

UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND



RESEARCH PROJECT

For the degree of

MASTER OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

In the field of

DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

With the title:

**THE ROLE OF SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE IN POVERTY REDUCTION IN
CEZWANA AREA**

JOZINI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY (KZ 272), SOUTH AFRICA

FACULTY OF ARTS

Candidate: Nhlanhla Douglas Simelane

Student Number: 201000985

Supervisor: Dr. E. M. Isike

Co-Supervisor(s): Dr. P. T. Sabela

Estimated Date of Submission:

DECEMBER 2016

DECLARATION

I acknowledge that I have read and understood the university's policies and rules applicable to postgraduate research, and I certify that I have, to the best of my knowledge and belief, complied with their requirements.

I declare that this research project, save for the supervisory guidance received, is the product of my own work and effort. I have, to the best of my knowledge and belief, acknowledged all sources of information in line with normal academic conventions.

I further certify that the research is original, and that the material submitted for examination has not been submitted, either in whole or in part, for a degree at this or any other university.

I have subjected this document to the university text-matching and/or similarity-checking procedures and I consider it to be free of any form of plagiarism.

Nhlanhla D. Simelane

December 2016

Signature: _____

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family that plays such an important role in my life and in particular our mother MaNtshakala Simelane, for encouraging me to fulfill my ambitions and achieve my goals. I dearly love and appreciate them.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank God for granting me the strength and energy to undertake this research study. I also thank my mentor Dr. E. M. Isike, supported by Dr. T. P. Sabela of the Department of Anthropology and Development Studies for their insightful supervision.

Secondly, I thank all the participants in this research project for allowing my presence in their work environment, and sharing their views with me.

Finally, I am grateful for the contribution and support of my mother Mrs. Zenzele “Daisy” Simelane and my sister Ms. Duduzile Simelane. I also acknowledge the substantial contributions of my colleagues Dumisani Mthiyane, Lazarus Nkuna and Clifford Mhlanyuka Duma.

The thesis was finalized based on the views of the study participants from the Department of Agriculture and small-scale farmers in Cezwana Area, Jozini Region in February 2015.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

DoA	Department of Agriculture
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
NCM	Nordic Council of Ministers
UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
FGT	Foster, Greer, and Thorbecke
HCR	Headcount Ratio
PG	Poverty Gap
SPG	Squared Poverty Gap
DESA	Department of Economic and Social Affairs
ANC	African National Congress
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
ISR	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa
URP	Urban Renewal Programme
NDP	National Development Plan

IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IMF	International Monetary Fund
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNCSD	United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development
FGD	Focus Group Discussions
MDIC	Maputaland Development and Information Center
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSI	Corporate Social Investment

ABSTRACT

Primary agriculture is an essential activity that ensures a supply of raw food material. This research study examined small-scale agricultural projects and their role in poverty reduction with particular reference to Cezwana area in Jozini, South Africa. Small-scale agriculture plays an important role in development in this area, not only in terms of income generation, but overall regional economic growth. The agricultural sector has significant potential to transform the Jozini economy. The study examined the possibilities for small-scale agricultural development in Cezwana area and drew on the relevant literature as a framework to understand the agricultural sector in relation to the strategies employed by the government to develop smallholder farms. While it is acknowledged that policies have been adopted to promote food security by ensuring a steady supply of raw food materials to the manufacturing sector, and to create jobs and income, the sector's potential has yet to be realized. In order to assess the status-quo of small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area and its effect on poverty reduction, data were obtained from Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited, Zamani Gardening, Isiqalosethu Gardening, and the Department of Agriculture (DoA) in Jozini Local Municipality. The study identified the major factors that constrain the development of small-scale farming and indeed the overall agricultural sector in Jozini such as the neglect of agriculture arising from dispersed zones, inadequate infrastructural facilities and extension services, a shortage of labour, a decline in the quality of land due to climate change, a lack of project management, and policy inconsistency, etc. It recommends the provision of supportive facilities to farmers, as well as transparent extension services, price stabilization and prioritizing and building small-scale agriculture to ensure that this sector takes its rightful place in South Africa's economy and contributes to poverty reduction.

Key words: Small-scale agriculture; Poverty

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	1
Dedication	2
Acknowledgements	3
List of acronyms and abbreviations	4
Abstract	6
Table of contents	7

CHAPTER ONE

POVERTY AND SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE PRACTICE IN JOZINI

1.1. Introduction	11
1.2. Problem statement	12
1.3. Aim of the study	12
1.4. Objectives of the study	12
1.5. Key research questions	13
1.6. Intended contribution to the body of knowledge	13
1.7. Feasibility	13
1.8. Intellectual property	13
1.9. Knowledge dissemination	14
1.10. Structure of the dissertation	14
1.11. Summary	14

CHAPTER TWO

SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE AND POVERTY REDUCTION

2.1.	Introduction	15
2.2.	The concept of poverty	15
2.3.	The poverty cycle	23
2.4.	Poverty reduction in South Africa	26
2.5.	Small-scale agriculture	32
2.6.	The role and importance of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction and as a means of livelihood	33
2.7.	Challenges experienced	37
2.8.	Theoretical framework	42
2.9.	Summary	47

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1.	Introduction	48
3.2.	Research design	48
3.3.	Research methodology	48
3.4.	Qualitative data collection methods	49
3.5.	Selection of participants	50
3.6.	Data analysis and interpretation	51

3.7. Ethical and safety issues	51
3.8. Reliability and validity of the study	51
3.9. Feasibility	51
3.10. Summary	51

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction	53
--------------------------------	-----------

Section A

4.2. Demographic information on small-scale farmers in Cezwana area	54
--	-----------

Section B

4.3. Nature of small-scale agricultural practice in Cezwana area	57
---	-----------

Section C

4.4. Role of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty in Cezwana area	59
---	-----------

Section D

4.5. Challenges experienced in small-scale agricultural practice in Cezwana area	62
---	-----------

Section E

4.6. Views of small-scale farmers on stakeholder participation in the projects	67
---	-----------

Section F

4.7. Role of government in small-scale agriculture practice in Cezwana area	70
--	-----------

4.8.	Summary of findings	72
------	---------------------------	----

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.	Introduction	73
5.2.	Summary	74
5.3.	Recommendations	77
5.4.	Limitations of the study	79
5.5.	Recommendations for further research	79
5.6.	Conclusion	79
REFERENCES		80
APPENDICES		93

CHAPTER ONE

POVERTY AND SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE PRACTICE IN JOZINI

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This study focused on the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty within the rural area of Cezwana in Jozini Local Municipality, South Africa. Cezwana area is situated in the south of Jozini town, under Ward four of Jozini Local Municipality. The ward has a population of 5 085, with an estimated 630 households (Jozini IDP, 2016). Jozini Local Municipality is located in northern KwaZulu-Natal, between the borders of Swaziland and Mozambique. This municipality covers 32% of the total area of 13 859 square kilometers of uMkhanyakude District Municipality (Jozini IDP, 2016:7). Like many rural areas in South Africa, many of its inhabitants live in poverty. A significant portion of Jozini has been neglected in terms of economic development (The Local Government Handbook of South Africa, 2012:1). Cezwana itself is characterized by a lack of development, poverty and poor service provision. The unemployment rate in this community stands at 44.10% (The Local Government Handbook of South Africa, 2012:1) and approximately 36% of the population earns no income (Jozini IDP, 2016:9). Economic constraints have thus led to challenges in developing the area.

Ironically, Jozini Local Municipality has significant development potential due to its geographic location. It has a comparative advantage in terms of its favourable location and the abundant natural features that offer potential tourism and agricultural opportunities (Jozini IDP, 2016:9). However, its favorable geographic location for agricultural practices has not been utilized as a catalyst for development. Agriculture is practiced in order to alleviate poverty. Compared to other Southern African countries, Mozambique and South Africa mainly practice agriculture as a means of livelihood. About 90% percent of rural households in the region are engaged in agriculture (Mucavele, 2009:3). This equates to 80% of the total number of poor people who depend on small-scale agriculture (Mucavele, 2009:3). The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTD) (2011) notes that the least developed countries (LDCs) are primarily agricultural economies with nearly 70% of the population engaged in agriculture (UNCTAD, 2011:1). Various studies have also shown that small-scale agriculture has been effective in ensuring development. For instance, in East Africa, small-scale agriculture accounts

for about 75% of agricultural production and employment, respectively (Salami et al., 2010:1). Small-scale agriculture can therefore play a role in poverty reduction.

The study assessed the role of small-scale agriculture in the development of Cezwana area. Various small-scale agricultural projects implemented in this area were investigated, including Zamani Gardening, Isiqalosethu Gardening and Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited. These agricultural projects engage in food cropping and mainly grow vegetables. For example, Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited is a crop nursery which germinates seeds and grows vegetable crops for sale to other farmers, while Zamani Gardening and Isiqalosethu Gardening specialize in growing crops on small plots of land and supplying the produce to consumers.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

As noted earlier, small-scale farming is a strategy to address poverty. Despite its favorable geographic location which is conducive for small-scale farming, the Cezwana area is characterized by high levels of poverty. The study therefore explored the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction within the community of Cezwana area in Jozini Local Municipality.

1.3. AIM OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study was to assess the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in Cezwana area, Jozini Local Municipality.

1.4. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study's objectives were as follows:

- 1) To identify small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana area
- 2) To explore the role of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty in Cezwana area
- 3) To explore the effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area
- 4) To identify the factors that militate against small-scale agriculture as a means of poverty reduction in spite of its potential in Cezwana

1.5. KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were formulated for this study:

- 1) What small-scale agriculture projects exist in Cezwana area?
- 2) What is the role of government in small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana area?
- 3) How effective are these projects in poverty reduction in Cezwana area?
- 4) What factors militate against small-scale agriculture as a means of poverty reduction in Cezwana?

1.6. INTENDED CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

The study highlights the importance of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction. It not only adds to existing knowledge on mechanisms to reduce poverty, but also offers innovative ideas that local government can use to promote poverty reduction in Jozini. Furthermore, the study provides information that could be employed to improve agricultural practices that enhance community development in the future.

1.7. FEASIBILITY

Several limitations were encountered in conducting this study. Firstly, some participants preferred to express themselves in their first language, isiZulu. This request was honored. However, translating from isiZulu to English might have resulted to some degree in the loss of essential meaning. The researcher made every effort to ensure meaningful data interpretation and the trustworthiness of the findings. Secondly, the budget allocated was inadequate due to economic constraints.

1.8. INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY

The researcher respected the rights of the research participants. The participants were not amenable to photographs being taken in the study areas and their intellectual property rights were respected.

1.9. KNOWLEDGE DISSEMINATION

I envisage submitting an article to an accredited journal on the following theme:

- * Strategies for improving the growth of small-scale agriculture in Jozini Local Municipality

I also intend to present conference papers on the topic, both locally and internationally.

1.10. STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter 2 presents a review of relevant literature that was used to construct a holistic conceptual framework for this study. It explores the various definitions of poverty and poverty reduction strategies; the role and importance of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction and as a means of livelihood; and finally, the challenges experienced in small-scale agricultural practice.

Chapter 3 provides an in-depth description of the research design and methodology adopted for this study.

Chapter 4 presents and analyzes the study's findings. The findings are based on the data collected from the participants and the relevant literature that supports the findings. It examines the role of small-scale agriculture projects in poverty reduction. The chapter presents demographic information on the small-scale farmers in Cezwana area, the nature of small-scale agricultural practice in this area, the role of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty in Cezwana area, challenges experienced, and the views of small-scale farmers on stakeholder participation in the projects.

Chapter 5 summarizes the results of the study and presents conclusions as well as recommendations for further research.

1.11. SUMMARY

The chapter outlined the problem statement, the study's aim and objectives, the key research questions, intended contribution to the body of knowledge, feasibility, intellectual property, knowledge dissemination, and the structure of the dissertation.

CHAPTER TWO

SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE AND POVERTY REDUCTION

2.1. INTRODUCTION

As noted in the previous chapter, this study investigated small-scale agriculture's contribution to poverty reduction. This chapter reviews the relevant literature on the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in addressing poverty. It begins by conceptualizing poverty and poverty reduction and goes on to define small-scale agriculture and the nature of small-scale agricultural practice. Various studies on the role and importance of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction are explored and the shortcomings of this type of agriculture's approach to poverty alleviation are presented. Theoretical framework is engaged towards the end of the chapter.

2.2. THE CONCEPT OF POVERTY

The term poverty is somewhat ambiguous and difficult to define. According to Mbuli (2008:14), poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon that has different meanings for different people, irrespective of whether or not it is examined within the same subject area. Most scholars argue that poverty should be understood in relation to particular social, cultural and historical contexts (Lister, 2004:12). Scholars like Kanwal (2014), Piana (2006), and Blau (2008) offer a social understanding of poverty based on material needs. They explain that poverty simply means a lack of the basic material resources required for human existence. According to Kanwal (2014:30), poverty is the state or condition in which a person or community lacks the financial resources and essentials to enjoy a minimum standard of living and well-being that is considered acceptable by society (Kanwal, 2014). Moore (2001:382) states that poverty is a situation in which poor people are denied basic things that people are normally expected to have. On the other hand, Piana (2006:12) contends that, poverty is a constraint on normal living and forced reduction in consumption due to insufficient income and inhospitable surrounding conditions.

While the various definitions are diverse, they all conceptualize poverty as a lack of material things. Oakley et al. (1991) conceptualize this concept beyond the lack of basic needs. They argue that poverty is not simply a lack of physical resources for development; it also implies powerlessness or the inability to influence the forces which shape one's livelihood (Oakley et al.,

1991:3). For them, poverty is structural because it is the result of deliberate exclusion of the poor from development programmes and projects (Oakley et al., 1991:3). Blau (2008) and Baker (2015) provide similar definitions of poverty. According to Blau (2008:162), poverty is associated with broader forces far beyond the control of the poor, such as economic trends, technology, financial institutions, the division of labor, political structures, infrastructure, health care, courts and the criminal justice system, the military, and much more (Blau, 2008). Kao (2010:74) maintains that poverty is a persistent problem that presents political, economic, ethical/moral, spiritual, and physical challenges to all nations at all times. According to Wekwete (1999:17), poverty is largely due to the denial of opportunities and choices. The United Nations (1998) as cited in Baker (2015:352) postulates that poverty is the inability to enjoy choices and opportunities and is thus a violation of human dignity. The poor lack the capacity to participate effectively in society. Poverty results in insecurity, powerlessness and the exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It implies susceptibility to violence and often results in people living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation (Baker, 2015). Wekwete (1999:18) notes that poverty is a complex and structural phenomenon, which evades the wisdom of economic models. Furthermore, it has a strong spatial manifestation and occurs in places and among people, rather than in sectors. Therefore, poverty covers a variety of dimensions which are material and structural.

Nonetheless, the experience of poverty is personal, amorphous, and multidimensional. As a normative social concept, poverty can be applied to a vast array of conditions and circumstances, varying tremendously across time and place (Blau, 2008:162). Moreover, the concept covers a broad range of human conditions from developed to less-developed societies (Blau, 2008:162). Therefore, different forms of poverty exist, including case poverty, community poverty, absolute poverty and relative poverty.

2.2.1. Forms of poverty

Case poverty is a form of poverty that is mainly present in rich societies. There is no single definition of this type of poverty. Magezi (2007:44) states that case poverty is poverty that is found in affluent societies, where individuals in a family suffer and where some people do not share in the general well-being of society. Galbraith (1998) and Thomas (2009) provide a

different definition and maintain that “case poverty is the poor farm family with the junk-filled yard and the dirty children playing in the bare dirt. Or it is the gray-black hovel beside the railroad tracks. Or it is the basement dwelling in the alley. Case poverty is commonly and properly related to some characteristic of the individuals so affiliated” (Galbraith, 1998:236; Thomas, 2009:297). On the other hand, De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) note that “it occurs where certain individuals or families do not share in the well-being of society” (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:2). In this case, individuals and families are surrounded by prosperity but are unable to access basic needs. This leads to feelings of hopelessness and helplessness with little opportunity for future progress because the focus is on day-to-day survival (Larson and Larson, 2008:n.p). The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2011:77) adds that this situation creates challenges in alleviating poverty among young people.

Community poverty is the opposite of case poverty. It refers to a situation where almost all the people are poor and those that are more affluent are very visible to those living close to them; this situation is common in rural areas (Magezi, 2007:44). De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:2) state that community poverty erodes formal and informal social networks. It is not only characterized by high rates of unemployment, low-skilled jobs, and children or single parent headed household, but also by the withdrawal of government and private businesses and organizations, contributing to high levels of residential instability (McLloyd, 2005:114). Therefore community poverty results in a lack of competitive resources that individuals and households in communities need to develop.

Absolute poverty occurs when people have insufficient resources to satisfy their basic needs (Nordic Council of Ministers (NCM), 2010:59). People living below a specified minimum level of real income are said to experience absolute poverty (NCM, 2010:59). According to D’Silva and Bysouth (1992:8), absolute poverty is defined as the inability to obtain the minimum necessities for survival. These include clothing, food and shelter. Similarly, Walsh et al. (2000:114) state that absolute poverty occurs when people just meet or fall below the fulfillment of universal basic needs (notably water, food, clothing and shelter). According to the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS) (1999:81), absolute poverty is human deprivation in its extreme and most obvious form. It refers to a lack, or deficient supply, of the basic necessities of human life, such as food, safe drinking water, housing, clothing, and health

care. The UNCHS (1999:81) adds that people that live in absolute poverty suffer from chronic malnutrition; they live in squalor, are poorly clothed, lack access to health care and educational facilities; and live short lives and many die in infancy and childhood. Most rural communities in Africa are plagued by absolute poverty. However, this form of poverty has spread to urban areas on the continent due to rising poverty and inequality (UNCHS, 1999:81). Therefore, the concept of absolute poverty tends to identify those people who are literally starving. In addition, “families who live in absolute poverty tend to focus on day-to-day survival” (Jensen, 2010:7).

Relative poverty is less intense than absolute poverty. It implies not being able to afford the standard of living considered acceptable by the majority of people (Moore, 2001:382). It is also the inability to attain a given, minimum contemporary standard of living (D’Silva & Bysouth, 1992). However, the concept of relative poverty recognizes that items considered to be a necessity in one country may well be a luxury in another (D’Silva & Bysouth, 1992). Scholars like Magezi (2007:44) and Swanepoel and De Beer (2012:3) agree that relative poverty refers to people whose basic needs are met, but who still experience some disadvantages regarding their social environment. In other words, while managing to survive, some people are materially disadvantaged when compared to others living in the same community or society (Swanepoel & De Beer, 2012:3). The Women’s Health Council (2003:9) notes that people experience relative poverty when they are powerless to participate in society and have minimal access to resources and opportunities that are the norm for other people in that society. Simply put, relative poverty occurs when a person has none of things that other people may have at the time. That is, it is a state of human suffering which results from the inability of a person or group of persons to meet the needs that other people in society have come to take for granted (UNCHS 1999:81).

Relative poverty thus does not necessarily mean the absence of basic survival needs but rather the absence of additional needs which others are able to access as a result of insufficient income. Jensen (2010:7) notes that “relative poverty refers to the economic status of a family whose income is insufficient to meet its society’s average standard of living”. According to the UNCHS (1999), relative poverty is a societal problem which intensifies as the income gap between the ‘haves’ and ‘have-nots’ increases. This problem exists in all societies, but is most significant in urbanized situations in Africa where the contrast between rich and poor is very apparent (UNCHS, 1999:81). It is clear therefore, that relative poverty occurs when people live below the

generally accepted standard of living in a particular society, even though universal basic needs are usually met (Walsh et al., 2000:115). Intuitively speaking, relative poverty is closely related to inequality, in that what it means to be poor reflects the prevailing living conditions of the whole population. However, this relationship can only be established in countries where comparative data is available. It is thus not surprising to find that the analysis of poverty often employs indicators of equality (Mbuli, 2008:16). The concept of relative poverty identifies those that are the poorest within the overall pattern of income distribution in a given country.

2.2.2. Rural and Urban Poverty

Poverty has also been geographically classified into rural and urban poverty. Rural poverty refers to poverty in rural areas (Chen & Zhou, 2005). Poverty in such areas is characterized by limitations in enhancing the rural economy and rural political systems. For instance, most of the economic opportunities in such areas relate to agriculture. Wekwete (1999) links rural poverty to access to land for agriculture. It is inversely related to both the size of the land-holding and the value of the physical asset holding (Ahmed, 1987:186-187). Therefore, rural poverty is often discussed in conjunction with spatial inequality, which refers to inequality between rural and urban areas. However, the definition of rural poverty is also related to a lack of public services and a shortage of human resources within a rural community. Jensen (2010:7) observes that rural poverty occurs in non-metropolitan areas with populations below 50 000. It is therefore associated with the suffering of people in rural areas that arises from the limitations of their rural setting.

Urban poverty is different from rural poverty in that, firstly, its location or site differs. Chen and Zhou (2005) state that urban poverty occurs in cities. O'Connor (2004) defines urban poverty as poverty in cities, which is distinguished by its suburban concentration, conspicuousness, cause, and its racial and ethnic composition. Due to the geographical difference, the nature of poverty in urban areas differs from that in rural areas. Jensen (2010:6) suggests that the urban poor deal with a complex aggregate of chronic and acute stressors (including crowding, violence, and noise) and are dependent on often-inadequate large-city services. Wekwete (1999: 4) observes that the most vivid picture of urban poverty is therefore sprawling slums and spontaneous housing areas that lack basic services and suffer from environmental degradation. In terms of

such degradation, urban poverty is situational. Jensen (2010:7) defines situational poverty as poverty that is generally caused by a sudden crisis or loss and is often temporary. Such events include environmental disasters, divorce, or severe health problems (Jensen, 2010). These social or economic events abruptly produce poverty. Urban environmental degradation implies limited opportunities to eradicate poverty through agriculture. Wekwete (1999) notes that urban poverty is linked to a lack of opportunities for non-farming activities, and is thus traditionally associated with poor living conditions and a lack of regular employment (Wekwete, 1999:4). Urban poverty is thus linked to the dynamics of urban areas. Therefore, urban poverty is better understood when it is characterized. It is characterized by bottlenecks and limited access to necessities. Low-income households are likely to suffer from a lack of services and be socially excluded (Wekwete, 1999:4).

2.2.3. Measuring Poverty

Different techniques are used to measure poverty. Palmer and Rahman (2002:6) describe an indicator as “a statistic (or set of statistics) that quantifies something”. This section focuses on the three most commonly used poverty measures of the so-called FGT class (Foster, Greer, & Thorbecke, 1984), namely the headcount ratio (HCR), the poverty gap (PG), and the squared poverty gap (SPG).

2.2.3.1. Poverty Headcount Ratio (HCR)

In the headcount ratio method, poverty is measured by the share of population which is poor, i.e., the proportion of the population for whom consumption or income is less than the poverty line, a level of income that defines the state of poverty. Units, that is, individuals or households, with an income below the poverty line are considered poor (Betti & Lemmi, 2013). The HCR measures the size (n) of poor people (q) in a population. Thus the head index can be defined as:

$$\text{HCR} = \frac{q}{n}$$

This HCR measures cases or community poverty in an area. Its interpretation may show inequalities at the various levels of living. The popularity of this indicator is due to its ease of

construction and interpretation. It assumes that all poor units are in the same situation (Betti & Lemmi, 2013).

2.2.3.2. Poverty Gap (PG)

This indicator shows the average shortfall of the poor units. It indicates how much would have to be transferred to the poor to bring their expenditure up to the poverty line (Betti & Lemmi, 2013). The poverty gap provides an in-depth analysis of the context in which the units are distanced from the poverty line, with the poor lacking full economic participation. The PG indicator therefore measures relative poverty in the population, with deficit analysis used to benchmark the resources that would be required to lift all the poor out of poverty. It is defined as follows:

$$PG = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left(\frac{z - y_i}{z} \right)$$

where y_i is the income of the individual i , and the sum is taken only on those individuals who are poor (in practice, household rather than individual income, but individual income can still be defined as being equal, say, to the per capita income of the household). The poverty gap is equal to the product of the income gap ratio and the headcount index of the poverty indicator. The income gap ratio is defined as follows:

$$PG = I * H, \text{ with}$$

$$I = \frac{z - y_q}{z} \text{ where } y_q = \frac{1}{q} \sum_{i=1}^q y_i \text{ is the average income of the poor.}$$

It should be emphasized that the income gap ratio I alone is not a good measure of poverty. Households or individuals who are regarded as poor may be close to the poverty line but might improve their standard of living over time, and therefore be engaged in poverty reduction activities. As the result, their income gap ratio will decrease because the mean distance separating them from the poverty line may be reduced. Again, the income gap ratio I will increase and the poverty gap PG will increase, because the headcount index of poverty will

increase, suggesting an increase in the poor population in the area of study and / or if there is no improvement, while the poverty gap is defined over the population as a whole. It is clear that the PG is a useful indicator for gathering statistics to assess the level of resources that would be required to rede poverty through enhanced economic activities targeted at the population of an area.

2.2.3.3. Squared Poverty Gap (SPG)

This poverty indicator measures the severity of, or whether absolute poverty exists in an area. The SPG takes into square the distance separating the poor from the poverty line. The poverty gap is weighted by itself, so as to give more weight to the very poor. Intuitively speaking, the SPG takes into account inequality among the poor units. It is obtained as follows:

$$P2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left(\frac{z - y_i}{n} \right)^2$$

As noted earlier, the HCR, PG and SPG are the first three of the FGT class of poverty measures. The general formula for this class of poverty measures depends on a parameter α which takes a value of zero for the HCR, one for the PG, and two for the SPG in the following expression:

$$P\alpha = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left(\frac{z - y_i}{n} \right)^\alpha$$

These poverty measures reflect that poverty is caused by low or no income available for household consumption. A poor household (where no one earns income) tends to depend on remittances from government which does little to motivate most of these units (people) to escape the poverty trap. They tend to engage in low income activities, yielding an income that does not cater for their daily needs and wants. It is thus clear that lower incomes trap the poor in a cycle of poverty. However, the levels of operation of the FGT method to measure poverty depend on the empirical, cumulative distribution of income values in an area (Betti & Lemmi, 2013). The income distribution function is therefore an important source of information on living conditions in an area. In particular, many issues of interest in poverty assessment (including income crises), can be computed from an estimate of this distribution function. It follows that estimation of the

cumulative distribution function of income within an area is an important aspect of poverty analysis for that area (Betti & Lemmi, 2013).

This study focused on poverty in the absence of potential incomes. Betti and Lemmi (2013) note that traditional monetary-based poverty indicators accompanied by estimates of the cumulative distribution functions of the income variable of interest allow for more detailed analysis of poverty (Betti & Lemmi, 2013). This suggests that poverty indicators need to be integrated so as to avoid isolating the major causes of poverty from poverty reduction strategies. Betti and Lemmi (2013) note that, since poverty is often relative, the set of indicators used to characterize it should be enlarged to include other indicators for vulnerable groups, i.e. those likely to enter into a state of poverty. This led to a three-tier structure for the application of poverty indicators across states, namely, primary indicators, secondary indicators, and tertiary indicators. Palmer and Rahman (2002) note that primary indicators include a number of indicators covering broad areas of social exclusion. The secondary indicators support the lead indicators and describe other dimensions of the problem. On the other hand, tertiary indicators aim to reflect the specific concerns of individual states (Palmer & Rahman, 2002:2). Palmer and Rahman (2002) add that these indicators help to measure and monitor changes over time, and to monitor differences between different groups in the population. They note that poverty indicators are important because the prevalence of poverty is neither predictable nor controllable (Palmer & Rahman, 2002). Studies that use the FGTs can come up with many different strategies to reduce poverty. These are discussed in this chapter.

2.3. THE POVERTY CYCLE

As noted above, measures of poverty are based on the hypothesis that poor individuals and households lack basic income. The ‘poverty cycle’ refers to a situation where families move in and out of periods of poor economic well-being (Smeeding et al., 1990:77). These units, i.e. individuals and households, may remain in this cycle for long periods of time and find it very difficult to escape (The Economic Times, 2015). Farah (2011) defines the poverty cycle as a phenomenon where poor families become trapped in poverty over generations. Because they have no access to critical resources such as education and financial services, subsequent generations are also impoverished in one way or another (Farah, 2011:247). Jensen (2010) and

Doob (2015) note that the poverty cycle occurs in families where at least two generations have been born into poverty and are not equipped with the tools to move out of their situation (Jensen, 2010:7). Doob (2015) adds that this is a circular process in which a set of interrelated primary institutions lock individuals and families into a low-income condition. Relative poverty is transmitted from one generation to another, making escape from deprivation very difficult (Doob, 2015:368). Carr (1997) and Waugh (2000) suggest that, in the vast majority of cases the poverty dilemma arises from the way in which the economic system operates in a capitalist society. However, the cycle of poverty does not only constitute economic deprivation, but people surviving on low or nonproductive assets. Certain occupational groups earn low incomes which make for a low standard of living, including poor housing (since they cannot afford any better) (Carr, 1999:172). Therefore, low levels of investment may produce stresses and strains in the household and poor health amongst household members. The educational and other prospects of younger members of these families are also affected (Carr, 1999). Thus, the poor suffer low levels of economic participation and have access to few or no productive means, resulting in poverty, physical weakness, isolation, vulnerability and powerlessness. Chambers (1983:112) in Mphahlele (n.d) identifies the interlocking “clusters of disadvantage” that characterize the lives of the rural poor in developing countries. Each of these disadvantages serves to reinforce and aggravate the others; the overall effect is to “trap the poor in deprivation” (Chambers, 1983:112).

The first cluster of disadvantage; poverty, involves households’ material status and resources. Chambers (1983:112) in Mphahlele (n.d) notes that these include the assets endowments, livelihood strategies, housing conditions, and access to services typical of South Africa’s rural poor. During the apartheid era, Black people were forced to live in poverty while the white minority had the opportunity to better their lives (Mphahlele, n.d). However, all people should be treated equally, be given the opportunity to develop their families and be equipped with skills for better jobs. According to Chambers (1983) in Mphahlele (n.d), people, knowledge and skills combined with a strong value system are the key to freedom from poverty.

Poverty among poor households is both a cause and an effect of the second cluster of disadvantage, physical weakness. Rural households experience frequent bouts of illness, typically caused by poor nutrition and sanitation (Mphahlele, n.d). Infant and child mortality rates are often higher than in urban areas because of difficulties in accessing clinics or other

health care facilities (Mphahlele, n.d). The weaknesses of poor households also affect food production and income generation. Members of households that experience food shortages are often unemployed, either as a result of retrenchment, or due to a lack of suitable skills and poor education. Self-employment therefore becomes an important option (Mphahlele, n.d). Agricultural practices are one strategy for people to become self-employed and generate income to alleviate poverty.

The third cluster of disadvantage is isolation (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:12). Rural households are often located far from economic hubs, i.e. cities. With heavy workloads and limited resources at their disposal, rural household members are rarely able to travel (Mphahlele, n.d). Many do not have access to government officials from the health, agriculture or other departments (Mphahlele, n.d). Rural households' isolation makes it difficult to access information that could be used to alleviate poverty. Mphahlele (n.d) notes that this situation is exacerbated by low levels of formal education and literacy. The isolation of the poor goes hand in hand with their physical weakness; able-bodied men and women migrate to towns or better-off rural areas (De Beer & Swanepoel, 2000:12). South Africa's democratic government seeks to address this challenge by focusing on rural areas for development and creating job opportunities (Mphahlele, n.d). The focus on agriculture is the primary pillar of rural development and poverty alleviation strategies.

The fourth cluster of disadvantage, vulnerability, is comprised of multiple facets. An issue that is of most relevance in the South African context is vulnerability to seasonal fluctuations (Mphahlele, n.d). The agricultural cycle in rural areas entails increased workloads during periods of peak activity and decreased income and food security, leading to poor nutrition and poor health, during the lean months. The most high risk period is the wet season, when demand for labour is high, food supplies are low, and illness is more common (Mphahlele, n.d). Reliance on agriculture also renders rural households highly vulnerable to seasonal failure, when inadequate or excessive rain damages or destroys crops (Wilkins, 1998, in Mphahlele, n.d).

The final cluster of disadvantage is the least tangible but arguably the most significant of the five (Mphahlele, n.d). De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:13) call this cluster "powerlessness". "Those who have power are the ones having better opportunities like clean water, sanitation, health facilities and money for survival" (Mphahlele, n.d). According to Mphahlele (n.d), the poor

should be given opportunities to improve their standard of living. Community workers should lead the process of development and bring change to communities. Citizens should be able to participate fully in their own development so that they take charge of change (Mphahlele, n.d).

The strength of these linkages varies but poverty is the strong determinant of the others. Poverty contributes to physical weakness through a lack of food; to isolation because of a lack of money to travel to seek employment and pay for necessities; to vulnerability through the lack of assets; and to powerlessness through a lack of wealth (Chambers, 1983:112), in Mphahlele (n.d).

Thus, the various conceptualizations of poverty concur that it is mainly associated with having no income, basic needs and capability. In essence, poverty refers to different forms of deprivation of income and/or basic needs and/or human capabilities (Mbuli, 2008:22). In addition, poverty is a relatively broad concept denoting a lack of basic elements of the quality of life, including food, drinking water, clothing, and shelter. More broadly, poverty may also refer to the absence of “intangibles”, such as the lack of opportunities to pursue meaningful employment, to engage in learning endeavors, and to enjoy social and community relationships (Kao, 2010:74). Thus, poverty broadly refers to a lack of means to satisfy a person’s basic needs and other essentials of life. Such needs may be defined narrowly as those necessary for survival or more broadly as determined by the prevailing standard of living in the community (Soundarapandian, 2005:4). Interestingly, poverty is an outcome, a bottleneck which can be corrected by inducing growth in one sector or another to absorb excess labour. Poverty is also viewed as temporary, curable, and able to be addressed through ad-hoc planning and programmes (Wekwete, 1999:18). Therefore, in order to tackle poverty, there is a need to understand the effect of doing so in various areas of development. One way is poverty eradication.

2.4. POVERTY REDUCTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

As a concept, poverty reduction complements development strategies. It is different from the concept of poverty eradication. Eradicating poverty implies that a state “destroys or gets rid of it”, while alleviation makes it “less severe” (Hornby, 1948:495 & 37). Poverty eradication is achieved by positioning the poor in a conducive environment. According to Maconick (2002:70), poverty eradication is the end result of a process leading to sustainable and optimized rates of

economic growth; equitable geographical distribution of economic activity; and a socio-economic structure in which the lowest strata of society possess incomes that enable them not only to purchase the basic necessities of life, but to gain easy access to adequate health and education services, pure water supplies, and affordable housing. The World Social Summit described poverty eradication as an ethical, social, political and economic imperative of humankind and called on governments to address the root causes of poverty, provide for basic needs for all and ensure that the poor have access to productive resources, including credit, education and training (Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) n.d). Poverty eradication has traditionally been difficult to achieve because the poor are trapped in a poverty cycle.

On the other hand, poverty alleviation is a short term attempt to put economic fundamentals in place that are part and parcel of a development process to solve a development problem (Wekwete, 1999). Such a process is referred to as poverty reduction. The UNCHS (1998:16) argues that poverty reduction involves improving the livelihoods of the majority of urban residents which has implications for governance, economic management of cities, the participation of the poor and resource management. Wekwete (1999) defines poverty reduction as actions to create opportunities and choices. According to Wekwete (1999:20), poverty reduction calls for a significant expansion of economic and social horizons, in particular, addressing the challenges of the urban economy (the formal/ informal sector) and environment. Wekwete emphasizes that “poverty reduction is a tremendous challenge that no country, developed or developing has yet overcome. Poverty is increasing as the new global order consolidates structural inequalities” (UNCHS, 1998:19-20).

Since 1994, the African National Congress (ANC)-led South African government has implemented country-wide strategies to overcome poverty. These include the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994); the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy (1996); Integrated Sustainable Rural Development (ISRDP) (2000); the Urban Renewal Programme (URP) (2001); the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA) (2006), and the NDP (2013) among others. The RDP (1994) sought to achieve socio-economic growth and the satisfaction of basic needs, while at the same time addressing the legacy of injustice. It emphasized ‘people-centred’, ‘integrated’ and ‘sustainable’ development

that is democratic and participatory. The programme thus aimed to achieve the socio-economic transformation of South African society. The RDP set socio-economic targets and five goals to achieve such transformation: a strong, dynamic and balanced economy in order to eliminate poverty and meet the basic needs of every South African; developing the human resource capacity of all South Africans; eradicating racial or gender discrimination in hiring, promotion or training; developing a prosperous, balanced regional economy in Southern Africa; and democratizing the state and society. The RDP was expected to engineer growth through increased public expenditure on social service provision (Chikulo, 2003). Major emphasis was placed on social infrastructure and development programmes that address poverty and inequality. However, as a development policy the RDP suffered a number of shortcomings. Chikulo (2003) identified four shortcomings: it resembled a 'wish list' more than a strategy document focusing on opportunities and constraints; made no attempt to set priorities or to assign responsibility for the implementation of each programme component; lacked mechanisms for inter-departmental coordination; and finally, local government, which has been assigned constitutional responsibility for promoting socio-economic development, did not have adequate planning and implementation capacity.

The GEAR strategy (1996) was designed to achieve high rates of economic growth, expand the private sector, improve output and employment, achieve fiscal reform and encourage trade and investment. It was premised on the notion that redistribution and an improvement in basic living conditions would result from revitalized economic performance. GEAR assumed that the expansion of the private sector would have a substantial impact on the economy, whilst the role of the state would largely be a facilitative one (Chikulo, 2003). The government facilitated economic growth and the expansion of the private sector, and undertook to reduce state spending and the budget deficit; reduce corporate taxes and relax foreign exchange controls. While GEAR helped to ensure macro-economic stability and thereby enhanced the government's international status, yielded tangible macro-stabilization achievements and enhanced policy legitimacy, it did little to address the internal problems of skyrocketing unemployment and limited economic growth. In short, it did not live up to the government's expectations. A significant number of the populace live in greater poverty than before, and an ever-increasing percentage are unable to afford and/or access basic needs. While the level of poverty and inequality in South Africa is one of the major legacies of apartheid, the GEAR package of policies yielded disappointing

economic performance. GDP growth has remained low, formal employment continues to fall and the key objectives of poverty reduction and improved service delivery remain largely unattained – income redistribution, poverty alleviation and increased employment have not been achieved (Chikulo, 2003). While a great deal has been done to address the apartheid backlog of demands, the need remains acute. The most pressing problem facing South Africa today is the lack of sustained economic growth and job creation, which are essential to reduce poverty and improve socio-economic conditions (Chikulo, 2003).

The ISRD strategy (2000) was announced by the former President of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, during his State of the Nation Address in 1999. It sought to create flexible strategies to address rural development. The ISRD was based on the integration and co-ordination of efforts at local government level; enhancing rural development through multi-dimensional plans, including improved rural services provision and enhanced local economic development; sustaining rural economic growth through local participation and ownership; and ensuring growth in rural areas and rural safety nets in an integrated pedagogy (Obadire et al., 2013). One of the challenges experienced in the implementation of the programme is the seemingly substantial disconnect between the ideas and approaches set out in strategy documents and the ISRD programme (Phuhlisani, 2009:29). Thus the strategies adopted have proved highly elusive in practice.

Phuhlisani (2009:27) notes that the ISRD is haunted by a number of constraints, including the manner in which the line ministries that funded the programmes within the nodal areas operate and the way they took responsibility for implementing them. District councils did not have the mandate to co-ordinate the initiatives of the various ministries. This meant that, from the perspective of local communities, resources rained down randomly from above (Phuhlisani, 2009). The ISRD has not worked in the rural and urban nodes with the largest concentrations of poverty in South Africa. It estimated that these nodes are home to more than 10 million people (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008). These are areas of severe neglect, where poverty is endemic. A range of problems have beset ISRD public investment programmes. Development projects in South Africa are often characterized by poor co-ordination and consultation, weak participation, poor data and planning, weak institutional and regulatory mechanisms, slow delivery and weak sustainability (Phuhlisani, 2009).

Successful implementation of the ISRD programme relies on the involvement of all stakeholders. At national level, fourteen Ministers have been assigned by Cabinet to work with their provincial and local counterparts to provide political leadership for the programme (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008). The programme has shown some success in promoting small-scale farming activity, infrastructure investment and support services; electrification, jobs, land reform projects (where households gain access to land), and socio-economic upliftment (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008). The strategy has thus had positive effects in terms of poverty reduction. Phuhlisani (2009) notes that the ISRD set out to integrate rural and urban areas and promote comprehensive regional development, not necessarily through the relocation or decentralization of industry as was attempted in the past, but by strengthening rural-urban linkages. In addition, the ISRD strategy does not concentrate on a single node for development, but integrates strategies for regional economic growth and human development. All the types of poverty have been minimized through this strategy. Other development strategies aim to achieve poverty eradication.

The AsgiSA (2006) also aimed to accelerate economic growth in South Africa (Reitzes, 2009:14). It set out a range of interventions, including infrastructure investment, sector strategies, education and skills development, eliminating the second economy, strengthening macro-economic policies and governance, and institutional interventions (Reitzes, 2009:14). “Much of [our] hopes for poverty alleviation are currently based on AsgiSA, which is focused on a major expansion in public investment, including in labour-intensive areas. How it achieves this is crucial for determining the net employment effects of the programme” (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008:39). However, there are hindrances to achieving growth in South Africa. The social costs of unemployment, poverty and crime are so high that it is unlikely that AsgiSA will achieve its targets readily unless significant poverty reduction occurs in parallel with efforts to improve the economy. Furthermore, poverty elimination cannot be postponed until more sustainable economic growth has been achieved (Friedman & Bhengu, 2008:39). Friedman and Bhengu (2008:39) conclude that “we need to bite the bullet sooner rather than later”.

The NDP (2013) strategy announced for the upliftment of future economic and socioeconomic development strategy for the country. The strategic perspective of the NDP offers a long-term vision for the country (until 2030) (Zarenda, 2013:3). According to Zarenda (2013:13), South Africa’s National Development Plan (NDP) has become the cornerstone of government’s policy

in increasing employment, reducing poverty and inequality, and improving living standards for the bulk of the population. Zarenda adds that NDP has critical and important implications for the various regional economic communities in southern Africa at present and aims to ensure that all South Africans attain standard of living through the elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality (Zarenda, 2013:1). Government at central, provincial and local levels has the most important ingredient in the NDP that relates to the commitment of government to engage with all sectors of society, incorporating the private sector which, in the opinion of the NDP, has a major role to play in helping to achieve the objectives of poverty reduction, economic growth, economic transformation and job creation (Zarenda, 2013). Other NDP programmes include credible consultation processes, prioritizing funding in line with development aspirations, coordinating donors, and strengthening capacities to implement projects and programmes (Zarenda, 2013:9). Key issues into achieving stipulated targets of the NDP have already debated. Zarenda (2013) suggests that a laudable target rests with the implementation, monitoring and capabilities of the key players in attempting to achieve the core aspects of the NDP vision. Therefore, regressive implications need to be overcome before are poverty dilemmas of the nation building.

To summarize, it is clear that “the broad elements of the government’s poverty reduction strategy include policies geared to achieve a more equitable distribution especially against the effects of macro-economic changes; human resource development; and improved infrastructural facilities” (UNCHS, 1999:90). However, poverty persists. This is mainly due to the past racist policies of the apartheid government. Most Black South Africans live in rural areas and are poor. Mbuli (2008:175) notes that about 70% of the poor live in rural areas that are characterized by a lack of, inter alia, access (or roads), resources and technology. He adds that poverty is concentrated among the Black population, particularly women and children (Mbuli, 2008). This is largely attributed to the fact that this group of people does not have adequate entitlement to productive assets, such as arable land and advanced skills. There is a strong correlation between unemployment and poverty, especially among those with low levels of education. This group of people does not have adequate skills to fill the jobs currently being created in the economy; hence South Africa is said to be experiencing structural unemployment (Mbuli, 2008:175). Chikulo (2003) suggests that unemployment is one of the major contributors to individual and household poverty.

Poverty eradication has not been achieved in South Africa since the demise of apartheid. Post-1994 attempts to reduce poverty have met with limited success. The evidence suggests that the prevalence of poverty in South Africa ranges from 45 to 57% (Mbuli, 2008:175). Poverty exists in both urban and rural areas and many lack access to resources and technology. Therefore, government's poverty reduction strategies need to be growth-oriented. Intuitively speaking, poverty reduction requires universal access to economic opportunities that will promote sustainable livelihoods through employment generation (UNCHS, 1999:90). Flowing from this, this study assessed the role of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction. The following section focuses on small-scale agriculture, its role and importance in poverty reduction and as a means of livelihood, and the challenges experienced.

2.5. SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE

There are various definitions of small-scale agriculture. Wiggins (2009:4) defines it as a process that involves farmers with considerable knowledge of agriculture, cultivating small plots effectively. Earles (2015:1) states that small-scale agriculture is a natural outgrowth of sustainable agriculture which essentially involves the production of food without depleting the earth's resources or degrading the environment. Agriculture follows the principles of nature to develop systems to raise crops and livestock that are, like nature, self-sustaining (Earles, 2015). On the other hand, Kutya (2012:1) defines small-scale agriculture as farming on family pieces of land, traditional land and smallholdings on the periphery of urban areas. The size of the farm plots is also taken into consideration by some scholars. For instance, Kutya (2012) notes that for whatever purposes, small-scale agriculture is practiced on a small plot of land and takes the form of fruit and vegetable gardens and animal rearing.

Wiggins (2009) defines small-scale agriculture as a practice where farmers possess traditional knowhow to produce food, while Earles (2015) and Kutya (2012) define it as the practice in which environmental sustenance is employed to make food timeously available. This type of agricultural practice is usually characterized by intensive labour and in most cases, animal traction, limited use of agrochemicals and supply to local or surrounding markets. In this regard, small-scale agriculture is usually described as backward and non-productive subsistence

agriculture that is found in parts of the former homeland areas of South Africa (Kirsten & Van Zyl, 1998)

While there are various small-scale agricultural practices, they share common characteristics. Firstly, small-scale agriculture is mainly practiced by vulnerable groups. Kutya (2012:1) explains that it is usually practiced at local level by groups of individual household members, particularly women and the elderly for income generation and food security. Thus, producers depend on family labour and family resources to maintain production and livelihoods. Furthermore, small-scale agriculture is mainly carried out by low-income groups who engage primarily in farming, and often focus on subsistence or a mixture of subsistence and cash crops. Small-scale farmers have limited skills and education, and often have little alternative but to engage in seasonal agricultural practice. Small-scale farmers are largely responsible for providing self-service for subsistence production. Against this background, Wiggins (2009:4) notes that small-scale agriculture involves farmers with considerable knowledge of agriculture that are able to cultivate small plots effectively.

Thus, small-scale agriculture involves crop production by groups of farmers with traditional knowhow on a small plot of land that compete solely on the basis of low prices. These farmers do not use advanced and expensive technologies. Although small in size, small-scale agriculture has contributed to poverty reduction in many ways. These are discussed in the following section.

2.6. THE ROLE AND IMPORTANCE OF SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE IN POVERTY REDUCTION AND AS A MEANS OF LIVELIHOOD

Small-scale agriculture practice reduces poverty in many ways. Msangi (2014:155) notes that small-scale agricultural producers contribute to poverty reduction, the emancipation of neglected and marginalized groups and the reduction of spatial and socio-economic inequalities. Like any developing country, small-scale agriculture in South Africa has long been a strategy for poverty reduction through ensuring food security; creating employment; stimulating rural development, and as means of sustainable development. These perspectives are discussed below.

2.6.1. Ensuring food security

Food security can be achieved through small-scale agricultural practice. Food security is defined as access by all people at all times to the food required for a healthy life (Von Braun, 1992:6). The World Food Summit stated that, “food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.” This requires that food is available locally and that people have the means to acquire it, either by growing food or purchasing it, throughout the year (UNCTAD, 2011:1). Food security is a very important factor in ensuring people’s development. Groenewald (2014:1) argues that small-scale agriculture’s potential to eradicate hunger, reduce rural poverty and improve global food security has been downplayed. Msangi (2014:155) concurs that small-scale agricultural producers contribute to food security and nutrition. In enabling food security, such agriculture improves the living standards of the poor who engage in this practice. More often than not, small-scale agricultural producers produce for subsistence. The World Bank (2008) and International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2013:11) add that small-scale farming can potentially impact human nutrition by providing a variety of foods in sufficient quantities, to enable all household members to have a nutritionally adequate diet. Thus, small-scale agriculture effectively contributes to a country’s food security by feeding the rural masses (Msangi, 2014).

2.6.2. Creating employment

Small-scale agricultural practice can contribute to poverty reduction through creating jobs (IFAD, 2013:11; World Bank, 2008). Hazell et al. (2007: VII) observe that job creation through the hiring of additional labour during peak periods and increased returns on the poor’s assets can result from small-scale farming. Thapa (2011:1) argues that smallholder farmers often remain in agriculture due to the lack of employment opportunities in rural non-farm activities or urban areas and a lack of the skills required to enter other occupations. Msangi (2014:155) explains that small-scale agriculture not only provides jobs, but enables households to generate income through the sale of surplus produce. In this regard, it plays the dual role of being a source of household income from the sale of surplus as well a means of livelihood / employment for the

poor who are unemployed. Hanekom (1998:3) agrees that small farm production indirectly creates employment which results in income flows to low-income rural dwellers.

The majority of the poor who benefit from this practice are unskilled and unemployed. Grewal et al. (2012:49) note that small-scale farming provides employment to the poor, who generally have low skills and education, as well as supporting the growth of non-agricultural employment in rural areas. Moreover, women who have traditionally played a major role in agriculture are further empowered and are less marginalized by the development of conventional capital-intensive agriculture (Mertineit et al., 2008:15). Therefore, small-scale agricultural practice can potentially provide jobs for not just the poor but those who are unskilled and vulnerable like women.

2.6.3. Stimulating rural development

There is no doubt that small-scale farming contributes to rural development. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) (2014:37) notes that small-scale agriculture creates opportunities for economic participation in rural areas. Many underestimate the contribution of small-scale agriculture to regional growth and poverty reduction. It is assumed that commercial agricultural practices are the only contributors to economic development and regional growth. According to Kerr & Kolavalli (1999: IV), growth in agricultural productivity can stimulate broader growth in the non-farm rural economy which in turn can contribute to poverty alleviation. Small-scale agriculture thus enhances local economic development. Coupled with farmers' increased participation in commercial agriculture through effective agrarian and land reform, an increase in small-scale agriculture can lead to the transformation of the rural economy through the development of a rural agro-industry and private sector (Mucavele, 2009:11). Therefore, agriculture stimulates capital investment that links small-scale farmers to markets and access to loans, thus offering households pathways to escape the debt trap. It also enables them to own their livelihood development and to make ends meet. Therefore, for a family, farming offers a level of self-sufficiency that could reduce dependence on fluctuating market prices and create space for other economic activities (Mertineit et al., 2008:13). Thus, small-scale agriculture is an important mechanism to drive rural development and growth. Irz et al. (2001:455) note that such agricultural production has a positive effect on the rural economy through a series of linkages.

For instance, increased small-scale agricultural output may generate increased tax revenue, enabling greater public investment in infrastructure, and stimulating demand, leading to the growth of this sector (Irz et al., 2001). According to Mugera and Karfakis (2013:2), smallholders positively contribute to the rural economy as a whole by influencing expenditure patterns among the local population. Consequently, small-scale agriculture provides a livelihood foundation for the rural economy.

Small-scale farming also contributes to a country's productivity. Hazell et al. (2007:7) observe that the growth of small-scale agriculture at national level can facilitate development by enabling the sustained transfer of resources from agriculture to the rest of the economy, including supplying capital to other sectors (Irz et al., 2001:456). Therefore, small-scale agriculture boosts a country's productivity and output.

2.6.4. A means of sustainable development

Small-scale agriculture has also been linked to sustainable development. Sustainable development refers to the notion that economic growth and consumption should be planned in order to minimize ecological impacts (Peacock, 2008:4). Thus, agricultural practices should, to some extent, be environmentally friendly. According to Taylor (2012:1), small-scale agriculture is better for the environment due to vested interests in looking after the land. The United Nations' Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) 2013 Report notes that small-scale farming has environmental benefits. One such benefit is that, small farms grow a range of different crops which enables farmers to exploit the different environmental niches that exist on their land. Crop diversity often helps them to survive under the most difficult conditions (Kenya, 2007). The mix of plants, trees and animals used by small-scale farmers helps to sustain local ecosystems, and appropriate small-scale farming practices can both protect and rejuvenate the environment. The more viable the small-scale farms are economically, the more incentive there is for farmers to preserve those ecosystems (OCHA, 2013). They trigger the ecological functions of diverse ecosystems (such as balanced predation, pollination, nutrient cycling, degradation of toxic compounds, carbon sequestration) that are today recognized as central in sustainable food production (Melvani, 2010).

Simplified small-scale agriculture practice offers opportunities to protect the environment while enhancing food production in natural landscapes (Melvani, 2010). Eckerberg and Nilson (2013:120) note that small-scale agricultural production tends to preserve the cultural landscape and provide environmental services, and is thus conservative. A conservative agriculturalist might operate in the same environment for as long it remains conducive, treating that land at minimal cost (through crop cycling), and make it attractive (Eckerberg & Nilson, 2013:120).

It is therefore noted that small-scale agriculture is more than an important farming practice, as it secures ecological conservation while providing farmers with a means of livelihood and contributing to poverty reduction. However, this sector also confronts a number of challenges.

2.7. CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED

This section explores the various challenges that confront small-scale agriculture. These include farmers' lack of participation in agricultural credit and input programmes; poor governance and access to land; a lack of information on agricultural development; poor financing, infrastructure and facilities; climate change and land degradation.

2.7.1. Farmers' lack of participation in agricultural credit and input programmes

According to De Boef et al. (2013:310), it is important that farmers participate in the development of laws, regulations, policies and programmes for the simple reason that they are key actors in the agricultural sector. Small-scale farmers' views and perceptions should be taken into account in decision making and implementation of policies and programmes that target this sector. However, small-scale farmers are generally excluded from participation in development policies. The "majority of the disadvantaged farmers [are] not part of the mainstream agriculture and practice subsistence agriculture in overcrowded, semi-arid areas in the former homelands" (Sebopetji, 2008). Their interests are neglected and they have become passive recipients of aid (Mertineit et al., 2008:14). Furthermore, small farmers are increasingly disadvantaged in relation to bigger farmers (Oakley et al., 1991:31).

The majority of rural people, and small-scale farmers and women in particular, are not included in development activities because they lack the economic base from which to intervene. Women farmers are especially vulnerable as the market is dominated by male farmers (Hue et al.,

2005:77). Therefore, in order to include these farmers in development there is a need to develop a base to intervene actively in local development processes (Oakley et al., 1991). Farmers at all levels should be empowered to participate in their development programmes. In this respect, broad, sweeping commitments to processes such as “participation” need to understand the powerful contextual barriers which perpetuate people’s isolation or lack of involvement in development (Oakley et al., 1991:3). Involvement in both the preparation and implementation of development programmes is a major issue (Petit et al., 2015:134). Thus, one of the challenges that militate against the practice of small-scale agriculture is farmers’ lack of involvement in the formulation of development policies.

2.7.2. Poor governance and access to land

Access to land is a major challenge in the practice of small-scale agriculture. An associated factor is the extent to which households use marginal land and have limited opportunities to access available land. The IFAD (2012:1) notes that in rural societies, the poorest people often have weak or unprotected tenure rights. This makes them vulnerable because there is the potential risk of losing their land to more powerful individuals (IFAD, 2012). Women are particularly vulnerable because their land rights may be obtained through kinship relationships with men or through marriage (IFAD, 2012). For instance, in Zambia, cultural dictates prevent women who predominantly practice small-scale agriculture from owning land or receiving the first gifts of the land from their parents or mothers’ brothers (Celis et al., 1991:134). Female farmers do not hold title to the land and thus cannot seek credit to buy farm implements and property that could be used as security for future loans. Furthermore, farmers without title have no incentive to develop the land they use which is usually rented. They also have no incentive to erect physical infrastructure, such as dams, dipping tanks, and fences, or to upgrade their property by replanting trees to make contour ridges. These improvements require heavy capital investment, which can only be financed with loans that require titled land. Consequently, commercial farmers who possess title deeds have an advantage over small-scale farmers (Celis et al., 1991:134-135).

The gap between legality – whereby the government may formally own much if not all the land – and legitimacy – whereby local people feel that the land they have used for generations is theirs

– exposes local groups to the risk of dispossession and investors to that of local contestation (Liversage & Jonckheere, 2014:4). Land deals are seldom transparent and this creates opportunities for corruption. In situations where the government and the customary authorities have the power to allocate collective land, the absence of clearly defined land rights, a lack of transparency in land allocation transactions and arbitrary decisions may harm local communities and hamper economic development (Liversage & Jonckheere, 2014:4). These shortcomings need to be addressed in order to ensure that small-scale farmers have access to land.

2.7.3. Poor financing

The unreliability of institutional grants to farmers hinders small-scale agriculture practice from achieving significant poverty reduction. Small-scale farms are often entirely self-financed enterprises. State support is unavailable; indeed, the entire agricultural sector has gradually been deprived of almost all forms of state subsidies (Juhasz, 1994:20). This creates many difficulties and may result in the bankruptcy of many cooperatives. There is also the sensitive issue of on-going cooperative reform that will significantly impact relations between cooperative members (Juhasz, 1994).

Most African countries spend around 3% of their budget on agriculture, which is disproportionate to the size of the sector in terms of employment and economic activity (UNCTAD, 2011:1). According to Alila and Atieno (2006:8), the lack of finance for agriculture limits productivity and investment in value adding activities in this sector. Lack of access to credit especially among small-scale farmers and women in particular, has limited the range of activities; the type of technology used and the scale of operations are not productive (Alila & Atieno, 2006). While the agricultural sector employs a large number of people, in many countries, the lack of access to formal financial services has hindered an increase in small-scale agricultural productivity. The rural productive sector and small agricultural enterprises are thus exposed to market failure (Grewal et al., 2012:44). Bah et al.'s (2003) case study in Mali, Nigeria and Tanzania shows that, with the possible exception of Baguineda in central Mali, the small-scale farming sector is negatively affected by limited access to credit.

The lack of such services also perpetuates the shortage of productive inputs. Nafziger (2012:238) notes that small-scale farmers achieve lower productivity per hectare, and tend to adopt

technological innovations more slowly, possibly as a result of lack of access to credit or extension services or risk-averse behavior. Without access to funds and technical support, many farmers continue to “grow what they know” and therefore remain in a cycle of un-strategic and unproductive farming practices that often result in market failure (Kamal, 2013:1). Furthermore, small-scale farmers struggle to keep up with high-volume demand for goods, and to keep records for auditing and complying with international standards for food production (Kamal, 2013). Therefore, finance is vital for both productivity and poverty reduction amongst farmers. This could be achieved by engaging government and formal financial institutions to support small-scale agriculture.

2.7.4. Poor infrastructure and facilities

Poor infrastructure and facilities is a major challenge which negatively affects small-scale agricultural development. Dilapidated roads, improper handling, poor storage facilities and wastage result in fluctuations in both production and income (Alila & Atieno, 2006). According to Alila and Atieno (2006:5), poor marketing facilities and institutions are some of the constraints to increased agricultural production. Poor marketing channels and insufficient storage facilities often hamper the sale of produce outside the region and limit crop production (Nafziger, 2012:246). This is due to the fact that most of the crops are perishable and are also exposed to pests, sun, rain, etc.

Another challenge is the cost of transportation due to the poor condition of roads. Most rural areas are characterized by bad roads and poor transportation facilities. This makes it difficult for small-scale farmers to transport their goods to markets. Masuku (2013:20) indicates that the lack of access to markets is due to poor infrastructure that prevents access to both labour and capital. This means that small-scale farmers operating within this environment may not be easily reached by customers, or updated about new marketing trends. Infrastructural support is required by small-scale farmers in order to increase their level of productivity and growth (Ellis & Biggs, 2001:440).

2.7.5. Climate change and land degradation

The changing climate and extreme weather conditions have affected the land on which small-scale agriculture depends. The least-developed countries are responsible for more than 70% of greenhouse gas emissions (UNCTAD, 2011:1). The impacts of climate change, i.e. increased occurrence and magnitude of natural disasters such as droughts and floods, pose serious challenges to sustainable agriculture and rural development (United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD), 2014:4). Small-scale agricultural practice is dependent on climate and weather patterns. The droughts, flooding and extreme temperatures caused by climate change adversely affect crop production.

According to Awulachew et al. (2006:102), the increased occurrence of droughts is one of the root causes of food insecurity. A number of climatic shocks have exposed the poor to malnutrition, hunger, food insecurity and in some cases migration. All these issues affect agricultural practice and thus food security and poverty levels. As Charles et al. (2010:814) note, “they keep the practice of small-scale agriculture in unsuitable areas quite challenging, and in some cases farmers have to grow crops at the expense of the environment.” These coping mechanisms compromise the environment and hamper sustainable rural development. Watson (2008:5) notes that, “environmental shortcomings that affect agricultural practices are associated with poor socioeconomic conditions”. This leads to a vicious cycle, where poor farmers deforest marginal lands, adding to environmental degradation (Watson, 2005). Lack of water is a crucial constraint to agricultural productivity and growth. This could be due to increased population pressure, poverty, drought, erosion, water scarcity, floods and land depletion. Moreover, inappropriate land-use practices and overgrazing trigger soil erosion, contributing a high sediment load to river tributaries and hydroelectric dams (IFAD, 2013:8). The soil suffers physical, chemical and biological degradation. Some agricultural activities contribute to these negative effects.

Soil erosion, that reduces land productivity and increases degradation, thus exacerbates poverty among those that are dependent on nature for their livelihoods. Montanarella (2013:1) notes that soil degradation and destruction are caused by competition between the different forms of land

use. Therefore, new strategies that promote sustainable land use are required to address poverty in rural communities.

2.8. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Udahemuka (2013:36), intervention is required when there is a humanitarian crisis; underdevelopment itself came to be considered as requiring intervention response. That is a set of customized and specialized undertaking needed to tackle poverty crisis. There comes the idea of social development projects (in light of small-scale agriculture projects) as the framework designed and implemented to undertaking to solve the identified problems. In line with the present research and depending on the way the projects are planned and implemented and especially the role played by the beneficiaries of the project, two distinct types of interventions are identified namely the top-down (or blueprint) and the bottom-up interventions of social development theory. The study, therefore, is grounded on the social development theory. It can be argued that social development theory derived from multiple interactions connected to community development activities. Pawar and Cox (2010), argue that social development practice evolutionary leads to theoretical persuasions in harmony with politico-historical situations, and not vice versa. To Pawar and Cox (2010:206), social development encompasses a commitment to individual well-being and volunteerism, and the opportunity for citizens to determine their own needs and to influence decisions which affect them. This social development process incorporates public concerns in developing social policy and economic initiatives. Pawar and Cox (2010) argue that social development is an approach to uplifting societal-human conditions, and is a result of a continuous knowledge based on social practice. Pawar and Cox further elaborate that social development has evolved as a Western approach to “develop” the so-called Third World referred to as developing nations (Pawar and Cox, 2010:207). Social development theory elicits undertaking of material results of development with the strategies that have proven most effective for achieving those results.

In exploring community development, scholars have identified the top-down and bottom-up models of social development theory which underlie the dominant practice in addressing the poverty dilemma. Pawar and Cox (2010:205) suggest that the two models characterized by centralized and decentralized location of power represent only the ends of a spectrum within the developmental process.

The discussion dwells on the principles and implication, and strengths and weaknesses of each of the top-down and bottom-up models in the community development in particular South Africa.

2.8.1. Top-down model

2.8.1.1. Principles and implication

According to Larrison (1999:68), the top-down model is a philosophical and practiced history, predating the bottom-up model. The top-down model implies the use of professional leadership provided by external resources that plan, implement, and evaluate development programs (Larrison, 1999). The top-down model typically focuses on improvising professional leadership to the development process coupled with supportive concrete services (Larrison, 1999:68). To Larrison (1999:68), top-down model involves the process of residents following the external leadership and accessing the services offered by the program, changes within community residents' perceptions, behaviors and ultimately their standard of living are believed to occur. Pawar and Cox (2010:211) suggest that, social development activity is not confined to centralized, authoritarian dictatorial regimes wallowing in traditional or modern bureaucracies. It is essentially an elitist structure designed to govern the masses in an authoritarian state (Pawar and Cox, 2010:209).

2.8.1.1.1. Strengths of top-down model

The strength of the top-down model justifies its high inclination by donors, Non-Government Organizations (NGOs), government agencies and other development practitioners. A proper analysis of the same leads to the conclusion that this approach facilitates the work of the government departments (Udahemuka, 2013).

First, the strengths of the top-down approach are its consistency, its links to historic references and economic frameworks, equilibrating prices and qualities and quantities, and its data availability. Data availability is an especially crucial issue for economic development modelling in developing countries (Urban, 2014:65). Second, adopting a top-down approach saves time as the planners, implementers and donors have nearly full control of the whole process. The task being in the hands of the restricted professionals; with no or very limited consultation and participation of the beneficiaries and other stakeholders, it is more likely that the planning and

implementation would be straight forward. Moreover, the implementation follows a standard or blueprint that can be replicated for there is not much is done to adjust to the local context. This facilitates the work of planners and implementers (Udahemuka, 2013:37). Third, for the particular cases whereby the technologies involved in the interventions are beyond the reach of the local knowledge, beneficiaries (locals) have the same implemented without them having to struggle to understand the technology (Udahemuka, 2013:37).

2.8.1.1.2. Weaknesses of top-down model

It can be argued that the aforementioned strengths – centred on facilitating the work of the planners, implementers and donors – are outweighed by the weaknesses that are centred on the high probability of failing to adjust to local realities (Udahemuka, 2013:37).

First, top-down approach is not realistic for developing countries because market behavior is only a limited driver of energy consumption and production frontiers are less clearly defined than in industrialized countries (Urban, 2014:65). Second, top-down models externalize major structural changes such as lifestyles, urbanization in developing countries and technological changes (Urban, 2014:65). Third, it follows that less relevant interventions will fail to win the buy in by the beneficiaries, hence leading to low ownership (Udahemuka, 2013:38). Forth, low ownership can only result into low usage and short-lived outcomes and hence the issue of sustainability (Udahemuka, 2013:38). Fifth, with little knowledge of local realities, it is possible to implement solutions that are in competition with the preexisting local solutions and hence fueling resistance and conflict and exacerbating the very underdevelopment that was meant to fight (Udahemuka, 2013:38).

Briefly, the above are among others issues associated with applying top-down solutions to local problems; tempting “technical solutions to every problem” as if “one size-fits-all”. The critics against top-down approach may lead one to think that it is no longer an approach in use. However, the reality is that the competing alternative namely the bottom-up approach, discussed in the following section, while overwhelmingly praised in the academic literature, its actual application is rather complex. This may be the reason of the survival of the top-down approaches (Udahemuka, 2013:38).

2.8.2. Bottom-up model

2.8.2.1. Principles and implication

The bottom-up model to development is posited in the opposites in regard to governmentality, its force, ideology and possible outcomes (Pawar and Cox, 2010:209). According to Escandón (2010), bottom-up approach implies creating development around social action, locality development, and empowerment approaches. To Larrison (1999), development and empowerment strategies at bottom-up approach consist of comprehensive community participation, motivation among local communities, learning opportunities, improved access to local resources, replication of human development, increasing communication and interchange, and localizing financial access.

The bottom-up model within structured social development activities enables for consultation among the development programme beneficiaries to uplift each other's capability to perform their economic activities at the grassroots. The means of addressing poverty dilemma at the grassroots societies weighed against their involvement in the development progress, and the seldom participants get empowered hence these societies share the mode and models of a development programme, as organizations.

With the lenses of the present research, participation is conceptualized as a tool to enhance effectiveness; understood in the sense of implementing the 'right' interventions. That is when the target groups; through participation, manage to give orientation to the project design and implementation in such a way they achieve the best match of project services with their needs, opportunities and constraints. The focus on project effectiveness owes to the fact that the present research is more concerned with the outcome of the project planning phase namely the interventions or project services (Udahemuka, 2013:41).

In community wide, the bottom-up development approaches disclose development programme participants to improve learned opportunities and ideas which are necessary foundations to accomplishing the stated and implied objectives of a development programme. The bottom-up approach consists what Escandón (2010) called people gathering. It sustains relationships created, and, experiences shared, and a sense of belonging developed. It brings people together

who may have little awareness that their neighbors share their problem (Escandón, 2010). These [may] involve individuals and groups in various communities adopting strategies to reduce poverty crisis. So, too, people involved in community agriculture projects empower those who are poor and marginalized within, from accessing of the necessities to develop themselves.

2.8.2.1.1. Strengths of bottom-up model

According to Udahemuka (2013:39), participation is the common denominator of bottom-up approaches. Urban (2014:65) suggests another strength of the bottom-up models, noting that are useful mainly because the bottom-up approach is independent of market behavior and production frontiers and because technologies are explicitly modelled. The bottom-up approach is dominant in the enabled participatory environments.

2.8.2.1.2. Weaknesses of bottom-up model

The weaknesses of bottom-up models are that main drivers remain exogenous such as demand, technology change and resources. Also, quality does not matter (Urban, 2013:65). Bottom-up approaches are vulnerable to productive assets and increasing yields due to limited accessing to resources necessary for development.

To sum up, the models of social development theory have become euphemisms for a host of agendas that suit international agencies, foundations, governments and organizations. This follows that their target populations share the mode and models of organizations (Pawar and Cox, 2010). It has proven that when top and bottom-up models used to structure community development programs, share a common set of stated and implied goals. These goals [could] achieved through enabled participation empowerment and consultations among societies engage in small-scale activities and development agencies. Among these goals include changing community residents' perceptions to improve their standard of living; creating community-oriented behaviors that are based upon the changes in community residents' perceptions, and improving the standard of living among a majority of community residents (Larrison, 1999). It is also known that programs using the bottom-up model feature creating partnerships between community residents and professionals who provide technical support rather than leadership. For programs using the top-down model, this process is about community residents allowing

professionals to provide leadership and services that support an externally created development plan, into grassroots development activities (Larrison, 1999:69).

2.9. SUMMARY

The chapter reviewed the literature on the meaning of poverty; and discussed poverty reduction, small-scale agriculture, its contribution to poverty reduction, and the challenges faced by this kind of agriculture, and the theoretical framework. It noted that poverty reduction has been closely linked to small-scale agricultural practice. However, the review showed that poverty might not be eradicated but rather reduced among individuals.

It was also noted that poverty has social, cultural and historical dimensions. The literature shows that small-scale agriculture reduces poverty and offers opportunities to generate income, ensure food security, trigger economic development and promote sustainable development. The challenges faced by small-scale agriculture include farmers' lack of participation in agricultural credit and input programmes, poor governance and access to land, poor financing, infrastructure and facilities, climate change and land degradation.

The social development theory provided a directory emancipatory knowledge about how top-down and bottom-up models creating a nuanced understanding of the undertaking of small-scale farming to poverty reduction. In this view, farmers are capable of contributing poverty reduction. The main concern is that farming is not the only key for development; it is business as usual in communities. In effect the agriculture communities sustain labor, economic and business opportunities. If this view is correct, it means that policies to break poverty cycle have not been sufficient; are misguided.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research design and methodology used in this study. It discusses the research methods, the research design, research methodology, selection of the participants, data analysis, ethical and safety issues, resources, feasibility, and intellectual property.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

The study adopted a qualitative approach. This enabled methodological flexibility to provide a nuanced understanding of the role of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in the study area. According to Ngwenya (2010:69), in qualitative research, the researcher seeks to understand the various processes and the social and cultural context of behavioral patterns. The study employed a qualitative, explorative design. Kowalczyk (2003) notes that, explorative research seeks to lay the ground that may lead to future studies, or to determine if what is observed might be explained by an existing theory. Therefore, an explorative, qualitative design was appropriate in order to provide answers to the question of the role of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in the study area.

3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study employed a qualitative research method, which was informed by its explorative nature. According to Maree (2007:51), “using qualitative research method involves studying people or systems by interacting with and observing the participants in their natural environment (in situ) and focusing on their meanings and interpretations.” Kumar (2014) argues that qualitative research is appropriate if the purpose of the study is to describe a situation, phenomenon, problem or event. Information is gathered through the use of variables measured on nominal or ordinal scales (qualitative measurement scales); and analysis is conducted to establish variations in the situation, phenomenon or problem without quantifying it. Unlike other research approaches, in qualitative research, the researcher seeks to understand the processes of

the phenomenon under study through the analysis of unstructured information like interview transcripts, notes, photos and videos (Ngwenya, 2010:69).

3.4. QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION METHODS

In this study, the social development theory adopted to support the line of enquiry which informs the main qualitative research approach of data collection to achieve the research aim. Data was generated from both secondary and primary sources. Beri (2007:87) notes that data that has been gathered earlier for some other purpose is secondary data in the hands of the researcher. In contrast, data which were collected first hand either by the researcher or by someone else especially for the purpose of the study is known as primary data.

3.4.1. Secondary data

Secondary data was reviewed not only to provide broad contextual information, but also to support the primary data and hence provide for more in-depth understanding. Relevant secondary data was sourced from, amongst other sources, academic journals, books, government documents, Internet articles, published theses, and research reports.

3.4.2. Primary data

Primary data is information that the researcher collects through interviews for the purpose of the study. The primary data shapes the interpretation of the study findings; it provides facts about the variables being studied. Primary data was generated through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions (FGD) (see appendix B).

Focus group discussions were conducted to obtain a holistic view of the farmers' perspectives on the research topic. Kleiber (2009:1) notes that an FGD is useful in exploring the meaning of survey findings and the range of opinions/views on the topic of interest that cannot be explained statistically. Focus groups usually consist of six to ten people led in open discussion by a skilled moderator (Eliot & Associates, 2005:1). According to Maree (2007:90), group dynamics assist the researcher in generating data. Moreover, this is a good way to gather together people from similar backgrounds or experiences to discuss a specific topic of interest (Kleiber, 2009:1). Three focus group discussions were conducted with farmers who were directly involved in the selected

small-scale agricultural projects of Cezwana area, namely, Zamani Gardening, Isiqalosethu Gardening and Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited. The primary reason for sampling these groups of farmers is that they are the main beneficiaries of the small-scale agriculture projects in the area. A minimum of six participants were invited to participate in each focus group discussion.

Semi-structured interviews based on an interview guide were conducted with the senior manager and the project manager at the Department of Agriculture in Jozini who are experts on agricultural projects in this region. According to De Satgè (2002), a semi-structured interview is a guided conversation in which the topics are predetermined and new questions or insights arise as a result of discussion and visual analysis. Semi-structured interviews were used because of their flexibility. Maree (2007:87) notes that, semi-structured have a flexible and fluid structure that defines the line of enquiry.

The semi-structured interview guides were not prescriptive, but were structured to maintain flexibility during the discussions with the interviewees. As a result, the respondents were able to provide detailed information on their knowledge, views, understanding, interpretation, experiences and interactions in their official capacity and their insight into small-scale farming and poverty alleviation in the region.

3.5. SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants were drawn from farmers that were participating in different projects in the Cezwana area, including Zamani Gardening, Isiqalosethu Gardening and Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited. As noted above, two officials from the Department of Agriculture were interviewed. These officials provided insight on the role of government in enabling small-scale agriculture projects to reduce poverty in Cezwana area.

Purposive sampling, otherwise known as judgmental sampling was used to select appropriate research participants. This method requires that participants be selected based on the knowledge of a population and the purpose of the study. Maree (2007:178) notes that it is used when the sampling is done with a specific purpose in mind.

There were 20 study participants, 18 farmers from agricultural projects in the Cezwana area, and two Department of Agriculture officials in Jozini.

3.6. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Since the study was a qualitative one, qualitative content analysis was employed to interpret responses and create themes in order to generate meaningful data. Devnarain (2010:45) notes that this process involves coding the qualitative data into categories and themes. Zhang and Wildemuth (1996:2) state that content analysis in qualitative studies involves a process designed to condense raw data into categories or themes based on valid inferences and interpretation. In this study, the data was classified into categories and presented in percentages. Charts and graphs are used for clarity when presenting the data. The themes identified from the participants' responses were as follows:

- Nature of small-scale agricultural practice,
- The role of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty,
- Challenges experienced in the small-scale agricultural process,
- Stakeholder participation in small-scale agriculture projects, and
- Possible solutions to the problems to enable small-scale agriculture to contribute to poverty reduction.

3.7. ETHICAL AND SAFETY ISSUES

The key ethical and safety issues considered throughout the research process are: anonymity and confidentiality. Anonymity was ensured through protecting the participants' identities. To do this, ethical clearance certificate, informed consent form (see appendix A), and interview guides (see appendix B) were handed in the places of interview by the researcher. Confidentiality was maintained communicating the informed consent form with the sampled respondents of the study. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw from the study at any time. During interviews personal particulars of the respondents were not required; hence anonymity and confidentiality were maintained. Responses to questions during and after the interviews were communicated to avoid misinterpretation of the findings. Photographing was not allowed during the study process of data collection and that was assured

by the researcher. The ethical guidelines specified Ethics and Research Statement of the University of Zululand Faculty Board of Arts and Higher Degrees Committee were highly respected and attained.

3.8. RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF THE STUDY

Reliability and validity were tested using three respondents and the results were positive. These results did not form part of the findings. Data collection tools were tested with the aim of collecting reliable and valid information. The data that was gathered answered the research questions and achieved the research objectives.

3.9. FEASIBILITY

The study encountered several limitations. Firstly, a limited number of projects specific to a geographic area were included. However, the researcher was able to describe the uniqueness of the different projects. Secondly, some participants preferred to express themselves in their first language, isiZulu. While translating from isiZulu to English might have resulted in some degree of loss of essential meaning, the researcher strived to ensure meaningful data interpretation and the trustworthiness of the findings. Thirdly, the budget for the study was inadequate due to economic constraints. The researcher was aware of the limitations of the proposed design and took steps to prevent these challenges from affecting the quality of the study by eliminating biased views and continuously monitoring all interpretations in order to provide rigorous results.

3.10. SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the research methodology employed for this study. It discussed the research design, the qualitative methods used to collect data, the selection of participants, data analysis procedures and ethical and safety issues. A qualitative research method was selected due to its potential to yield relevant and valid results in light of the limited resources available to the researcher. The following chapter presents, analyzes and interprets the study's findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter analyzes and interprets the data collected from Department of Agriculture officials in the Jozini region and small-scale farmers involved in Zamani Gardening, Isiqalosethu Gardening and Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited in Cezwana area. The study examined these respondents' perceptions of the role of small-scale farming in reducing poverty. The presentation of the data is linked to the format of the self-developed interview guides attached in Appendix B. The data is classified in six sections. Section A analyzes the demographic information on the small-scale farmers, while section B examines the nature of small-scale agricultural practice. Section C analyzes the role of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty in Cezwana and section D explores the challenges they experience. The last two sections, E and F, analyze stakeholder participation in small-scale agriculture projects and government's role in small-scale agriculture, respectively. While the study was mainly qualitative, the data is presented in numbers and scientifically presented in percentages. Charts and graphs are used for interpretation of the data. The chapter ends with a summary of the findings.

SECTION A

4.2. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION ON SMALL-SCALE FARMERS IN CEZWANA AREA

The categories covered by the demographic profile include gender, age and employment status.

4.2.1. Gender

Figure 1: Gender of small-scale farmers that participated in the study

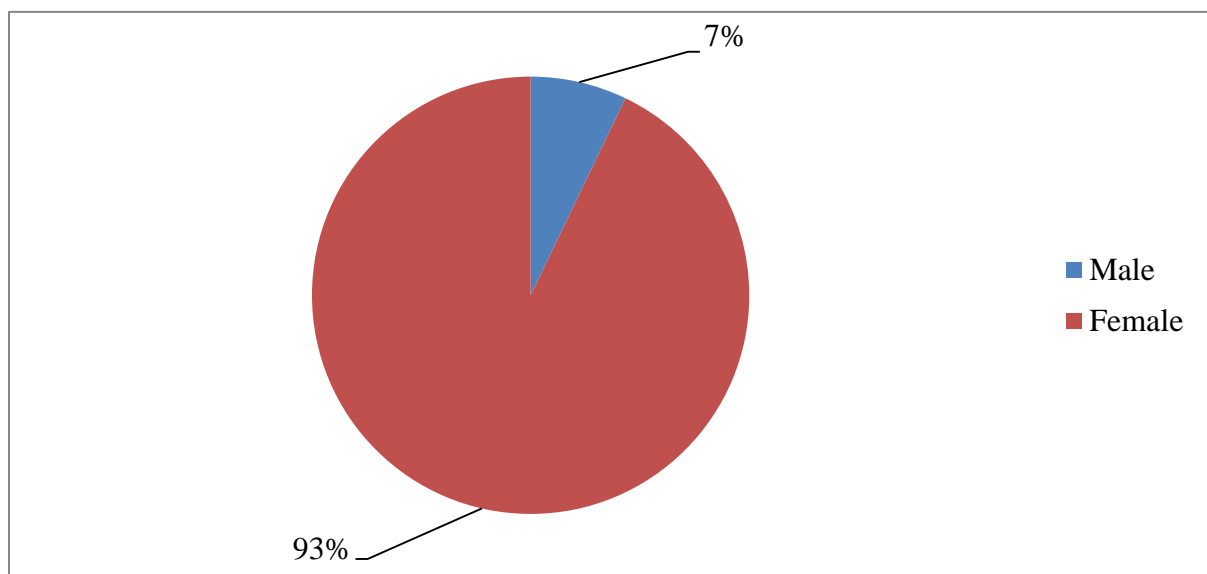


Figure 1 above shows that 93% of the participants were female and 7% were male. This is consistent with the Jozini IDP Report (2016:24) that states that the number of female small-scale farmers in the region is marginally higher (54%) than that of males. In other words, females are more likely to engage in small-scale agriculture than males.

4.2.2. Age

Figure 2: Age of small-scale farmers that participated in the study

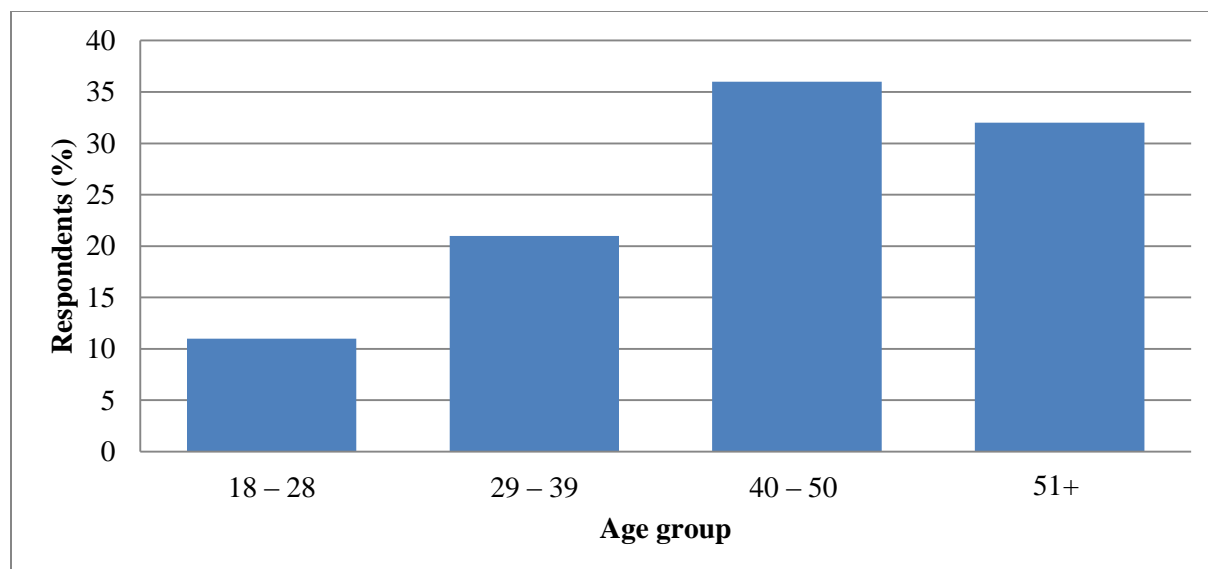


Figure 2 above shows that the youth, adults and the elderly participate in small-scale agriculture in Cezwana, no doubt due to high levels of unemployment in Jozini Local Municipality.

Thirty-six per cent of the participants were aged 40 to 50, while 32% were over the age of 50 and 21% were aged between 29 and 39. Only 11% were young people between the ages of 18 and 28. The results thus show that the majority of the participants were older than 40. Masuku (2013:46) notes that the elderly constitute a large proportion of those living in rural areas and that they often suffer from poverty and food insecurity. It is therefore not surprising that this age group engages in small-scale farming. This is consistent with Kutya's (2012:1) argument that small-scale agriculture is mainly practiced at local level by groups of individual household members that are mostly older women that engage in agriculture in order to provide both food and an income. Once again, this highlights the high poverty levels within the municipal area (Jozini IDP, 2016:29).

4.2.3. Employment status

Many of the small-scale agriculture farmers in Cezwana are unemployed and rely on incomes that are either generated from agriculture assets or money transfers. Thus, households in this rural area use their land holdings for vegetables production to earn a living. The employment status of households is important because it determines access to and availability of food

(Masuku, 2013:50). It also determines their purchasing power in the community. Figure 3 below shows the respondents' employment status.

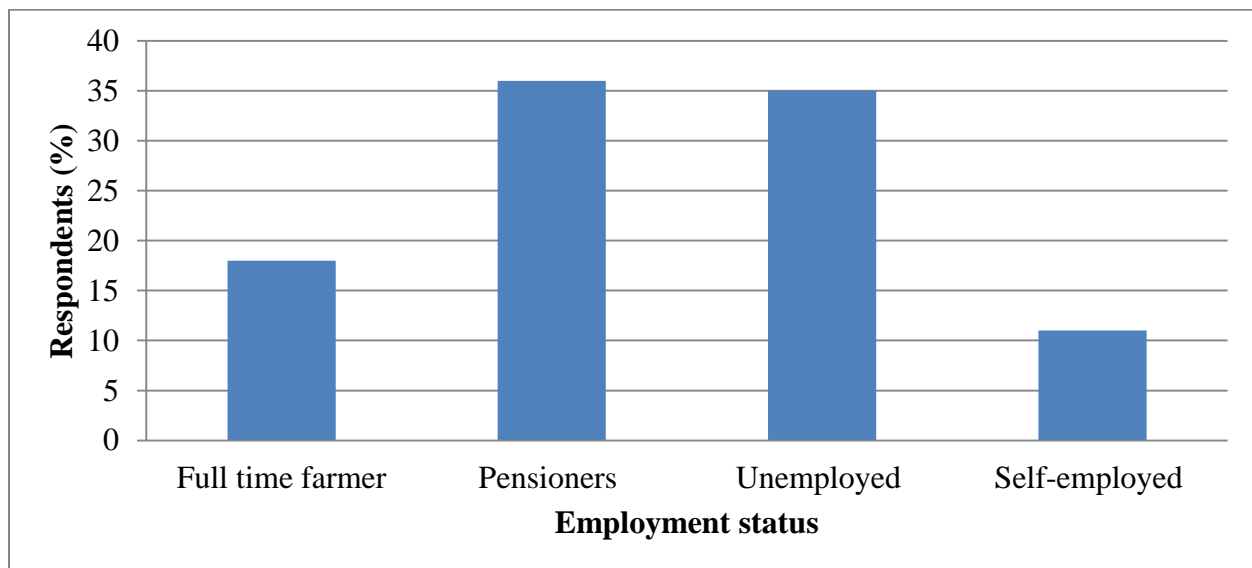


Figure 3: Employment status of respondents

Figure 3 shows that approximately 36% of respondents are pensioners, 35% are unemployed, 18% are full-time farmers, and 11% are self-employed. The majority of the respondents indicated that they were involved in agricultural activities throughout the year, while some work was seasonal. The findings underline the high rates of unemployment in the study area. Furthermore, the majority of the vegetable farmers earned less than R10 per item that they produced.

The findings thus illustrate that small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area is dominated by the poor that are neglected in terms of development support. It is mainly carried out by low-income groups and focuses on subsistence or mixed (subsistence and cash crops) cultivation. These small-scale farmers have limited skills and education and often have few alternatives but to engage in seasonal agricultural practice (Masuku, 2013). In this system, small-scale farmers use their own labour and that of household members' to survive.

SECTION B

4.3. NATURE OF SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURAL PRACTICE IN CEZWANA AREA

Small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area is mainly of a subsistence nature and is usually practiced to secure households' livelihoods. It is carried out by individual households that pool their resources to achieve greater productivity.

We work together as corporate families, using the resources we have to produce [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

This is in line with Kutya's (2012) description of small-scale farming as a subsistence activity usually carried out on family plots of land by family members, rather than commercial workers.

Another major finding is that the majority of the participants in small-scale agriculture are women. This suggests that older women and girls in Cezwana area are marginalized and engage in small-scale agriculture in response to poverty.

We are the only ones to ensure that daily food is available at households. Males have just withdrawn themselves from these agricultural projects and let us the only ones to operate the projects for food production [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

IFAD (2012) notes that women are most vulnerable to poverty. Coupled with their gendered role as care givers, this makes them major participants in small-scale farming.

The study also noted that, to some extent, small-scale farming operates in a poorly-resourced environment. The small-scale agricultural projects in Cezwana area were vulnerable in terms of location. The land they used was not well-serviced in terms of infrastructure. The projects were situated along the gravel D820 road on plots of less than two hectares. Dilapidated roads, improper handling of goods, poor storage facilities and wastage resulted in fluctuations in both production and incomes (Alila & Atieno, 2006).

One of the farmers noted that:

Our project location is not favourable at all. The environment requires us to attend gardening fields on daily basis to check if the crops are growing and have to give maintenance services if something goes wrong [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

The study also noted that small-scale agricultural was carried out on small plots of land, usually owned by individuals and households. This is consistent with Earles' (2012) description of small-scale agriculture as a subsistence practice that takes place on small plots of land. This requires that a household or individual has title to such land.

SECTION C

4.4. ROLE OF SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE IN REDUCING POVERTY IN CEZWANA AREA

The study found that small-scale agriculture practice in Cezwana contributes to poverty reduction. The respondents were asked to identify the various ways in which they felt small-scale agriculture helps to reduce poverty. They identified food security, income generation and savings, skills acquisition, and employment creation.

4.4.1. Food security

One of the roles played by small-scale agricultural practice in poverty reduction is that it provides food security. The study's findings indicate that small-scale agriculture enables those involved to produce food for their households' consumption. One of the respondents stated that,

To stop agriculture would be stupid because we need food everyday [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

Other respondents stated that surplus from their project was used to supply sick people with vegetables. This suggests that, to some extent, small-scale agricultural practice provides healthy food and herbs to sick people. Others shared that through the staple harvests that they produce they support poor, non-farm households. Educational institutions such as crèches are also beneficiaries of any surplus. Thus, small-scale agriculture has the potential to reduce child hunger in households and have a positive effect on school attendance. Furthermore, it ensures the availability and accessibility of various foods at all times. This is consistent with Groenewald's (2014:1) observation that the potential of small-scale agriculture to eradicate hunger, reduce rural poverty and improve global food security has been downplayed. The World Bank (2008) and IFAD (2013:11) note that small-scale farming can improve nutrition by providing a variety of food in sufficient quantities, to enable all household members to have a nutritionally adequate diet. Similarly, Msangi (2014) states that small-scale agriculture effectively contributes towards a country's food security by feeding the rural masses.

4.4.2. Income generation and savings

Small-scale farming also generates income and savings through the sale of surplus produce. Most of the respondents stated that growing their own food had saved them money that they could set aside for future expenditure such as household emergencies, school fees, transport and health care, etc. They added that they were able to generate income through the sales of surplus produce. Msangi (2014:155) notes that surplus food produced from subsistence farming is sold for cash. This in itself contributes to poverty reduction, especially since those engaged in this practice are mostly unemployed.

4.4.3. Skills acquisition and employment creation

Small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area enables communities to gain farming experience (knowledge and skills) and creates employment. The study found that many of the respondents had been taught farming techniques, either by one another or by agricultural specialists. Skills acquisition potentially enables them to access jobs and set up private small farming businesses. The respondents indicated that poverty is reduced as a result of using the skills acquired from agriculture practice. Hanekom (1998:3) asserts that small-scale farming indirectly creates employment which results in income flow to low-income rural dwellers. Most of the small-scale farms in the study area started small, with mainly family members as participants. However, they grew and employed others from the community to take part in various projects. For example, some farmers started as seasonal workers in the projects, but are now self-employed in these projects.

A respondent stated that,

Agriculture helps us afford living standard, through skills that we acquire and employment opportunities it prevails. Through skills that we acquire from the practice we teach our young ones on how to generating self-employment through vegetables production [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

Thapa (2011:1) argues that smallholder farmers often remain in agriculture due to the shortage of employment opportunities in rural non-farm activities or urban areas and a lack of the skills required to change occupation. Thus, small-scale agriculture can alleviate poverty through the

acquisition of agri-skills and creating employment opportunities. The IMF (2014:37) notes that small-scale agriculture opens up opportunities for economic participation. Mertineit et al. (2008:13) suggest that small-scale farming reduces poor households' dependence on fluctuating market prices and creates space for other economic activities. The IMF (2014:37) notes that increasing opportunities and improving productivity in this sector are crucial for enhancing economic performance and reducing poverty.

4.4.4. Community cohesion

Agricultural participation promotes community cohesion that plays a significant role in development in terms of decision making and shaping their development programme the way they want it. Each farmer in the small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana decides on what they want to plant. Participation in the project alleviates some of the poverty indicators, i.e. isolation and powerlessness among the projects members, because everyone in these projects is empowered to influence project operations for improvement. De Boef et al. (2013:310) note that farmers' participation in the development of laws, regulations, policies and programmes, is important for the simple reason that farmers are key economic actors. Thus, policies and programmes that target farmers should take their perceptions and view into account, especially in decision making and programme implementation.

SECTION D

4.5. CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED IN SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURAL PRACTICE IN CEZWANA AREA

Although small-scale agriculture enables poverty reduction, it also faces various challenges. The study identified a range of factors that hinder small-scale agricultural practice. These include lack of participation by the youth in the agriculture programme, lack of government support and empowerment, poor infrastructure development, the high prices of inputs, and operating at a small scale.

4.5.1. Lack of participation by the youth in the agriculture programme

The results indicate that the youth are not sufficiently involved in the small-scale agriculture projects. Some respondents indicated that the youth withdrew due to unfavorable farming conditions (i.e. poor facilities, a lack of markets, lower income, and the challenging climate), or because they would rather seek non-farm job opportunities or study to improve their situation in life. Others noted that the youth's lack of participation perpetuates labour shortages in this sector and thus creates a burden for those who are active. Concurrent with these observations, the youth constituted the smallest percentage of the respondents. Bah et al. (2003) note that farming is an increasingly unattractive option for younger people in rural areas. This has negative consequences in terms of productivity and undermines households' ability to secure their livelihoods through small-scale agricultural practice. It is also clear that small-scale farming is not a priority for a section of the community that prefers to engage in non-farm activities. Migration of the economically active population to the cities also puts pressure on agricultural practice. Thus, government should encourage participation in agriculture, especially among the youth.

4.5.2. Lack of government support and empowerment

One of the strategies to reduce poverty is government support. Government has a duty to support vulnerable communities, empower them and provide opportunities to participate in development programmes. Mertineit et al. (2008:14) note that farmers are seldom sufficiently educated or organized to be able to articulate their own issues and interests in the political or economic arena,

not only in development cooperation, but also in framing local policies. It is for these reasons that small-scale farmers need relevant support from government.

The study found that the farmers lack government support and empowerment. The respondents stated that government did not support them in terms of funding, and capacitating, motivating and empowering them in order to ensure poverty reduction. These small-scale farms tend to be entirely self-supporting enterprises which limits their role in poverty reduction. Juhasz (1994:20) notes that state support for small-scale farming has dwindled. Indeed, the agricultural sector has gradually been deprived of almost all forms of state subsidies (Juhasz, 1994). This creates many difficulties and could result in the bankruptcy of many small-scale farms.

4.5.3. Poor infrastructure

Poor infrastructure is another major challenge experienced by the small-scale farmers in Cezwana area. The respondents identified poor fencing, maintenance and transportation as issues. For instance, due to poor fencing, many farm animals wandered and were stolen alongside crops. Farmers had to improvise and create temporary boundaries made from tree branches. However, this did not solve the problem as these boundaries were porous. Shahid et al. (2013:519) note that inadequate fencing in agricultural areas has many drawbacks particularly where mixed farming is practiced.

Another infrastructural challenge is poor maintenance of irrigation systems which was identified as a major hindrance to the small-scale agricultural projects. The drought that has plagued the Cezwana area exacerbates this problem. The respondents stated that the ongoing drought has affected food production. Awulachew et al. (2006:102) suggest that drought is one of the root causes of food insecurity. They add that a major challenge in moisture stressed areas is how to reverse the effects of drought and ensure an adequate food supply for the rapidly growing population without degrading limited natural resources (Awulachew et al., 2006). This has led to farmers depending on irrigation systems. However, the respondents noted that, in most cases, water pipes were broken and water tanks which provide water for irrigation were empty due to leaks. As the result, most farmers source water from nearby rivers. This is challenging as they use small implements such as watering cans, bottles and buckets for irrigation.

Poor transportation facilities hinder farmers' access to markets to sell their produce. Most of the respondents rely on the local market due to a lack of transportation to ship the produce to more viable markets in towns. Bad roads exacerbate this situation. Masuku (2013:20) states that a lack of access to markets is due to poor infrastructure that prevents farmers from accessing both labour and capital. It is difficult for people to move between rural and urban centres and to trade between these places (Masuku, 2013). The Local Government Handbook of South Africa (2012) notes that a significant portion of Jozini has been neglected in terms of economic development. Thus, the small-scale farmers are unable to travel to markets and feel isolated from the development project. Given their heavy workloads and limited resources, rural household members are rarely able to travel (Mphahlele, n.d). Furthermore, many are seldom or never visited by government workers from the health, agriculture or other departments (Mphahlele, n.d). Such isolation renders poverty reduction extremely challenging. According to Mphahlele (n.d), this is often exacerbated by low levels of formal education and literacy, deepening their isolation. De Beer and Swanepoel (2000:12) note that the isolation of the poor goes hand in hand with their physical weakness; remote (isolated) households often experience high levels of migration of able-bodied men and women to towns or to other better-off rural areas.

Transportation challenges make it difficult for rural farmers to market their produce. Williams (2013:261) notes that this negatively impacts cash returns, especially on highly perishable crops. Small-scale farmers operating in such environment are not easily reached by customers, or updated about new marketing trends. Small-scale farmers required infrastructural support in order to increase their productivity and growth (Ellis & Biggs, 2001:440).

4.5.4. Poor storage facilities and loss of income

The piles of spoiled vegetables (butternut, green paper, and cabbages) observed in the small-scale agriculture projects during the course of the study illustrated that, while these farmers are very productive, they lack storage facilities. The small-scale farmers in Cezwana do not have adequate storage facilities to keep their produce fresh and protect it from mold and decay, which was said to be due to exposure to the sun and rain. They simply stored the produce on their plots while waiting for customers. Because they had no storage facilities at home, these farmers could only to sell their produce directly from their gardens. Spoilage resulted in a loss of income. Theft

and damage to crops caused further losses. While the respondents were discouraged by this situation, they showed no signs of improving their storage facilities or marketing. Nafziger (2012:246) notes that poor marketing channels and insufficient storage facilities often hamper the sale of produce outside the region of origin and limit crop production.

4.5.5. Inadequate funds

Financial constraints make it difficult for small-scale farmers to purchase high-priced farm inputs. The respondents indicated that productivity was hindered by the increased price of inputs like fertilizer, pesticides and garden tools. This situation illustrates the powerlessness of rural small-scale farmers and the need for other stakeholders to offer support. The lack of funds caused them to adopt alternative indigenous agricultural practices such as the use of animal dung and crop diversification; pest control through using poisonous wood ash; vibrant seed selection and preservation techniques with an emphasis on seed size, color, texture, taste and resistance to diseases and pests; and weed control through the use of homemade poisons and manual removal. However, these strategies were insufficient because many pests are resistant to such methods and they have not been scientifically proven for crop and human health, and for the areas concerned. Some of these indigenous practices are known to be unfavorable to the environment, thereby compromising sustainable rural development. Charles et al. (2010:814) note that, “they keep the practice of small-scale agriculture in unsuitable areas quite challenging, and in some cases farmers have to grow crops at the expense of the environment.” Therefore, it is clear that promoting modern agricultural practice with limited inputs due to the lack of financial support is a challenge to poverty reduction.

4.5.6. Operating at small scale

Operating at a small scale hinders small-scale agriculture from reducing poverty in poor communities. All the small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana consisted of farmers with plots of less than two hectares. This hinders productivity. In South African, small-scale farming is rendered vulnerable by seasonal fluctuations (Mphahlele, n.d). Increased workloads are experienced during periods of peak activity and decreased income and food security leading to poor nutrition and poor health occur during the lean months. The period of highest risk for many agricultural families is the wet season, when demand for labour is high, food supplies are low,

and sickness is more common (Mphahlele, n.d). Reliance on agriculture leaves rural households highly vulnerable to seasonal failure, when inadequate or excessive rain damages or destroys crops (Wilkins, 1998, in Mphahlele, n.d).

It was also evident that the rights of poor and especially female farmers were violated in respect of access to land. Most of the female respondents were vulnerable in terms of acquiring land.

We do not have productive land to excess our productivity. Men who have better land refuse to give us that land [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

This supports IFAD's (2012:1) observation that women are particularly vulnerable because their land rights may be obtained through kinship relationships with men or marriage. Bacchus (1991:8) notes that access to land in South Africa is racially determined, with the agricultural sector still dominated by white family farms, covering 87% of all land under cultivation. IFAD (2012:1) notes that in rural societies, the poorest people often have weak or unprotected tenure rights. They therefore risk losing the land they depend on to more powerful neighbors, private companies – domestic or foreign – and even to members of their own family. It is therefore clear that in Cezwana area, small-scale farmers are in need of land in order to reduce poverty.

SECTION E

4.6. VIEWS OF SMALL-SCALE FARMERS ON STAKEHOLDER PARTICIPATION IN THE PROJECTS

The respondents were asked to identify the various stakeholders involved in the projects as well as their roles. Both the private and public sectors were identified.

4.6.1. Private sector participation

Two of the small-scale agriculture projects, Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited and Zamani Gardening identified private stakeholders who were involved in their operations. These include the Maputaland Development and Information Center (MDIC) and Oxfam Australia.

The MDIC work in corroboration with the Oxfam Australia, and they assist us with the provision of irrigation tubes, farming skills and project facilitation trainings [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

The farmers shared that such support assisted with poverty reduction. A respondent from Zamani Gardening said:

With the assistance of private sector we are now able to increase yields and that makes us reduce poverty incidence in the area [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

The private sector facilitates the projects and invests in them. A respondent noted that:

Maputaland Development and Information Center, and Oxfam Australia are investing with us. We have to produce and then ask them to find buyers for us [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

These organizations' offer inputs and assist with marketing these irrigated small-scale agricultural projects. Therefore, the private sector invests both capital and knowledge (Awulachew et al., 2006:173).

4.6.2. Government participation

The respondents also stated that government participated in the implementation of the various agricultural projects. However, they were not satisfied with this contribution. One respondent noted that:

We had nothing when starting this project but the government raised us even with the little that was given to us [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

Another said:

None of us have enough resources, our engines are out of service, water tanks are not reliable and our produce starving on mold, government is doing nothing. We are still waiting; the Department of Agriculture is not responding enough [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

These farmers indicated that they were still using old equipment and relying on outdated styles of planting. They blamed the government for not empowering them to adopt modern techniques. A respondent said:

Ever since we were given the seeds to plant, nobody has assisted us with new planting methods, and all that you see here we did it on our own using indigenous knowledge system and the least some of us could be learning elsewhere [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

Most of the farmers in the projects were eager to learn new things and seemed very passionate about their projects. They indicated that government officials should put more effort into assisting them:

We need the Department of Agriculture to provide sufficient facilities and organize us training sessions so to acquire relevant planting skills [FGD, Cezwana, 2015].

From the above analysis, it is evident that there has been a lack of support from the government for the various small-scale agricultural projects in Cezwana area. As much as all the beneficiaries

were provided with implements, they also need training in order to acquire the skills necessary to sustain the practice. This also indicates inefficiency on the part of the Department of Agriculture in the region; the farmers noted that it should take responsibility on their behalf. Murphy (2012) notes that government support is usually minimal, particularly when it comes to offering small-scale agriculture a safety net, complying with the rule of law and protecting property rights.

SECTION F

4.7. ROLE OF GOVERNMENT IN SMALL-SCALE AGRICULTURE PRACTICE IN CEZWANA AREA

Interviews were conducted with the senior manager and project manager of the Department of Agriculture in Jozini. Thus were asked whether they had any relationship with the small-scale agricultural projects in the Cezwana area. One responded in the affirmative.

Asked to describe the relationship, they stated that they provide the farmers with the mechanisms to practice agriculture.

We build a close relationship with any agricultural projects in the municipal area. Some of these projects are registered with the Department [Interviews, DoA, 2015].

Questioned on their role in the implementation of these projects, one official stated that,

Our responsibility is to make sure that all the corporate agricultural projects that found in the municipal area are financed. Having seen small-scale agriculture progressing in various areas, this means that we have positive and fair roles in making the difference even in those projects in Cezwana [Interviews, DoA, 2015].

They said that they had provided some plot management skills through informal education in which the participatory development approach was used to encourage farmers' participation (learning by doing) in the projects. One of the respondents stated that the Department worked hand-in-hand with the registered agricultural projects and had provided them with cultivation tools.

All registered projects in Cezwana area have provided garden tools and seed crops, training, tractor and irrigation facilities. We try our best to minimise costs of small-scale cooperate farmers in the region hence not all of them can afford paying every implements [Interviews, DoA, 2015].

However, some of the assertions made by these respondents contradict those made by small-scale farmers in Cezwana area. While the government officials felt that they made a substantial contribution to the effective operation of the projects, the farmers denied this. This indicates that there are inconsistencies between the government and rural communities' perceptions of the government's contribution to the projects.

The government officials were also asked how their support for small-scale agriculture can promote poverty reduction. They responded that they enable farmers to produce and thus sell and consume their produce.

We set and orientate farmers with knowledge and skills to produce for themselves and for the market [Interviews, DoA, 2015].

They added that, while poverty cannot be eradicated due to the magnitude of the problem, it can be reduced.

Poverty is huge; it is the combination of neither having the least or without having something important. Agriculture in general does not eradicate poverty, it just minimise it and therefore, only, avails some raw material including food to alleviate hunger. So how can small-scale agriculture alone eradicate poverty? [Interviews, DoA, 2015].

Asked how small-scale agriculture reduces poverty, they noted that it generates an income and promotes food security.

People get employed in the sector and even outside the sector where agriculture produce is consumed. Therefore they generate income and food security at the end of the day [Interviews, DoA, 2015].

This analysis clearly shows that agricultural practice alone is not efficient in dealing with the issue of poverty unless other extraneous factors are put in place in the community development process.

4.8. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In summary, the study's findings suggest that small-scale agriculture has the potential to reduce poverty. They show that in Cezwana area, small-scale agriculture has contributed to poverty reduction in many ways. These projects represent a development strategy. They play a key role in achieving socio-economic development and poverty reduction. Households and individuals engagement in agriculture enables them to address hunger and absolute poverty. The sale of produce increases farmers' savings. Furthermore, the farmers do not have to purchase vegetables and can use the money saved for other household expenditure. Thus, small-scale agriculture in the region plays the dual role of being a source of household food security as well as a source of income from the sale of food surplus.

However, the study identified various challenges that hinder small-scale agriculture from reducing poverty in the study area. These include lack of participation by the youth in the agriculture programme, a lack of government support, poor infrastructure development, the high price of inputs and the fact that these are small-scale operations.

Various stakeholders were identified that assist the small-scale farmers. They include the private sector (MDIC and Oxfam Australia) and the public sector (Department of Agriculture). These stakeholders supported the farmers with garden tools and exposed them to the market. The findings show that government and private organizations' inputs encourage small-scale agricultural production. It is clear that government organizations in Jozini alone cannot ensure the success of the agricultural sector. Private sector involvement is required to improve productivity and marketing. The World Bank (2012) argues that, while the private sector will continue to lead the development of marketing chains, the public sector has an important supporting role to play by improving infrastructure, facilitating access to markets and financial services, fostering the modernization of traditional wholesale markets and helping them to link with modern marketing chains, improving education in rural areas, and supporting extension and advisory services (World Bank, 2012:57). Such coordinated support could address unemployment in the region and ensure that these agricultural projects are effective and efficient users of natural resources.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study was to assess the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in Cezwana area of Jozini Local Municipality. The study's objectives were to identify the small-scale agriculture projects; explore the role of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty; explore its effectiveness; identify the factors that militate against small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area, and suggest ways of making such agriculture a more effective means of poverty reduction in Jozini.

The community development practitioners of the agriculture Department identified in the study as practicing the top-down community development approach to enabling the small-scale agriculture practices, among others to develop poverty reduction skills at grassroots. The top-down and bottom-up models of social development theory led the researcher to critique the perceptions and knowledge of the small-scale farmers and government officials presented as commonsensical and self-evident and compares them to the benefit of social and economic conditions to which they pertain. The researcher placed the respondents' ideas in their socioeconomic development context and situates them into themes that characterized complexity of a larger social background, of the respondents.

The theoretical lens suggested in bottom-up approach of social development theory improves the knowledge that participation in agriculture reduces poverty in many ways. The people get empowered and have access to necessary resources to achieve development means. The theory (social development theory) admits that the research findings provided sufficient knowledge about the participation of the poor in small-scale agriculture as practiced by various communities, to some extent, address the various issues relating to poverty. This chapter draws together the main findings from which conclusions are derived and recommendations are generated. The summary of the findings and the recommendations are based on the study's objectives. The study's limitations are also highlighted and suggestions are made for further research.

5.2. SUMMARY

i. Demographic information on small-scale farmers in Cezwana area

The majority of the study participants were women, suggesting that females are more likely to engage in small-scale agriculture than males. While the participants' ages ranged from 18 to 51, mature and elderly women were identified as playing an important role in this sector. The literature suggests that women, who have traditionally played a major role in agriculture, are further empowered and are no longer marginalized by the development of conventional capital-intensive agriculture (Mertineit et al., 2008).

The study also found that the small scale farmers did not have other jobs and were reliant on agriculture for their livelihood. They generate income through the sale of surplus, nutritious food. However, their income fell below the poverty line. Thus, it is concluded that small-scale agriculture projects are mainly carried out by low-income groups who engage primarily in farming focused on vegetable and fruit production for subsistence and cash generation. They are not adequately equipped with the necessary skills and rely on their own labour for production.

ii. Nature of small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana area

Small-scale agriculture in Cezwana area is mainly subsistence, i.e. it is mainly practiced for household livelihoods. Individual households pool their resources to achieve greater productivity. This is in line with Kutya's (2012) description of small-scale farming as a subsistence activity usually carried out on family plots of land by family members, rather than commercial workers. The study also found that small-scale agriculture is carried out on small plots of land, usually owned by individuals and households. This is consistent with Earles' (2012) description of small-scale agriculture as a subsistence practice that takes place on small plots of land.

Furthermore, the majority of the participants in small-scale agriculture are women. The results show that mature and elderly women and the youth are the most marginalized and engage in small-scale agricultural in response to poverty and malnutrition. Women's gendered roles as care givers make them more concerned about their children and they thus tend to be major participants in small-scale farming.

The study also noted that, to a certain extent, small-scale agricultural projects operate in poorly-resourced environments. The land on which each project operates suffered from inadequate infrastructure. It was situated alongside gravel roads, on small plots of land of less than two hectares. This suggests that small-scale agriculture operations are unfavorable due to the unconducive environments that they operate in. These comprise of dilapidated roads, improper handling, poor storage facilities and wastage, and challenging climatic conditions, which result in decreased interest in practicing small-scale farming.

iii. Role and importance of small-scale agriculture in reducing poverty in Cezwana area

The findings show that poverty can be an individual and communal experience. It comprises of a lack of basic life needs and wants which tends to trap individuals and families and creates dependency. The result of the study reveal that small-scale agriculture practice can address poverty and is hence a strategy for development. For example, as noted in the preceding chapter, small-scale farming contributes to poverty reduction through generating food security which impacts human health and income generation, encourage savings, and promotes skills acquisition which renders people more employable. Nutritious food boosts an individual's immune system and promotes long and healthy living. Furthermore, surplus produce is sold to generate marginal incomes which tend to be spent on a household emergencies. Money that would otherwise be used to buy fruit and vegetables can be saved for other purposes. In addition, the employment created before, during and after project implementation typically leaves beneficiaries with the skills necessary to generate direct and indirect employment in the area.

The World Bank (2008) and IFAD (2013:11) confirm that small-scale farming can impact human nutrition by providing a variety of foods in sufficient quantities, to enable all household members to have a nutritionally adequate diet.

Hazell et al. (2007: VII) note that small-scale agricultural practices can alleviate poverty through job creation and increase returns on the assets that the poor possess. In this regard, small-scale agriculture plays the dual role of being a source of household income from the sale of surplus as well the creation of a means of livelihood / employment for the poor who are mainly unemployed and take part in this activity (Hazell et al., 2007).

iv. Challenges experienced by small-scale farmers in Cezwana area

The study identified the various challenges experienced in small-scale agricultural practice that hinder it from reducing poverty in the area. These include a lack of resources which makes it difficult for farmers to increase their yields. It was found that shortages of inputs such as labour discourage small-scale farming. The youth are not interested in small-scale agriculture due to unfavorable farming conditions and would rather seek jobs elsewhere. The lack of participation by the youth and males in subsistence agriculture in Cezwana area perpetuates labour shortages and negatively impacts productivity. This creates a further burden on those who are involved in the practice, especially women. Young (2013:n.p) notes that, men are often drawn into commercial agricultural production, with the burden of domestic food production falling on female family members. The World Bank (2009:1) notes that, while women are left to carry the full burden of agricultural production, they often have no legal protection or right to property ownership (World Bank, 2009).

A lack of knowledge among farmers also hinders productivity and poverty reduction. The results show that small-scale farmers lack the necessary knowledge and skills to increase yields such as in ploughing and managing the plots. The participants also observed that government has not offered sufficient support to empower them with skills. This has led to a loss of confidence in government assistance and in the future of small-scale agriculture in the region. Juhasz (1994:20) notes that state support for small-scale farming has dwindled. Indeed, the entire agricultural sector has gradually been deprived of almost all forms of state subsidies (Juhasz, 1994).

Another challenge is poor infrastructural development. Small-scale farmers in Cezwana area find it difficult to access markets and keep the produce fresh. The results also show that poor irrigation makes it difficult to increase yields; bad roads create difficulties in attracting customers and investors as well as shipping the produce to markets outside the study area; and poor fencing results in livestock infestation and crop theft. All these factors hinder sustainable development in this region. Juma (2015:117) observes that poor infrastructure and inadequate services are among the major factors that hinder Africa's sustainable development. Juma adds that without adequate infrastructure, African countries will not be able to harness the power of science and innovation

to meet sustainable development objectives and to compete in international markets (Juma, 2015:118).

Moreover, the findings show that high input prices hinder small-scale agricultural development in Cezwana area. Not all farmers can afford expensive agriculture inputs such as pesticides and fertilizer and some have adopted risky approaches to maintain production. These methods are not scientifically proven and could negatively impact the sustainability of small-scale agriculture in addressing poverty in this area. The United States Department of Agriculture (2000:52) notes that, high interest rates and imported input prices negatively affect agricultural production. All these factors contribute to on-going poverty in the region.

v. Stakeholder participation in small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana area

The results show that both the private sector and government invested in some of the registered small-scale agriculture projects in Cezwana area. The private sector provided gardening facilities and training for the small-scale farmers, while the government provided financial support and tools, seed, training, tractors and irrigation facilities. However, the study participants felt that government support was inadequate due to the high cost of maintenance. Private sector participation was noted in resource allocation and the organization of the projects. It is possible that government officials in the departments involved in the small-scale agriculture projects are passing the liability to the private sector and that the procedures used by these officials to manage small-scale agriculture projects are not up to standard. If poverty alleviation is to result from these projects, the departments will need to ensure that they receive the support they require.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

- **Funding:** It is recommended that funding be provided to those that engage in agriculture programmes. This could motivate the youth to become involved in subsistence agriculture. Furthermore, skilled personnel with good training and knowledge are required to encourage farmers to improve productivity and to trigger employment and income generation. The government should make agriculture more attractive to the youth by providing funding to emerging and current small-scale farmers. Community

participation in agriculture could be encouraged by empowering community members to influence decision making processes and to become the drivers of their own development programme.

- **Government support:** Department of Agriculture and Department of Local Economic Development officials should be well capacitated with information and skills to lead agricultural poverty alleviation projects. Capacity-building workshops and research would enable them to better understand project beneficiaries' needs and to achieve both departmental objectives and the Millennium Development Goals on poverty eradication. Government support is also recommended to address the shocking condition of some of the gardens, to eradicate bugs that are destroying crops, and to address the injudicious use of fertilizers that have been ineffective.
- **Provision of sound infrastructure:** The study's findings show that, if small-scale agriculture is to be effective in poverty reduction, the barriers confronting it must be addressed. It was found that farmers, particularly those in dispersed rural regions and in fragmented small economic units with high transaction costs, find it difficult to access markets. Poor infrastructural development prevents small-scale agriculture from operating effectively as a strategy for poverty alleviation in the area. There is thus a need for lower cost infrastructure, and input and output mechanisms.

This could be achieved by encouraging effective stakeholder participation in the agriculture sector. Government should encourage and drive private sector participation in small-scale agriculture projects. Foreign investors should be required to engage in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) or Corporate Social Investment (CSI) to capacitate small-scale agriculture through the provision of local infrastructure. This would require a good relationship between the three spheres of government (central, provincial and local), foreign investors and farmers.

- **Improve access to land:** Land reform is required to ensure the efficacy of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction. The government needs to recognize that rural people are significant users of land for small-scale farming. Moreover, there is a need for government to reform the traditional land tenure system by empowering communities,

traditional leadership and lease holders to mitigate land invasions in order to accommodate current and future small-scale agriculture for poverty reduction.

5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study suffered from the following limitations:

- i. Government's role in small-scale agriculture was limited to the perceptions of Department of Agriculture officials.
- ii. The research was conducted in only three agriculture projects of Cezwana area in Jozini Local Municipality (Zamani Gardening, Isiqalosethu Gardening and Cezwana Youth Cooperative Limited).

5.5. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Further research is required to investigate the role of small-scale farmers' empowerment in ensuring food security and poverty reduction in rural areas, and to assess and evaluate policies that address small-scale farming and poverty alleviation programmes. Research could also be conducted on how to strengthen human resource development as an engine to drive rural small-scale agriculture and economic growth and expose farmers to modern agricultural marketing schemes. Finally, a study could be conducted on the perceptions of farmers in relation to accessing land in rural areas, and the role of gender and participation in small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction.

5.6. CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the study's findings and drew conclusions based on these findings bearing in mind the study's aim and objectives. It presented recommendations based on the findings on the factors that militate against small-scale agriculture's contribution to poverty reduction, and set out the study's limitations. Finally, recommendations were made for further research.

REFERENCES

- Ahmed, A. 1987. *The Anatomy of Rural Poverty in Assam: A Case Study of Dibrugarh Sub-division*. Mittal Publications.
- Alila, P. O. & Atieno, R. 2006. *Agricultural policy in Kenya: Issues and Processes*. A paper for the Future Agricultures Consortium workshop: Final version. Institute of Development Studies. University of Nairobi, Kenya.
- Awulachew, S. B., Menker, M., Abesha, D., Atnafe, T. & Wondimkun, Y. 2006. *Best practices and technologies for small scale agricultural water management in Ethiopia*. Proceedings of a MoARD/MoWR/USAID/IWMI symposium and exhibition held at Ghion Hotel, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia 7 – 9 March, 2006.
- Bacchus, M. K. 1991. *Human Resource Development in Post-Apartheid South Africa*. Background Paper No. 4. Collection ED / SDI. UNESCO House, Paris. 25-27 June 1991. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001518/151897eo.pdf>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Bah, M., Cisse, S., Diyamett, B., Diallo, G., Lerise, F., Okali, D., Okpara, E., Olawoye, J. & Tacoli, C. 2003. *Rural-urban Transformations*. Environment & Urbanization, Vol 15 No. 1.
- Baker, S. 2015. *Sustainable Development*. Routledge, 31 Aug 2015.
- Beri, G. C. 2007. *Marketing Research*. 4th Edition. The McGraw-Hill companies. <https://books.google.co.za/books?isbn=0070620229>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Betti, G. & Lemmi, A. 2013. *Poverty and Social Exclusion: New Methods of Analysis*. Routledge.
- Blau, J. R. 2008. Defining and Measuring Poverty. In J. R. Blau. (ed.) *The Blackwell Companion to Sociology*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://books.google.co.za/books?isbn=0470692731>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Carr, M. 1997. *New Patterns: Process and Change in Human Geography*. Nelson Thrones.

- Celis, R., Milimo, J. T. & Wanmali, S. 1991. *Adopting improved farm technology: A study of smallholder farmers in Eastern Province, Zambia*. Intl Food Policy Res Inst.
- Chambers, R. 1983. *Rural Development: Putting the Last First*. Longman.
- Charles, H. J., Godfray, et al. 2010. *Food Security: The challenge of Feeding a Billion People*. American Association for the Advancement of Science. Doi:10.1126/science.1185383.
- Chen, Z. & Zhou, Y. 2005. *Income Distribution During System Reform and Economic Development in China: The Status and Trend of Income Inequality of Chinese Residents*. Nova Publishers.
- Chikulo, B. C. 2003. *Development Policy in South Africa: A Review*. DPMN Bulletin: Volume X, Number 2, April 2003. <http://www.dpmf.org/images/south-africa-devt-policy-chikulo.html>. (Accessed 3 March 2016).
- D'Silva, E. & Bysouth, K. 1992. *Poverty Alleviation through Agricultural Projects*. An EDI Policy Seminar Report, Number 30. The World Bank; Washington, D. C.
- De Beer, F., & Swanepoel, H. 2000. *Introduction to Development Studies*. South Africa: Oxford University Press.
- De Boef, W. S., Subedi, A., Peroni, N., Thijsse, M. & O'keeffe, E. 2013. *Community Biodiversity Management: Promoting resilience and the conservation of plant genetic resources*. Routledge.
- De Satgè, R. 2002. *Learning about Livelihoods: Insights from Southern Africa*. Volume 1. Oxfam – Africa, Southern.
- Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA). n.d. *Poverty Eradication*. Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC). Poverty Banner. <http://undesadspd.org/Poverty.aspx> (Accessed December 2015).
- Devnarain, B. 2010. *Poor Access to Water: The Experiences of Learners and Educators within a Rural Primary School in Jozini, KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa*. Masters in Child Care and

- Protection. Faculty of Law and the School of Social Work and Community Development. Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Sciences. University of KwaZulu-Natal (Howard College Campus).
- Doob, C. C. 2015. *Social Inequality and Social Stratification in U.S. Society*. Routledge.
- Earles, R. 2015. *About Small-Scale Farming*. Small-Scale Intensive Farm Training Program. SIFT Newsletter Archive.
- Eckerberg, K. & Nilson, M. 2013. *Environmental Policy Integration in Practice: Shaping Institutions for Learning*.
- Eliot & Associates. 2005. Guidelines for conducting a Focus Group. https://assessment.aas.duke.edu/documents/How_to_Conduct_a_Focus_Group.pdf. (Accessed July 2015).
- Ellis, F. & Biggs, S. 2001. *Evolving Themes in Rural Development 1950s – 2000s*. Development Policy Review. 2001, 19 (4): 437 – 448.
- Escandón, S. 2010. Theoretical Versus Grass-Roots Development of a Community Partnership. *The Qualitative Report*, Volume 15 Number 1. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA.
- Farah, Q. H. 2011. *Revitalization of Somalia: Dib u soo Nooleynta Somaaliya*. AuthorHouse.
- Friedman, I. & Bhengu, L. 2008. Fifteen Year Review Of Income Poverty Alleviation Programmes In The Social and Related Sectors. Full Final Report.
- Galbraith, J. K. 1998. *The Affluent Society*. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Grewal, B., Grunfeld, H. & Sheehan, P. 2012. *The contribution of agricultural growth to poverty reduction*. Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research. Australia. http://aci-ar.gov.au/files/node/14358/ias76_the_contribution_of_agricultural_growth_to_p_27524.pdf.

- Groenewald. 2014. *Small-scale farmers can contribute to the food security?* Farmer's weekly. 14:00 (GMT+2), Sun, Sunday, August 03, 2014. Also available on the email: nico.groenewald@standardbank.co.za
- Hanekom, D. 1998. *Agricultural policy in South Africa*. A DISCUSSION DOCUMENT – Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs.
- Hazell, P., Poulton, C., Wiggins, S. & Dorward, A. 2007. *The future of Small Farmers for Poverty Reduction and Growth*. International Food Policy Research Institute, 2020 Discussion Paper 42, May 2007.
- Hornby, A. S. 1948. *Poverty*. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. Oxford University Press, Eighth Edition.
- Hue, N. T. N., Tuyen, T. V., Canh, N. T., Hien, P. V., Chuong, P. V., Sthapit, R. B. and Javis, D, editors. 2005. *In situ Conservation of Agricultural Biodiversity on-farm: Lessons Learned and Policy Implications*. Proceedings of Vietnamese National Workshop, 30 March – 1 April 2004, Hanoi, Vietnam. International Plant Genetic Resources Institute, Rome, Italy.
- International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). 2012. *Enabling poor rural people to overcome poverty in Nigeria*. IFAD, August 2012. <http://www.ifad.org/operations/projects/regions/pa/factsheets/ng.pdf>. (Accessed July 2015).
- International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). 2012. *Land tenure security and poverty reduction. Enabling poor rural people to overcome poverty*. International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD).
- International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). 2013. *Smallholders, Food security and the environment. Enabling poor rural people to overcome poverty*. United National Environment Programme. International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD).
- International Monetary Fund (IMF). 2014. *Democracy Republic of Timor – Leste: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper – National Development Plan, Road Map for Implementation*

- of National Development Plan, Overview of Sector Investment Programs – Strategies and Priorities for the Medium Term*. International Monetary Fund (IMF), 09 May 2014.
- Irz, X., Lin, L., Colin, T. & Wiggins, S. 2001. *Agricultural Productivity, Growth and Poverty Alleviation*. Development Policy Review, 2001, 19 (4): 449 – 466.
- Jensen, E. 2010. *Teaching with Poverty in Mind: What being Poor Does to Kids' Brains and What Schools Can Do About it*. ASCD.
- Jozini Local Municipality Integrated Development Plan (Jozini IDP). 2016.
- Juhasz, J. 1994. *Reorienting the cooperative structure in selected Eastern Europe countries: Case-study on Hungary*. Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations. Rome 1994.
- Juma, C. 2015. *The New Harvest: Agricultural Innovation in Africa*. Oxford University Press, 03 Aug 2015.
- Kamal, R. 2013. *Unisa research could change the game for small-scale farmers. A system to bring farmers into the 21st century*, 10th September 2013.
- Kanwal, A. 2014. *Education in Pakistan: Ranking of Pakistan in Education and Other Relative Indicators in the World 2014*. Nawaz Hussain. https://books.google.co.za/books?id=uy4TBAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&source=gb_s_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q&f=false. (Accessed January 2016).
- Kao, R, W, Y. 2010. *Sustainable Economy: Corporate, Social and Environmental Responsibility*. World Scientific.
- Kenya. 2007. *Eradicating Poverty through Agriculture*. Panorama, March 23, 2007.
- Kerr, J. & Kolavalli, S. 1999. *Impact of Agricultural Research on Poverty Alleviation: Conceptual Framework with Illustrations from the Literature*. EPTD Discussion Paper No. 56, November 1999.

- Kirsten, J. F. & Van Zyl, J. 1998. *Defining Small Scale Farmers in the South African Context*. *Agrekon*, Vol 37, No 4 (December 1998). [http://repository.up.ac.za/bitstream/handle/2263/2609/Kirsten_Defining\(1998\).pdf?sequence=1](http://repository.up.ac.za/bitstream/handle/2263/2609/Kirsten_Defining(1998).pdf?sequence=1). (Accessed July 2015).
- Kleiber. 2009. *Research and Policy in Development*. Research tools: Focus group discussion, shaping policy for development. ODI, January 2009. http://www4.nau.edu/cee/ci_doc/current/resources/5_Kleiber.pdf. (Accessed July 2015).
- Kowalczyk, D. 2003. *Purposes of research: Exploratory, Descriptive and Exploratory*. Psychology. <http://study.com/academy/lesson/purposes-of-research-exploratory-descriptive-explanatory.html>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Kumar, R. 2014. *Research Methodology: A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners*. Fourth edition. Sage Publications. London. <https://books.google.co.za/books?isbn=1446297829>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Kutya, L. 2012. *Small Scale Agriculture*. Different possible roles that small-scale farming could play in growing local economies, combating food insecurity, creating employment and eradicating poverty. Afesis-corplan, January/February/March 2012.
- Larrison, C. R. 1999. A Comparison of Top-down and Bottom-up Community Development Interventions in Rural Mexico: Practical and Theoretical Implications for Community Development Programs. University of Georgia.
- Larson, L. K and Larson, A. 2008. *Workers' Compensation Law: Cases, Materials, and Text*. LexisNexis.
- Lister, R. 2004. *Poverty*. <http://www.polity.co.uk/book.asp?ref=9780745625638>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Liversage, H. & Jonckheere, S. 2014. *Securing Livelihoods, Land and Natural Resource Rights through Inclusive Business Models: Lessons from Swaziland and Sao Tomé & Príncipe*. Annual World Bank Conference on Land and Poverty. The World Bank - Washington DC, March 24-27, 2014.

https://www.conftool.com/landandpoverty2014/index.php/Jonckheere-469_paper.pdf?page=downloadPaper&filename=Jonckheere-469_paper.pdf&form_id=469. (Accessed July 2015).

Maconick, R. 2002. *Capacity-building for Poverty Eradication: Analysis of, and Lessons From, Evaluations of UN System Support to Countries' Efforts*. United Nations Publications, 2002.

Magezi, V. 2007. HIV/AIDS, Poverty and Pastoral Care and Counseling. AFRICAN SUN MeDIA.

Maree, K. 2007. *First Steps in Research*. Revised Edition. Van Schaik Publishers. Pretoria.

Masuku, M. M. 2013. *The effects of infrastructural and institutional services on food security in Ntambanana rural area*. Dissertation for the Degree of Masters of Arts in Development Studies. Faculty of Arts, University of Zululand.

Mbuli, B. N. 2008. *Poverty reduction strategies in South Africa*. Dissertation for the degree of Master of commerce in the subject economics, University of South Africa.

McLoyd, V. C., Hill, N. E. & Dodge, K. A. 2005. *African American Family Life: Ecological and Cultural Diversity*. Guilford Press, 2005.

Melvani, K. 2010. *Organic Agriculture in Sri Lanka - Some Future Considerations*. Monday, June, 28, 2010.

Mertineit, A., Dorlochter-Sulser, S, et al. 2008. *Small-scale sustainable agriculture – a strategy for food security and sustainable development*. Thematic Group on Food, Land Use and Environment. MISEREOR Policy Document.

Montanarella, L. 2013. *Soil at the interface between Agriculture and Environment*.

Moore, S. 2001. *Sociology alive*. Third Edition.

Mphahlele. Undated. *An Evaluation of the Egg-Laying Chickens' Project as a Poverty Alleviation Effort within Blouberg Municipality of Limpopo Province*.

- Msangi, J. P. 2014. Policies and Legislations Governing Marketing and Food Trade: Southern Africa. *Food Security Among Small-Scale Agricultural Producers in Southern Africa*. Springer International Publishers, Switzerland. 21-41. (Accessed July 2015) www.springer.com/cda/content/document/cda_downloaddocument/9783319094946-c2.pdf?SGWID=0-0-45-1489871-p176853435. (Accessed July 2015).
- Mucavele, F. G. 2009. *The True contribution of Agriculture to Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction: Malawi, Mozambique and Zambia Synthesis Report*. Food Agriculture and Natural Resources Policy Analysis Network (FANRPAN), 31st August to 4th September 2009.
- Mugera, H. & Karfakis, P. 2013. *Land distribution and economic development: small-scale agriculture in developing countries*.
- Murphy, S. 2012. *Changing Perspectives: Small-scale farmers, markets and globalization* (revised edition), IIED/Hivos, London/The Hague.
- Nafziger, E. W. 2012. *Economic Development*. Fifth Edition.
- Ngwenya, S. 2010. *The Impact of Poverty Reduction Programmes in Reducing and Preventing Disaster Risk: The Case of Mangwe District, Zimbabwe*. Master's in Disaster Management. Disaster Management Training and Education Center for Africa. University of the Free State, Bloemfontein.
- Nordic Council of Ministers. 2010. *Arctic Social Indicators*. Nordic Council of Ministers.
- O'Connor, A. 2004. *Poverty in The United States: An Encyclopedia History, Politics, and Policy*. ABC-CLIO.
- Oakley, P. et al. 1991. *Projects with people: The practice of participation in rural development*. International Labour Office Publications: Geneva, 1991.
- Obadire, O. S., Mudau, M. J., Sarfo-Mensah, P. & Zuwarimwe, J. 2013. *Active Role of Stakeholders in the Implementation of Comprehensive Rural Development Programme in*

South Africa. International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 3 No. 13; July 2013.

Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). 2013. *Small Scale, Big Impact – Smallholder agriculture's contribution to better nutrition*. United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). Relief web, 29 April 2013.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). 2011. *The Future of Families to 2030*. OECD Publishing.

Palmer, G. & Rahman, M. 2002. *Monitoring progress on poverty: A policy guide on the use of social indicators*. Combat Poverty Agency.

Pawar, M. S. & Cox, D. R. 2010. *Social Development: Critical Themes and Perspectives*. Routledge.

Peacock, K. W. 2008. *Natural Resources and Sustainable Development*. Infobase Publishing, 2008.

Petit, M., Montaigne, E., Hadad-Gauthier, E. F., Alvares-Coque, J. M. G., Mattas, K., & Springer S. M. 2015. *Sustainable Agricultural Development: Challenges and Approaches in Southern and Eastern Mediterranean Countries*. Business and Economics. 14 July 2015.

Phuhlisani. 2009. *International and local approaches to rural development. Key issues and questions: A review of the literature for the Drakenstein Municipality*. Phuhlisani Solutions.

Piana, V. 2006. *Poverty*. Economics web institute. <http://www.economicswebinstitute.org/glossary/poverty.htm>. (Accessed December 2015).

Reitzes, M. 2009. *The Impact of Democracy on Development: The case of South Africa*. Research Report 120. Kellogg Foundation.

- Salami, A., Kamara, A. B. & Brixiova, Z. 2010. *Smallholder Agriculture in East Africa: Trends, Constraints and Opportunities*. African Development Bank Group, Working Paper Series. No. 105 – April 2010.
- Sebopetji. 2008. Also available on: <http://ul.netd.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10386/380/SEBOPETJI%20CHAPTERS%201%20TO%205%20CORRECTED.pdf?sequence=2>. (Accessed December 2015).
- Shahid, S. A., Taha, F. L. & Abdelfattah, M. A. 2013. *Developments in Soil Classification, Land Use Planning and Policy Implications: Innovative Thinking of Soil Inventory of Land Use Planning and Management of Land Resources*. Springer Science & Business Media.
- Smeeding, T.M., O'Higgins, M and Rainwater, L. 1990. *Poverty, Inequality, and Income Distribution in Comparative Perspective: The Luxembourg Income Study (LIS)*. The Urban Institute.
- Soundarapandian, M. 2005. *Environment, Degradation and Rural Poverty*. Discovery Publishing House.
- Swanepoel, H. & De Beer, F. 2012. *Community Development: Breaking the Cycle of Poverty*. Juta and Company Ltd.
- Taylor. 2012. *Understanding the links between agricultural productivity and poverty, and the extent to which small-scale agriculture can remain a leader out of poverty*.
- Thapa, G. 2011. *The state of small scale farming in the developing world*. International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD).
- The Economic Times. 2015. *Poverty trap: Definition of 'Poverty Trap'*. Bennett, Coleman & Co. Ltd. <http://economictimes.indiatimes.com/definition/Poverty-Trap>. (Accessed January 2016).
- The Local Government Handbook of South Africa. 2012. *A complete guide to municipalities in South Africa*. Version: 2.3.2. Yes Media.

The Women's Health Council. 2003. *Women, Disadvantage and Health*. A Position Paper of The Women's Health Council.

Thomas, P. 2009. *Freedom from poverty as a human right: theory and politics*. UNESCO.

Udahemuka, S. 2013. *A Big Push to Break Rural Household Poverty Trap? Millennium Villages Case Study with Emphasis on Agriculture*. Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of PhD International Development Studies (PhD IDS) to the Institute of Development Research and Development Policy (IEE), Ruhr-University Bochum.

United Nations Centre for Human Settlement (UNCHS). 1998. *Proceedings of the Regional Workshop on Mainstreaming Urban Poverty Reduction in Sub-Sahara Africa: 21-24 September 1998, Nairobi, Kenya*. African Forum on Urban Poverty. UN-HABITAT.

United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (UNCHS). 1999. *Urban Poverty in Africa: Selected Countries Experiences*. Africa Forum on Urban Poverty. UN-HABITAT.

United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD). 2014. *Agriculture and Rural Development*. Agenda 21. <http://www.un.org/esa/agenda21/natlinfo/countr/safrica/agriculture.pdf>. (Accessed June 2015).

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD). 2011. *Sustainable agriculture and food security in LDCs*. UNCTAD Briefs: Least developed countries. Series, N° 20/C, May 2011.

United States Department of Agriculture. 2000. *International Financial Crisis and Agriculture: Situation and Outlook Series*. International Agriculture and Trade Reports. DIANE Publishing

Urban, F. 2014. *Low Carbon Transitions for Developing Countries*. Routledge.

Von Braun, J. 1992. *Improving Food Security of the Poor: Concept, Policy, and Programs*. Intl Food Policy Res Inst, 1992.

- Walsh, M., Stephens, P. & Moore, S. 2000. *Social Policy and Welfare*. Nelson Thornes.
- Watson, R. B. T. 2008. *How to Assist the Small-Scale Farmer*. International Assessment of Agricultural Knowledge, Science and Technology for Development (IAASTD). Executive Summary of the Synthesis Report, ECOSOC Annex II.
- Waugh, D. 2000. *Geography: An Integrated Approach*. Nelson Thrones.
- Wekwete, K. 1999. *Background Paper Prepared for the Africa Regional Workshop on Mainstreaming Urban Poverty Reduction in Sub-Sahara Africa: Held Nairobi, Kenya on 21-24 September 1998*. UN-HABITAT.
- Wiggins, S. 2009. *Can the Smallholder Model Deliver Poverty Reduction and Food Security for a Rapidly Growth Population in Africa?* Expert Meeting on How to feed the World in 2050. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Economic and Social Development Department. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-ak542e/ak542e17.pdf>. (Accessed July 2015).
- Wilkins, N. (eds). 1998. *Poverty and inequality in South Africa: Report prepared for the office of the Executive Deputy President and the Inter-Ministerial Committee for poverty and inequality*. Durban: Praxis Publishing.
- Williams, B. 2013. *Women Out of Place: The Gender of Agency and the Race of Nationality*. Routledge.
- World Bank. 2008. *Agriculture for Development*. World Development Report 2008.
- World Bank. 2008. *Growth and poverty reduction in agriculture's three worlds*. World Development Report 2008, Part 1.
- World Bank. 2009. *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook*. World Bank Publications, 2009.
- World Bank. 2012. *Agricultural Innovation Systems: An Investment Sourcebook*. World Bank Publications, 21 Feb 2012.

World Bank. 2012. *Societal Dynamics and Fragility: Engaging Societies in Responding to Fragile Situations*. World Bank Publications.

Young, E. M. 2013. *Food and Development*. Routledge, 19 Jun 2013.

Zhang, Y. & Wildemuth, B. M. 1996. Qualitative Analysis of Content. https://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~yanz/Content_analysis.pdf. (Accessed July 2015).

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Informed consent form

(To be read out by researcher before the beginning of the interview. One copy of the form to be left with the respondent; one copy to be signed by the respondent and kept by the researcher.)

My name is Nhlanhla Simelane, I am doing research on a master's thesis entitled Small-scale agriculture and poverty reduction in Jozini municipality. The study aims to holistically assess the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in Cezwana area of Jozini municipality.

Please note that your participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that it will not cause any harm as whatever information you provide will remain strictly confidential between you and I. You may refuse to participate and withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequences. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this research. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained. I pledge that I shall ensure anonymity where required and as agreed between us through the use of code names. There are no foreseeable risks for your participation in this project and there will be no compensation for injury or financial loss incurred during the course of your participation in this study. If you have any question or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me at the address listed below:

School of Development Studies and Anthropology, University of Zululand, KwaDlangezwa, Cell: 0799888308. For further information concerning the study, please contact the project supervisor, Dr. E. M Isike, Tel: 0359026813.

The interview will be kept strictly confidential and will be available only to members of the research team. Excerpts from the interview may be made part of the final research report. Do you give your consent for: *(please tick one of the options below)* to be used in the report?

Your name, position and organisation, or	
Your position and organisation, or	

Your organisation or type of organisation (<i>please specify</i>), or	
None of the above	

Please sign the declaration below to show that I have read the contents to you and you are willing to take part in the study.

I, _____ (full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project any time should I so desire.

I consent / do not consent to this interview being recorded

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCHER

(Nhlanhla Simelane)

DATE

Please write your address below if you wish to receive a copy of the research report:

Translated informed consent form:

Ifomu Lokwazisa Ngesivumelwano Sesicelo

(Lifundwa ngumcwaningi ngaphambi kokuqala ingxoxo. Ifomu elilodwa lifanelwe ukusala nalowo ovolontiyayo; kuthi elinye lifanelwe ukusayinwa yilowo ovolontiyayo bese ligcinwa ngumcwaningi.)

Igama lami nginguNhlanhla Simelane, ngenza ucwaningo ngezingadi zolimo ezikhona endaweni ngibuye ngibeke indima eziyidlalayo ekulweni nobubha ngaphansi koMasipala waseJozini. Lolu cwaningo kuhloswe ngalo ukubukeza ubunjalo beqhaza elibanjwa izingajana zolimo ekulwisaneni nobubha endaweni yaseCezwana ngaphansi koMasipala waseJozini.

Ngicela ukwazisa ukuthi iqhaza lenu (lakho) kulolu cwaningo liwukuvolontiya kanti futhi usizo lwenu (lwakho) angeke lube nabungozi njengoba ulwazi eniyolunikeza luyogcinwa luqashwe endaweni ephephile futhi lwaziwa yithina. Wonke ununtu unalo ilungelo lokuvumelana noma engavumelani nesicelo esibhekiswe kuye ngalolu cwaningo. Ayikho imikomelo elindelekile ngemuva kokusiza ngemibono kulolu cwaningo. Ngiyaqinisekisa ukuthi imininingwane yophendulayo ngeke idingeke kulolu cwaningo. Ukuphawula kothile kulolu cwaningo angeke kube nobuncane ubungozi ezimpilweni yakhe. Uma kukhona eminye yemibuzo noma ukungaqondisisi kahle ngalolu cwaningo namukelekile ukuphawula ngalokhu, lowo onemibuzo engathintana nami ngokusebenzisa le mininingwane elandelayo: School of Development Studies and Anthropology, University of Zululand, Private Bag X1001, KwaDlangezwa, 3886. Ucingo Lwami: 0799888308. Ngolunye ulwazi mayelana nalolu cwaningo engathintana nomphathi wami ngokusebenzisa le mininingwane elandelayo: Dr E. M Isike, Ucingo Lwakhe: 0359026813.

Izingxoxo zizoqoshwa zigcinwe ngaphansi kwethimba labacwaningi basemnyangweni. Iziphakamiso ezizokwenziwa ngesikhathi socwaningo ziyosetshenziswa kuphela ukufeza inhloso ngqangi yalolu cwaningo nasekwenzeni i-report. Kunganikezelwa ngolwazi ngezansi: *(uyacelwa ukuba ukhombise ngezansi)* ukuze lusetshenziswe ukwi-report?

Igama lakho, isikhundla kanye nenhlangano, noma	
Isikhundla okusona kanye nenhlangano, noma	
Inhlangano okuyona noma uhlobo lwenhlangano (<i>uyacelwa ukuba uyiveze</i>), noma	
Akukho kulokhu okungenhla	

Uyacelwa ukuba usayine kulesi sivumelwano esingezansi ukuveza ukuthi ngikufundele waqondisisa kahle futhi uyafisa ukubamba iqhaza kulolu cwaningo.

Mina, _____ (igama laloyo ophendulayo) ngiyavuma ukuthi ngiyayiqondisisa imiyalelo eshiwo kuleli phepha kanye nesimo socwaningo, ngakho ke ngiyavumelana nesicelo somcwaningi ukuba ngimelekelele.

Ngiyaqondisisa ukuthi ngingahoxisa usizo lwami uma ngifisa kanjalo.

Ngingavumelana/ ngingavumelani nokuqoshwa ngesikhathi sezingxoxo.

USAYINO LOPHENDULAYO

USUKU

USAYINO LOMCWANINGI

(Nhlanhla Simelane)

USUKU

Uyacelwa ukuba ubhale imininingwane yakho uma ufisa ukuthola imiphumela yalolu cwaningo:

Appendix B: Interview guide



Semi-structured Interview Schedule Guide for face-to-face interviews with the officials of the Department of Local Economic Development and Department of Agriculture in Jozini.

Section A: Informed consent

I am conducting an evaluative study, assessing the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in Cezwana area of Jozini Local Municipality. The purpose of this research is to assess the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in Jozini.

I crave your indulgence to participate voluntarily in this study and attest that your participation will be kept confidential. I can confirm that no harm shall come to you on account of your participation in this study if you choose to participate. You are free to opt out at any stage of the interview session if you so feel.

Section B: The Roles of Government in Small-scale agriculture

1. Place of interview:_____
2. Occupation:_____
3. Does your department have a close relationship with small-scale agricultural practices in the area?
4. What is the nature of this relationship?
5. What are your roles with regards to small-scale agriculture projects?
6. Do you provide any support for small-scale agricultural practices?
7. Do you think small-scale agriculture is important in reducing poverty in Cezwana area?

.....*Thank you for cooperating in this study.....!*



Interview Guide for Focus Group Discussions with the Small-Scale Agriculture Farmers

Section A: Informed consent:

I am conducting an evaluative study, assessing the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture on poverty reduction in Cezwana area of Jozini Local Municipality. The purpose of this research is to assess the role and effectiveness of small-scale agriculture in poverty reduction in Jozini.

I admire your respective responses to participate voluntarily in this study and attest that your participation will be kept confidential. I can confirm that no harm shall come to you on account of your participation in this study if you choose to participate. You are free to opt out at any stage of the interview session if you so feel.

Section B: Personal background information of the farmers

1. Place of interview: _____
2. Number of participants in the project: _____
3. Gender:

	Tick X	No. of participants
Male		
Female		

4. Age:

Years	Tick X	No. of Participants
18 – 28		
29 – 39		
40 – 50		
51+		

5. Occupation for farmers:

	Tick X	No. of participants
Fulltime farmer		
Pensioner		
Unemployed		
Self-employed		

6. Income / price per unit of produce:

Section C: Small-scale Agriculture and Poverty reduction in Cezwana area

7. Name of the project: _____
8. Does your small-scale agricultural project help reduce poverty in Cezwana area?
9. Could you say you benefit from small-scale agricultural practices?
10. Does that impact the development of small-scale farmers?
11. Are there difficulties faced in small-scale agriculture?
12. Is there any stakeholder involved in your project?
13. What would you recommend to make small-scale agricultural practices more effective in poverty reduction?

.....*Thanks for your cooperation in this study.....!*

Translated interview guide:



Uhla lwemibuzo yocwaningo eqondiswe ezinhlanganweni zabalimi bezingadi

Isiqephu A: Ukufaka Isicelo

Ngenza ucwaningo, ngihlaziya indima edlalwa izinhlangano zezolimo ukulwa nobubha endaweni yaseCezwana ngaphansi koMasipala wase Jozini. Inhloso yalolu cwaningo kuwukubheka ukulinywa kwezingadi ekulwisaneni nobubha endaweni.

Nginesicelo sokuba nidlale indima yenu ngokuvolontiye kulolu cwaningo, ngiphinde ngikuqisekise ukuthi angeke nazeke. Ngियाqinisekisa nokuthi abukho ubungozi obunganehlela ngokuvolontiya kulolu cwaningo. Wamukelekile ukuzihoxisa imibono yakho nganoma isiphi isikhathi uma uzwa.

Section B: Ukwazi ngohlangothi lwabalimi

1. Isigceme socwaningo: _____
2. Inani labalimi enhlanganweni: _____
3. Ubulili:

	Bhala X	Inani lababambe iqhaza
Owesilisa		
Owesifazane		

4. Iminyaka:

	Bhala X	Inani lababambe iqhaza
18 – 28		
29 – 39		
40 – 50		
51 – Nagangaphezulu		

5. Ngokokusebenza kwabalimi:

	Bhala X	Inani lababambe iqhaza
Umlimi		
Umpesheni		
Ongasebenzi		
Uzisebenzayo		

6. Inzuzo eyenziwa ngokuthengisa isivuno ngasinye:

Isiqephu C: Izinhlangotho zokulima nokulwisana kwazo nobubha endaweni yaseCezwana

7. Igama lenhlangotho: _____
8. Kungabe le nhlangano iyasiza ekulweni nobubha kule ndawo yaseCezwana?
9. Kukhona enikuzuzayo ngokulima?
10. Kungakube lokhu kuyanithuthukisa nina njengabalimi?
11. Kungabe zikhona izingqinamba ezibonakalayo kulo mkhakha wezokulima?
12. Kungabe zikhona izinhlangotho ezidlala indima ethile kule nhlangano?
13. Yikuphi eningakubalula njengezincomo ukwenza lezi nhlangano zabalimi zibonakale ziphumelela ekuqedeni ububha endaweni?

.....*Ngidlulisa ukubonga iqhaza lenu kulolu cwaningo*!