Local Economic Development? The respondent is given three choices (01.Job creation, 02 Alleviating poverty, 03 Enhancing the national economy)*. However, this question is followed by an open-ended question (that is, do you have any other perceptions besides the three stated above), in order to solicit a deeper and more meaningful understanding of the respondent's perspective.

In quantitative research, it is common practice to use questionnaires to generate claims about the characteristics, behaviour or opinions of a group of people ("the population") based on the data collected from the sample of that population. The sample, which is a subset of the population, is usually selected to be representative of the population (McGuirk and O'Neill, 2016:13).

The following are types of questionnaire questions (McGuirk and O'Neill, 2016:14):

- **Attribute information**

How often do you shop at this shopping mall? (Please tick the appropriate box)

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| Less than once a week | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Once a week | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Twice a week | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| More than twice a week | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- **Category List**

What was the main reason you chose to live in this neighbourhood? (Please tick the appropriate box).

- | | |
|--|--------------------------|
| Proximity to work | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Proximity to family and friends | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Proximity to schools or educational institutions | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Housing costs | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Other (<i>please specify</i>) | <input type="checkbox"/> |

The other types of questions used in a questionnaire are Rating, Scaling and Grid/matrix questions (McGuirk and O'Neill, 2016: 14). In this study, the researcher used the 'Category List' type of questionnaire. Whilst the researcher was well aware of the qualitative data that such a questionnaire is capable of gathering, they have numerous strengths, as pointed out by McGuirk and O'Neill (2016:16) such as:

- They can provide insights into social trends, processes, values, attitudes and interpretations;
- They are one of the most practical research tools in that they can be cost-effective, enabling extensive research over a large or geographically dispersed population; and,
- They are flexible in that they can be combined with qualitative research such as interviews and focus groups to provide more in-depth perspectives.

In this study, the questionnaire was piloted among three isiZulu speaking colleagues in the College Office of Law and Management Studies, UKZN, Pietermaritzburg Campus and one student from the same university. According to Rowley (2014:316), preliminary piloting gives the researcher a sense of whether the questions are straightforward and whether the questionnaire is easy to complete. The questionnaire that was used for this research was rated as fairly straightforward.

5.5.2 Secondary Data

Secondary data comprised literature review obtained from books, journal articles, google scholar, statutes and government documents.

5.6 Sampling Techniques

This section is divided into the two sub-sections, that is, sample population and target population. The following is a discussion on sampling techniques.

5.6.1 Sample Population

Sampling is a technique employed by a researcher to systematically select a relatively smaller number of representative items or individuals (a subset) from a pre-defined population to serve as subjects or participants (Sharma, 2017:749). According to Rowley (2014:318), findings of a research depend critically upon the respondents. The first step in identifying potential respondents is to consider the “population” for the study. Walliman (2011:94) and Denscombe (2014:21) explain that the term “population” does not necessarily mean a number of people; it is a collective term used to describe the total quantity of things or cases of the type which are the subject of your study. Therefore, a “population” can consist of certain types of objects, organizations, people or even events. Within this “population”, there are only certain types of objects, organizations, people or events that are pertinent to the study. For example, if you are looking at challenges women experience in LED, then you need to ascertain whether you are looking at the entire female population in KZN or just a specific area. This subsequently prompts the researcher to identify the target population, as discussed below.

5.6.2 Target Population

In this study, the researcher focused on rural women in the Vulindlela area of KZN. The target population was 200. However, the researcher was only able to get 132 questionnaires answered. The questionnaire is divided into three parts. Section A solicits biographical information pertaining to the respondents. Section B contains questions aimed at establishing the economic status of participants, and, Section C contains questions to determine the role of stakeholders in facilitating LED. This selected category is the sampling frame. From the sampling frame, the sample is selected as depicted in Figure 5-1 below.

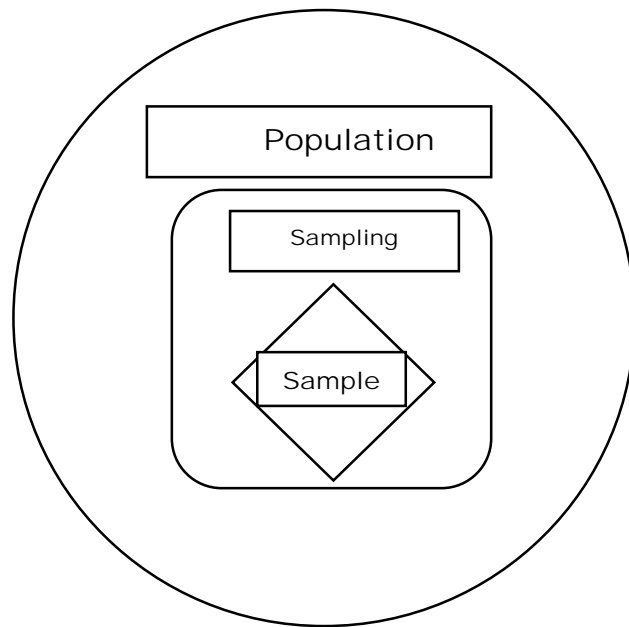


Figure 5-1: Sampling Technique

Source: Adapted from Walliman (2011:94)

There are two categories of sampling methods as listed below (Walliman, 2011: 95; Elfill and Negida, 2017:1):

- Probability sampling; and
- Non-probability sampling.

Each of these techniques are briefly discussed below.

5.6.3 Probability Sampling

Probability sampling is a sampling method where all subjects in the target population have equal chances to be selected in the sample. In this type of sampling, the samples selected are more representative of the target population. The following methods are synonymous with probability sampling (Elfil and Negida, 2017:1):

5.6.3.1 Simple Random Sampling

This method is used when the whole population is accessible and the researchers have a list of all the subjects in the target population. From this list, a random sample is drawn using a lottery method or a computer generated random list (Elfil and Negida, 2017:1).

5.6.3.2 Stratified Sampling

Stratified sampling involves the division of a population into smaller groups known as strata. The strata are formed based on the participant's shared attributes or characteristics. A random sample is then taken from each stratum. These subsets of strata are then pooled to form a random sample (Sharma, 2017:750).

5.6.3.3 Systematic Sampling

In this type of probability sampling, every unit or individual is selected according to a pre-determined sequence from a list. The researcher must first establish the number of entries on a list and the desired sample size before computing the sampling interval. This is done by dividing the size of the population by the desired sample size. For example, if the researcher wishes to select 100 individuals from a list of 8500 individuals, he or she will divide 8500 by 100 to generate a sampling interval to equate to 85. The subset is selected at random anywhere between 1 and 85 to ensure a chance in the selection process (Adwok, 2015:96).

5.6.3.4 Cluster Sampling

In this method, the population is divided by geographic location into clusters. A list of all clusters is made and the researcher draws a random number of clusters to be included. All individuals within this cluster are listed. Thereafter, the researcher executes another process of random selection to get a final random sample, exactly like simple random sampling. This method is a multi-stage process because the selection of the participants is determined by executing two stages (Elfil and Negida, 2017:2).

5.6.4 Non-Probability Sampling

In contrast, in non-probability sampling, since every case in the population does not have a known probability of being included in the sample, the representativeness may be compromised. However, in reality, most social science research relies heavily upon non-probability samples. Many studies depend on non-probability samples, often purposive, convenience, or snowball samples as a result of difficulties associated with creating sufficiently comprehensive sampling frames. Most researchers agree that some data is better than none (Rowley, 2014:319).

5.6.4.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling strategies are non-random ways of ensuring that particular categories of cases within a sampling frame are represented in the final sample of a project (Robinson, 2014:32). In purposive sampling, the researcher must decide the purpose for which participants or informants are required for, and look for them specifically (Bernard, 2018:147). The purposive sampling technique is also called judgment sampling. In using this technique to collect data, the researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience. It involves identification and selection of individuals or groups of individuals that are proficient and well informed about a particular phenomenon or interest (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016:2).

5.6.4.2 Snowball Sampling

Snowball sampling entails asking participants for recommendations of acquaintances who are eligible to participate, leading to “referral chains” (Robinson, 2014:37).

5.6.4.3 Convenience Sampling

Convenience sampling is a type of non-probability or non-random sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study. Convenience sampling is sometimes referred to as “accidental samples” because elements maybe selected in the sample as they just happened to be situated, spatially or administratively near to where the researcher is conducting the research. Convenience sampling is affordable, easy and the subjects are readily available (Etikan, Musa, Alkassim, 2016:2)

Due to logistical challenges, it was not feasible for the researcher to include all nine wards of the Vulindlela area. The researcher used convenience sampling to draw participants. The researcher considered this to be an appropriate technique since this is a homogenous group of people. The selected Wards comprised all rural inhabitants, who have the same socio-economic background as described and explained in Chapter one of this dissertation. Whoever was available and willing to participate was included to participate in the study.

Table 5-1 presents full descriptions of all study participants per ward.

Table 5- 1: Study participants per ward

Wards	Number of participants per ward	Number of questionnaires distributed	Number of questionnaires returned
A	44	45	1
B	24	24	0
C	41	44	3
D	23	23	0
Total	132	136	4

5.7 Data Analysis

There are different types of data analysis pertaining to quantitative and qualitative research, which is discussed below.

5.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

When using quantitative research method, as is the case in this study, at the outset, it is important to consider how many variables are going to be analyzed simultaneously. Univariate analysis involves only one variable, bivariate analysis looks at the relationship between two variables, and when there are more than two variables, this is referred to as multivariate analysis. The most common application of univariate analysis is in descriptive studies or simply describing a sample that has been selected for the study. The most common application of bivariate and multivariate analysis is in observational or experimental studies where groups are being compared and the researcher intends to draw inferences about any significant differences (Mash and Ogunbanjo, 2013:2).

Guthrie (2010:170) recommends that the first step is to capture the data into spreadsheet cells. Although the open-ended questions are very brief, they usually generate a large volume of data which makes manual coding a burden. In this study, numerical data has been described, then analyzed and finally conclusions drawn.

There are two types of statistics that can be used for the description and analysis of the data, which is (Guthrie 2010:168):

- **Descriptive statistics:** these are percentages and means, summarize numbers and represent in graphs; and
- **Inferential tests:** these analyse statistical significance for testing hypotheses and drawing inferences about the strength of the findings.

There are several ways of using descriptive statistics to summarize data. These include:

- Central tendency or “average” (mean, median or mode);
- Distribution or indicators of the spread of the data (standard deviation, quartile deviation);
- Outliers or extremes (the topmost and bottommost scores);
- Range (the difference between the top and bottom scores); and
- Non-conforming cases (data that appear not to fit the pattern) (Guthrie 2010:171).

Inferential statistics allow inferences to be drawn about similarities or differences between the sample and the population, or between samples or between subsets of a sample. Inferential tests can be further divided into two types, which is (Guthrie 2010: 168-169):

- **Parametric:** tests which are based on the assumption of a normal distribution in data and technically, they are based on the mathematical properties of interval or ratio data.
- **Non-Parametric:** tests which do not make an assumption of normalcy and thus are especially useful with small samples that are not normally distributed and with lower level data.

Testing can use:

- Means (for example, t and z tests);
- Variance (for example, analysis of variance or ANOVA);
- Distribution (for example, chi square); and
- Correlations (for example, Spearman rank correlation coefficient) (Guthrie, 2010:173).

5.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The following data analysis techniques are used for decoding qualitative data (Gupta, Shaheen and Reddy, 2019:8):

- **Content analysis** – This method analyses and interprets coded material (textual, verbal or visual). Content analysis is a descriptive approach that aims to construct a model or system for better inference and description of the data. This approach can either be inductive or deductive depending on what the aim of the study is; and
- **Thematic analysis** – This technique is also descriptive in nature. It aims to describe the pattern of the content underlying the textual material. The technique is used for decoding the themes within data.

Sutton and Austin (2015:228) explain coding as a process of identifying issues, topics, similarities and differences that are revealed through the participants' narratives and interpreted by the researcher. Coding can be done by hand on the hardcopy of the transcript, by making notes in the margin and highlighting and naming sections of the text. More commonly, researchers resort to using qualitative research software, for example, NVivo to help manage their transcriptions.

In this study, data was initially captured on an Excel spreadsheet. As recommended by Guthrie (2010:170), this should be the first step. Thereafter, it was copied into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). The open-ended questions were written in isiZulu, which is the native language. It was then translated by a student who is in his final year of the Bachelor of Laws Degree (LLB), and is proficient in both English and isiZulu. In this research, data were statistically analyzed using descriptive statistics. The research findings are presented using tables. This was deemed to be the most appropriate technique since the aim of this research was to illustrate the experiences/perceptions of the women in Vulindlela with regard to accessing LED opportunities.

5.8 Data Quality Control

Open response questions are used when we do not want to limit answers. Skillful open questions are high in validity because they get comprehensive answers in the respondent's own words but are lower on reliability because different interviewers might get different answers (Guthrie, 2010 130).

Closed response questions have pre-determined options for answers. This is less valid than open ended questions because the choices might be restrictive, but is more reliable because the form of

the question and answers is set so research is more replicable. To increase validity, fixed choice response scales include the category “other” and add open-ended probe questions seeking further explanation often with a simple “why” (Guthrie, 2010:131).

In this study, closed ended questions were supplemented by including an open-ended response such as “comment” or “explain.” This way, the actual words of the respondent can corroborate the option that was chosen in the closed/structured question. This ensures validity of the data. As mentioned above, closed/structured questions are high in reliability (Guthrie, 2010:131). The qualitative research approach is characterised by feelings and personal reports; therefore, this approach cannot yield reliable and consistent data when compared to using quantifiable figures (Daniels, 2016:93).

5.9 Ethical Consideration

Ethical concerns should be at the forefront of any research project, including the design, fieldwork and analysis, data collection and storage, dissemination, publication and disposal of data (Swain, 2016:77).

University of KwaZulu-Natal requires staff undertaking research to obtain prior approval from the Research Ethics Committee, which the researcher obtained. Once the Ethical Clearance (Annexure 2) letter was obtained, the researcher set out to contact the Councillors, who are the gatekeepers of the areas/wards where the research was conducted. The researcher was interviewed by each Councillor before a letter (Annexure 3) was issued, granting permission to conduct research in their respective areas of jurisdiction. The research assistant was fully apprised of the ethical requirements and about conducting himself in a professional manner. The research assistant is proficient in isiZulu since this is his home language. The questionnaire (Annexure 1) includes a consent form, which is attached and provides a brief background to the study and the objective. The questionnaire was translated into isiZulu since this is a predominant language in Vulindlela, KZN.

The establishment of Ethics Committees at tertiary institutions is a reaffirmation of the commitment to enforce ethics in research, which is also congruent with the Constitutional mandate

to protect human dignity and the right to privacy. Rules and regulations can impose challenges but ultimately, the researcher is bound by ethical requirements such as informed consent, voluntary participation, no harm to participants and confidentiality

5.9.1 Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation.

A general rule for participation is that it must be voluntary and take place on the premise that participants are fully informed about the goals and methods of the research project (Flick, 2015: 33). According to Punch (2014: 44), “voluntary informed consent” means that:

- (1) participants agree freely to be part of the research;
- (2) they understand what their participation entails and how it will be reported; and
- (3) they feel free to withdraw their agreement at any time throughout the research process.

In this study, the consent letter was attached to the questionnaire clearly indicating the principles of voluntary participation and informed consent. The research assistant and researcher explained to the participants that they are at liberty to withdraw from participating at any point in time during the process.

5.9.2 Confidentiality and Anonymity

Research interactions, from questionnaires to interviews and observations are based on the respondent’s choice to disclose information to the researchers, some of which may be sensitive. In most cases, this information is disclosed in confidence, that is, on the basis of the researcher’s assurance that the connection between the individual respondent and the information disclosed will not be made known to a third party, nor will it be inferred in the research report. In order to achieve this, researchers may use fictional references to the data (Punch, 2014:47).

In this research, the questionnaire does not make provision for names to be provided. However, participants were required to sign the consent form. To ensure anonymity, the Wards chosen were renamed A, B, C and D. In this way, it was impossible to tie Wards with the actual Wards chosen for the study.

5.10 Data Storage and Disposal

Data collected is stored in the store-room at the School of Management, IT and Governance (SMIG) for a period of five years. Only the Supervisor has access to the data. Once the storage period has expired, the data will be shredded by the Postgraduate Administrator in the School.

5.11 Limitation of the Study

Due to logistical challenges and financial constraints, the study only covered one particular area, that is, Vulindlela, situated within the Msunduzi Municipality of KZN. The study would have been more beneficial if rural areas from other municipalities were included. This would have yielded a much broader perspective on rural women's experiences with regard to accessing economy generating activities. Nevertheless, the recommendations proposed in this study can be replicated to other rural areas in other municipalities in South Africa.

5.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a discussion on the research design and methodology. For this study, the quantitative research design was employed using a structured questionnaire to collect data. The researcher provided justification for choosing this method. A comprehensive discussion is also presented on the sampling methods, data collection and analysis techniques. The chapter is concluded with a discussion on the ethical considerations when conducting research. The next chapter is a presentation of the primary data, the analysis and discussion thereof.

CHAPTER 6
DATA PRESENTATION, DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

The previous chapter offered a comprehensive discussion on the research design and methodology used for this study. Justification is provided in the previous chapter for the research method employed in this study.

6.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and discussion of data related to the objectives of this study. The chapter outlines the demographics of the respondents and subsequently provides a detailed discussion of data that answers the research questions.

6.2 Recapitulation of Research Objectives and Research Questions

Table 6-1 presents a recapitulation of the research objectives and the research questions earlier presented in Chapter one of this dissertation.

Table 6- 1: Summary of Research Objectives and Research Questions

Research Objectives	Research Questions
1. To establish the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities;	1. What are the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?
2. To determine the interventions implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government that target the women specifically;	2. What interventions are implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs), local government to foster a climate that is conducive for women to access LED opportunities?
3. To establish the effectiveness of these interventions on the lives of the rural women;	3. How effective are these interventions on the lives of these rural women?
4. To establish the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment; and	4. What is the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment?
5. To propose possible solutions to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to LED opportunities.	5. What possible solutions can be proposed to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?

Source: Researcher, 2018.

The next section presents the context from which the study was conducted.

6.3 The Context of Vulindlela

The study was conducted in Vulindlela, a rural district, located within the Msunduzi Municipality in the province of KZN, South Africa. Map 1-2 in Chapter one of this dissertation presents the geographic location of Vulindlela. Being an ex-apartheid homeland, Vulindlela has inherited a legacy of poverty and under-development. This has further been exacerbated by the traditional system of land allocation and land use, and the challenges associated with gaining access to land for productive economic development in areas owned by the Ingonyama Trust (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:38). The majority of the land belongs to the traditional authority through the Ingonyama Trust and is made up of nine wards, of which five are under the traditional leadership and four are under the ward councilors of the local government municipal system (Kharsany *et al.* 2015:3).

Vulindlela is a rural community, comprising predominantly isiZulu speaking people. According to the National Census data (2011), the study area has an estimated 95641 households with an estimated 367,906 individuals. Of these, 48% are males and 52% are females (Kharsany *et al.* 2015: 5). The IDP document mentions that “the population of Vulindlela are the poorest in the Msunduzi Municipality.” The key role players for overseeing the future development of the area is the Msunduzi Municipality, The Traditional Councils and the Ingonyama Trust Board (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:6 &27).

The following section presents and discusses on the interconnection between the research questions, research objectives and the interview questions.

6.4 Interconnection between the Research Questions, Research Objectives and the Survey Questions

Table 6-2 below is a presentation of the interconnection between the research questions, research objectives and the survey questions. The table includes only a selected number of questions from the questionnaire, which are interrelated specifically to the research questions and research objectives. The questionnaire (Annexure 1) comprises 27 questions. The questions which are not

included in this table relate to biographical information or other information presented further on in this chapter as part of the data presentation and analysis.

Table 6- 2: Interconnection between the Research Questions and Research Objectives of the Study and the Survey Questions

Research Questions	Research Objectives	Survey Questions
<p>Question 1 What are the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?</p>	<p>Objective 1 To establish the challenges that women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities;</p>	<p>Question 6 If you are an entrepreneur, what does your business entail?</p> <p>Question 17 As an entrepreneur what are some of the challenges that you are faced with?</p>
<p>Question 2 What interventions are implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs), local government to foster a climate that is conducive for these rural women to access LED opportunities?</p>	<p>Objective 2 To determine the interventions implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government that target the women specifically;</p>	<p>Question 24 If you are involved in a business project, how were you able to secure finance to set up the business?</p> <p>Question 15 If you are an entrepreneur, have you received any institutional assistance?</p> <p>Question 16 If you received institutional assistance, which entity or organization has been most supportive?</p>
<p>Question 3 How effective are these interventions on the lives of these rural women?</p>	<p>Objective 3 To establish the effectiveness of these interventions on the lives of the rural women;</p>	<p>Question 12 Do you feel that LED has improved the living conditions in your area?</p>
<p>Question 4 What is the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment?</p>	<p>Objective 4 To establish the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment; and</p>	<p>Question 11 What is your perception of Local Economic Development?</p> <p>Question 18 Do you feel that women are given an equal opportunity in Local Economic Development?</p> <p>Question 20 Have you have been invited by your Ward Councillor to attend meetings regarding Local Economic Development?</p>

<p>Question 5 What possible solutions can be proposed to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?</p>	<p>Objective 5 To propose possible solutions to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to LED opportunities</p>	<p>Question 18 Do you feel that women are given an equal opportunity in Local Economic Development? Question 19 If not, what suggestions would you like to make to the Msunduzi Municipality with regard to empowering rural women.</p>
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Source: Researcher, 2018.

As reflected in Table 6-2, the selected survey questions are aligned with the research questions and objectives of this study. The following section is a presentation of the interaction between the main findings of the study and the research objectives and questions

6.5 Interaction between the Main Findings of the Study with Research Objectives and Research Questions

Table 6-3 presents the interaction between research objectives, research questions and the acquired data.

Table 6- 3: Interaction Between the Main Findings of the Study with Research Objectives and Research Questions

<p>Research objective one To establish the challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities</p>	<p>Research objective two To determine the interventions implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government that target the rural women specifically;</p>	<p>Research objective three To establish the effectiveness of these interventions on the lives of the rural women;</p>	<p>Research objective four: To establish the perception of the rural women with regard to opportunities for economic empowerment; and</p>	<p>Research objective five: To propose possible solutions to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to LED opportunities.</p>
<p>Research question one What are the challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?</p>	<p>Research question two What interventions are implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs), local government to foster a climate that is conducive for these rural women to access LED opportunities?</p>	<p>Research question three How effective are these interventions on the lives of these rural women?</p>	<p>Research question four What is the perception of the rural women with regard to opportunities for economic empowerment?</p>	<p>Research question five: What possible solutions can be proposed to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?</p>
<p>Main Findings: Lack of access to credit and poor infrastructure, No skills training Lack of access to markets</p>	<p>Main Findings; None of the female respondents received Bank Loans or funding from NGOs. Most of the females 78.9%, indicated that they obtained finance via other means. Only a few 21.1%, received grants or subsidies from the local government to set up their businesses.</p>	<p>Main Findings: 44.3% of female respondents disagree that there is any improvement in their living conditions, compared to 41 % of male respondents who disagree that there is any positive impact on their lives.</p>	<p>Main Findings: 46.7% of women indicated that they are not given an equal opportunity to participate in LED activities. 57.5% of female respondents indicated that they are not invited to Ward meetings compared to 42.5% of male who are invited</p>	<p>Main Findings: The question related to this objective was an open-ended question and therefore the responses are not quantifiable. Instead, the main findings are presented as emerging themes which emanated from the responses: <u>Theme 1:</u> The need for skills and training. As indicated below by one of the female respondents,</p>

				<p>there is a need for skills development and training in order to access economic generating activities.</p> <p><i>“Have training that will equip women with skills to start businesses and create such avenues. Teach us about these funding programmes because we have never heard of LED until now “(D4).</i></p> <p><u>Theme 2:</u> The need for local government intervention to create employment. As articulated below by one of the female respondents, the Municipality needs to create job and business opportunities for women.</p> <p><i>“To open job and business opportunities for women” (A40).</i></p> <p><u>Theme 3</u> Prioritizing women empowerment. One of the respondents indicated that the municipality should have development programmes</p>
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				<p>that specifically target women <i>“The municipality must have programmes which will empower women”</i> (A14).</p> <p><u>Theme 4</u> Need for infrastructure development. One of the female respondents indicated the need for running water. <i>“We would be happy if we could have running water”</i> (B7)</p>
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Source: Data interpretation and analysis of the study, 2018.

As reflected in Table 6-3 above, the research findings are related to the research objectives and research questions pertaining to this study. The following section is a presentation of the interaction between the theories and the quantitative data collected for this study.

6.6 Interaction between Theories and Quantitative Data

Two theories, that is, the Dependency Theory and Modernization Theory presented in Chapter 4 were adopted for this study. The interaction between these two theories and the collected data for the study is presented in Table 6-4.

Table 6- 4: Interaction between the Dependency Theory and Modernisation Theory and Quantitative Data

Theories	Theory Constructs	Quantitative Data
Dependency Theory	Capitalism	68.7% of women are unemployed compared to 38.5% of men who are unemployed Two most common challenges, including limited access to credit and poor infrastructure that rural women encounter
	Patriarchal ideology	53.3% indicated that women are not given an equal opportunity to participate in LED activities. For this reason women are unable to access income generating activities. Cultural constraints and gender biases that hinder women from accessing LED opportunities were also identified in the study results
	Power relationship	In terms of women’s participation in Ward Council meetings regarding LED, 57.5% of female respondents indicated that they are not invited to these meetings.
Modernization Theory	Transformation from traditional to modern	44.3% of women respondents disagree that there is any improvement in their living conditions
	WID	Cultural constraints as one of the challenges for rural women in accessing LED opportunities. 53.3% of women are not given an equal opportunity to participate in LED activities. The WID approach failed to recognize the rural social setting and gender dynamics influenced by culture, class or caste, which poses major constraints for women
	GAD	In terms of women’s participation in Ward Council meetings regarding LED, 57.5% of female respondents indicated that they are not invited to these meeting compared to 42.5% male who are invited. The GAD approach is premised on the idea that both men and women must participate in developmental processes, including decision-making.

Source: Data interpretation and analysis of the study, 2018

Table 6-4 above shows that the collected data relates to the constructs of the dependency and modernization theory. The next section presents the documentary evidence of the study.

6.7 Documentary Evidence

The word *document* is widely defined and includes “everything that contains written or pictorial proof of something” (Van Tonder, 2013:18). Assembling and using documentary evidence entails attempting to interpret the evidential value of documents and then representing the documentary evidence to substantiate a claim (Jacobsen, 2014:4). In this study, the researcher used Statutes, Statistics, Maps and Government documents in order to validate information.

Table 6- 5: Documentary Evidence

Document	Evidence
Statutes: Constitution, White Paper on Local Government,	To show what the legal obligation is regarding the functioning of local government. Also to highlight the fundamental rights of women. For example, Chapter 7 of the Constitution sets out the objects of local government, which, among others, is “to promote social and economic development”. Chapter 2 is the Bill of Rights which renounces all forms of discrimination. The White Paper on Local Government which makes it compulsory for all Municipalities to have an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as one of the key tools to foster development.
Maps: South Africa, Vulindlela	To highlight the location of Vulindlela as well as the Provinces of South Africa. For example, the Map shows that Vulindlela is located within the Msunduzi Municipality and is in the western region. The Map of South Africa shows the size and location of KZN.
IDP: Vulindlela	To show the strategic goals and plans regarding local economic development. For example, page 42 of the IDP sets out the Vision for Vulindlela, that is, “to create centres that will encourage local economic development..”
Census 2011	To substantiate the claims about rural poverty and to provide evidence of poverty among women. For example, the 2011 National Census indicates that females constitute 53.4% of the poor in South Africa.
Msunduzi Municipality SDBIP 2018/2019	To indicate the service delivery targets and strategic objectives set out by the Municipality regarding economic development. For example, as indicated in the SDBIP, the Msunduzi Municipality aims to ensure that the backlog in delivery of basic services, roads, electricity is reduced on an annual basis. Also indicated in the SDBIP is the objective of increasing economic activity and reducing unemployment.

Source: Researcher, 2018

The next section is the presentation, analysis and discussion of the primary quantitative data.

6.8 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Primary Quantitative Data

The discussion below presents discussion on the demographic profile of the respondents.

6.8.1 Demographics

The following section presents data of the gender and age of the respondents and their employment status.

6.8.1.2 Gender and Age of the Respondents

Table 6-6 shows that most of the male (71.8%) and female (72.9%) respondents fall within the age category of 25 to 54. Furthermore, frequency analysis reveals that 67.2% were females, and only 30.6% were male respondents.

Although the age group of the study respondents is deemed to be the prime working age group in South Africa (IndexMundi, 2018), a subsequent cross-tabulation, as depicted in Section 6.8.1.3, shows that there is still gender inequality among the population of Vulindlela regarding access to employment.

Table 6- 6: Gender and Age

Cross-tabulations between gender and age			Age				Total
			18-24	25-54	55-64	65 and over	
Gender	Male	Count	8	28	0	3	39
		% within Gender	20.5%	71.8%	0.0%	7.7%	100.0%
	Female	Count	16	62	4	3	85
		% within Gender	18.8%	72.9%	4.7%	3.5%	100.0%

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018.

The next section presents data on the employment status in terms of gender.

6.8.1.3. Employment status versus gender

Table 6-7 below illustrates that 31.3% of women are employed and 68.7% are unemployed compared to 61.5% of men who are employed and only 38.5% are unemployed. From the open-ended question (Question 18), women stated that they are not afforded the same opportunities as men when it comes to LED opportunities, thereby suggesting the reason why most women are not employed. Respondents also stated that they are prevented from accessing employment opportunities by their traditional leaders, as articulated by respondents:

“Women don’t get equal opportunities to men because they are prevented by our leaders who aren’t transparent. They are disadvantaged. The leaders of this community are biased and they put their political parties ahead of the people” (B20).

“They are not equal to men” (B1).

“Women face more challenges, ownership of property, patriarchy” (C23).

Raniga (2017:216), Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo (2016:356) and UN (2014:9) concur that patriarchal institutions continue to marginalize women as is the case of Vulindlela. Furthermore, women’s rights with respect to development, has not been implemented in a more meaningful way that would be beneficial to them (Stevens and Ntlama, 2016:49). These statements resonate with what the local women of Vulindlela communicated in this survey.

The findings in this study are in line with the findings of a study undertaken by Chinomona and Maziriri (2015:844) which revealed that most women entrepreneurs experience gender discrimination, and this limits women from active economic participation and access to business and development services. Furthermore, the study revealed that women who are running their own businesses such as arts and craft, fast food, tourism, emphasized that inadequate resources or equipment obstruct them from succeeding in their entrepreneurial ventures.

Table 6-7: Employment Status and Gender

Cross tabulation between employment status and gender					
			Employment status		Total
			Yes	No	
Gender	Male	Count	24	15	39
		% within Gender	61.5%	38.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	19.7%	12.3%	32.0%
	Female	Count	26	57	83
		% within Gender	31.3%	68.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	21.3%	46.7%	68.0%
Total		Count	50	72	122
		% within Question 2.Gender	41.0%	59.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	41.0%	59.0%	100.0%

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

The next section is a presentation and discussion of the data on gender and education.

6.8.1.4. Gender and education

Table 6-8 below depicts that the respondents are fairly literate as only 4.9% of male and 10.8% of women had no formal education. As depicted in the table, most respondents had a secondary level education. However, the percentage of women who have a tertiary level of education (19.3%) is proportionately lower than men (22%) as depicted in Table 6-8 below.

Education is a major deciding factor as to how well a household fares economically, and it is an entry point to the world of work (Lesetedi, 2018:202). Also linked to objective one of the study, the survey results revealed that women in Vulindlela are of the opinion that they are precluded from economic development opportunities due to a lack of higher education, as expressed below by one of the respondents:

“No, because when it comes to uplifting women, the criteria used are the level of education that you have and where you are geographically situated... No, because men seem to have more opportunities and women are still empowered but only if they are educated as a woman” (B13).

A study conducted by Etim (2015:322) shows a significant difference in the level of poverty between households with primary and secondary education and with tertiary education. According to the Living Conditions Survey 2014/2015 (StatsSA 2015:10), 52% of households in Traditional Areas, such as Vulindlela in KZN, are headed by females compared to 47% of households which are headed by males. Etim (2015:322) states that the extent of poverty is normally high where there are low levels of educational qualification among the heads of rural households. This study reaffirms the importance of education and skills training as the basis for rural development. This could possibly explain why poverty is rife in Vulindlela since the majority of women do not have a tertiary level of education, which inhibits their access to income-generating activities.

Table 6- 8: Gender and Educational Background

Cross tabulations between gender and educational background							
			Educational background				Total
			No formal education	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	
Gender	Male	Count	2	5	25	9	41
		% within Gender	4.9%	12.2%	61.0%	22.0%	100.0%
	Female	Count	9	11	47	16	83

		% within Gender	10.8%	13.3%	56.6%	19.3%	100.0%
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Source: Field Enquiry, 2018.

The next section presents the collected data related to the research objectives for this study.

6.9 Local Economic Challenges Encountered by Rural Women with Regard to Accessing LED Opportunities

This section discusses the challenges that rural women in Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities.

Related to objective one set out in Chapter one of the study regarding the challenges that rural women face in sustaining their small businesses, the study results reveal two most common challenges including limited access to credit and poor infrastructure that rural women encounter as depicted in Table 6-9 below.

Table 6- 9: Challenges Encountered by Rural Women with Regard to Accessing LED

Challenges	Frequency	Percentage
Challenge 1: Limited access to credit	5	25%
Challenge 2: Lack of representation in decision-making structures	3	15%
Challenge 3: Fewer opportunities for education	2	10%
Challenge 4: Lack of training/skills development	1	5%
Challenge 5: Poor infrastructure	5	25%
Challenge 6: Lack of access to land	2	10%
Challenge 7: Cultural constraints	1	5%
Challenge 8: Other	1	5%

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

- **Limited access to credit**

According to Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo (2016: 355-358) women experience numerous challenges in the entrepreneurship process among which is inadequate access to finance. Moreover, Omoyiba, Eghareuba and Iyanda (2010:3369) state that women have always been sidelined when it comes to securing finances, thus affecting their full participation in LED activities. Whilst BBEE promotes access to markets, female entrepreneurs, particularly in the rural areas, continue to encounter numerous challenges, including the inability to access finance to set up their businesses

(Karasi, Shambare and Nkondo, 2017:193). To ensure that women have access to funding, Reddy (2014:9) proposes gender responsive budgets, including government spending earmarked for gender based programs and projects including safe facilities for women and LED strategies that target women entrepreneurs.

- **Poor infrastructure**

As noted earlier, poor infrastructure was also cited as a huge challenge. Respondents commented:

“Could the municipality improve the condition of the roads? Give us seeds so that we can grow vegetables because the town is far and we don’t have money to go there. Please fix the street lights” (A8).

According to Akpan (2015:114), poor road and communication network services in the rural areas are a major impediment to the growth of economic activities especially for women. The challenges of having to commute from distant peripheral areas into business or semi-urban areas are costly and not accessible for women.

The next section presents discussion on cultural constraints as part of the challenges.

- **Cultural Constraints**

Also in line with objective one of the study, Table 6-10 below shows that most women who responded to question 13 (77.1%) are not prevented by their husbands from working outside the household. However, there is still a huge disparity in the employment status between men and women, as depicted in Table 6-7, due to other challenges such as cultural constraints and gender biases, as indicated below by some of the respondents:

“Some jobs are thought to be for men because they are stronger than we are” (D1).

“Women are subject to patriarchy, and ownership of property is still a problem for them” (B20).

Table 6- 10: Are Women Allowed to Work Outside the Household?

Allowed to work outside the household			
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	27	30.0	77.1
No	8	8.9	22.9
Total	35	38.9	100.0
Gender = Female			

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

The following section relates to objective two of this study, as set out in Chapter one, which relates to interventions that target rural women specifically, implemented by stakeholders such as NGOs and local Government.

6.10 Interventions Implemented by Stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and Local Government to Target the Rural Women Specifically

Related to object two of this study, Table 6-11 below indicates that female respondents did not receive any support in terms of bank loans or any form of assistance from NGOs. Instead, most females (78.9%) indicated that they were able to secure finance to set up their businesses through other means, and only a few (21.1%) received grants or subsidies from the local government to set up their businesses. This finding seems to be consistent with what is reflected in the IDP for Vulindlela, in KZN, which indicates that the current economy of Vulindlela is largely based on Government interventions with limited private sector income and investment (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:24-25).

Table 6-11: Finance to Set up Businesses

Finance to set up business				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Grant/subsidy from local municipality	4	4.4	21.1	21.1
Bank loan	0	0	0	0
NGO assistance	0	0	0	0
Other	15	16.7	78.9	100.0

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

Also aligned to objective two, Table 6-12 below reveals that female respondents indicated that they are not receiving any assistance with regards to skills training and infrastructural development such

as access to markets. It must be noted that institutional support is pivotal in order for LED to thrive. For example, by providing roads, the municipality would be creating an enabling environment for rural entrepreneurs, including women, to transport their agricultural products to markets in the urban areas (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:47). Market accessibility is crucial for a successful LED initiative (Treasury, 2011:196). As depicted in Table 6-11 above, there is a conspicuous lack of intervention from the NGOs. Non-Governmental Organizations act as “gap-fillers”, meaning that they provide services where the government falls short or is unable to render the necessary services, for example, skills training for women in the entrepreneurial sector (Mandinyenya, 2014:1). Economic development opportunities are, therefore, limited due to, among others, lack of skills and training (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:24-25).

Table 6- 12: Institutional Assistance

Institutional Assistance					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Finance	1	.7	2.4	2.4
	None	1	.7	2.4	4.9
	Other	39	29.1	95.1	100.0
	Skills training	0	0	0	0
	Assistance with creating markets	0	0	0	0
	Infrastructural development	0	0	0	0
	Tax relief	0	0	0	0

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

The next section is a discussion on the effectiveness of interventions relating to objective three, as outlined in Chapter one of this study.

6.11 The effectiveness of interventions

Linked to objective three of the study, Table 6-13 below indicates that 44.3% of female respondents disagree that there is any improvement in their living conditions, and 41.1% of male respondents disagree that there is any positive impact on their lives.

It has been more than ten years of LED being a statutory requirement for local authorities (Rogerson, 2014:206). However, to date, LED has not had any significant impact on the livelihoods of rural women. Research conducted by Bower (2014:107), Laughlin, *et al* (2013:2), and, to further

reiterate, statistics revealed by Statistics South Africa (2014) show that women continue to be the most impoverished sector of the population.

Furthermore, women’s lack of access to land continues to undermine their capacity to take advantage of economic opportunities. Although interventions such as the Rural Women’s Movement based in KZN, which advocate for the rights of women with regard to ownership of land exist, it is noted that decision-making processes around land issues are still male-dominated (Nadasen, 2012:45-47).

Table 6- 13: Gender and Improvements in Living Conditions

Cross tabulations between gender and Improvements in living conditions *					
			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Improvements in living conditions	Strongly disagree	Count	6	14	20
		% within Gender	17.6%	20.0%	19.2%
		% of Total	5.8%	13.5%	19.2%
	Disagree	Count	8	17	25
		% within Gender	23.5%	24.3%	24.0%
		% of Total	7.7%	16.3%	24.0%
	Neither agree nor disagree	Count	12	12	24
		% within Gender	35.3%	17.1%	23.1%
		% of Total	11.5%	11.5%	23.1%
	Agree	Count	1	12	13
		% within Gender	2.9%	17.1%	12.5%
		% of Total	1.0%	11.5%	12.5%
	Strongly agree	Count	7	15	22
		% within Gender	20.6%	21.4%	21.2%
		% of Total	6.7%	14.4%	21.2%
Total	Count	34	70	104	
	% of Total	32.7%	67.3%	100.0%	

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018.

The following section relates to objective four of the study, pertaining to the perception that women have with regard to accessing LED opportunities.

6.12 Perception of the Rural Women with Regard to Accessing LED Opportunities

Female respondents, as per Table 6-14 below, perceived LED as an avenue for job creation (48.1%), poverty alleviation (20.4%,) and enhancing the national economy (13.0%).

As asserted by Arriati and Chasomeris (2015: 432-435), LED based on sound business principles can contribute to economic growth, job creation and poverty alleviation. In India, for example, micro-enterprises have proven to be the best tool for rural women to add to the family income (Mazumda and Ahmed, 2015: 166). Eshetu (2017:43) states that women empowerment is not only beneficial to women themselves, but is also deemed to be central for rural development,

Women empowerment, through participation in economic activities, is in line with the WID approach which advocated for their integration into the economy. However, women encounter numerous challenges in the integration into the economy because the structures governing participation remain the same, and women are expected to compete in a male dominated arena. Women still experience high levels of unemployment and consequently, poverty. They are still unable to access economic opportunities compared to their male counterparts (Lesetedi, 2018:199-200).

Table 6- 14: Perception of LED

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Job creation	52	38.8	48.1
Alleviating poverty	22	16.4	20.4
Enhancing the national economy	14	10.4	13.0
Job creation, alleviating poverty and enhancing the national economy	14	10.4	13.0
Job creation and enhancing the national economy	4	3.0	3.7
Job creation and alleviating poverty	1	.7	.9
Alleviating poverty and Enhancing the national economy	1	.7	.9
Total	108	80.6	100.0

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018.

The next section is a discussion on women's participation in LED activities.

Also related to objective four of the study, Table 6-15 below shows that 53.3% of women are not given an equal opportunity to participate in LED activities.

According to Lawal *et al.* (2016:355), entrepreneurship is a vital avenue by which women could empower themselves towards participating in economic development where they are unable to

secure any other form of employment. Furthermore, as stated by Reddy (2014:7), in a democracy, all citizens have the right to be part of the development initiative in order to improve their standard of living.

Table 6- 15: Are women given an equal opportunity in LED?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	28	31.1	46.7
No	32	35.6	53.3

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

The following section presents the data analysis and discussion on women’s participation in Ward Council meetings.

Further related to objective four, Table 6-16 is a reflection of women’s participation in Ward Council meetings regarding LED. Statistics, as per Table 6-16, show that 57.5% of female respondents are not invited to The Ward Council meetings.

Respondents who indicated that they are not invited to Ward Council meetings stated the following:

“No, I have never heard that the ward councillor has called a meeting regarding local economic development” (A10).

“Meetings are no longer available when voted” (C5).

“I don’t call being invited” (D7).

“There are hardly meets that are called by the ward councillor unless it’s close to the elections then there are meetings almost every week” (B17).

One of the respondents who attended Ward Council meetings stated the following:

“The Ward Councillor usually does invite us to meetings but most of them are of a political nature and usually arise when the elections are around the corner” (B3).

The IDP requires municipalities to engage with communities they serve regarding their LED initiatives. This reinforces the notion of developmental local government (Nkuna, 2017:623). Moreover, local government has a Constitutional obligation to ensure that planning is inclusive (RSA, 1996). However, representation of men and women in planning remain unequal, particularly

in local government. Rural areas are faced with a dire challenge of marginalization of women in decision-making in the development process (Mokoele, 2017:189-190). Rural women know what their development needs, priorities and challenges are; therefore, they are in the best position to influence and shape policies and implementation in a meaningful way (Mazibuko, 2017:41). Failure to place women at the centre of LED planning will render all efforts to fight rural poverty fruitless (Mokoele, 2017:192-195).

As revealed by Rambuda and Masenya (2017:99), women participation in decision-making in rural areas constitute only four percent of the entire rural population, which means that the majority are not involved in the formulation of developmental plans. The absence of meaningful participation by communities and local stakeholders undermines the legitimacy of IDPs (Madzivhandila and Asha, 2012: 372).

Table 6- 16: Invitation by Ward Councilors to Attend Meetings Regarding Local Economic Development

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	31	34.4	42.5
No	42	46.7	57.5
Total	73	81.1	100.0

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

Data related to objective five is presented below as emerging themes. This is because the question which generated this data was an open-ended question, that is, question 19 of the survey questionnaire. This question was a follow-up from question 18, which is a structured closed-ended question.

Emanating from the responses to question 19 of the survey, there were four themes that emerged as annotated in Table 6-17 below. Female respondents, as quoted in Table 6-17, suggested that the Msunduzi Municipality provides training and skills development to pave the way for accessing economic generating activities. In Vulindlela, economic development opportunities are limited due to, among others, lack of skills and training (Vulindlela IDP, 2016:24-25).

Another area of concern is the lack of infrastructure. Respondents would like to have access to at least running water. A municipality is considered to be developmental if it is able to deliver basic services such as water, sanitation, roads electricity, among others (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:47). Rural women pay a particularly high price for the lack of infrastructure in time spent accessing, for

example, water for domestic or agricultural uses (Tanwir and Safdar, 2013:217). With regard to prioritizing the empowerment of women, respondents who answered this question suggested that the Msunduzi Municipality should empower women in order for them to be independent.

The NDP (RSA, 2012) includes a strong focus on gender and proposes the following recommendations, among others, to advance the empowerment of women (Kruger, 2017:14): that the Msunduzi Municipality should aspire to.

- expand public employment to provide work for the unemployed with a specific focus on youth and women;
- transform the economy and involve active participation and empowerment of women; and
- create and secure land tenure for communal farmers, especially women.

Table 6- 17: Suggestions to the Msunduzi Municipality with regard to empowering rural women

Emerging Themes	Responses from Participants	Source
1.Skills Development and Training	- "Have training that will equip women with skills to start businesses and create such avenues. Teach us about these funding programmes because we have never heard of LED until now " - "To provide skills so as to better understand what each person knows their strengths and use them in a manner that will benefit them". - "Improve skills and development".	D4 A5 B14
2.Local Government intervention to create employment	- "We would like for more job opportunities so we can also be employed". - "Open job opportunities " - "To open job and business opportunities for women".	A10 A6 A40
3.Prioritising women empowerment	- "They should teach women to be independent and not rely on men". - "Women must be treated equally than men". - "The municipality must also empower women from rural areas and not just women from urban areas".	C41 C35 A8
4.Infrastructure Development	- "To improve the infrastructure in the community in terms of sports and recreational activities". - "We would be happy if we could have running water".	B19 B7

Source: Field Enquiry, 2018

6.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided the presentation and discussion of the acquired data. Data was presented using tables and a descriptive analysis of findings. The findings were presented in accordance with each objective of this study, as outlined in Chapter one of this study. The literature was used to interrogate data presented. The next chapter is the concluding chapter of this study and presents the conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER 7
GENERAL CONCLUSIONS and RECOMMENDATIONS

The previous chapter presented tables and analysis of the acquired data. The findings were discussed in accordance with each objective.

7.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion on the findings, recommendations and conclusion pertaining to this study. The reviewed literature for this study revealed that rural women are the most disadvantaged and poorest sector of the population. Also revealed in literature review is that LED has been recognised as a strategic intervention for creating economic generating activities and to help rural women improve their standard of living. Against this backdrop, the study then focussed on the experiences that rural women have with regard to accessing LED opportunities, in their quest to improve their standard of living, specifically in the Vulindlela area, of KZN. The following research questions and objectives provided the foundation for this study.

The next section presents a recapitulation of the research questions and objectives.

7.2 Recapitulation of Research Questions and Objectives

Table 7-1: Research objectives and research questions

Research Objectives	Research Questions
1. To establish the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities;	1. What are the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?
2. To determine the interventions implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government that target the women specifically;	2. What interventions are implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs), local government to foster a climate that is conducive for women to access LED opportunities?
3. To establish the effectiveness of these interventions on the lives of the rural women;	3. How effective are these interventions on the lives of these rural women?
4. To establish the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment; and	4. What is the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment?
5. To propose possible solutions to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to LED opportunities.	5. What possible solutions can be proposed to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?

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Source: Researcher, 2018.

The ensuing section of the chapter presents a summary of each of the chapters of the study.

7.3 Summary of the Chapters

This section indicates the outcome of each chapter relative to research objectives and research questions depicted in Table 7-1.

Chapter One: This chapter offered an outline and the overview of the study. It highlighted the need for this study given the prevalence of poverty and hardship among rural women. This chapter briefly introduced the conceptual and contextual framework for this study.

Chapter Two: This chapter presented a review of the literature on the post 1994 legislative framework which shaped the landscape for local economic development. In line with objective two and research question two of this study, this chapter specifically focussed on legislation as an intervention for rural women to gain access to local economic development opportunities.

Chapter Three: This chapter provided the background knowledge for this study. Related to research objective one and research question one of this study, the existing literature underscored the challenges that rural women encounter with regard to accessing economic development opportunities.

Chapter Four: In chapter four, theories, namely, the Dependency Theory and Modernisation Theory which underpinned the study were presented. The theories gave a perspective on why rural women are trapped in a cycle of poverty and hardship and discussed the power dynamics within rural communities which is similar to the rich-country/ poor-country dichotomy. The theories relate to objective four and research question four of this study, which focussed on the perceptions that the rural women of Vulindlela have regarding local economic development opportunities.

Chapter Five: This chapter presented the purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions, research strategy and the research design and methods used to collect primary data. The researcher used quantitative research design to answer the research questions.

Chapter Six: The primary data collected for the study was presented, analysed and discussed in this chapter. Literature presented in chapter two was interrogated to analyse data. Data presented was aligned with the research questions and research objectives outlined in chapter one of this dissertation.

Chapter Seven: This concluding chapter delineates the main research findings and conclusions of the study. Presented in this chapter is the recapitulation of the research objectives and research questions. Also included in this chapter are recommendations following the main research findings and conclusion.

The next section presents a discussion on the main research findings and conclusions based on the findings.

7.4 The Main Research Findings and Conclusions

7.4.1 Research Objective One and Research Question One

- **Research Objective One**

To establish the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities.

- **Research Question One**

What are the challenges that the women of Vulindlela encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?

7.4.1.1 Findings

The study results reveal two most common challenges including limited access to credit and poor infrastructure that rural women encounter.

7.4.1.2 Conclusion

Access to credit and provision of infrastructure are critical requirements for local economic development opportunities. Rural women need finances to start-up a business, whilst infrastructure provides access to markets. Omoyiba, Eghareuba and Iyanda (2010:3369) state that women have always been sidelined when it comes to securing finances, thus affecting their full participation in LED activities.

With Vuindlela being a rural area, it is typically lacking in basic infrastructure. This was also reported by respondents as an impediment to women accessing LED opportunities. The time taken to gather wood to light a fire for cooking and to fetch water for the household are depriving these women of time to access to LED opportunities.

7.4.2 Research Objective Two and Research Question Two

- **Research Objective Two**

To determine the interventions implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government that target the women specifically.

- **Research Question Two**

What interventions are implemented by stakeholders (NGOs, CBOs) and local government to foster a climate conducive for women to access LED opportunities?

7.4.2.1 Findings

Findings in this study reveal that female respondents did not receive any support in terms of bank loans or any form of assistance from NGOs. Instead, most females (78.9%) indicated that they were able to secure finance to set up their businesses through other means; only a few (21.1%) received grants or subsidies from the local government to set up their businesses. Female respondents also indicated that they are not receiving any assistance with regards to skills training,

7.4.2.2 Conclusion

Institutional support is pivotal in order for LED to thrive. For example, by providing roads, the municipality would be creating an enabling environment for rural entrepreneurs, including women, to transport their agricultural products to markets in the urban areas (Vyas-Doorgapersad, 2010:47). Furthermore, NGOs play a pivotal role in complementing the services provided by government and in some instances, act as “gap-fillers”, meaning that they provide services where the government falls short or is unable to render the necessary services, for example, skills training for women in the entrepreneurial sector (Mandinyenya, 2014:1).

7.4.3 Research Objective Three and Research Question Three

- **Research Objective Three**

To establish the effectiveness of these interventions on the lives of the rural women.

- **Research Question Three**

How effective are these interventions on the lives of these rural women?

7.4.3.1 Findings

Linked to objective 3 of the study, 44.3% of female respondents disagree that there is any improvement in their living conditions, and 41.1% of male respondents disagree that there is any positive impact in their lives.

7.4.3.2 Conclusion

It is more than ten years of LED being a statutory requirement for local authorities (Rogerson, 2014:206), however, to date, LED has not had any significant impact on the livelihoods of rural women.

7.4.4 Research Objective Four and Research Question Four

- **Research Objective four**

To establish the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment.

- **Research Question four**

What is the perception of the rural women with regard to accessing opportunities for economic empowerment?

7.4.4.1 Findings

Female respondents perceived LED as an avenue for job creation (48.1%), poverty alleviation (20.4%) and enhancing the national economy (13.0%). Also revealed in this section of the study is that 53.3% of women are not given an equal opportunity to participate in LED activities.

7.4.4.2 Conclusion

As asserted by Arriati and Chasomeris (2015: 432-435), LED based on sound business principles can contribute to economic growth, job creation and poverty alleviation. However, women still experience high levels of unemployment and consequently, poverty. They are still unable to access economic opportunities compared to their male counterparts (Lesetedi, 2018:199-200).

7.4.5 Research Objective Five and Research Question Five

- **Research Objective five**

To propose possible solutions to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to LED opportunities.

- **Research Question five**

What possible solutions can be proposed to overcome challenges that the rural women encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities?

7.4.5.1 Findings

The following are some of the responses from participants with regard to how they, that is, the rural women of Vulindlela, can overcome the challenges they encounter with regard to accessing LED opportunities:

“Have training that will equip women with skills to start businesses and create such avenues. Teach us about these funding programmes because we have never heard of LED until now” (D4).

“To open job and business opportunities for women” (A40).

“The municipality must also empower women from rural areas and not just women from urban areas” (A8)

7.4.5.2 Conclusion

According to Phungwayo and Mogashoa (2014:75), education and skills development are the backbone to the emancipation of rural women entrepreneurs. Furthermore, the aforementioned researchers agree that skills development is the seedbed for self-employment and income generating opportunities. Particularly, rural women are plagued with challenges such as inadequate access to finance, competing demands on time which is related to household chores and family concerns, lack of skills and access to support services, which severely undermines their ability to access income generating activities (Lawal, Ayoade and Taiwo, 2016: 355-358).

7.5 Significance of the Study to the body of Knowledge of LED and Rural women

Despite LED being hailed as a strategic intervention for job creation and stimulating economic generating activities, rural women are plagued by numerous challenges in their quest to create and sustain economic generating activities so desperately needed for their survival and that of their families. Essentially, this means that all efforts by stakeholders of LED have so far, not met the expectations and perceptions of the most disadvantaged sector of the population. The significance of this study was to highlight the challenges experienced by the women in the Vulindlela area of KZN. There is a need to highlight such an issue which continues to plague women in the new democratic era of South Africa. More importantly, it is hoped that the findings of this study can inform and guide policymakers in designing projects that would target female entrepreneurs. There

is also a need for National Government to look into the laws, policies and regulations regarding equity and gender balance issues in local economic development.

7.6 Overarching Recommendations of the Dissertation

The following are the recommendations of the study.

7.6.1 Recommendation One

Implementation of a gender responsive budget and investment in infrastructure

- Municipalities should implement gender responsive budgets, including government spending earmarked for gender based programs and projects, including safe facilities for women and LED strategies that target women entrepreneurs to ensure that women have access to funding (Reddy, 2014:9).
- Public investment in infrastructure must be initiated and spearheaded by government departments and municipalities in order to stimulate and boost local economies (Koma, 2014: 58-59)

7.6.2 Recommendation Two

Stakeholders must be key role players

- Adequate funding should be made available to municipalities in order to initiate LED projects through institutions such as the Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA), Industrial Development Corporation (IDC) (Koma, 2014: 58-59)
- NGOs, CBOs and banks need to prioritise women when offering loans for starting up business projects.

7.6.3 Recommendation Three

Interventions must be implemented in a meaningful way.

- Stakeholders in local economic development must be able to apply policies in a manner that empowers communities, particularly vulnerable sections of communities such as rural women, to participate and drive their own development (Mazibuko, 2017:32). Rural women know what their development needs, priorities and challenges are, and therefore are in the best position to influence and shape policies and implementation in a meaningful way (Mazibuko, 2017:41).

7.6.4 Recommendation Four

Women must be given an equal opportunity to participate in economic development.

- Community Leaders and Chiefs need to see women as equal partners in the development of rural areas. The perception that certain jobs should be reserved for men only must be eradicated. There must be gender mainstreaming in rural development.

7.6.5 Recommendation Five

Challenges must be eliminated to pave the way for female entrepreneurs

- Women have indicated that they should be trained and equipped with skills that will pave way for accessing LED opportunities. Perhaps, the Government should consider opening a training centre in Vulindlela, ensuring that at least 50% of the trainees are women. Training could be provided on how to grow vegetables and fruit, catering, sewing and knitting.
- Investing in social infrastructure can also have a positive impact on economic development. For example, investing in schools and hospitals will lead to healthier and more educated people. People will be better placed to acquire business skills and be more innovative. This will stimulate economic development (Steiner, 2014:5).

7.7 Future research

The objective of the study was to establish experiences that rural women encounter with regard to accessing income-generating activities. The study revealed that women are plagued by numerous challenges in their endeavor to secure any form of income-generating opportunity. Government intervention is limited due to over-stretched budgets and financial constraints. In light of this, there is a need to explore other avenues for women to uplift themselves socially and economically instead of relying on government. A suggestion is that rural women should be encouraged and educated about starting cooperatives and self-help groups. In this regard, a recommended area for future research can be on the sustainability and effectiveness of cooperatives and self- help groups.

7.8 Chapter Summary

This final chapter of the dissertation first presented the recapitulation of the research objectives and research questions. The chapter further outlined the findings and the deductions from each of the research findings. As such, the research findings revealed dire challenges that rural women in Vulindlela experience with regard to accessing LED opportunities. Linked to the findings and deductions drawn, the chapter outlined overarching research recommendations, which can inform

and guide policymakers in drafting laws, policies and regulations that consider equity and gender balance issues in local economic development. This is the concluding chapter of this dissertation. The following is a list of all the sources from which information was solicited in order to compile this dissertation.

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ANNEXURE 1: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE



College of Law & Management Studies

ISIKOLE SAKWA-Management, IT & Governance

Dear Respondent, Mbambiqhaza Othandekayo,

Uhlelo locwaningo lwe-MPA Research Project

Umcwaningi Researcher: Ms V Govender (033 2605014)

Umhloli Supervisor: Mr BR Qwabe (031 2607490)

Ihhovisi lomcwaningo Research Office: Ms. M Snyman (031 260-8350)

1. Vivagum Govender ongumfundi owenza iMasters Degree e-UKZN esikoleni sakwa Management, IT & Governance. Uyamenywa ukubamba iqhaza ocwaningweni olubandakanya ukuthukiswa kwabesifazane basemakhaya nge *Local Economic Development (LED)* kuhlelo olubizwa ngokuthi *A case study of the uMsunduzi Municipality*.
2. Inhloso yaloluhlelo ukuthi: ukuthola ngemiphumela yokuthukiswa kohlelo kuka Local Economic Development (LED) ngempilo yabesifazane basemakhaya kanye nendima edlalwa uMasipala ekuthukiseni imiphakathi yasemakhaya nge LED
3. Ngokubamba kwakho iqhaza ngiyathemba ngiyathemba ukuthi ngizoqondisa ukuhlangana phakathi kokuthukiswa komnotho kwabesifazane basemakhaya ngohlelo lwe LED kanye nokuthukiswa kwezindawo zasemakhaya.
4. Loluhlelo luhlose ukuthi libe nomthelela ekubhekeleleni nezingqamba okunethemba lokuthi kuzosiza ekutheni kukhuphule izinga labantu besifazane basemakhaya ekubambeni iqhaza kwi LED.
5. Iqhaza olibambayo kuleliqhaza lingukuvolontiya. Unganqaba noma uyeke ukubamba iqhaza kule-project noma ingasiphi isikhathi ngaphandle kokuba nemiphumela engemihle.
6. Ayikho imali ozoyithola ngeqhaza olibambe kulolucwaningo, imininingwane yakho izogcinwa iyimfihlo phakathi kwesikole sakwa- Management, IT & Governance, UKZN.
7. Uma unemibuzo mayelana naloluhlelo, ngicela uxhumane nami noma u- supervisor kulezinamba ezingenhla.
8. Kungathatha imizuzu engamashumi amathathu ukuqeda lemibuzo. Ngiyathemba uzothatha isikhathi sakho ukuqeda lemibuzo.

Ozithobayo

Investigator's signature:.....Date:.....

Imvumo

Mina.....(Igama eligcwele lombambi-qhaza)
ngiyafunga ukuthi ngiqonda konke okuqukethwe ileliphepha nohlobo locwaningo,
ngiyazinikela ekutheni ngizibandakanye kulolucwaningo. Ngियाqonda futhi ukuthi
ngikhululekile ukuthi ngingayeka noma ingasiphi isikhathi le-project uma ngingesifiso.

Signature of Participant:

Date:

Uhla Lwemibuzo Yasemphakathini

Uhlelo lwe Local Economic Development (LED) lokuthuthukiswa kwezomnotho luyindlela entsha esetshenziswa lapha eningizimu Africa ukwakha amathuba amabhizingisi amancane kanye naphakathi nendawo/amakhudlwana ukulekelela imindeni kanye nemiphakathi ekutheni ikwazi ukuzihlinzeka ngezidingo zayo. Inhloso yalolucwaningo ukuthola ukuthi ngabe loluhlelo lwe LED luyenzeka yini ewndaweni yangakini, yimaphi amathuba anikwezwa abesi fazane maqondana naloluhlelo nokuthi yimuthi umthelela kwezo-mnotho osubonakelo kubo abesifazane.

Indawo: _____

ISIQEPHU A:

1. Iminyaka Yobudala

2. Ubulili

Owesilisa	01
Owesifazane	02

3. Okumayelana Nemfundo

Angifundile	01
Imfundo yasemabangeni aphansi	02
Imfundo yasemabangeni athethuthu	03
Imfundo yasemabangeni aphakeme	04

Ukuphawula

ISIQEPHU B: ISIMO SEZAKHAMUZI ZASOMAPHANDLENI ISIMO SABAHLALI BASEMAPHANDLENI

4. Ngabe uyasebenza/ uqashiwe na?

Yebo	01
Cha	02

5. Uma uphendule wathi "yebo" ngenhla ngabe usebenza/wenza msebenzi muni?

Usomabhizinisi	01
Usebenz kwezolimo	02
Okunye(sicela ucacise)	03

Okunye: _____

6. Uma ungosomabhizinisi ngabe hlobo luni lwebhizinisi otshale kulo imali noma ozibandakanye kulo?

Ukukhiqizwa kweziphuzo ezidakayo	01
Ukwakhiwa kwemikhiqizo ewthungwayo	02
Ukudla/izindawo zokudlela	03
Izimakethe zezithelo	04
Ezokuvakasha	05
Ezobuciko	06
Okunye (sicela ucacise)	07

Okunye: _____

7. Selokhu wasungula ibhizinisi lakho ngabe isimo sempilo yakho siyathuthuka na?

Impela kunjalo	01
Kunjalo	02
Angivumi futhi angiphiki	03
Ngiyaphika/cha akunjalo	04
Impula ngiyaphika/angivumi	05

Ukuphawula

8. Ngabe unayo impahla okungeyakho?

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula

9. Uma uphendule wathi "yebo" ngenhla sicela ucacise ukuthi hlobo luni lwempahla onalo.

Umhlaba	01
Umuzi/Indlu	02
Lmeliyo	03
Okunye(sicela lcacise)	04

Okunye: _____

10. Ngabe uyavumelana nokuthi njengomikazi wempahla usemathubeni angcono ohlelo lwe (LED) Local Economic Development/Uhlelo lokuthuthukiswa kwezomnotho?

Impela kunjalo	01
Kunjalo	02
Angivumi futhi angiphiki	03
Ngiyaphika noma cha akunjalo	04
Cha impela angivumi noma akunjalo	05

Ukuphawula

11. Ngokombono wakho iyini inhloso yohlelo lokuthuthukiswa kwezomnotho?

Ukudala amathuba emsebenzi	01
----------------------------	----

Ukulwisana nobubha	02
Ukusimamisa umnotho	03

Ukuphawula

12. Ngabe uhlelo lokuthuthukiswa kwezomnotho lusisimamisile isimo senhlalo endaweni yangakini?

Impelo kunjalo/ngiyavuma	01
Kunjalo/ngiyavuma	02
Angivumi futhi angiphiki	03
Angivumi/cha akunjalo	04
Impela angivumi/ngiyaphika	05

Nobani?

13. Uma ungowesifazane sicela uphendule. Ngabe umyeni wakho uyakuvumela usebenze ngaphandle komuzi wenu?

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula

14. Uma ungowesilisa sicela uphendule. Ngokombono wakho abesifazane kufanele yini basebenze ngaphandle kwasekhanya ukuze bazolekelela ezindlekweni/emalini engena ekhaya?

Impela ngiyavuma/kunjalo	01
Ngiyavuma/kanjalo	02

Angivumi futhi angiphiki	03
Angivumi/cha akunjalo	04
Impela angivumi/niyaphika	05

ISIQEPHU C: INDIMA EDLALWA IZIPHATHIMANDLA EKWESEKENI UHLELO LWEZOKUTHUTHUISA UMNOTHO

15. Uma ungosomabhizinisi, ngabe uke waluthola usizo oluthile?

Ukuqeqeshwa kweza makhono	01
Ezezimali	02
Ukusiza ekwakhiweni kwezimakethe	03
Ukuthuthukiswa kwengqalasizinda	04
Ezentela	05
Okunye	06
Alukho	07

Ukuphawula:

16. Uma lukhona owaluthula, ngabe yiluphi uhlaka noma indawo ebewusizo ikakhulukazi?

uMasipala waseMsunduzi	01
Izinhlango ezingekho ngaphansi kwahulumento	02
Izinhlango zasemphakathini	03
Kwabamabhizinisi	04
Okunye(sicela ucacise)	05

Okunye: _____

Ukuphawula:

17. Njengosomabhizinisi yiziphi ezinye zezinselelo obhekana nazo?

Ukushoda kwabazosimela lapho kuthathwa izinqumo	01
Amathuba ambalwa ezemfundo	02
Ukweswela ukuqeqeshwa/kokuthuthukiswa kwamakhono	03
Ukushoda kwengqalacizinda	04
Ukungabibikho komhlaba	05
Izingqinamba ezimaqondana namasiko/nemasiko	06
Okunye(sicela ucacise)	07

Okunye: _____

Ukuphawula:

18. Ngokombono wakho ngabe abesifazane bathola amathuba alingana nawabanye ohlelweni lokuthuthukiswa kwezomnotho

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula:

19. Uma kungenjalo ngabe yimiphi imibono ongaba nayo kumasipala wase Msunduzi ekuthuthukiseni abesifazane basemaphandleni?

20. Ngabe wake wamenywa ikhansela lenu lendawo ukwethamela umhlangano omayelana nohlelo lokuthuthukiswa kwezomnotho.

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula:

21. Uma impendulo yakho ngenhla ithi "yebo" ngabe uyayihambela na leyomihlangano.

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula:

22. Uma kungenjalo, kungani? (isizathu)

23. Ngabe niyanikezwa ithuba lokukhuluma kulemihlangano?

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula:

24. Uma uyingxenye yeprojecti yebhizinisi, ngabe wayithola kanjani/kuphi imali yokuliqala?

Ufune isikweletu ebhange	01
Uxhaswe I-NGO	02
I-Grant/Imali oyithole kmasipala wangakini	03

Okunye (chaza)	04
-----------------	----

Okunye:_____

Ukuphawula:

25. Uthola kulula ukudayisa impahla yakho?

Yebo	01
Cha	02

Ukuphawula

26. Uma uvumelana nempendulo yokungenhla, ngobani abathenga kakhulu?

Arna-Tourists	01
Abantu basendaweni	02
Abantu abasuka emadolobheni	03
Okunye (Chaza)	04

Okunye:_____

Ukuphawula

27. Kukhona ongathanda ukukusho?

Siyabonga isikhathi sakho kanye nokubambisana kanye nathi.

Annexure 2: Ethical Clearance Letter



13 September 2017

Ms Vivagum Govender (982205547)
School of Management, IT & Governance
Westville Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/1244/013M

Project title: Local Economic Development and rural women: A case study of the Msunduzi Municipality

Recertification Approval

This letter confirms that you have been granted Recertification Approval for a period of one year from the date of this letter. This approval is based strictly on the research protocol submitted in 2013

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. Please quote the above reference number for all queries relating to this study. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years

Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

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

Yours faithfully

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Mr BR Qwabe
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Brian McArthur
cc School Administrator: Ms Angela Pearce

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

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ANNEXURE 3: LETTERS FROM THE GATEKEEPERS

The Msunduzi Municipality

Private Bag X 321
Pietermaritzburg
3200
Φ (033) 392 3000

333 Church Street
Pietermaritzburg
3200
www.msunduzi.gov.za



Enq: Nomfundo Tel: 033 348 2015 E-mail: mankomose23@gmail.com

To : The Manager

From : Ward 02 Councillor
Cllr. S.B Mtshali

Date : 16 November 2017

Subject : Confirmation Letter

Dear Sir/Madam

I Councillor S.B Mtshali confirm that I am giving Miss Govender from UKZN permission to conduct a research that is based on Local Economic Development at Sweetwaters Location under the jurisdiction of ward 02 where I serve as a ward councillor.

I sincerely hope that you will find this in good order and warranting your attention and consideration.

Regards,

S.B Mtshali
Ward 02 Councillor
072 740 5306

Commissioner Of Oath (Ex Officio)
PR Councillor. Msunduzi Municipality
City Hall, Chief Albert Luthuli Street,
Pietermaritzburg

The Msunduzi Municipality

City Hall Luthuli Road
Pietermaritzburg 3201

Tel: 033 - 392 2572/75
Fax: 033 - 392 2208

For use by Councillor

06 November 2017



To Whom It May Concern

This letter serves to confirm that I Councillor L.L Madlala of Ward 03 Msunduzi Local Municipality gave permission to Miss V. Govender from University of KwaZulu Natal(UKZN) to conduct Research or a Survey in the Community of Nxamalala area of Ward 03 in Vulindlela area. The Survey will be based on Local Economic Development(LED).

All Further clarities should be directed to me on the below number.

Yours Faithfully,

**Cllr L.L Madlala
Ward 03 Councillor
072 4495 988**

Madlala Linda Linford
Commissioner of Oath (Ex Officio)
Ward 03 Councillor, Msunduzi Municipality
City Hall, Chief Albert Luthuli Street,
Pietermaritzburg

THE MSUNDUZI MUNICIPALITY
VULINDLELA



Enquiries: Cllr F Makhathini Cell No. 073 172 8 701 Email address : makhathini@gmail.com

30 July 2013

As per our telephonic conversation hereby is the letter confirming that your organisation is allowed to conduct a research in Vulindlela Ward 06. Please keep me informed about the dates.

Should you have any questions feel free to contact me.

Regards

Falakhe Makhathini

The Msunduzi Municipality

City Hall Commercial Road
Pietermaritzburg 3201

Tel: 033 - 392 2572/75

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For use by Councilors

16 August 2013

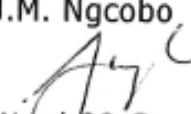
Confirmation letter

I write this letter to confirm that V.GOVENDER has been given permission to conduct survey in ward 09 where I serve as the ward councilor.

Your cooperation in this regard would be much appreciated

Thank you,

J.M. Ngcobo


Ward 09 Councilor
0720210525

Ngcobo Jeffrey Thobayiselwa
Commissioner of Oath (for Councillors)
Ward 09 Councilor, Msunduzi Municipality
City Hall, Chief Albert Luthuli Street,
Pietermaritzburg

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