



**Spatial planning and its implications on agricultural development in  
Lesotho: a case study of Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru District**

By

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# COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES

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Signed

.....

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## **Dedication**

For my dearly departed father Ntate Fusi Mohlahatsa who supported and encouraged me in my educational and other pursuits. Kea leboha Letebele.

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## List of Abbreviations

BNP – Basotho National Party

CBD – Central Business District

CFSC – Chicago Food Systems Collaboration consortium

CPI – Consumer Price Index

DMA – Disaster Management Authority

FPP- First Passed the Post

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

Ha – Hectares

HIV/AIDS – Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

LAA – Land Administration Authority

LHLDC – Lesotho Housing and Land Development Corporation

LSPP – Lands Survey and Physical Planning

LUSP – Land Use Settlement Planning

MAFS – Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security

MDGs – Millennium Development Goals

MDP – Maseru Development Plan

MLGC&PA – Ministry of Local Government Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs

MMC- Maseru Municipal Council/ MCC – Maseru City Council

NDP – National Decentralization Policy

NSP – National Settlement Policy

NSDP – National Strategic Development Plan

RTPI - Royal Town Planning Institute

UN – United Nations

UNECE – United Nations Economic Commission of Europe

USA – United States of America

WCED – World Commission on Environment and Development

## Abstract

This study explores the implications of spatial planning on agricultural development in Lesotho. It interrogates how spatial planning in Lesotho takes place as well as its role in the agricultural development discourse in this country. The study was motivated by one major research objective: to determine whether spatial planning efforts in Lesotho contribute to the encouragement of agricultural development in the country. An in-depth case analysis of the experiences of farming communities in two villages selected at random in Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru district was conducted to understand how spatial planning affects farming activities in this area. Interviews were also conducted with legal, spatial planning and agriculture experts in Lesotho to find out the relationship between policy and practice in agricultural development. A mixed method sampling technique was also used where the farmers were selected using snowball sampling and questioned on how their agricultural activities interact with spatial planning. Interview respondents were selected using purposive sampling as the researcher needed expert opinions.

This research has found that spatial planning practice in Mohlakeng Community Council can be said to be unresponsive to the need for agricultural development. This is because the farming community in Mohlakeng Community Council were found to be oblivious of what spatial planning does and how it could contribute to better performance in the agricultural sector. It was also found that the expert community concur citing that generally the practice of spatial planning operates in urban areas and so neglects the rural part of the country where agriculture is dominant. The findings from the research indicate that there should be a relationship between spatial planning and agricultural development in Lesotho.

The findings of this research can contribute to discourse on the practice of spatial planning and its effect on agricultural development in developing countries including Lesotho. The conclusions indicate the need for more responsive legislative structures so that planning practice is more structured to respond to the need for agricultural development in areas such as Mohlakeng Community Council where the people have an interest in undertaking agriculture but lack support in some aspects of the process.



## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Background to the study

Spatial planning is a generic concept that has a rich history in theory and in practice. It is described as having origins in Europe where it was identified as a physical environment based approach at shaping economic, social, cultural, and ecological dimensions of society (Almendiger and Houghton, 2010). It is an approach that attempts to go further in physical environment based development approaches than traditional land use planning. It facilitates and promotes sustainable and inclusive patterns of urban and rural development, and does not operate through a narrow technical perspective, which has been the criticism levelled at traditional land use planning (Royal Town Planning Institute, 2007). Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) (2008) describes the process of spatial planning as an important method for assisting the delivery of economic, social and environmental benefits to people by creating stable and predictable conditions for investment and development.

In Lesotho the process of spatial planning can be described as being in transition. The planning practise and organisational frameworks of the planning institutions by all intents and purposes suggest a shift towards a spatial planning based approach. Also, legislation is still based in the land use planning approach. This is evidenced in the evaluation of gazetted planning instruments like the Maseru Development Plan and other district development plans against the functional structures of planning actors such as the Directorate of Physical Planning paired with some local government administration legislation which include the Local Government Act 41 of 1997 (Government of Lesotho, 1997) and The National Decentralization Policy 2014 (Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho, 2014). This thesis considers spatial planning to be a practice undertaken in Lesotho, and efforts that are being taken to shift the gazetted planning legislation towards encouraging a spatial planning framework (see Lesotho Town and Country Planning Bill, 2004) also encourage this system. This research is therefore, considering the physical environment based development activity being undertaken in Lesotho to be spatial planning and not land use planning.

As an activity concerned with influencing the future spatial distribution of land use and the equitable utilisation of land resources (The Economic Commission of Europe: 2008), spatial planning has many times been accused of neglecting its obligation to poverty and food insecurity reduction. For instance, Caldwell et al (2011: 3) state that “planning has a significant role to play in addressing threats to food security but this is not a topic that is currently featuring in planning practice”. They indicate that planning practice has immersed itself in discourse on issues

concerned with all the other basic needs such as clean air, clean water, and adequate shelter, but has neglected the need for food (ibid).

Pothukuchi (2004) and Caldwell et al (op cit) assert that spatial planning has an obligation to partake in issues of food security, and there are several ways that this could be done. Pothukuchi (2004) suggests an institutional arrangement that is inclusive of planning for food security where:

- Spatial planning plays a central role of facilitating appropriate local analysis for ensuring institutional level communication on ways of facilitating independence in food production.
- Planning adopts an evaluator approach to the development process where the community is alerted to the issues being seen in the evaluation process.
- Local government (through local municipalities) frames and updates strategic plans of action and policies.
- Planning adopts a review function for the purposes of feedback on the progress of the process.

In developing countries such as Lesotho, the issue of spatial planning has been placed at the bottom of the list of the issues of concern. Matters such as democracy, rule of law, economic growth and food acquisition have been in the forefront in terms of emergent issues in the fight for liberty and happiness (Matlosa, 1999). With regards to food acquisition, Mbata (1999) notes that the first notable stand by the government of Lesotho to increase yields, was to implement a strategy for increasing the amount of land under cultivation from 1910 to 1920. For a period of about ten years, this strategy seemed to be producing the required returns, where more crops were produced and Lesotho was able to feed the people. By the 1930s, Lesotho began to import grain due to poor yields. The decline in food production had been caused by the very strategy that was put in place to combat food insecurity. Also, population was increasing and this resulted in a strain on the arable land in the country (ibid).

Since the gain of independence in 1966, Lesotho has never had enough food that was produced in the country to feed all Basotho. The country has been depending on external sources rather than local food production to feed its people (Matlosa, 1999). There have been many reasons for this failure to be agriculturally self-sufficient. These range from hostile climatic conditions, unsustainable land use practices, an inadequate land tenure system and climate change to political and bureaucratic mismanagement of resources (Matlosa, 1999) and (Mbata, 1999).

Strategies have been put in place to deal with Lesotho's food insecurity, all which have not yielded fruitful returns.

In the 1970s, the issue that was identified as a cause of food insecurity was land tenure insecurity. It is stated that Lesotho's land tenure system gave no security to land users that they could freely use the land without the threat of reallocation (ibid). The 1979 Land Act was then introduced. It established different tenure types for people to have title over the land they were occupying. It gave more security of land ownership to people so that they could conduct business without fear of their land being taken away from them (Government of Lesotho 1979). This also did little to improve the situation of bad agricultural production and food procurement in the country where there still was not enough food in the country to feed the people. The blame was then put on inept agricultural practices, soil erosion and climate change (Pule and Thabane, 2004).

Attempts to introduce food aid and food imports were launched with little gains. The then National Party Government made calls to international donors to aid Lesotho (Matlosa, 1999), which was a strategy that never really benefited the bulk of Basotho because of political and bureaucratic mismanagement. Ansell et al (2008:1) state that "Agriculture is less important as a source of livelihood in Lesotho compared to most Southern African countries. Most food consumed is purchased". This indicates that most food consumed in Lesotho is either bought (imported) or was acquired as food aid. These two modes of food acquisition have then become the modus operandi for food acquisition in Lesotho until present.

The government of Lesotho through the Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs (MLGC & PA) has assigned the spatial planning function to the Directorate of Physical Planning also known as (Lands Survey and Physical Planning Department (LSPP)), whose functions encompass planning for both urban and rural areas. These functions have however only been limited to urban and peri-urban planning due to institutional limitations and budget issues. Thus planners are not seen as important stakeholders in agriculture (which is a rural based activity) and the attempts to plan for agricultural development in Lesotho. Case in point, the Food Security Policy and Strategic Guidelines (2005: section viii [sic]) outlines all the stakeholders to be involved in rolling out this policy on the ground. These include experts in the agriculture field, international and local aid agencies, community based and non-governmental organisations, district and village leadership and private sector representatives. It can be argued that spatial planning does not form part of the process as there is no mention of the role of spatial planning in the document guiding the strategy around how food security is to be achieved.

This means that there is a loophole in the founding structures of the development path being taken in efforts to ensure food security in the country. This is because it is missing a component



that would contribute to encouraging people to tend to their land and produce from it, especially the parts of the country that host arable land. This does not only render the current food security plan inadequate but also subjects it to repeating the mistakes done in the previous implemented food security plans.

Deductions made in this study are attained from an extensive look at the interactions of spatial planning and agricultural development in Mohlakeng Community Council. Mohlakeng Community Council is a council located on the outskirts of Maseru city (see Maps 1.1 Map of Lesotho and 1.2 Map of Mohlakeng Community Council). It is described as a rural council but yet some of the villages in the council jurisdictions still possess the characteristics of urban areas (the main South 1 road runs through its jurisdiction and it borders Maseru Municipal Council).

## Lesotho Map

## Mohlakeng Map

It is therefore a brilliant place to study and make deductions on the interactions of spatial planning and agricultural development in Lesotho because it will give the researcher a broad population base to investigate from. Mohlakeng displays the characteristics of a typical Community Council that can be found in Lesotho. Some of the residents do not speak or write English well, they are dominantly employed in agriculture and in the informal sector (Bureau of Statistics, 2013). The area is dominated by agricultural land uses, range lands and forests (idid).

## 1.1 Problem Statement<sup>12</sup>

This research investigates how spatial planning can be used as one of the tools to advance Lesotho's endeavour to be self-sufficient in terms of food production and security.

It aims to find out how the practice of spatial planning affects strides being taken to ensure agricultural development. The focus was on Ha Paki and Mokema Villages of Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru District (see Maps 1.3: Mohlakeng Community Council). These villages host land that is of a good enough quality to be able to produce high quality crops which would contribute to the growth of the agriculture sector and therefore support to achieve food security (Mbata 1999), (Map 1.4: Lesotho Soils Map).

The mismatched institutional arrangement in the country also limits the level of effectiveness of the practice in the country. The spatial planning function in Lesotho is only found in the Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs, and in the Directorate for Physical Planning. Spatial planners are not involved with other government departments where their expertise could be useful. These include the Prime Minister's office with the Disaster Management Authority (DMA), Lesotho Housing and Land Development Cooperation (LHLDC) with its mandate to assist Basotho with housing acquisition and the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security with its mandate to ensure food availability in Lesotho. This means institutional arrangement renders the discipline as underutilised and less effective.

Kakonge (2002) notes that, one of the problems the country faces is that the decline in agricultural production is directly related to rural urban migration. This indicates that the country has gradually been urbanising. Ansell et al (2008) add that among the poorer communities, the issue of landlessness is widely prevalent; people are unable to produce food for themselves because they do not own land. Part of the problem of landlessness can be attributed to inadequate action in spatial planning. It has been recorded that land allocation in Lesotho is

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<sup>1</sup>All Maps are in Appendix 4

<sup>2</sup>Also refer to Map 1.1: Map of Lesotho showing Lesotho's location relative to its neighboring countries and the African Continent. Map 1.2 Shows Maseru's location relative to the whole of Lesotho, and Map 1.3 Shows Mohlakeng Community Council.

haphazard and irregular (ibid). This contributes to the uncontrolled and unplanned urban expansion. In the process of this expansion, valuable agricultural land is lost to brownfield development.

There have not been any direct efforts on the part of the Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs and affected parties such as the Disaster Management Authority to deal with these issues. This can be seen in the continued use of the strict rationality based prescriptive in spatial planning documents as the basis for action in land planning. Also, the documents are severely out of date and irrelevant in terms of addressing the issues relating to spatial planning including urban sprawl, transportation efficiency, and essential service delivery today. It will be noted that the Maseru Development plan, Maseru CBD East and CBD West Plans and the National Settlement Policy as guiding documents for Maseru District spatial planning were published in 1991, 1996 and 1998 respectively.

## 1.2 Research Objectives

The main objective for this research was:

- To determine whether spatial planning efforts in Lesotho contribute towards the encouragement of agricultural development using the case study of Ha Paki and Mokema Villages in Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru District.

The specific objectives were:

- To investigate how spatial planning in Lesotho takes place.
- To determine whether spatial planning affects agricultural development in Lesotho.
- To make suggestions and recommendations on sustainable methods that spatial planning could contribute to agricultural development in Lesotho.
- To make contributions to the discourse on spatial planning and agricultural development in Lesotho.
- To contribute to conceptual debates on spatial planning as a tool for agricultural development.

### 1.3 Research Questions

The research question was:

- Do spatial planning efforts in Lesotho contribute towards the encouragement of agricultural development, using the case study of Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru?

Sub questions were:

- How does spatial planning in Lesotho take place?
- In what ways does spatial planning affect agricultural development in Lesotho, with particular reference to case study of Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru District?
- Does spatial planning contribute to agricultural development in Maseru's Mohlakeng Community Council? If so, how?
- How could spatial planning practice in Lesotho contribute more to sustained agricultural development?

### 1.4 Key spatial planning based approaches to agricultural development

Spatial planning as a tool for development is inherently broad. This means it is flexible as a development strategy and it is derived from a special niche in development approaches. It is centred on the use and understanding of space and its components to bring about sustainable development (Yiftachel, 2001). The dominant views of the best strategies in spatial planning that recognise the importance of agricultural development are strategies based on collaborative planning and strategic spatial planning. This research therefore explores the use of these broad approaches to spatial planning in order to bring about agricultural development.

#### 1.4.1 Collaborative/Participatory Planning Approaches

##### 1.4.1(A) Collaborative Planning

Collaborative planning is a planning theory which has its conception rooted in the works of the German Sociologist named Jürgen Habermas. It is a mode of planning that encourages interactive collective reasoning which involves a degree of collaboration, trust and reciprocity (Martach, 2004). Collaborative planning can be viewed as a theory that can (when utilised in planning endeavours that aim to encourage and promote agricultural development) be an effective tool. Healey (1996) suggests that theory is rooted in environmental planning and its contextual and theoretical loci point towards its effectiveness as a strategy to promote overall development of

the natural environmental, social, political, economic and governance environments. It provides an overall holistic framework for the achievement of sustainable development.

#### ***1.4.1(B) Power and Approach***

It is an anti-theory in planning which proposes that power and discourse analysis in planning is important as a method to offer different forms of knowing to planners. These forms of knowing supports free play to difference, encourage local and practices in which people speak for themselves and form their own laws of being that they understand. In an attempt to describe power and discourse. Foucault (in Philp, 1985) describes power as the relationship individuals have where one agent acts in a manner which affects another. Specifically it is a relationship where one agent is able to get another to do what he/she would otherwise have not done, with the aim to emancipate, oppress, dominate or enable (Albrechts, 2003).

#### ***1.4.1(C) Advocacy Planning***

The term was coined by Paul Davidoff in 1965 (Angotti, 2007). It is a planning approach that is said to have roots in the legal profession where the planner adopts the role of a mediator and represents the needs of the poor and disenfranchised society groups in discourse (Hudson, 1979). It has been said that in the interaction of interests in attempts to deliver amicable and representative needs satisfaction, the groups whose voices are not as loud as others tend to be marginalised and sometimes have their rights trampled on by the other more dominant groups. The issue of environmental protection is also another part of the work of advocacy planners, especially in the twenty first century where economic needs are placed on top of all other needs including the needs of future generations to utilise the resources at our disposal (ibid).

#### ***1.4.2 Strategic Planning Approach***

Strategic Planning is a planning approach that has been adopted from social science and business. It was first seen in planning in the 1970s when planners in Europe and North America began to utilise its principles in spatial planning. It can be described as a planning approach which aims at providing a “well- conceived systematic approach for managing limited resources and addressing issues critical to a community’s long term health and economic vitality” (Arthur Anderson and Co. 1985 cited in Robinson 2009: 7). It is appealing as a planning theory because it provides a way of knowing that assists planners and other practitioners to understand what their organisation should be doing and why it should be doing it (Bryson et al 2009). It allows its users jointly to develop, show, and process knowledge and understanding (ibid).

## **1.5 Limitations of the study**

The majority of the population included in the survey undertaken did not speak English. This required a translation of the questionnaire into Sesotho. This had the potential to distort the information gathered from the interviews because of problems of language break-down from translation. Therefore, in order to overcome this shortcoming, the researcher constructed the questions using English and Sesotho at the same time. Due to budget and time limitations, the respondents for the interviews who had other engagements during the data collection period could not be part of the study. This meant a reduction in the total number of respondents to be interviewed, nonetheless the number of respondents that the researcher was able to interview was still representative enough for the study to continue

## **1.6 Organisation of the remainder of the study**

The chapter that follows (Chapter 2) is a Theoretical Framework for this study. It presents a details analysis of the two categories of theories considered relevant to the study. The section covers the two issues of concern when considering spatial planning and its implications on agricultural development. They are the theories informing the practice and the translation of these theories into practice.

Chapter 3 (Literature Review) presents the present literature on the issue of spatial planning for agricultural development. It explores the implantation of the cited planning theories as strategies to have spatial planning practices that are geared towards ensuring agricultural development in developing countries.

Chapter 4 (The Case Study) investigates the dynamics of the relationship of spatial planning and agricultural development in Lesotho. It looked at the structure of the spatial planning practice in the country and how it relates to the issue of agricultural development of the country. It also analyses planning legislation and its responsiveness to the end that is agricultural development. It looks also at the case of spatial planning and agricultural development in Maseru (Mohlakeng Community Council).

Chapter 5 (Research methodology) presents the methods used to gather the data for this research. It discusses the sampling techniques, sample size and the interview and survey questions to be utilised in primary data collection.

Chapter 6 (Data presentation and analysis) provides an interpretation of the findings from the data. The data collected from the farmers is presented in tables and charts. The remaining data from the specialists is presented in a descriptive manner. The chapter also presents the relevance of the findings for practice in spatial planning in general.



Chapter 7 (Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations) provides a summary and concluding remarks on the dynamics of the relationship that existed between agricultural development and spatial planning in Lesotho based on the findings from the Mohlakeng Community Council case study. It also provides recommendations on the strategies that could be used to ensure effective agricultural activities and practices that can improve agricultural development.

## CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK GUIDING THE STUDY

### 2.0 Introduction

This chapter of the research details theories about spatial planning which contribute positively to agricultural development. These theories are collaborative (sometimes referred to as participatory) spatial planning theories and strategic spatial planning theories. The chapter is structured such that it presents the collaborative spatial planning theories including collaborative planning, power and discourse planning and advocacy planning first and then presents the strategic spatial planning theories such as strategic planning after.

### 2.1 Background to planning theory

Friedman (2003:8) argues that “there is no planning practice without a theory about how it ought to be practiced”. This suggests that in order for planning practice to adopt sustainable practices, it needs to be rooted in the ethos supported by theory. It thus becomes important for planning ethos to be formulated based on the issues important in undertaking the process of planning. Where convictions formulated (to inspire these ethos) in theory are influenced by varying opinions and perspectives, such that there are overlaps in prevailing planning theories. Therefore, they cause confusion about what and how the practice is to be undertaken. For instance, within what is known as the discipline of planning/physical planning, there are several types of theories which influence different types of planners. McConnell (1981), Friedman (2003), (Alexander, 2003) cite the different types of planning theories as;

- Theories in planning: These are planning theories which are specific to the different specialisations present in the planning fraternity. These include theories of transportation planning, theories of land use planning, theories of urban design, theories of regional development planning and theories of environmental planning.
- Theories of planning: These are planning theories that address all the specializations that can be present in planning. They essentially are theories of every kind of planning.
- Theories about planning: These are planning theories formulated from general observations and experiences of what planning is. They can be observations formulated from different philosophical views including Marxism, Sustainable Development, Power and Discourse and others (Friedman, 2013).

The three definitions show how closely related the planning theories are. They should therefore be carefully selected to a particular practice.

Campbell (2002) delivers the accession that theories do not provide answers to problems, but people do. The people in a particular physical environment highlight to planning practitioners what aspects of their type of land they feel can enhance their lives if they were amended. The theory utilised to deal with the problem will depend greatly on the problem identified. In that sense therefore, by specifying what aspects of their lives need refining, people become the drivers of solutions to their problems.

The views held in this research are those based on the ethos influenced by theories about planning. Alexander (2003) states that realistic observations or experiences of actual planning practice on the ground is the best method to formulate a theory and to test formulated theories on their influences on strides to reach the aspirations of planning.

Theories cited in this research are theories which encourage a stance in spatial planning where planning not only takes an active part in shaping the physical environment but also becomes an integral part of the development efforts being taken within the localities where it operates. This will expand the bounds of spatial planning practice to get it accepted as an integral part of the development process by both the professional community and the beneficiaries of the planning. Theories about planning are therefore theories which can be used in spatial planning to influence agricultural development.

Yiftachel (2001) stated that the definition of planning has been changing and evolving from its conception to the present day. This has been attributed to the historical and institutional differences that form the basis of planning practice (ibid). It can be said therefore that its definitions differ slightly depending on the scholar. He argues that the main difference is that some scholars project substantive views and others procedural ones. The procedural view is the process based view and it proposes a prescriptive or normative stance. It asks the question "what is good planning?" and emphasises planning methods processes as opposed to reviewing the consequences of the planning activity like the substantive views. The substantive view is an explanation based view that asks the question "what is a good city?" This view emphasises what Yiftachel (2001) refers to as the 'substance', where other elements other than a planner's actions are considered to be equally influential to the planning process. These elements include the political and economic atmospheres. A definition can therefore be produced that is equally representative of the substantive and procedural aspects of spatial planning. It can be described as a process of shaping directly and indirectly the rational allocation of resources such that public and private entities enjoy adequate needs satisfaction from space or land resources.

The theories cited in this research highlight spatial planning practice that promotes multilevel collaboration between stakeholders in the planning practice and expert led development efforts.

This can be described as the best practice such that spatial planning promotes agricultural development.

## **2.2 Collaborative/Participatory Spatial Planning Theories**

### **2.2.1 Collaborative Planning**

Collaborative planning is a spatial planning theory which has its conception rooted in the works of the German Sociologist Jürgen Habermas (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, 2014). Habermas wrote on issues relating to people's behaviour and mass action where he proposes that different modes of knowledge brought together, generate what can be the closest to appropriate action as solutions to social problems. He suggests that social problems are solved in collaborative action taking (ibid). As a spatial planning theory, collaborative planning emphasises collaborative action taking within the actions of what can be said to be spatial planning. It examines rationality and its relations to social action, human communication and historical change (Tewdr-Jones and Allmandinger, 1997). It is also referred to as Communicative Planning, Inclusionary Discourse, Argumentative Planning or Planning through Discourse. Healey (1996) indicates that the development of collaborative planning came up as a critique of what he calls the one-dimensional view of the planning process. This is where the planning process is undertaken as a purely technical process that lacks participation and democratic principles of choice and alternatives. Communicative planning according to Healey (1996) should display the principles of democratic socialism, where stakeholder participation is central to the development of the strategies to achieve the planning objectives. Healey (1996) proposes the following as the principles of collaborative planning:

1. It is interactive and interpretive.
2. It encourages diverse and fluid discourse among and between stakeholders.
3. It promotes respectful interpersonal and intercultural discussions.
4. It encourages an environment where public discussion occurs and where problems, strategies, tactics and values are identified, discussed, evaluated and where conflicts are mediated.
5. It encourages different forms and strategies of policy development.
6. It develops a reflective capacity for participants to evaluate and re-evaluate the policy development strategies.

7. It encourages the development of new discourse through encouraging strategic discourse that includes all stakeholders.
8. It encourages expansion of knowledge providing an environment where participants can interact with each other and exchange experiences and therefore forge new relations, values and understanding.
9. It enables participants to collaborate to change whatever part of the system that they feel is unresponsive to their needs.
10. It encourages participants to devise action plans to implement the proposed development strategies.

According to Martach (2004) it encourages interactive and collective reasoning which involves a degree of collaboration, trust and reciprocity. Collaborative planning can be viewed as a theory that has the capacity promote agricultural development, when utilised in planning endeavours. Similarly, Healey (1996) suggests that the theory is rooted in environmental planning and its focus is on promoting the overall development of the natural environment and the socio-political and economic situations in a holistic manner.

However, Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1997) criticise collaborative planning for three reasons. The first is a critique related to its theoretical underpinnings. They indicate that it imposes a misleading and unrealistic assumption that representative democracy is 'bad'. It promotes only the ideals of a purely participatory democracy, where all stakeholders have an equal influence on the final decision taken. This would then be assumed to mean that in representative democracies like Lesotho, collaborative planning will not bring about the expected returns because the representative nature of consultation processes goes against the ethos promoted in collaborative planning.

The second critique relates to the performance of the theory in practice. Tewdr-Jones and Allmendinger (1997) highlight that the theory is unable to adequately translate its principles of communicative rationality, where competing and opposing groups are to engage in fruitful and practicable solutions to problems. They proceed to state that in practice, engaging in result driven debate is not easily possible because opposing stakeholders usually have opposing agendas and are unable to reach consensus when left to their own devices to do so. They conclude by stating that this theory over-emphasises the process and not the outcome.

The third critique is with regard to the values promoted by the theory. The authors argue that the theory is more concerned with local level perceptions and not with theoretical concerns. For them

this is a problem because it is not a stance taken by the planning community and it is also misrepresentative of the democratic views of planning and planners.

Although collaborative planning has been documented to have the above mentioned drawbacks, it can still be a trusted theory to implement in spatial planning endeavours, especially those being undertaken within an already existing and defined mode of planning. This is because collaborative planning on its own cannot cover all the important aspects of planning. It could be effective to cover some parts of the process like grassroots level implementation of inclusive planning efforts. Tedwr-Jones and Allmendiger (1997) concur, citing that planning is typically part of implementing innovation at local level. Lesotho's spatial planning action has been influenced by the principles of rational action and master plan preparation in the formative years. It has been influenced by the development of structure plans and layout plans in later years. Collaborative planning can be used as one of the agents of undertaking planning action where participatory principles are adopted into the planning process. This has potential to enable people's needs and desires for the land they occupy to be better articulated in plans prepared by planning professionals.

### **2.2.2 Power and Discourse Planning**

Power according to Foucault (1985) is characterised by establishing the limits of truth so as to establish a power wielder and a subject. It directs the subject's action towards the direction desired by the power wielder. In other words, power is a tool to direct and manipulate people to undertake certain action desired by the power wielder. It can therefore be used for authoritative influences by the knowledgeable, the respected or the prestigious to command thoughts, opinions or behaviour.

Foucault cited in Philp (1985), describes discourse as a set of rules which allow the formulation of groups of statements which have a system of analysis which can classify statements as either true or false. This creates a field of knowledge which can be used to reason knowledge sets in certain realms of knowledge. These knowledge sets are classified as either true or false only within their realm of knowledge and can outside this be considered not rationally justified. Albrechts (2003) further describes power and discourse as the relationship where one agent acts in a manner which affects another. Specifically it is a relationship where one agent is able to get another to do what he/she would otherwise have not done, with the aim to emancipate, oppress, dominate or enable.

Furthermore, Foucault cited in Philp (1985), adds that power and discourse planning is an anti-theory in planning. It presents the pragmatic view in planning, where conventional generalisations conceived of through prescribed versions of the truth are challenged. Philp

(1985) indicates that the work of Foucault proposed that modern society is controlled by sanctioning human knowledge/ knowledge-claims from the practice of human sciences to form the basis for law and norm formation so as to control human action. This, he indicates is the shaping of a society living in tyranny where people are spoken for and not self-representing. Foucault, argues further that power and discourse analysis in planning is important as a method to offer different forms of knowing to planners, knowing which gives free play to difference and encourages local and specific knowledge where people speak for themselves and form their own laws of being that they understand.

The arguments of Campbell (2002) and Albrechts (2003) when considered together cite power and discourse planning to have different characteristics that frame it. These are; language, distribution and power equalisation

- Campbell (2002) cites that language is an important part of framing power relations in society. it shows how power is distributed and so can be used to reinforce power structures.
- Each decision making process and practice is significantly determined by the power distribution among and between the stakeholders, (ibid). There are multiple stakeholders in the planning process who all have different influences on the development process. Their influence depends directly on the amount of power wielded by each stakeholder.
- Albrechts (2003) indicates that planners need to be aware of the need for power equalisation, which is a process that requires more than just participation of the stakeholders. The recognition and involvement of stakeholders on their own cannot ensure participation and interaction in the decision making process.

Power and Discourse Planning in Lesotho can have a positive influence on spatial planning action such that a desired agricultural development can be attained in the country. As Foucault (1985) stated, power and discourse require the interaction of the power wielder and the subjects such that the power wielder ushers the subjects towards the direction desired by them. In the case of spatial planning in Lesotho, the power wielder is the planning institutions and planning professionals practicing in the country because these are the entities which wield the knowledge and thus they have the power to influence the people about planning issues. When considering the case of the need for spatial planning to have a hand in ensuring agricultural development, spatial planners need to frame the modus operandi such that planning practice is lead towards a direction where it can affect agricultural development positively. This requires the planners to

influence the people (subjects) towards instances where they can be part of the planning process by actively taking part in the planning process so that the need for agricultural development is clearly articulated in spatial plans as it is articulated in the people's requirements if growth is to be ensured in Lesotho. Development strategies such as the Millennium Development Goals illustrate what aspects of development would lead to optimum benefit for Basotho. These strategies are conceived of as an aim to improve the lives of ordinary Basotho. The strategies are implemented after consultation with those who will benefit those who have the power to influence the process adversely and those who control the process Government of the Kingdom of Lesotho (2014). Power and discourse require that the power of the actors be recognised and the power wielder has to be in a position to then influence the different actors such that the envisaged end result is attained. They would then have to manipulate, convince and even thwart the desires of the subjects for the sake of the bigger picture.

### 2.2.3 Advocacy Planning

Advocacy Planning, is a concept in planning thought that first appeared in Paul Davidoff's 1965 article "Advocacy and Pluralism" (Angotti, 2007). It forms part of what has been known as the progressive turn in planning thought where the proponents vigorously challenge the principles of the rational turn in planning. It is suggested that:

1. Pure uninfluenced technical rationality is not realistic, rather one always has some influence to whatever undertaking they partake in. Thus planners can never be truly neutral and rational.
2. No one single plan can represent the interest of all stakeholders, rather the needs of all stakeholders can be represent in a fleet of plans specialised for each differing group.
3. Stakeholder participation should not be just a reaction to existing, unresponsive plans but a part of collaborative efforts between the state and the public,
4. Planning commissions should be recognised for the political entities that they are, because planning is never completely detached from politics. These commissions should therefore liaise with the relevant constituencies.
5. Planning is not only concerned with the physical planning but also with economic and social development planning.

The evolution of the principles of advocacy planning has had many interpretations and prompted different movements in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, within and outside the planning fraternity. These include the promotion of feminist and cultural ethos in planning, where issues of culture and women



played a bigger part in the planning discourse. Women like Jane Jacobs, Leonie Sandercock and Vanessa Watson have raised some of these issues. Leonie Sandercock (2011) brings forward the view that in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the world has become interculturalistic as opposed to the multiculturalist. This means that the world has become more and more aware of its interactions in a globalising time, where culturally diverse neighbourhoods are created and are able to thrive side by side. Porter (2008), in reporting on women and mobility in transport in Sub-Saharan Africa states that in considering women's access to transportation facilities, the consideration is always secondary. Women are viewed as object of welfare and not as integral parts of the transportation system. Advocacy planning has therefore brought about a platform for discussion, where issues are raised from different interest groups and incorporated in the formulation of development plans.

Advocacy planning in the context of Lesotho can be a vehicle for influencing good spatial planning practice such that spatial planning has a positive influence on agricultural development. If practiced correctly, advocacy planning can bring together all the groups involved in the planning process so as to articulate their desires and then come up with an amicable solution. It can be argued that collaboration among members plays an essential role in planning such that agricultural development is ensured.

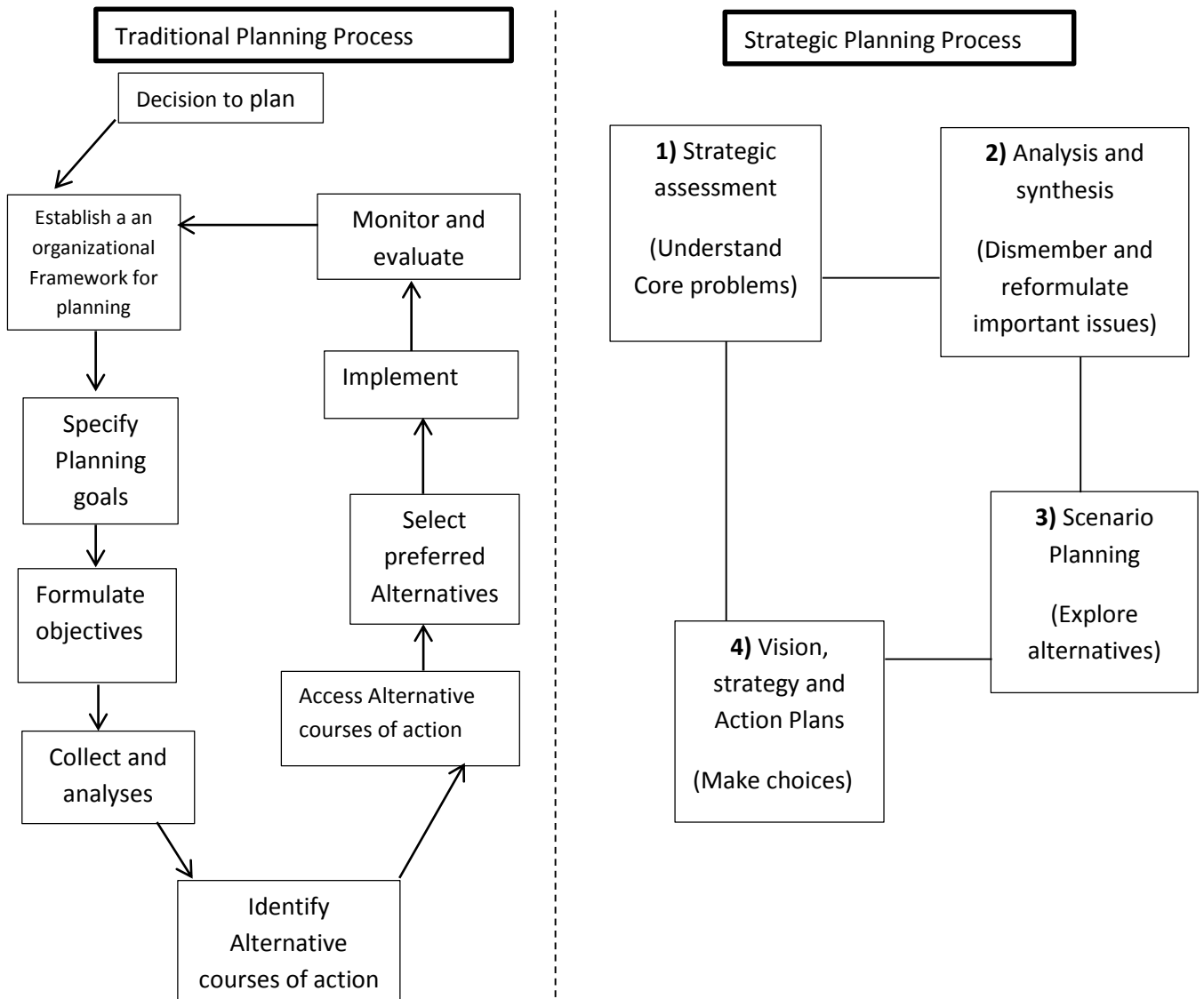
## **2.3 Strategic Spatial Planning Theories**

### **2.3.1 Strategic Planning**

Strategic planning according to Bryson et al (2009) is a contemporary and more responsive planning approach that allows its users to figure out what and how they should carry out activities. It allows a simple feedback loop approach to decision making to prompt the actions taken. Robinson (2009) argues that the way strategic planning is structured, allows for a more responsive planning system than traditional planning systems. He provides diagrammatic presentations to illustrate this. Figure 1 is a side by side comparison of the process of strategic planning to that of traditional planning theories.

Figure 1: Comparison of Traditional and Strategic Planning Processes (Robinson, 2009)

Figure 1: Comparison of Traditional and Strategic Planning Processes (Robinson, 2009)



Robinson (2009) argues that the most important and most appealing feature of strategic planning that makes it applicable in almost all planning scenarios in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, is that it is designed for planners to be able to work and thrive under pressure. It does not require a rigid process of doing work that does not allow one to go back and reevaluate previous decisions taken so as to ensure appropriate action in the present time. Unlike traditional planning approaches, strategic planning is designed to be a strategy of action that will allow planners to work in a situation of uncertainty because the decisions taken allow for future forecasts and internal assessments to be made while the process of planning is going on. Strategic planning can also be said to be more versatile and responsive to planning needs because it allows for new methods of working to be used within an already established approach to the planning structure. It has been implemented in Durban and Pietermaritzburg in South Africa (ibid). In these two towns the concept of strategic planning has been introduced and incorporated into the already existing mode of working and it has allowed for the planning process to be better responsive (ibid).

Strategic planning is designed as a linear process where the stages follow each other chronologically. However, the process can also be a feedback loop where the stages have forward and backward linkages. This is unlike the traditional planning modes that do not allow forward and backward movement in the process. This feature contributes to its versatility as a planning strategy in that it allows the planner to undertake the process of planning in a chronological and orderly manner while still being able to refer to and reverse to previous stages in the planning process to inform to current stage in the process. This contributes to the strength and responsiveness of plans conceived through strategic planning.

The process of strategic planning can be seen as one of the ways that planning can contribute to agricultural development. This can be done through its features that allow versatility in terms of contribution to the planning process. When the stages of the strategic planning process are adhered to, it can be a useful tool in encouraging the prioritisation of land use practices and legislature that promote agriculture. In the discourse on Spatial Planning and Agricultural Development, strategic planning can be a very useful tool that advocates for relevant plans which respond to people's problems. In the case of agricultural development, there is a need to identify which aspects of the process of agricultural development are problematic in that particular area. For instance there could be a need to reinforce different types of agricultural production in at different time and this might require planners to devise a specialised plan for a particular period.

## 2.4 Conclusion

This chapter has served to discuss the theories of spatial planning which can be utilised to ensure agricultural development. It described three theories of the collaborative turn in spatial planning and one theory of the strategic turn in spatial planning which can be considered in isolation or in combination when attempting to frame a spatial planning approach. The next chapter presents the literature on the interaction of spatial planning and agricultural development. It shows how spatial planning and agricultural development interact in developing and in developed countries.

## CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter of the research is a review of literature on the use of collaboration based and strategic spatial planning approaches for the purpose of agricultural development. It is designed such that it first presents literature on spatial planning and its relation to agricultural development. The second part is a discussion of the prevailing trends in the implementation of the previously mentioned spatial planning theories in different areas (in the form of case studies). The third and final part focuses on the application of planning theories in the Lesotho setting.

### 3.1 Spatial planning and agricultural development

Spatial planning has been accused of being dysfunctional as far as its role in ensuring food security is concerned (American Planning Association, 2007). The American Planning Association (2007) indicates that this dysfunctionality is attributed to three major matters. Firstly, the food security issue is argued to be a concern that affects spatial planning (the built environment) indirectly. Secondly, planners are generally discovered to feel that they do not have much to offer the food security discourse. Lastly, food security is considered to fall outside the bounds of spatial planning activity. In addition, planning is an urban based activity and is hence concerned strictly with urban construction and the built environment. Issues of loss of agricultural land in urban areas, technological innovation coupled with easily available energy sources and a general reduction in travel time as a result of improvement in transportation also form major areas of concentration in spatial planning (Ibid). This separation of rural and urban spatial planning has therefore meant a split in the areas of concern in spatial planning and hence a disparity in the level of service administered in rural and urban areas (Pothukuchi and Kaufman, 1999). For the most part, spatial planning has been relatively inactive in the discourse on agricultural development.

Schmidt (2009) proposes that spatial planning in practice has mainly had stagnant normative goals and has been lacking in strategic intension. This means it neglects stakeholder participation and multilevel expert involvement in the process. It has therefore been weak in terms of service provision. This has led the inability of spatial planning to be responsive to all its beneficiaries including rural. This has led to urban biased development and the underdevelopment of rural and peri-urban areas. The researcher notes that the creation of different niches within the agricultural development discourse results in poor production for the reason that urban and rural agriculture development is treated as separate entities. In the case where urban agriculture is considered more important than rural agriculture, there is a pitfall in spatially based approaches to agricultural development. The fact that agriculture in rural areas remains allowed to be primitive

and lacking in technology while urban agriculture is promoted in technology and space conscious approaches, means the issues of overpopulation and saturation of development efforts in urban areas remains a prominent problem. The researcher can point out that there is a need for a development approach to consider other factors outside the physical aspects of the development process. These may include among others approaches that consider the social, economic, cultural and power relations in a society. Development efforts geared towards agricultural development should therefore consider the abovementioned components.

Shastry (1971), Zhao et al (2008) and Ozien (1992) indicate that the process of agricultural development is advanced when;

1. Agricultural production practices are technologically appropriate, testable, profitable and environmentally safe. Some including the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) have termed this “the Conservation Agriculture approach to agricultural production.” This is where the principles of minimal soil disturbance, permanent soil cover, crop rotations and climate smart agriculture are promoted. It is a way to combine profitable agricultural production with environmental concerns and sustainability and it has been proven to work in a variety of agro-ecological zones and farming systems (Shastry, 1971).
2. Farmers’ access to adequate economic support and input supplies to undertake unrestricted agriculture are promoted. This includes improving the farmers’ access to credit to improve agricultural inputs procurement. This has been a long held conviction among theorists including Theodore Schultz (1964) who theorised about agricultural production efficiency being directly dependent on the availability, quality and intensity of agricultural inputs.
3. There is a shift away from top-down orientated operational frameworks towards more communicative and interactive frameworks where minority groups are also encouraged to take part in the development process. This is also endorsed by African indigenous development orientated theorists such as Ozien (1992).

The authors highlight two important role players in the process of agricultural development which are the expert community and the farming community. They also highlight the need for a multi-sectorial approach to the process where opinions and innovations of stakeholders with interest are considered just as important to the development of the process.

Spatial planning in agricultural development discourse is a component among many other components, in the same way agricultural development is a component among many for sustainable spatial planning. It is important for both these areas of the development process to be considered equally in order to facilitate inclusive sustainable development. In practice, efforts

at developing spatial planning practices which are geared towards ensuring agricultural development have to be developed in areas where the spatial planning process has been found to be ignoring the need for sustained local agricultural production.

## **3.2 Case Studies of Spatial Planning for Agricultural Development**

### **3.2.1 Developing Countries (South Africa)**

In developing countries agriculture forms the backbone of the economies. This makes it important not only as a mechanism to improve food access and consumption but also to grow the economy and remain competitive in regional and global markets. Developing African countries such as those in Africa experience food insecurity and are some of the countries which are most vulnerable to hunger and malnutrition from lack of food. South Africa is one of the countries in Africa which is taking steps towards improving its agricultural production as one of the mechanisms not only to improve food production and food availability but also to improve its economic standing. South Africa as a developing country has documented its efforts at improving its hunger situation through the improvement of local food production mechanisms (eThekweni Municipality, 2015). The South African case is therefore a good case to look into to investigate the interaction of spatial planning and agricultural development in developing countries. It highlights how spatial planning and agricultural development interact in developing countries.

Toure and Noor (2001) allege that in Africa agriculture as the most important industry in the economy has been unable to provide food security for the continent's people for several reasons. These include but are not limited to: poor and unresponsive agricultural policies, inadequate agricultural input infrastructure, civil disagreements and poor regional collaboration, and poor technology generation and implementation. In South Africa, where there is a history of racial segregation and apartheid, the use of collaborative and strategic planning ethos has been used in the spatial planning legislation and practices of the post-apartheid dispensation to advance efforts at sustainable agricultural development.

South Africa has a population of 52.98 million (mid 2013 estimate) with 24.1% unemployment rate. The GDP growth rate was at 3.8% in the last quarter of 2013 and agriculture contributed a nominal growth of R9 billion (Statistics South Africa, 2014). According to Statistics South Africa (2014) in 2011, 45.5% of the population was poor and 44.4% of them lived below the poverty line. On average the households in South Africa spent 46.5% of their income on food, meaning 46.5% of the total available disposable income is spent on purchasing food stuffs, acquiring agricultural inputs, transport costs associated with food acquisition and other food related costs.

The Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (2014) states that the agriculture sector occupies a relatively small share of the total GDP. Vink and Kirsten (2003) view that this is due to the diversification of economic activity where the service and the technology based industries have taken over as leading economic income generators in the global economy. Nonetheless, agriculture can still be considered an important part of the economy because the gross income generated from it is still significantly high and increasing at R178 050 million (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, 2014). The estimated volume of agricultural production in 2012/13 was 1, 6% higher than in 2011/12, this means that agricultural activity supports the livelihoods of and employs a high number of people.

Another reason why agriculture is important is the fact that it is still an important source of government income. In 2012/2013, its recorded value of exports (R62 750 million) outpaced the value of imports (R54 778 million) meaning income generated was higher than funds spent on agricultural products.

Prior to 1994, the country's planning policy was based on the ethos of racial segregation, in-line with the social and political order of the day. The Pre-apartheid and Apartheid governments had adopted segregation policies which aimed essentially to exclude all the African groups from gaining economic development from the growing economy of the country. Maylam (1990) traces the evolution of the South African (urban) development policies from pre-apartheid, during apartheid era and the beginning of apartheid's demise. He writes that spatial planning was the main tool for the implementation of the segregation policies. The expansion of the manufacturing industry between 1925 and 1939 saw a surge in the number of Africans in the cities in search for employment as labours in the manufacturing industry.

A more vigorous exercise of the segregation laws was then implemented in efforts to keep Africans out of cities. The consequence of this segregation was an urban structure that had placed African labourers at the urban periphery (homelands) and the white community in the cities (Watson, 1998a). This gave birth to the severely skewed land use structure in South Africa. Concurrently stricter laws were implemented that kept the Africans out of the city but still neglected to maintain and/or develop the periphery. Instead, relocating, reshuffling and rearranging the locations of these groups and forcing them to go further and further out of the cities as they grew. This was done under legislation like the Group Areas Act, where the concept of race based zoning was formalised and implemented (Watson, 1998a, Mabin and Smit, 1997). Watson (1998b:338) describes the use of planning principles in this era as the perfect tool to implement group segregation and control. She cites that "residential models such as the neighbourhood unit with the surrounding buffer strips of open spaces, limited number of



entrances and inward focus onto community-specific public facilities and limited commercial outlets” fit the desires of the apartheid spatial dispensation perfectly.

In the period approaching 1994 and after, the first democratic government was elected. Spatial planning shifted its role, from being the vehicle for enforcing the spatial implications of apartheid, to being the voice of the disadvantaged South Africans. This was done through supporting the urban social movements on the one hand and being the main driver of urban reconstruction on the other. (Mabin and Smit, 1997). Local authorities began syncing their activities, planning departments in the nine provinces began linking and communicating so as to forge housing, land use planning, town and township planning, and city and Bantustan planning policies which were linked and in line with the national government legislation (ibid).

Watson (1998a) points out that the case of the city of Cape Town to illustrate how the transition from ‘apartheid planning’ to a more representative and inclusive planning format took place in South Africa. She first mentions that the representative (non segregatory) planning movement started long before the official transition of the national government to democracy. She like Mabin and Smit (1997) emphasises the fact that the rationalisation of anti-apartheid spatial planning had been in planning discourse in and around South Africa a significantly long time before the government transition. She therefore makes the reader confident of the validity of findings and suggestions proposed for implementation if South African spatial planning is to be truly embracing of democracy and anti-apartheid. She therefore indicates that in the city of Cape Town emphasis was placed on the following aspects of planning as measures to reverse the effects of apartheid spatial dispensation as well as invoke a spirit of community that is not racially based.

Firstly, public investment in nodes and corridors, which were meant to knit areas together to ease movement of people in and out of the city were recommended. Secondly a large piece of land was provided in the city to inevitably attract a large variety of activities and therefore contribute in unifying the severely segregated community. Thirdly, a high-density development was encouraged. This would act as a mechanism to promote a more balanced population of different races in the city. It would also be a way to ensure economies of scale where a large proportion of persons in a single area would increase consumption levels (of different products) and would improve the overall economy in terms of increasing products sales. Lastly, the use of activity corridors, which are mechanisms to activate the usually sterile and dull transport routes was encouraged. This would attract commercial or residential activity along these transport routes. This will also help ease the transition from centre to centre such that the spirit of community is supported and emphasised.

As seen and implemented in the city of Cape Town, these were general propositions made as mechanisms to reverse the effects of the apartheid spatial dispensation in towns and cities all over South Africa. Amendments were made to the general skeleton formed by anti-apartheid spatial planners to form the format within which planning in South Africa in 2015 is based. Planning legislation such as the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and its amendments, Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013, The Subdivision of Agricultural Land Act 70 of 1970, Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (and its 2013 amendment Bill) and other planning legislation in 2015 help create a democratic state that is as Watson (1998b) puts it, not 'racially capitalistic'.

The Spatial planning ethos currently in practice in South Africa indicates the use of collaboration based together with Strategic planning principles. The above cited city of Cape Town example highlights efforts in spatial planning to be more inclusive of all the groups present in a society such that all their needs are catered for. Legislation such as the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 and Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and its amendments stipulate how each local authority is to be structured and function, illustrate the use of planning theories based in collaboration. The Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 aims to enable municipalities to act and function in such a manner that social and economic upliftment of local communities is encouraged. It also aimed at ensuring universal access to essential services that are affordable and accessible to all societal groups. It facilitates collaboration between municipal administrations, the community and political figures to ensure inclusive service delivery system (Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000), The Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and its amendments establish how a municipality is to be formed and how it is to function and its activity and power appointed. Its ethos also reflects collaboration and power and discourse interrogation where the underpinning principles of municipality formation are representation and democracy (Municipal structures Act 117 of 1998).

The newly enacted Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 is a legislation aimed at providing a framework for spatial planning and land use management efforts in South Africa. This is to be done even in the advent of; the previous apartheid spatial dispensation, previous race based economic and social inequality, duplication of efforts with regard to the planning of the previously unplanned areas, a seemingly mismatched legal framework and a mismatch between spatial planning efforts and the supporting infrastructural investment. In implementation, legislation such as the spatial planning and land use management act translate the use of strategic planning and its ethos into workable land based development goals that are both workable and achievable under the development circumstances of different areas in South Africa.

The framework of Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 is in line with what Robinson (2009) described as the components of good strategic planning practice. The components include a feedback loop in the process of attempting to dispense spatial planning services. Robinson (2009) indicates that the first step is stating the strategic interventions and consequences of the stated approach to spatial development. In this case in SPLUMA aims to provide a framework for equitable and efficient spatial planning and land use planning practices that have clear monitoring, coordination and review procedures to inform policies, principles, norms and standards. The anticipated consequence of the approach is the promotion greater consistency and uniformity in implementation procedures and also to address the past spatial and regulatory imbalances created by apartheid spatial planning.

Places in South Africa such as Durban and Pietermaritzburg use strategic planning in undertaking their planning functions (Robinson 2009). The planning functions are designed as Pothukuchi (2004) states to have a pulse taking function in its process. Within the process of planning, as plans are being conceived of and put into action, people are consulted in all the stages so that in each stage of the development process whether in conception and interpretation or in implementation and evaluation, there is constant participation of all the stakeholders. This means the need for food will be articulated in the conceived of development plans. For instance there have been community and rooftop gardens placed in some parts of Durban Metropolitan and other cities in KwaZulu-Natal. These efforts were undertaken as a multifaceted operation to react to issues around food insecurity in the city and prepare for the forecasted changes in climatic conditions in KwaZulu-Natal due to climate change (eThekweni Municipality, 2015).

This operation can be said to be practicing with the principles of collaboration and strategic development rooted in it. This can be seen in the mechanisms that run the projects. For instance, the green roof project of eThekweni Municipality has been set to have a test run where components of the project aims are measured in order to have a benchmark of the expected results if the project is to be implemented on a mass scale. The test run, provides a good position to analyse possible scenarios to be expected while the project operates. Problems likely to be encountered in the project are rectified in ample time before the implementation. The community adaptation projects on the other hand display principles of collaboration. The community taking part in the project becomes the focal point of the project such that their contribution is just as important as the technocratic involvement in the project. This ensures adequate discourse between all the parties involved in the project such that all efforts are aimed at achieving the same goal in all the stages of project implementation.

It can therefore be deduced that in South Africa, spatial planning is responsive to agricultural development. Studies have shown that spatial planning is structured in such a way that it encourages participation at all levels of the plan development process. As a result, there is space for stakeholders to contribute their ideas which are included in the plan to be implemented relative to the needs of the people.

### 3.2.2 Developed Countries (USA)

In developed countries like the United States of America (USA), the spatial planning approach has been advocated for by some scholars and theorists including famous theorists such as Jane Jacobs whose concerns were with “planning’s rigid and socially unresponsive nature” (Watson, 2003). This contributed to its inability to effectively and fairly respond to society’s needs. It was found out that spatial planning was unable to ensure complete social inclusion, and social justice in the planning process. Planners themselves developed conflicting rationalities and this aggravated the extreme disparities in appropriate action in spatial planning (Watson, 2003).

Spatial planning practice vested in agricultural development in developed countries concentrate mainly on ensuring household access to agricultural production assets, specifically the capacity to produce healthy/ nutritious food. This is attributed to the fact that developed countries generally have more developed economic and legislation systems where their food access issues rotate around the issue of availability of healthy food as opposed to the actual acquisition of food stuffs (as is the case in developing countries). The problems of food security in these countries are mainly related to how people are able to acquire the available food stuffs and the quality of those food stuffs. Davies et al (1991) propose that food security (availability) and food nutrition have an intimate relationship, such that the value of available food is diminished if it is not of good quality to ensure the nourishment people and the promotion of good health. The main food problem experienced in developed countries like USA is that of food quality, where the food stuffs that people (especially the poor) are able to get access to, is not healthy and so contributes to malnutrition. This means the food is unable to promote healthy living and so contributes to food insecurity (which is defined as a situation where consumed food is accessible, safe, nutritious and sufficient in order to maintain a healthy and active life at all times (World Food Summit, 1996).

Pothukuchi (2004) in her analysis of food flow into communities in nine states in the USA, reports that generally in developed countries the use of collaborative, multidisciplinary action has been the method used as a strategy to deal with grass roots development issues. She suggests that in the USA specifically, there has been a widespread use of community food assessments as a method to increase household food access. These assessments are aimed at effective and balanced

utilisation of all four avenues through which food makes its way into communities and to the plates of ordinary people. These avenues are:

- Food donations
- Federal food dispensation programmes
- Household/community food production
- Food purchases

She proposes that professionals with an in-depth understanding of the concepts of space and community as separate and accompanying entities are the ones best qualified to head up food flow assessment endeavours. It should be professionals who are trained in dealing with multidisciplinary discourse and taking the lead in promoting this discourse. Pothukuchi (2004) notes seven reasons that planners are considered to be best qualified to head up projects aimed at procuring community food through each or all the mechanisms available. These reasons are:

- Planners understand community functions and the factors affecting their development because they are able to assess communities and their needs in advocacy planning efforts.
- Planners analyse the spatial considerations of community needs, wants and concerns and so are able to translate those into land use policies.
- Planners are able to conceptualise communities and their indicators of development so as to inform policies and evaluate their outcomes.
- The planning profession is inherently about mediation. Planners adopt a mediation role in the development process by becoming the go between and addressing disagreements between the concerned professionals and the people.
- Planners have the training that facilitates them to manage multi-stakeholders community based processes.
- Planners are able to analyse new community concerns and manage interdisciplinary and multi-stakeholder conflict.
- Food is linked to the issues that spatial planning regard as the central goals of the practice. These are sustainable communities and good quality of life.

Research by Suarez-Balcazar et al (2006), Pothukuchi (2004) and Campbell (2004) indicates that stakeholders (including planners themselves) involved in multidisciplinary discourse have varying and competing interests, and thus have not developed a common 'language' that will help them engage productively with the issues of reduction of food insecurity. Although scholars like Pothukuchi (2004) suggest that the way to facilitate dealing more effectively with this issue, is to have the planner lead the process. Other scholars are of the conviction that a multistakeholder approach is more appropriate and has potential to bring about positive results. They advocate that when the appropriate stakeholders all contribute equally and with the same level of influence on the process attaining lasting solutions to the problems is more likely.

Pothukuchi (2004) and Campbell (2004) report on the case of the Chicago Food System Collaborative Consortium (CFSC). Its aim was to utilise the expertise of differing fields of academia and practice in the endeavour to produce knowledge, promote innovation and capacity building while addressing the social issues faced by the working class and poor communities in Chicago. The main mandate which the consortium dealt with after its formation was to propose solutions to improve access to nutritionally adequate food for the poor communities in Chicago. In this endeavour, a host of stakeholders and experts from differing fields came together to recommend a lucrative solution to the problem. It was established that part of recognising the problem is recognising that there are differing and diverse ways to deal with the problem. For this reason, all the experts who were thought to have the expertise to contribute were sought out. These experts ranged from nurses, geographers, nutritionists, psychologists, sociologists, urban planners and farmers. When brought together to devise a solution, a well-rounded and feasible solution was conceived of that saw an enthusiastic and involved implementation. Several outcomes were arrived at; these include increased understanding of the problems experienced with regard to access to food by some parts of the community, capacity building, and changes in practices, policies, and innovation.

From the analysis of the Chicago Food System Collaborative consortium and the USA food flow systems, deductions can be made of collaborative efforts at improving strides in ensuring agricultural development in USA. As Suarez-Balcazar et Al (2006) state, it is the minority or marginalised societal groups that often suffer most from food insecurity. Strides in empowering independent efforts at food production to combat this food insecurity are met with different obstacles. Some relate to social/cultural issues like food preference, where some groups (minority groups) are accustomed to different types of food from those consumed by the rest of society. An approach with an emphasis on the varying aspects of the problem and not one part of the problem is necessary.

Elliott et al (2012) observe that this highlights the different layers that exist in different society. The authors point out that these the layers needed to be understood extensively if lasting solutions at food insecurity and agricultural development are to be reached. Other obstacles relate to a lack of sustainable efforts at combating the food access problem. The cases cited by Pothukuchi (2004), Campbell (2004), Suarez-Balcazar et Al (2006), Elliott et al (2012) show that in USA there are extensive efforts being taken to deal with food insecurity in the different parts of society. Although there are variations in conclusions relating to what the lasting solutions to the problem are. What remains a recurrent theme is the issue of importance of collaborative discourse based efforts in order to combat this problem permanently.

### **3.3 Conclusion**

This chapter has served to highlight the spatial planning approaches that are being taken in developing and in developed countries in order to assist agricultural development. It can therefore be argued that the use of spatial planning approaches to encourage agricultural development has the potential to benefit Lesotho as a developing country with a small population, good quality agricultural land (see Map 3.1: Lesotho Acid Soil Map which shows the soil acidity levels across the country, it indicates indirectly, the capacity of the soil to support plant life) and an interactive administrative and governance system. This is because when considered together to help create an agriculture system, these approaches could help Lesotho be more responsive to the food production and acquisition. The next chapter in the study presents the case study of Lesotho. It outlines the structure of the country, its basic information and the structure of spatial planning. It goes on to present the dynamics of spatial planning and agricultural development in Mohlakeng Community Council and in the villages of Ha Paki and Mokema.

Insert Lesotho Soils Map



## CHAPTER 4: THE CASE STUDY

### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes how spatial planning takes place in Lesotho and how it affects agricultural development. The first section presents a historical background of the country; its governance system, geographical standing and planning system. The next section is a description of how agriculture takes place. The last section provides a description of the setting of the study area and what makes it appropriate to study the implications of spatial planning on agricultural development.

### 4.1 Basic Information<sup>3</sup>

#### 4.1.1 Background<sup>4</sup>

Lesotho is an enclave state in South Africa with a total land area of 30360 km<sup>3</sup>. According to the World Bank (2014) it had a population of 2051545 in 2012 with approximately 28% living in urban areas and the remaining 72% living in rural areas. It is a constitutional monarchy with the King as the Head of State (Lesotho Constitution, 1993). Second in command is the Prime Minister, who is the head of government (ibid). Under His Majesty's Government, many different ministries each headed up by its own minister and designated to handle different aspects of development in the country, from economic growth in the Ministry of Finance to social development issues in the Ministry of Social Development. The ministers command their designated ministries while reporting to the Prime Minister who then reports to the King (ibid).

In 2011, 51% of the population was female while the other 49% was male. 37% of the population was between the ages 0-14, 59% was between 15-64 years old while the remaining 4.2% was above 65 years of age. Lesotho can therefore be described as a young population with almost 60% of Basotho being agile and able to do work. The literacy rate was at 77% in 2011<sup>5</sup>, with school enrolment rate<sup>6</sup> at 173.5 persons per 1000 in the same year. The labour force<sup>7</sup> in Lesotho can be said to be relatively large at approximately 42% of the total population. 25.3% of the labour force

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<sup>3</sup> Statistical data quoted unless otherwise stipulated has been derived from the World bank (2014) [<http://data.worldbank.org/country/lesotho>] The information in this section is also reflected in Map 3.2 Lesotho Basic Information Map

<sup>4</sup> All statistical data from this section on is derived from Graph 1: Lesotho Demographic information, showing the demographic information of Lesotho from 1992 to 2012 also obtained from world bank (2014)

<sup>5</sup> Linear extrapolation and interpolation statistical methods have been made in cases where the data is missing

<sup>6</sup> School enrolment rates the total enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the total population of the ages persons are expected to be in school: in primary and secondary this the official age for primary and secondary school, for tertiary it is the five-year age group following on from secondary school leaving.

<sup>7</sup> Labour force is all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period. It includes both the employed and the unemployed. These people aged 15 and older should be within the criteria that the International Labour Organization defines as the economically active population.

was unemployed in 2009. Only 29% of young adults (aged 15-24) were working with 10.8% in school while the remaining 61.2 are unemployed or unoccupied. This left a big gap in the employment potential of the country. According to World Bank (2014), life expectancy<sup>8</sup> in Lesotho was 48 years in 2010. This is determined by the mortality rate which is derived from factors such as the prevalence of infectious and incurable diseases and nutrition and levels of food intake (ibid). In the same year, death rate was at 15.6 people per every 1000 people at midyear. The prevalence of HIV in persons aged 15-49 was 23%, indicating that around one out of every five people between these ages live with HIV (World Bank, 2014). Moreover, 16.6% of the population was undernourished then. This coupled with the severely high HIV/AIDS prevalence means Lesotho can be described as a fairly unhealthy nation. Increased food security and improved health care have been identified as mechanisms to help improve this situation. This will help improve life expectancy, decrease death rate and improve people's capacity to perform work and therefore their contribution to the betterment of the economy.

#### 4.1.2 The Economy

The GDP per capita in 2010 was at US\$ 1243.909506, with an average GDP growth rate of 4.4% between 2003 and 2013 (Lesotho Food Security Monitoring System Quarterly Bulletin: 2010). According to the World Bank's 2003 poverty estimates, there was a 56.6% poverty head count ratio at national level, indicating that an average of 56.6% of the people of Lesotho lived in a situation of poverty where they were unable to access goods to satisfy basic needs adequately. It is further stated that 25% of the opulent Basotho receive 60% of all the income while the bottom 20% makes do with 2.8% (Government of Lesotho, 2014). Between August and September 2010, the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for fuel and transportation showed a negative change (-0.4%) indication an increase in travel expenses for Basotho. Consumer goods such as cereal and clothing changed by 0.5% and 0.3% respectively. This is a relatively insignificant change considering the average price of a 12.5 kg bag of maize (the major staple food) was 55.25 Maluti which is a high price compared to the 32.75 Maluti average in 2008 (World Food Program, 2010).

There are two major primary roads (the Main North 1 and Main South 1) which form the backbone of the road network in the country. They connect the capital city to the districts in the north and those in the south respectively (Lesotho Review, 2013). The road network is being expanded to have more secondary roads linking the districts to one another. As of 2012, there have been extensive strides to improve the quality of roads in the country. Rail and air transport

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<sup>8</sup> Life expectancy at birth: defined as the number of years a new born is expected to live if the prevailing patterns of mortality are the stay the same throughout its life.

are not active as domestic travel modes. They are mainly for international travel and goods delivery (National Strategic Development Plan 2012/2013-2016/2017).

#### **4.1.3 Geographical situation<sup>9</sup>**

Topographically, the country is divided into four regions: Highlands, Low Lands, Foothills and the Senqu River Valley. These areas represent areas of different average temperature, weather, rainfall, altitude, vegetation growth, soil fertility, rock types and other geographic differentials. Generally, Lesotho's temperature is fairly temperate with warm wet summers and cold dry winters. The major rivers include the Mohokare/Caledon, Senqu, Maliba-Mats'o, Bokong and 'Maletsunyane. The lowest altitude is at 1400 meters above sea level and 75% of the land is highlands of up to 3000 meters above sea level (Sekatle, 2006). The largely mountainous nature makes Lesotho have a lot of water which seeps from the mountains. For this reason some of this water has since 1986 been sold to South Africa for a monthly fee which contributes to income generation.

##### **4.1.3.2 Highlands/Mountains**

The climate here is relatively volatile with extreme temperatures (relative to the other regions). The winters get very cold with temperatures reaching lows of negative 4 and 5 degrees Celsius. Summers reach highs of 38 degrees and above. It is in the highlands that the bulk of Lesotho's water comes. Some of this water is collected and distributed to South Africa. The soil fertility in these areas is therefore very high as compared to some of the other regions in the country. The highlands host a large proportion of Lesotho's farming households whose economic base is animal rearing, crop and forest production. The communities in the highlands are predominantly rural communities who utilise the vast amount of land for farming purposes. Highland areas are also fairly difficult to get to and have a ragged terrain which makes accessibility difficult. The incapacity to promote balanced development has therefore forced these areas to be predominantly rural and therefore to host the agricultural sector (mostly subsistence agriculture) (Government of Lesotho, 1990). The highland towns include Mokhotlong, Thabatseka and Qacha's neck. These are the towns whose major economic activities are mainly based on the agricultural sector. They remain the smallest size towns as their activities are limited. Major infrastructure is also limited because of the limitation in activity. Strides are however being taken to improve access to rural communities and to boost service delivery.

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<sup>9</sup> Refer to Map 4.2: Lesotho Regions Map

Insert map Lesotho social information map 3.1

#### ***4.1.3.2 Senqu River Valley***

The Senqu river valley is the areas surrounding the banks of the Senqu River in Quthing among the highlands of Lesotho. It occupies 9% of the total land area and it has been designated as a lone standing topographic area. It displays unique characteristics of fertile soil which is intensively used for crop agriculture, mainly sougham and maize. There is virtually no urban development taking place in this area. People residing there undertake crop production and animal rearing because of the high fertility of the soil which allows for lush rangelands and good crops. Fishing is also an activity of commerce and subsistence in these areas as the Senqu River provides ample fish for the people.

#### ***4.1.3.3 Foothills***

The Foothills lie in between the lowlands and the main watershed of the Maluti Mountains (National Settlement Policy Final Draft, 1990) in the 1800m-2000m altitude. It constitutes 15% of the total area of the country. The soil is fertile and favourable for agriculture and a large part of it is used for this purpose.

#### ***4.1.3.4 Lowlands***

The lowlands occupy the 17% of the land area of Lesotho. They are sited at the altitude of about 1800m. The lowlands are where the bulk of the urban development of Lesotho is located. This is where the capital city and the major subsidiary towns are located. Soil quality here varies significantly from area to area. The major contributing issue is urban encroachment for it diminishes the soil quality. In other words, a land that has been used for urban development is difficult to retain for agricultural production. Infrastructure development is highest in the lowlands because a large proportion of Basotho live there. Technological innovation and investment in Lesotho are also concentrated here as the capital city, its satellite and subsidiary towns are located there as well. The temperature here is relatively predictable and so is favourable for human habitation.

#### ***4.1.4 History and Governance***

The country was founded by Moshoeshoe I around the early 1800s as a result of hosting refugees from other areas of Southern Africa. The Basotho Nation is therefore made up of different tribes which are referred to as clans of the Basotho. It adopted the name Lesotho in 1966 after it gained independence from the Cape Colony. A democratic governance system was adopted in 1966 and a constitution was then drawn up. There have been nine sessions of election since then with period of dictatorship rule for 7 years (1986-1993) (IEC, 2014). The current sitting parliament is made up of a coalition between seven separate political parties. It is the first of its kind in Lesotho following the previous government which had had a three political party coalition government. These democratic elections take place in two sessions; elections for national government and

those for local government. These elections take place in the 86 constituencies that formulate election platforms for local and central government representation (IEC, 2014).

Governance in Lesotho is represented in different but interactive formats; local democratic representation, traditional representation and national democratic representation. Local democratic representation is elected at the local government elections that take place in five year intervals, where the communities select members of their communities whom they feel should represent their interest in local level decision making (Government of Lesotho, 1997). These elected persons selected at different electoral divisions form local councils. The local councils are mandated to represent the local interests of the whole community in which they have been selected to represent. 30% of the seats are reserved for special groups including women, disabled persons and others. These local council members are expected to hold regular meetings with the people, to discuss social challenges and issues that arise from time to time. Urban or Rural descriptions are given to councils depending on whether they are in areas declared rural or urban (Leduka, 2012). District level representation is made up of district representatives (from the country's ten districts) who were elected at local level. These too require a minimum 30% representation by special groups like local councils other in the council.

**Table 4.1 Lesotho Local Government Councils (2007)**

<b>District</b>	<b>Area (KM<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b>Population(2006)</b>	<b>No. Councils (Community)</b>
Botha-Bothe	1767	109139	6
Leribe	2828	296673	14
Berea	2222	248225	10
Maseru	4279	436399	13
Mafeteng	2119	192795	9
Mohale'sHoek	3530	173706	9
Quthing	2916	119811	7
Qacha's Neck	2349	71756	5
Thaba-Tseka	4270	128885	7
Mokhotlong	4075	95332	6
<b>Total</b>	<b>30360</b>	<b>1.8772,712</b>	<b>86</b>

Traditional representation is formulated by different chiefs who, like councillors are elected into local representation. At district level, there are principal chiefs designated through seniority of chieftainship families to represent all local and community chiefs. These principal chiefs represent the interests of traditional leadership and the people in a national platform by being representatives in the Senate House, which is the second house of local representation after the Parliament.

National level representation is elected at local level during the parliamentary elections which take place at five year intervals. At these elections, parliamentarians are elected using the First Passed the Post (FPP) election system<sup>10</sup>. These are the people who will represent their respective communities at national level. It is in the national elections where candidates compete for Prime-Ministership, where a political party with the most votes will elect an individual with a constituency won to become Prime-Minister. Adequate representation is ensured by including opposition representation in the parliament to ensure impartiality when taking national decisions. Once a parliament has been formed, a government is then formed as selected by the prime minister and his administration. Ministries are then formed and designated ministers as well as their administration. Each ministry will have a list of specific mandates which it has to fulfil using available resources, for the benefit of Basotho.

## **4.2 Spatial Planning in Lesotho**

The spatial planning mandate is designated for the Ministry of Local Government, Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs (MLGC&PA). It is charged with responsibility for the administration of local affairs where the minister responsible and his administration are expected to facilitate: the delivery of several land and governance related services, including land and deeds registration (including the issuing of leases); local level welfare administration which then involves the creation of physical plans and the planning of land uses such that they fit and respond to people's needs (Government of Lesotho, 2005b). The spatial planning function which gets performed as a mechanism to achieve this mandate is carried out under the leadership of the commissioner of lands whose responsibility is to see to the orderly planning and therefore development of land in Lesotho.

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<sup>10</sup>First Passed the Post (FPP) election system is a system in which each voter votes for one choice, and the choice that receives the highest number of votes wins, even if it receives less than a majority of votes (Suwal, 2007).

#### 4.2.1 Spatial planning practice

Spatial planning is defined in the Proposed Structure and Functions of the Department of Lands and Spatial Development (2012: 2) drafted by the MLGC&PA as, a process of undertaking “land use planning and built environment design (settlement planning)”. The Technical Manual for Land Use and Settlement Planning (LUSP) (2009: iv) further defines land use planning as “the processing of ordering and regulating land use in an effective and efficient way” and settlement planning as “A process of arranging a settlement in an orderly manner to ensure optimal setting of land uses to facilitate easy movement and access to services, thereby creating a congenial environment for human habitation in a sustainable manner” (ibid, 2009: iv). It can therefore be deduced that spatial planning is defined within the office tasked with performing the function, as a process of strategically ordering the built environment and land uses into an end-state where ease of access and services are facilitated. This is done by dividing the process into different components that formulate the whole that is the spatial planning process. First, long term development plans are drawn up, they are indicative of the ten, twenty or thirty year horizon of the broader area and its built environment. These plans are designed to be strategic plans of points of reference from which the picture envisaged for different land uses and their functions is defined and development, and is expected to follow a set path such that the end state is the drawn up picture. Second, plans are drawn up that detail how development is to take place within the smaller areas that form the development area. Third, a plan of action is described that ensures the day to day dealings of the department that are geared towards the defined end state.

#### 4.2.2 Spatial planning and Law

There is a relationship between spatial planning and law. The formulation of processes that culminate spatial planning is informed by legislation. The legislation is meant to facilitate the process by providing those involved in the process with tools (in the form of legal verification) to undertake the process easier. Over and above, the supreme law of the land (The Constitution of Lesotho) protects basic human rights including the right to land occupation under the guidance of the appropriate authority. There is also legislation put in place to facilitate justifiable land occupation and sustainable land use.

##### i. Town and Country Planning Act 1980

Promulgated in 1980 for the purposes of facilitating orderly development of land and the preparation of land use plans, to improve amenities, to promote efficiency of the economy and ...” (Town and Country Planning Act 1980). This act is the major tool used by the government of Lesotho to frame how development shall take place in the country. It provides for the establishment of a Town and Country Planning Board (which includes a representative from the farming/Agriculture community) to endow work undertaken by the office of the planning



authority. It bestows power upon the responsible minister to authorise or refuse development on designated planning areas. It facilitates the establishment and preparation of development plans that guide how development within the designated planning areas is to take place. It facilitates the establishment of Town and Country Planning (Development) Regulations which are control codes for any development within the development areas. National planning standards also established under this act, regularise the planning process and specifies minimum and maximum limits for area development so as to curb the problem of irregular development processes.

This act can therefore be referred to as the object facilitating a first response to development (especially urban development) issues where development approaches are framed and designated implementing authorities. It, however has been criticised to be inadequate in responding to and maintaining its first response functions because it fails mainly to clarifying the exact path to be taken to achieve the required end-state (which an adequately planned development area which can be regulated and amended as necessary to respond to current needs without compromising future needs) (McAuslan, 2003). It also has been condemned for having a narrow frame which incapacitates it to respond to emerging current needs (ibid). The Town and Country Planning Bill 2004 has then been conceived of to attempt to curb some of the issues of unresponsiveness of the Town and Country Planning Act 1980. Promulgation of the bill into an act should see a better definition of the planning functions and a more powerful planning authority to implement development plans.

ii. Land Act 2010

This is a land law that was promulgated for the purposes of facilitating legal ownership of land, administration, regulation of land affairs. It is a tool that facilitates the designated authorities to endows and verify legal land ownership for the purposes of collateral and bondage with financial institutions and other purposes for which verifiable land ownership is required. It is also designed to eliminate customary land tenure in rural areas so as to discourage extra-legal and illegal land ownership and therefore adequately control land ownership practices (Leduka, 2012). This in essence helps to increase the scope of the 'development area' defined in the Town and Country Planning Act such that planning and regulating of land use practices can reach the rest of the country in future.

iii. Deeds Registry Act 1967

This act facilitates the designated authority to manage and maintain property registry and keep record of registered land parcels in Lesotho. This land parcel registration is also an important tool in ensuring sustainable and traceable land use.

iv. Local Government Act 1997 and National Decentralization Policy 2014

The Local Government Act 1997 establishes how the government ministry responsible for local level governance is to function, its stakeholders and how it is to disseminate its services. It also defines how the different technocratic departments are to relate to local, regional and national leadership. This has a direct effect on the spatial planning function because it essentially defines how the service is to be made accessible to the people. It includes the definition of the functioning of municipal, rural and urban councils with regard to administration and disseminating planning services. The National Decentralization Policy defines in detail how the process of decentralisation of public service in Lesotho should function and this also has a direct impact on how the spatial planning function is undertaken and its responsiveness to people's needs. The intention is for the decentralisation process to lead to greater interaction with the people which may lead to better service delivery.

v. National Strategic Development Plan 2012/13 – 2016/17

This is a strategic document drawn up every five years for the purposes of directing the development trajectory of the Lesotho. It is set to be a vehicle for achieving set long term development goals outlined in the Millennium development goals and Lesotho's vision 2020. The medium term nature of the NSDP allows it to be flexible in plan implementation in that approaches can always be changed to conform to the current needs. Within the NSDP are several cluster divisions concentrating on separate parts of the focal points of the plan and are manned by different experts. Planning issues are dealt with in the National Development Plan Support: Urban Development and Shelter sector, where issues relating to spatial planning and its effective implementation are discussed and highlighted such that they are known and can be responded to by action plans relating to land, land use and spatial development. The 2012-2016 Urban Development and Shelter sector report for the National Strategic Development Plan (2011) sites several problems with spatial planning and its effective response to people's needs including adequate infrastructure, housing and agriculture. It highlights the need for a more responsive spatial planning system that is not only supported by a strong expert base but also strong political will.

vi. National Settlement Policy (NSP 1990)

This is a strategic document which was drawn up in the late 1980s and a draft proposal completed in 1990<sup>11</sup>. The NSP performs two major functions; the first is to provide a framework for the distribution of resources to be placed in different areas based on the development

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potential under observation. The second function is to set out a clear program for planned settlement development (Ministry of Local Government and Chieftainship, 2012). There have been clear pathways indicated as to how these mentioned functions are to be attained. The first of these is the delineation of the country into four regions which cluster regions of similar characteristics together for ease of planning and administration (Map 1.3: Map of Lesotho).

vii. Public Health Order 1970

This act was promulgated for the purpose of regulating and managing public health issues. It is a tool used by relevant authorities to assist in upholding public health standards that keep the environment clean and healthy for the public. It has become an important tool in urban planning in Lesotho because it stipulates conduct procedures when in public in urban areas and it becomes useful in urban planning to ensure compliance with basic conduct and courtesy decorum.

**Table 4.2 Other Legislation whose sphere of action overlaps with the spatial planning function**

<b>Legislation</b>	<b>Core Area of Concern</b>
Land Administration Authority Act 2010	Land tenure administration
Chieftainship Act 1968	Legalizing Chieftainship and traditional leadership and incorporating it into Lesotho's governance system.
Land Survey Act 1980	Legalizes and makes mandatory the surveying of land parcels so as to know the exact measures of land owned in the country.
Land Court Rules 2012	Putting into place the mechanisms for land dispute resolution.
Environment Act 2008	Making provisions for mandatory environmental protection by and for all who live in Lesotho.
Forestry Act 1998	Provides mechanisms for encouraging forest development and sustainable land use.

### 4.2.3 Institutional arrangement/ Core organs performing spatial planning

#### 4.2.3.1 The Directorate of Physical Planning

The dissemination of the spatial planning work is done by different divisions and stakeholders within and outside of government. The principal organ which can be considered as the hub where the work of spatial planning is coordinated is the Lands, Survey and Physical planning office which rests within the Ministry of Local Government Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs (MLGC&PA). Under the MLGC&PA, the office responsible for spatial planning is the Lands Survey and Physical Planning office. This office is headed up by the commissioner of lands and is divided into four major sections; Physical Planning, Land Use, Lands and Survey. Only the sections relating to spatial planning will be considered in this paper, these are physical planning, land use and lands.

#### A. Physical Planning

Physical planning is a function that was adopted by the Lesotho Government around the time of Lesotho's independence in 1966. Formal physical planning commenced with the implementation of the Town and Regional Planning Act 1979. It was a form of land administration and regulation that was taken from the 1900s British version, where long and medium term physical plans were made that projected the desired form of the built environment (McAuslan, 2003). In 2014, the division was manned by the Chief Physical Planner and her team. The Chief Physical Planner and her team have the function of drawing up physical plans<sup>12</sup> which are presented to the Commissioner of Lands as the first step in directing the form, shape and growth of the built environment. This process involves drawing up long term indicative physical plans/ strategic plans which are meant to draw the benchmark from which the built environment development is to be directed (Ministry of Local Government and Chieftainship, 2012). These strategic plans are informed by the following legally endorsed guiding documents:

#### i. District Development Plans

These are district specific development plans which are meant to be a guide for developing the built environment at district level. They are constructed at the National Physical Planning Office<sup>13</sup> and are informed by the local and/or community plans made in the district as a whole. These

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<sup>12</sup> These are practical layout maps (usually in A1 or A2 paper format) which are accompanied by an explanatory write-up on the produced plan.

<sup>13</sup> District level planning is set out in the national physical planning office because the department does not have the capacity to employ physical planners at district level. The development plan drawn up for the major towns of the different districts are used as a benchmark to draw a picture of the shape of the built environment and a tactical district plan is drawn up using that information.

plans are meant to be comprehensive plans that outline how the major spatial resources of the district are to be distributed for optimum development of the area.

ii. Structure Plans

These are area specific plans. They give out the full details of the level of development and the path to be taken. At this level the function of development is enforced, where all development that takes place within the planning area is to be approved as complying with the structure plan. These are often done at town level where all towns within the planning scheme have a structure plan. Relevant examples are the Maputsoe and Hlotse structure plans. These two towns are found in the Leribe district.

Maseru municipal council has the autonomy to run its own affairs. It has what may be called a 'strategic structure plan'. It is an overall ten year plan for Maseru drawn up to direct and filter how development is to take place within the city centre and its immediate suburban areas. It is a comprehensive plan that has divisions which separate the city from its suburbs. It divides the city into CBD East which has the CBD East Local Plan, and CBD West which has the CBD West Local Plan.

iii. Local Plans

These are plans constructed at local level and are meant to be local area specific interpretations of the built environment. They are used mainly for the purposes of keeping stock of what developments are taking place in the local areas. They become very useful when considering the potential of approving plans which fall outside of the intended development avenue of a particular area. They help immensely in analysing how the deviation from the plan will affect the people and land uses in general.

B. Land use planning

As outlined by the Ministry of Local Government Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs MLGC&PA (2012: 4), the main function of the Land Use Planning Division is to "produce indicative land use plans to guide settlement expansion, nature conservation and ecosystem protection ...". These functions are national tasks performed as part of the overall vision of ordering development. After plans have been drawn up, then implementation takes place. Implementation can be described as the actual use of land.. It can also be described with reference to land use planning. Land use planning can be thought of as the manner in which the plans previously drawn up are put on the ground. There are different entities which are responsible or involved in the implementation of these plans on the ground but it is the land use office that has to see that these

implemented developments are in line with the provisions of the previously drawn up plans. With the guidance of the national planning legislation, guiding documents are drawn up that direct how the function of land use planning is to be done. These include the technical manual for National land use planning in Lesotho which was drawn up to regularise the process of land use planning and to clarify areas of non-clarity when it comes to land use planning.

It is the land use and planning department that proposed developments that are seemingly necessary but do not necessarily conform to the earlier defined long term development plan are interrogated and allowed or refused based on the merits and disadvantages.

### C. Lands

This division at national level is responsible mainly for empowering local councils to deal with local land development issues which include land disputes, rangeland management and environmental protection. Another function is to facilitate land acquisition and ownership. This division is therefore essentially responsible for overseeing the enforcement of the recommended spatial development path of the country.

District and local offices in the lands division work closely to deal with land related issues faced by people. They are responsible mainly for liaising with the offices of the district and local councillors together with the relevant traditional leadership to ensure that all non-planning persons involved with the planning process are made familiar with how the process takes place.

#### *4.2.3.2 Local Authorities*

These are authorities formed under the Local Government Act 1997. They were created as structures to ensure adequate representation of local needs within national structures such that the average Mosotho's needs are represented in all structures of governance and so a more democratic Lesotho is put forth. These local authorities come in three tiers: community, district and municipal.

#### A. Community Councils

These are the authorities put in place as part of the government's efforts to decentralise and delegate power to the people. This has had to be an intertwined part of spatial planning because it is a process that gets its validity from being able to respond to what people need; and therefore has to have the approval of the trustees in implementation. The councils therefore have to be included in all three technocratic divisions of the office of the Commissioner of Lands.

In the three divisions the local authorities are to be consulted as stakeholders in the planning process at local and/or village level. They contribute to the process in that they provide

preliminary information on what goes on at village and local levels. It is this through this information that practical plans are drawn in the planning process.

#### B. District Councils

District councils are made up of elected council members from community councils that are elected into the office to represent these community councils at district level in district level affairs. At this level the councils have the power to influence the dealings of national government such that they are assured of their representativeness of local needs. They are the designated go between in national and local affairs. Moran et al (2009) propose that District council offices are the “arm of the national government in the localities”. They supervise and coordinate the work of local authorities such that an aggregated picture is drawn to the whole district and presented to national government.

#### C. Maseru Municipal Council (MMC)

Maseru Municipal Council (MMC) also known as Maseru City Council (MCC) is a local council established in 1989 under the Urban Government Act 1983. It was one of the municipalities that were to be independent local authorities in efforts “to give people an opportunity to order their own affairs” (Mofuoa, 2005). In theory, this meant that the local authorities were given ‘carte blanche’ on the affairs that relate to their areas of jurisdiction. As Leduka (2012) states, this did not become the case in practice, with the majority of the functions which were to be devolved to the MMC still at the Ministry (MLGCA/MLGCPA) in the Lands Survey and Physical Planning office. Mofuoa (2005) adds that under the Local Government Act 1996 (which repealed most of the local government legislation set up under the previous BNP government), the major mandates devolved to local authorities were kept fairly the same; delivery of municipal services, maintenance of public infrastructure (roads, sewage, storm, water management electricity, water pipes etc.) A few amendments were made on how the different types of local authorities were to operate and how the process of selection into the council committee is done. In 2014, Maseru Municipal Council was the only local authority of its magnitude. It covered a jurisdiction of several hundred square kilometres (Map MMC jurisdiction). It still has some of its functions dependent on approval from the national office which is the MLGC&PA, which according to Leduka (2012) makes the process service of delivery that much more difficult. Nonetheless, the functions of the MMC have been continuing and strengthening with the growing number of years in existence. Its involvement in the drafting of the 2005 Town and Country Planning Bill and the 2012 Maseru Urban and Transport Study, MMC indicates its growing stake in ordering spatial planning and local governance affairs of Lesotho.

## How Maseru Municipal Council operates<sup>14</sup>

The MCC as a municipal council has six main departments all concerned with different aspects of the services offered by the Council. This study concentrates on the planning department as it hosts the functions relating to urban (spatial planning). This department is headed up by the director of planning and has a total of six sub-departments dealing with different aspects of the planning process. These are:

*Forward Planning:* The main concerns of this department are drawing up development plans which are meant to be long/medium term projections directing the development of the built environment. Another function of this section is facilitating infill and upgrade of settlements on top of drawing up plans for the development of new settlements.

*Land:* This section is responsible for verifying titles to land held under the jurisdiction of MMC. This work is done for the purpose of ensuring that those allowed within development undertaken by the MMC are allowed to do so as legal owners of the land they occupy. This was especially important in the years preceding the enactment of the Land Act 2010 (in 2010), when the half registered and extra-legal titles to land were prevalent in the country due to a titles awarding system that was unable to keep up with the demands of land ownership in the country. In 2014, this function still continued as a mechanism to enforce the laws of the Land Act 2010. Another responsibility of the Lands section is granting and refusing extensions to land boundaries.

*Development Control:* This section handles issues relating to ordering how the built environment should be constructed. It satisfies the needs of all involved in this section regarding issues of granting and refusing building permission for proposed developments.

*Valuation:* This section is responsible for the valuing of land, most especially for the purposes of land for sale.

*Survey:* The survey section ensures that land granted for development has been surveyed. This is for the purposes of having knowledge of the exact measurements of sites. This simplifies the allocation of sites as well as valuation process.

*Economic Planning:* This section is responsible for the planning function of the MMC are the forward planning and the works sections of the council is responsible to the Town Clerk who consolidates his/her efforts with the rest of the organs that make up the MMC.

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<sup>14</sup>All information cited in this subsection was gathered from direct interviews with Maseru City Council Employees including the Director of Planning ('Me' Ntsoaki Mabejane) and other junior employees. This is because no documentation could be located that clearly described these roles



#### **4.2.3.3 Traditional Leadership**

Traditional leaders represent the customs and traditions of the people in the planning process. They have a big role to play in the process of spatial planning because they bring forward different social and historical aspects that may not be known by the other parties involved in the process. They represent the general views of the people whom they lead. This is especially true in rural areas where most people are neither educated nor aware of certain developments that take place outside of the area they live.

#### **4.2.4 Other Stakeholders (Parastatals)**

##### **4.2.4.1 Lesotho Housing and Land Development Corporation (LHLDC)**

The LHLDC is a state owned land developer with the mandate to encourage land development efforts, facilitation of access to rental accommodation, provision of home ownership opportunities for all income groups (Leduka, 2012). The corporation was formed as an amalgamation of two housing delivery authorities; Lower Income Housing Corporation and the Lesotho housing Corporation. On their own were responses to the housing problems of the 1990s. In the years from 2000 and beyond, the major problem has been with dealing with the huge influx of rural urban migrants into Maseru due to the increase in textile and other industries investment in Lesotho (Maseru mainly). The LHLDC has had to respond to this issue which had just compounded the already existing housing delivery problem. According to Hall (2004) cited in Leduka (2012), on average formal housing delivery channels only provide housing for 10% of the inhabitants in Maseru alone, which is a severely low number. As a result of this, the informal land sector has been the dominant land and housing delivery vehicle for Maseru and Lesotho citizens (Leduka, 2012). The increasing informality of housing and land delivery in Lesotho has created a problem of irregularity of land parcels where in the name of profit informal land developers skew the shape of the urban landscape by awarding irregularly shaped land parcels, encroaching on the road reserve, engulfing agricultural land, etc. These kinds of developments not only slow down the process of regularisation of land and housing delivery but also contribute to the ineffectiveness of land as a tool for development.

##### **4.2.4.2 Land Administration Authority (LAA)<sup>15</sup>**

The Land Administration Authority is a parastatal under the Ministry of Local Government that was established under the Land Administration Authority Act 2010 and is mandated to the task of administering land and deeds registration, keeping of national spatial data, dispute resolution and advising on MLGC&PA policies. It operates under the directorship of the Chief Executive and

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<sup>15</sup> All information cited in this section (4.2.4.2) was obtained from the LAA quarterly newsletter Mobu News, issues 1 and 2, their website [www.laa.org.ls](http://www.laa.org.ls) and brochures dispensed to the public.

has six main divisions, three operational and three corporate. Only the operational divisions will be looked at:

- Lease Services

This division deals specifically with two areas; the valuation of land, and the administration of lease services. It provides the services related to land valuation where clients who require land valuation services for the purposes of sale and purchases will approach the LAA.

- Legal Services

This is where all legal issues relating to lease acquisition and registration are handled. Advice as to the procedures in handling and settling land dispute is dispensed so as to bring land administration services closer to the people.

- Survey and Mapping

These services are the mapping based services that facilitate the LAA and its partners to map the spatial structure of the country and this makes the delivery of services easier and more comprehensive.

The Land Administration Authority as an entity solely responsible for land administration in Lesotho. Along with other stakeholders, it directs and shapes the overall spatial economy of Lesotho. The formal land market and influence the informal land market. This means any discrepancies with the formal land market channels fuels the already uncontrollable informal land markets where individuals are taking it upon themselves to plan and subdivide areas because of the smilingly slow pace of the formal sector in delivering land and housing.

year	Total population	Male Population	Female Population	Urban Population	Rural Population	Maseru population	0-14	15-64	65 and above	Labour Force	% malnourished persons	Life expectancy at birth	Crude Death rate / 1000 people
1993	1693459	829794.91	863664.09	266885.7515	1426573.2	125347	42.81833649	52.94642639	4.235236645	722387.607	17.1	59.0951	10.213
1994	1725118	846207.82	879810.18	282184.4517	1442933.5	129690	42.44283676	53.31415176	4.242897987	740723.546	17.9	58.1803	10.577
1995	1753824	859373.76	894450.24	297360.8592	1456463.1	134185	42.13375854	53.60070419	4.265536308	758109.363	18	56.8379	11.179
1996	1779197	871806.53	907390.47	312398.526	1466798.5	139324	41.90069962	53.79522324	4.303964138	772173.121	17.7	55.1069	12.025
1997	1801679	882822.71	918856.29	327217.3366	1474461.7	146509	41.725914	53.91987228	4.354160786	784283.497	17.3	53.1268	13.06
1998	1821609	892588.41	929020.59	341828.5721	1479780.4	154075	41.58005524	54.00857162	4.41121006	794942.428	17.2	51.0551	14.205
1999	1839611	892211.335	947399.665	356306.8961	1483304.1	162032	41.42288589	54.109375	4.467738152	806038.114	17.2	49.0226	15.385
2000	1856225	900269.185	955955.815	370725.257	1485499.7	170412	41.22565842	54.25608444	4.518256187	804055.178	17.1	47.183	16.497
2001	1871500	907677.5	963822.5	386142.852	1485357.1	179200	40.98279572	54.45407486	4.563184738	802977.292	16.9	45.6717	17.439
2002	1885487	914461.195	971025.805	401488.0598	1483998.9	188454	40.70232391	54.69504547	4.602577686	800523.05	16.7	44.5435	18.15
2003	1898757	922796.902	975961.098	416860.7068	1481896.3	198187	40.38763428	54.98265457	4.629765511	797985.974	16.4	43.8248	18.591
2004	1912022	931154.714	980867.286	432407.5993	1479614.4	203384	40.04582596	55.31766891	4.636348248	795555.812	16.2	43.5335	18.747
2005	1925844	939811.872	986032.128	448259.4494	1477584.6	206852	39.68353653	55.69849014	4.617975235	794535.122	16.3	43.6577	18.623
2006	1940413	946921.544	993491.456	465508.9595	1474904	210118	39.30400467	56.12449646	4.571604252	792629.17	16.8	44.1483	18.257
2007	1955784	958334.16	997449.84	483164.7025	1472619.3	213028	38.90787506	56.5904007	4.501673222	793366.479	17.1	44.8822	17.74
2008	1972199	966377.51	1005821.49	501305.375	1470893.6	216379	38.49697876	57.08353806	4.419736385	794493.361	17	45.7392	17.159
2009	1989873	975037.77	1014835.23	520009.5313	1469863.5	220012	38.07308197	57.58573532	4.341181755	807134.887	16.5	46.6346	16.57
2010	2008921	984371.29	1024549.71	539335.0209	1469586	-	37.64000702	58.08287048	4.277122021	821812.499	16.3	47.4834	16.031
2011	2029516	994462.84	1035053.16	559614.6828	1469901.3	-	37.19665146	58.57268524	4.230515957	837412.829	16.6	48.2198	15.582
2012 (forecast)	2051545	1005257.05	1046287.95	580599.5443	1470945.5	-	36.75083923	59.05042267	4.198835373	855109.847	-	-	-

Figure 2: Lesotho Basic Statistical Data<sup>16</sup>

<sup>16</sup>This information was extracted from the World Bank (2011) (<http://data.worldbank.org/country/lesotho>)

### 4.3 Agricultural Development in Lesotho

The agricultural sector in Lesotho contributes about 45% of Lesotho’s employed personnel with the bulk being involved in subsistence agriculture undertaking low input low output rain fed cereal production and grazing systems (World Bank 2011). The support base of the agricultural sector has come mostly from South African miner remittances, but this income has been decreasing because of the large retrenchments taking place in that country (ibid). For this reason, the sector has been decreasing in size and production capacity over the last decade (Ibid). This coupled with the severe droughts that have at different times hit southern Africa has led to a decrease in production capacity and a serious case of food insecurity nationwide (Mphale and Rwambali, 2003). Another reason contributing to the sever food insecurity situation in Lesotho is the shortage of accessible and ploughable land. 70% of the land area in the country is inhospitable environments. There is therefore limited infrastructure in these areas and so they are largely unused except in cases of animal rearing where livestock is taken to these areas when there is a shortage of grazing land in the lowlands and foot hill areas. Crop agriculture that takes place here is minimal and not intensive enough to produce required yields to support the agricultural sector and the needs of the country.

There have been attempts on the part of the Government of Lesotho and its development partners (the private sector and communities organizations) to combat food insecurity problem. There have therefore been government and non-government based initiatives that have been put in place to deal with the food insecurity issues. Table 4.3 below highlights some of the major programs and projects as cited in Mphale and Rwambali (2003) and IFAD (2015) which were active in 2014 to attempt to combat the problem of food insecurity and stagnation in terms of agricultural production.

**Table 4.3 Programs influencing agricultural development in Lesotho**

Program	Description	
	Aim	It was implemented in 2011 and expected to end in 2018. It is a World Bank funded specific investment loan which was awarded to Lesotho for the specific purpose of facilitating an increased marketed output among project beneficiaries in the smallholder agriculture sector. The expected deliverables are increased agricultural market opportunities, increased market-oriented smallholder production and the creation of commercially viable

IFAD (International Fund for Agricultural Development) Smallholder agriculture development project		activities that can be replicated and successfully scaled up in the future (World Bank, 2011).
	Contribution to Agricultural Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Increase in available accessible locally produced food staffs</li> <li>-increased share of the market by local producers, this will help grow the sector such that it might be able to compete in and out of the country with other producers</li> <li>- Potential decrease in food prices because of the decreased cost of making it available, this means potential increases in capacity to purchase food and increase capacity to consume</li> </ul>
Vision 2020	Aim	The twenty year development plan set out by the government of Lesotho. It was drawn up to set the development trajectory of the country so as to direct the approach to development and to direct development programs to be implemented as to where the Country wants to go in terms of its development philosophy and approach (Government of Lesotho, 2005).
	Contribution to Agricultural Development	It directs development efforts, this includes the economic development, food security attempts, peace and political stability matters, technological improvements and other development based activities.

Millennium Development Goals	Aim	Set as part of the UN Millennium Development Goals program to deal with eight of the global issues which were seen as major issues stunting global development, Lesotho committed to these goals and set its own way forward for tackling these issues as they relate to its specific area. MDG 1 which is eradicating extreme poverty and hunger is the goal in which agricultural development is a direct concern because agricultural development will help the achievement of the set objectives in order to get the target progress goals (reducing the proportion of people earning less than US \$1.00 per day, reducing the number of people vulnerable to food insecurity and reducing the prevalence of underweight children).
	Contribution to Agricultural Development	Chapter 1 outlines how reduction of extreme hunger and poverty are to be achieved. The promotion of agricultural development has a lot to do with this because when food production is stabilized, people are able to get access to food at least cost because for the most part because there is little purchases is involved as natural resources are used.
Agricultural Sector Assessment and Agribusiness Development Strategy	Aim	Developed as a response to the structurally incapacitating nature of agricultural production in Lesotho. It aims to first, develop strategies to assist economically disadvantaged farmers to respond to opportunities associated with agriculture sector development programs like agriculture processing and value adding. The second aim is to facilitate commercial farmers to access a bigger share of the market by encouraging those producing similar products to work together to produce superior quality goods and/or services.
	Contribution to Agricultural Development	It encourages an increase in total national supply of commercial agricultural goods, which will increase GDP and contribute to increased food security, both of which will in the end help combat the problem of national poverty and increase food access.

Kingdom of Lesotho: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper— National Strategic Development Plan	Aim	This is the country's five year development plan set every five years and updated yearly to fit envisaged scenarios. Its main strategic objective is to promote sustainable commercialisation of the sector and diversification of agricultural products by, amongst other things, improving access to finance and the capacity to produce high value products, and developing water harvesting infrastructure and increasing irrigation capacity. The capacity of farmers and of agriculture support institutions will be strengthened through training and research. (CBL economic review, 2014:4)
	Contribution to Agricultural Development	Improves knowledge of agricultural development and therefore contributes to the increased capacity of Lesotho to respond to its food insecurity problems.

## 4.4 Spatial Planning and Agricultural development in Mohlakeng Community Council

### 4.4.0 Mohlakeng Community Council

Mohlakeng is located on the south side of Maseru and borders Maseru Municipal Council to its north, Qeme Community Council to its east and Mazenod Community Council on the south west (Map 1.1). Mohlakeng Community Council is the host of the Moshoeshoe 1 international airport. The council has its offices located in the village of Ha Paki because the village is one of the most active areas in Mohlakeng. It is along the Main South 1 for easy access by all residents of the council. The spatial planning work in the council is handled by a single physical planner who is to undertake the functions of spatial planning, lands and land use allocation, dispute resolution and advising on appropriate and use allocations in areas where land uses have not been prescribed. Agriculture in Mohlakeng is undertaken not only for subsistence but also for commerce. However, yield is generally low as with other areas in Lesotho also.

### 4.4.1 Ha Paki

Ha Paki is located along the Phuthiatsana River, which is where Mohlakeng Community Council borders the Maseru Municipal Council on the south-eastern side. It gave the researcher the opportunity to interrogate the true dynamics of the interaction of spatial planning with agricultural development because the land in that area is medium level quality agricultural land (Government of Lesotho, 1991). This means it has the potential to yield fairly satisfactory crops

at a desirable intensity if it is used for the purposes of agriculture. The area has a rich history as one of the original areas of settlement of Roman Catholic Mission set up by Sisters of the Holy Names Mission, Mazenod High School and the Mazenod Printing Press all of which have become monuments and a great land marks identifying the area. The fact that the areas on either side of the river are controlled by different camps within the spatial planning sphere, brings light into the issue of how planning entities in Maseru interact with regards to issues of agricultural development.

There have been great strides at development attempted in this area with the implementation of the Basotho Fruit and Vegetable Cannery in nearby Masianokeng village where luscious medium value agricultural land<sup>17</sup> was used for the planning, packaging, and distribution of fresh and canned produce in the 1990s (Mphahlele and Rwambali, 2003). Decay in political will and inward fighting among political actors led to the collapse and eventual closure of the company (ibid). The land has since been sold to individuals who are currently undertaking low intensity agriculture in that area. Urban development encroachment has been cited as a potential problem in this area because of the recent purchases and eventual subdivision of close by patches of land by the planning authority responsible (Maseru Municipal Council).

#### **4.4.2 Mokema**

Mokema is located on the south side of Maseru Central Business District and the south eastern side of Mohlakeng Community Council and is on the border of Mohlakeng and Qeme Community Councils (See Map 1.1: Map of Mohlakeng Community Council and Map 1.2: Lesotho Acid Soils Map). Qeme is the Council where Roma is located. Roma is where some of the popular institutions of higher learning including the National University of Lesotho, Oblate House Scholarsticate and the Roma Nursing School are located). Mokema is estimated to be approximately 10 kilometres away from Roma. Essential services in this area are very scarce with no electricity, telecommunication connections and piped water<sup>18</sup>. Agriculture in the area has the potential to thrive but is hindered by the insufficient water supply.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

This chapter has served to present how spatial planning and agriculture interact in Lesotho and in Mohlakeng Community Council. It also detailed the relevance of the two villages in the study and their part in reflecting how spatial planning and agricultural development interact in Mohlakeng Community Council. It has highlighted the structure of Lesotho's agriculture and

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<sup>17</sup>See Map 1.2: Lesotho acid soil map. Deductions can be made of the acid content of the soil in the different areas and therefore their capacity to support plant life.

<sup>18</sup>This information was gathered from the field research of this study where researcher's observation and questionnaires to the farming community in the area confirmed it.



spatial planning fields. It has therefore served to highlight the dynamics of spatial planning and agriculture in Lesotho and how spatial planning interacts with agriculture in Mohlakeng Community council. The next chapter presents the methodology used in the study to gather the data necessary to investigate the interaction and impact of spatial planning on agricultural development in Lesotho.

## CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY FOR DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

### 5.0 Introduction

This Chapter presents the sources and methods of collecting data for this study. This presentation happens in three divisions. The first described the sources of data, the second is the background of data collection and a third is a description of the methodology used for acquiring the data. The last three sections describe the strategies used in data collection to ensure trustworthiness of the data collected, the data presentation method and the problems encountered during data collection.

### 5.1 Sources of Data

The data was collected using multi-stage random sampling. This involved selecting villages to take part in the study at random from a list of villages that make up Mohlakeng Community Council, a 10% sample was taken to be representative enough of the villages and the 2 villages of Mokema and Ha Paki were selected. Interview schedules were then conducted with the farmers who were selected using snowball sampling. The aim was to investigate how spatial planning affects the farmers' farming activities. The second stage of the sampling process involved selecting interview respondents to take part in the study. The aim of this was to investigate how much the framework of the planning practice in Lesotho encourages or discourages agricultural development.

### 5.2 Background to Data Collection

The two villages visited for data collection were selected at random from the list of villages that form Mohlakeng Community Council. The first village visited was Ha Paki. It is located towards the northern side of the Mohlakeng Community Council and is classified as a rural area. The village's location is right on the boundary of Mohlakeng Community Council and Maseru Municipal Council (MMC). As a result of the fact that areas that lie on the (MMC) boundary usually have the same essential services as those enjoyed by MMC residents, the area of Ha Paki can be described as relatively urban in terms of the essential services it enjoys and the quality in which they are awarded.

The village is also a historical tourist attraction as it hosts one of the earliest Roman Catholic Missions in Lesotho as well as the Mazenod Printing works is located. This book and newspaper printing facility was established as far back as the time of establishment of the Mission in Ha Paki in 1933 (Rosenberg and Weisfelder, 2013). It was to serve as a place to print Bibles for church members in Lesotho (specifically Roman Catholic Church members) and also as an agent the help spread the culture of reading among Basotho while still educating them about religion and

current affairs. It also has a number of Community Based Organization concentrating on different aspects of local development including child protection, local economic development, women empowerment, agricultural development and others.

The second village visited was the village of Mokema. It is located on the south eastern side of Mohlakeng Community Council and is on the border of Mohlakeng and Qeme Community Councils. Qeme is the Council where Roma is located; the area of Roma is where the National University of Lesotho, Oblate House Scholasticate and the Roma Nursing School are located. Mokema is estimated to be approximately 10 kilometres away from Roma. Essential services in this area are very scarce with no electricity, telecommunication connections and piped water.

The last areas of visitation by the researcher were the respective places of work of each of the experts consulted to take part in the study. A total of six experts were consulted two from spatial planners, two legal practitioners and two agriculturalists. All these individuals were selected in a strategic manner by the researcher considering issues like availability of each individual and the educational background and length of service in their respective fields.

### **5.3 Methodology for Data Collection<sup>19</sup>**

The data collected for this study was gathered using two separate data collection instruments; an interview schedule with farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council and open ended interviews conducted with experts in agriculture, spatial planning and law. Both these instruments of data collection were structured differently in order to attain the desired goals. In combination the data collected was structured into seven sections. Sections A to D deal with the interview schedule and sections E to G deal with interviews. The sections are labelled as follows;

#### **Section A: Demographic Information**

This section was the introductory section of the questionnaire. It presents the necessary background information of each respondent including the name of the respondent, the age of the respondent, the gender of the respondent, the village name which the respondent lives and the place where they undertake their agricultural activities.

#### **Section B: Production Information**

This section presents the processes and strategies of agricultural production of each respondent. Questions asked in this section cover information on issues including the category of farming, the total amount of land used for the production activities, the intensity of production, procurement

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<sup>19</sup>The data collection instruments for both the interview schedules and the interviews conducted have been attached in Appendix 2 and 3 respectively.

of agricultural inputs, benefiting from naturally occurring agricultural inputs and the methods of sustaining good production.

#### Section C: Land Occupation Information

This section covers issues of land ownership, title ownership, length of occupation, method of land procurement, land use intensity over time, diversity of utilization of land, spatial planning strides and their resonance with the farming community and knowledge of the importance of spatial planning.

#### Section D: Respondent's future intentions with their land

This section covers information to reveal the respondents' intent to continue with undertaking agriculture and whether they intend to hold on to the land they occupy for agricultural purposes.

#### Section E: Spatial planning experts

In this section practicing planners at different levels of the spatial planning stages are asked of their perceptions of how spatial planning interacts with and therefore affects agricultural development in Lesotho and in Mohlakeng Community Council.

They are also asked about of spatial planning in Mohlakeng Community Council, whether it is good enough to optimize good practice in spatial planning in order to ensure agricultural development there.

#### Section F: Agriculturalists

In this sections, experts in the field of agriculture practicing both in the private and in the public sector are asked of the perceived and actual interactions of spatial planning and agriculture, both as a discipline of study and as a practice charged with promoting good land use practices so that food security and sustainable food production are encouraged among other things.

#### Section G: Legal practitioners

In this section, legal practitioners practicing in the private and public sector are interviewed on the responsiveness of set planning law to the envisaged and normally discussed problems of agricultural development in Lesotho. These problems relate to the duplication and therefore ineffectiveness of the law when it comes to issues of agriculture forestry and management.

## 5.4 Strategies to ensure validity of the data collected

Shebton (2004) proposes that trustworthiness in primary data collected in a research is important because among other things, it gives an indication of the extent to which the study's data and findings can be used in other research studies. He proposes that trustworthiness in qualitative research is determined by testing the following criteria; a) credibility (in preference to internal validity); b) transferability (in preference to external validity/generalisability); c) dependability (in preference to reliability); d) confirmability (in preference to objectivity).

He proposes that Credibility is the extent to which the study tests that which it intends to test. In order to achieve credibility, Shebton (2004) proposes that the research use universally agreed upon methods of data collection and analysis. This research used a mixed method sampling technique to collect data and analyse data from the two strata. This sampling technique is the most appropriate for this study because it uses perceptions from different stakeholders in the spatial planning and agricultural development discourse. It looks at the farming community, spatial planners, agriculturalists and legal professionals as the core respondents for this research. The analysis of data collected from these different stakeholders is different hence the need for a mixed method of data collection and analysis.

The first stratum is the farming community. The information required from the farming community was quantitative data. It related to information regarding their experiences in farming in the areas where they reside and how spatial planning assists them in their endeavour.

The second stratum was the expert community who were interviewed by the researcher at a central in their individual capacity. The information to be derived from this stratum was qualitative data that relates to the policy frameworks of spatial planning and agriculture and spatial planning and their interaction to ensure agricultural development, the organisational frameworks of spatial planning and agriculture and their responsiveness to the end that is agricultural development, the practices of spatial planners and agriculturalists and how they affect agricultural development.

Dependability is another factor in determining trustworthiness of research. Shebton (2004: 71) argues that dependability is the measure of show authenticity of data collected by assuring that "if the work were repeated, in the same context, with the same methods and with the same participants, similar results would be obtained." He cites that dependability and Credibility in testing trustworthiness go hand in hand and in most instances attempts to ensure one will affect the other positively. He also cites that repeating the data collection process employed in the study one way of ensuring dependability of data collected.

In this research attempts to achieve this were done in both the interview schedule and the interviews. In the interviews sections, two experts were interviewed in order to determine similarity in the gist of the information attained. In instances where differing information was obtained, a third expert was to be contacted in order to break the disagreement. In the interview schedule, several respondents (28) were contacted and the despondences attained were aggregated and averages used to make deductions about the whole population.

Shebton (2004) also cites transferability as important in determining trustworthiness of research. He indicates that a sufficiently thick description of the phenomenon under investigation should be provided to allow readers to have a proper understanding of it, thereby enabling them to compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the research report with those that they have seen emerge in their situations. In this research, the description the situation of spatial planning and agricultural development in Lesotho was done by gathering and presenting secondary data relating to the theories and practices that drive the interaction of the two variables. The transferability of data gathered for this study was highlighted in data analysis section of the research where areas of future analysis by other studies were highlighted.

Confirmability is the last of the measures Shebton (2004) uses to test trustworthiness of primary data collected. Here steps must be taken to help ensure as far as possible that the work's findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher. He indicates that detailed methodological description detailing how far the data and constructs emerging from it may be accepted is important in determining the findings extracted from the research is an important measure of the confirmability of the data gathered and subsequently analysed. To achieve confirmability, the research gives wide and detailed descriptions of the data collection process and the justifications behind the use of the data collection techniques and their value to this research.

## **5.5 Data presentation method**

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (version 16) computer program was used for creating the presented tables, charts and frequency distribution tables. The study therefore used inferential and descriptive statistics, which were helpful in demonstrating and interpreting obtained data in order to come up with reasonable conclusions and recommendations. The data from the three groups of experts (agriculturalists, spatial planners and the legal practitioners), was presented and discussed in a qualitative manner. This is because it was collected through interviews and no numbers were used.

## 5.6 Problems encountered during data collection

As can be expected with the process of data collection, there were some problems encountered by the researcher in gathering the information necessary for the study. The biggest of these was that the data for this study was collected during a time of political instability, so respondents were apprehensive about revealing detailed information about their agricultural activities. This created the problem of slowing down the researcher in gathering the relevant data as respondents would sometimes have reservations about revealing the information.

Another problem encountered regarded the base map provided to the researcher by Mohlakeng Community Council as the base Map for the area. It did not reveal the actual boundaries of each village within the council and this forced the research to employ the general knowledge of village members as to the boundaries of their respective villages.

Other encountered problems included the issue of the people's ignorance about the available agriculture subsidies in the country. This brought a problem to the researcher as one of the questions requires respondents to indicate how they acquire their agricultural inputs, this then required the researcher to probe respondents about the details of what they need and when they acquired it.

Due to scheduling issues some of the experts originally commissioned to take part in the study could not attend interviews because of unexpected work engagements which then forced them to pull out of scheduled interview. Interviews conducted were therefore mainly with experts practicing in the public sector (civil servants). They were reluctant to criticize how government departments operate. This may affected the findings of the study in that they may be said to reflect the views of government based and government paid experts.

Another problem experience related to the costs involved in undertaking the study. Not all the farmers of Mohlakeng Community Council could be contacted so only a sample of the villages was selected and all the farmers were contacted to take part in the study. Unfortunately not all the farmers could make it to the set meeting and a sample of the respondents the researcher could get were used.

## 5.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter presented the methods employed in the study to collect the primary data use in the study. It highlighted what data was collected for the study, the justifications for the process used in gathering data, the procedure used to attain the data and the problems encountered in gathering the data. The next section on data analysis and interpretation details how the researcher went about collecting the data for this study. It presents all the quantitative

data in tables and then interprets, discusses and analysis the data presented. It also presents the qualitative data in the form of brief transcripts of the discussions held with the respondents and follows with the interpretations of the implications of what the respondents said to the study.



## CHAPTER 6: ANALYSIS OF DATA

### 6.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter presented the sources of data and the methodology employed in undertaking the study. This chapter presents the data collected and the discussion on the implication of the information gathered for spatial planning and agricultural development in Mohlakeng Community Council. It presents the findings from gathered responses of two data collection instruments; the administered interview schedule, which in itself was built from the objectives of the study and conducted interviews conducted with experts in spatial planning, law and agriculture. The interview sample was constructed from 2 experts in spatial planning, 2 experts in law and 2 experts in agriculture. The interview schedule sample on the other hand consisted of 17 respondents from Ha Paki and 11 respondents from Mokema. The findings of the study were presented in the form of brief transcripts, frequencies, percentage and summary tables together with discussions which interpret what the data presented means.

Data for this section of the study was analysed and interpreted using information based on the obtained responses as adopted from the interview schedule and interviews. The data presentation is structured such that it presents the data from the two strata of respondents. The first stratum which is the farmers where asked questions relating to:

- Demographic Information of Ha Paki and Mokema residents
- Production Information of Ha Paki and Mokema residents
- Land Occupation Information of Ha Paki and Mokema residents
- Future Intentions with the agricultural land occupied by Ha Paki and Mokema residents

The Second Statum which is the interviews with spatial planning, agriculture and law experts asked questions relating to:

- Farming community's relationship and knowledge about spatial planning in Mohlakeng Community Council and in Lesotho
- Sustainable spatial planning practice in Lesotho and in Mohlakeng Community Council and in Lesotho
- Legal standing of spatial planning practice in Lesotho

## 6.1 Data Presentation from Interview Schedules with Ha Paki and Mokema Farmers

### 6.1.1 Demographic Information

Table 6.1.1(a) Distribution of Respondents by age and gender

Age of the respondent	Gender of respondent					
	Female		Male		Total	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
15-29	0	0	0	0	0	0
30-45	2	7	4	14	6	21
46-60	7	25	5	18	12	43
Over 60	4	14	6	22	10	36
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.1(a) above indicates that there are more males than females taking part in agriculture in Ha Paki and Mokema. Meaning agriculture is male dominated in the enumerated villages of Mohlakeng Community Council. The age group most involved in agriculture is the 46-60 age group with 43% of the respondents. The over 60 age group is the second largest age group among the enumerated respondents, taking up 36%. The 30-45 age group had 21% of the respondents and there were no respondents in the 15-29 age group.

Table 6.1.1(a) also shows that agriculture is mostly an activity of the older age groups. These were the 46-60 and over 60 groups which took up almost 80% of the respondents. The younger population is least involved in agricultural activities, where the youngest population of 15-29 does not seem to take up agricultural activity at all. There can be several reasons cited for the age distribution of people involved in agricultural activity in Ha Paki and Mokema. One of them is the distribution of younger population in the labour force in Lesotho generally. The 2006 Lesotho Population and Housing Census Analytical Report, Volume IIIB Socio Economics Characteristics (2009) reveals that the under the 30 age group takes up only 22.7% of the labour force. This is also true of the distribution of young farmers in Mokema and Ha Paki, where the under 30 age group takes up 21% of the population of farmers.

The 2006 Lesotho Population and Housing Census Analytical Report, Volume IIIB Socio Economics Characteristics (2009) also shows that on average 23.2% of the total labour force in Lesotho was involved in agriculture. And there were more males than females. This is also what is reflected in the Ha Paki and Mokema responses showing that 54% of the respondents were male and only 46% were female. This reflects an agricultural system which is mainly in the hands of the male population. The report also shows that 45.5% of the farming labour force is farmers over 45 age group. This is contrary to the distribution observed in Ha Paki and Mokema where 79% of the farming labours are over the age of 45. This is a big disparity. This indicates that there is a larger number of older farmers in Ha Paki and Mokema than in Lesotho generally.

For Mohlakeng Community Council this means that there is an opportunity to be seized from this. As a planning strategy structured to adapt to current needs of modern states and local societies (Sartorio, 2005), strategic planning can be a very useful tool to attempt to leverage benefit out of the observed characteristics of the farming community in Mohlakeng Community /council so as to help increased production and therefore contribute to agricultural development. Strategic Planning requires that the planner come up with tailored solutions to observed issues such that there can be benefit leveraged of the observed situation. For instance, in the case of Mohlakeng Community Council farmers who are mainly in the over 45 age group there could be a proposal for the development of an organic agri-business hub in the vicinity of Mohlakeng Community Council and there would be an already existing labour force that has already set roots in the area and are unlikely to leave the area.

**Table 6.1.1(b) Distribution of respondents by age and village**

Age of respondent	Village of respondent					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
15-29	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
30-45	2	7	4	21	<b>6</b>	<b>21</b>
46-60	10	36	2	7	<b>12</b>	<b>43</b>
Over 60	6	18	4	11	<b>10</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.1(b) above shows that Ha Paki had the highest number of respondents and Mokema the least number of respondents. This is attributed to the fact that generally the population in Ha Paki is larger than that of Mokema and hence in sampling farmers in Ha Paki would count up to a larger number than in Mokema. There are roughly 10000 people in Ha Paki and around 2300 people in Mokema. (Openstreetmap Imagery, 2015<sup>20</sup>). It can be noted that the age distribution of farmers in the two villages is different. There are more young farmers (15-45) in Mokema than in Ha Paki. This can be attributed to the issues of youth unemployment (in the corporate environment) and a lack of education for rural dwellers in Lesotho (Government of Lesotho 2006). This indicates that there are more youth available to undertake agriculture in rural than urban areas of Mohlakeng Community Council. For spatial planning this suggests the need to employ strategic planning principles. Strategic planning encourages a shift away from the sterile planning format that dictates the use of similar development plans at local levels throughout the country with generalisations on rural and urban councils and a neglect of places such as Mohlakeng community Council which has the characteristics of both urban and rural areas within the same areas. Nonetheless all in all there were more respondents in the 46-60 age group than any other age group in the whole population of the sampled farmers. This indicates that this is the age group that should affect greatly the discourse taking place about agriculture in Mohlakeng Community Council.

**Table 6.1.1 (c) Distribution of respondents by village and location of agricultural activity**

Location of Agricultural Activity	Village of respondent					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Same Village	14	50	11	39.4	<b>25</b>	<b>89.4</b>
Another village in Mohlakeng	2	7.2	1	3.4	<b>3</b>	<b>10.6</b>
Village outside Mohlakeng	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

<sup>20</sup>The household count method was used to calculate the approximate number of people in each village using Bing Aerial photos and the Mohlakeng Community Council Map. It was assumed that there are 4.5 people in a household as of the Lesotho statistic on average of household size.

<b>Total</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>57.2</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>
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Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.1(c) shows that most of the enumerated farmers (89.4%) undertake their agricultural activity in the villages where they live. Only 10.6% undertake it outside the village and none of them have any agricultural activity outside of Mohlakeng Community Council. This is because of traditional spatial arrangements across Lesotho where fields are together located in low laying areas of the village and housing and livestock are in the higher areas both for security and for temperature regulation. These are thermal belts where micro-climatic conditions are moderate (not too cold and not too warm) (Kennedy, 2004). This means that by virtue of the fact that most people have their agricultural land uses in the villages where they live; it makes collaborative decision-making about agricultural land more important because it would require meeting up with just the group of farmers from the same village who are likely to have the same influences and therefore similar views about reaching a solution to a problem they all face. The use of collaborative decision making has been used in spatial planning in USA cities where people needed for commercial agricultural production to incorporate traditional crops and vegetables that people in that area feel are important components to their diet (Campbell, 2004). The solution was reached through consultation and collaborative action between all stakeholders including technocratic staff responsible for land allocation and the beneficiaries. For spatial planning in Lesotho this means land use allocation and/or development approvals have the potential to be done in full collaboration/consultation of village members and/or leadership so as to have maximum effect of agricultural output in Mohlakeng Community Council.

### 6.1.2 Production Information

**Table 6.1.2 (a) Ha Paki and Mokema farmers' reasons for undertaking agriculture**

Reason for undertaking agriculture	Village of respondent					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Subsistence	6	21	8	28	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>
Commercial	6	21	4	14	<b>10</b>	<b>35</b>
Cooperative	1	4	2	8	<b>3</b>	<b>11</b>

Supportive Groups	1	4	0	0	1	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

The 2009/2010 Lesotho Agricultural Census (2012a) shows that between 2009 and 2010, 23% of the villages in Mohlakeng Community Council made a living undertaking agriculture. Table 6.1.2(a) above shows that half (50%) the farmers who took part in the interview schedules in Ha Paki and Mokema choose to undertake agriculture for subsistence, while 35%, 11% and 4% undertake agriculture for commercial, cooperatives and support groups respectively. This shows that more respondents had subsistence as the reason for undertaking agriculture. Table 6.1.2c (below) shows that 82% of enumerated farmers in Ha Paki and Mokema preferred to undertake non-intensive agriculture. Coupled together, tables 6.1.2a and 6.1.2c reveal that the enumerated farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council still prefer to undertake agriculture in the traditional way (non-intensive) and for the purposes of survival. For spatial planning this means the society is relatively traditional and so would require a mode of operation that is tailored to the particular needs of this area. This is endorsed by the writings of Robinson (2009) in his interpretation of strategic planning that requires a tailored modus operandi for different areas. He says this ensures planning that is more responsive to the particular area. This means planning operation whose action is tailored to influence agriculture positively should be cognisant of the need to be strategic in planning for the areas' land uses and be appreciative of particular preference of the people in that area so that planning effort can be maximised in order to have preferred benefits.

**Table 8 6.1.2(b) Distribution of respondents by village and factors considered in selecting agricultural land**

Factors considered in selecting land for agriculture	Villages of Respondents					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Value of adjacent piece of land	1	1.1	2	2	3	3
Soil quality	13	15	12	13	25	28
Weather	4	4.5	8	9	12	14

Piped water availability	9	10	13	15	<b>22</b>	<b>25</b>
Speculated value of the land in later years	0	0	1	1.1	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>
Price	1	1.1	3	3.4	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
Location/neighborhood	3	3.4	4	4.5	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>
Basic service (telecommunication and electricity)	6	21.5	3	3.4	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>
Proximity to major towns	3	3.1	2	2	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.2(b) above shows the distribution of respondents' villages to the factors they consider as important in selecting agricultural land to invest for agricultural activities. It indicates that generally, residents of Ha Paki and Mokema regard the most important issues to consider in selecting land to invest in for agricultural purposes as: soil quality, piped water, appropriate weather, and the availability of basic services. This points to the residents of Ha Paki and Mokema regarding practical features of the land as important for their agricultural activities. They consider economic and social aspects that affect agricultural land selection including proximity to major towns and land value to be of least importance. This affirms the interpretations made above that Mohlakeng's farming community prefer simple farming techniques, they are practical farmers and they value their agricultural activity more than the economic implications of owning agricultural land. This mode of undertaking agriculture can also be noted by the researcher as being compounded by the fact that agricultural service facilities in Mohlakeng are in short supply. Only 50% of the necessary facilities are accessible for Mohlakeng Community Council residents (Government of Lesotho, 2012a). This means farmers have to make do with limited resources, so it is expected that they would remain simplistic in undertaking their agricultural activities. In order for spatial planning to affect agricultural development in Mohlakeng Community Council positively, the planning authority would need to be aware of these conditions in Mohlakeng Community Council and also be aware of the plight of farmers in the area.

**Table 9 6.1.2(c) Distribution of respondents' village, gender and method of agricultural production**

Method of production	Village and gender distribution													
	Ha Paki				Mokema				Totals					
	M		F		M		F		M		F		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Non-Intensive Production	7	25	5	17	6	21	5	18	<b>13</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>82</b>
Intensive Production	1	4	1	4	1	4	2	8	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.2(c) indicates that a total of 23 (82%) of the respondents undertake non-intensive agricultural production while 18% undertake intensive production. Across the gender distribution in both villages, both males and females prefer non-intensive production. A total of 42% of the respondents in Ha Paki and 39 % in Mokema undertake non-intensive production. This indicates either a lack of resources among the farming community to intensify production or a lack of interest in undertaking intensive production which would require the use of artificial fertilisers and pesticides. This has big implications for the spatial planning process in Mohlakeng Community Council because it can affect the land allocation process. Non-intensive production utilises more land per individual than intensive (Marsh and Grossa. Jr: 1996). This means there is a lot of land being used per farmer that is not producing a lot of yield. It can be argued that because of the fact that most farmers are farming for subsistence and they have a lot of land available to them, there is no emergent reason to pursue intensified production. It will be noted that the average farming household in Ha Paki and Mokema uses about 1-4Ha of land for their agricultural activities, this has implications on the total amount of land available to each individual family to undertake agriculture. For the study this means the spatial planning function has a big role to play in ensuring access to agricultural land (especially when organic agricultural production is widely practiced in the area) for the community, those interested in undertaking agriculture and those already involved in the process.



**Table 10 6.1.2(d) Production preference of commercial farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council**

Agricultural Production Method	Villages of commercial Farmers					
	Ha Paki Commercial Farmers		Mokema Commercial Farmers		<b>Total</b>	
	No.	%	No.	%	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
Non-Intensive	5	50	2	20	<b>7</b>	<b>70</b>
Intensive	1	10	2	20	<b>3</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.2 (a) indicates that 35% of the farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council are commercial farmers. Table 6.1.2 (d) shows that  $\frac{3}{4}$  (70%) of them prefer non-intensive commercial production. This indicates a preference for non-intensive agriculture over intensive agriculture even in instances where there is a large investment into the process of agricultural production. This affirms the findings discussed above in Table 6.1.2 (c) that show a general preference of non-intensive production among Ha Paki and Mokema farmers. Table 6.1.2 (d) also shows that intensive production is the least preferred method of agricultural production even among commercial farmers, where only 10% of the respondents preferred to undertake their commercial agriculture through intensifying their production. As indicated above, this has implications on the amount of land used for agricultural production.

**Table 6.1.2(e) Farmers' agricultural input procurement method and the production method**

Agricultural input procurement method	Agricultural Production Method for Ha Paki and Mokema Farmers											
	Non-intensive						Intensive					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		<b>Total</b>		Ha Paki		Mokema		<b>Total</b>	
	No.	%	No.	%	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>	No.	%	No.	%	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>

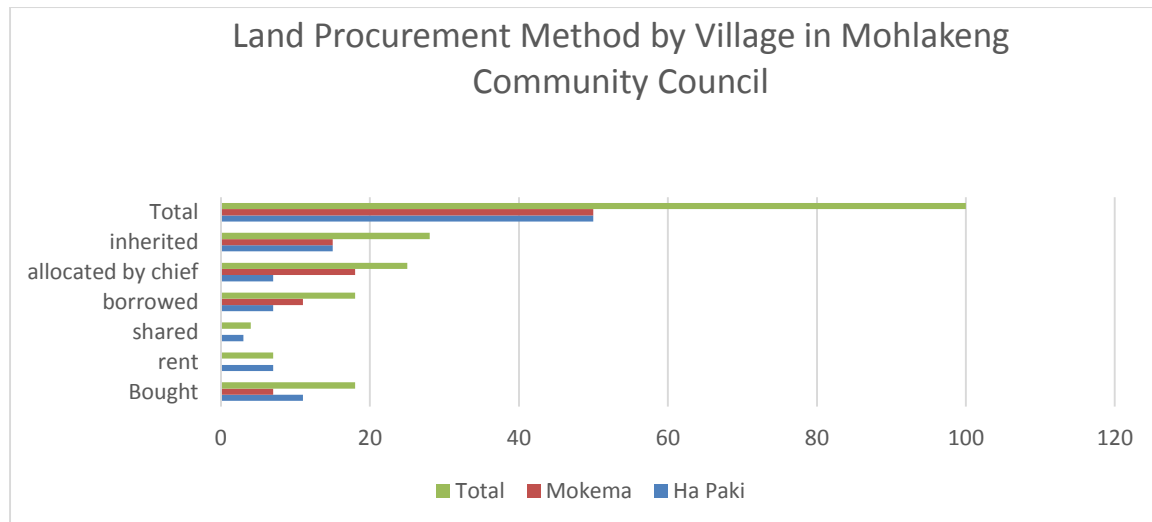
Self	12	44	4	14	<b>16</b>	<b>81</b>	2	50	3	50	<b>5</b>	<b>60</b>
Self & Government	1	4	7	26	<b>8</b>	<b>14</b>	0	0	1	25	<b>1</b>	<b>20</b>
Government	1	4	0	0	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
Donor	2	8	0	0	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	0	0	1	25	<b>1</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

According to Table 6.1.2(e) above a large proportion (81%) of the non-intensive farmers obtain their agricultural inputs themselves. While 14%, 2% and 3% respectively use a combination of government subsidies and buying by themselves, use government subsidies and get donor aid. The trend of input procurement method is the same even among intensive farmers where a large proportion of them procure their agricultural inputs through their own means and not through government or donor assistance. This is corroborated by the 2006 Lesotho population and housing census analytical report (2009) which shows that generally agricultural support service in Mohlakeng are very limited. These are services such as irrigation facilities, food storage facilities and maintenance machinery and the facilities which are available are limited in number and therefore are unable to support the demand of the villages in the whole of Mohlakeng community council. This means there is need to assist farmers to undertake their agricultural activities better as a way to assist them to perform their agricultural activities. This becomes especially necessary to help the commercial farmers who without proper production facilities stand to make a loss from undertaking agriculture.

### 6.1.3 Land Occupation Information

Chart 12 6.1.3(a) Land procurement method by village in percentage (%)



Source: Collected field data

Chart 6.1.3 (a) above shows the distribution of the methods used by Ha Paki and Mokema farmers in acquiring the land which they occupy for agriculture purposes. It reflects different patterns of land procurement among the people in the two villages. In both villages 15% of the people engaged in agriculture acquired their land through inheritance. This is supported by the fact that a large proportion of people involved in agriculture are in the 46-60 age group (who might have been in the areas for a long time). These are people who acquired their land just by inheriting it from their fore fathers. Mokema seems to have the greatest number of farmers (36%) who acquired their land from the Chief as an allocation for their families to use for agriculture purposes. These are also people who acquired their agricultural land a significant time before the introduction of the Land Act 2010 which disempowers chiefs as the sole authority in the land allocation process and requires land allocation to be a coordinated effort between the planning authority, the community council and the chief. The proportion of people who bought their land among Ha Paki and Mokema residents is 3:2 proportion, this could mean that the area of Ha Paki is host to new residents in the area as the area is in close proximity to Maseru the capital city and land sale is the easiest way of acquiring land in rural councils close to the capital and other active cities. This might then lead one to deduce that the population of farmers in the area is increasing faster in Ha Paki than in Mokema which is further away from connections to essential service connections and from the capital city.

The issue of borrowing land among residents for the purposes of agriculture is more prominent in Mokema than in Ha Paki as 21% of the farmers actively involved in agriculture acquired the land they are using by from borrowing it. In enquiry by the researcher to the respondents, it was established that this is most time land whose owners are unable to cultivate either because of inability in the form of disability or old age but sometimes it is because the people who are responsible to that land have left the area in search for economic opportunities outside the area. Renting and sharing in agricultural production is more active in Ha Paki than in Mokema, this can also be attributed to the issue of proximity to Maseru and the fact that Ha Paki is more active an area than Mokema and so there is a greater variation in land procurement and usage.

These dynamics of agricultural land and its implications to the farming activities in Mohlakeng Community Council bring about an important issue which is that of the importance of the use of strategic principles in the planning process because as has been indicated, there are a lot of disparities between the two villages in terms of how they utilise their agricultural land. This means even when the areas are in the same community council they can still display differing characteristics and so need to be treated differently if their full benefit to the people is to be derived. Hence the reason for the strong support for the principles of strategic planning in this research.

**Table 6.1.3(bi) Distribution of respondents by type of land title, village and length of occupation of agricultural land**

Land Title Type	Length of occupation of the land					
	Less than 10 years Ownership		Greater than 10 years Ownership		<b>Total</b>	
	Ha Paki	Mokema	Ha Paki	Mokema	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
Nothing	1	0	6	5	<b>12</b>	<b>43</b>
Lease	0	2	7	0	<b>9</b>	<b>32</b>
Sub-Lease	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
Form C	0	1	1	5	<b>7</b>	<b>25</b>
Council's Letter	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

**Table 6.1.3 (bii) Respondents' reasons for not having title to land and the villages they reside**

Reason for not having title	Villages of Respondents					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
I don't need it	0	0	1	10	1	10
I didn't know I needed it	1	10	2	20	3	30
I don't want to pay to use my own land	2	20	0	0	2	20
I rent the land	1	10	0	0	1	10
I borrow the land	2	20	1	10	3	30
<b>Total</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>60</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.3 (bi) above shows the distribution of respondents by land title and length of ownership of land. It indicates that 43% of respondent do not have title to the land they use at all, and the reasoning ranges from feeling “no need to own title” because its absence does not affect how they utilize the land, to the fear of the charges like ground rent<sup>21</sup> associated with owning legal title. Table 6.1.3(bii) shows the distribution of respondents reasons for not having title, it shows that 30% of the respondents who did not have title to their land felt they could still utilize the land well enough even in the absence of a legal recognized, this is because the community already knows which pieces of land is owned by which family (because for most land parcels have been in the hands of those families over generations). Table 6.1.3(bi) supports this, showing that 68% of the population either do not have title or are still under the assumption that the Form C (which was in use as a legal title to land before introduction of the land Act 2010) is still a valid form of titling in 2015.

All in all it can be deduced from Tables 6.1.3(bi) and Table 6.1.3 (bii) of the sample of Ha Paki and Mokema farmers that the issue of land title is of least importance in their agricultural activities

<sup>21</sup> Ground rent is the annual charge payable by land owners for the land they use. The charges vary among the different land uses (Land Act 2010).

because they as indicated in Table 6.1.2(b) find that the issue of primary agricultural inputs is of highest importance in the process of agricultural production, higher than secondary inputs that include land title ownership and spatial planning issues. This can be attributed to issues like lack of knowledge about the other aspects of agricultural activity outside of the actual acts of planting, tending to the plants and then harvesting.

Table 6.1.3(c) Land use change and intensity of agricultural land use among Ha Paki and Mokema farmers

Variations in Agricultural land use in Ha Paki and Mokema Farmers	Change in Agricultural Production intensity in Ha Paki and Mokema Farmers																	
	Ha Paki								Mokema								Total	
	Non-Intensive-intensive		Intensive - Non intensive		No Change		Total		Non-Intensive-intensive		Intensive-non intensive		No Change		Total			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Res-Agric	2	14	0	0	0	0	2	14	1	7	0	0	0	0	1	7	3	11
Com-Agric	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Agric-Res/Agric	2	14	0	0	2	14	4	28	2	14	0	0	0	0	2	14	6	21
Agric only	0	0	1	7	7	50	8	57	1	7	2	14	8	57	11	79	19	68
<b>Total</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.3(c) above shows the distribution of land use change over time and the change in agricultural land use intensity over time. It points out that there is a greater change in agricultural land use in Ha Paki than in Mokema residents, where only 57% of Ha Paki farmers declared having had no change in their agricultural land usage, they say the land they are currently using for agriculture has only been used for agriculture and for no other reason. The case is different in Mokema, almost 80% of the respondents reported their agricultural land as being used only for agriculture. This shows the strong dependence on agriculture for Mokema residents as the land dedicated to agriculture has been used for that and no other reason. All in all it can be seen that between the two villages, almost 70% of the respondents reported no change in agricultural land usage over time. Considering this, it could be deduced that more than 50% average of enumerated farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council use their agricultural land for the purposes of agriculture over long periods. This then shows the strong dependence agriculture both for subsistence and commercial purposes.

On Table 6.1.3(c) is also information on the changes in intensity of agricultural production on the agricultural land they occupy. It shows that 61% of the respondents reported having not changed the intensity at which they are using their land. This shows that many farmers in Ha Paki and Mokema do not change in their production method. This could be attributed to the fact that these farmers have been seen (in this research<sup>22</sup>) to be stuck in their ways of producing and so are unlikely to change between the different ways of undertaking agriculture.

**Table 6.1.3(d) Respondents's needs satisfaction from agricultural production by village**

Does Agriculture satisfy family needs?	Village of respondent					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	8	2	3	11	<b>11</b>	<b>40</b>
No	5	19	8	28	<b>13</b>	<b>46</b>
To a Degree	1	3	3	11	<b>4</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

<sup>22</sup>See discussions for tables 6.1.2(c) and Table 6.1.2 (d).



Table 6.1.3 (d) above shows the extent to which agricultural activity satisfies the respondents' families' needs. It indicates that the bulk of the respondents (46%) feel that their taking part in agricultural activities does not help enough in satisfying their family's needs. 40% feel their taking part in agricultural activity does satisfy their family's needs, while 14% feel that agriculture satisfies their family's needs to a degree. This means that their more people (54%) who derive positive results from undertaking agriculture than those who derive negative results (46%). It can be deduced that agricultural activity does benefit most farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council. Nonetheless it the 46% who are unsatisfied with what they derive from undertaking agricultural activity is a large number and this highlights the need for better efforts at ensuring better returns from agricultural activities. It becomes important therefore for allied disciplines to agriculture such as spatial planning evaluate what contribution they might be having to the plight of unsatisfactory returns from agricultural activity.

#### 6.1.4 Spatial Planning Information

**Table 6.1.4(a) Importance of spatial planning to farmers by village**

Is spatial planning important?	Village of respondent					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	No.	No.	%
Yes	9	32	9	32	18	64
No	3	11	2	7	5	18
To a Degree	0	0	2	7	2	7
I don't know	2	7	1	11	3	11
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.4 (a) shows that the total of 18% of the respondents finds that spatial planning is not an important part of their understanding how they should utilize their land and 71% of the respondents had a positive response, finding that spatial planning is an important aspect of their

agricultural activity. It is therefore of importance to see that the highest percentage of respondents seem to see the importance of spatial planning.

**Table 18 6.1.4(b) reasons for considering spatial planning as important in agricultural production**

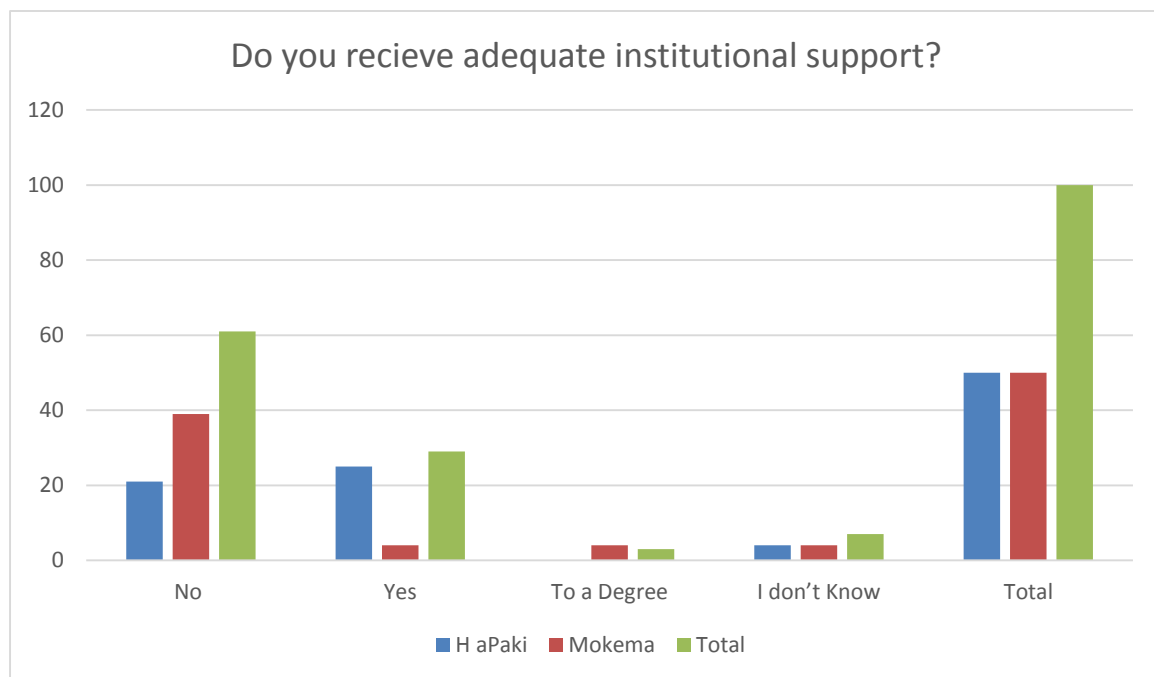
Reason for considering Spatial Planning as important in agricultural production	Village of respondent					
	Ha Paki		Mokema		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Increase production	3	15	4	20	7	35
Get essential services	2	10	1	5	3	15
Know how to use the land	1	5	1	5	2	10
To increase the land value	4	20	2	10	6	30
To know my land boundary	1	15	1	15	2	10
<b>Total</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

Table 6.1.4 (b) above shows the responses of the 20 farmers who found that spatial planning affects their agricultural activity positively. 35% of them feel spatial planning is important to them to help increase their production. 30% found that spatial planning was important to them as a tool to help them increase the value of their land. 10% found that spatial planning was valuable to them for two different reasons. The first 10% felt it would educate them on how to use their land and the second 10% thought it would assist them to know the exact boundaries of their land. 15% it would help them get essential services. The information in Tables 6.1.4 (a) and (b) shows that respondent mainly acknowledge practical benefits that are felt on an individual household level from spatial planning, this is because the positive responses show practical

reasoning for finding spatial planning important, these include; increased production, increased land value, access to essential services and knowing one’s land boundaries. The implication of this to spatial planning is that there is need to educate or show the farming community of the benefits of spatial planning, benefits which go far beyond the practical benefits which beneficiaries feel. There is need to highlight the power of collaborative effort in spatial planning to help them increase the production levels they are experiencing both at individual and collaborative levels as has been implemented in places such as Durban where plans were developed to highlight what areas of the city need most intervention in terms of preparing for the envisaged climate change (). This helped the development of approaches to deal with the problem. The issue of diminished benefit from agricultural production has already been highlighted in Mohlakeng and in other Community Councils in Maseru (as indicated Government of Lesotho 2012a) and the use of collaborative and strategic action can help come to a solution to the problem.

**Chart 6.1.4(c) Respondents village and their opinion of institutional support in agricultural activities**



Source: Collected field data

The results in Chart 6.1.4(c) show that the majority of respondents 61% from both villages said they were not happy with the support that they received while 29% indicated that they valued the importance of institutional support in their agricultural activities. On the other hand, 7% and 3% indicated that the support was enough to some extent and that they did not know respectively. This indicates that generally the people of Ha Paki an Mokema do not receive adequate institutional support from the institutions which should be helping them with extracting maximum benefit out of the agricultural land that they are occupying. The researcher can therefore deduce that spatial planning is not helping the farming community enough to extract maximum benefit out of their agricultural activity.

### 6.1.5 Future Intensions with the occupied land

**Table 6.1.5 Respondents' intension with their agricultural land and their responses to purchase offers**

Response to offer to purchase	Intent to continue with agriculture on the land parcel													
	Ha Paki						Mokema				Total			
	Yes		No		Total		Yes		No		Total		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	2	7	1	4	3	11	4	14	2	7	6	21	9	32
No	8	28	2	7	10	35	5	17	2	7	7	25	17	60
Rent	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	1	4	1	4
Don't Know	1	4	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	4
<b>Total</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Collected field data

The data in table 6.1.5 above shows the views of the farmers about their intentions to continue with agricultural activities or to sell the land to another interested individual. In response to this question, the results from both villages indicated that 32% wanted to sell the land and stop practising agriculture while 60% did not want to sell the land but continue with agricultural activities. However, there were two small groups of farmers (4%) who indicated that they wanted

to rent the land and those who did not know what they would do if faced with the dilemma. This information indicates that generally farmers in Ha Paki and Mokema have an attachment to the land they own, this even in the event of the prospects to make money. They prefer to continue using their land for agricultural production. This preference also highlights that the advent of lack of adequate institutional support as highlighted in Table 6.1.4(c) does not deter most of the residents of Ha Paki and Mokema from wanting to produce from the land they own, which most of them inherited from their forefathers as indicated in Table 6.1.3(a).

## **6.2 Data Presentation from interviews conducted with the Agriculturalists, Spatial Planners and Legal Practitioners<sup>23</sup>**

In discussions held with Agriculturalists, Spatial Planners and Legal Practitioners. It was discovered that there are emerging themes which come up as key issues to be considered in the discourse on spatial planning and its implications of agricultural development. These come up over and above those raised by the farming community in Ha Paki and Mokema.

### **6.2.1 Institutional Capacity**

As has been stated by the enumerated respondents in Ha Paki and Mokema, there is inadequate support from the departments responsible for spatial planning when it comes to encouraging agricultural production. Whether it is in the form of ensuring access to land or land titling or by providing advice to individual farmers on proper land use practices. Professor Ralitsoele, Director of Machobane Agricultural Development Foundation confirms this by citing also what he identified as the factors contributing to this lack of adequate institutional support.

“There is a tight distribution of resources in Lesotho on account of the fact that it is a poor country and as such some resources are not distributed adequately to some parts of the country and not at all to others. Rural areas usually see no visible signs of any form of spatial or land use planning. Peri-urban areas experience some form of planning and urban areas experience better interactions with spatial planning. The only interaction that seems to exist with regard to spatial planning and agriculture is on the level of technocrats where proposals are made in the different departments and comment is summoned from different stakeholders, so in the case of agricultural proposals, planners will just post questions or queries in sections relation to development control and not make any significant contributions to the content of the proposal.”

He highlights a general lack of resources, urban bias, and no coordination between all stakeholders as the main sources of the limited support for agricultural production initiatives

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<sup>23</sup>See Appendix 3 for the interview questions with Agriculturalists, Spatial Planners and Legal Practitioners.

from the spatial planning fraternity in Lesotho. This is supported by the comments made by Agriculturalists (Peo Ntho and Abisi Alotsi<sup>24</sup>) from the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security in an interview with the researcher. Their view is that there does not seem to be a strong interaction between the work they do on the ground in the field of animal science and the work of spatial planners. This they state is because their work has them based in the rural areas where spatial planning practices does not reach.

The experts in the field of agriculture practicing in Lesotho raise important issues that relate to how the practice of spatial planning interacts with agricultural development. The issues of limited national resources, urban bias and a lack of adequate coordination between spatial planners and agriculturalists merge with the issues described in Table 6.1.2(b) (which shows the factors farmers consider as important in selecting agricultural land) show that farmers in Ha Paki and Mokema and the experts in the field of agriculture consider the practical aspects of agricultural production as more important to them in advancing agricultural development than issues relating to land use development and economic characteristics/aspects of land.

This can be described as one of the issues compounding the limited strides being seen in the development of agriculture in Lesotho even with the investments being made by both the government of Lesotho and its development partners to promote agricultural production. IFAD as one of the funding organisations to Lesotho's agricultural development notes that there is poor ownership and coordination amongst the central and district-level institutions when implementing development projects (IFAD, 2014). This lack of coordination contributes to the problems being experienced by farmers in attempting to undertake agriculture.

Urban-bias can be described as the feature of Lesotho's spatial planning land scape. The Local government Act 1997 and the town and country planning act 1979 together bestow upon urban councils the power to come up with and implement development plans/layout plans which will

### **6.2.2 Laws and Political Support**

Lineo Mothae in here capacity as the Assistant physical planner for Mohlakeng Community Council proposes that sustainable practices in spatial planning is highly dependent on the support of political and traditional leadership. She highlighted that this support can prove to be more important than the back-up of the law in some situations. She highlighted an instance where residents in one of the community council knowingly disobeyed set by-laws that prohibit them from constructing houses in an areas reserved for forestry, the council then procured the support

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<sup>24</sup>These respondents were interviewed together at their request

of the traditional leadership to highlight to community members to refrain from that practice and the council has not heard any residents further develop the area.

What Mrs Mothae highlights is important because it exposes the problem that even when the law has been put in place the land use plan, sometimes residents disobey the laws set. She therefore highlights that one of the solutions is to instigate the help of traditional leadership. This brings in the importance of power and discourse planning as a planning tool, to help the planners exploit this opportunity. This means that planners need to be aware of the power dynamics in the areas where they work and be equipped to exploit the chance to implement forward thinking planning that does not necessarily depend on law to make it legitimate and implantable. Collaborative and strategic planning are also tools which can be useful. The use of the highlighted theories such as collaborative planning and strategic planning can be strong contributors to changing the situation of a lack of sustainable contribution to agricultural development where, planners can develop consultative spatial plans that have a strong collaborative element. This will bring together the efforts of the stakeholders so that one common goal is worked towards.

### **6.2.3 Unsupported Planning Practice**

The gazetted laws governing the dissemination of the spatial planning services can be said to be non-responsive to the work of planning. For instance, the Local Government Act 1997 requires that committees be formed within councils (Rural, Urban and Municipal). These committees are designed to be platforms on which different development issues are raised and dealt with. Committees on education deal with education issues, committees on land deal with land issues, committees on health deal with issues of health. These committees therefore have the power to develop their different proposals independently of each other and proceed to tabling these proposals to the district development committee. This brings a problem for spatial planning because the planners are not adequately involved in the process of plan development for the different council committees and yet those plans have direct implications on land use and land development. This then becomes a problem for land use development because the approval and changes to conceived of development plan are independent of the approval of planning expertise because even in the district planning unit, the planner is an ex-officio member and does not have the power to vote on the issues being discussed, his is only an advisory role.

This shows that planning practice is not supported by the laws of the country and this contributes to its dysfunction in terms of contributing adequately to agricultural development and agricultural development plans.

The official channels of service dissemination in Maseru are bypassed on account of lack of capacity. Institutions such as the Maseru District Development Coordinating Committee are

dissolved and bypassed and have the National Development Committee dealing with the issues faced in Maseru with regard to development. This is a good and cost saving strategy on paper but in practice there is a neglect of some of the important steps in the development dissemination process which should be taking place in Maseru but are not. The legal practitioners have highlighted a mismatch between the laws governing spatial planning and the practice of spatial planning. This is can be said to be one of the contributing factors the problem that has been investigated in this research that spatial planning contributing sustainably to agricultural development.

### **6.3 Conclusion**

In conclusion this chapter presented all the data collected from the field and analysed it. The conclusions reached in this analysis are that the farming community in Mohlakeng Community Council are fairly simple in their undertaking of agriculture and will prefer non-intensive and more traditional form of undertaking agriculture even in the face of accessible artificial fertilisers and other agricultural inputs that would intensify their production. This suggests that spatial planning efforts should be in knowledge of this so as to adequately plan for the development of this area. It also revealed that there is a mismatch between what planners do and how the law facilitates them to undertake that function. It was revealed also that there are other factors that affect adequate practice in spatial planning that the planning fraternity on its own cannot control; this includes issues related to the need for political will in plan implementation. The next chapter presents the general conclusions and recommendation of the study. It first presents the general deduction that can be reached in the considering information gathered by the study and then goes to stating the recommendations of the study.



## CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 7.0 Introduction

The previous chapter on data presentation, interpretation and analysis highlighted the information gathered from the field by the researcher. It presented what the enumerated respondents had to say about how of spatial planning affects agricultural development. This chapter is the ending chapter to this research. It presents the conclusions reached by the study and recommendations on how spatial planning practice can positively affect agricultural development in Mohlakeng Community Council and in Maseru District.

### 7.1 Summary of Findings

It was found that Mohlakeng farmers undertake a simplistic approach to farming. They have particular farming tendencies which make them unique in their farming activity. For instance: they utilise the same parcels of land for their farming activities, they are inclined to non-intensive farming (even in commercial farming), they occupy their land parcels over long periods and most are unwilling to part with the land they occupy, even with the prospect of making money. The study also discovered that generally farmers in Mohlakeng Community Council acquired their land through traditional allocation processes where the chiefs allocate their land parcels; this also applies to agricultural land. This is a result of the legal framework in Lesotho that allows persons in rural councils such as Mohlakeng to own and work on unregistered land parcels. Most of them choose to remain with their land unregistered because they do not see the value in registration. The issue of cost is one of the issues alienating the planner from society as people will avoid charges whenever there is an opportunity.

The study also found that spatial planning practice is incapacitated to deal adequately with its responsibility of helping advance agricultural development. This is because; the planners do not have enough resources at their disposal to do enough work to contribute substantially to agricultural development, there is not enough coordination between planning and the other stakeholders who should be working together to perform the work of advancing agricultural development, there is a mismatch between planning legislation and planning practice because of the fact that there are advances in practice but the law is not keeping up with the advances.

The study has found that Mohlakeng has agricultural resources including its agricultural labour force, its land and its strategic location (close to Maseru city) which can be used to facilitate its increased agricultural production. Another discrepancy with regard to spatial planning administration is that of the inability of spatial planning to leverage any benefit, agricultural or otherwise from the strategic location of Mohlakeng Community Council (in places such as Ha Paki

and other surrounding villages) to the hub of the Lesotho's economy which is Maseru City. The good agricultural land coupled with this strategic location of the area has the potential to assist the areas to start contributing more significantly to agricultural production in Maseru.

It was also seen that there is an encroachment of land in Mohlakeng Community Council by urban activity in Maseru. This is likely to have adverse effects on agricultural activity in Mohlakeng Community Council.

In terms of spatial planning, it was found that the farmers have some idea of the activities of spatial planning, although they seem to appreciate only the practical aspects of the process of spatial planning including its function of helping provide essential services such as water sewage and electricity connection. They seem not to know of other benefits to spatial planning including its potential to assist them in terms of appropriate and adequate places to position their farming activities such that they can extract maximum output from agricultural activity. They seem to be unaware of the potential output lost when there is ill communication between them and all the authorities responsible for assisting them with their agricultural activities.

## 7.2 Conclusions

It can be deduced from the investigations of this study and from a review of literature about spatial planning and agriculture in Lesotho that;

1. There is not enough of an interaction between spatial planning and agriculture for spatial planning to have a significant impact on agricultural development. In practice, the farming community seem to have some idea of what spatial planning is (mainly because of the recently completed regularization programme by the LAA, where some parts of the community were being awarded leases for free (Mobu News, 2012)) but most of them are still unaware of what spatial planning practice can do for them in improving their agricultural production
2. There is a need for the laws governing spatial planning to reflect the practice that is being taken in Lesotho because the issue of the mismatch that exist between the law and the practice is contributing to the inefficiency of spatial planning in Lesotho.

## 7.3 Recommendations

**The following were the recommendations for the study:**

1. The proposals of the Town and Country Planning Bill 2004 seem to suggest a shift from the rigid rationality based approach to planning to a more fluid and therefore more responsive planning approach which has the potential to be more responsive to

the need for spatial planning to take more of an active role in ensuring agricultural development. It is recommended by this study therefore that the Town and Country Planning Bill be put into action as law to repeal the Town and Country Planning Act 1979 which is in current use in 2015. This should assist to make the voice of planning within development discourse stronger.

2. There is a need to develop strategies to tailor spatial planning efforts in Mohlakeng Community Council to respond to the specific needs that the farmers there have. As has been established, the farming community does not understand the value that spatial planning can have on improving their production activities. Strategies such as Power and Discourse planning and strategic planning can assist planners to help farmers utilise spatial planning as one of the tools to improve agricultural production.
3. Future research into the issues surrounding agricultural development and spatial planning could look into what specific strides can be taken by spatial planning to ensure maximum output in farming. Seeing that places like Mohlakeng Community Council have been seen to have their own specific characteristics when it comes to agricultural production, it could mean there should be certain specific strides by spatial planning to capitalise on these characteristic and therefore improve and even maximise agricultural output.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: Informed Consent Form

*(To be read out by researcher before the beginning of the interview)*

This research aims to evaluate the implications of Spatial Planning on Agricultural Development in Lesotho, investigating the Case Studies of Ha Paki and Mokema Villages of Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru District. This questionnaire is to be answered by the respondents on a voluntary basis for assistance of the researcher (Seitebatso Mohlahatsa) in fulfilling the requirements for completion of a Master of Town and Regional Planning Degree with the University of KwaZulu Natal.

This exercise is designed to take no more than 30 Minutes. Respondents should be aware that there is no remuneration or personal benefit attached to participating in this research. Respondents must also be aware that they have the freedom to withdraw from participation in this research at any point if they feel it necessary to do so. The responses attained from the questionnaire will be used by Seitebatso Mohlahatsa for the purposes of this research and for no other reason. This information will be treated with great confidentiality and will be disposed of in due course to protect the interests of the respondents.

Should the respondents at any point have queries and or questions, the researcher or her supervisor can be contacted at the following contact details:

Call: +266 58142115, +27 878 2105

+27 031 260 1190

Email: mohlahatsas@yahoo.com

[Mchunuk@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:Mchunuk@ukzn.ac.za)

Department of Built Environment and development studies (UKZN), (Tel): +27 (0)31 260-1520

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Name of Respondent: .....

Signature of Respondent: .....

Date: .....

Interviewer must keep the signed copy and leave the unsigned copy with the respondent.

## Appendix 2: Ha Paki and Mokema Farmers Interview Schedule

### Demographic Information

1. Name of Respondent \_\_\_\_\_

2. Age of Respondent  15-29  30-45  45-60  Over 60

3. Sex of Respondent  M  F

4. Village Name \_\_\_\_\_

5. Farm Location

Same Village		Different Village within Council		Different village outside council	
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### Production Information

6. Total land for Production (*U sebelisa sebaka se sekae bakeng sa tlhahiso?*)

> 0.5 Ha	0.6 – 1 Ha	1-4 Ha	5-10 Ha	< 10Ha
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7. What category of farming are you? (*U hlahisaeng?*)

Animals	Poultry	Fruit Trees	Crops	Others
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8. What Method/intensity is your production? (*U hlahisa joang?*)

Organic Production	Collective Production	Factory/intensive Production	Other
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9. For what purpose do you undertake agriculture? (*U etsa eng ka tlhahiso ea hao?*)

Subsistence	Yes	No
Profit making Commercial	Yes	No
Cooperative	Yes	No
Support group	Yes	No



Other.....	Yes	No
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9a.If commercial or profit making corporative, where do you sell your produce? (*Ha eba ooa rekisa, o rekisetsa kae?*)

Friends and Colleges	Yes	No
Market or Spaza Shop within the Village	Yes	No
Local formal Shops	Yes	No
Market in Central Area	Yes	No
Market or Large Shop in Maseru	Yes	No
Other towns/areas in Lesotho	Yes	No
Outside Lesotho	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

10. How do you procure agricultural inputs?(*U fumana lisebelisuo a tsa temo joang?*)

Buy them Myself	Yes	No	
Myself and subsidised by Government	Yes	No	
Government subsidy	MLGC&PA	MAFS	No
Donor Subsidy	Yes	No	
Other.....	Yes	No	

11. Are you able to get the maximum benefit out of these naturally occurring agricultural inputs?

(*Na oo bone o fumana molemo o felletseng lithusa temong tsee?*)

Arable land	Yes	No	To a Degree
Graze lands	Yes	No	To a Degree
Rainfall	Yes	No	To a Degree
Weather	Yes	No	To a Degree
Other.....	Yes	No	To a Degree

12. How do you maintain sustained production? (*U etsa joang ho bona hore tlhahiso ea hao ha e qephe?*)

Intensive production of available land	Yes	No
Utilise large areas of land	Yes	No
Use fertilisers and manure	Yes	No
Rotational Planting	Yes	No
Procure other agricultural production aids (water, green house, hatchery, growth hormones)	Yes	No
Likoti	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

13. How do you contribute to ensuring environmental sustainability? (*U netefatsa joang hore tlhahiso ea hao ha e ame tikoloho hampe?*)

Rotational Planting and/or grazing	Yes	No
Engage in organic Agriculture	Yes	No
Create orchards to control evaporation	Yes	No
Dam and/rain irrigation	Yes	No
Likoti	Yes	No
Becoming creative with animal dung (Gas harvesting, fire energy )	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

**Land Occupation Information**

14. Who owns the piece of land on which you produce? (*ke mang monga sebaka se o hlahisetsang ho sona?*)

Self	Yes	No
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Relative	Yes	No
Non relative	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

15. Do they have title over the land? (*Na o na le litokomane tsa mobu oo?*)

Nothing	lease	Sub-lease	Form C	Chief/Council Member's letter	Other
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If Nothing why?

.....

15a. If leased or Sublet, how long did the process of acquisition of documentation take? (*e bile nako e kae ho fumana litokomane tsa mobu?*)

Long time	Short time	Reasonable time	I Don't Know
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16. For those with title, how long have they had the title? (*O bile le tokomane tsee nako e kae?*)

Never	> a month	> 6months	> 1 year	A few years (≥ 3)	Many yeas (< 3)
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17. How long have they occupied it? (*monga mobu oo e bile monga ona nako e kae?*)

1- 6 months	Yes	No
7-24 months (2 years)	Yes	No
25-48 months(4 years)	Yes	No
49-60 months (5 years)	Yes	No
61-120 months (10years)	Yes	No
More than 10 years	Yes	No

18. What method of procurement was used in acquiring this production land? (*Mobu oo o fumano e joang?*)

Bought	Yes	No
Rented	Ye	No

Shared Agriculture	Yes	No
Sublet	Yes	No
Borrowing	Yes	No
Given by chief or relative still alive	Yes	No
Inherited	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

19. At what intensity are you using the *land*? (*U sebelisa mobu haka?*)

Using the entire piece for intensive (Machinised production )	Yes	No
Using some parts for intensive production and other parts for non-intensive production	Yes	No
Using the entire piece for non-intensive production	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

20. How many previous owners have there been? (*Ke batho ba bakae ba kileng ba eba beng ba mobu oo?*)

1	2	3	4	≤ 5
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21. Are you able to utilise it as a legitimate security for procurement of asserts? (*Na o khona ho sebelisa mobu oo ele setsireletso ha o batla lits'ebeletso tsa mafapha a mmuso kappa mafapha a ikemetseng?*)

Yes

No

To a Degree

I Don't Know

22. Have there been variations in the land usage over time? (*Na mobuo o o kile oa sebelisetsoa litlhoko tse ling kante ho tsa temo?*)

Residential to Agricultural	Yes	No
Commercial to Agricultural	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

23. Have there been variations in agricultural intensity over time? (*Ho ea ka tsebo ea hao, na ho kile ha eba le liphapano tsa tlhahiso mobung oo?*)

Non intensive to Intensive	Yes	No
Intensive to Non Intensive	Yes	No
Other.....	yes	No

24. Are you able to satisfy your family's needs with what you produce? (*Na mobu oo o ofa chai e khotsofatsang litlhoko tsa lelapa la hao?*)

Yes	No	To a Degree	I Don't Know
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25. Have you been able to leverage any other benefit from your agricultural land apart from food production? (*Na o kile oa fumana molemo oo mong ntle le oa temo ho tsoa mobung oo?*)

Yes	No	To a Degree	I Don't Know
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### Spatial Planning Information

26. Do you as a farmer find it important to have formally planned localities? (*na o utloa ho le bohlokoa hob a le libaka tse ralueng?*)

Yes	No	To a Degree	I don't Know
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27. If yes and/or to a degree, why? (*Hobaneng?*)

.....

28. Do you find owning title to land a necessary part of your production activity? (*na o bona ekare ho bohlokoa hob a le litokomane tsa mobu?*)

Yes	No	To a Degree	I Don't Know
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29. What factors do you find as important in selecting land for agriculture? (*ke lintlha life tseo o bonang lile bohlokoa ha o khetha sebaka sa temo?*)

Value of Adjacent pieces of land	Yes	No
Soil Quality	Yes	No
Weather	Yes	No
Water availability	Yes	No

Forecasted speculated value of the land in later years	Yes	No
Price of the Land	Yes	No
Location	Yes	No
Availability of basic service (piped water, electricity etc.)	Yes	No
Centrality and proximity to major towns	Yes	No
Other.....	Yes	No

30. Generally, do you receive adequate institutional support from relevant stakeholders so that you understanding how to use your land to its maximum? *(na oo fumane ts'ehetso e lekaneng ho tsoa mafapheng a ntlafatso ho o thusa ho sebelisa mobu oa hao ka tsela tse nepahetseng?)*

Yes	No	To a Degree	I Don't Know
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**Future Intensions with the Land**

31. Are your intensions to continue using the land for agricultural purposes? *(Merero ea hao ka mobu oo ke ho tsoelapele o o sebelisetsa temo feela?)*

 Yes

 No

32. If an offer to purchase is to be placed, would you sell? *(Ha ho ka eba le motho e aka ratang ho reka mobu, oo a o karekisa?)*

 Yes

 No

 Rent

 Don't Know

## **Appendix 3: Interview Questions with Agriculturalists, Spatial Planners and Legal Practitioners**

### Interview with the Managing Director of Machobane Agricultural Development Foundation Lepoqo Ralits'oele (PhD)

- How in your view is the relationship between the farming community and spatial planning at community level?

### Interview with Mr Peo Ntho and Mr Abisi Alotsi of the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security

- As professionals who interact with farmers in your daily working experiences, how in your view is the relationship between the farming community and spatial planning at community level?

### Interview with the Chief Lands Officer Mr Remaketse Mochochoko, Lands Survey and Physical Planning Department at the Ministry of Local Government Chieftainship and Parliamentary Affairs

- What principles inform the practice of spatial planning practice in Lesotho?
- Is it an accurate assessment to say that Spatial Planning practice in Lesotho is reactive as opposed to proactive as an agent for driving planned localities and regions, promoting access to and title to land, ensuring promoting active sustainable development strides?

### Interview with the Assistant Physical Planner Lineo Mothae of the Mohlakeng Community Council in Maseru

- As the one of the agents for disseminating professional spatial planning services to the people of Mohlakeng Community Council, Do you feel local level spatial planning practice in Lesotho is mindful of its obligation to facilitating agricultural development?

### Interview with a legal professional practicing in the field of land law: Moroesi Tau-Thabane

- It has been alleged that planning practice in Lesotho is reactive as opposed to proactive as an agent for driving planned localities and regions, promoting access to and title to land, accurate indication and interpretation of the different land uses in the different areas. This has been attributed to the fact that planning Legislation only gives planners enough leverage to be advisory and are not legitimised to take certain necessary action which will assist in bringing about certain desired goals. Is this an accurate assessment in your view?

Interview with a legal professional practicing in the field of land/ land law: M.C Mokuoane

- Part of the argument raised in planning about its least effectiveness in performing its functions is the issue of legislation seemingly being unsupportive of the work that planning must undertake. Is this an accurate assessment?