

EVALUATION AND IDENTIFICATION OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN THE
RUNNING OF SUCCESSFUL FOOD SECURITY PROJECTS WITHIN THE EASTERN
CAPE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND AGRARIAN REFORM,
IN THE AMAHLHATHI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY.

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by

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Declaration

I..... hereby declare that this dissertation, for the partial fulfilment of Masters in Business Administration at Rhodes University has not been submitted at any other time at this, or any other University, and that it is my own work in design and execution, and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

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Integrative Summary

According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (IFAD; 2010), about one billion people in rural areas are living in extreme poverty. The drafting and implementation of the Millennium Development Goals in 2000 is an acknowledgement by world leaders of the challenges posed by hunger and food security. Many poor people live in rural or in under-developed areas in South Africa. Poverty which can be interchangeably used with food insecurity is not only a South African challenge but rather global.

The South African government is attempting to address this challenge by ensuring there is government policy to alleviate hunger especially in rural areas. The food security programmes were launched in an attempt to encourage the development of agriculture amongst poorer communities in an attempt by government to ensure that poor people do not die of hunger. The Eastern Cape government launched the food security programmes which include the *Siyazondla Home Stead* and the *Siyakhula Step-up Food Security* programmes. It is worrying that there is little evidence of success in these programmes even though the government has invested funds in an attempt to secure their success. Since their launch in 2005, the government has revised these programmes on a number of occasions.

A qualitative research methodology based on a case study was adopted. A multiple case study was employed in this research. Numerous cases were used to study the groups. In collecting the data for this research, questionnaires, and interviews were conducted, refer Appendix A and B. Case studies on two projects were selected from the Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme and Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programmes within the Amahlathi Local Municipality in the Eastern Cape.

This study therefore explored critical success factors for running these projects successfully. These are the factors that could be implemented in ensuring the sustainable operation of these projects. These include, project management, establishing a clear mission and project objectives, addressing challenges and opportunities of social, environmental and economical sustainability, addressing physiological needs of the beneficiaries, involving the youth and community, role of extension services, training and capacity development, create local partnership and on-going monitoring and evaluation.

The study findings indicate that, the identified critical factors were not taken into consideration in all the selected projects. It was also found that, the projects are not running successfully in terms of economic, social and environmental sustainability. The projects are running on survival basis with no short or long term goal of sustainability. It cannot be concluded that, the absence of these factors alone is affecting the success due to the sample size. It is however assumed that, the absence of these factors, particularly project management which is the driving factor, could be the leading cause of this failure or survival status. A further study on a bigger scale is therefore recommended which will explore these factors in detail and develop a rural development project implementation model that can be followed in planning, executing, monitoring and closing-off of these projects.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my beloved wife and kids, who understood when I could not spend time with them during these studies.

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List of Acronyms

ASGISA -	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa
CSF -	Critical Success Factors
DBSA -	Development Bank of South Africa
DRDAR -	Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform
ECDoA -	Eastern Cape Department of Agriculture
ETU -	Education and Training Unit
HCHR -	High Commissioner for Human Rights
IFAD -	International Fund for Agriculture Development
IFSS -	Integrated Food Security Strategy
MDG -	Millennium Development Goals
NGO -	Non-Governmental Organisation
PIMBOK -	Project Management Body of Knowledge
RDT -	Rural Development Task Team
SAIRR -	South African Institute for Race Relations
SANDoA -	South African National Department of Agriculture
SHFPP -	Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme
SSFPP -	Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme
UN -	United Nations
USAID -	United States Agency for International Development
WIPO -	World Intellectual Property Organisation

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1 SECTION I: THE ACADEMIC PAPER

1.1 Abstract

The challenges of food insecurity and the manner in which it can be addressed is a global concern. Governments throughout the world have strived for means to address global food security either through development of Millennium Development Goals or United Nations protocols. It is a major concern that the South African Government has made it its centre focus to address the challenge of food security. In the Eastern Cape, the Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform has embarked on numerous food production programmes in an attempt to address this challenge. It is however noticeable that these attempts somehow did not manage to address their intended purpose. A study of literature with the aim of identifying critical success factors was done. The critical success factors identified and explored were, project management, establishing a clear mission and project objectives, addressing challenges and opportunities of social, environmental and economical sustainability, addressing physiological needs of the beneficiaries, involving the youth and community, role of extension services, training and capacity development, create local partnership and on-going monitoring and evaluation. The factors were then explored through a study of projects from the food production programme in Amahlathi Local Municipality in the Eastern Cape Province. A multiple case study wherein a purposive selection of four food security projects selected from two food security programmes was conducted. A structured questionnaire was used to source the information from all members of the selected projects to evaluate the existence of the critical factors. The main aim was to test whether these factors, if they existed in these projects, contributed to their existence. The findings reveal that none of the identified factors existed in the selected projects and though not proven, the non-existence of these factors has resulted in these projects being in survival mode instead of a sustainable state. A recommendation is made of a further study focusing on a bigger sample wherein these factors could be tested. The study could assist in developing a formal model for the running of these projects successfully

1.2 Introduction

1.2.1 Background and problem statement

According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), one billion people in rural areas are living in extreme poverty (IFAD; 2010). IFAD (2010; 57) state that, by no means are all poor people stuck in poverty as a permanent state, some formerly poor people have moved out of poverty whereas some may have moved in and out of poverty several times in their lives. A study conducted by IFAD in South Africa between 1993 and 2004, reflected that, (i) 9.8% people were non-poor in year 1 and year 2, (ii) 5.3% were poor in year 1 and non-poor in year 2, (iii) 32.5% were non-poor in year 1 and poor in year 2 and (iv) 52.4% were poor both in year 1 and 2 (IFAD, 2010; 58). There is little dispute from the view that people move in and out of poverty (Maxwell, 1999; 3).

Whereas there are several articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, there is one important article that clearly impinges on the economic rights of many citizens of the world and that is Article 25.1 (Bonti-Ankomah, 2001; 1). Article 25.1 of the United Nation's Universal Declaration on Human Rights states that:

“Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing, medical care, the necessary social services and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control” (United Nations, 2011).

According to Sen (1981), cited in Monde, (2003), poverty and food security are closely related. De Janvry (2003) suggested that the effective approaches to rural development are being significantly more efficient in using rural development programmes to raise the rural poor out of poverty.

Alam *et al* (2009; 1342) state that, meeting the nations' food requirements (poverty) remain the key objective of the government. The South African *Bill of Rights* reaffirms article 25.1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, by stating in Section 26 and 27 that:

“Everyone has the right to adequate housing, health care services, sufficient food and water and social security” (South African Government Information, 2011a).

According to the South African National Department of Agriculture (SANDoA), the cause of hunger and malnutrition is said to be due to inadequate access to food by certain categories and households in the population (SANDoA, 2006). According to Bonti-Ankomah (2011; 2), it is estimated that 39% of the South African population is vulnerable to food insecurity. The SANDoA, developed a policy on Food Security by producing the Integrated Food Security Strategy for South Africa (IFSS).

According to the SANDoA (2002), this policy document has the following vision, goal and objectives;

Vision: to attain universal physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food by all South Africans at all times to meet their dietary and food preferences for an active and healthy life.

Goal: to eradicate hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 2015.

Main Objectives: to;

- Increase household food production and trading;
- Improve income generation and job creation opportunities;
- Improve nutrition and food safety;
- Increase safety nets and food emergency management systems;
- Improve analysis and information management systems;
- Provide capacity building;
- Hold stakeholder dialogue

The Eastern Cape consistently emerges as the poorest province in South Africa, containing 27% of households likely to be chronically poor (May, 2003; 12). This is extreme poverty and it is mainly caused by many factors as indicated in table 1. The Province of the Eastern Cape is ranked third poorest out of South Africa's nine provinces. With about 29% of the population living below the South African derived poverty line of R250, the Province follows Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal with 34% and 33% respectively (SAIRR, 2008). A country should not only prioritise food security based on the poverty levels within its borders, the state of food insecurity in other countries is also a driving factor to prioritise food security policies (De Klerk *et al*, 2004).

Table 1: Causes of chronic poverty.

Economic	<p>Low productivity Lack of skills 'Poor' economic policies Economic shocks Terms of trade Technological backwardness/lack of R&D Globalisation</p>
Social	<p>Discrimination (gender, age, ethnicity, caste, race, impairment) High fertility and dependency ratios Poor health and HIV/AIDS Inequality Lack of trust/social capital Culture of poverty</p>
Political	<p>Bad governance Insecurity Violent conflict Domination by regional/global superpowers Globalisation</p>
Environmental	<p>Low quality natural resources Environmental degradation Disasters (flood, drought, earthquake etc) Remoteness and lack of access Propensity for disease ('the Tropics')</p>

Source: Hulme *et al*, 2001; 23

In acknowledging the need for the provincial participation in addressing the food security challenges, the Eastern Cape Province, through the Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform (DRDAR), implemented the Rural Development Plan (RDP). The RDP includes the following rural development programmes;

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme (SHFPP)
- Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme (SSFPP)

1.2.1.1 Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme

SHFPP is a homestead food production program targeting the poor, vulnerable and food insecure households who have access to a small piece of land (garden) within which to grow vegetables to compliment food parcels (ECDoA, 2010a). This programme helps poor households to produce their own food. It provides infrastructure, training, start-up inputs, and follow-up support programmes for backyard gardens that are a maximum of 12 X 12 metres in size (South African Government Information, 2011b).

Assistance is in the form of a grant which is provided during the first year of participation and the subsequent years, and in the form of skills support, mentoring and monitoring. The grant provides the following the maximum value of R2,000 in the first year:

- Starter packs of farming tools like wheel barrows, forks, spades, rakes and watering cans
- Production inputs like seeds, fertilizer, seedlings and insecticides
- Irrigation pipes, garden fencing and water harvesting equipment.

Some of the women in many communities started a vegetable garden with help from the Siyazondla Homestead Food Production programme.

1.2.1.2 Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme

SSFPP is a rural economic development initiative that targets developing farmers from small-scale operations, through subsidising input supplies, mechanisation, marketing and agro-processing by means of a conditional grant scheme (ECDoA, 2010b). The main objectives of this programme are;

- Food security – commercial field crop production to address local and provincial food needs,
- Poverty alleviation and rural economic development through the establishment of competent and economically sustainable crop farmers starting from small scale operations (1 – 50 ha),
- Conservation cropping practices – progressively establishing the general use of conservation field cropping practices that optimises the sustainable and profitable use of arable areas including the practices of minimum tillage.

1.2.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to identify critical success factors in the running of rural development projects aimed at improving lives, addressing food insecurity and eliminating or reducing hunger and developing small scale farmers. The focus of the research is on factors to be taken into account in implementing the rural development projects which will ensure that they are successful and sustainable.

A study conducted by Nilson and Karlsson (2008) revealed that the implementation of a food production programme (Massive Food Production Programme i.e. MFPP) was not a success and experienced difficulties, citing stakeholder buy-in and communication as two major problems. There are a number of challenges and constraints in the implementation of rural development projects and these include amongst others, communication and stakeholder buy-in and participation in the form of social facilitation (Blaai-Mdolo, 2009). Singh (2009:327) argued that the implementation of any rural development projects on a national scale cannot be possible without the active widespread participation of its clientele i.e. beneficiaries. Maxwell (1999) argued that, in order to begin designing, implementing and evaluating interventions that address aspects of poverty, causes must be understood from the view point of poor people. De Janvry (2003) suggests that, if we are to raise levels of rural wellbeing, we need to understand the process through which it is generated.

Cohen and Uphoff (1977), cited in Oakley(1991:6) argued that participation in respect of rural development includes people's involvement in decision-making processes, in implementing programmes, their sharing in the benefits of development programmes and their involvement in efforts to evaluate such programmes. Effective implementation of rural development programmes plays a key role in the success of these programmes. The failure of agriculture and rural development programmes, like in India, can in large measure be traced to the difficulties which hinder the effective implementation (Singh, 2009:310). It is imperative that, issues of sustainable development should not be underestimated in ensuring the success of the rural development projects.

The World Commission on Environment and Development (1987:43) cited in Singh (2009:133) defines sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation of their own needs.

1.2.3 Objectives of the study

Recognising the need for Government to facilitate successful agricultural rural development projects within the Eastern Cape and to identify where these projects have been challenged, the general objective of this study is to evaluate and identify the factors deemed critical for initiating and running these projects. The supporting goals are:

- i) to identify the critical success factors for the running of successful food security projects based on the literature review.
- ii) to assess and evaluate the effect of such factors in the sustainability of such projects,
- iii) to provide a framework containing the critical success factors for the running of rural development projects

1.3 Literature Review

1.3.1 Introduction

Hunger is seen as one of the most crucial issues impacting the human race in all corners of the globe, with reports being published in all types of media i.e. print, television, radio and internet. Sen (2001; 160) argued that, it is often assumed that we can do little to remedy these desperate situations. In countries like Ethiopia, the impact of hunger has called for many nations and volunteers getting together to devote time in support of this hunger stricken African country. It is often assumed little can be done to address food insecurity and that the situation is desperate (Sen, 2001; 160).

1.3.2 Food Security

According to Barrett (2002; 4), food security is an inherently unobserved concept that has largely eluded precise and operational definition. Widespread hunger and malnutrition persist today despite considerable growth in per capita food availability (Barrett, 2002; 2). Some individuals continue to be trapped in what is termed as absolute poverty (Chambers, 1983; 1). Riely *et al*, (1999) defined food security as a state when all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life.

The impact of food insecurity needs to be analysed in relation to the number of people living in poverty either in the world or particularly in the country. The United Nations' Department of Economic and Social Affairs estimated that there would be 6.9 billion people in the world by 2010 (United Nations, 2010). During the same year, IFAD (2010; 69) argued that despite massive progress in reducing poverty in some parts of the world, (notably East Asia), over the past couple of decades, there are still 1,4 billion people living on less than US\$1, 25 a day, and close to 1 billion people suffering from hunger.

Concerns surrounding world hunger have been around since 2000 when world leaders set far-sighted goals referred to as the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) (United Nations, 2009). These goals were aimed at freeing a major portion of humanity from the shackles of extreme poverty, hunger, illiteracy and disease (United Nations, 2009). This initiative is a clear and apparent indication that food (in)security is a challenge that needs to be addressed from a global level, to a national level and indeed down to a local (that is Provincial) level, to avoid the

continued starvation of many people. Human rights are other aspects of food insecurity that compel countries or governments to take measures in ensuring that this challenge is addressed. It can be fairly and rightfully argued that access to food is a human right and if governments are not paying attention to reducing poverty/hunger, this is a clear contravention of this right.

In South Africa, it is mainly argued by many citizens that poverty or food insecurity is a result of the past inequalities i.e. apartheid. Yawitch (1982; 8) cited in Blaai-Mdolo (2009; 18) argued that rural poverty in this country emanates from the past colonial and apartheid regime's injustices. This is however hugely arguable as to its validity and the truth behind it, however this thesis is not intending to investigate the truth behind the statement.

Poverty reduction has been a central concern of South Africa's government since 1994. The establishment of the Government of National Unity in 1994 initiated an integrated rural development strategy which aimed at eliminating poverty and creating full employment by the year 2020 (RSA, 1995). At the heart of this strategy, are rural people (RSA, 1995; 5). Among poor households, particularly in rural areas, a significant number may be considered resource poor and therefore food insecure although South Africa is considered to be food self-sufficient (Bonti-Ankomah, 2001). Because of very limited data available post the apartheid government, there is no conclusive argument of the extent of poverty within the country. It was however estimated that 39% of the estimated 50 million South African population is vulnerable to food insecurity (Mgijima, 1999 cited in Bonit-Ankomah, 2001).

The Province of the Eastern Cape is ranked third poorest out of the country's nine provinces with 27% of households likely to be chronically poor (May, 2003; 12). In addressing this challenge, the Province has embarked on a number of rural development/food security projects, e.g. Siyakhula, Siyazondla, ASGISA EC, and many others. These projects are mainly aimed at firstly contributing towards the MDG goals and secondly, to reduce poverty within the province.

1.3.3 Rural Development Projects

It is a recognisable fact that, poverty that exists in the world today is predominantly rural in developing countries, thus focus is rural development. According to Bage (2004) and Carney (2000), cited in Pade (2006; 14), three quarters of the world's poor, live in rural areas where they depend on agriculture and other livelihood activities. The key to understanding how to address

the issues of poverty in rural areas, is to firstly understand the concept of rural areas and rural people who are referred to as being poor. This will give an indication of who is being referred to and the challenges faced by those individuals (Pade, 2006; 14).

The Rural Development Task Team (RDT) and Department of Land Affairs (1997) of South Africa define a rural area as:

“Sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including the villages and small towns that are dispersed through these areas. In addition, they include the large settlements in the former homelands, created by the apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances.”

In a study conducted by KPMG in 2008 and cited in ASGISA-EC (2010), it was reported that, investing in rural development projects like the ASGISA EC’s Integrated Cropping Programme could have many benefits which include;

- Provision of food security for 1.8 million previously disadvantaged individuals,
- Creation of 35 350 new jobs,
- Development and upgrading of regional infrastructure,
- Productive use of currently under-utilised land,
- Commercial support programme to assist emerging farmers

To address these challenges and also in implementing the Government of South Africa’s key policies on addressing poverty or hunger, the following programmes, amongst others, were established;

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme and
- Siyakhula Step up Food Production Programme

1.3.4 Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme (SHFPP)

SHFPP is a homestead food production program targeting the poor, vulnerable and food insecure households who have access to a small piece of land (garden) within which to grow vegetables to compliment food parcels (ECDoA, 2010a). Started around 2005, the projects main objectives are to assist small farmers to produce food for their homes by means of planting on small plots or in home gardens.

This programme does not only focus on the growing of vegetables but has extended to other production programmes like piggery, chicken broilers and or layers. According to the South African Government Information (2011b), this programme helps poor households to produce their own food. The programme provides (i) infrastructure, (ii) training, (iii) start-up inputs, and (iv) follow-up support programmes for backyard gardens that are a maximum of 12 x 12 metres in size or other food or income producing activities.

Support is provided in the form of a grant that provides most support in the first year, but continues to provide some lesser support during the second year. The grant of R2000 in the first year is used for the following:

- Starter packs of farming tools like wheel barrows, forks, spades, rakes and watering cans
- Production inputs like seeds, fertilizer, seedlings and insecticides
- Irrigation pipes, garden fencing and water harvesting equipment.

Many women in these communities started a vegetable farm with help from the Siyazondla Homestead Food Production programme.

Beneficiaries to the projects are selected from a list submitted by the Department of Social Development, Health, and those that have already engaged themselves on the government's call of Vukuzenzele (i.e. wake-up and do it yourself) which was a call to encourage people, mainly who are jobless but with a piece of land to start taking the initiative by themselves instead of waiting on government hand-outs.

1.3.5 Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme (SSFPP)

SSFPP which also started in 2005 is a rural economic development initiative that targets developing farmers from small-scale operations, through subsidising input supplies, mechanisation, marketing and agro-processing by means of a conditional grant scheme (ECDoA, 2010b). The main objectives of this programme are;

- Food security – commercial field crop production to address local and provincial food needs,
- Poverty alleviations and rural economic development through the establishment of competent and economically sustainable crop farmers starting from small scale operations (1 – 50 ha),

- Conservation cropping practices – progressively establish the general use of conservation field cropping practices that optimises the sustainable and profitable use of arable areas including the practices of minimum tillage.

These initiatives by the South African Government to address the issues of poverty (food insecurity) can be viewed as in line with Maxwell and Smith's (1992) argument that, the right to food is more explicitly elaborated in the International Covenant On Economic, Social and Cultural Rights which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1966. Maxwell and Smith (1992, 45) further state that the covenant was ratified or acceded to by nearly one hundred nations by 1987. Article 11 of the Covenant enshrines the right to food in the following manner:

- The states parties to the present Covenant, recognising the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger, shall take, individually and through international cooperation, the measures including specific programmes which are needed:
 - i. to improve methods of production, conservation and distribution of food,
 - ii. to ensure an equitable distribution of world food supplies in relation to need (United Nations, 1966, cited in Maxwell and Smith, 1992; 45).

The above initiatives have encountered many challenges in ensuring their sustainability in all aspects i.e. economically, socially and environmentally. In many cases, the government support is evidenced during the launch of these projects and thereafter none whatsoever. Poor planning also results in these projects failing to achieve the necessary intended results. Sandham and Van De Walt (2004, 68) point out that experience with rural development initiatives in South Africa and elsewhere has shown that these projects are often confronted, delayed and compromised by social issues that did not receive due attention during project planning and implementation stages. An extensive study has been conducted on the challenges and failures of rural development projects worldwide including the Eastern Cape Province.

Blaai-Mdolo (2009) stated that, there are a number of challenges and constraints in the implementation of rural development projects and these include, amongst others, communication and stakeholder buy-in and participation in the form of social facilitation.

1.3.6 Success factors for rural development

Rural development projects are often challenged by a unique, additional set of constraints which are not mainly addressed by the conventional project management principles. This section discusses these unique set of constraints that need to be addressed to ensure a successful rural development project and these are referred to as the Critical Success Factors (CSF's). CSF's are the crucial factors or parameters required for ensuring the success in any firm/organization (Ranjan and Bhatnagar, 2008). Pade (2006), in supporting this background state that, a range of project case studies from development organisations reveal the lessons learned and good practice for the success or sustainability of rural projects. In most cases, these factors CSF are based on the underlying assumption and a common understanding that, these types of projects are often politically motivated and in response to socio economic drivers.

Many of these factors are derived from the 2001 Standish Group study that reveals factors, called the CHAOS Ten (revised) that significantly contribute to the success of a project (Pade, 2006; 85). Pade (2006) states that, a project may not require all factors in order to be successful, however, the more the factors are present in the project's strategy, the higher the level of confidence.

In this study, an analysis of these good practices discloses critical success factors that are applicable in the running of a successful rural development project and these are discussed as follows:

Project Management for Rural Development: - Project Management is the application of a collection of tools and techniques to direct the use of resources toward the accomplishment of a unique, complex, one-time task within time, cost and quality constraints (Atkinson, 1999; 337). In project management, each task requires a particular mix of these tools and techniques structured to fit the task environment and the life cycle (i.e. from conception to completion) of the task (Atkinson, 1999; 337). The relevance of this factor in these rural development projects is mainly due to the fact that, by definition, a project is a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product or service (Mantel, *et al*, 2008). As with all other projects, rural development projects must address the five process groups (Kerzner, 2009; 3). These process groups are, *Initiation, Planning, Execution, Monitoring and Control* and *Closure*.

According to Yabi and Afari-Sefa (2009; 1120), given the key role that project interventions play in the rural development process, it is imperative to assess both the specific and overall impacts of implemented projects. The key question in achieving this is how to manage a project without following the conventional project management tools. In achieving a successful project within a rural development context besides the traditional project management knowledge areas and process groups, as described in standards such as the PMBOK, would require another approach. This approach should strive to address the key question which would be what additional knowledge areas and process groups would be necessary to achieve project success within this environment. Pade (2006; 98) state that, an important aspect of a rural project is that the project should meet the local needs of the community, and the appropriate mechanisms which consider critical success factors for promoting sustainability should be applied. Saad *et al* (2002; 618, cited in Pade, 2006; 99) argue that, viewing rural projects only in the confines of the project management institute (for example PMBOK), is too narrow an approach for developing countries.

Clear mission and objective:-the mission and objective of any project or organisation is determined by its main purpose of existence and the needs and priorities of its members. Many projects in rural areas normally start with a general mission or objective which is that of Food Security, and less is mentioned of what would be the needs of the beneficiaries (Thompson, *et al* (2009)). According to Thompson, *et al* (2009), a multi-purpose project will respond to the diverse economic and social needs of its members, often in the absence of local government or effective public services. The needs of the beneficiaries should be addressed and understood by the beneficiaries from the initial stages of the project (Thompson, *et al* (2009)).

Social sustainability:-there are a number of issues that will influence the success of any development initiatives. A study by Sandham and Van der Walt (2004) has shown that these issues should be actively addressed before or as part of any development initiatives. The study by Sandham and Van der Walt (2004, 71), revealed that, certain social issues pursuant to development initiatives that have the potential to affect sustainable development both positively and adversely. These include, social disruptive behaviours, i.e. drug and alcohol abuse, and leadership. Other issues that Sandham and Van der Walt (2004) make reference to are *training and development, community involvement* and *co-operation* (or the lack thereof), as discussed in different section within this literature review. Lack of social facilitation which enables

community to understand the purpose of the project and the benefits derived from them results in the above issues affecting the success of the projects (Sandham and Van der Walt (2004))

Physiological needs:-Barrett (2002) suggests there are key elements to an analytically and operationally useful model of food security. One of these is that it must work from the physiological need of individuals for nutrients supplied by food, but it must also be able to aggregate i.e. useful in assessing food security at units of analysis larger than individual. Amongst other key issues that are not generally noticed is the misperception that, these projects are initiated to create wealth. Beneficiaries therefore do not directly and initially identify their physiological needs and use these as key drivers and basis to commit to the projects.

Youth and community involvement:- Butt *et al* (2011), suggest that the help of youth-serving organisations and the practitioners who work with them assist in ensuring the projects become a success. The involvement of youth in these projects, will not only address the dire need of food security, but also the current problem of unemployment (Butt et al, 2011: 26). Quoting the former President of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (StatsSA, 2001) state that;

“Youth are a valued possession of the nation. Without them there is no future. Their needs are immense and urgent.”

Extension Services:-creating an adequate link between research and extension, also assists in ensuring the rural development projects succeed. According to the World Bank (2006, cited in Allahyari, 2009; 784), extension services/systems should be much broader and more diverse, including public and private sector and civil society institutions that provide a broad range of services (advisory, technology transfer, training, promotional and information) on a wide variety of subjects (such as agriculture, marketing, social organisation, health and education). The South African Department of Agriculture’s norms and standards which were published in 2005 (Phuhlisani, 2008), defines extension as;

“...a knowledge and information support function for people engaged in agriculture, and has a broader role than just providing advice (advisory)...”

Training/Capacity Development:-it is important to support the sustainability of the impacts by strengthening capacity of stakeholders and their organisations, thus policy implication, conception, design, implementation and monitoring of rural development projects should also

include aspects related to capacity building of stakeholders such as training, reinforcement of organisational and management skills (Yabi and Afari-Sefa, 2009; 1128). Achieving food security needs policy and investment reforms on multiple fronts, including human resources, agricultural research, rural infrastructure, water resources and farm-and community based agricultural and natural resources management (Rosegrant and Cline, 2003).

Environment and Economic Sustainability:- for a project to be regarded as successful it must also be sustainable. The term sustainable is applied to a host human activities and structures to imply that they can continue into the future without detriment to either people or their environment (Bell and Morse, 2007; 577). Sustainability should be considered from the start of a project, specifically bearing in mind the factors that influence its sustainability (Munyua, 2000), cited in Pade, (2006; 46). According to McNamara (2003), cited in Pade (2006; 31), rural communities vitally depend on the environment and natural resource stocks, especially those that rely on agriculture for an income, therefore making rural people vulnerable to environmental shocks and long-term environmental constraints on growth.

To emphasise the challenges of environmental sustainability, the 17th Conference of Parties (COP17) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the 7th session of the COP serving as the Meeting of Parties (MOP7) took place in Durban, South Africa before the end of 2011. According to the South Africa's chief climate change negotiator (Yeld, 2011), the package of outcomes of the COP17 climate summit, known as the "Durban Platform for Enhanced Actions", is a "huge steps forward". There is still much work to be done to address issues of environmental sustainability, however as stated by the chief climate negotiator above, strides have been made to address the challenges of climate change.

Build local partnerships:-an early review of local or rural development partnership, defined it as systems of formalised co-operation, grounded in legally binding arrangements or in formal undertakings, co-operative working relationships and mutually adopted plans among a number of institutions (Moseley, 2003; 4). Partnerships are built on existing formal and non-formal local/national organisations that operate as public or private institutions (Batchelor and Sugden, 2003 cited in Pade, 2006; 68).

On-going monitoring and evaluation:-monitoring a project aims to check that the project is working toward achieving its goals, such that it positively impacts a community (Pade, 2006;

73). Monitoring assists in ensuring the planned and agreed upon project goals, objectives and targets have been or will be met and are satisfactory.

1.3.7 Summary

As indicated, the study intended to identify critical success factors in the running of rural development projects aimed at improving lives, addressing food security and eliminating or reducing poverty. Literature theoretically identified the critical factors, and the approach was to evaluate the existence or non-existence of these from the selected projects. From the literature studied, it can be deduced that certain aspects or concern need to be considered for a rural development project to be successful and these are:

Project Management: the understanding of the tools and techniques used in allocated resources towards the accomplishment of a project?

Clear mission and objective: is the main purpose of the existence of the project clearly defined and meets the needs and priorities of its members/beneficiaries?

Social sustainability: how are the social issues addressed in order to ensure the survival of the project?

Physiological needs: to what extent do the beneficiaries of the project depend on the project for their own nutritious needs amongst others.

Youth and community involvement: to what extent does the youth participate in the project, either as beneficiaries or employees?

Extension Services: what role does an extension service play and how is this role impacting on the project.

Training/Capacity Development: what training or capacity development activities have been introduced or provided during the beginning and on-going of the project?

Environment and Economic Sustainability: what plans are in place to ensure the project is sustainable both economically and environmentally?

Local partnerships: formation of co-operations in order to ensure better project results and other synergies.

On-going monitoring and evaluation: how is the project monitored to ensure that it achieve its goals?

1.3.8 Conclusion

Sen, (2001) stated that, it is often assumed little can be done to address food insecurity and that the situation is desperate. In 1945, South Africa become a member state to the UN General Assembly, and in so doing, was compelled to abide by the MDG. One of these goals is to alleviate hunger by half in 2015. This was manifested when South African asserted in the Constitution of the country, the right of every person to access sufficient food i.e. Chapter 2, Section 27.1b of the Constitution of the Republic of SA 1996. Poverty that exists in the world today is predominantly rural and is in developing countries (Bage, 2004 and Carney, 2000 cited in Pade, 2006).

Any project that meets the definition of a project as discussed in this document must be managed and implemented in terms of the project management principles, however, rural development projects are often challenged by a unique, additional set of constraints. Rural development projects should therefore be managed by considering additional Critical Success Factors. In most cases, these factors (CFS) are based on the underlying assumption and a common understanding that, these types of projects are often politically motivated and in response to socio economic drivers as mentioned previously.

1.4 Research Method

1.4.1 Introduction

The nature of the study's research problem determined the choice of which method was employed in this research (Noor, 2008; 1602). Morgan and Smircich (1980, cited in Noor, 2008) argue that the actual suitability of a research method is derived from the nature of the social phenomena to be explored. A qualitative research methodology based on a case study was employed because the interest in this social research was in the insight, discovery and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing (Noor, 2008; 1602). This type of research aims at discovering the underlying motives and desires, using an in depth interviews for the purpose (Kothari, 2006: 3). A multiple case study was employed in the research study. Numerous cases were used to study the groups (Duke and Mallette, 2004).

1.4.2 Data Collection

In collecting data, the approach adopted in this study was informed by an interpretive approach. This approach provides a deep insight into “the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it” (Andrade, 2009, 43). Questionnaires, documents and interviews were used. According to Myers (1997, cited in Remenyi, 2007:173) qualitative data sources include observation and participant observation (fieldwork), interviews and questionnaires, documents and texts and the researcher’s impressions and reactions. Major questions were developed in the form of a general statement which was then followed by a sequence of sub-questions for further probing.

Case studies were conducted on projects selected from the following food security programmes within the Amahlathi Local Municipality were selected:

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme and
- Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme

1.4.3 Sampling Method

A purposive selection was adopted in selecting the above projects (Babbie, 2008:204). Purposive sampling can be used in a research as a sampling strategy (Noor, 2008; 1603). Two projects from Siyazondla and Siyakula programmes were selected looking at the level of their success. A project that is doing well was selected and the project that was struggling was also selected from each of the two food security programmes. The government officials from the department of agriculture who are heading this programmes and extension officers were interviewed to evaluate the factors that were considered in the initiation and during the duration of the projects.

1.4.4 Semi-structured Interview

A semi-structured interview was chosen where questions were carefully designed to provide adequate coverage of the purpose of the research (Noor, 2008; 1603). A case study was developed to access the running of each selected project. Interviews were conducted with all the project members to identify and evaluate the factors contributing to the success and sustainability of the projects. Questions were developed per critical success factor aiming at:

1. Evaluating which of the identified factors were implemented when the project was initiated,

2. To determine to what extent were the identified success factors considered and how are they were impacting on the success of the project,
3. Identifying what problems exist or any other success factors which have not been identified herein were experienced or implemented during the running of the project.

One manager of food security and the two extension officers from the department of Agriculture in Amahlathi municipality were interviewed. The aim was to evaluate whether they have an understanding of project management and its importance in the success of the project. The aim was also to assess whether these officials have considered the identified and any other factors in the running of the projects and their impact thereon.

Research Participants

The major participants in this research were the beneficiaries of the selected projects, refer Appendix E. The projects selected were as follows:

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme
 - i. Joka Poultry Project
 - ii. Somthunzi Poultry Project
- Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme
 - i. Qhamani Coop LTD
 - ii. Mgadle Project

The Departmental officials were the two extension officers who are based at the Department of Agriculture offices in Keiskamahoek. These officials were key to this research because they play a pivotal role in firstly identifying the programme beneficiaries and secondly to provide an on-going support in terms of coaching and any other support. The above projects are established in different areas within the Amahlathi Municipality as indicated in figure 1 below.

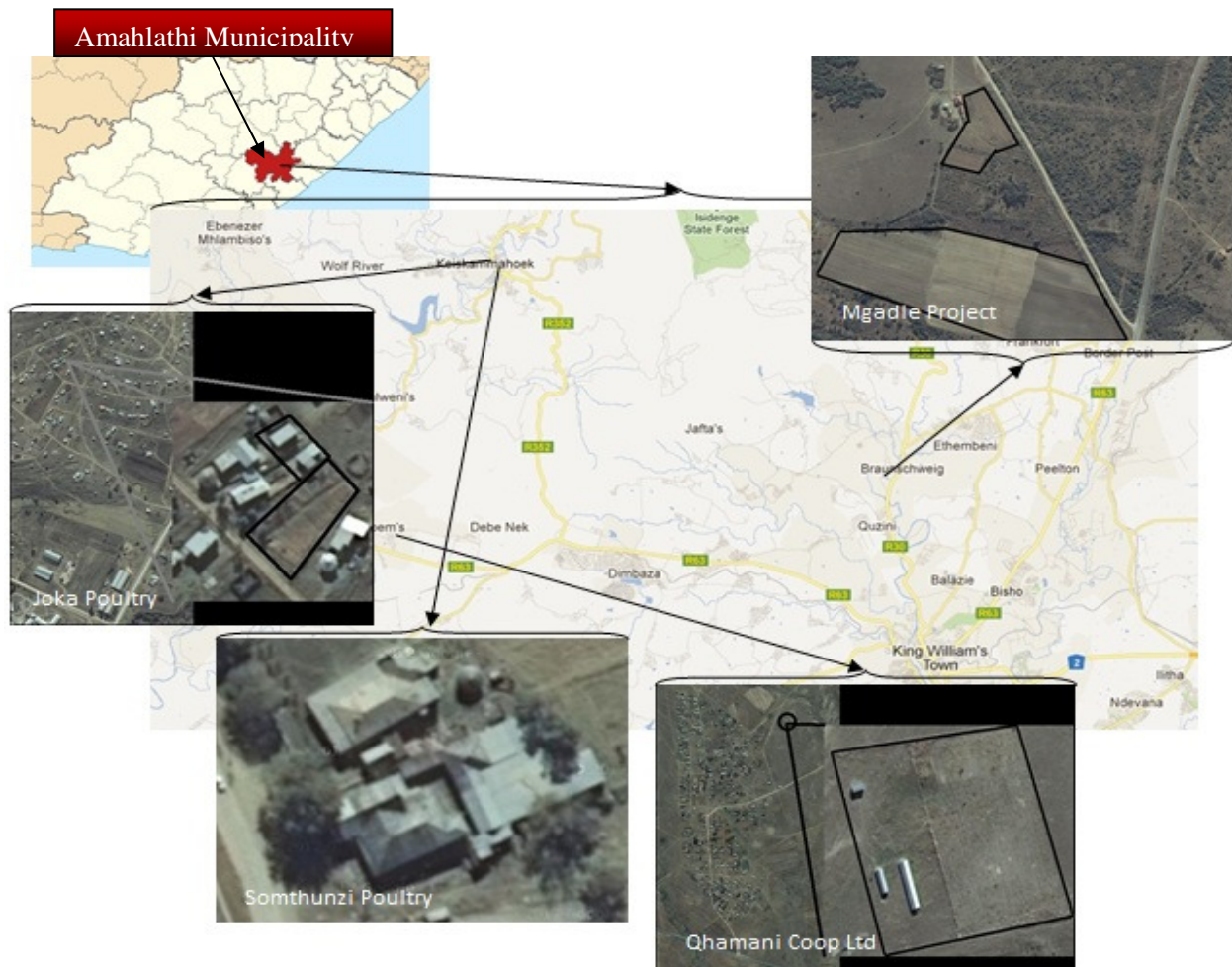


Figure 1: Research Sites (Google Maps, 2012)

Joka Poultry

In 1995 a co-operative called Masibambane was formed by a group of 15 households who each made contributions of R50 per household. The co-operative for unknown reasons and challenges did not start operating and later the contributors withdrew their contributions. Mr Joka and his wife did not withdraw from this plan, instead they used their R50 contribution to buy day-old chicks with intentions to grow these and sell them as live or slaughtered chicken. The project is situated in the middle of the rural areas of Keiskamahoek at about 10km from the central business centre of Keiskamahoek. Joka Poultry buys day-old chicks and grow them for selling at 6 weeks.

During the introduction of the Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme, the aim of which was to assist the likes of Mr and Mrs Joka's project, Joka Poultry was introduced to the programme. The benefits of being in this programme according to the understanding of Mr and Mrs Joka were in the form of getting a number of chicks and feed at the beginning of every year for five years at the least. However this was not the case in that, even though there were visits by the Department's extension officers, no contributions whatsoever were made including training or supervision.

Somthunzi Poultry Production

Somthunzi Poultry Production project was registered as a Siyazondla beneficiary in 2011. The project was started at Keiskamahoek's main central business centre in 2010 by Mrs Somthunzi, as a Vukuzenzele project, which was a response to the government's call of getting the citizens of South Africa to do something for themselves (i.e. get up and help yourself with a Xhosa phrase "Vukuzenzele"). Somthunzi Poultry Production buys layers for egg production and sell these in the old family shop and to the local community. On hearing about the Comprehensive Agriculture Support Programme (CASP) funding, Ms Somthunzi visited the extension office in the local Department, wherein she was made to complete the forms and was then registered in the programme in March 2011. After joining the Siyazondla programme, Somthunzi project continued as usual without any contribution from the Department. The project however continued to be visited by the extension officers in their advisory capacity. Even though there was no actual contribution from the Department, the sales from the eggs resulted in the project doubling the number of layers and this in turn increased the output of eggs sold.

Qhamani Agricultural Primary Co-operation

Situated at Rabe Location on the R63 road from King Williamstown to Alice, Qhamani Agriculture Primary Co-operation was established in 2003 under the then name Siyazama Women's Projects. The project buys day-old chicks and grows these for selling as live chicken for meat. The project started with 12 women who were the founding members of the project. The establishment of the project was because of a retired nurse who encouraged these women to get together and start something that will bring food on the table (a Vukuzenzele concept). The project started by contributions from these women from which day-old chicks were bought to start a poultry business. The initial training to kick start this business was made possible by the assistance of the Department of Public Works.

Over time, the members were reduced due to circumstances which included loss of interest or unfortunate passing away of others. In 2009, the project grew rapidly in that, a co-operative was registered under the name Qhamani Agricultural Primary Co-operation. The growth in the business was mainly due to the support by the community who bought the live chicken from the project and continued support by the Department of Social Development. Another reason for this growth was also attributed to the training received from the Department of Labour , who provided training on poultry and garden.

During this time of experiencing exposure and growth, the project experience problems which resulted in activities ceasing to operate. These included, increased costs of feed, lack of proper infrastructure, increase cost of running the business. What is more, members' enthusiasm decreased as there was no remuneration received. It was at this period of the project that the Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform (herein after referred to as the Department), started to visit these women and tried to motivate them not to give up. At this stage, the project was accepted into the Siyazondla Step-Up Food Production Programme. The delays within the Department resulted in the project not receiving any benefits from the programme in 2009 until sometime in 2010.

Mgadle Maize Project

Mgadle Maize Production project was established in 2009 by Mr Mgadle after inheriting land from his parents. The farm in which the project is operating is situated at about 15km from King William's Town on the road to Stutterheim. After hearing about the infrastructure funding under the food security budget from the Department, Mr Mgadle made an application in 2007 for

CASP funding, and his application was approved in 2009. The only Department's assistance was to draw up a Business Plan which was done in 2008 prior to the commencement of the operations in 2009. All that he required were the contributions in the form of inputs i.e. seed and fertiliser. Mgadle project ploughs maize and sells it to the community and to King Williamstown customers. The project also provides mechanisation i.e. ploughing and planting for other projects within the area.

1.4.5 Data Analysis

The collected data was analysed with reference to the observations made during actual visits. Tellies (1997) argued that, statistical analysis is not necessarily used in all case studies. Each data source was considered one piece of the "puzzle" with each piece contributing to the researcher's understanding of the whole phenomenon (Baxter and Jack, 2008; 554). After processing the data, it was presented in a narrative format. In addressing the issues of ethics, full cognisance was taken of the fact that, often, though not always, social research represents an intrusion into people's lives (Babbie, 2008:66). It was therefore explicitly indicated that, participation was voluntary and they have the right to withdraw from research and that information collected will be treated with strict confidentiality and identities kept anonymous.

1.5 Results

1.5.1 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to identify critical success factors in the running of rural development projects aimed at improving lives, addressing food insecurity and eliminating or reducing hunger and to a greater extent, developing small scale farmers. The identified critical factors were therefore evaluated against existing rural development projects to determine first if they exist and secondly if they have an impact.

1.5.2 Views of the Departmental Officials

The Departmental officials were interviewed in order to assess firstly the background of the projects, their in-depth understanding of the implementation of the projects with particular reference to the success factors required to implement a successful rural development project.

1.5.2.1 Basic Project Background

The officials were questioned on the basic background of the project and their responses are summarised, see table 2.

Table 2: Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme, extension officer's view point

<i>Topic</i>	Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme	Siyakhula Step-Up Food Production Programme
<i>Programme Objective:</i>	To assist poor farmers mainly house-holds with no food at home who have small plot/garden to grow food i.e. food security.	To give chance to farmers with bigger land to showcase themselves and be empowered in terms of farming skills. To transform subsistence farming to commercial progressive farming.
<i>Commencement of the Project:</i>	The programme was launched in 2005 as a response to the Government's policy on food security.	The programme was launched in 2005 as a response to the Government's policy on food security. The programme started by accommodating those farmers with more than 50 hectares of land. Each farmer had to apply and in an area of more than 300 millimetres of annual rain fall. It was only maize production that was considered then
<i>Project beneficiaries:</i>	All house-holds who solely depend on using their small plots or land or home garden for food. Persons suffering from disease (e.g. HIV) and poverty stricken. Household with no parents.	The previously disadvantaged farmers were meant to be the participants in this programme or legally registered projects.
<i>Section of beneficiaries:</i>	The Department sometimes will receive a list from the Department of Social Development, Health, Local Police, NGO's of recommended and potential beneficiaries. Persons make personal applications to the Department.	The ward structure committee is responsible for screening the applicants. The committee is made up of extension officers, ward councillor, chairperson of farmers union, traditional leaders. The qualifying farmers will be checked by the local municipality screening committee, which will check things like soil status and all other needed documents.

<i>Topic</i>	Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme	Siyakhula Step-Up Food Production Programme
<i>Befits to the beneficiaries and duration:</i>	The government contributes by giving out inputs i.e. seed, fertilizer in case of planting or start-up stock and feed in cases of livestock i.e. chicken and broilers. The beneficiaries of the programme receive contribution for one, unless there is drought	The beneficiaries benefit by getting skills as the project continues. They also get income from the project as they contribute only 10% in the first year and this gradually increases until the 5 th year. Beneficiaries are therefore assisted for a period of 5 years.
<i>Duration of the project:</i>	After the first year, the extension officer will advise the household to use the prior year's output to purchase for the current year's input.	In the first year, the Department contributes 90% towards the cost of inputs and the beneficiary will contribute 10% i.e. 90%/10% ratio of input costs, for the second, third fourth and fifth year, the ratio is, 85%/15%, 75%/25%, 55%/45% and 45%/55% respectively. The continuation of the above ratio is an indication that after five years the beneficiaries can be able to afford the input costs.
<i>Monitoring and Evaluation of the Project:</i>	There are visits by the extension officers to the beneficiaries and where needed, advice is offered.	The extension officer work together with the beneficiaries. Monitoring is done by looking in the farmers books of income at the end of each season and where assistance is required, it is provided.
<i>Comments on the programme's success/failure:</i>	There is very little achievement in the programme because, many household do not save from the harvest of the first year. All that is harvested is consumed by the household and this leaves a vacuum for inputs of the new season.	When the project started, it did not achieve its objectives because, some farmers failed to comply to some set standards of output which was 2,5tons per hectare and therefore could not complete the whole cycle as they could not make their first year's 10% contribution.

<i>Topic</i>	Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme	Siyakhula Step-Up Food Production Programme
<i>Comments on the programme challenges:</i>	<p>The main challenges of the programmes are;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There are many applicants in any given year, with no corresponding funding from the government, - It becomes impossible to give cash per household (standard of R2000/household) instead of per group as there are more household than there would be groups. 	See comments below:

Comments on the Siyakhula Programme:- The revised programme, which does not only focus on maize production but instead accommodated all different enterprises, appears to have a better future and chances of achieving its objectives. The quoted minimum number of hectares needed to qualify for this programme has also been reduced from 50 to 5. This has therefore encouraged farmers to participate willingly and with dedication.

The first year contribution of 10% has also be reviewed, and farmers are therefore required to make their contributions in either cash or otherwise i.e. either pay the 10% in cash or under take to do some sort of labour on their own without the Department having to pay for it for example, instead of the Department paying for spraying or weeding, the farmer will have to make means on their own for this.

1.5.2.2 Project Management Knowledge and other success factors

Further interviews with the officials particularly on the identified success factors revealed that, there is great need of workshops for the officials on project management particularly for rural development. This conclusion is reached at from the following comment from the official after trying to obtain the level of project management the officials have with reference to the support needed by the officials:

“The project management that is taught at tertiary institutions does not address particularly the aspects of rural development projects”.

“These projects do not have a definite end period as the Government mostly mentors the beneficiaries until they can be self-sustainable.”

“In many cases, project success is based on Expenditure and how quick the beneficiary is self-sustainable.”

The identified critical success factors though not having been taught or learnt elsewhere, were evident through observation process. The officials interviewed both concur with each other that aspects of the training and development, youth involvement, on-going monitoring and evaluation are key to the success of these projects. The following comments support this view:

“Many projects (referring also to others not part of research) where a training of some kind was done, have shown signs of not shutting down, this mainly because many project of rural development fail within a year or so after they start. This kind of training in

many cases is provided by outside parties. From the selected projects, the only project that has been in existence for a longer period is the Qhamani Coop Ltd and this is mainly because, the beneficiaries received some training and mentoring from the Department of Social Development. This project also has had some youth within it and this can also be attributed to its on-going progress though not being regarded as a successful project.

There are no local partnerships between projects and the issues of environmental and economic sustainability are not addressed either during the planning or execution of the projects. It is difficult to assess the level of commitment by extension officers performing their duties. This is mainly due to the fact that, the officials interviewed perform extension officer's duties and therefore from their perspective, their responses are not objective. This is evident from the responses as indicated table 2.

1.5.3 Views of the beneficiaries

The beneficiaries were interviewed mainly on their view of the progress of the project and their understanding of the success factors. As the major part of this understanding is on the project management the understanding of the aspects of a project management was assessed. The views of the beneficiaries were therefore addressing the following assessment aspects or areas;

- Project management,
- Other critical success factors,
- Perceived success factors

1.5.3.1 Project Management

Despite the indication of how projects are selected, some of the personnel working on the selected projects were not aware even if they are part of the Government programme. This was deducted from the statement from one of the projects when asked when and how the project was started:

“The project was started by a group of household members who later withdrew but the beneficiary and his family continued.”

“There was no formal project initiation, planning, execution”

“The project still continues even though it has not grown, it is however able to provide food for the family”

“The project has not benefited anything from the Department in as far as project management is concerned, but it is acknowledged by the Department as one of the Siyazondla’s”

The lack of project management of understanding thereof is evident from all selected project. This is mainly because, all interviewed beneficiaries never received project management briefing or training when they became part of these programmes.

1.5.3.2 Other Critical Success Factors

There was an observation from the beneficiaries that, even though the identified critical success factors are not formally communicated with them, they were aware of their importance for the successful running of their projects. The following comments from the selected projects provides the evidence of the importance of (a) a clear mission and objective and (b) the importance of environmental sustainability:

“The main reason we are still here is because we are very focused on what we want even though this is not documented anywhere, it is known by all members of the project”

“We are fully aware that if we do not take care of the land we use, one day it will wash out and our children will not have land to plough or grow chickens”

The latter statement indicates that, the beneficiaries have an idea of environmental sustainability but there is no proper plan and strategies on how to address it. This is also in line with the understanding of economic sustainability:

“It is important that we eat at the end of the day so that our families do not go hungry”

All of the participants of the projects were senior (old) people except one. The overall view of involving youth and community is totally different from views described in the literature. Youth and community involvement is viewed as means of ensuring that;

- Youth does not break-in and steal from the projects;
- Youth is not doing other illegal dealings but instead, the projects are keeping them busy

The major challenge with involving youth is that, unlike grown-ups whose main aim is to make sure there is food on the table whereas youth require payment in cash which the projects are struggling to generate. The same view of local partnership and social sustainability is upheld and that is to make sure that, the project is not vandalised or sabotaged.

It is evident in the projects from the Siyazondla Programme, that the role of extension officers is not known. The opposite is indicated by the projects from the Siyakhula programme. This conclusion is based on the following different statements one from the Siyakhula programme and the other one from the Siyazondla programme:

“We have not received any support or coaching from the official who we are informed to be the extension officer responsible for our projects. The only time we see him is when he passes by or fetching the green book, for which we are not even sure what is recorded in the book”

“The official has played a very big role in assisting us with day old chicks and advise us where sometimes”

The above statements are established from selected projects. It appears that extension services are not considered important by officials for small (Siyazondla) projects.

The last aspect of the critical success factor is the on-going monitoring and evaluation of the project. The beneficiaries even though they indicated that they consider this to be an important factor, they do not believe that, the Department and its officials are allocating time to this factor. The failure in implementing this factor is also considered by the beneficiaries to be one major leading cause of the failure of many small projects particularly small:

“Sometimes even if you get support from the Department, there is no follow-up from them to see whether you get the intended output and that you are doing well or struggling”.

“The Department does not seem to care whether you succeed or fail”

1.5.3.3 Other Perceived Factors

Vukuzenzele

It is a common understanding from the projects that, the concept of Vukuzenzele which was introduced by the former president of the country should be the point of focus. Government must assist where they can, because expecting full assistance from the Government has resulted in many projects failing within a very short time period of their commencement. A common statement from the beneficiaries in support of the above was as follows:

“Self-dedication and not expect to be spoon-fed will take your project a step far”

It is strongly believed and supported by the beneficiaries that, the Department (Government) should encourage people to do things on their own instead of depending of Government hand-outs.

Education

In many cases, beneficiary's level of education becomes hindrance for their performance. Education is considered as a key to improve discipline and also to be able to communicate in the business world. The above was supported by the following comments:

“it is very unfortunate that some of the challenge we encounter we are not able to address them as we have to go to abelungwini (white people's shops/consultancy) but we are unable to communicate with them”

“The main reason my project is doing the way it is, despite poor support from the Department is because I did an Agriculture Diploma and worked in the Agriculture Sector for some year”

Business Skills

All beneficiaries have emphasised the need of business skills training in order to ensure that they not only producing for self-consumption, but also for selling (economically sustainable). None of the project could produce financial statements of their projects, and they mentioned that this is because of the lack of business knowledge/skills.

1.6 Discussion and Conclusion

1.6.1 Recommendations

Training of Extension Officers

The inputs from the beneficiaries indicate that extension officers are not fully acquainted with aspects of project management particularly for rural development projects. Even though officers acquire some project management knowledge during their higher learning, it is important that for a rural development project to be managed, one will have to understand the aspects of rural development project management and not only the conventional project management principles.

The interview with the Department officials revealed that, the identified critical success factors were of a general knowledge and were not considered as critical factors that could contribute to

the success of these projects. Therefore this implies that, lack of knowledge with respect to these factors, could be the main hindrance to sustainability of these projects. There is a serious need to educate and emphasise the importance of these factor for them to be implemented within the initial stages of the project.

Programme awareness

Another outcome from the findings suggests that, beneficiaries are not fully aware of what is available to them from the Department, both in terms of what they are entitled to as a beneficiary and also the role of the extension officer. Road- shows need to be conducted to make people aware of the available funds so that they are used to facilitate the process.

Beneficiary training

According to the founding statements of the food security programmes, some funds are supposedly set aside for the training of beneficiaries. It was however established through the interviews with beneficiaries that, not only are they not aware of the potential training, but no training is actually provided to them. This training is supposed to cover aspects of project management and other soft skills including business or finance skills.

Vukuzenzele

The Vukuzenzele approach which is about citizens engaging in Rural Development initiatives e.g. small gardens, layers and other is another better approach to address food security. This approach is however perceived by public as Government's lack commitment toward supporting rural development projects. However some of the projects in the study that are currently showing some positive development started as Vukuzenzele projects. This suggests that, there is an opportunity for the Department to actively play a role in promoting the approach.

Critical Success Factors

There is no sufficient evidence from the study to suggest the critical success factors are formally implemented. Evidence from the interviews would suggest that these factors, had they been implemented correctly, could have made a substantial difference to the projects investigated.

1.6.2 Research contribution

As the government continues to search for better ways to improve the lives of poor South Africans through the implementation of food security policies, the research brings forth a case study of selected projects. From this study, it can be seen that, in reviewing the ways and means of implementing these programmes, there are critical success factors that, if implemented correctly, will in all likelihood have a positive impact on these projects.

Even though some of the projects interviewed show signs of success without the reviewed critical areas, there is still room for improvement as these projects are not operating at larger or sustainable scales. This view is also supported by the responses of the interviewed beneficiaries. The critical success factors studied in this research indicate that, if they are implemented or taken into consideration, they will assist greatly in the success of the rural development projects

It is believed that a further study, looking at a greater sample population, in which the fore-mentioned critical success factors are more thoroughly evaluated, would benefit this body of knowledge.

1.6.3 Conclusion

Food security and rural development are important targets for every country, as there remains too many people living below the poverty line. The government has from year to year, reviewed the food security programmes in order to derive a working and sustainable food security programme that will see the living standard of the poor improve. Thus this revision should be approached from the perspective of the above identified factors, taking into account those that the paper did not identify from literature. There is evidence from the few projects selected that, lack of project management techniques does exist and this could be assumed to be material in understanding why these projects fail. As mentioned earlier, the critical success factors have been explored against a small number of food programs by means of multiple case studies.

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2 SECTION II: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Food insecurity is a challenge effecting many countries and governments throughout the world. Sen (2001; 160) states that, we live in a world with widespread hunger and undernourishment and frequent famines. Attempts are made to address this challenge and these attempts include rural development projects/programmes which aim at reducing hunger and malnutrition within poor communities (Sen, 2001; 160). Over time, some of these initiatives have been successful, while others have failed, with Governments seemingly not evaluating and reviewing these projects before continuing to sink in additional funds. A report by Ruysennar (2008) referring to the South African government spending on food security found that when it comes to measuring the effects of food security programmes, the government does not acknowledge the success or failure of them. The challenge of food insecurity is often presumed as having no end as it has been in existence for a long time. Sen (2001; 160) points out that it is often assumed little can be done to address food insecurity and that the situation is desperate. He argues that the situation is likely to worsen as the world's population continues to grow (Sen, 2001; 160).

The implementation of food security programmes is a response by countries in attempts to address the issues of rural development. Rural development emanates mainly from the food security or insecurity crisis which as stated above, is a global challenge. Threats to food security arise from a combination of factors which individually and collectively place food systems under stress. These could be climatological, ecological, socio-economic and political (Bonti-Ankomah, 2001). In this study, socio-economic and political factors are explored to identify and evaluate the Critical Success Factors (CSF's) of some South African food programs conducted in the Eastern Cape. The aim of the literature study is to identify those CSF's believed to be essential for conducting successful food programs in the Eastern Cape, South Africa with specific focus in the Amahlathi Municipality refer Appendix C and D.

2.2 Global Food Security

According to Barrett and Lentz (2009; 2), food security is inherently unobservable and difficult to define, but both intrinsically and instrumentally important. Humans have a physiological need for the nutrients supplied by food. The observable fact loosely labelled hunger in the 1980's is now being discussed as food security or insecurity (Campbell, 1991). Widespread hunger and malnutrition persist today despite considerable growth in per capita food availability (Barrett, 2002; 2). Chambers (1983; 1), argues that despite continued investments to improve the lives of the poor, some individuals continue to be trapped in what he terms "absolute poverty". Barrett (2002) suggests this situation has prompted an evolving conceptualisation of food security with related mechanisms to try and address sustainable food security.

The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) describes food security as a state when all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life (Riely *et al*, 1999). The most common understanding of food security is, access by all people at all times to enough and appropriate food to provide the energy and nutrients needed to maintain an active and healthy life (SANDoA, 2002). This suggests that food insecurity occurs when people do not have both physical and economic access to sufficient food. Bonti-Ankomah (2001) state that food security can be said to have two components;

- Ability to be self-sufficient in food production through own production,
- Accessibility to markets and ability to purchase food items

The United Nations' Department of Economic and Social Affairs, estimated in 2010 there were 6,9 billion people in the world (United Nations, 2010). According to the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (2010; 69), despite massive progress in reducing poverty in some parts of the world (notably East Asia) over the past couple of decades, there are still 1,4 billion people living on less than US\$1, 25 a day, and close to 1 billion people suffering from hunger.

In addressing this global challenge, in 2000, world leaders set far-sighted goals referred to as the Millennium Development Goals, (MDG) to free a major portion of humanity from the shackles of extreme poverty, hunger, illiteracy and disease (United Nations, 2009). According to World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO), the adoption of the Millennium Declaration in 2000

by all 189 member states of the UN General Assembly was a defining moment for global cooperation in the 21st century (WIPO, 2011)

This initiative is a clear and apparent indication that food (in)security is a major challenge that if not addressed at a Global level, National and Local (Provincial) level, will do little to ease the continued starvation of many people. The MDGs are the world's biggest promise, committing 189 states and all of the world's main multilateral agencies to an unprecedented effort of reducing multidimensional poverty through a global partnership (Hulme, 2009; 19). Target 3 of Goal 1 of the MDG's is to halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger between 1990 and 2015 (United Nations, 2009; 11). The eradication of poverty and hunger was included as one of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals adopted in 2000 (Rosegrant and Cline, 2003). In 2015 the current set of MDG targets will expire, and although much progress will have been made, many targets will not have been met (Melamed and Scott, 2011). The critical issue is to look at the most effective way to take the MDG agenda forward after 2015 (Melamed and Scott; 2011)

Rosegrant and Cline (2003) state that, global food security will remain a worldwide concern for the next 50 years and beyond. According to IFAD, one billion people in rural areas are living in extreme poverty (IFAD; 2010). Rural poverty is rooted in not just asset levels and in different spatial distribution of opportunities for growth, but also in historical factors and social and political relations (IFAD, 2010, 59). Today, availability of food is associated with purchasing power and food insecurity is caused by poverty (Rukhsana, 2011). According to Sen (1981, cited in Monde, 2003), poverty and food security are closely related and this argument is supported by Rukhsana (2011; 29).

2.3 South Africa Food (In)security

In 2000, 189 member states to the Assembly, adopted the MDG's, which as indicated above, are the world's biggest promise, committing these member states and all of the world's main multilateral agencies to an unprecedented effort of reducing multidimensional poverty through a global partnership. In 1945, South Africa was accepted in the UN General Assembly, and was therefore one of the 189 members states to the Assembly that adopted the MDG's in 2000 (United Nations, 2011(b)). South Africa as a country has also had its challenges with these goals. According to the United Nations Development South Africa (United Nations Development

Programme South Africa, 2013), while South Africa has a sophisticated infrastructure, a well-developed private sector and a stable macro-economy, it suffers inequality in education, specifically as regards access to quality education and access to quality health care. The latter especially, combined with the high prevalence of HIV and AIDS, explains why South Africa has not achieved some targets for those MDGs related to outcomes such as employment, poverty, income levels, and life expectancy.

The adoption and commitment to the MDG is manifested in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The South African Constitution (Constitution of the Republic of SA 1996, Chapter 2, Section 27.1b) asserts that every citizen has the right to access sufficient food and water and that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realization of this right to sufficient food. Yawitch (1982; 8 cited in Blaai-Mdolo, 2009; 18) points out that rural poverty in South Africa emanates from the past colonial and apartheid regime's injustices. May (2000; 21) states that, decisions made by previous governments as well as the coping strategies adopted by the rural population in order to survive, have contributed towards this situation.

The reduction of poverty, amongst other challenges, has been a central concern of the South African government since 1994. The Government of National Unity is committed to an integrated rural development strategy which aims to eliminate poverty and create full employment by the year 2020 (SANDoA, 2002). Rural people are at the heart of this strategy (RSA, 1995; 5).

Simkins (2000) states that, quantitative descriptions and analysis in the area of poverty and food security has been slow to emerge partially as a result of lacking statistical data. There has only been one post-apartheid population census conducted in 1996, and one income and expenditure survey conducted in 1995 (Simkins, 2000). In 1996, the World Food Summit (WFS) set the goal of reducing by half the number of malnourished people in the world by 2015 (FOA, 2006, cited in De Graaff *et al*, 2011). De Graaff *et al* (2011) argue that, even though the proportion of hungry people has declined over the last 40 years, reducing the number of malnourished people in the world by 2015 is unlikely to be achieved within the set time frame especially in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA). This is mainly due to a growing population that is currently food insecure (De Graaff *et al*, 2011).

Bonti-Ankomah (2001) argues that, in South Africa as in many other developing countries, food security is a concern. It was estimated that 39% of the South African population is vulnerable to food insecurity (Mgijima, 1999 cited in Bonit-Ankomah, 2001). Among poor households, particularly in rural areas, a significant number may be considered resource poor and therefore food insecure although South Africa as a country is considered to be food self-sufficient (Bonti-Ankomah, 2001). A comparative study of the 1995, 2000 and 2005/6 Income and Expenditure Survey (IES) by Yu (2008) reveals that, the poverty head count of South Africa in 2005/6 was 46,7% and this reflected an increase from 1995's 43.8%.

2.4 Eastern Cape Food Insecurity

It is argued by Chambers (1983; 2) that the extremes of rural poverty in the third world are an outrage. When faced with the facts, few would disagree with that statement. According to May (2003; 12), the Eastern Cape consistently emerges as the poorest province in South Africa, containing 27% of households considered to be chronically poor. The Province of the Eastern Cape is ranked third poorest out of South Africa's nine provinces. The South African Institute for Race Relations (SAIRR) reported that with about 29% of the population living below the South African derived poverty line of R250 per month, the Province follows Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal with 34% and 33% respectively (SAIRR, 2008).

In addressing the challenge of food insecurity, the Province has embarked on a number of rural development food security programmes. These include, but are not limited to the Siyakhula Home-stead Food Security programme and the Siyazondla Step-Up Food Security programmes. These programmes with their respective projects are aimed at firstly, contributing towards the MDG goals, and secondly, reducing poverty within the Eastern Cape Province. Over time, the province has reviewed these programmes in order to derive a model for food security within the province.

2.5 Rural Development Projects

As the MDG's guide development, it is important to recognise that the poverty that exists in the world today is predominantly rural and in developing countries (Bage, 2004 and Carney, 2000 cited in Pade, 2006). Three quarters of the world's poor, live in rural areas where they depend on agriculture and other livelihood activities (Bage, 2004 and Carney, 2000 cited in Pade, 2006; 14). An example of this is Kenya, where over 80% of the population live in rural areas and

derive their livelihoods directly or indirectly from agriculture (Alila and Atieno, 2006). In Pakistan, more than two-thirds of the population lives in rural areas and their livelihood continues to revolve around agriculture and allied activities (Karim, *et al*, 2010). Karim *et al* (2010) state that, like other developing countries, poverty in Pakistan is largely a rural phenomenon, therefore, development of agriculture will be a principal vehicle for alleviating rural poverty. According to May (2000; 21), approximately half of South Africa's population can be categorised as poor. A study by May (2000) reflected that most of the poor live in rural areas of South Africa with the poverty share of rural areas (that is, the percentage of poor individuals who live in rural areas) being equal to 72%.

According to Hulme (2009), human development has become a central idea in international development since the early 1990s. It has encouraged a focus on the poor and poorest and the prioritisation of capability enhancing services such as food security, education and health. Pade (2006; 14) suggests that in order to understand the need for poverty alleviation and development in rural areas, it is necessary to identify what a rural area is, who the rural poor are, and the challenges they face as a result of poverty levels in their different environments.

The Rural Development Task Team (RDT) and Department of Land Affairs (1997, cited in Pade, 2006; 14), define a rural area as:

“Sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including the villages and small towns that are dispersed through these areas. In addition, they include the large settlements in the former homelands, created by the apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances.”

A study conducted by KPMG in 2008 for Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) Eastern Cape, revealed that investing in rural development projects like the ASGISA EC's Integrated Cropping Programme could have many benefits which include (ASGISA-EC,2010);

- Provision of food security for 1.8 million previously disadvantaged individuals.
- Creation of 35 350 new jobs.
- Development and upgrading of regional infrastructure.
- Productive use of currently under-utilised land.
- Commercial support programme to assist emerging farmers.

In response to these challenges, the Eastern Cape Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform (DRDAR) have initiated a number of rural development (food security) programmes. As noted above, two of these programs are:

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme and
- Siyakhula Step up Food Production Programme

The study aimed at identifying and exploring the critical success factors for food production projects. The two programmes are the key Food Security Programmes within the Eastern Cape Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform.

Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme:- is a homestead food production program targeting poor, vulnerable and food insecure households that have access to a small piece of land (garden) within which to grow vegetables to compliment food parcels (ECDoA, 2010a). This programme extends to other production programmes like piggery, chicken broilers and or layers. According to South African Government Information (2011b), this programme is intended to assist poor households produce their own food. The programme provides (i) infrastructure, (ii) training, (iii) start-up inputs, and, (iv) follow-up support programmes for backyard gardens that are a maximum of 12 X 12 metres in size and also support for other food or income producing activities.

Assistance within the programme is provided in the form of a grant. The grant has a higher value in the first year, but in the following years, it continues to provide less and lesser support. As part of a R2000-00 grant in the first year, recipients receive;

- Starter packs of farming tools like wheel barrows, forks, spades, rakes and watering cans
- Production inputs like seeds, fertilizer, seedlings and insecticides
- Irrigation pipes, garden fencing and water harvesting equipment.

As a result of the Siyazondla Homestead Food Production programme, many women, in their respective communities, have been empowered to develop small vegetable farms.

Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme:- is a rural economic development initiative that targets developing farmers from small-scale operations through subsidising input supplies, mechanisation, marketing and agro-processing by means of a conditional grant scheme (ECDoA, 2010b). The main objectives of this programme are;

- Food security – commercial field crop production to address local and provincial food needs.
- Poverty alleviation and rural economic development through the establishment of competent and economically sustainable crop farmers starting from small scale operations (1 – 50 ha)
- Conservation cropping practices – progressively establishing the general use of conservation field cropping practices that optimises the sustainable and profitable use of arable areas including the practices of minimum tillage.

The initiatives by the South African Government to address the issues of poverty (food insecurity) can be viewed as acknowledging the right to food. The right to food is discussed by Maxwell and Smith's (1992), reference to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights which was adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1966. Maxwell and Smith (1992, 45) state that in 1987, the covenant was ratified or acceded to by nearly one hundred nations.

According to the office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (HCHR) (HCHR, 1976) Article 11 of the Covenant specifically states that;

1. The States Parties to the present Covenant recognize the right of everyone to an adequate standard of living for himself and his family, including adequate food, clothing and housing, and to the continuous improvement of living conditions. The States Parties will take appropriate steps to ensure the realization of this right, recognizing to this effect the essential importance of international co-operation based on free consent.
2. The States Parties to the present Covenant, recognizing the fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger, shall take, individually and through international co-operation, the measures, including specific programmes, which are needed:
 - (a) To improve methods of production, conservation and distribution of food by making full use of technical and scientific knowledge, by disseminating knowledge of the principles of nutrition and by developing or reforming agrarian systems in such a way as to achieve the most efficient development and utilization of natural resources;
 - (b) Taking into account the problems of both food-importing and food-exporting countries, to ensure an equitable distribution of world food supplies in relation to need (HCHR, 1976)

2.6 Rural Development Challenges

While both fore mentioned programmes show the South African government's intentions to try and address food insecurity, the programmes have been challenged, resulting in the need to re-evaluate these programs and to make the necessary adjustments. This will be discussed in the following section.

Deveruex and Maxwell (2001, cited in De Graaff *et al*, 2011) point out that food insecurity is not just a failure of agriculture to produce enough food, but more generally a failure of development policies. Bob (2002; 17), citing findings from research conducted by Boyd and Tuner, (2000); Carney, (1998); Lazaro, (1998) and Wildschut and Hulbert, (1998), state that there is a growing consensus in Southern Africa that issues of poor governance, economic mismanagement and scant regard for adequate food, have contributed significantly to the continued acute and chronic food insecurity in most parts of the region.

The majority of failures in rural development projects and programmes stem not from any intrinsic incapacity among rural people but rather from the way that government, donor and international agencies and some NGO's have implemented these programs (Uphoff *et al*, 1998). According to Sandham and Van De Walt (2004, 68), experience with rural development initiatives in South Africa and elsewhere has shown that these projects are often confronted, delayed and compromised by social issues that did not receive due attention during project planning and implementation stages.

A study has been conducted on the challenges and failures of rural development projects worldwide including such projects and programs in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. The dangers of a mismatch between what a project attempts to achieve and the priorities of those meant to benefit from such a project are particularly acute when the projects are planned with little, if any, participation from the latter (Bell and Morse, 2007; 578). Blaai-Mdolo (2009) stated there are a number of challenges and constraints in the implementation of rural development projects and these include, amongst others, communication, stakeholder buy-in, and participation in the form of social facilitation.

Singh (2009:327) argue that the implementation of rural development projects on a national scale cannot be possible without the active widespread participation of its clientele i.e. beneficiaries. A study conducted by Butt *et al*, (2011) revealed that agricultural production in countries such as

Pakistan, which have similarly motivated government sponsored programmes, have also experienced challenges. In the case of Pakistan, factors affecting these programmes include, lack of continuity in agricultural policies, a politicizing environment in agricultural support institutions, isolation of agricultural education, research and extension wings, unfavourable prices, buyers and middleman, absence of necessary infrastructure for farm exports, deficient management and marketing skills, a large number of small operators and unproductive tenancy systems (Butt *et al*, 2011). Challenges affecting similar programmes run in Kenya include poor marketing facilities and institutions (Alila and Atieno, 2006). Alila and Atieno (2006; 7) further state that, poor infrastructure including dilapidated roads, improper handling facilities, poor storage facilities are major constraints contributing to poor marketing and access to these programmes.

Alam *et al* (2009) argue that policy makers consistently fail to follow any of the suggestions made, or at best, partially implement them. A comprehensive solution continues to be elusive whilst a prevailing culture of corruption and political influence prevents the effective implementation of policies (Alam *et al*, 2009; 1349). It is on the basis of the above studies that critical success factors be identified and investigated and verified for the running of a successful food security project.

2.7 Successful Rural Development

The South African Government in line with other Governments of the world, initiated and implemented Rural Development project in order to curb hunger (that is Food Security). The main objective of these projects is to alleviate hunger and therefore, in order for these projects to be considered successful, beneficiaries must be food secured. Madagascar and Botswana are the countries that have been noted amongst others to have implemented Successful Rural Development projects.

2.7.1 Rural Development in Madagascar

In 2001 through to 2008, the government of Madagascar in partnership with IFAD, implemented a project called Upper Mandrare Basin Development Project, Phase 2 (IFAD, 2009). The goal of this project was to contribute to amongst other things, improving the food security of rural households. The strategy was based on strong beneficiary involvement in local development and

on strengthening their technical and organisation capacity. According to IFAD (2009), the project's objectives were relevant both to the needs of the target population and to government of Madagascar and IFAD strategies and policies. Before the project commenced, a needs assessment was conducted to establish the needs of the beneficiaries. IFAD (2009) state that, the project greatly improved the capacity of rural communities in terms of planning and managing local development initiatives, and helped meet the needs expressed by communities during participatory needs assessments.

2.7.2 Developmental State model in Botswana

Another success factor in rural development is associated with the implementation or creating of a developmental state. According to Dassah (2011; 591), an array of definitions in the literature suggest that a development state has no generally accepted definition. According to the Education and Training Unit (ETU)(ETU, 2011), a brief definition of a developmental state (DS) is when a state:

- plays an active role in guiding economic development and using the resources of the country to meet the needs of the people,
- tries to balance economic growth and social development and,
- uses state resources and state influence to attack poverty and expand economic opportunities.

According to Dassah (2011), no continent is in greater need of sustained development than Africa. With economic development stagnating in much of Sub-Saharan Africa, coupled with the phenomenal success of strongly state-driven accelerated development and industrialisation in Japan and the newly industrialising or '*tiger*' (i.e. Asian '*tigers*' which are Taiwan, South Korea, Singapore, and Hong Kong) economies of East Asia, the role of the state in development is at the fore and has sparked debate on development states in Africa (Dassah, 2011). It is reported by Dassah (2011) that Botswana is an example of an African country that is a developmental state based on its developmental success. Dassah (2011) further argues that, the circumstances in which Botswana's developmental success was attained are not identical with those of Asian '*tigers*', in fact, it is impossible for exactly the same conditions experienced by the Asian '*tigers*' to exist in Africa for the Asian miracle to be replicated. At its independence, Botswana was among the world poorest, but now it boasts as its success, an upper middle-class economy.

The possibility of developmental states in Africa is not far-fetched (Dassah, 2011). In South Africa, the developmental state concept is attracting attention mainly because of possibilities it offers for tackling challenges associated with transformation and service delivery. The Mail and Guardian Online (Mail&GuardianOline, 2009) reported that the South African President emphasised that, key to achieving amongst other priorities of the government, rural development, will be the building of an effective, developmental state. The President of the country strongly believe that a developmental state will ensure a coherent state intervention in the economy to achieve the objectives of building sustainable economy that creates jobs and meet developmental objectives (Mail&GuardianOline, 2009).

The key to obtaining a successful developmental state is a strong committed leadership free of political instability and corruption (Dassah, 2011, 594). However, Diamond (cited in Mills, 2010; 242) argues, part of the answer depends on differences in human and policy institutions, including effective rule of law, the enforcement of contracts, the absence of corruption, openness to trade and capital, the protection of property rights and investment incentives. Mkandawire (2001; 310, cited in Dassah, 2011; 600) suggests that African countries borrow some of the experiences of East Asian “*tigers*’ and adapt them to local conditions. Andreason (2007, cited in Dassah, 2011; 600) believes that, pursuit of developmental statehood in Africa should be informed by socio-cultural, economic and political circumstances, especially in the context of persistent underdevelopment, quasi-feudal land tenure systems, and economic and political dependency. Development has to be measured against poverty, one of the most pressing human problems the Asian “*tigers*’ had to confront (Andreason, 2007; 9, cited in Dassah, 2011; 600).

2.8 Critical Success Factors for rural development projects

According to Ranjan and Bhatnagar (2008), a critical success factor (CSF) is a term for an element that is necessary for an organization or a project to achieve its mission. CSF’s are the crucial factors or parameters required for ensuring the success in any firm/organization (Ranjan and Bhatnagar, 2008). These are factors or activities required for ensuring the success of a company/organisation or a project. Rapidbi (2008, cited in Ranjan and Bhatnagar, 2008) emphasized the importance of determining the Critical Success Factors for any company. Critical success factors refer to "the limited number of areas in which satisfactory results will ensure successful competitive performance for the individual, department, or organization”. Identifying CSF's is important as it allows firms to focus their efforts on building their system to meet those

CSF's and it even allow firms to decide if they have the capability to build the requirements necessary to meet critical success factors (Ranjan and Bhatnagar, 2008). In many cases, CSF's are based on lessons learnt and best practices. Pade (2006) states that a range of project case studies from development organisations reveal the lessons learned and good practice for the success or sustainability of rural projects. In this study, an analysis of these good practices discloses critical success factors that are identified as being applicable in the running of successful rural development projects.

2.8.1 Project Management

Rural development projects are projects targeted to groups of people within a certain community. These projects involve mainly engaging with stakeholders and as a result, it becomes a challenge to ascertain their terms with particular reference to start and finish as in a traditional project management approach (Yabi and Afari-Sefa, 2009). As stated by Yabi and Afari-Sefa (2009), where rural development projects are implemented, the principles of traditional project management as defined are less considered. Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) provides guidelines as to the principles and processes of managing a project. Rural Development projects are by definition projects and should follow these processes.

By definition, a project is a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product or service (Mantel, et al, 2008). Clement and Gido (2009:6) define a project as an endeavour undertaken to accomplish a specific objective through a unique set of interrelated tasks and the effective utilisation of resources. The projects within the Food Production Programmes are temporary endeavours by the Government, with sole purpose of creating or alleviating poverty. It is expected that these programmes which run for specific periods of time and then the Government will cease or withdraw the assistance. This therefore means these projects need to follow the proper project management guidelines.

Project management is the application of a collection of tools and techniques to direct the use of resources toward the accomplishment of a unique, complex, one-time task within time, cost and quality constraints (Atkinson, 1999; 337). Each task requires a particular mix of these tools and techniques structured to fit the environment and the life cycle (i.e. from conception to completion) of the task (Atkinson, 1999; 337).

According to Kerzner (2009; 3) project management involves five process groups as identified in the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK) guide, namely;

- 1) Project Initiation
 - a. Selection of the best project given resource limits,
 - b. Recognising the benefits of the project
 - c. Preparation of the documents to sanction the project
 - d. Assigning of the project manager
- 2) Project Planning
 - a. Definition of the work requirements
 - b. Definition of the quality and quantity of work
 - c. Definition of the resources needed
 - d. Scheduling the activities
 - e. Evaluation of the various risks
- 3) Project Execution
 - a. Negotiating for the project team members
 - b. Directing and managing the work
 - c. Working with the team members to help them improve
- 4) Project Monitoring and control
 - a. Tracking progress
 - b. Comparing actual outcome to predicted outcome
 - c. Analysing variances and impacts
 - d. Making adjustments
- 5) Project closure
 - a. Verifying that all of the work has been accomplished
 - b. Contractual closure of the contract
 - c. Financial closure of the charge numbers
 - d. Administrative close of the paperwork

The above process groups are linked to one another, in that, the result or outcome of a process group becomes the input to another (PMI, 2003; 30, cited in Pade, 2006; 83). According to Schwalbe (2010, 79), the process groups are not mutually exclusive, for example, project managers must perform monitoring and controlling processes throughout the project life span. As depicted in figure 2, the process groups are not discrete one-time events, but instead are overlapping activities that occur throughout the project at varying levels of intensity (Pade, 2006; 84)

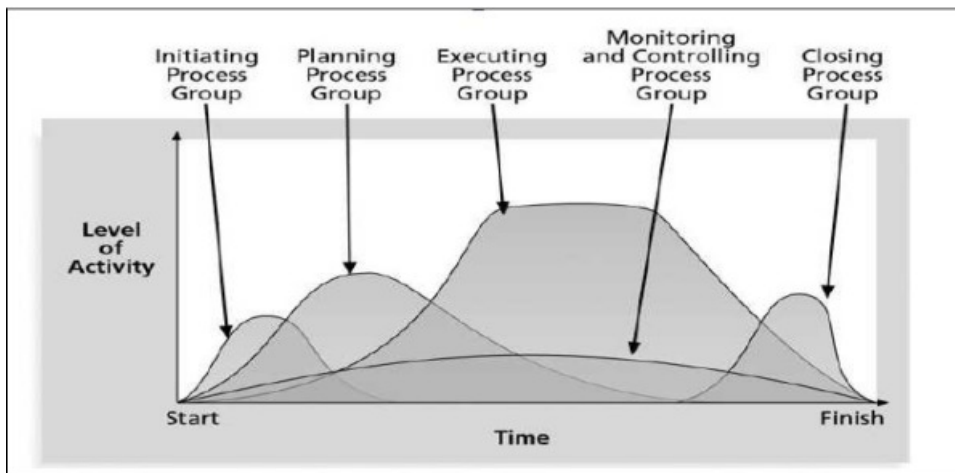


Figure 2: Level of Activity and Overlap of Process Groups Over Time (Schwalbe, 2010: 81)

The traditional body of knowledge on project management suggests that, projects have a specified beginning and an end (time constraints), terms of reference or work to be done (scope constraints) and funds allocated to it (cost constraints). According to Schwalbe (2010), every project is constrained in different ways by its scope, time and cost goals. Atkinson (1999; 338) refer to these constraints as the iron triangle as depicted in figure 3.

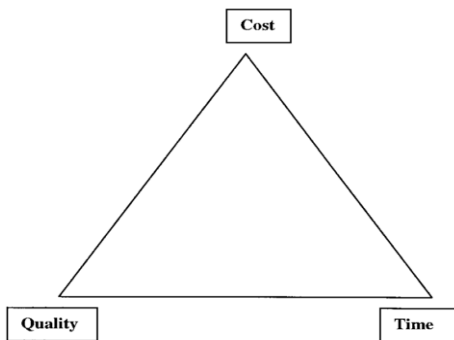


Figure 3: The Iron Triangle (Atkinson, 1999: 338)

For any project to be successful, these are the driving factors which are mainly referred to as the triple constraints of project management. Schwalbe (2010) state that, managing the triple constraint involves making trade-offs between scope, time, and cost goals for a project. Schwalbe (2010; 78) argue that, project managers must not only strive to meet specific scope, time, cost, and quality goals of projects, they must also facilitate the entire process to meet the needs and expectations of the people involved in or affected by project activities. The project management framework as illustrated in figure 4 helps in understanding project management.

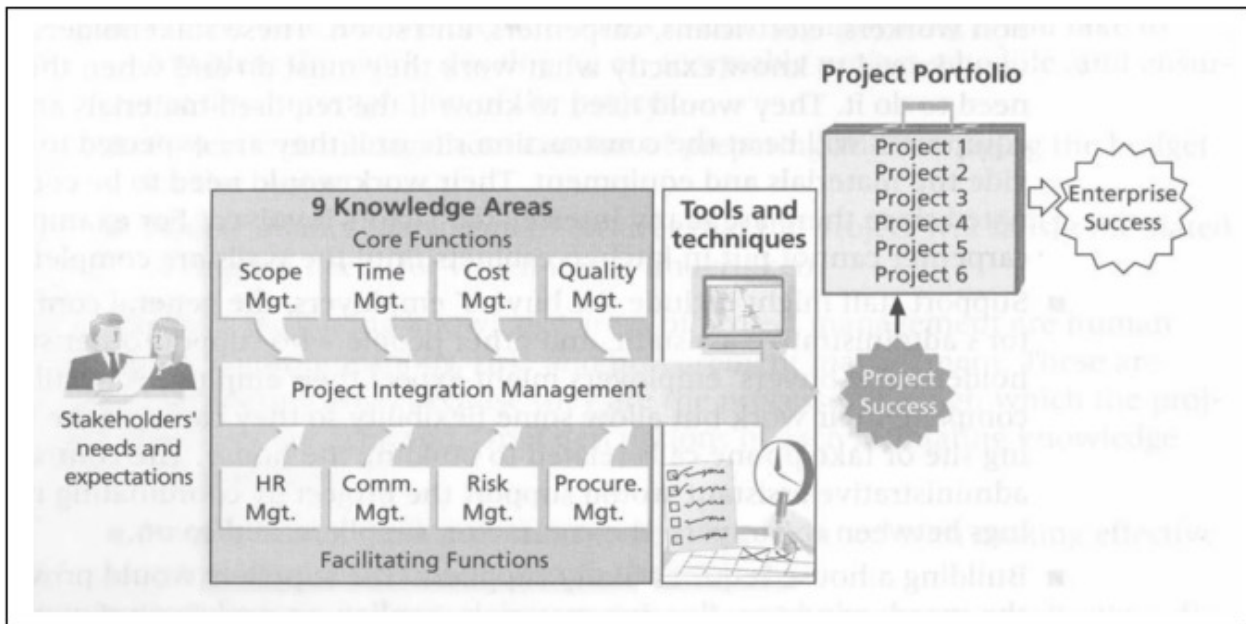


Figure 4: Project Management Framework (Schwalbe, 2010: 10)

Key elements of this framework include the project stakeholders, project management knowledge areas, project management tools and techniques, and the contribution of successful projects to the enterprise.

As the definition of project management states, in order for a project to be implemented successfully, there must be a collection of tools and techniques. Schwalbe (2010; 13) state that, these tools and techniques assist project managers and their teams in carrying out work in all nine knowledge areas. For ease of reference, table 3, illustrates the tools and techniques used in project management, by knowledge areas (Schwalbe, 2010, 13).

Table 3: Common Project Management Tools and Techniques by Knowledge Area

Knowledge Area/Category	Tools and Techniques
Integration management	Project selection methods, project management methodologies, stakeholder analyses, project charters, project management plans, project management software, change requests, change control boards, project review meetings, lessons-learned reports
Scope Management	Scope statements, work breakdown structures, statements of work, requirements analyses, scope management plans, scope verification techniques, and scope change controls
Time Management	Gantt charts, project network diagrams, critical path analysis, crashing, fast tracking, schedule performance measurements
Cost Management	Net present value, return on investment, payback analysis, earned value management, project portfolio management, cost estimates, cost management plans, cost baselines
Quality Management	Quality metrics, checklists, quality control charts, Pareto diagrams, fishbone diagrams, maturity models, statistical methods
Human Resources Management	Motivation techniques, empathic listening, responsibility assignment matrices, project organizational charts, resource histograms, team building exercises
Communications Management	Communications management plans, kick-off meetings, conflict management, communications media selection, status and progress reports, virtual communications, templates, project Web sites
Risk Management	Risk management plans, risk registers, probability/impact matrices, risk rankings
Procurement Management	Make-or-buy analyses, contracts, requests for proposals or quotes, source selections, supplier evaluation matrices

Project management for rural development, does not in many instances have a definite end time. It is in these instances that other aspects be taken into account in addition to the above project management guidelines. According to Yabi and Afari-Sefa (2009; 1120), given the key role that project interventions play in the rural development process, it is imperative to assess both the specific and overall impacts of implemented projects. Yabi and Afari-Sefa (2009; 1127) suggest that, agriculture policy should focus more on efficiency in designing, managing and monitoring rural development projects.

During project planning and implementation, ironically, it is often the very issues that the project is aimed to advance that are ignored, and this jeopardises the success of the project (Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004; 68). As indicated in the brief description of the rural development programmes under review, the driving aim of these projects is to ensure the community develops

from one stage to another in terms of getting out of poverty. It is therefore imperative that, the designing/planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages are adhered to. It is therefore important that the policy makers (i.e. the government) make an effort to follow suggestions made or at best partially implement them (Alam *et al*, 2009).

Yabi and Afari-Sefa (2009; 1121) argue that, some outputs of rural development projects such as capacity building and improvement of food security are sometimes difficult to measure and or provide satisfactory results via cost benefit approach. It is on this basis that the decisive issue of a measure of project success is not whether the planned results have been achieved, but what impact the activities of the project have provided and whether they satisfy all the stakeholders needs (Yabi and Afari-Sefa, 2009; 1121).

Project management success is not only about the above i.e. process groups, triple constraints and the framework. It involves the managing of a temporary endeavour undertaken to create a unique product or service (Mantel, et al, 2008). This can be viewed as a series of inter-related phases that promote project sustainability in a complex rural environment (Pade, 2006; 92). Schwalbe (2010 57), point out that throughout the processes and phases of project management, there are a series of considerations to be taken in to account and these are;

“...what *work will be performed in each phase*, what deliverables *will be produced and when*, who is involved in *each phase*, and how management *will control and approve work produced in each phase*...”

These considerations are referred as the project life cycle as shown in figure 5.

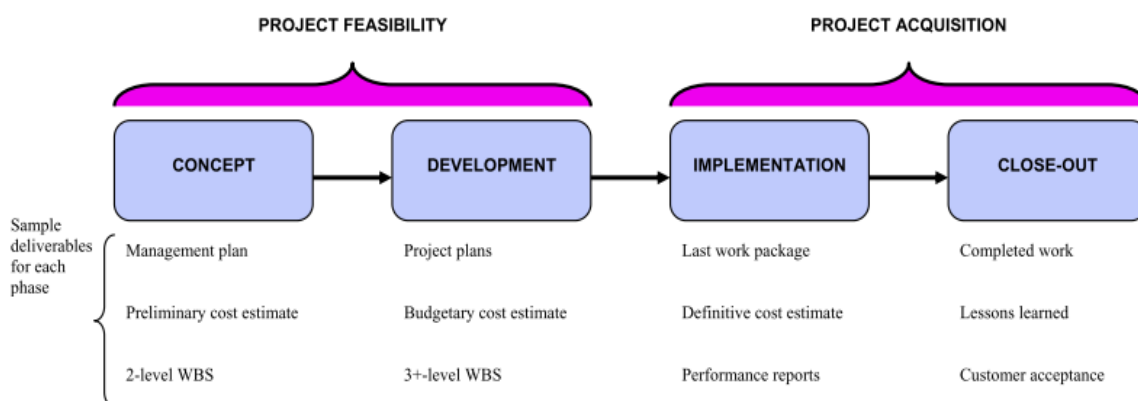


Figure 5: Phases of the Traditional Project Life Cycle (Schwalbe, 2010: 57)

In achieving a successful project within a rural development context, without ignoring the PMBOK guidelines would require another approach. This approach should strive to address the key question which would be what additional knowledge areas and process groups would be necessary to achieve project success within this environment. Pade (2006; 98) states that, an important aspect of a rural project is that the project should meet the local needs of the community, and the appropriate mechanisms which consider critical success factors for promoting sustainability should be applied. Saad *et al* (2002; 618, cited in Pade, 2006; 99) argue that, viewing rural projects only in the confines of the project management institute (for example PMBOK), is too narrow an approach for developing countries.

While traditional project wisdom with its knowledge areas and process groups provides universal application across diverse projects, rural development projects are often challenged by a unique, additional set of constraints and these are discussed in the following paragraphs as additional CFS to be considered in running rural development project. In most cases, these factors (CFS) are based on the underlying assumption and a common understanding that, these types of projects are often politically motivated and in response to socio economic drivers as mentioned previously. Many of these factors are derived from the 2001 Standish Group study that reveals factors, called the CHAOS Ten (revised) that significantly contribute to the success of a project (Pade, 2006; 85). Pade (2006) states that, a project may not require all factors in order to be successful, however, the more the factors are present in the project's strategy, the higher the level of confidence.

2.8.2 Clear mission and objective

It is generally known and accepted that, the mission and objectives of any project or organisation are determined by its main purpose of existence and the needs and priorities of its members. Thompson, *et al* (2009) state that, a multi-purpose project will respond to the diverse economic and social needs of its members, often in the absence of local government or effective public services. The project goals and aims need to be clearly outlined during the project initiating stages so that the project planning and implementation phases reflect these goals and aims, in so doing, avoiding any jeopardy to the project (Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004). An example is that of a successful rural project in Madagascar (IFAD, 2009), where a needs assessment is done

with the beneficiaries to ensure that, what the project intends to achieve is addressing these needs.

2.8.3 Addressing challenges and opportunities of social sustainability

There are a number of issues that will influence the success of any development initiatives and a study by Sandham and Van der Walt (2004) has shown that these issues should be actively addressed before or as part of any development initiatives. The study by Sandham and Van der Walt (2004, 71) revealed that there are certain social issues pursuant to development initiatives, which have the potential of affecting the sustainable development both positively and adversely. These issues include;

Socially disruptive behaviour: this is an area where change in the community can be indentified relatively quickly and efficiently and can be an indicator or early warning sign of social disintegration, these include drunkenness and alcohol abuse and drug abuse.

Leadership: the importance of local leadership is amply demonstrated by Nel *et al* (2000, cited in Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004; 74) where it is reported to be a key ingredient of successful community based-led sustainable development in the Kat River valley and the wider Mpopo district of the Eastern Cap. The problem of political connectedness of leadership in the community poses a threat, as in the general political arena of South Africa, where party political changes take place too often at all spheres of government. Other issues that Sandham and Van der Walt (2004) make reference to are *training and development, community involvement* and *co-operation* (or the lack thereof), as discussed in different section within this literature review.

2.8.4 Physiological needs.

Barrett (2002) suggests there are five key elements to an analytically and operationally useful model of food security. First, it must work from the physiological need of individuals, but it must also be able to aggregate i.e. useful in assessing food security at units of analysis larger than individual. Barrett (2002) therefore argues that, individuals/beneficiaries of food security programmes must firstly believe that there is benefit for them in terms of the nutritional needs, but without ignoring the aggregate rewards of these programmes. Second, a useful model of food security must recognise the complementarities and trade-offs between food and other variables, notably education, care-giving and health. Third, a useful model of food security must capture behavioural dynamics. Fourth, a useful food security model must be built upon an understanding

of uncertainty and risk. Finally, a useful model of food security must capture irreversibility and associated threshold effects that make the threat of an adverse nutritional state so worrisome.

2.8.5 Youth and community involvement.

According to Pade (2006; 42), youth is amongst the social groups in rural areas that are discriminated against. Munyua (2000; 7, cited in Pade, 2006; 42), indicate that, youth make up a large part of the population in developing countries, for example about 50% in Kenya, yet they have been given little opportunity to participate in rural development. According to StatsSA (2001), 40% of the country's population, as per 1996 census, is youth. Quoting the former President of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (StatsSA, 2001) state that;

“Youth are a valued possession of the nation. Without them there is no future. Their needs are immense and urgent.”

According to the National Youth Act of 1996, youth in South Africa are defined as persons in the age group 14 to 35 years (StatsSA, 2001). According to StatsSA (2001), overall unemployment rate (expanded definition) for youth in South Africa according to Census '96 was 40,9%. According to Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA) (2011; 6), the rate of youth unemployment in 2010 has risen to 72%.

In addressing some of the issues or problems associated with rural development projects, Butt *et al* (2011), suggested the help of youth-serving organisations and the practitioners who work with them. The involvement of youth in these projects, will not only address the dire need of food security, but also the current problem of unemployment (Butt *et al*, 2011: 26). In their study, Butt *et al* (2011; 27) point out that, youth are the important asset of the nation but, are exploited by the different agencies and their capabilities/competencies are not fully utilised by the Government. According to Gillepsie *et al* (1996, cited in Sanders, 1999; 308), community involvement is a key feature for all programmes that work. Sanders (1999; 308) argued that, community participation includes a full role in assessment, analysis and action.

Sanders (1999; 308) identified some of the advantages of involving communities in rural development projects. These include:

- Increasing a sense of ownership of the project, thus leading to sustainability,
- Decreasing resistance to project innovations

- Decreasing dependence on external assistance.

Involving community in rural development projects enables the sharing of knowledge and skills. According to Pade (2006; 33), cultural heritage which encompasses social norms, values, attitudes and networks of society, is a key source for economic growth and development. Community involvement, influences the way in which individuals in a given society understand their environment and the strategies they use to cope within their environments (Pade, 2006; 33). Chapman and Slaymaker, (2002: 8, cited in Pade, 2006; 33) state that, communities are encouraged to create community ties, thereby sharing solutions and approaches to contribute effectively toward rural development and increase their social capital. Different members of the community have different understanding and knowledge of the challenges and opportunities of farming (Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004; 72). According to Hill and Woodland (2003, cited in Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004; 72), in order for this knowledge to be used optimally, collective community action is required.

2.8.6 Extension Services.

According to the South African Department of Agriculture's norms and standards which were published in 2005 (Phuhlisani, 2008), Extension is defined as;

"...a knowledge and information support function for people engaged in agriculture, and has a broader role than just providing advice (advisory)..."

Rivera and Qamar (2003, 14) define extension as follows;

"...a non-formal educational function that applies to any institution that disseminates information and advice with the intention of promoting knowledge, attitudes, skills and aspirations, although the term, "extension" tends to be associated with agriculture and rural development..."

The goal of extension include the transferring of knowledge from researchers to farmers, advising farmers in their decision making and educating farmers on how to make better decisions, enabling farmers to clarify their own goals and possibilities and stimulating desirable agricultural developments (van der Ben and Hawkins, 1996, cited in World Bank, 2003; 2).

In many countries, the extension system was introduced in the 1980's, but was not very successful and was undermined by liberalisation and structural adjustment policies (Green, 2006, cited in De Graaff *et al*, 2011). According to the World Bank (2006, cited in Allahyari, 2009;

784), extension services/systems should be much broader and more diverse, including public and private sector and civil society institutions that provide a broad range of services (advisory, technology transfer, training, promotional and information) on a wide variety of subjects (such as agriculture, marketing, social organisation, health and education). Creating an adequate link between research and extension also assists in ensuring that rural development projects succeed. Extension facilities contribute to the success of rural development through agricultural activities (Alam *et al*, 2009; 1343). Chambers (2008; 40) noted however that there is a tendency for extension staff to visit progressive farmers/projects and not to visit non-innovators. This is a concern that will need to be noted and addressed. The non-innovators are considered to be those farmers (projects) which are not progressive (Chambers, 2008).

2.8.7 Training/Capacity Development.

To support the sustainability of the impact of rural development projects, the capacity of stakeholders and their organisations should be strengthened (Yabi and Afari-Sefa, 2009; 1128). The policy implication, conception, design, implementation and monitoring of rural development projects should also include aspects related to capacity building of stakeholders such as training, reinforcement of organisational and management skills (Yabi and Afari-Sefa, 2009; 1128).

Achieving food security needs policy and investment reforms on multiple fronts, including human resources, agricultural research, rural infrastructure, water resources and farm-and community based agricultural and natural resources management (Rosegrant and Cline, 2003). According to Rosegrant and Cline (2003), increased investment in people (human resources) is essential to accelerate food security improvements. This investment in people can take different form. It can be in the form of agricultural training, be it lower or informal level that is, on the field training or a formal level that is, in the form of primary or secondary education. A fog harvesting training was performed at Lepelfontein in the Western Cape, and the results showed an improvement in the level of knowledge of the community with respect to the rural development project undertaken in the area (Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004; 73).

2.8.8 Environment and Economic Sustainability.

For a project to be regarded as successful it must also be sustainable. Sustainable development is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to their own needs (World Commission on Environment and Development , 1987:43

cited in Singh 2009:133). The term sustainable is applied to a host of human activities and structures to imply that they can continue into the future without detriment to either people or their environment (Bell and Morse, 2007; 577). Sustainability should be considered from the start of a project, specifically bearing in mind the factors that influence a projects sustainability (Munyua, 2000, cited in Pade, 2006; 46).

The definition of sustainable development secured a wider recognition following a United Nations Conference on Environmental Development (UNCED) in Reo de Janeiro in 1992 and reaffirmed at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg in 2002 (Sandham and Van der Walt, 2004, 68). According to McNamara (2003, cited in Pade, 2006; 31), rural communities vitally depend on the environment and natural resource stocks, especially those that rely on agriculture for an income, therefore making rural people vulnerable to environmental shocks and long-term environmental constraints on growth. The World Bank (2003, cited in Pade, 2006, 31) pointed out that, managing and protecting the environment can contribute to improving rural health conditions, sustaining primary production activities and reducing the risks of natural disasters such as floods, mudslides and wildfires.

To emphasise the challenges of environmental sustainability, the 17th Conference of Parties (COP17) to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the 7th session of the COP serving as the Meeting of Parties (MOP7) took place in Durban, South Africa before the end of 2011. The main focus of COP17 was to emphasis the importance of countries to abide by the Kyoto Protocol. The Kyoto Protocol was adopted at a COP to the UNFCC in Kyoto, Japan in December 1997 (Environment, 2005). South Africa was not party to this conference at the time, it acceded to the Kyoto Protocol in mid 2002. Article 2, paragraph 1 (a) (iii) of the Kyoto Protocol state that;

“...each party shall, implement and or further elaborate policies and measures in accordance with its national circumstances, such as, promotion of sustainable forms of agriculture in light of climate change considerations...”

According to South Africa’s chief climate change negotiator (Yeld, 2011), the package of outcomes of the COP17 climate summit, known as the “Durban Platform for Enhanced Actions”, is a “huge steps forward”. There is still much work to be done to address issues of environmental sustainability, however as stated by the chief climate negotiator above, strides have been made to address the challenges of climate change.

2.8.9 Build local partnerships

Literature on local or rural development partnerships, defined it as a system of formalised co-operation, grounded in legally binding arrangements or in formal undertakings, co-operative working relationships and mutually adopted plans among a number of institutions (Moseley, 2003; 4). James's (2002, cited in Moseley 2003; 4) review of the rural development partnership concluded that;

A partnership is generally depicted as a process involving an inter-organisational arrangement that mobilises a coalition of interests around shared objectives and a common agenda as a means to respond to a shared issue to realise specific outcomes.

Partnerships are built on existing formal and non-formal local/national organisations that operate as public or private institutions (Batchelor and Sugden, 2003 cited in Pade, 2006; 68). Pade (2006; 69) stated that, once partners have been selected to participate, the goals of the project and their defined roles and responsibilities need to be clearly communicated to them. This can be achieved by drafting and agreeing on a memorandum of understanding document. According to Mitchel (2008, 2) partnerships between government, the private sector and even segments of civil society are viewed as one important method of working towards meeting the many developmental and service delivery goals within the country.

2.8.10 On-going monitoring and evaluation of the project

Monitoring a project aims to check that the project is working toward achieving its goals, such that it positively impacts a community (Pade, 2006; 73). Monitoring assists in ensuring the planned and agreed upon project goals, objectives and targets have been or will be met and are satisfactory. During the process of the on-going monitoring and evaluation of the project, all stakeholders, are informed of the progress both in terms of the challenges and achievement. Furthermore, it acts as an early warning system in the project process to rectify and address any problems incurred in the project before they become difficult to solve (Dymond and Oestman, 2004: 65, cited in Pade, 2006; 73).

2.9 Conclusion

Food insecurity is often presumed as being a challenge that cannot be addressed or dealt with entirely. It is pointed out that it is often assumed little can be done to address food insecurity and that the situation is desperate (Sen, 2001; 160). In 1945, South Africa became a member state to the UN General Assembly, and in so doing, was compelled to abide by the MDG. One of these goals is to alleviate hunger by half in 2015. This was manifested when South Africa asserted in the Constitution of the country, the right of every person to access sufficient food i.e. Chapter 2, Section 27.1b of the Constitution of the Republic of SA 1996.

Poverty that exists in the world today is predominantly rural and in developing countries (Bage, 2004 and Carney, 2000 cited in Pade, 2006). Like in other countries, for example Kenya and Pakistan, where the majority of the population live in rural areas, a study by May (2000) reveals that most of the poor people in South Africa live in rural areas. In acknowledging this challenge, the South African government has invested in Rural Development projects to improve the livelihood of these people. However these projects like many in the world have encountered challenges with threatened their success and many have since ceased to exist.

When it comes to challenges facing the rural development projects, researchers which include, Uphoff (1998), Sandham and Van De Walt (2004), Bell and Morse (2007) Blaai-Mdolo (2009) De Graaff et al (2011) cite many reasons why these project fail. Amongst these reasons are, failure of development policies, poor governance, social issues that did not receive due attention and lack of understanding the dangers of a mismatch between what a project attempts to achieve and the priorities of those meant to benefit. It is discovered by these researchers that, communication, stakeholder buy-in, and participation in the form of social facilitation are not addressed during the planning stages of the projects.

A project which meets the definition of a project as discussed in this document must be managed and implemented in terms of the project management principles, however, rural development projects are often challenged by a unique, additional set of constraints. Rural development projects should therefore be managed by considering additional CFS, see table 4. In most cases, these factors (CFS) are based on the underlying assumption and a common understanding that, these types of projects are often politically motivated and in response to socio economic drivers as mentioned previously.

Table 4: Critical Success Factors for effective implementation of rural development projects.

	Critical Success Factor	Brief Explanation
i	Project Management	Taking into consideration project management guidelines as described by the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK), amongst others.
ii	Clear mission and objective	Clearly defining the mission and objective of the project during the project initiation stages.
iii	Social Sustainability	Addressing social issues pursuant to development initiatives which have the potential of affecting the sustainable development both positively and adversely.
iv	Physiological needs	Individuals need to understand the benefits associated with rural development programmes.
v	Youth and community involvement	Youth is highly affected by unemployment and they therefore need to be engaged in rural development projects.
vi	Extension services	Provision of knowledge and information support to the people involved in agricultural activities.
vii	Training/capacity development	Investing in people in ensuring that their skills are developed.
viii	Environment and Economic Sustainability	Continuously meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to their own needs.
ix	Building local partnerships	Engaging other parties as a means of responding to a shared issue to realise specific outcomes.
x	On-going Monitoring and Evaluation	Continuously monitoring and evaluating the project to ensure goals, objectives and targets are or will be achieved.

3 SECTION III: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The choice of which method was employed in this research was dependent upon the nature of the research problem (Noor, 2008; 1602). Morgan and Smircich (1980, cited in Noor, 2008) argue that the actual suitability of a research method is derived from the nature of the social phenomena to be explored. A qualitative research methodology based on multiple case studies was adopted. Yin (1993;3) state that, the case study is the method of choice when the phenomenon under study is not readily distinguished from its context.

3.1.1 Background to the research problem

It is reported that, more than one billion people in rural areas are living in extreme poverty (IFAD; 2010). IFAD (2010; 57) state that, by no means are all poor people stuck in poverty as a permanent state, some formerly poor people have moved out of poverty whereas some people may have moved in and out of poverty. Maxwell, (1999; 3) supports the argument that people move in and out of poverty. Article 25.1 of the United Nation's Universal Declaration on Human Rights states that:

“Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing, medical care, the necessary social services and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control” (United Nations, 2011).

The South African *Bill of Rights* reaffirms article 25.1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, by stating in Section 26 and 27 that:

“Everyone has the right to adequate housing, health care services, sufficient food and water and social security” (South African Government Information, 2011a).

According to the South African National Department of Agriculture (SANDoA), the cause of hunger and malnutrition is said to be due to inadequate access to food by certain categories and households in the population (SANDoA, 2006). The SANDoA, developed a policy on Food Security by producing the Integrated Food Security Strategy for South Africa (IFSS).

The Eastern Cape consistently emerges as the poorest province in South Africa, containing 27% of households likely to be chronically poor (May, 2003; 12). With about 29% of the population living below the South African derived poverty line of R250, the Province follows Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal with 34% and 33% respectively (SAIRR, 2008). Through the implementation of the Rural Development Plan (RDP), the Province strives to respond to the challenges of food security. Included in this plan are the following programmes:

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme,
- Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme,

Each one of these programmes consists or is made of projects that focused on beneficiaries from different areas of the province. These projects have been experiencing challenges from the point of view of addressing the food security and sustainability. Uphoff et al (1998) stated that, the majority of failures in rural development projects and programmes stem not from any intrinsic incapacity among rural people but rather from the way that government, donor and international agencies and some NGO's have implemented these programs. A study conducted by Nilson and Karlsson (2008) revealed that the implementation of a food production programme was not a success and experienced difficulties, citing stakeholder buy-in and communication as two major problems.

3.1.2 Purpose and objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to identify critical success factors in the running of rural development projects aimed at improving lives, addressing food insecurity and eliminating or reducing hunger and to a greater extent developing small scale farmers. The general objective of this study is to evaluate and explore the factors deemed critical for initiating and running these projects. This was achieved through case studies of projects in the Eastern Cape, South Africa with specific focus in the Amahlathi Local Municipality.

The supporting goals are:

- i) to evaluate and identify the critical success factors for the running of successful food security projects based on the literature review.
- ii) to assess the effect of such factors in the sustainability of such projects,
- iii) to provide a framework containing the critical success factors for the running of rural development projects

3.2 Research method

A qualitative research methodology was employed because the interest in this social research was in the insight, discovery and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing (Noor, 2008; 1602). This type of research aims at discovering the underlying motives and desires, using in depth interviews for the purpose (Kothari, 2006: 3). A qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem (Creswell, 2009; 3). According to Creswell (1998, cited in Pade, 2006; 116), in this method of research, a researcher builds complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. The use of a case study can provide the real-life information and evidence (Yin, 1993). This method was therefore chosen for this study as it is believed that, the real-life evidence can contribute to the evaluation and identification of critical success factors in the running of a successful food security project.

A multiple case study was employed in the research study. Numerous cases were used to study the groups (Duke and Mallette, 2004). The choice for multiple cases is appropriate given that Yin (1993) argues that, multiple-case studies should follow a replication, not a sampling logic. According to Tellis (1997), multiple case studies can strengthen the investigation by replicating the pattern of cases and hence increasing robustness in the theory. An interpretive approach as it provides a deep insight into “the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it”, was adopted in this paper (Andrade, 2009, 43). Interpretive research assumes that reality is socially constructed and the researcher becomes the vehicle by which this reality is revealed (Cavana *et al*, 2001 and Walsham, 1995a, 1995b, cited in Andrade, 2009). This approach is consistent with the construction of the social world characterised by interaction between the researcher and the participants (Mingers, 2001 cited in Andrade, 2009). The researcher’s interpretations played a key role in this kind of study bringing “such subjectivity to the fore, backed with quality arguments rather than statistical exactness” (Garcia and Quek, 1997 cited in Andrade, 2009).

In explaining what the case is, Yin (1989, cited in Noor, 2008) suggests that the term refers to an event, entity, an individual or even a unit of analysis. Case study is not intended as a study of the entire organisation, but rather is intended to focus on a particular issue, feature or unit of analysis (Noor, 2008; 1602). The researcher intends to use a case to probe an area of interest – key success factors – in depth within the subject being studied for example the food security projects

(Patton, 1987, cited in Noor, 2008). Alasuutari *et al* (2009; 214) state that, the case may be selected because of the researcher's interest in a particular instance.

Creswell (2009; 13) define a case study as a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher explores in depth a programme, event, activity, processes, or one or more individuals. Tellis (1997) state that, case study is an ideal methodology when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed. Noor (2008, 1603) states that, case studies have been criticised by some as lack of scientific rigour and reliability and that they do not address the issues of generalisation.

On the contrary to this criticism, there are some strengths of case studies, for example, it enables the researcher to gain a holistic view of a certain phenomenon or series of events and can provide a round picture since many sources of evidence were used (Noor, 2008; 1603). Crabtree and Miller (1999, cited in Baxter and Jack, 2008; 545) argued that, one of the advantages of this approach is the close collaboration between the researcher and the participant, while enabling participants to tell their stories. Case studies allow for generalisation as the results of findings using the multiple cases can lead to some form of replication (Noor, 2008; 1603). Yin (1984, cited in Noor, 2008) describe three different types of case study research, (i) exploratory, (ii) descriptive and (iii) explanatory. A descriptive case study is employed in this study as the aim is to describe what are the key success factors to be taken into account in running a successful food security project.

The case study employed in this study was used to test an established theory, either it confirms or rejects the theory (Lijphart, 1971, cited in Kaarbo and Beasley, 1999; 376). According to Kaarbo and Beasley (1999; 376), the distinction between confirming and rejecting rests principally in the nature of the findings, that is, whether they support the predictions of an existing theory (i.e. confirming) or whether they call that theory into question (i.e. infirming). In addition, according to Yin (2003, cited in Baxter and Jack, 2008, 545), the case study should be considered when amongst other things , the behaviour of those involved in the study cannot be manipulated and also the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and the context.

Yin (2003; 3) argued that, reliance on theoretical concepts to guide the design and data collection for case studies remains one of the most important strategies for completing successful case

studies. The goal in this paper was therefore to conceptualise the critical success factors at the outset of a case study (Yin, 2003; 3).

3.3 Data Collection

In collecting the data for this research, questionnaires (see Appendix A and B), documents and interviews were used. According to Myers (1997, cited in Remenyi, 2007:173) qualitative data sources include observation and participant observation (fieldwork), interviews and questionnaires, documents and texts and the researcher's impressions and reactions. As interviews was the primary data gathering instrument for the research, a semi-structured interview was chosen where questions were carefully designed to provide adequate coverage of the purpose of the research (Noor, 2008; 1603). The questions in the interview were structured, however the interviewer was not necessarily restricted to the set questions (Pade, 2006; 118). According to Welman and Kruger, (2002, cited in Pade, 2006; 118), even though respondents are asked the same questions, the interviewer may adapt the interview formulation and terminology to fit the background and knowledge of the respondent. In this study, this was however structured by the interviewer in a manner that guided the respondent towards the specific question as the questionnaires to be developed were informed by the goals and objective of this study (Statpac, 2010).

Major questions were developed in the form of a general statement which was then followed by a sequence of sub-questions for further probing. This approach was to ensure that the traditional project management processes are covered while the sub-questions were addressing the additional success factors application to rural development or government related projects.

Case studies on two projects (see Appendix E) were selected from the following food security programmes:

- Siyazondla Homestead Food Production Programme and
- Siyakhula Step-up Food Production Programme

These programmes were selected from within the Amahlathi Municipality, and the projects from the above programmes were selected and investigated to observe and understand their implementation.

The selection of two cases per programme was to enable the collection of data from both a project that was viewed as a success and the one viewed as struggling or failing. A purposive selection was adopted in selecting the projects (Babbie, 2008:204). The inputs of the Department officials as to the sizes, capacity and performance of projects was used in this purposive selection. The views of the Departmental officials as to which projects are thriving and which ones are struggling was the main basis of selection. This was followed by observations to substantiate the officials' comments in this regard. Purposive sampling can be used in a research as a sampling strategy (Noor, 2008; 1603). Kothari (2006) referred to this selection as deliberate sampling. The deliberate selection was chosen in order to develop a deep understanding of these projects (Alasuutari et al, 2009; 223). The basis of making selections of cases and human subjects is consequently purposeful or purposive, since random selection might easily fail to yield the most informative sites or samples of human subjects, skewing findings because of sampling bias (Alasuutari et al, 2009; 223).

3.4 Research site

The research for this study was conducted within the Amahlathi Municipality in the Eastern Cape (see Appendix C and D). Members of the project in four selected cases were interviewed. The key personnel of the Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform who work with Food Security were also interviewed using the developed questionnaires. The main reason for focusing on these particular people is because they are the persons with an in-depth understanding of the operations/implementation of the respective projects. These personnel include the Senior Manager Food Security, the responsible extension officer/s and managers.

3.5 Data Analysis

Making qualitative data is relatively simple, the challenge is making the collected data useful, valuable and most importantly relevant to the questions being asked. Tellies (1997) argued that, statistical analysis is not necessarily used in all case studies. Analysis is an interactive process whereby the initial observations are reflected upon and shape subsequent data collection (Preciousheart, 1995). A content analysis approach was adopted which uses a special application of systematic observation to examine the data collected for key themes (Welman and Kruger, 2002, cited in Pade, 2006; 122). Each data source was considered one piece of the "puzzle" with each piece contributing to the researcher's understanding of the whole phenomenon (Baxter and Jack, 2008; 554). After processing the data, it was presented in a narrative format.

3.6 Ethics

In addressing the issues of ethics, full cognisance was taken of the fact that, often, though not always, social research represents an intrusion into people's lives (Babbie, 2008:66). It was therefore explicitly indicated that, participation was voluntary and participants had the right to withdraw from the research process. In addition, information collected was treated with strict confidentiality and identities kept anonymous. Participants in this study were made aware of a number of things and were given a series of assurances (Remenyi, 1998; 111). The main issues taken into consideration and discussed with participants were follows:

- i) It is imperative that the researcher does not have any hidden agendas,
- ii) It is essential that the researcher be fully open and honest with the participants,
- iii) Where the participant does not wish to have his or her name associated with the evidences, this request should be meticulously respected,
- iv) The researcher should not obtain evidence from participants under duress.

The researcher has taken full acknowledge of the possible harm this research might cause to the participants (Rubin and Rubin, 2005; 104). A clear introduction was made to the participants detailing amongst other things, the purpose of the research, the background of the research and the researcher, the benefits and the possible risks that are involve (Rubin and Rubin, 2005; 104).

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5 APPENDIXES

5.1 Appendix A - Questionnaire to the Departmental Officials (Extension Officers)

REGION:	
NAME:	
DESIGNATION:	
CONTRACT NUMBERS	
DATE	

PROGRAMME: (Please select the programme you are responding to)

SIYAKHULA	
SIYAZONDLA	

1. BACKGROUND ON PROGRAMME.

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

1.1. What are the main objective/s of the programme:

1.2. When did it start:

1.3. How was it started:

2. THE PROGRAMME BENEFICIARIES

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

2.1. Who is entitled to benefit in the programme?

--

2.2. How are the beneficiaries selected?

--

2.3. How are the beneficiaries benefiting from the programme?

--

2.4. For how long are the beneficiaries benefiting?

--

2.5. How are the beneficiaries exiting the programme?

--

2.6. Are the beneficiaries monitored for progress after they exit, and if Yes, how?

--

3. THE PROJECTS, PLANNING, EXECUTION AND MANAGEMENT

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

3.1. What processes are involved in planning the projects within the programme?

--

3.2. At what stage are the beneficiaries involve?:

--

3.3. Explain the how are the project managed?:

--

--

3.4. To what extent are the following factors considered when planning, executing and managing the projects		
Factor	Description	Comments
Project Management	Taking into consideration project management guidelines as described by the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK), amongst others.	
Clear mission and objective	Clearly defining the mission and objective of the project during the project imitating stages.	
Social Sustainability	Addressing social issues pursuant to development initiatives which have the potential of affecting the sustainable development both positively and adversely.	
Physiological needs	Individuals need to understand the benefits associated with rural development programmes.	
Youth and community involvement	Youth is highly affected by unemployment and they therefore need to be engaged in rural development projects.	

Extension services	Provision of knowledge and information support to the people involved in agricultural activities.	
Training/capacity development	Investing in people in ensuring that their skills are developed.	
Environment and Economic Sustainability	Continuously meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to their own needs.	
Building local partnerships	Engaging other parties as a means of responding to a shared issue to realise specific outcomes.	
On-going Monitoring and Evaluation	Continuously monitoring and evaluating the project to ensure goals, objectives and targets are or will be achieved.	

4. GENERAL COMMENTS

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

4.1. In your own views, is the programme achieving its main objectives as listed above and if Yes, how so and if No, what can be done to ensure that it achieve its objectives.?:

4.2. What would you recommend or emphasise to be key factors that can or will ensure the success of these projects.

5.2 Appendix B Questionnaire to the Project Beneficiaries

Project Name	
Interviewee (main)	
Interviewee designation in the project	
Project Location	
Interview Date	

A. BACKGROUND TO THE PROJECT

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

When was the project started?

Who started the project

How was the project started?

What are the main objectives or reasons for the starting of the project (key drivers)

B. FOOD PRODUCTION PROGRAMME BENEFICIARY

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

What food production programme are you a beneficiary of?

When did you join the programme?

--

How did you become the beneficiary of the programme?

--

Are there any specific guidelines or rules that control your participation in the programme?

--

What have you received from the programme?

--

C. THE PROJECTS, PLANNING, EXECUTION AND MANAGEMENT

Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

What role did you play when the project was being planned during the inception to the programme?

--

What role should beneficiaries play when these projects are being planned at the programme level?

--

Explain the how the benefits of the programme were rolled out or distributed to your project

--

Kindly explain in brief the role you (as the beneficiary) plays in any of the following factors.

Factor	Description	Role (if any)
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Project Management	Taking into consideration project management guidelines as described by the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK), amongst others.	
Clear mission and objective	Clearly defining the mission and objective of the project during the project imitating stages.	
Social Sustainability	Addressing social issues pursuant to development initiatives which have the potential of affecting the sustainable development both positively and adversely.	
Physiological needs	Individuals need to understand the benefits associated with rural development programmes.	
Youth and community involvement	Youth is highly affected by unemployment and they therefore need to be engaged in rural development projects.	
Extension services	Provision of knowledge and information support to the people involved in agricultural activities.	
Training/capacity development	Investing in people in ensuring that their skills are developed.	

Environment and Economic Sustainability	Continuously meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to their own needs.	
Building local partnerships	Engaging other parties as a means of responding to a shared issue to realise specific outcomes.	
On-going Monitoring and Evaluation	Continuously monitoring and evaluating the project to ensure goals, objectives and targets are or will be achieved.	

D. GENERAL COMMENTS

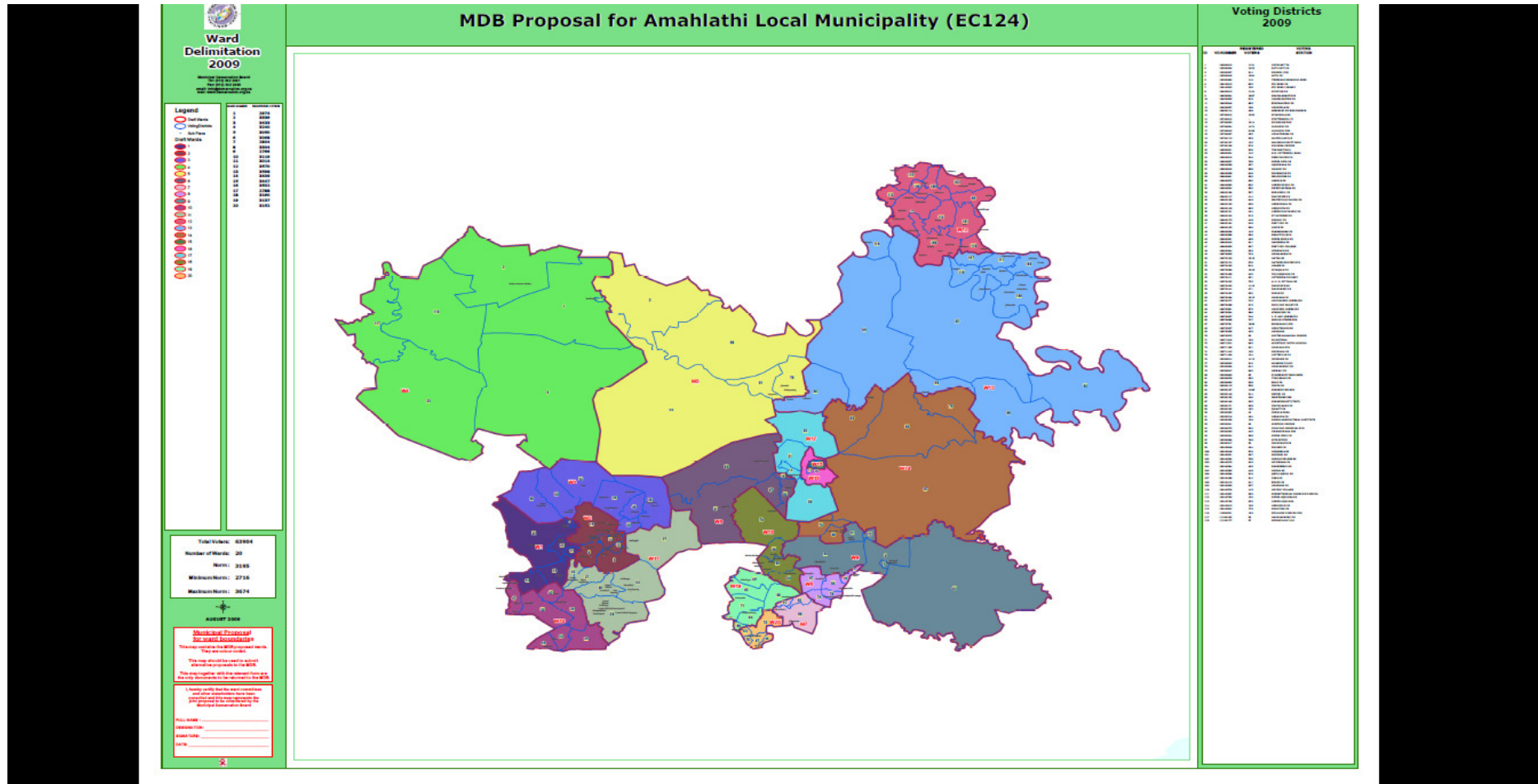
Please answer the following short questions in as much detail as you can.

When comparing your project during the time before it was beneficiary to the programme and time after it became a beneficiary, what (significant) differences that you identify in term of; SIZE and SUSTAINABILITY (economically, environmentally and socially)	
<i>Before Becoming a Programme Beneficiary</i>	<i>After Becoming a Programme Beneficiary</i>
<u>SIZE:</u>	
<u>SUSTAINABILITY:</u>	

What would you say is or are the main reasons for your project success or survival from date it started up to now?

What would you say are your key critical success factors in ensuring that these projects (which are under food production programmes) are implemented successfully?

5.4 Appendix D - Map of the Amahlathi Local Municipality (with wards)



5.5 Appendix E - List of Amahlathi SHFPP and SSFPP projects

PROJECT NAME	WARD	EXT OFFICER	CONTACT NO.
Joka poultry	2	Mr. Siguqu	083 567 7975
Somthunzi poultry	2		
Siyakhanya vegetable	2		
Ilingeletu crop	11	Mr. Nyubatyha	073 767 5257
Samkele poultry	11		
Vukani makosikazi piggery	11		
Qhamani vegetable	1	Mrs. Peteni	073 180 2930
Siyazama poultry	1		
Siyazama vegetable	1		
Zanempilo poultry	3	Mr. Ngqokweni	084 905 5388
Chumisa vegetable	3		
Siyavuka vegetable	3		

SIYAKHULA PROJECTS

Project Name	Ward No.	Ext officer	Contact no.
Qhamani co op LTD	10	Mr. Bhese	071 676 0731
Horse shoe	20	Mr. Soxujwa	083 459 1619
Mgadle	19	Mr. Mbane	073 606 2712
Sokuba	18	Mr. Soxujwa	083 459 1619