UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU NATAL

GOOD FOOD SECURITY GOVERNANCE AMONGST EXTENSION WORKERS IN KZN: A PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION PERSPECTIVE

By

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DECLARATION

I, CHERYL NATASHA MOHAMED SAYEED, declare that:

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Name Cheryl Natasha Mohamed Sayeed

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DEDICATION

To my husband,

Mukseen,

and our babies,

Humzah

&

Uzayr.

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ABSTRACT

This study responds to the question, “To what extent are the aims of the food security amongst Extension Workers within KwaZulu Natal being achieved within a good governance agenda?”. The main objective has been to firstly, understand the link between good governance, professionalism, service delivery and food security. Secondly, the objective is to review the existing food security policy and priorities for responding to the challenges of the National Development Plan and Millennium Development Goals. Thirdly, the objective is to contribute to new policy relevant knowledge on the potential impact of good governance, professionalism and service delivery on the achievement of food security in the Province.

The empirical study was completed by way of a survey undertaken amongst the Extension Workers and their District Managers employed in the South Region of the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs (KZN DAEA). Two data collection methods were used. Firstly, a self-administered questionnaire was used to determine the extent to which good food security governance was being achieved amongst Extension Workers. Secondly, interviews with the District Managers in the South Region and the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services, were conducted to solicit information on strategies in place to ensure good food security governance compliance by Extension Workers. The concept of good governance is used as the basis of the assessment and endorses the World Bank Framework for good governance as a lens for assessing the successes and failures of good food security governance in South Africa.

The empirical study revealed that regular reporting and accounting is the practice within the KZN DAEA, and is managed through a system of verbal and written reports. The problem arises out of the disjuncture between the legislative guidelines, the policy frameworks, the strategic frameworks, against the abilities of the Extension Workers to work within the ambit of these guidelines. This disjuncture amongst Extension Workers comes largely out of their lack of understanding of the contents of such policies. As a result, the study found that this creates a disability amongst Extension Workers as

implementers of food security related strategies. The empirical study thus revealed that despite clear targets being set and regular accounting being the practice of the KZN DAEA, the focus is on compliance rather than on stimulating real development. As a result, the essence of “extension” is lost.

The study makes a number of recommendations. Firstly, the finalisation of the proposed Food Security Policy currently under discussion is seen as a priority. Secondly, the adoption of a brief induction programme, or policy awareness workshops, by the KZN DAEA, as part of their training programmes, is seen as essential to translate the key areas of the legislative mandates to Extension Workers. The incorporation of accountability and transparency mechanisms into all the activities of the functioning of Extension workers is the third recommendation. Fourth, the mainstreaming of monitoring and evaluation is seen as a crucial component for overall successful policy implementation. This, the study argues has the potential to improve the levels of professionalism displayed by Extension Workers. Fifth, it is recommended that Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) offering Agriculture Extension network with each other and government bodies to offer programmes and courses that are more appropriate for the implementation of public policies. Recommendation six and seven call for the adoption of a broader more systemic and holistic view of poverty and food insecurity as the attainment of food security can no longer be viewed as an exclusive agricultural issue. Eighth, it is recommended that an Extension Framework be adopted to revert to the tradition behind Extension methodologies. Last, it is recommended that Extension Workers be registered to a professional body in order to enhance the dissemination of the key values, roles and responsibilities of the Extension Worker.

In conclusion, this study has shown that government needs to benchmark the advantages and disadvantages of institutional arrangements for good food security governance. Furthermore, whilst no one measure can be seen as the solution to the problems, it offers an opportunity to move in the direction of poverty reduction and food security. This study contributes to the body of knowledge in public administration and the food security discourse.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BATAT	Broadening Access to Agriculture Thrust
CASP	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme
DAEA	Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs
DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
DPSA	Department of Public Service Administration
ERP	Extension Recovery Plan
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GATT	General Agreement on Tariff and Trade
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HIV	Human Immune Deficiency Virus
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFSS	Integrated Food Security Strategy
IFSNP	Integrated Food Security and Nutrition Programme
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
KZN	KwaZulu Natal
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MTEF	Medium term Expenditure Framework
NARS	National Agricultural Research and Development Strategy
NEPAD	New Partnership for African Development

NDP	National Development Plan
NPA	New Public Administration
NPM	New Public Management
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OPEC	Organisation for the Petroleum Exporting Countries
PANTHER	Participation, Accountability, Non-Discrimination, Transparency, Human Dignity, Empowerment, Rule of Law
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	United Nations Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome Programme
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WTO	World Trade Organisation
WFP	World Food Programme

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CHAPTER ONE: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA) of 1996, called for the transformation of all sectors of the public service. The call for transformation was guided by numerous policy and legislative frameworks. These policy frameworks now form part of a movement towards good governance and a global movement towards poverty reduction. On a global level of governance, the Millennium Development Goals and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights protect an individuals' access to sufficient food. Within South Africa, as part of working within these global frameworks, Section 27 of the Constitution of South Africa entrenches the right to food and provides that every citizen has the right to access sufficient food and water. It states that the state must by legislation and other measures, within its available resources, make the right to sufficient food a reality.

In 2002, the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) was approved by Cabinet as the strategy that would integrate the many previously isolated policies tackling the challenge of food insecurity in South Africa. The Food Security Strategy, convened by the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF), is one of the initiatives by government to address food security. According to DAFF, a food security strategy was motivated by the many food security programmes by different government departments (RSA, DAFF 2002: 5), the aim of which was to streamline and harmonize the existing strategies. The vision of the IFSS is to "attain 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" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012: 69). The South African government has further committed itself to this right through the National Development Plan towards 2030.

South Africa has several relevant policies in place to guide the public service. In the absence of a magic wand to eradicate the divisions created by colonial rule and apartheid, food insecurity and poverty will remain one of the highest priorities

in South Africa and across the world. For real transformation and change in the status of the lives of the poor, it is imperative that government provide an organized and efficient strategy to reduce poverty and, more specifically, provide mechanisms to improve the food security status of poor households.

Failure to formalise food security intervention into a policy results in a situation where some progress is being made in poverty reduction but much still needs to be done if we are to achieve success in the eradication of extreme poverty by 2030. Good governance is largely seen as a benchmark for government actions and performance. With this in mind, the purpose of examining food security through a good governance framework, is not an attempt to describe an ideal state of good or bad food security governance, but provides a mechanism for analyzing and understanding the shortcomings in the existing governance reality in the food security strategy implementation, to identify those factors that influence the implementation or lack thereof of policy decisions, and service delivery; and for integrating good food security governance dimensions in the design and implementation of food security policy currently being considered. This study intends to make a contribution to the government's initiatives to reduce food insecurity. The objective is to contribute to food security project implementation by Extension Workers and thereby improve the nature and extent of good governance. The study further seeks to identify challenges and make recommendations which can be used by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs (DAEA) to improve implementation of the food security efforts and thereby contribute to good food security governance.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

Public administration in South Africa in a pre-1994 period was highly politicized and based on racial inequality as opposed to being people-centred and geared towards equitable distribution of government goods and services. The post-1994 period has witnessed a complete overhaul of the way in which the public service operates. As a result, post-1994, the goals and aims of public administration have

been part of this transformative process. The *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service* laid down the national policy framework for the transformation of the public service. The goals of the White Paper were further entrenched in the Constitution (Ncholo 2000: 88) through the values and principles for public administration along with the Bill of Rights, which commit government action. These provide guidelines for public administration and the management thereof which is embodied in the *Batho Pele* Principles.

The *Batho Pele* Principles, meaning people first, are aimed at enhancing the quality and accessibility of government services. These principles are identified in the *White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery as:*

- "Consultation;
- Setting service standards;
- Increasing access;
- Ensuring courtesy;
- Providing information;
- Openness and transparency;
- Redress; and
- Value for money" (RSA 1997: 15).

The overall aim of these principles is to improve efficiency and accountability of public servants in the delivery of public goods and services to people. As a result, each of these provides a platform within which good, effective governance should be implemented. These principles are aligned with the Constitutional ideals of:

- "Promoting and maintaining high standards of professional ethics;
- Providing service impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;
- Utilising resources efficiently and effectively;
- Responding to people's needs; the citizens are encouraged to participate in policy-making; and
- Rendering an accountable, transparent, and development-oriented public administration" (RSA, Chapter 10, Act 108 of 1996).

The *Batho Pele* Principles together with the main Constitutional ideals thus embody values that guide the governance aspects of service delivery. These together with the National Development Plan provide key legislative frameworks for addressing poverty reduction and food insecurity within the country.

It is the aim of the National Development Plan (NDP) to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality in South Africa by 2030. Through this plan, the government hopes to realise these goals by "drawing on the energies of its people, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capacity of the state, and promoting leadership and partnerships throughout society" (RSA, National Planning Commission 2011: 61). Government aims to "engage with all sectors to understand how they contribute to policy implementation and particularly to identify any obstacles to them fulfilling their role effectively" (RSA, National Planning Commission 2011: 61). The Plan will set the main parameters for the budget process for the next 17 years. Improving the quality of public services is seen as critical to achieving transformation. There is an emphasis on planning with implementation being guided by evidence-based monitoring and evaluation. It is important to note here that this plan forms part of governments attempt at good governance which forms part of a global movement towards improved government and thus public administration. Improved governance can contribute to the elimination of poverty by encouraging higher levels of efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services aimed at improving the quality of life of communities, households and individuals. The elimination of poverty, in turn, will result in the achievement of food security on the community, household and individual levels. This forms part of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG).

1.2.1 Millennium Development Goals

Poverty reduction has been a focus of governments around the world since the end of World War II. This commitment was made formal in The Millennium Declaration issued at the 24th special session of the United Nations General Assembly in June 2000.

The MDGs has, as its first priority, the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, with the reduction of the proportion of the world's population living in extreme poverty by 2015 (MDG, South Africa Country Report 2010). The most recent Millennium Development Report 2013 indicates that on a global level this target has been reached. However, the situation in sub-Saharan Africa indicates that at least 48% of the population continues to live on less than $1.25 per day (MDG Report 2013: 6). In South Africa, a review of the MDGs indicates the number of people living on less that $1 per day has decreased, however on closer inspection of this data, one need to consider that this could be attributed to the increase in the number of people benefitting from social grants (MDG, South Africa Country Report 2010). These grants, however, should not be an end in itself as it does not provide for sustainable socio-economic development. Poverty reduction mechanisms need to deal with the multi-faceted nature of human development thereby supporting the need for participation in the process of development. It is also important to note that these statistics do not reflect individual access to food. Household surveys have indicated that rural women and children carry the burden of food insecurity (Aliber 2009: 384; Altman, Hart & Jacobs 2009: 351; Baiphethi & Jacobs 2009: 459), and as a result policy addressing food security and the implementers of policy need to be mindful of this.

It can be deduced that the challenge for development practitioners and implementers of policy is to find ways and means to almost "fast track" food security policy implementation. Reduction of poverty and ensuring food security requires firm commitment by policy makers and the implementers of such policy.

1.2.2 Poverty and Food Security in South Africa

Poverty and food insecurity in South Africa can be linked to parts of the overall effects of apartheid policies together with the rise of industrial development. Government development policies limited access to social services, exercised forced removal of entire communities, and changed the means of livelihood of the majority of the population. These impacts combined with disenfranchisement, led to the current situation where the majority of citizens are vulnerable to food

insecurity. As a result, it is important to consider the situation of food insecurity "within their historical context and within a poverty framework" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2011: 7).

Despite the national 'food secure' status within South Africa the Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009 reported that 25.6 million people live below the poverty line in South Africa. Thus, it is important to consider food security in any development strategy as it is a threat to more than a third of the South African population (Drimie & Ruysenaar 2010: 317, see also Hendriks 2005; Drimie & Ziervogel 2006). According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2011: 7), "national food self-sufficiency cannot be used as a reflection of household food security in South Africa, nor can it be used as an index of national welfare because while South Africa produces sufficient food, this does not ensure food security at the individual and household levels."

Within South Africa, food insecurity is highest among the rural African population. Provinces with high stunting rates are also provinces with large rural populations. Drimie & Ruysenaar (2010: 317) reiterate this by stating that the prevalence of food insecurity is highest in the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Limpopo and that households within rural areas rely heavily on income from remittances and social grants for their survival. Schroeder & Nicola (2006: 183) argue that the food security status of rural households is linked to their ability to access these remittances and social grants. Further to this, Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2011: 8) highlight that "where families are unable to grow or purchase enough food, and are unable to access social welfare nets, hunger is a reality". Labadarios, Swart, Maunder, Kruger, Gericke, Khuzwayo, Ntsie, Steyn, Schloss, Dhansay, Jooste & Dannhauser (2008: 259) point out that one in five households in South Africa is food secure in relation to adequate nutritional standard. Approximately 70% of the South Africa's poorest households live in rural areas (De Klerk, Drimmie, Aliber, Mini, Mokoena, Modiselle, Roberts, Vogel, De Swart & Kirsten 2004: 55). As a result, the role of agriculture from a subsistence level must be considered in any attempt at poverty reduction or improving food security at the household level.

For Drimie & Ruysenaar (2010: 316) the global recession and its impact on households have reaffirmed the importance of food security as a development strategy. Further to this, Aliber (2009: 396) argues that whilst the experience of hunger has decreased, the rate of under-nutrition and access to food security programmes are still major issues for socio-economic development in South Africa.

On a global level, the United Nations (UN) estimates that 22% of all children under the age of nine years are stunted due to chronic malnutrition (UN 2010), which has a "negative consequences for the development of the child and their future ability to contribute to the household" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2011: 8). As a result, poverty reduction efforts by government need to take these into consideration.

1.2.3 The Right to Food

The right to food is recognized in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Section 27 of the Constitution of South Africa entrenches the right to food. Further, it provides that every citizen has the right to access sufficient food and water and requires that the state must through legislation and other means make this right a reality (RSA 1996). In 2002, IFSS was approved by Cabinet as the strategy that would integrate the many previously isolated policies tackling the challenge of food insecurity in South Africa.

1.2.4 The Integrated Food Security Strategy

The vision of the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) is to "attain 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" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012: 69). Its goal is to eradicate hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 2015. The strategic objectives here are to, *inter alia*:

- “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 system;
- Provide capacity building; and
- Hold stakeholder dialogue” (Republic of South Africa, DAFF 2002: 6).

In 2002 the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) was approved by Cabinet as the strategy that would integrate the many previously isolated policies tackling the challenge of food insecurity in South Africa (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2011). According to the National Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF), a food security strategy was motivated by the many food security programmes by different government departments. Whilst the overarching aim was to streamline and harmonize the existing strategies, the vision of the IFSS is to “attain 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 (RSA, DAFF 2002: 13)”. DAFF is the convener of the IFSS resulting in a bias towards agriculture in addressing food security. Extension Workers are the implementers of policy within DAFF and thus their role in the implementation of policy must be taken into consideration in any interrogation of the success and challenges of the implementation of such policy.

1.2.5 Extension

The Agricultural system prior to 1994 operated within a dualistic model. Agricultural policy had two main categories. Firstly, large white commercial farmers on the one hand, and secondly, subsistence farmers based largely within

the former homelands (Worth 2012: 14). As a result there were two systems of extension. Post 1994 there have been attempts to depolarize extension services. The Norms and Standards for Extension Workers were formulated in 2005 and incorporated into the development of the National Agriculture Strategy. The aim here was to solve the problems created by the dual system of Extension. These have been spearheaded by the Extension Recovery Plan during the period 2008 up to 2011 aimed at profiling all Extension Workers and improving their skills base by investing in further education and training.

Despite these efforts, studies have indicated that extension has not had a significant enough impact on poverty reduction (Duvel 2002). The main reasons have been attributed to the large numbers of people requiring assistance versus the number of adequately trained staff (Machete & Mollel 1999: 340; Duvel 2002; Worth 2012). This has an impact on the extent to which programme agendas can be effectively implemented and the extent to which development goals can be achieved. As a result, extension services have had limited contributions to the achievement of good governance.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The National Development Plan has identified household food and nutrition security as an enabling milestone for rural development. The plan further identifies the reduction in poverty and inequality as an opportunity to raise employment and investment. In achieving this milestone, improving the lives of the rural poor is critical. The plan recognizes that in order to achieve this, the state needs to professionalize the public service, strengthen accountability, improve co-ordination and curb corruption (RSA, National Planning Commission 2011: 10-27). These are critical elements of effective and efficient government.

According to Nair (2008: 75), for successful food security policy intervention within Africa, governments need to take a more systemic approach to governance arrangements. Vogel & Smith (2002: 315) reiterate this and call for closer relationships between government, private sector, and civil society if any real progress is to be made in improving policy implementation. The need to reassess these relationships forms part of a broader call for improved public administration. Bird, Booth & Pratt (2003: 42) state that food security policy implementation is problematic largely due to a lack of co-ordination and an inappropriate skills base. Steyn & Labadarios (2003: 347) reiterate this by referring to the lack of capacity at the local levels as the main impediment to successful implementation of programmes (see also Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012: 70). Fraser–Moloketi & Dyk-Robertson (2005: 573) emphasize the role of improving the core values and principles adopted by public administrators as the starting point for improved policy implementation.

Whilst in the first decade of democracy efforts to change were slow as part of the radical paradigm shift experienced, into the second decade of democracy, the calls for increased effectiveness and efficiency, service delivery, co-ordination, resourcing and meeting the needs of the population are getting louder. Within the context of agricultural research and development, there are many challenges ranging from the need for increased support to improved institutional arrangements to address them. As part of a panacea to some of these problems, the attainment of a "cadre of qualified, experienced and motivated world-class agricultural research and development specialists, managers and policy makers to lead South Africa towards achieving the long term goals of food security, poverty alleviation…" is required (RSA, DAFF 2008: 9).

It is against this backdrop that this study explores Food Security Strategy implementation by Extension Workers within a good governance framework.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to *inter alia*,

- Understand the link between good governance, professionalism, service delivery and food security.

- Review existing food security policy and relevant priorities for responding to the challenges of the National Development Plan and the Millennium Development Goals.

- Contribute to new policy relevant knowledge on the potential impact of good governance, professionalism and service delivery on the achievement of food security.

- Enhance the understanding of socio-economic development and mechanisms for improving the quality of life of people.

1.5 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Chapter 10 of the Constitution outlines several sections that guide the conduct of the actions of public administrators. Section 195 outlines the Basic Values and Principles governing public administration. Section 196 outlines the role of the Public Service Commission. Section 197 outlines the role of the Public Service. These together with the *Batho Pele* Principles seek to guide public administrators towards improved and ethical conduct. Each government department in South Africa is expected to work within these parameters. As a result, their vision, mission and value statements must be in line with the Constitutional guidelines.

The vision of the KZN DAEA is to provide "optimum agricultural land use, sustainable food security, sound environmental management and comprehensive, integrated rural development" (RSA, KZN DAEA 2013: 1). In order to realize this vision, their mission states:

"The Department, together with its partners and communities, champion quality agricultural, environmental and conservation services and drives integrated comprehensive rural development for all the people of KwaZulu-Natal" (RSA, DAEA 2013: 1).

The vision and mission exist within the framework of several values:

- ***"Batho Pele* Principles and service orientation** - Departmental officials will conduct themselves in a manner befitting a government that is caring, dedicated and pro-poor, influenced by the spirit of *ubuntu.*
- **Self sufficiency and independence** - the Department commits itself to the promotion of self-sufficiency in all its interventions and focuses on the empowerment of people to be more independent and entrepreneurial.
- **Cooperative governance and working together** - the Department will continuously engage in joint planning and coordination with stakeholders and government entities in order to ensure holistic, integrated and coherent government programmes.
- **Professionalism** – the Department's employees must perform their duties in a professional, ethical (open and honest) and value adding manner.
- **High Staff Morale** – The Department is committed to facilitate a constructive and supportive work environment.
- **Development and recognition** – The Department's employees are recognized as its most valuable asset and therefore it aspires to ensure the ongoing development and recognition of an effective, professional team" (KZN, DAEA 2013: 1).

The vision and the mission of the Department cannot be achieved if these values together with appropriate governance arrangements in relation to the implementation of policies are not addressed. The DAFF is the convener of the Food security strategy and as a result is responsible for the implementation of appropriate projects and programmes in this regard.

This study aims to improve governance arrangements related to the implementation of the Food Security Strategy. In order to realise this aim, the following objectives have been identified:

- Determine the current status of policy knowledge amongst Extension Workers permanently employed by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?
- Identify the success and challenges in public sector management relative to food insecurity;
- Explore the extent to which accountability and transparency are key indicators used to track and measure food security strategy implementation;
- To what extent are the principles of professionalism and performance part and parcel of the functioning of Extension Workers;
- What systems are in place to communicate information in this regard?; and
- Investigate the existing governance arrangements for Food Security Strategy implementation within the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs and make recommendations for improved service delivery.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS GUIDING THE STUDY

1. What is the existing policy knowledge regarding food security amongst the Extension Workers employed by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?;

2. What are the success and challenges in public sector management relative to food insecurity in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?;

3. What arrangements are in place to ensure accountability and transparency?;

4. Is professionalism part of the daily functioning of Extension Workers?;

5. What systems do Extension Workers use to communicate information?; and

6. Are the governance arrangements for good food security adequate?

1.7 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

In South Africa's first decade of democracy, public administration efforts towards change were slow and formed part of the radical paradigm shift that was required to move away from apartheid. Into the second decade of democracy the calls for increased effectiveness and efficiency, service delivery, co-ordination, resourcing and meeting the needs of the population are getting louder. Food security is a critical concern for governments around the world. On a national level South Africa is food secure however, the experience of households and individuals on a community level is very different especially in rural areas.

Extension Workers as implementers of the Food Security Strategy are challenged to contribute to the targets for poverty reduction in line with the Millennium Development Goals, and as public servants are expected to comply with the guidelines of good governance. There are many challenges ranging from the need for increased support to improved institutional arrangements to address these challenges faced by government departments. As part of a solution to some of these problems, the attainment of a "cadre of qualified, experienced and motivated world-class agricultural research and development specialists, managers and policy makers to lead South Africa towards achieving the long term goals of food security, poverty alleviation…" is required (DAFF 2008: 9). This will no doubt contribute to the reduction of poverty and food insecurity and will allow government to score higher with regards to good governance. This study attempts to determine the extent to which Extension Workers operate within a framework of good food security governance.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Poor socio-economic growth and poor or bad governance are considered to be the major reasons for the inability of governments to meet development goals. Good governance is a benchmark for the actions and performance of public servants tasked with the provision of goods and services. Looking at food security through a good governance framework provides an opportunity for analysing and understanding the shortcomings in the existing governance reality in the food security strategy implementation. Further, those factors that influence the implementation of food security strategies, policies and programmes can be identified, and provide opportunities for including good governance dimensions in the revisions and implementation of such strategies, policies and programmes.

Whilst several relevant policies are in place to guide the public service in South Africa, failure to formalise food security intervention through a policy results in a situation where some progress is being made in poverty reduction but much still needs to be done if the eradication of extreme poverty by 2030 is to be achieved. Added to this, the high levels of corruption and maladministration, requires investigation into the extent to which ethical standards and professionalism amongst implementers of food security strategy, are part of their daily functioning. As a result, the governance dimensions of food security needs to be adequately addressed as a mechanism for improved poverty reduction.

The significance of this study is to:

- Contribute to the body of knowledge, scholarly research and literature regarding Extension Workers and their role in food security policy implementation from a good governance, and more broadly public administration and management perspective;
- Provide information to policy makers regarding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to good food security governance; and
- Provide useful insights into the implementation of the Food Security Strategy from the perspective of Extension Workers.

The key themes for this study are:

- Public administration and governance;
- Poverty and food security;
- Extension;
- Accountability and transparency; and
- Professionalism.

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The problem investigated in this study will be restricted to the Extension Workers within KwaZulu Natal. This study will explore the theoretical perspectives that underpin public administration, food security and those factors that determine good food security governance. The target population is a total of 603 Extension Workers permanently employed in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental services.

1.10 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

This section provides definitions of key terms used in this study.

1.10.1 Public Administration

According to Fox, Schwella & Wissink (1991: 2) public administration refers to "that system of structures and processes, operating within a particular society as an environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy and the efficient execution of the formulated policy". Roux (in Gildenhuys 1988: 171) defines administration as a process or group related effort "aimed at combined goal realization". Public administration thus refers to the structures and processes of government aimed at goal achievement that take place within a specific environment.

1.10.2 Governance and Good Governance

The United Nations Development Programme (in Wessels & Pauw 1999: 97) states that governance is "the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels." Good governance according to Cloete (2000: 6) is "the achievement by a democratic government of the most appropriate development policy objectives to sustainably develop its society".

The definitions of governance and good governance make reference to the styles of governance through referral to issues of accountability, levels of ethical standards and the extent to which the government responds to the needs of its people through public administration efforts.

1.10.3 Food Security

According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2011: 5) "Food security can be defined in its most basic form as access by all people at all times to food. Achieving food security has three proportions. Firstly, it is necessary to ensure at a national and household level, a nutritionally adequate food supply. Secondly, it is necessary to have stability in the supply of food. Thirdly, it is important to make certain that each household has access to enough food to meet its needs without waste or over consumption being encouraged."

1.10.4 Extension and Extension Worker

Extension and Agricultural Extension are very often used interchangeably, and refers to the communication of agriculture related information to farmers and rural communities. Extension Workers are thus employed to engage in the process of 'extension'. For this study, it includes the 'extension' of agriculture related

information, and all other information aimed at improving the livelihood of communities in need.

1.11 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methodology used for this study was in line with the aims of the study. Two methods were included in this study. Firstly, as a means of building the theoretical approach, an extensive review of literature was undertaken. A comprehensive account of public administration was provided in order to place the concept into a context of understanding for this study. The nature and extent of food security in South Africa and the role of the Extension Worker in the implementation of policy was determined through an overview of recent literature.

Secondly, an empirical study was undertaken through the use of self administered questionnaires and semi structured interviews in order to present an assessment of the situation in regards to good food security policy implementation by Extension Workers in KZN. The researcher made every effort to ensure that the sample was as representative of the total population as possible.

The focus of the study is the province of KZN which is one of nine provinces in South Africa, as indicated in Figure 1.1 that follows.

Figure 1.1: Map of South Africa

Source: Local Government (2014)

The target population for this study was 607 Extension Workers permanently employed within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs (KZN DAEA). Statistics SA (2011:10) indicates that KZN has the second largest population at 10.3 million people. The province of KZN is made up of 10 District Municipalities and 1 Metro Municipality, as indicated in the Figure 1.2, totalling 11 Districts.

Figure 1.2: Map of KwaZulu Natal Districts

Source: Local Government (2014)

The KZN DAEA has divided up the province into three regions for administrative purposes, namely, North Region, South Region and Central Region. The North Region is made up of Umkhanyakude, Zululand, Uthungulu and Ilembe. The South Region is made up of eThekwini, Ugu, uMgungundlovu and Sisonke. The Central Region is made up of Uthukela , Amajuba and Umzinyathi.

The sample was 207 Extension Workers in a total of four Districts making up the South Region of the KZN DAEA. The South Region includes Ugu and Sisonke, which according to the Community Survey 2007 (Statistics South Africa 2009) are two of the five, most deprived districts of KZN. This Region also includes

eThekwini which is the only Metropole in KZN. The high rate of poverty combined with the prevalence of largely rural areas in the South Region serves as an advantage in investigating food security and poverty related issues. As a result, the South Region presents an opportunity to investigate a combination of Districts that are not necessarily available in the other regions. Purposive random sampling was employed.

Due to the nature of the study, triangulation of research methodologies was used encompassing both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. The use of a multi methodology was aimed at improving the quality of the findings by drawing on the use of the interview method and self administered questionnaire.

1.12 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

The following statistical tools were used for data analysis and interpretation:

1.12.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics is described by Huysamen (1998: 4) as the description and/or summation of the data obtained for a group of individuals. Descriptive statistics therefore describes the organising and summarising of quantitative data and thus is useful for the purpose of inspecting a wide range of responses. These will be presented in the form of graphical presentation and descriptions thereof.

1.12.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics, according to Huysamen (1998: 4) is used to make conclusions regarding the properties of the population on the basis of the results obtained. According to Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 86) statistical inference is the process of generalizing from findings based on the sample of the population. As a

result, the researcher, through inferential statistical analysis, is able to draw conclusions about populations from sample data.

1.12.3 Central Tendency Statistics

Measures of central tendency namely; mean, mode, and median are used to estimate the average perceptions of respondents (Welman & Kruger 2004: 208).

1.13 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Extension Workers are widely distributed in various wards across each District. Some Extension Workers are based in rural, inaccessible areas. In order to overcome this, each main District office was contacted, and arrangements were made with the District Manager to access the Extension Workers, resulting in different approaches to suit the working arrangements in each district. In all instances the District Manager was first contacted telephonically and followed up with an email outlining the study and with an attachment of the permission letter. It is from this point that the approaches of the individual District Managers were incorporated into the data collection process in order to cause minimal disruption to the daily roles and responsibilities of the Extension Workers in each area.

The permission letter from the gatekeeper Mr. K.L. Moodley who is the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services was sent to Local Managers and Extension Workers in order to inform them of the importance of the study beforehand. In addition, a covering letter outlining the objectives of the study was accompanied by the note of consent which was given to each respondent. In this covering letter, it was strongly emphasized that the respondent's anonymity would be ensured and that their information would be strictly confidential and securely stored.

Personal interviews were also conducted with the District Managers and the Provincial General Manger: Strategic Support Services through the use of semi-structured interview schedules. Appointments were made and the schedule was sent out to each manager before the interview in order to allow them time to seek clarity on some of the issues that would need responses to. All participants were advised of their right to withdraw from the process at any time.

1.14 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter One provides an overview of this study and sets out the rationale, purpose, aims and objectives of the study. The Chapter further explores the significance of the study, outlines the delimitation of the research, and presents an overview of the key terms used in the study. A brief account of the research methodology and methods of analysis of data is also provided.

Chapter Two contextualizes this study within the field of Public Administration. In so doing, it provides a historical background of the meaning and scope of public administration from administration to good governance, and contextualizes public administration in South Africa. The chapter further explores the World Bank Framework of analysing good governance.

Chapter Three examines poverty, food security, the MDGs and introduces the term “good food security governance” through the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) model for good food security governance. The Chapter further examines food security in South Africa through a SWOT analysis by using the key factors of good governance as a lens.

It is important to note here that Chapters Two and Three incorporate sections of two articles completed as part of this PhD study that has been published in peer reviewed journals.

Chapter Four provides a comprehensive examination of the research methodology used in this study. Further the chapter introduces the statistical tools that are used for the analysis of data.

Chapter Five provides the presentation and analysis of data collected through the empirical study.

Chapter Six provides a conclusion and offers recommendations based upon the findings of the study. Herein as one of the recommendations, is a framework for understanding the relationship between accountability and transparency in the project cycle.

1.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter has provided an overview of the study. It highlights the justifications, purpose, aims and objectives of the study, including the key questions for this study. An overview of the key policies guiding Extension Workers as implementers of government policies was provided in order to set a framework for understanding the study. The discussion also included a description of KZN which is the area of focus of this research in order to put the study into context. Further, a brief discussion of the research methodology used to complete the study, was also provided.

The chapter that follows focuses on a historical overview of the meaning and scope of public administration from administration to governance, in order to place this study into a context of changing paradigms.

CHAPTER TWO: AN OVERVIEW OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND GOVERNANCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The notion of public administration is constantly changing in response to global and local socio-economic and political transitions. As a result, the literature provides a reflection of these shifting interpretations and ideologies. Current thinking is closely linked to global change and international recognition of human rights, and the role of government in achieving such rights.

The most common way of understanding the changes in public administration paradigm is by tracing its historical development and evolution over time. The rationale here is that earlier scholars have left a mark on current interpretations and ideologies, and as a result must be considered in any understanding of public administration. Holzer & Gabrielian (2007: 49) reiterate this by arguing that it is necessary to understand the development of the field, and the rhetoric that accompanied this development in order to understand the theoretical basis and the logic of public administration. It is from this standpoint that this thesis begins.

This chapter explores the systematic development of public administration from its earliest inception to its current focus on good governance. It shows that public administration has and continues to adapt, in practice and theory, to the changing nature of what it means to govern (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006). The chapter shows that public administration is often measured through an application of social and other sciences to public problems, and that in constantly trying to define itself, public administration draws from multiple sources, with an effort to reconcile often contradicting views about social problems and the role of government in solving these problems (Holzer, Gabrielyan & Yang 2006). The chapter further provides an introduction to public administration in South Africa; examines the government's attempt at aligning with the new global agenda for public administration; and introduces the concept of good governance which is the

current dominant benchmark for effective and efficient public administration. But first, what is public administration?

2.2 CONCEPTUALISING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Understanding public administration requires that one explore the various definitions and the components identified in these definitions that characterize the term. An examination of literature revealed that there are a plethora of definitions that aim at explaining the term. Some of these are now identified.

2.2.1 Public Administration Definitions

There are varying definitions of public administration. Fox & Meyer (1995: 105) define public administration as “the executive branch of government or bureaucracy which is charged with the formulation, implementation and evaluation of government policy”. According to Pauw (1999: 22) public administration is the “organised, non-political, executive functions of the state”.

Administration, according to these definitions, is thus a goal directed process carried out to accomplish a predetermined set of goals. Roux (in Gildenhuys 1988: 171) reiterates this by defining administration as a process or group related effort “aimed at combined goal realization”. Coetzee (1988: 55) stresses the importance of efficiency and effectiveness in public administration in his argument that "In the science of administration, whether public or private, the basic 'good' is efficiency”.

Cloete (in Coetzee 1988: 20) sees public administration as a “field of activity, consisting of numerous activities, processes or functions performed by public officials working in public institutions, and aimed at producing goods and rendering services for the benefit of the community”. Cloete (in Coetzee 1988: 20) classifies these activities into three groups:

- “the generic administrative activities - policy making, financing, organizing, staffing, the determination of work procedures, and the devising of the methods of control;
- the functional activities; and
- auxiliary functions”.

There is no clear definition of public administration. The history of public administration clearly indicates this. In order to get a clearer view of the concept of public administration, and thus the ontology of the study, looking at three concepts that delineate the meaning can assist (Rutgers 2010: 15); namely, the state and society, public and private, and politics and administration. Rutgers (2010: 15) refers to these as “founding dichotomies” for the concept of public administration. These position public administrations as something “in between” the authority to make decisions or the state, and the people that require administration, meaning society.

In order to better understand these definitions it is important to look at the components of public administration namely, the state and society; private and public; politics and administration; and bureaucracy.

2.2.2 The State and Society

According to Berki (1979: 8), the notion of a “society” was coined in the 19th century. Berki (1979: 8) notes that “whilst some might consider the work of Montesquieu as the first to use the state versus society dichotomy”, others refer to the work of Kant as being the earliest. Hegel, however, has left the most long lasting impression in regards to this dichotomy. Hegel’s work described the ‘state’ as that entity responsible for the safety and well being of society. The state, in his view, is a protector of society and is seen as above competing interests. Further, in his view, it is the responsibility of government to intervene in market forces in

order to guarantee a minimum standard of living for every individual (Berki 1979: 8). According to Rutgers (2010: 17) Hegel's ideas entered the study of public administration through the work of Lorenz Von Stein who described the "the working state" as a concept of public administration discussed later in this Chapter. The idea here is that public administration is dependent on the existence of a state but the terms society and state are related in that they can co-exist in descriptions of public administration (Rutgers 2010: 17).

Contemporary literature presents the term governance as referring to the governing or administration of a 'state' and 'society. This forms part of the changing notion of public administration as described in its historical overview that follows later in this chapter. The term governance seems to provide a perception of social reality wherein a distinction between state and society disappears, and where the term governance is increasingly being interchanged with the terms 'state' and 'society' and the notion of 'public administration'.

2.2.3 Public & Private

Hanekom & Thornhill (1983: 15) contrast the terms 'public' and 'private', with the former referring to larger society and the latter referring to the individual. Gildenhuys (1988: 317) emphasises that communities form part of the broader society and thus refer to the whole of society as opposed to individuals. Public organizations differ from private institutions in several ways based upon their aims or agency and interest. Public administrators, in terms of their aims are required to act in response to the needs of citizens whilst working within the mandates outlined by the representatives of citizens. Private administration does not have any responsibility towards the public. Hanekom & Thornhill (1983: 217-218) argue that the role of public institutions "is to render uninterrupted community services essential to the maintenance of a satisfied community and to the promotion of the general welfare". Private organisations on the other hand, exist for the purposes of profit or capital accumulation. Public administration is thus administration that occurs in a public domain. Hanekom & Thornhill (1983: 212) on the other hand,

see public administration as administration that is conducted in a political environment. Within this perspective, the administrative side of government is responsible for programme implementation in line with statutes and acts of government. White (1955: 2) takes a broader more philosophical view, in that he sees public administration as "the composite of all practices, codes and customs and in any jurisdiction".

Understanding the concepts of ‘publicness’ and ‘privateness” in society has an effect on understanding what constitutes ‘public’ administration. However, it must be noted that some scholars feel that there is no difference (Rutgers 2010: 16). The argument is based on the idea that the administrative activities and techniques are similar in all organizations whether private or public. Fayol (in Hanekom & Thornhill 1983: 212) was a supporter of the idea that there is no need for several administrative sciences but that one which can be applied equally well to the public and private affairs was sufficient.

2.2.4 Politics and Administration

Administration as mentioned earlier relates to the administrative arm of government in finding the most cost-effective, efficient and effective way of implementing policy (Kooiman & Eliassen 1987: 35-36). Henry (1992: 20) notes that in understanding public administration, one is able to ascertain a better understanding of how government functions and the relationship it has with the society it governs.

Within the literature, the Politics-Administration dichotomy can be traced back to the work of the cameralists as is discussed later in this Chapter. This dichotomy according to Rutgers (2010: 16) allows one to distinguish between “administrative and political (legal) actions, and/ or between administrative and political functions”.

As a result, it has an impact on understanding public administration and bureaucracy.

2.2.5 Bureaucracy

'Bureau' according to Hanekom & Thornhill (1983: 117) refers to the Greek word to rule. As a system, a bureaucracy refers to the way in which an organization is ordered and functions (Hanekom & Thornhill 1983: 117). The work of Weber describes an 'Ideal Type' of bureaucracy that according to Stillman (1983: 47) embodied three elements, namely, a division of labour, strict hierarchical order and impersonal rules. Bureaucracy has traditionally been associated with at least one or a combination of these elements and has come to refer to the way in which organizations especially public organizations function.

According to Turner & Hulme (1997: 82) the twentieth century has witnessed the expansion of state administrations around the world. They argue that strong bureaucracies have been established, by both first and third world states, as a means to administer the state, the definition of which differs based upon the functions required and the overall policy agenda. As a result, bureaucracies especially in developing countries are "the subject of considerable debate and criticism" as they are considered to be too large with very low levels of efficiency and effectiveness (Turner & Hulme 1997: 86; McGill 1997: 225). There are varying ideas on bureaucracy. Some authors, who argue from a Marxist position, see bureaucracy as a tool of the elite, whilst others argue that bureaucracy is a critical component of the policy process. Weber has perhaps been the most influential in his arguments around bureaucracy. These will be briefly explored later in this Chapter.

2.2.6 Public Administration

The literature presents a raging debate over public administration (small letters) and Public Administration (capital P, capital A). Whilst the concept of public administration has been defined and clarified in many ways by many authors as shown earlier, yet no one definition has emerged and been accepted by those who study it.

According to Rutgers (2010: 3) public administration is “concerned with the practice of administration within the public domain”. Public Administration, however, focuses on the study of public administration in terms of the theory it attempts to use to describe the public administration processes and in so doing seek to explain the processes involved. For the objectives of this study, the term public administration “represents a broad-ranging, amorphous combination of theory and practice whose objectives are ... to encourage public policies that are more responsive to social needs, and to institute managerial practices in public bureaucracies that are designed to achieve effectiveness and efficiency and, increasingly, to meet the deeper needs of the citizenry ... ", as defined by Cutchin (1981: 79-81) is adopted.

2.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In order to understand the current theoretical basis and logic of public administration more effectively, it is important to trace its development and evolution over time. Nigro & Nigro (1973) and Mc Curdy (1972) trace the history of public administration into very distinct periods. Holzer & Gabrielyan (2007: 49) identified these as; “Administrative Reform Movement: 1870-1926”; “Orthodox Period: Administrative Science Movement: 1906-1952”; “Politics Period: 1936-1967”; “Human Relations and Behavioural Science: 1933-date” and “Program Effectiveness 1964- date”. The problem with these categorizations for Holzer & Gabrielyan (2007: 49) is that these give the impression that each new paradigm replaced its predecessor. They suggest that rather it is better to understand the

differing stages in the development of public administration as “overlapping insights, none of which have been completely supplanted” (Holzer & Gabrielyan 2007: 49). It is important to note that each of these periods presented theories responded to changing socio-economic political events at that time and present different schools of thought. For the purposes of tracing the history the categories identified by Mc Curdy (1972) are used with the knowledge that they do not displace each other. It is also important to note that the intention here is not to provide an exhaustive account of all the influences, but rather to provide an overview of what the author feels is most critical for placing this study into a context of understanding.

2.3.1 The Classic Period

Ancient empires were no doubt preoccupied with the governance of society. Many created state structures that allowed them to oversee huge territories. According to Holzer, Gabrielyan & Yang (2006) China gave the world the first civil service system some two thousand years ago. Heady (1996) and Wren (1994), note that this was followed by the Roman Empire, who set formal structures of governance. These Holzer, Gabrielyan & Yang (2006) note, were used by modern European states in their own development. During this period, described as the Classic period by some authors (Bagby & Franke 2001: 623), ideas were developed and handed down over centuries, including ideas about how to administer and organize by the Greek philosophers and Roman administrators (Bagby & Franke 2001: 623).

The ancient philosopher, Aristotle described the life of being a citizen as the “highest expression of humanity” and that people who avoided politics displayed a level of “ignorance” (Bagby & Franke 2001: 623). Ancient philosophers viewed government as existing for the common good of all citizens and that the public official served in the role as administrators of the state, an idealist view.

Hobbes (1588 – 1679) and Locke (1632-1704) initiated theories about the role of the individual in government in the 16th century. Locke argued that "it is the purpose of government to provide an enabling environment for the growth" of private enterprise, and that it should not hamper such development through taxation and regulation (Bagby & Franke 2001: 625). This formed part of the Enlightenment philosophy that according to Bagby & Franke (2001: 628) viewed the administration efforts of public administration as a method of satisfying the needs of the public through rational means. In the 16th century the state was considered to be the model for administration which was organized around the need for law and order and for defences. It was in the 18th century that the need for experts in the civil service began to grow (Thornhill & Van Dijk 2010: 99).

Machiavelli (1469 – 1527) in his book *The Prince* rejected idealism. He supported the idea that what works should be implemented based upon the rationale that the government is provider of safety, power and prosperity with the security of the state being tantamount (Bagby & Franke 2001: 624). Socrates and Plato were the first to see management as a skill separate from one's knowledge and experience (Pindur, Rogers & Kim 1995: 59). It is important to note that at this stage no specific study of public administration had emerged.

The debates on positivism originated in the theories of Henri Saint-Simon (1760-1825) and Auguste Comte (1798–1857) and includes the work of the logical positivists (Babbie 2001: 20). Whilst there is much debate over the doctrines themselves, there is agreement that positivist thinking provides for an emphasis on the natural scientific method of distance between subject and object. Bonin who published *Principe d'administration publique* or *Principle of Public Administration*, saw his study as a practical science and viewed its key challenge as a need to gain balance between law and social studies (Rutgers 2010: 8). Rutgers (2010: 8) points out that Bonin based his conclusions upon positivistic natural sciences which is based upon the idea that scientific study can advance social progress and

improve societies. Thornhill & Van Dijk (2010: 99) argue that this began the reign of positivism and the study of public administration.

In the 18th century, the cameralists argued that fiscal management, regulation of the economy and the exploitation of natural resources are key functions of government (Jackson 2005: 1297). Lorenz von Stein, a professor in Vienna in 1855, considered to be the father of public administration in Europe (Thornhill & Van Dijk 2010: 99), saw public administration to be a form of administrative law. Lorenz von Stein (in Rutgers 2010: 8) argued that public administration was a combination of sociology, political science and public finance. He further argued that public administration means to lead practically, but that theory needs to form the basis of any study which needs to be conducted in a scientific manner. The cameralists were viewed as the first real public administrators as they argued that government should implement the functions of the state using the science of administration in the presence of a competent leader (Spicer 1998: 157).

2.3.2 Administrative Reform Movement: 1870-1926

In 1829 Jackson's idea of the 'spoils of the system' allowed public officials to receive very large sums of money for influence (Hofstadter 1954: 51). The result was large scale grafting and corruption in the public service. Whilst such behaviour is still not uncommon, the cost of these acts at the time, gave rise to large scale inefficiency. In the post-civil war period, reform was encouraged through calls for improved efficiency and honesty in both politics and public administration. Also known as the Progressive Era, reforms brought during this period called for "significant changes in the administrative functions of government" (Holzer & Gabrielian 2007: 12). Between 1875 and 1920 economic progress through the spread of industrialization altered the context of politics and the notion of 'conflict of interest' within government. The Pendleton Civil Service Act of 1883 created a neutral, bipartisan Civil Service Commission in the USA and saw the beginning of massive reform of government (Holzer & Gabrielian 2007: 12).

In 1887 Woodrow Wilson published an essay on public administration entitled “The Study of Administration” (Henry 1992: 21). The rationale of Wilson’s essay was that politics and administration should function separately (Vyas-Doorgapersad & Simmonds 2009: 4). Since this theory the principles and practice of public administration have been evolving rapidly.

The politico-administration dichotomy proposed by Wilson rests on the idea that administration should find the most cost-effective, efficient and effective ways of doing those things that have been determined by the politicians and desired by the populace (Kooiman and Eliassen 1987: 35-36; Stillman 1973: 582). Henry (1992: 20) suggests that looking at administration of government in this way promotes a more effective understanding of “government and its relationship with the society it governs”. For Wilson, policy implementation should be more like the management of a business. In order to achieve this, public administrators and managers need to devote more attention to the science of administering government. Here, issues of efficiency and effectiveness are paramount with public servants being seen as professionals. The focus in this period was thus on the right way of government with politically neutral public servants (Gildenhuys 1988: 12).

The idea of a science of administration or the ‘one best way’ of doing things came out of Wilson’s theory. There was, however, a lack of confidence in potential of government to implement ‘the one best way’ (Lynn & Lawrence 2009: 803). Frank J. Goodnow (1900) and Leonard White (1926) wrote on the politics - administration dichotomy from 1900-1926. In his book *Politics and administration: A study of government,* Goodnow argued that administration should be separated from politics (Shafritz & Hyde 1992: 7-9), and reinforced Wilson’s argument when he emphasized that policy is an expression of the will of the state and administration the executors of that will (Rutgers 2010: 9). Despite this debate, Wilson unquestionably posted one unambiguous thesis in his article that has had a lasting impact on the field, which is that public administration is worth studying.

2.3.3 Orthodox Period: Administrative Science Movement: 1906-1952

There is much overlap in the Orthodox Period, Politics Period and the Human Relations Period. This historical account will briefly examine these ideas and theories that are most critical for the aims of this study.

Max Weber and Woodrow Wilson were influenced by the logic of the cameralists (Jackson 2005: 1293). Wilson's essay led to many controversies, interpretations and ideological bases for reforms in administration in the 19th century (Holzer & Gabrielian (2006: 13). Gulick and Urwick in the publication '*Papers on the science of administration*' proposed the seven principles of administration at a time when public administration was threatened with being absorbed into other branches of administrative sciences, such as business administration (Holzer & Gabrielian (2006: 16). Here, administration irrespective of its privateness or publicness was considered to imply generic principles. These were considered to characterise all forms of administration within a 'closed model' of administration or bureaucracy, where organisational aims of efficiency, effectiveness, specialization and compliance with authority are paramount. Here, the closed model of organisation is best described as bureaucratic, hierarchical, pyramid, vertical, formal, rational, or mechanistic (Holzer & Gabrielian 2006: 16).

Frederick Taylor under scientific management helped to "set a model for government by defining the formal model of organization as a rational, legitimate, institutionalized relationship of people formally managed or coordinated from one center in order to accomplish certain common predetermined goals, objectives, or purposes" (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 16-17).

It is important to note that Gulick and Urwick were heavily influenced by the work of Taylor and scientific management. Gulick and Urwick identified a set of processes that they argued takes place in every organization. "POSDCORB

(Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Controlling, Reporting and Budgeting)" was identified (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 17). Their argument was that each of these processes is necessary for effective organizations. They focused on specialization as a means towards effective coordination of work. Such coordination could be achieved when a hierarchical structure was in place affecting a strong chain of authority (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 18). These are important to note for the development of public administration as they set the basis for the main functions associated with public servants and remain key to the functions of public administration.

2.3.4 Politics Period: 1936-1967

Public administration as a subject of inquiry began gathering momentum by the end of World War II. Several ideas dominated here. Paul Appleby argued that debates about policy implementation are related to larger debates about policy (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 20). Dwight Waldo called for a link between political theory and studies of public administration, whilst Norton Long (1949) called for an assessment of issues of power in the administrative process (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 20).

According to Holzer & Gabrielian (2006: 19) Herbert Simon suggested that the impact of values on decisions must be considered. Simon further argued that Wilson's thesis that the field of administration is field of business, as being incorrect on the basis that it is removed from the realities of politics. Simon further argued that the impact of values on bureaucracy must be considered because whilst neutrality can be called upon, personal values impact on the routine of the bureaucracy.

For Henri Fayol the industrial administrative context is made up of authority, hierarchy, division of labour, communication, standard procedures of operations

and management (Rutgers 2010: 9). The presence of these and the interrelationship between them defines the structure of the organization. For the public sector, these types of organization as described by Taylor and Fayol, correlate with the bureaucratic model as described by Max Weber. Weber's 'ideal type' or 'model of bureaucracy' provides a description of the most rational way of achieving objectives (Holzer & Gabrielian 2006: 17).

For Weber, bureaucracy makes a routine out of the process of administration and efficiency is achievable through the division of tasks, a well-defined hierarchy of authority, impersonality and detailed rules and regulations. Weber saw bureaucracy as a progressive type of authority compared to leadership of the ancients. The model presented by Weber set out a range of key ingredients for organisation, which included "universal rules, extensive written records, division of duties by spheres of competence, training specific for each position, selection on the basis of competence, hierarchical arrangement of offices, salary based on position, and tenure of office" (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 20). For success in such an organization, goals need to be very explicit with a clear set of roles, responsibilities and punishments for regressions. According to Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang (2006: 20) Weber's idea of efficiency "rested on control" whereas Taylor focused on a more "engineered approach to improved efficiency".

2.3.5 Human Relations and Behavioural Science: 1933-date

Herbert Simon (1946: 53) challenged the concept of the principles in administration. He argued that that there are contradictions in the principles of administration and that it essentially refers to decision making. Simon argued in support of rational decision making and showed that human decisions in reality are not based on the principle of ensuring that the best results are achieved. Simon's work epitomizes the peak of the classic school of management (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 24) which argued that the main issue that encouraged individuals to work is money. Within this perspective, issues related to personality, individuality, and social interests were considered of no consequence to job performance.

Human behaviour theorists, like Maslow on the other hand, argued that people are motivated and demotivated by many other issues and stimuli beyond money. Maslow did not deny that money is a key motivator, but argued that the complexity of human nature was an even greater motivator. These must be considered when investigating issues related to implementers of government policy as it has the potential to shed light on the motivations behind performance and non performance of public servants (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 20).

2.3.6 Programme Effectiveness 1964- date

Herbert Kaufman (1981: 1) argued that public administration had not made any significant impact and he argued further that bureaucracy is whirling out of control. The public choice school dominated debates in the field of public administration in the early 1970s. The focus was on finding ways to improve the levels of effectiveness in the public sector. Ostrom (1989: 861) argued for a new concept in American public administration, based on the theory of public goods rather than the theory of bureaucracy. The public choice school can be "best characterized by its proposed focus of study that relates to human valuation, production possibilities, arrays of goods and services, rule-oriented relationships, and shared levels of common understanding that enable people to communicate meaningfully" (Ostrom 1977: 1508, Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 12).

Ostrom (1977: 1508), like Long (1949) argued that power issues are of critical importance in the management process, and felt that they need to be understood in relation to the rules in place. The public choice school made a significant contribution to ideas about administration on a theoretical level, as it argued in support of the idea of "multiple possible arrangements for provision of public goods", which included, among others, privatization as an option for government service delivery (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 12).

The behavioural model was useful because it emphasised the ability of organisations to respond to internal conditions and to the external environment. The model called for more decentralization with less hierarchy and a weaker chain of command, in order to provide more freedom for lower level managers in the decision-making process. The behavioural model marks a "transition from a closed system model to an open system model" (Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang 2006: 26).

2.3.6.1 Open Systems Theory

The move from looking at public administration from a rational, closed system to an open system more flexible, participatory, less hierarchical, flatter decision making entity that responds to its external environment, has perhaps been the most radical change in the history of public administration. The result is that organisations and government systems are viewed as social systems of human interaction as opposed to a group of humans attached to a certain technology, which is a radical departure from Taylors' scientific management. The decision-making process in the open model is decentralized and is by consensus rather than by individual judgment of the formal leader. Rules and instructions are limited and the number of managerial levels is kept to the minimum. Senge's *Fifth Discipline* holds that the rationale of the open system is that people remain individuals even when in the workplace, and are motivated by more than money (Senge 1990). According to Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang (2006: 27) human behaviour reflects not only organizational, but personal and group pressures, as must be considered in understanding an organisation.

Douglas McGregor, Rensis Likert and Chris Argyris contributed to the theory of organizational humanism which differs from the scientific management and the human relations school. The open systems perspective flourished in this period giving rise to organizational development. From a systemic perspective, effective management of organization culture and team work are an integral part of successful organizations. In this period the notion of bureaucracy was challenged. Theorists of the ''learning organization'' developed a behavioural model of human

performance which called for a new way of thinking, seeing and learning in an ever changing turbulent environment (Dilworth in Denhardt 2008: 144).

The expansion of government post World War II combined with the growth in the fields of public administration and social science in general occurred in the background of rapidly changing technological and social changes. Change traditionally creates turbulent environments and requires organizations and governments to adapt to such change by way of policies, programmes, or procedures. Since the late 1960s and early 1970s public administrators have tried to develop more holistic approaches that would address change and the socio-economic politico complexity that arise in a systemic manner. New Public Management has provided this paradigm shift.

2.3.6.2 New Public Management

The next shift was towards achieving Programme Effectiveness. Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang (2006: 27) highlight that the notion of effectiveness was expanded to include the effects of "unintended consequences" such as the "abuse of power", ethical impediments and potential impact of whistle blowing on effectiveness. New Public Administration (NPA), which was introduced post the Minnowbrook I Conference of 1968 (and reassessed twenty years later at Minnowbrook II), attempted to provide a "more holistic and ethical science of administration" (Thornhill & van Dijk 2010: 103). According to Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang (2006: 27) NPA was responding to socio-political change of the 1960s. NPA emphasized the role of participation, decentralization and representative bureaucracy as key elements for public administration and later became New Public Management (NPM).

The rationale for NPM was that public administrators could solve the technological and social problems that were being experienced and thereby act as change

agents. NPM has been described as a paradigm and sometimes as a reform movement (Cameron 2009: 912; Patterson & Mafunisa 2005: 540). NPM recognized that administrators are not neutral in the process of administration and that they needed to display good management skills as well as social equity values if optimal organizational effectiveness and efficiency was to be achieved (Frederickson 1976b: 149).

The essence of NPM philosophy is to review the way governments govern (Patterson & Mafunisa 2005: 552; Cameron 2009: 912). Hood (1991: 5) states that, "New Public Management is seen as consisting of a marriage of opposites which encompasses new institutional economics and business type managerialism". Van Thiel & Leeuw (2002) as well as Parker & Gould (1999) go further in that they highlight that governments are implementing NPM in order to achieve efficient and effective service delivery. Kaul (1997: 14) reiterates this in his argument that "New Public Management is aimed at delivering greater efficiency, more responsive and flexible public services" and has "offered an opportunity to tighten up roles and responsibilities at all levels". Developing states according to Kickert, Klijn, & Koppenjan (1997: 731), are implementing New Public Management reforms because many have found themselves in the position of having to cater to increased demands from their citizens. As a result, the reduction of costs, increase efficiency and effectiveness are seen as viable options in extending the reach of government programmes (Kickert *et al.* 1997: 731).

According to Larbi (1999) NPM is grounded in two ideas. Firstly, that managerialism and the freedom to manage come from the tradition of the scientific movement (Larbi 1999: 13). Pollitt (in Kickert *et al.* 1997: 37) agrees with the role of management, but differs in that he sees the logic of the theory as coming out of an "ideological and political new right" direction rather than scientific reason as cited by Larbi (1999: 13). The second idea of what NPM entails comes from a focus on economics "which has its theoretical foundation in public choice, transaction cost and principal agent theories" (Larbi 1999: 16). Van Thiel & Leeuw

(2002) like Larbi (1999) refers to market type mechanisms as fundamental for the success of NPM.

NPM encouraged reforms in the public sector aimed at improving the market mechanisms, encouraging private-public partnerships, improving transparency, promoting efficiency and clear management in public service delivery (Larbi 1999: 16). There are varying views on what is more important for NPM. Larbi (1999: 1) states that "new management techniques and practices involving market type mechanisms are being used to bring about changes in the management of bureaucracies in countries that have widely varying governance, economic and institutional environments". Pollitt (cited in Bovaird & Russell 2007), Parker & Gould (1999), Van Thiel & Leeuw (2002) and Larbi (1999) place more of an emphasis on market-type mechanisms than on managerialism in describing what NPM means. Governmental reform under the guise of NPM has since its earliest inception seen a change in the way that administrations are run. The reforms that have been expected of governments have meant that bureaucracies have changed "from one of traditional public administration to one of public management" (Larbi 1999: iv). Denhardt & Denhardt (2000: 550) state that a common idea in the various different uses of the NPM concept has been the way in which private sector administration principles have been adopted by governments (also Cameron 2009: 912-913). The use of these principles explains the co-operation between the civil service and citizens which are based on market based mechanisms (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000: 550). It further indicates a focus on improved efficiency and effectiveness as targets for the public sector. From this, it can be deduced that the move towards a concentration on governance as a key issue for public administration began during this period.

2.3.6.3 Governance as Effective Government

The history of public administration shows that the state can no longer be regarded as merely the 'preserver of the status quo'. The modern state is tasked with providing the conditions for economic and social change through national

development. As a result, the purposes of public administration have changed since its earliest meanings. The increase in number of functions, variety, complexity and the methodologies adopted over time reflect a willingness by researchers, politicians and public administrators to seek new ways of looking, seeing and engaging with public administration.

Current notions are based on the idea that public administration has the potential to reconcile bureaucracy with democracy. This, however, will only be possible if, public servants seek a better understanding of government and its relationship with the society it governs, if public policies become more responsive to social needs, and public servants improve effectiveness and efficiency. There can be no doubt that public administration requires an understanding of social science and that understanding administration requires an understanding of human behaviour. In an era of good governance and open systems, government and its potential to govern is the indicator of effective government. Government in a democratic system exists to perform a range of tasks including law, order, and the provision of public services such as water, housing and sanitation. This role that government plays, shapes the relationship that is formed between government and its citizens. Governance is the term used to describe the nature of this relationship.

Good governance according to Abdellatif (2003: 3) is a key requirement of public administration. It reflects not only the quality of governance but also marks a paradigm shift in the functioning of a state (Abdellatif 2003: 3). Cloete & Rabie (2005: 1) state that good governance refers to “public service that is efficient, a judicial system that is reliable, and an administration that is accountable to the public” (Economic Commission for Africa 2003: 5).

Good governance forms the basis of the theoretical framework for interrogating Food Security policy implementation amongst Extension Workers in KZN. An in-depth analysis of its meaning, implications and framework will now be explored.

2.4 DEFINING GOVERNANCE

The literature reveals a plethora of definitions of the term “governance”. The term governance was launched in a publication of the World Bank on Africa in 1989 that argued that there is a ‘crisis of governance’ within Africa (Economic Commission for Africa 2003). On the surface, governance here made reference to the prevalence of a democratic system of government combined with constitutional rights and participation as key. The reality is that it implied a more technical analysis in that it referred to the management and administration of government as the core elements of governance that is good. Governance, according to Leftwich (1994: 366), grew as a concept largely due to a number of circumstances, namely:

- the constant use of the term in the 1980s;
- the spread of neo-liberalism as the preferred route for governments;
- the end of the Cold War; and
- the appearance of pro-democracy activities in the third world.

The result was that Western governments and institutions encouraged governance that is good as a means for economic development.

Landell-Mills & Serageldin (1991: 3) define governance as “the use of political authority and exercise of control over a society and the management of resources for social and economic development”. In referring to developing countries, Charlick (1992: 3) refers to governance as “the efficient execution of public concerns by means of the age group of a command (set of rules) acknowledged as lawful, for the rationale of encouraging and increasing communal standards required by persons and groups”. Cloete (1995: 34) argues that this classification gives a normative direction to what government should be doing. For Cloete (1995: 34), good governance requires knowledge of the procedure and being able to balance politics and administration. As a result, Cloete (1995: 34) sees governance as the manner or style of governing.

Fitzgerald, McClenan & Munslow (1997: 491) differ in their interpretation. They focus on participation as an essential component of governance in their definition that governance is "working and listening to citizens in order to manage the public's resources and respond to the needs and expectations of citizens as individuals, interest groups, and society as a whole" (Fitzgerald *et al.* 1997: 491). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) defines governance as "the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels" (Wessels & Pauw 1999: 97).

Governance according to these definitions thus encompasses a wide and complex range of processes, mechanisms and institutions through which public administration is able to relate to civil society. Auriacombe (1999: 135) points out that whilst the structures of government are important for maintaining governance, governance refers to the policies that are made and the effectiveness with which they are carried out. Auriacombe (1999: 135) argues that the common elements in governance include the "rules and qualities of systems, the levels of co-operation to enhance legitimacy and effectiveness", and the attention on "new processes and public-private arrangements".

Fox & Meyer (1995: 55) see governance in broader terms that refer to the extent to which authority contributes to the maintenance of law and order, defence and welfare of the group or community itself. Du Toit (2002: 64) defines governance as the connections and interactions between national, provincial and local authorities and the public they serve. Here the promotion of responsiveness and the extent to which civil society are able to participate in decision making as seen as key signs of governance that is good.

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 85) argue that the term governance "can be traced back to the works of Aristotle, who referred to governance as a state ruled by an ethical and just governor" as mentioned earlier in Chapter 2. Governance in

its simplest form, refers to a set of activities, whilst according to the Oxford English Dictionary (1989), the word “government” refers to those who put into effect those activities. Olowu & Sako (2002: 37) go further by referring to governance as “a system of values, policies and institutions by which a society manages its economic, political and social affairs through interaction within and among the state, civil society and private sector”. There is thus a connection between the government and the governed (Halfani in Swilling1997).

In summary, whilst governance refers to the processes of government, the terms governance and government are nonetheless interconnected. As a result, governance and public administration are linked.

2.4.1 Governance and Public Administration

Nzimakwe (2005: 16) referred to the five versions of 'governance' by Hirst as being relevant when understanding the relationship between governance and administration.

Firstly, as a result of the widespread advocacy by international agencies and western governments of governance, the achievement of governance that is good, “requires an effective political framework that is conducive to private economic actions, stable regimes, enforces the rule of law, implements efficient state administration that is adapted to the roles that governments can perform in maintaining strong civil society and independence of the state” (Hirst in Nzimakwe 2005: 17). For this to be possible, democracy is necessary through multi-party competition and free elections (Hirst in Nzimakwe 2005: 17).

Secondly, the term governance has been associated with recognition of the possibility of 'governance without government'. Here it is argued that with the

growth of private and international organizations, and the retreat of the state in regards to provision of services, alternative forms of governance such as treaties may become more common as a method of governance (Hirst in Nzimakwe 2005: 17).

Thirdly, the concept of governance and its links to corporate governance must be considered in terms of its impact on administration. 'Corporate governance' refers to the efforts by managers of private organizations, aimed at improving accountability and transparency (Hirst in Nzimakwe 2005: 17). The implication for administration is that accountability and transparency are requirements for a situation of governance that is good to be achieved.

Fourthly, with the growth of new public management since the early 1980s, the issue of governance in relation to policy and the public sector in general must be considered. According to Nzimakwe (2005: 18) this arises from the privatisation of publicly owned industries and public services, and the resultant need to regulate service providers. The introduction of commercial practices and management styles within the public sector, according to Hirst (in Nzimakwe 2005: 18) creates a new model of public services that differs from a traditional bureaucratic administrative model.

Fifthly, the role of networks and partnerships in management requires new negotiated social governance which embraces the whole spectrum of civil society as representatives (Hirst in Nzimakwe 2005: 17).

Ewadlt (2001: 9–11) draws on the five propositions by Stoker as suitable for framing one's understanding of governance which allude to its relationship with administration. These are that governance:

- “Refers to institutions and actors from within and beyond government;
- Identifies the blurring of the boundaries and responsibilities for tackling social and economic issues;
- Identifies the power dependence involved in the relationships between institutions in collective action;
- Is about autonomous self governing networks of actors; and
- Recognises the capacity to get things done which does not rest on the power of government to command or use its authority” (Ewadlt 2001: 9–11).

Governance here is essentially about creating the conditions whereby the process of government through administrative processes can take place (Ewadlt 2001: 8). Governance in a public administration context implies "administering in a political context" as described by Green & Hubbell (1996: 38). To govern thus implies "the exercise of political power to manage a nation's affairs" (Adamolekun 1999: 3).

2.4.2 The Institutionalisation of Good Governance

The term ‘good governance’ has developed within a context of change within the global debates over governance. There are several key agreements by international organization treaties that have shaped the term good governance and hence must be considered in understanding the term good governance. These according to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2014) are the key building blocks for current notions of good governance. These include:

- The Charter of the United Nations (UN) which was signed in 1945 at the United Nations Conference on International Organization, called for its members to focus on the promotion of improved living conditions, with a

focus on economic and social progress and, respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms (UNDP 2014).

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948. This declaration entrenches freedom, justice, peace, dignity and equality as basic human rights for all.

- In **1966** the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights were adopted by the UN General Assembly. Civil and political freedom and rights in regard to economic, social and cultural freedoms were the focus (UNDP 2014).

- The **1997** Human Development Report of the UNDP introduced a new dimension to the concept of human poverty. This report argued that assessing human poverty needs to go beyond an assessment of income, but should include what people can and cannot do (UNDP 2014).

- In **1997**, the International Conference on Governance for Sustainable Growth and Equity held by the UN "found that good governance includes encouraging politics of inclusion and tolerance as essential for human development and poverty alleviation" (UNDP 2014). Whilst elections are important for maintaining democracy, this can be reinforced through the way in which public administration actually operates.

- In **1999** the Emerging Democracies Forum brought together political, civic and economic leaders from transitional democracies which produced the Sana Declaration, which reaffirmed developing countries' commitments to democracy and good governance through democratic institutions and

processes, with public administrations dedicating resources for this task (UNDP 2014).

- In April 2000, the Group of 77, which is the largest coalition of developing countries within the UN, through the **South Summit**, declared commitment to a global system that reinforces the rule of law, democracy, and respect for the principles of international law and the Charter of the UN (UNDP 2014).

International conferences held in the 1990s through to early 2000s reaffirmed commitment to common democratic values and standards that place the will of citizens as the basis for government authority. International institutions like the UNDP, the World Bank, and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) recognized that good governance had the potential to make peoples' lives better. The promotion of good governance and good public management became a prerequisite for funding by developing countries. Multi-actor partnerships have grown in number and frequency in the area of governance with the UNDP teaming up with the World Bank to engage in partnerships aimed at improving governance arrangements at both the national and international level (IFAD 2013: 1).

2.4.3 Defining Good Governance

There are differing interpretations of the term 'good governance'. According to the World Bank good governance means more than government, and is the style of interaction between a government and the society that it governs (in Cloete 2000: 6).

Former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan sees good governance as "the single most important factor in eradicating poverty and promoting development"

(Abdellatif 2003: 32). Kaufman (in Diamond 2005: 8) reiterates this by arguing that there is “a strong positive causal relationship from improved governance to better development outcomes”.

Good governance according to Cloete (2000: 6) is “the achievement by a democratic government of the most appropriate development policy objectives to sustainably develop its society”.

The UNDP defines good governance as “the mechanisms, processes and institutions through which collective decisions are made and implemented, the public, groups and communities pursue their visions, articulate their interests, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences” (in Davids, Theron & Maphunye 2005: 3).

Within these perspectives, poor government mechanisms undermine development efforts, erode the legitimacy of government, and erode poverty reduction strategies like food security projects.

According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 85) whilst there are varying definitions and interpretations of good governance, it is accepted that good governance is an important part of a modern state. The term has been used in different ways to either prescribe conditions for governance or to merely describe the situation of governance. Cloete (1999a: 8) reiterates this in his argument that governance “developed out a descriptive, positivist public management school of thought”. He argues that this way of thinking originally sought to give new meaning to the traditional role of government in society. As a result, the focus on efficiency and effectiveness as key criteria for judging governmental decisions and actions in service delivery are seen as key.

Ghaus - Pasha (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 91) sees good governance as both a means to an end through its focus on sustainable and equitable economic development, and an end in itself, through its focus on political stability, transparency and accountability. Du Toit (2002: 64) suggests that it may be deduced that governance refers to the actions undertaken in order to improve the welfare of a society through the service delivery process. Nzimakwe (2005: 21) highlights that this deduction goes even further by implying that the relevant priorities that have been determined and allocated to state departments place an obligation on public administrations to perform.

As highlighted in the various definitions of governance, the definitions of good governance very often comment on the styles of governance by referring to the levels of accountability, levels of ethical standards and the extent to which the government is able to respond to the needs of its people. These form the basis of the objectives of good governance sometimes referred to as the elements or components of good governance. These will now be examined through a discussion of the World Bank Framework of Good Governance.

2.4.4 The World Bank Framework of Good Governance

The World Bank in 1992 endorsed 'good governance' as a core element of development strategy in a report entitled *Governance and development*. The capacity of governments to formulate and implement policy was seen as a critical factor for good governance in this document. The Report indicated that good governance and sustainability were interrelated issues. The Report further indicated that good governance implies predictable, open and relevant policy that works with a bureaucracy that is imbued with a professional ethos, where government is held accountable for its actions (IFAD 1999: 2). These, the Report argued, need to take place within a democratic environment that allows strong participation by civil society. The main aim of good governance in this report is to contribute to socio-economic development, and more specifically to contribute to

sustainable poverty reduction. Three diverse features of good governance were identified, namely:

- "the form of the political regime;
- the process by which authority is exercised in the management of a country's economic and social resources for development; and
- the capacity of governments to design, formulate and implement policies and discharge functions" (IFAD 1999: 2).

Within these features of good governance, the document identified five key elements of good governance, namely: public sector management, accountability, transparency, access to information and legal framework for development (IFAD 1999: 2). Each of these will be examined.

2.4.4.1 Public Sector Management

Public sector management is "the skill of converting resources….into services and products to satisfy the needs and desires of society and also to achieve the aims and objectives of the public sector" (Wisink in Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999: 18). According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 87) public sector management can contribute to good governance if:

- there is a high degree of trust in the public service;
- the public sector responds to the needs of society;
- there are mechanisms in place for public servants to account for their actions;
- decisions are made through democratic principles; and
- resources are used effectively and efficiently in the implementation of policy.

Public sector management effectiveness requires efficiency regarding the potential of the bureaucracy to convert public reserves into services and infrastructure that the society requires. As a result, policy-making is a critical part of public sector management. Policy-making starts with an understanding of the situation within a society and then goes on to define what policies are required to address those needs. For the objective of socio-economic development, this requires unbiased information based on the poor, where they are geographically located, and what the causes of poverty are.

According to Kaufmann & Kraay (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 91), "where democratic governance prevails, the formulation and implementation of government development policy agenda strongly depends on the support of political parties, pressure groups and external actors who may be funding the process. This can lead to difficulties in the way that problem areas are prioritised which, in turn, can make it almost impossible to address the needs of the communities concerned. These internal power plays are an important part of the democratic process, but can nevertheless hinder a country's socio-economic development."

For Diamond (2005: 4) the capacity of the state to work for the good of its citizens, requires public servants to be aware of government policies and rules in order to contribute to levels of effectiveness and efficiency. For Diamond (2005: 4), the drive for civil servants to perform their jobs effectively and efficiently can come from good leadership and/or from moral values. It is suggested that there should be a designated government department which would monitor and discipline those who had not executed their roles and duties for the benefit of the citizens (Diamond 2005: 4).

Whilst public administrators are responsible for meeting the needs of a society through the provision of goods and services, they are required to do so within

limited resources which must be allocated optimally to meet these needs in the best qualitative and quantitative terms. As a result, public servants are required to maintain an efficient and effective supply of goods and services to society. Public efficiency in this regard is equivalent to an economy of operation (Cloete 1995: 35). In the planning and implementing of programmes and strategies, legislators and administrators need to balance the needs of society with the available resources.

According to Hattingh (1986: 46) efficiency in government is difficult to define and even more difficult to measure. Efficiency is a measure of how a government acts in carrying out its functions and activities. Cloete (1986: 31) refers to the frugality (or economy) with which the financial and human resources have been used. Effectiveness, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which a need has been satisfied in terms of outputs stipulated in policy. Effectiveness, therefore, denotes the results of an action, or how successful it has been in achieving its aims optimally and in realising its purposes. Hattingh (1986) has attributed several processes to the attainment of efficiency:

- rationalisation by the government by eliminating duplication thereby streamlining processes;
- co-ordination of resources within and between departments;
- maximise and inter-departmental functioning; and
- prioritise goals according to their relative urgency.

Hyden and Bratton (in Cloete & Auriacombe 2007: 195) reiterate these and identify four 'criteria' to assess the style of government, namely:

- "degree of trust in government;
- degree of responsiveness in the relationship between government and civil society;

- government's degree of accountability; and,
- nature of authority".

A combination of the process and attributes can contribute to effective and efficient public sector management.

2.4.4.2 Accountability

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 88) note that "the concept of "accountability implies that individuals be held responsible for their actions and be required to report to a recognised authority." Accountability, therefore, forms an important component of a government's legitimacy. Despite the fact that accountability is generally viewed as desirable in any organisation, there will be a tendency to avoid accountability. The notion of an organisation with perfect accountability must be dismissed, but it must be noted that there is a level at which the absence of accountability will definitely impact on the organisation's legitimacy (Edwards & Hulme 1995). Methods of accountability include *formal* methods using evaluations and annual reports, or *informal* methods such as discussions (Haque 2000: 599)".

Accountability is thus linked to the legality in which those who have control will be answerable to the public. Kakumba & Fourie (2007: 652) suggest that in general, accountability can be understood as "the answerability for performance and the obligation that public functionaries (elected and appointed officials) have, to give a satisfactory explanation to the public (tax payers) over the exercise of power, authority and resources entrusted to them".

Kakumba & Fourie (2007: 652) identify the following elements/ tenets can capture the concept of accountability:

- undertaking official decisions or activities in a transparent way;

- capturing various stakeholders' interests;
- optimum use of resources;
- taking consideration of value for money and cost-benefit analysis in project/ programme design implementation;
- no tolerance to waste and corruption;
- adherence to ethical and professional standards and regulations;
- responsiveness to community needs as much as possible with prioritisation;
- viable mechanisms of providing feedback and information to the public; and,
- foster awareness and civil society participation.

Public accountability according to Derbyshire (in Cloete 1995: 36) implies "the need for political decisions to be justified by elected representatives". As a result, it means more than merely checking up on someone. Rather, it means that a motivated and rational account for one's actions should occur in many forms and at many levels in operating responsibly within public governance (Cloete 1995: 36). At the project implementation level, accountability according to Cloete (1995: 36) is analogous to a checking process, in which control mechanisms need to be devised to keep the administration in line with the rule of law. Political office bearers at this stage have the task of "surveillance" of the bureaucracy under administrators (Cloete 1995: 36). Thus those to whom one is accountable must be able to exercise the power (through the ability to participate) to regulate and guide interventions and is central to the whole notion of accountability (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 85). Where responsibility for a task has been assigned or delegated to a public official, then that official has a responsibility for a programme and a responsibility to the legislators (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986: 173).

At a legislative level of accountability, there needs to exist statutory obligations to guide the actions of public servants in the implementation of policy. Botha (in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986: 175) state that "political responsibility is judged by results and not by intentions". Political accountability according to Cheema & Rondinelli (2003) requires regular and open mechanisms for endorsing or reprimanding those who hold positions of public trust. This requires a system of checks and balances through administrative accountability. Administrative accountability thus implies having a system of control that is internal to the government that includes public service standards and incentives, ethics codes and administrative reviews.

Fox & Meyer (1995: 2) argue that accountability by government is the extent to which government and its agents are able to respond to the needs of the public by pursuing set objectives and by accounting for them in public. In this regard, commitment from public officials to accept public responsibility for their action or inaction is a critical component. Checking accountability rests on each public official to act in the public interest with solutions for every issue based on professionalism and participation (Fox & Meyer 1995: 5).

According to Haque (2000: 612) accountability refers to the extent to which the entire government system is answerable to the public for their actions and inactions for which they are subject to both external and internal sanctions. The result is that mechanisms of accountability should require public servants to explain and justify their actions related to public service delivery (Basu 1994).

Hanekom, Rowland & Bain (1986: 1974) argue that fundamental to all public sector accountability is a moral responsibility' in that: "(it is) the right of every individual citizen to demand fundamental human rights and to be treated as equal in the service rendered by government."

It can be deduced from the literature, that there are four main forms of accountability relative to good governance:

- **Hierarchical or bureaucratic accountability** is a form of accountability in which the relationships between individuals follow superior-subordinate hierarchy. Bureaucratic accountability is referred to as administrative accountability by Cheema & Rondinelli (2003) and implies that a system of control through service standards, incentives, ethical codes and administrative frameworks are in place.

- Through the leadership of a department, district or area, the public servant is accountable vertically. The internal organisational structures form the basis of the lines of authority and official channels of communication of information. Accountability here requires strong internal control where seniority of position increases power over lower levels as described by Cloete (1995: 36) earlier in this Chapter.

- **Legal accountability** requires external oversight through the use of legislative and constitutional structures. Legal accountability thus requires adherence to the rules and guidelines, with public servant performance being guided by the roles and responsibilities outlined in laws or by regulating bodies as identified by Botha (in Hanekom, Rowland & Bain 1986: 175).

- **Political accountability** underpins democratic practice. Here, accountability occurs when the needs of society are made part of the mandates of elected office bearers and public administration programmes. This requires that a system instilling checks and balances in place for those who hold positions of public trust (Cheema & Rondinelli 2003). The accountability relationship thus would require that administrators be responsive to the key concerns of all stakeholders. Political accountability, as a result, is focussed on people rather than on hierarchical leadership as expressed in hierarchical accountability. Political accountability requires greater responsiveness to meet citizen needs through active participation, and its measure is linked to the extent to which the public sector is

responsiveness to the constituents, as described by Basu (2000: 472) earlier in this section.

- **Professional accountability** requires that public officials exercise their best judgement to achieve results. It requires that they be more *output and outcome-oriented* rather than merely follow rules and directives. This approach departs from the hierarchical accountability in that it requires public servants to exercise discretion and emphasises that public servants be individually accountable for their actions and achievement of outputs. According to Romzek (2000: 26) for this to be effective, performance standards need to be established by professional norms. Romzek (2000: 26) argues that this will create a situation where better practices will prevail and public official action and decisions will be based upon internalised values and appropriate practice rather than merely political responsiveness. The assumption would be that public servants have special skills, experience and work methods and that they are able to exercise discretion responsibly and in a manner that is consistent with acceptable norms and values.

Accountability according to Aucoin & Heinzman (2000: 45) is important for three main purposes:

- "to *control* the abuse and misuse of public authority;
- to provide *assurance* in regards to the use of public resources, adherence to the law and public service values; and
- to promote c*ontinuous improvement* in governance and public management".

For Aucoin & Heinzman (2000: 45) these purposes set the basis for a range of accountability processes and mechanisms to be set up in all systems. Accountability mechanisms assist to control behaviour and performance towards

effective and efficient public administration. Further, it acts as a measure to ensure that public administrators are fulfilling their roles, duties and responsibilities as intended. Accountability as continuous improvement implies that, the process is a learning one and that dynamism towards change and improvement must be embraced to keep afloat with the emerging challenges of all time.

According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 88) accountability within a good governance framework "requires decision-makers in formal and informal structures to be answerable to the people they serve. Furthermore, they are required to follow the formal chain of command in decision-making to ensure that ethical standards (have been established), and are being, maintained. Accountability cannot be ensured without the rule of law and transparency."

Contemporary public administration theory requires that output and outcome be emphasized in the actions and activities of governments. The result is that political and professional accountability are key indicators of good governance. According to Aucoin & Heinzman (2000: 48) the hierarchical approach of bureaucratic and legal accountability cannot be discarded.

Despite the fact that accountability is generally viewed as desirable in any organisation, there will be a tendency to avoid accountability. The notion of an organisation with perfect accountability must be dismissed, but it must be noted that there is a level at which the absence of accountability will impact on the organisation's legitimacy (Edwards & Hulme 1995). Methods of accountability include *formal* methods using evaluations and annual reports, or *informal* methods such as regular meetings (Haque 2000: 599). Diamond (2005: 4) argues that public administrators and their agents are more likely to be accountable and responsible for their actions if they are required to account for the manner in which they act or behave not only within the realm of the state, but also in how they respond to the needs of communities. "Effective oversight requires open flows of

information, and hence transparency, so that monitors can discover facts and mobilize evidence" (Diamond 2005: 4). This requires state structures or mechanisms, which carry out various checks and balances, thereby holding individuals accountable for their actions. Whilst accountability is no doubt a central feature of governing, it is essential from a programme effectiveness stance to identify strengths and weaknesses in public sector management through the accountability process (Peters 2007: 19). For this to be possible, transparency in these processes is required.

2.4.4.3 Transparency

Transparency implies that timely and reliable information on the decisions and performance of all decision-making structures should be freely and easily accessible by the public. Holders of public office should be as open as possible about all the decisions and actions that they take which have an influence on people's socio-economic development. People must be informed about the decision-making processes and about who is accountable and responsible for what.

Government actions need to be conducted in an open and honest way (Diamond 2005: 4). Transparency as an element of good governance calls for freedom of information and access to that information (Diamond 2005: 4). Ideally, transparency should discourage corruption (Diamond 2005: 4).

Transparency contributes to the level of legitimacy afforded to government through the mechanisms it allows for participation. According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 89) "all members of a society should feel that they have a stake in government. All groups, particularly the most vulnerable, should take the opportunity to improve or maintain their livelihood. The principle of equality requires that every person be equal before the law irrespective of sex, age, race,

colour, religion or any other ground. The principle of equality also includes the need for specific measures aimed at correcting *de facto* discrimination or eliminating conditions that cause or help to perpetuate discrimination in practice; finally, the principle of equality involves implementing measures that promote equality among persons and groups." Ghaus-Pasha (2007) argues that all men and women should be able to take part in the conduct of public affairs. Transparency and its requisite participation and equality are however only possible if citizens have access to relevant information.

2.4.4.4 Access to Information

According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 89) availability of information refers to the "prevalence of all connections between public and government." They argue further that access to information allows civil society to observe and analyze the efficiency and effectiveness levels of those within the public sector. Access to information allows civil society access to information regarding rules, actions and their consequences thereby facilitating the process of participation through equitable means.

2.4.4.5 Legal Framework

Kakumba & Fourie (2007: 651) argue that "as the systems of devolved authority, responsibility and extensive discretion only works well when supported by other kinds of control, like administrative law, judicial or administrative review and strong legislative oversight". The legal framework or the rule of law is an element of good governance which Diamond (2005: 4) states is closely linked to transparency and accountability. According to Ghaus-Pasha (2007: 16) the principle of the rule of law forms the basis for commenting on the integrity and legitimacy of the state. The restraint presented through laws and regulations is seen as a critical mechanism with which good governance can be ensured (Diamond 2005: 4). These laws and regulations ought to outline clear, understandable rules guiding behaviour in public, political and monetary life. (Diamond 2005: 5). Adherence to

laws and regulations sets the foundations for a government administration that operates efficiently and effectively (Diamond 2005: 4–5). “Only through a rule of law can individuals be secured against arbitrary harm from the state or powerful private actors” (Diamond 2005: 5).

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 87) argue that “application of the rule of law entrenches the acceptance of the authority in place by the society” and that “it indicates the continuation of an authorized set of regulations, methods, and procedures which in themselves act as a safeguard against the unethical use of government authority and lawlessness.” The legal frameworks that governments design need to be adopted and enforced within a framework of established procedures. Ghaus-Pasha (2007: 16) argue that in an ideal situation, no person or body, including public servants should be able to breach the law without reprimand, and that the institutions and processes in place should serve all stakeholders within a reasonable timeframe. The aim for good governance through the rule of law should be that the formal or informal governing structures need to be able to respond to a wide range of interests, especially those of the poorest and most vulnerable (Ghaus-Pasha 2007: 16).

Each of these elements is connected and forms the critical components of what constitutes good governance. Davids *et al.* (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 86) highlight that this language was adopted by its “sister” banks and has an impact on global interpretations of what constitutes good governance. One such impact was on the United Nations Development Programme interpretation of good governance.

2.5 UNDP Framework of Good Governance

The UNDP uses the World Banks five elements as the basis for their framework. They identify five elements of good governance which are expanded into nine thematic areas:

- Legitimacy and voice – this includes the *level of participation* and the *consensus orientation* within a government;
- Direction – includes the *strategic vision* and *level of responsiveness* to the needs of the people;
- Performance – includes the issues of *efficiency and effectiveness*;
- Accountability – includes the level of *accountability* by decision makers and the level of *transparency*; and,
- Fairness – seeks to include the level of *equity and inclusiveness*, and *the rule of law* (IFAD 2013: 1).

What is useful about the UNDP framework is that it includes 'strategic vision', 'equality and inclusiveness' and 'efficiency and effectiveness' as key thematic issues. Including these into a good governance framework reinforce the importance of the Human Right to Food, and further requires that clear guidance towards food security be provided through policy on Food Security. The element of effectiveness and efficiency in the implementation of policy through performance highlights the importance of maintaining standards and ethical guidelines for the implementers of policy.

2.6 GOOD GOVERNANCE AS ETHICAL GOVERNANCE

From the definitions identified earlier and the elements of good governance, it becomes clear that good governance implies ethical governance. Good governance as ethical governance refers directly to the levels of: legitimacy,

accountability, the level of management effectiveness, and transparency that government is able to effect (Vyas-Doorgapersad & Ababio 2010: 414).

Ethical values underlie accountability as ethics are related to the principles and rules that guide the moral value of people's behaviour. Improving ethics is critical for enhancing accountability and *vice versa*. Integrity, probity, impartiality and frugality form part of the ethical values that public official behaviours and thus action should display. These can impact on performance and the extent to which public officials are willing or unwilling to be accountable for their performance. Unethical practice in the public service includes dishonesty, laziness, negligence, and inefficiency on the part of public officials, as well as fraud and corruption.

Menzel (2003) sees ethics and public service values as important elements in comprising the "body and soul" of public administration. Moore (1976) in addressing the moral and ethical obligations of public administrators argues that those public sector obligations arise from three different realms which include:

- Respecting the processes that legitimate the actions of public officials;
- Serving the public interest; and
- Treating colleagues and subordinates with respect, honesty, integrity and fairness.

Vyas-Doorgapersad & Ababio (2010: 414) state that the prevalence of ethical values and professionalism plays a significant part in the ability of public administrators to effectively and efficiently implement policies and programmes. Vyas-Doorgapersad & Ababio (2010: 414) in their analysis include the element of professionalism into their identification of principles as prerequisites of ethical governance. They see professionalism as a mechanism of enhancing the

“capacity and moral disposition of government administrators so that they are capable of providing easy, fast, accurate and affordable services.”

2.7 GOOD GOVERNANCE AS PROFESSIONALISM

Professionalism is very often associated with ethical standards and moral behaviour. According to Mafunisa (2001: 325) “professionalism imbues its practitioners with a public service ideal and code of ethics.” It is important to note that whilst instilling values, morals and acceptance of norms depends heavily on culture and religion, the issue of professionalism is more about pride in work produced, and is about meeting more than minimum standards, achieving more than before, being accountable for duties and responsibilities. Being professional, means balancing accountability and autonomy (Tau & Mathebula 2008: 355).

Wenzel (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012: 73) notes that “fast tracked”, “accelerated” delivery does not work. Rather, that less is more, and that SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, time-bound) action is needed to see success in service delivery. According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012: 73) this SMART action needs to be coupled with professionalism and the necessary training. Hart (1984) reiterates this by arguing that public administration is a “moral endeavour” that requires special moral obligations and unique moral character. Stewart (1985: 13) similarly indicates that “the role of a public administrator carries a kind of moral weight not found in private sector counterpart roles”. Dobel (1990: 354-355) argues that “public officials need a complex array of moral resources to exercise discretion,” and that adequate discretion by public officials "should be seen as an iterative process among three mutually supporting realms of judgment. For Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012: 73) accountability and personal responsibility are thus not only keys to ethical decision-making for individuals in the public sector, but the two cannot be separated.

2.8 BAD GOVERNANCE AND ITS EFFECTS ON PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public servants as administrators of public funds, have the power to accumulate private wealth through exploiting their positions. This exploitation takes the form of collusion with politicians, grafting and other forms of corruption. Corruption, according to Mafunisa (2007: 261), “covers all illegal or unethical use of government authority for personal or political gain”. Corruption most often occurs where there is limited accountability and little transparency in the operations of government. According to Huntington (1968: 710), systematic corruption is often the consequence of “soft” states that thrive “on disorganisation, the absence of stable relationships among groups and of recognised patterns of authority”.

The phenomena of maladministration and corruption according to Menzel (2003: 239), makes one believe that the value, functioning and contribution of governance and intergovernmental relations is a myth. Whilst the codes of conduct and principles exist for those employed within the public services, they do not guarantee that professional ethics will be maintained. Mantzaris & Pillay (2013: 113) note that counter-corruption initiatives have limited success and that corruption must be curbed or if possible eliminated. Edwards (2007: 29) describes the level of corruption being experienced in the public sector as a ‘moral decay’ that needs to be identified and treated early in order to prevent the total breakdown of the public service.

The good governance agenda recognises that there is a “strategic significance that good government plays in the development process”, and that good government requires the “highest standards of integrity, openness and transparency”, together with a strong justice system “'new forms and dimensions' of corruption, and its pervasive effect on government performance, on the use of public resources, on the general morale in the public be less for self-gain than a belief in the promotion of, and the roles of, the state to regulate and benefit society whose confidence in, and acceptance of, the legitimacy of the neutrality and responsiveness of the state would be confirmed by its efforts on behalf of the

population as a whole, in turn reinforcing the state's stability and financial viability" (Theobald in Cloete 1995: 37).

It can be deduced that a reduction in corruption requires the adoption of good government practices and that this, in turn, will have a direct impact on the socio-economic status of households.

2.9 GOOD GOVERNANCE AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Governance became important in the development field at a time when development policies were failing and structural adjustments became the new language for governments seeking assistance with socio-economic development. The new language emphasised the need for government efficiency and effectiveness if economic performance and development interventions were to be possible. Calls for governments to rule out corruption and for officials to be financially accountable and transparent became part of the "small print" in aid agreements. Assessing the levels of good governance was largely aimed at economic criteria rather than assessing the impact of development intervention on peoples' socio-economic status (Ghaus-Pasha 2007; Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 92).

Whilst this is part of the reality, socio-economic development and good governance are no doubt linked. The call for governments to be more accountable by responding to the needs of its people is one such example. The promotion of structures for participation and a call for democratic values further support the call for governments and their administrations to respond to the socio-economic needs of its people. These challenges together with the challenges presented by the changing notion of public administration have required governments to constantly change. This discussion will now explore public administration in South Africa.

2.10 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Since 1994, the South African public service has undergone major transformation not only in its form but also in its functions. These changes must be considered as part of any discussion on good governance within South Africa. A brief discussion of public administration pre and post 1994 will now be provided.

2.10.1 Pre-1994 Public Administration

Tshandu & Kariuki (2010: 189) state that the South African public service was traditional and bureaucratic since 1910 and was characterised by a lack of co-ordination and racially segregated provision of services. Legislative and administrative measures promoting racially segregated delivery of services became part of the public administration mandate from 1948. According to Thornhill (2008: 492) the South African public service was isolated and evolved separately from the global transformation of public administration during the apartheid period. The 1990s saw the beginning of major transformation in public administration in South Africa (Cameron 2009: 4). This transformation required reform from a traditional bureaucratic model to a more democratic, responsive public administration.

2.10.2 Post- 1994: From Public Administration to Good Governance

Administrative reform is part of the landscape of the South African government and its public service. The new policy agenda calls for an adoption of market based ideologies in the management of the public service which is a radical departure from not only traditional bureaucracy but a departure from the apartheid government mechanisms for public sector management. Efficiency and effectiveness have become part of the narrative for effective government (Kroukamp 2002: 465).

Kroukamp (2002: 466) argues that the demand for a new style of government "aims not only to improve administrative output technically, but also to develop public relations techniques….safeguarding the public's interest, developing partnership practices, transparency, fighting corruption, promotion a code of ethics…(and) consultation". The objective, according to Kroukamp (2002: 466) is to turn public administration into a mechanism for social change and development". Transformation priorities thus included rationalization and restructuring to "ensure a unified, integrated and 'leaner' public service" (Tshandu & Kariuki 2010: 191). These changes formed part of the global move to NPM as the preferred mechanism for public administration. The aim for greater effectiveness, efficiency, accountability and transparency formed part of the calls for good governance. Pronounced commitment to reform came through recommendations for legislative changes in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service and thereafter reinforced in constitutional changes.

2.11 CONSTITUTIONAL GUIDELINES FOR NEW ERA

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service provided a national policy framework for the transformation of the public service. The goals of the White Paper were further reinforced in the Constitution through Chapter 10 on Public Administration and the Bill of Rights which commit government and public administration to fair, equal access to services, and the *Batho Pele* Principles that provide guidelines for minimum standards for public service delivery. These guidelines for the public service will now be explored.

2.11.1 Chapter 10: Public Administration

Chapter 10 of the Constitution provides provisions for the conduct of those employed within public administration departments and institutions. This Chapter includes three sections. Section 195, which explores the 'Basic values and principles governing public administration'; Section 196 which makes provisions

for the set up of a 'Public Service Commission' and outlines the roles and responsibilities; and Section 197 provides guidelines for those employed in the public service. Each of these will be briefly explored.

- **Section 195: Basic values and principles governing public administration**

Section 195 outlined the basic values and principles governing public administration. These are:

1. "Public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following principles:

    a. A high standard of **professional ethics** must be promoted and maintained.

    b. Efficient, economic and effective **use of resources** must be promoted.

    c. Public administration must be **development-oriented**.

    d. Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and **without bias.**

    e. **People's needs must be responded to**, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making.

    f. Public administration must be **accountable**.

    g. **Transparency** must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information.

    h. Good **human-resource management** and career-development practices, to maximise human potential, must be cultivated.

    i. Public administration must be broadly **representative** of the South African people, with employment and personnel management

practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness, and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.

2. The above principles apply to

    a. administration in every sphere of government;

    b. organs of state; and

    c. public enterprises.

3. National legislation must ensure the promotion of the values and principles listed in subsection (1).

4. The appointment in public administration of a number of persons on policy considerations is not precluded, but national legislation must regulate these appointments in the public service.

5. Legislation regulating public administration may differentiate between different sectors, administrations or institutions.

6. The nature and functions of different sectors, administrations or institutions of public administration are relevant factors to be taken into account in legislation regulating public administration".

These basic values and principles form the foundation for actions by public servants and commit government and public administration to fair, equal access to services. Further, they seek to ensure that public sector management is effective and efficient. As a result, Section 195 is a key legislative guideline for which all those employed within the public service should be familiar.

- **Section 196: Public Service Commission**

The Public Service Commission is "an independent, impartial body responsible for the maintenance of effective and efficient public administration and a high

standard of professional ethics in the public service". It is the Commission's responsibility to promote the values and principles set out in section 195, and to "investigate, monitor and evaluate the organisation and administration, and the personnel practices, of the public service".

The Public Service Commission thus seeks to ensure professional accountability amongst public servants and provides for mechanisms by which transparency and access to information is promoted.

- **Section 197: Public Service**

Section 197 outlines the responsibilities of the public service. It states that:

1. "Within public administration there is a public service for the Republic, which must function, and be structured, in terms of national legislation, and which must **loyally execute the lawful policies** of the government of the day.

2. The terms and conditions of employment in the public service must be regulated by national legislation. Employees are entitled to a fair pension as regulated by national legislation.

3. No employee of the public service may be favoured or prejudiced only because that person supports a particular political party or cause.

4. Provincial governments are responsible for the recruitment, appointment, promotion, transfer and dismissal of members of the public service in their administrations within a framework of uniform norms and standards applying to the public service" (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996).

Section 197 thus provides a legal framework that guides the actions of public servants in terms of the basic role of public administration within South African society.

2.11.2 The *Batho Pele* Principles

The *Batho Pele* Principles came out of recognition that the public service was faced with immense problems which made it difficult to hold public servants accountable for their actions or inaction (Tshandu & Kariuki 2010: 196). The *Batho Pele* programme now forms a critical part of the functioning of all three spheres of government. The eight *Batho Pele* Principles provide a policy and legislative framework for service delivery in the public service. These principles are aligned with the Constitutional ideals of:

- "Promoting and maintaining high standards of professional ethics;
- Providing service impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;
- Utilising resources efficiently and effectively;
- Responding to people's needs; the citizens are encouraged to participate in policy-making; and
- Rendering an accountable, transparent, and development-oriented public administration" (Republic of South Africa, Chapter 10, Act 108 of 1996).

The *Batho Pele* Principles are:

1. **"Consultation:** Customer surveys, interviews, consultation, NGOS, CBOs;
2. **Setting Service Standards:** this reinforces the need for benchmarks to constantly measure the extent to which citizens are satisfied with the service or products;

3. **Increasing access:** is aimed at attempting to rectify the inequalities in distribution and aims to improve access to information and create value for money;

4. **Encouraging courtesy:** aims to go beyond being polite through continuous, honest and transparent communication;

5. **Providing information:** especially relevant information at the point of delivery;

6. **Openness and transparency:** to inform government about the way government institutions operate, how well they utilize resources they consume, and who is in charge;

7. **Redress:** in order to identify quickly and accurately when services are falling below the promised standard and to have procedures in place to remedy the situation. Further so that public servants should welcome complaints as an opportunity to change and improve service delivery; and

8. **Value for money:** through the satisfactory delivery of goods and services with minimal loss of time and resources in the delivery thereof" (Republic of South Africa 1997: 15).

It can be summarised that the overarching aim of the *Batho Pele* Principles is to improve the quality and level of accessibility to government services by improving the level of efficiency and levels of accountability and transparency by public servants in their daily activities. Thus, knowledge of the *Batho Pele* principles is a critical element of the functioning of all public servants and provides an implementation springboard for Section 195 of the Constitution, as described earlier.

2.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter began with a historical overview of the meaning and scope of public administration in order to place this study into a context of changing paradigms. The discussion showed that public administration has and continues to adapt, in practice and theory, to the changing nature of what it means to 'govern' as argued by Holzer, Gabrielian & Yang (2006). The chapter showed that public administration is often characterized through an application of social and other sciences to public problems. In examining public administration over time, the discussion has shown that the term draws from multiple sources, and constantly attempts to balance the often contradicting views about social problems and the role of government in solving these problems. The concept of good governance, as the current form of public administration, was introduced through an overview of its elements, measures, its relationship with public administration and socio-economic development.

The chapter also introduces the World Bank framework for understanding good governance as a mechanism for analysis. This chapter further shows that 'good' governance ought to be participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and should, follow the rule of law. Within this perspective, the nature and extent of corruption must be minimal, the views of minorities must be taken into account and the voices of the most vulnerable in society must be heard in decision-making and thus included in the policy-making process.

This chapter has shown that governments that are "good" are those who respond to the present and future needs of the society through the actions of public administrators who are accountable, operate within the rule of law, are aware of and function within policy and legislative guidelines, and together their actions are directed towards development of that society.

For public administrators to achieve good governance, this chapter has argued that the adoption of ethical and professional values whilst balancing multiple accountabilities is a key to success.

The chapter also showed that public administration in South Africa has moved from a traditional bureaucratic approach to adopting the principles of good governance as the basis for effective and efficient public administration. The key legislative frameworks that guide the actions and roles and responsibilities of ALL public servants is examined in an attempt to lay the foundation for addressing the key issues at hand. It is important to note that this chapter underpins the analyses conducted and the empirical study undertaken.

The chapter that follows explores poverty, food security, the MDGs and good food security governance in South Africa.

CHAPTER THREE: POVERTY AND GOOD FOOD SECURITY GOVERNANCE IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The discussion thus far has shown that the scope of Public Administration has expanded with the rise of the modern state and now includes policy decisions, planning, work organization and citizen participation as key factors guiding the successes and/ or failures of government towards the achievement of internationally set guidelines for governments. Post-colonial states in a modern era are challenged further by the need for state sponsored socio-economic development. In an age of increasing poverty and high unemployment, effective and efficient policy implementation is important in addressing socio-economic development. Statistics reveal that poverty has steadily increased with the rise of modern industrialization and with a parallel decline in subsistence farming amongst rural households (DFID 2004: 9). These factors have contributed to food insecurity becoming a reality for many households. An inability to access adequate government goods and services further contributes to the state of food insecurity and keeps households and individuals trapped in a cycle of poverty.

This chapter provides an exposition of poverty, food security, and good food security governance. In exploring these issues, an examination of food security in South Africa is analysed through the use of a SWOT analysis. But first, what is poverty?

3.2 DEFINING POVERTY

Poverty according to Ramphele & Wilson (1989: 4) is characterized by the "inability of individuals, households or communities to attain an acceptable minimum standard of living due to lack of resources", and it can be defined by referring to several different forms of deprivation, such as a lack of resources, income, housing and health facilities, lack of knowledge, education and poor levels

of nutrition. These forms of deprivation, including vulnerability, are critical when considering the poverty status of individuals, households and communities in regard to access to food. One cannot fully understand food security without considering the role of poverty as it has implications for policy formulation and implementation.

3.2.1 Poverty as Deprivation

There are many definitions and interpretations of what constitutes poverty (Chambers 1983, Chambers & Conway 1992). Poverty can be construed in a narrow or broad sense. In the narrow sense, it means lack of income. In a broad sense, poverty can be seen as multidimensional, encompassing other socio-economic issues, social capital, and power (Chambers 1989). Poverty is linked to deprivation, inequality and levels of vulnerability experienced by individuals, households and communities. Deprivation refers to the effects of poverty on a person's life and reflects on peoples' access to resources (Du Toit & Ziervogel 2004; Ellis 2000; Carney 1998).

The term "lived poverty" as described by Mattes, Bratton & Davids (2003: 3) is sometimes used to "describe and measure what it means to be poor". Indicators of deprivation commonly used include access to water, electricity, housing and sanitation. Inequality is generally a characteristic of social power relations. Within South Africa, apartheid added the dimension of race as part of inequality resulting in social exclusion. In this regard, power relations may be linked to differential access to political or socio-economic rights and institutionalized social hierarchies. Inequality can thus only be measured through indirect indicators that measure the impact of unequal social power relations (Ellis 2000). For example, the Gini coefficient is a common measure of distributional inequality in a population. Policies that are adopted to reduce inequality must therefore contain some element of redistribution of resources from the wealthier to the poorer members of that society (Schwabe 2004: 1).

3.2.2 Poverty as Vulnerability

Vulnerability is a state of being defenceless to threats to one's well-being. According to Hart (2009: 363), the terms vulnerability and insecurity are often used interchangeably in research and literature. Further, he points out that, these terms are used to describe situations where people are unable to cope with threats to their well-being without ill effects (Hart 2009: 363). People are thus considered to be vulnerable when they are more sensitive to shocks to their livelihood from which they are unable to recover. This creates a situation where their resource and asset base are deeply affected (Devereux 2002; Ellis 2003). Where individuals or households are able to cope or recover from a shock, they are considered to be more resilient. People are vulnerable when the systems on which they depend for their livelihoods are highly sensitive but not very resilient (Hart 2009: 363; Du Toit & Ziervogel 2004; Chambers 1989). What the researcher finds useful about understanding the relationship between poverty and vulnerability is that it had implications for one's understanding of food security. This discussion will now explore the evolution of the term food security.

3.3 THE EVOLUTION OF THE TERM 'FOOD SECURITY'

The concept of food security has adapted, altered and evolved with changes in global understanding of the nature of food insecurity (Edward 2002: 1). An examination of the evolution of the term 'food security' will now be provided.

3.3.1 Food Security as Insufficient Nutrients

According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 9), the earliest introduction to a world food problem was recorded in the 1930s. In response, the Health Division of the League of Nations conducted an extensive study, which reported the existence of an acute food shortage in poor countries. Nutrition became the focus of food security efforts (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 10).

According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 10) it is at the same time that the relationships between food production, food prices and related taxation were first debated by politicians. The League of Nations came to the conclusion that increases in food production to meet human needs has the potential to boost the agriculture economy and that this growth would spread to the "expansion of the world economy through what was described as the marriage of health and agriculture" (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 10).

The Food and Agriculture Organisation was set up in 1943 and conducted the first survey into the situation of food in the world in 1946. The focus of this survey was to determine the extent to which sufficient food and energy, through a calorie count, was available for everybody on earth. The study found that one third of the world population did not meet the minimum standard for sufficient energy. The result of the study and prevailing arguments, combined with the challenges of the post World War II period gave rise to the Green Revolution which sought to drastically increase food production through investments in agriculture. Thus, food production was seen as the solution to incidences of food insecurity and became the focus of government interventions (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 11, DIFD 2004: 7).

3.3.2 Food Security and Food Production

According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 11), the Green Revolution resulted in the increase of global food production by more than 50 per cent, creating overproduction. The result was a massive decline of food commodity prices due to large food surpluses. The surpluses produced in the USA, were used as food aid and distributed throughout the third world. Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 11) estimate that through the Marshall Plan, about 3 billion US dollars worth of food aid was transferred from the United States of America to Europe.

The United Nations General Assembly in 1960 approved a resolution on "the provision of Food Surpluses to Food-Deficit people through the United Nations Systems" that led to the creation of the **World Food Programme** (WFP) which formalized the use of food aid as a bargaining tool in multilateral negotiations (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 11).

In 1963 the General Agreement on Tariff and Trade (GATT) recognized the importance of international trade in agriculture products. The new World Trade Organisation (WTO) acknowledged the role of food security in global politics. Up to 1972, food surpluses were taken for granted until the El Nino meteorological condition led to a significant reduction of the overall cereal production with a consequent impact on its prices. Severe droughts were coupled with famines and severe malnutrition. The OPEC countries decision to increase the oil price to record levels dramatically increased fertilizer prices and transportation costs resulting in sharp increases in the cost of food (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 11).

The term "food security" originated in the 1970s. In 1974, the World Food Conference organized by FAO in Rome sought to address the crisis of food supply. This crisis fuelled the Malthusian thesis that that population growth would exceed the rate of food production. The Conference adopted the following definition of food security:

"Availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic foodstuffs to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuations in production and prices" (FAO 2006: 1).

3.3.3 Food Security and the Entitlements Approach

In the early 1980s an assessment presented to the World Food Council, as a result of the work of Amartya Sen, highlighted the inconsistency represented by the prevailing view of food security. Sen pointed to the contrast between the

increase of agricultural production which reached record levels yet "between 400 and 600 million of people did not have access to an adequate amount of food" (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 11). Sen's work on entitlements dominated at the time. Sen (1981) argued that food insecurity exists due to the lack of entitlements experienced by poor households and that this limits their ability to secure food. He argued further that availability does not necessarily imply access. Sen introduced a conceptual framework that was markedly different from earlier supply side issues. He proposed an entitlements approach where entitlements are defined as the "key set of alternative commodity bundles that a person can command in a society using the totality of rights and opportunities that he or she faces" (Sen 1984: 497).

The entitlements approach recognizes that a person can acquire food, their bundle, by buying it, working for it, growing it, and receiving it as a gift. Hence, people are entitled to food, if their bundle can allow them adequate food for subsistence. His argument is important as it goes beyond a human right, but is described as a legal right related to the way in which goods, resources and labour are valued and exchanged. Sen hence argued that food insecurity should be understood in terms of analyses at the household, community, regional and national levels, and within the context of the market, access to land and food, and not simply in terms of crop production and population growth (Vogel & Smith 2002: 316). This shift in the policy debate from food supply to food demand and the emphasis on entitlements provided "proxy for poverty" in a period when structural adjustments were gaining prominence in the policy agendas (Maxwell & Slater 2003: 532). This provided an opportunity to consider access to food in relation to factors beyond household production.

According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 11) as a result of Sen's work, the report by the World Food Council stressed the importance of "providing meaningful employment and income generating evolution of the concept of food security". The result was that attention was shifted away from food production to a view that

included the impact of entitlements of individuals. This, according to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 13) allowed for the recognition of the importance of the economical and physical access of poor and vulnerable people to food.

The FAO then reviewed its definition that was expanded to include a specific reference to securing access of vulnerable people to available supplies: “ensuring that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to the basic food that they need” (FAO in Edward 2002).

New perspectives on food security challenge Sen’s Entitlements Approach on the basis that the approach “underplays the role of assets, makes famine victims appear passive and marginalizes non-economic factors such as conflict and health” (DIFD 2004: 7). New perspectives consider that food insecurity like poverty is a complex condition, and that the idea of chronic and transitory forms of food insecurity must be considered.

3.3.4 Chronic and Transitory Food Insecurity

In 1986, the World Bank released a report that focused on both chronic and transitory food insecurity as a result of poverty and lack of income. The report provided an elaboration of the concept of food security: “access of all people at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life” (World Bank 1986). This allowed for a better understanding of the causes of hunger and food insecurity. In the mid-1990s protein-energy malnutrition, food safety, and nutritional balance became the focus of discussions around food security.

According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 11), the evolution of the term food security led to the definition adopted during the FAO World Food Summit in 1996, refined in 2001 by the State of Food Insecurity in the World and adopted by the FAO World Food Summit in 2002. The current definition expands the perspectives and the reach of the objectives of food security. This definition goes beyond

agricultural production and the availability of food. Rather, it extends to broader economic, political, social and environmental issues. “This major shift determines the strong linkages between food security and other issues”, namely, household food security, and food security as a human right which will now be briefly explored (Colonnelli & Simon 2013: 11).

3.3.5 Household Food Security

Maxwell (1996a: 291) suggests that food security mostly refers to food supply, access, adequacy, utilization, safety and in some cases the acceptability of the food. These many conceptions of the term food security are a reflection of the difficulty in describing and measuring levels of food security and its various indicators. Dowler (in Hendriks 2005: 103) has contended that “food poverty” is a synonym for food insecurity, which in itself echoes wider debate on food security as more than the physical efficiency of food consumption but extends to the social and emotional impact of the prevalence of acceptable quantities and quality of food.

Whilst some of the earliest attempts at describing and defining food security have been aimed at relating household food consumption to experiences at national and regional levels, the policy debate has moved to analyze the impact of the entire livelihood of households and individuals (Devereux & Maxwell 2001: 1). The shift in perspective has led to a focus on food security at the household level. Whilst the definition has evolved over time, a food secure household is one that can reliably obtain food of adequate quality and quantity to support a healthy life (FAO Handbook 2001). Food security can thus be defined in its most original form as access by all people at all times to food. Achieving food security has three proportions:

- firstly, it is important to ensure at a national and household level, a nutritionally adequate **food supply**;

- secondly, it is necessary to have **stability** in the supply of food; and
- thirdly it is important to make certain that each **household has access** to enough food to meet its needs without waste or over-consumption being encouraged (FAO Handbook 2001; Hoddinot 1999; Maxwell & Frankenberger 1992).

3.3.6 Food Security as a Human Right

The right to food is entrenched in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and thus needs to be a fundamental objective of development policy. This right works together with the MDGs in the promotion of socio-economic welfare of the poor. An overview of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) will follow.

3.4 THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

In order to understand what the MDGs are, it is important to understand them in relation to the events that led to them.

In April 2000 the first Millennium Summit was held. This was quickly followed by a United Nations Declaration to what has become known as the MDGs in September 2000. In September 2001 a UN Roadmap towards implementation of the MDGs was provided that outlines potential strategies to meet the goals and commitments made by the 147 heads of states and government, and 189 member states in total who adopted the MDGs (UN 2010).

In November 2001 the Doha Ministerial Delegation outlined the mandate for negotiations for implementation of the MDGs followed by the Monterey Consensus of March 2002 which was attended by 50 heads of state and government, 200 ministers, leaders from the private sector, civil society and non-governmental

organizations, who came together to discuss issues related to financial and developmental concerns for the implementation of the goals.

In September 2002, the World Summit on Sustainable Development marked the final agreement on the development goals and was endorsed by all members. Through the MDGs, the international community has been committed to “fighting poverty and hunger through a series of statements issued at international summits of heads of state culminating in The Millennium Declaration issued at the 24th special session of the United Nations General Assembly in June 2000” (UN 2010). The Millennium Declaration amalgamates commitments and makes a pledge to halve the proportion of the world’s population living in extreme poverty by 2015.

For the objectives of this study, the most important of these commitments was made at the 1996 World Food Summit in Rome, where 186 heads of state pledged to halve the number of undernourished people in the world by 2015 (UN 2010). As a result, it is important to understand these goals in relation to changing world views on poverty and food security and the efforts by international organizations that are very influential in shaping public administrations around the world. Table 3.1 that follows provides an overview of the 8 goals and their priorities.

Figure 3.1: Overview of MDGs

Goals	Priorities
Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	
Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day	**1.** Proportion of population below $1 per day (PPP-values) **2.** Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty] **3.** Share of poorest quintile in national consumption **4.** Prevalence of underweight children (under five years of age) **5.** Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption
Target 2: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	
Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education	
Target 3: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	**6.** Net enrolment ratio in primary education **7.** Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 **8.** Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds
Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women	
Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015	**9.** Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education **10.** Ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 year olds **11.** Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector **12.** Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Goal 4: Reduce child mortality	
Target 5: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	**13.** Under-five mortality rate **14.** Infant mortality rate **15.** Proportion of 1 year old children immunized against measles
Goal 5: Improve maternal health	
Target 6: Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015	**16.** Maternal mortality ratio **17.** Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	
Target 7: Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the spread of HIV/AIDS	**18.** HIV prevalence among 15-24 year old pregnant women **19.** Contraceptive prevalence rate **20.** Number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS **21.** Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria **22.** Proportion of population in malaria risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures **23.** Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis **24.** Proportion of TB cases detected and cured under DOTS (Directly Observed Treatment Short Course)
Target 8: Have halted by 2015, and begun to reverse, the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	
Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	**25.** Proportion of land area covered by forest **26.** Land area protected to maintain biological diversity **27.** GDP per unit of energy use (as proxy for energy efficiency) **28.** Carbon dioxide emissions (per capita) [Plus two figures of global atmospheric pollution: ozone depletion and the accumulation of global warming gases]
Target 10: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water	**29.** Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source
Target 11: By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	**30.** Proportion of people with access to improved sanitation **31.** Proportion of people with access to secure tenure [Urban/rural disaggregation of several of the above indicators may be relevant for monitoring improvement in the lives of slum dwellers]
Goal 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development	
Target 12: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system Includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction – both	**32.** Net ODA as percentage of DAC donors' GNI [targets of 0.7% in total and 0.15% for LDCs] **33.** Proportion of ODA to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation)

nationally and internationally	**34.** Proportion of ODA that is untied **35.** Proportion of ODA for environment in small island developing states **36.** Proportion of ODA for transport sector in land-locked countries *Market Access* **37.** Proportion of exports (by value and excluding arms) admitted free of duties and quotas **38.** Average tariffs and quotas on agricultural products and textiles and clothing **39.** Domestic and export agricultural subsidies in OECD countries **40.** Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity *Debt Sustainability* **41.** Proportion of official bilateral HIPC debt cancelled **42.** Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services **43.** Proportion of ODA provided as debt relief **44.** Number of countries reaching HIPC decision and completion points **45.** Unemployment rate of 15-24 year olds **46.** Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis **47.** Telephone lines per 1000 people **48.** Personal computers per 1000 people
Target 13: Address the Special Needs of the Least Developed Countries Includes: tariff and quota free access for LDC exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for HIPC and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction	
Target 14: Address the Special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing states (through Barbados Programme and 22nd General Assembly provisions)	
Target 15: Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term	
Target 16: In co-operation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth	
Target 17: In co-operation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries	
Target 18: In co-operation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications	

Source: adapted from MDGs (UN 2013)

3.4.1 Global Achievement of MDG 1

For the objectives of this study, MDG 1 is most important which calls for the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger. For its 2015 goals, reduction by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger is its goal. The most recent MDG Report (2013: 6) has revealed that despite the world reaching the poverty reduction target five years ahead of schedule, by the proportion of people living on less than $1.25 a day falling from 47 per cent in 1990 to 22 per cent in 2010, one in eight still go to bed hungry, one in six children are severely underweight, with one in four being stunted due to hunger. The report notes further that 1.2 billion people are still living in extreme poverty with statistics from sub-Saharan Africa revealing that almost half the population live on less than $1.25 a day (MDG 2013: 6). Perhaps, what is most shocking about the report is that sub-saharan Africa is the only region that saw the number of people living in extreme poverty rise

steadily, from 290 million in 1990 to 414 million in 2010. The World Bank projects that, by 2015, about 970 million people will still be living on less than $1.25 a day in countries classified as low or middle-income in 1990 (MDG 2013: 6-7).

International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) projections suggest that, under the most likely scenario, food insecurity will continue to be a critical issue requiring intervention in 2020. Further, it is argued that many millions of people will suffer from hunger and its debilitating consequences (Pinstrup-Andersen, Pandya-Lorch & Rosegrant 1999: 29). Of the ten worst performing countries in terms of percentage change in the index in this period, nine are from Africa, with rural poverty being associated with the most extreme forms of deprivation. South Africa is not untouched by this situation. As the most recent poverty statistics within South Africa will show later in this chapter, poverty is a reality for many households in South Africa, with rural poverty being of major concern for development initiatives. Due to the prevalence of high rates of poverty and deprivation amongst the rural population, it is important to explore the role of agriculture as a poverty reduction and food security initiative.

3.4.2 Poverty, Food Security and the Role of Agriculture

According to DFID (2004: 9), increasing agricultural activity has the potential to increase production of food and provide food stability on a national level. The rationale here is that, increasing the production of food grains can result in a reduction in grain prices, thus making them more affordable to poor households. Income through agricultural production further has the potential to increase household income (DFID 2004: 10). Hazell & Haggablade (in Kirsten, May, Hendriks, Lyne, Machethe, & Punt 2003: 25) argue that agricultural growth is linked to raised non-farm activity which, in turn, leads to improved livelihoods. They argue further that, increasing opportunity through improved skills leads to higher returns and thus a more speedy improvement in rural livelihoods. This goes beyond the argument by Delgado, Hopkins, Kelly, Hazell, McKenna, Gruhn, Hojjati, Sil, & Courbois (1998), that is a link where the quality of rural livelihoods

improves, the demand for other goods increases, and people are less likely to migrate to urban areas. Kirtsten *et al.* (2003: 26) make specific reference to the benefits that arise out of the investment in skills that is resultant from investment in agricultural production. Their study explored the role of agriculture in poverty alleviation and food security revealed a number of findings that must be considered for this study, namely:

- Where rural households have improved skills in agriculture, a reduction in poverty and malnutrition becomes possible;
- Households that grow vegetable spent surplus income on other commodities such as fats and oils that have a direct impact on their nutritional status, as they are able to supplement their starchy diet; and
- Dietary diversity leads to improved nutritional status, thus contributing to the rate of poverty.

The study further concluded that the scale of agricultural production determines the extent of these benefits identified above, and that agricultural production would need to develop beyond the subsistence level, through investments in other sectors, in order that significant progress to be made in poverty reduction and food insecurity through agriculture.

DFID (2004: 21) outlines key questions that must be considered in identifying the best agricultural strategies to effect change:

- Where should development efforts be focused?
- Who should they be focused on?
- Should they be focused on less favoured areas?
- What is the role of technology?

These questions need to be considered as part of any food security policy and have implications for public administrators as implementers of such policy as they have the potential to assist in targeting intervention to those individuals and communities who need them most. Whilst it must be noted that agriculture on its

own cannot eliminate food insecurity, as a contributor to reducing food insecurity, it cannot be ignored. Agriculture serves as a mechanism for achieving food security and has the potential to provide a positive contribution through improving the availability of food, access to purchasing additional foods and overall increasing the incomes of the poor (DFID 2004: 19). Any food security policy needs to consider these possibilities and with appropriate forms of governance to guide the implementation of policy.

The relationship between food security and good governance will now be explored.

3.5 FOOD SECURITY AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

The "Rome principles for sustainable global food security" as part of the World Summit on Food Security Declaration highlights in Principle 2 of the declaration that there is a need to "Foster strategic co-ordination at national, regional and global level to improve governance, promote better allocation of resources, avoid duplication of efforts and identify response-gaps" (FAO 2009: 3). According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 89), through the adoption of MDG 1 the world leaders have committed their governments and thus their public administrators to halving the number of hungry people before 2015. There is however a realization that it is unlikely that this goal will be achieved in many countries in sub-Saharan Africa (UNDP Report on Human Development 2010).

Pingali, Alinovi & Sutton (2005: S19) argue that poverty reduction mechanisms by way of food security efforts need to have a "twin track approach" to improve the socio-economic development of individuals and households. In other words, any food security policy, whilst aiming at reducing the risk of food insecurity, needs to be combined with policies aimed at improving the economic welfare of the ends users of such policies. This remains a priority for UN-driven food security efforts

and needs to be considered when assessing food security policy at a national level (Pingali *et al.* 2005: S19) and in considering the contributions of good governance to the achievement of the MDGs.

According to Ghaus-Pasha (2007: 16-17), good governance and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are linked in two ways: "**indirectly"**, through the growth of a country, and **"directly",** through issues of administration that affect the attainment of the MDGs. Effective and efficient economic governance has the potential to lead to further economic growth. This will enable the effective and efficient implementation of socio-economic policies. According to Ghaus-Pasha (2007: 17), combined with competent government officials, an "independent judiciary, along with proper information technology, open and transparent public institutions, a literate civil society to better act as a "watchdog" of public sector activities, and extensive participation in decision making and other stages of development", can facilitate improved institutions which, in turn, ensure that effective and efficient socio-economic policies are drawn up and their implementation monitored.

Kaufmann & Kraay (2007: 2) argue that the negative impact of the cost of good governance must also be considered. By this they imply that, whilst good governance can lead to improved socio-economic growth, growth does not automatically imply the enforcement of good governance. Their findings have two important implications for socio-economic development. The first is that waiting for improvements in governance (e.g. democracy, improved accountability and transparency) to automatically become part of normal functioning as countries become richer is likely to prove futile. The second point is that it is unlikely that a "virtuous circle" of improved governance leading to improved socio-economic development will lead to further improvements in levels of governance (Ghaus-Pasha 2007: 18).

Whilst good governance can contribute to socio-economic growth, the opposite, poor governance, can hinder socio-economic growth. Governance can be improved by investing in the socio-economic development of specific communities. This reinforces the need for broad-based strategies aimed at the socio-economic needs of certain communities. Bringing about any change, like achieving the MDGs, requires a positive policy environment, adequate resources, and an institutional framework to guide these processes. All these elements emphasise the critical dimensions of good governance. Good governance, through the adoption of its main principles, can present an opportunity for achieving the MDGs. However, it is important to take into consideration the existing socio-economic, political and historical context of each country. Furthermore, issues related to power and the distribution of resources, remain critical for the success or failure of good governance and the MDGs.

Achievement of the MDGs requires a policy framework that, together with a skilled Public Service, can assist in achieving good governance and socio-economic development, and poverty reduction is a key strategy as the first goal of the MDGs (Vyas-Doorgapersad 2010: 225). According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 92) "this presents a complex challenge for governments in their attempt to provide for the socio-economic welfare of its communities, given that food security in its most basic form is defined as access by all people at all times to food."

With recognition that a number of the MDGs may not be achieved by 2015 by many countries, there has been a radical shift in the goals. These include:

- **The IFPRI 2020 Vision of Food for All**: This vision is one where "every person has access to sufficient food to sustain a healthy and productive life, where malnutrition is absent, and where food originates from efficient, effective, and low-cost food systems that are compatible with sustainable use of natural resources" (IFPRI 2013). The 2020 Vision Initiative has two primary objectives:

- “To develop and promote a shared vision and consensus for action for meeting food needs while reducing poverty and protecting the environment; and
- To generate information and encourage debate to influence action by national governments, non-governmental organizations, the private sector, international development institutions, and other elements of civil society” (IFPRI 2013).

The Initiative fully supports the Millennium Goals and seeks to contribute to their achievement by 2015 (IFPRI 2013).

- **Post 2015 UN Development Agenda** embraces a policy of “Leaving no one behind” which forms part of an equity agenda for the post 2015 goals. The goals proposed by the post 2015 organisation include:
  - “Leave no one behind;
  - Introduce people living in poverty as a new partner in building knowledge on development;
  - Promote decent jobs, social protection and meeting the essential needs of all;
  - Achieve education and training for all based on cooperation between all stakeholders; and
  - Promote participatory good governance” (UN 2013).

The post-2015 agenda are beginning to reflect new development challenges and is linked to the outcome of “Rio+20” UN Conference on Sustainable Development, that took place in June 2012 in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. There is no doubt that governments are being challenged to show real government commitment towards poverty eradication and in so doing deal with the complex issue of food security.

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 92) argue that this requires government "to draw up policies that respond to the needs of the final beneficiaries of policies rather than responding to the resources and powers that are close to the political elite." In doing so, governments will need to improve the governance of food security.

3.6 DEFINING GOOD FOOD SECURITY GOVERNANCE

The paradigm shifts in the term food security, as discussed earlier in this Chapter, has been largely in response to global agenda needing to shape public administrations across the world. The historical overview has shown that there has been major failure in dealing with world food security largely due to the way in which it is interpreted. According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 11) "the historical overview highlights further that, the shift towards a new consideration of the real needs of the people affected by food insecurity should be obtained through a reform of the process and the recognition of the role of the multiple actors involved". At this point it is important to take note of the current working definition of Good Food Security Governance:

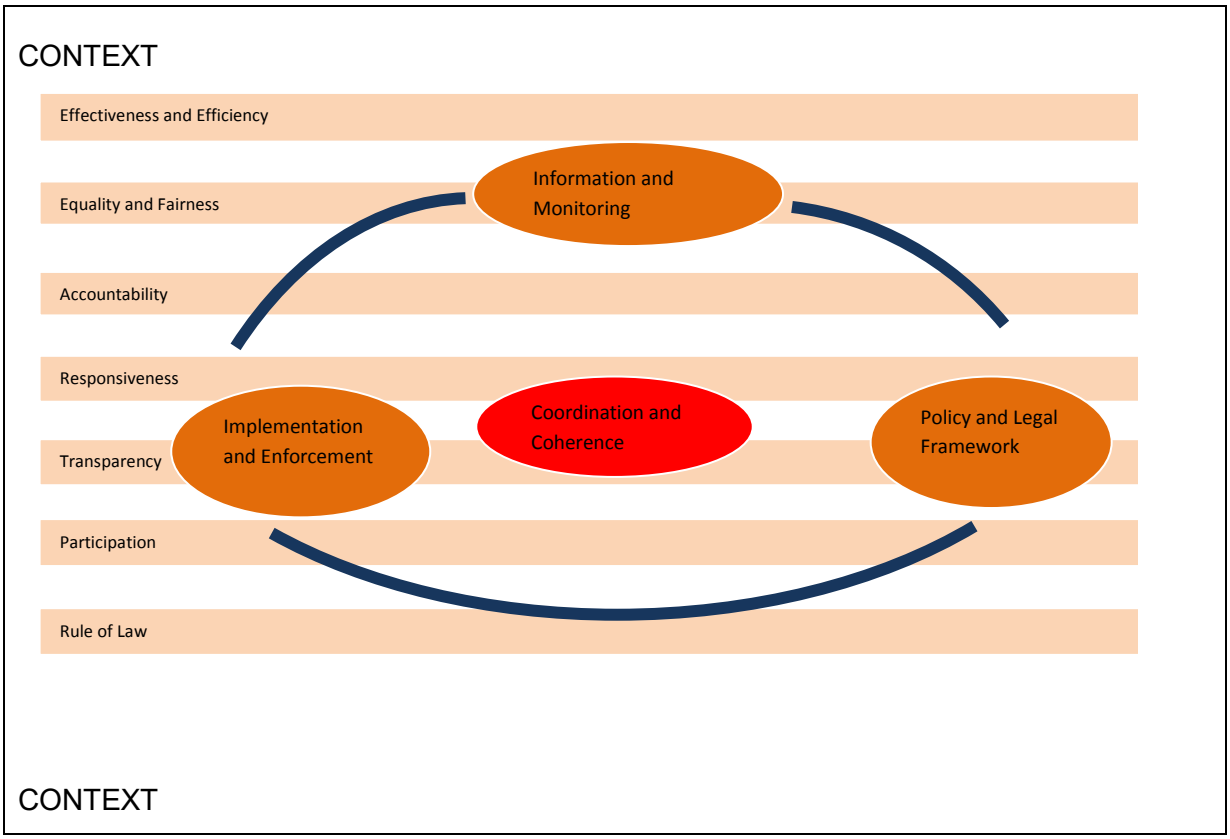
> "Food security governance relates to formal and informal rules and processes through which interests are articulated, and decisions relevant to food security in a country are made, implemented and enforced on behalf of members of a society" (FAO 2011b: 5).

Looking at food security through a good governance lens does not propose to present an ideal future state of government, but merely presents a way of understanding food security in relation to governance issues. The FAO PANTHER Principles is a mechanism for understanding the integration of governance into food security, and thus serves as a mechanism for understanding the extent of food security governance. PANTHER is an acronym for the goals of good governance in relation to food security.

- **“Participation** requires that everyone have the right to subscribe to decisions that affect them.
- **Accountability** requires that politicians and government officials be held accountable for their actions through elections, judicial procedures or other mechanisms.
- **Non-discrimination** prohibits arbitrary differences of treatment in decision-making.
- **Transparency** requires that people be able to know processes, decisions and outcomes.
- **Human dignity** requires that people be treated in a dignified way.
- **Empowerment** requires that they are in a position to exert control over decisions affecting their lives.
- **Rule of law** requires that every member of society, including decision-makers, must comply with the law” (FAO 2011a).

The FAO see ‘Implementation and Enforcement’, ‘Information and Monitoring’, ‘Policy and Legal Framework’ as being key factors in the implementation of food security policy (as indicated in the Figure below). Further, they see, through this framework, that ‘co-ordination and coherence as **fundamental** to achieving good governance through food security policy implementation.

Figure 3.2: PANTHER Principles

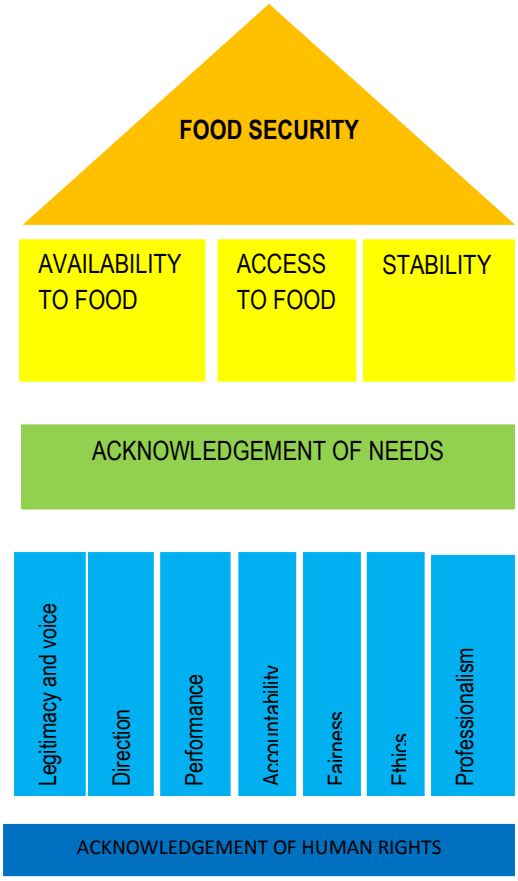


Source: FAO (2011a)

These goals, together with the good governance agenda present a starting framework for public sector performance. The rationale here is that, with food security as the goal, adherence to the PANTHER principles of good governance, and in allowing effective co-ordination and coherence in the implementation and enforcement of the policy, generation of information and monitoring regarding policy implementation, and, adherence to the relevant policy and legal frameworks, food security can be achieved.

The FAO then suggest that these then can be used to view the relationship with food security where the right to food is seen as the starting point for food security intervention and the three elements of food security (discussed earlier) become the goals for intervention, as indicated in the Figure below.

Figure 3.3: Relationship between Good Governance and Food Security



Source: adapted from FAO (2011a: 5)

The logic of this model is that, the starting point, at the bottom, is the Acknowledgement of Human Rights. As a result, without acknowledgement of this right, the model suggests that good food security governance cannot be achieved.

The second level requires an adherence to the elements of good governance, *viz:*

- legitimacy and voice – this requires that individuals, households and communities need to be allowed to engage in a dialogue with government over needs and responsibilities;
- Direction – requires that the relevant policies and structures be in place in order to guide the actions of public servants;

- Performance – requires that the actions of public servants and communities in the process of programme or policy implementation be geared towards the achievement of food security;
- Accountability – requires that official mechanisms for accounting for actions or inactions be in place and applied;
- Fairness – requires that the principles of equitable access by all to the benefits of policies and programmes be applied whist adhering to the rule of law;
- Ethics – requires that public servants in the process of policy or programme implementation adhere to ethical values and principles in the carrying out of their roles and responsibilities; and
- Professionalism – requires that public servants in the implementation of policy or programmes balance their accountability and autonomy by providing services whilst imbuing the moral and ethical obligations of public administrators.

Thus, in striving towards the elements of good governance, this model suggests that the needs of the food insecure can be acknowledged, which, in turn provides opportunities for food security policy intervention. Once the policy has been set up, intervention aimed at dealing with the three dimensions of food security will lead to food security on the national, household and individual levels.

A criticism of this model is that there is the assumption that these will logically flow from one level to the next. Accommodation ought to be allowed for assessment and re-assessment of these conditions for success at each level. In other words, flexibility in achieving the ultimate status of food security, on all three levels, should be explicit in the model, not assumed. This will allow for the re assessment of needs and conditions for good governance, and will further establish the foundation for the creation of new needs as some are achieved, and in so doing, a learning cycle can be facilitated.

The key challenge thus for food security policy is whether, and to what extent, growth will translate into socio-economic development and poverty reduction. Any government policy would need to focus on creating opportunities for the poor that would enable them to improve their livelihoods; this means that government policy needs to promote development and needs to ensure that policy implementation leads to access to food, thereby improving their productive potential. As a result this is a key challenge for the implementers of policy, especially Extension Workers as the primary policy implementers of policy in the KZN DAEA.

3.7 THE ROLE OF EXTENSION IN POVERTY REDUCTION AND FOOD SECURITY

According to Jones & Garforth (2015:4), the first example of extension was found in Mesopotamia around 1800 B.C. This discovery, they argue was made possible by Archaeologists who found clay tablets of the time on which were inscribed with advice on crops, irrigation and the control of rats. In the 1800's, extension education became part of university programs in the United Kingdom, and developed into a well-established movement before the end of the 18th century wherein the improvement of academia was the focus. It is in the 20th century that extension has become synonymous with agriculture related activities (Jones & Garforth 2015:5).

The idea of extension has since its earliest conceptions been associated with the "extending" of information and knowledge. The term "extension" has been defined differently by many authors including Roling & Wagemakers (1998), Bembridge (1991) and Swanson & Claar (1984). Despite the various interpretations, there are three main characteristics that are common, namely; extension is related to agricultural performance, rural development and to the education of the community.

Tereblanche (2005: 171-177) emphasizes that the farmer is the concern of the Extension Worker and identifies eight fundamental principles critical for Extension Workers if they are to improve agriculture, namely:

- **Respect for human dignity** - requires that Extension Workers have self respect and respect for those they encounter;
- **Individuality** – recognizes the diversity of people, circumstances and needs;
- **Self-determination** – requires that Extension Workers recognize the potential of people to improve their own situation, and encourage this by motivating them;
- **Self-help** – requires that communities take responsibility to do something for themselves, as opposed to being mere recipients of development efforts;
- **Community needs** – should be the focus of efforts in order to encourage sustainability and ownership of projects;
- **Indigenous plans** – that start with the knowledge that communities posses and build on that knowledge;
- **Partnership** – with the community to build on their needs; and
- **Change** – to help people help themselves.

These, Tereblanche (2005:178) argues, contribute to developing the level of credibility and professionalism of Extension Workers.

It is important to note that there are many different approaches to extension. An exploration of these is however beyond the scope of this study. What must be noted is that extension allows for the transfer of findings of agricultural research to users (Worth 2002: 474). This argument is reiterated by Zwane (2012: 19) who argues that Extension Workers can make a significant contribution to rural development if they are guided by policy. Zwane (2012: 19-20) identified food security as one of five critical areas in which Extension Workers can play an active role. Here, Zwane (2012: 19) argues, Extension Workers have adequate training which includes technical knowledge and communication skills that enable them to

effectively communicate knowledge and skills to improve agricultural activities and thus have the potential to contribute to poverty reduction and food security.

Extension is, as a result, a broad term referring to all activities that provide information and advisory services for farmers in the agri-food system and rural development. Extension by its very nature implies that more effective methods are being employed in the development process. Extension Workers are described as having a "comparative advantage" over other professions involved with rural development due to the skills base and technical knowledge related to agriculture that they have been equipped with (Zwane 2012: 22). The extent to which success is obtained in this regard is dependent on the policy framework in which they operate, the levels of accountability and transparency that they display and the extent to which they perform their roles and responsibilities. In other words, the elements of good governance have a critical impact on the level of success achieved.

In order to understand good food security governance in South Africa, the discussion now examines the extent of poverty and food security with an emphasis on the situation in KwaZulu Natal.

3.8 POVERTY AND FOOD INSECURITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

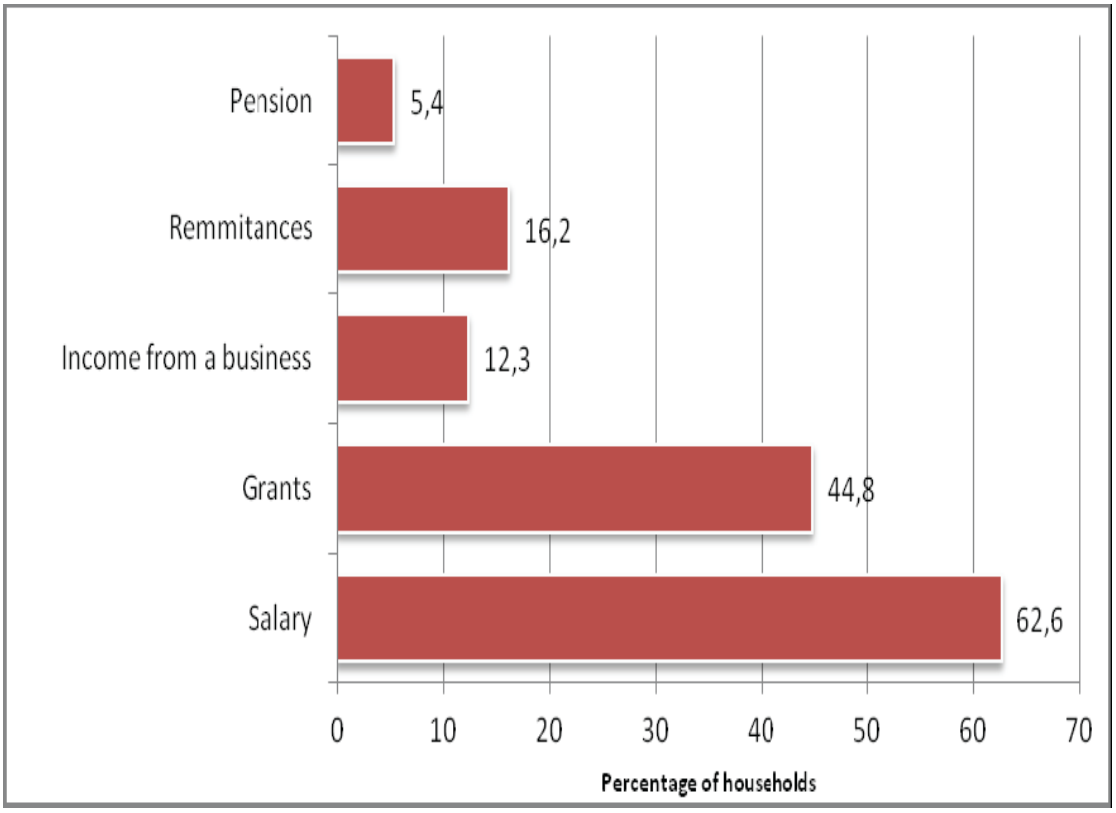
Poverty within South Africa is widespread and has distinct trends based upon race and the rural - urban divide. The imbalances of the past have created a situation where food insecurity is highest among the African population and rural households. As a result, the majority of the poor and hungry live in rural areas and depend, directly or indirectly, on agriculture for their livelihoods.

The most recent Census 2011 revealed that KZN holds approximately 21 per cent of South Africa's population at an estimated 9 584 129 million people. The

unemployment rate in KZN stands at 33 per cent with youth unemployment at 49 per cent. The Census further reveals that 8 in 10 people in KZN are Black African with poverty being most severe amongst this racial category wherein women, children and the rural poor are the main victims of the effects of poverty and food insecurity (RSA, DAEA 2013: 2). Provinces with high stunting rates (a sign of inadequate access to food) are also provinces with large rural populations. The prevalence of food insecurity is highest in the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Limpopo (Drimie & Ruysenaar 2010: 317).

Within the rural areas, households rely heavily on income from remittances and social grants. The extent to which these households are able to maintain purchasing power thus lies in their ability to access remittances and social grants (Schroeder & Nicola 2006: 183). Statistics reveal that an estimated 50.2% of households depend on a social grants or pensions as a source of income (see Figure 3.4 below). The *General Household Survey: Food Security and Agriculture* (Statistics SA 2012: 12) thus shows that that there is an increasing dependency on social grants as a safety net (see Figure 3.4 below).

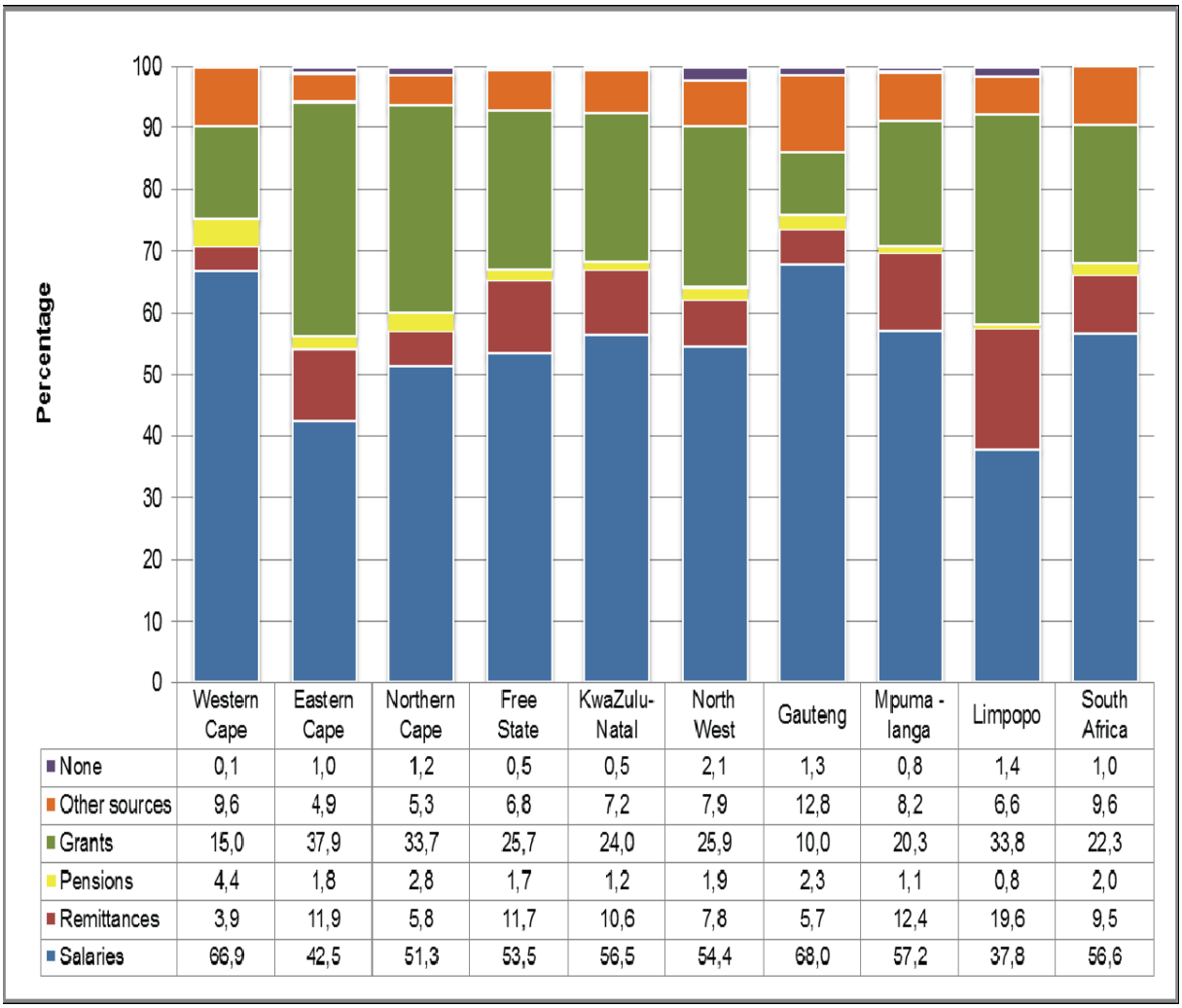
Figure 3.4: Percentage Distribution of Sources of Household Income for South Africa, 2011



Source: Statistics SA (2012: 11)

There are variations in the experiences at the provincial level. Within KZN, 35.8% of households depend on a social grant, pension or remittances as their main source of income as indicated in Figure 3.5 that follows.

Figure 3.5: Household Distribution of Main Sources of Income by Province, 2011



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpuma - langa	Limpopo	South Africa
None	0,1	1,0	1,2	0,5	0,5	2,1	1,3	0,8	1,4	1,0
Other sources	9,6	4,9	5,3	6,8	7,2	7,9	12,8	8,2	6,6	9,6
Grants	15,0	37,9	33,7	25,7	24,0	25,9	10,0	20,3	33,8	22,3
Pensions	4,4	1,8	2,8	1,7	1,2	1,9	2,3	1,1	0,8	2,0
Remittances	3,9	11,9	5,8	11,7	10,6	7,8	5,7	12,4	19,6	9,5
Salaries	66,9	42,5	51,3	53,5	56,5	54,4	68,0	57,2	37,8	56,6

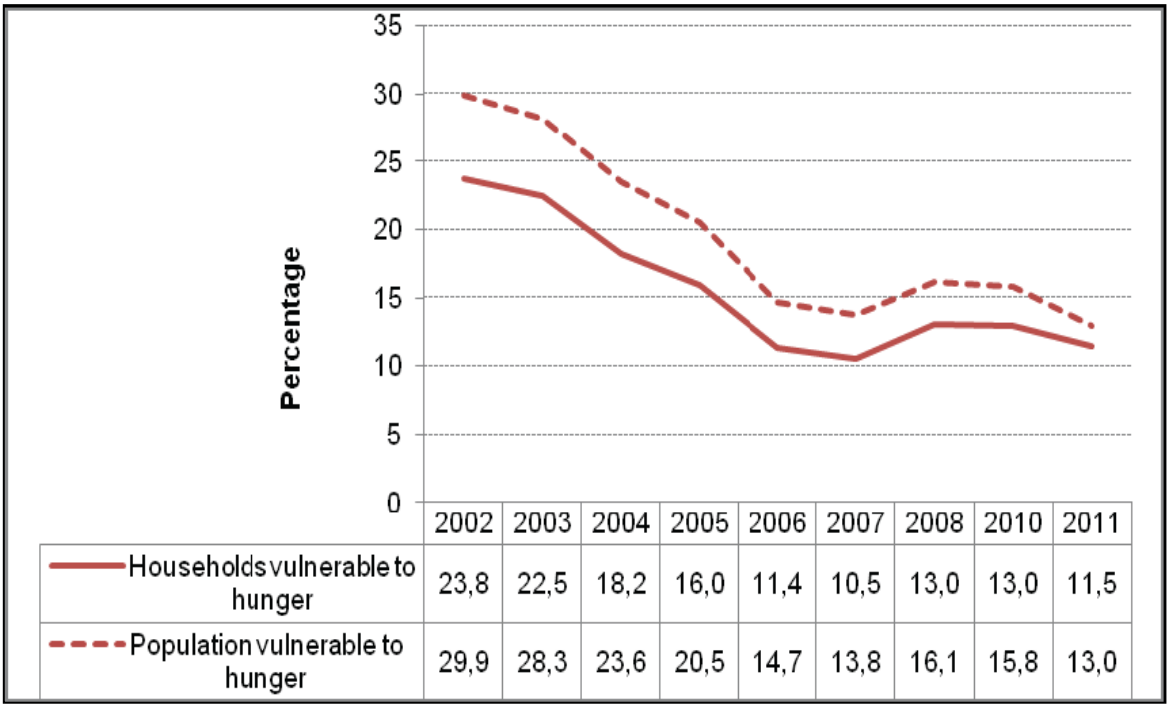
Source: Statistics SA (2012: 12)

Further analyses of these statistics reveal that the percentage of individuals that benefited from social grants has increased from 12.7% in 2002 to 29.6% in 2012. The survey also indicates that the percentage of households that received at least one grant increased from 29.9% to 43.6%, and that in KwaZulu-Natal 36.1% of the population were most likely to be grant beneficiaries (RSA, Statistics SA 2013: 11). These are alarming statistics as they indicate that there is an increasing dependence on the state as a provider. Where families are unable to grow or purchase enough food, and are unable to access social welfare, hunger is a reality. According to Labadarios *et al.* (2008: 259) who focused on micro-nutrient

deficiencies, only one in five households in South Africa is food secure in regards to adequate nutritional standard. Estimates reflect that 22% of all children under the age of nine years are stunted due to chronic malnutrition (MDG Country Report 2010). This has negative consequences for the development of the child and their future ability to contribute to the household.

South Africa thus continues to grapple with extreme differences in income and wealth as part of the inherited divisions (May 1998). The General Household Survey: Food Security and Agriculture (Statistics SA 2012: 12) indicates that household vulnerability to hunger (see Figure 3.6 below) has declined until 2007 before increasing with provincial patterns indicating more uneven results. These statistics reinforce the need to reconsider the arrangements for food security.

Figure 3.6: Estimated Percentage of Households and Persons Vulnerable to Hunger in South Africa

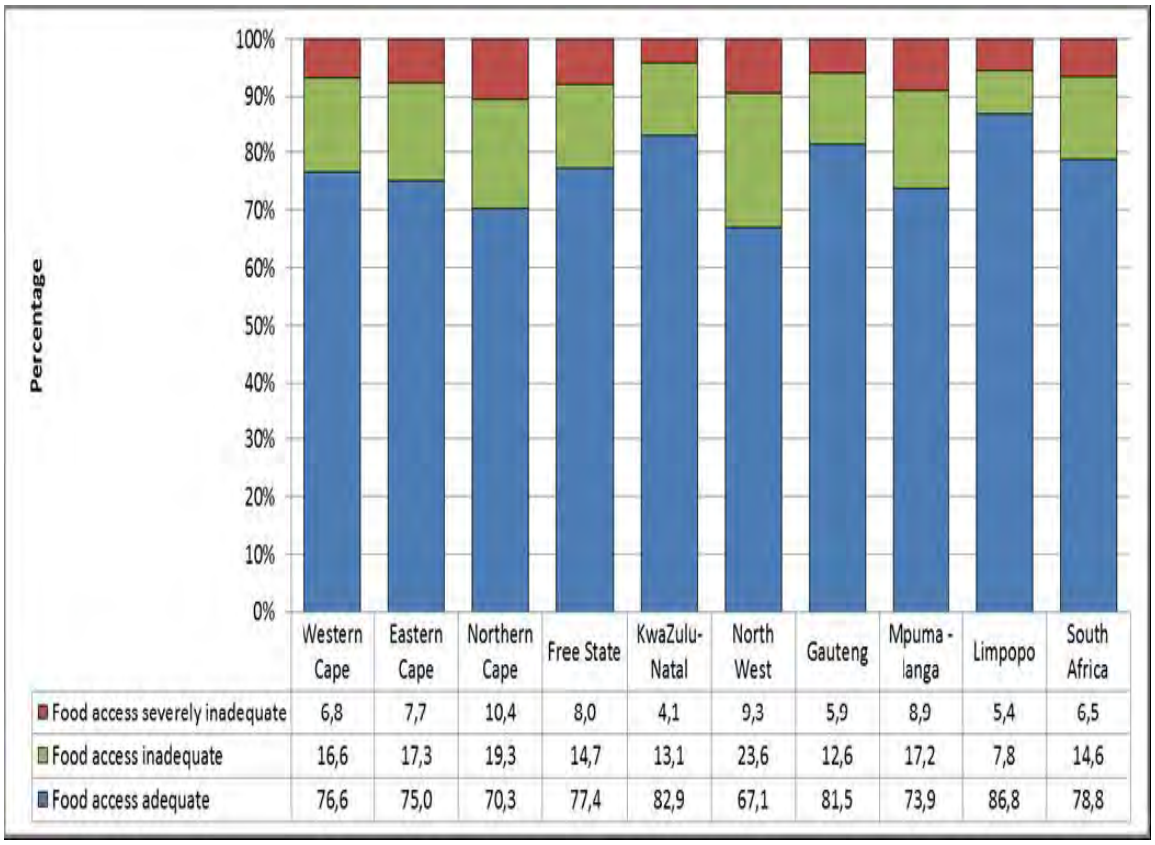


	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2010	2011
Households vulnerable to hunger	23,8	22,5	18,2	16,0	11,4	10,5	13,0	13,0	11,5
Population vulnerable to hunger	29,9	28,3	23,6	20,5	14,7	13,8	16,1	15,8	13,0

Source: Statistics SA (2012: 14)

Figure 3.7 below indicates that in KwaZulu Natal, 82.9% of individuals experience adequate access to food, 13.1% experience inadequate access and 4.1% experience severely inadequate access to food. For KwaZulu Natal, the challenge is to find ways to capacitate individuals and households to improve access to an adequate supply of food.

Figure 3.7: Households and Persons Vulnerable to Hunger by Province

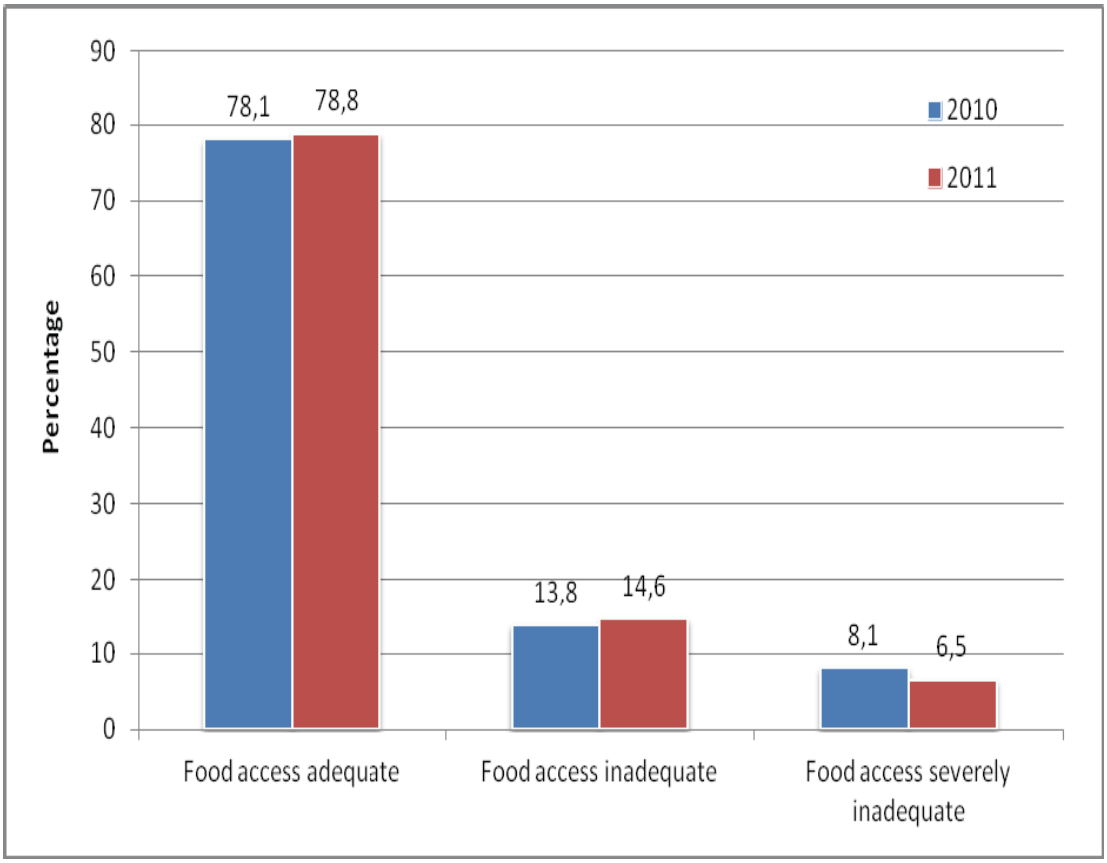


	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu-Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpuma-langa	Limpopo	South Africa
Food access severely inadequate	6,8	7,7	10,4	8,0	4,1	9,3	5,9	8,9	5,4	6,5
Food access inadequate	16,6	17,3	19,3	14,7	13,1	23,6	12,6	17,2	7,8	14,6
Food access adequate	76,6	75,0	70,3	77,4	82,9	67,1	81,5	73,9	86,8	78,8

Source: Statistics SA (2012: 17)

Figure 3.8 that follows shows that the percentage of households with **severely inadequate** access to food declined from 8.1% in 2010, and that the percentage of households that experienced **inadequate** access increased slightly from 13.8% to 14.6%. The statistics also notes an increased percentage of households that experienced **adequate** food access increased from 78.1% in 2010 to 78.8% in 2011.

Figure 3.8: **Comparison of Food Adequacy Status of Households for 2010 and 2011**



Source: Statistics SA (2012: 18)

Evidence thus suggests that whilst the experience of hunger has decreased, under-nutrition and access to food security initiatives on the ground are still major issues (Aliber 2009: 396). At over 25 percent, the unemployment rate remains very high, limiting access by the poor to economic opportunities and basic services (MDG Country Report 2010:37). The rate of poverty and experiences of vulnerability thus reinforces the need to consider food security as key to any development strategy as it is a threat to more than a third of the South African population (Drimie & Ziervogel 2006, Drimie & Ruysenaar 2010: 317, see also Hendriks 2005).

National food self-sufficiency in South Africa cannot be used as a reflection of household food security or as an index of national welfare because while South Africa produces sufficient food, this in no way ensures food security at the individual and household levels. Recent focus on food security, as a result of rising food prices at a national and global level, has placed the food security agenda back in the spotlight (Drimie & Ruysenaar 2010: 316). Further to this, achieving the goals of the MDGs, form part of public administration reform towards addressing the inequalities within communities.

3.9 ACHIEVING MDG 1 IN SOUTH AFRICA

In examining the MDG Country Report, it reveals that the number of people living on less than $1 per day has decreased (see table below). The Table also indicates that the reduction in the poverty rate gap has been achieved. Supporting these statistics the recent General Household Survey indicates that households with inadequate or severely inadequate access to food decreased from 23.9% in 2010 to 21.5% in 2011. Further, the survey notes that the percentage of individuals at risk decreased from 28.6% to 26.1%. Between 2002 and 2012, the percentage of households that experienced hunger decreased 29.3% to 12.6% while the percentage of individuals who experienced hunger decreased from 23.8% to 10.8% (Statistics SA 2013: 41).

Table 3.1: Achieving MDG 1 in South Africa

Goal 1	1994 baseline or closest year	Current status or nearest year	2015 target	Target achievability
Proportion of population below $1 (PPP) per day	11.3 (2000)	5.0 (2006)	5.7	ACHIEVED
Proportion of population below $1.25 (PPP) per day	17.0 (2000)	9.7 (2006)	8.5	LIKELY
Proportion of population below $2 (PPP) per day	33.5 (2000)	25.3 (2006)	16.8	POSSIBLE
Proportion of population below $2.50 (PPP) per day	42.2 (2000)	34.8 (2006)	21.2	UNLIKELY
Poverty gap ratio ($1 (PPP) per day)	3.2 (2000)	1.1 (2006)	1.6	ACHIEVED
Poverty gap ratio ($1.25 (PPP) per day)	5.4 (2000)	2.3 (2006)	2.7	ACHIEVED
Poverty gap ratio ($2 (PPP) per day)	13.0 (2006)	8.1 (2006)	6.5	POSSIBLE
Poverty gap ratio ($2.50 (PPP) per day)	18.0 (2000)	12.5 (2006)	9.0	POSSIBLE
Share of the poorest quintile in national consumption	2.9 (2000)	2.8 (2006)	5.8	UNLIKELY
Percentage growth rate of GDP per person employed	4.7 (2002)	1.9 (2009)	6.0	POSSIBLE
Employment to population ratio	41.5 (2003)	42.5 (2009)	50 – 70	UNLIKELY
Proportion of employed people living below $1 (PPP) per day	5.2 (2000)	No data	~0	UNLIKELY
Proportion of own account and contributing family workers in total employment	11.0 (2001)	9.9 (2010)	~5	POSSIBLE
Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age (as percentage)	9.3 (1994)	10.2 (2005)	4.7	UNLIKELY
Incidence of severe malnutrition in children under 5 years of age (rate per 1,000)	1.4 (1994)	1.0 (2005)	0.7	POSSIBLE
Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	No data	No data	No target	UNKNOWN
Percentage children below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	46.3 (1999)	No data (2005)	23	UNKNOWN
Gini coefficient (including salaries, wages and social grants)	0.70 (2000)	0.67 (2006)	0.3	UNLIKELY
Gini coefficient (per capita excluding taxes)	0.65 (2000)	0.67 (2006)		
Proportion of households with access to free basic services: * Water	66.0 (2002)	60.6 (2008)	No target	Not applicable
• Electricity	41.0 (2002)	34.8 (2008)		
• Sewerage and Sanitation	31.2 (2002)	32.7 (2008)		
• Solid Waste	18.4 (2002)	21.8 (2008)		

Source: adapted from South Africa MDG, South Africa Country Report (2010: 24 – 25)

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 94) argue that these statistics are deceptive as "closer inspection indicates that this could be attributed to the increase in the number of people benefitting from social grants" as indicated in *The Household Distribution of Main Sources of Income by Province, 2011* mentioned earlier in this Chapter. They argue further that, social grants, whilst helpful in dealing with some level of poverty and food insecurity, cannot be an end in themselves because they do not "provide for sustainable socio-economic development" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 94).

Compounding the situation in South Africa is the reality that women and children bear the burden of food insecurity (Aliber 2009: 384; Altman, Hart & Jacobs 2009: 351; Baiphethi & Jacobs 2009: 459) and the prevalence of HIV/AIDS which must be considered in any food security programme that targets communities (Hoddinott 2011: 1). The discussion below now highlights the relationship between food security and HIV/AIDS.

3.10 HIV/AIDS AND ITS IMPACT ON FOOD SECURITY

The sub Saharan region has the highest prevalence rate of HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS 2010: 8). All dimensions of food security are affected where the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is high (Schroeder & Nichola 2006: 174). HIV complicates the task of fighting hunger and strengthening the livelihoods of the poor. The epidemic has created large new vulnerable groups and is rapidly eroding food and livelihood security (UNAIDS 2010).

With a low life expectancy of 52 years, South Africa has the largest number of people living with HIV/AIDS in the world (over 5.5 million) and continues to battle a dual epidemic of tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS, bearing 24 % of the global burden of HIV-related tuberculosis (UNDP 2010). Current health problems are rooted in the unique legacy of South African apartheid history. Households affected by HIV are

generally more sensitive to livelihood shocks (Madladla, Marsland, Van Zyl & Drimie 2003) and as a result are more vulnerable to food insecurity. Food security is a livelihood outcome, and as a result, HIV would have a major impact on individual and household security. Compounded by a situation of poverty, HIV presents an additional cluster to Chambers' *Poverty Trap* (Chambers 1983) which keeps individuals and households trapped into a situation of poverty and vulnerability. This is reiterated by Gillespie, Haddad & Jackson (2001) who consider HIV to have a slow but devastating impact on the status and well-being of individuals and households. De Waal & Whiteside (2003: 1234) see HIV/AIDS as a "new variant famine" as affected households experience a loss of income, an increased burden in care for affected members and increased dependency ratios within the household. They suggest that a reduced capacity to respond to shocks will expedite the onset of extreme poverty and make households incapable of recovering in the long term.

HIV/AIDS undermines food security through its impact on livelihoods. HIV/AIDS increases the household's vulnerability as it erodes the individuals and households ability to actively engage in labour and interact socially in their attempt to diversify their livelihood strategies. As a result, households across South Africa have responded and adapted to the conditions caused by HIV/AIDS (De Klerk *et al.* 2004, Ellis 2003, and Ellis 2000), which have resulted in decreased subsistence farming as labour to produce crops has become an issue.

According to De Klerk *et al.* (2004) vulnerability within households result in being at risk of other "shocks". These include the loss of income. The impact of HIV/AIDS may place the household below the level of "vulnerability" into a situation from which it may not be able to recover (Webb & Rogers 2003: 20). HIV/AIDS infection ultimately stretches the resources of an extended family beyond its limits as both material and non-material resources are rapidly consumed in caring for the infected (De Klerk *et al.* 2004, Ellis 2003). Women are

the primary caregivers in households and require special attention for any food security analysis.

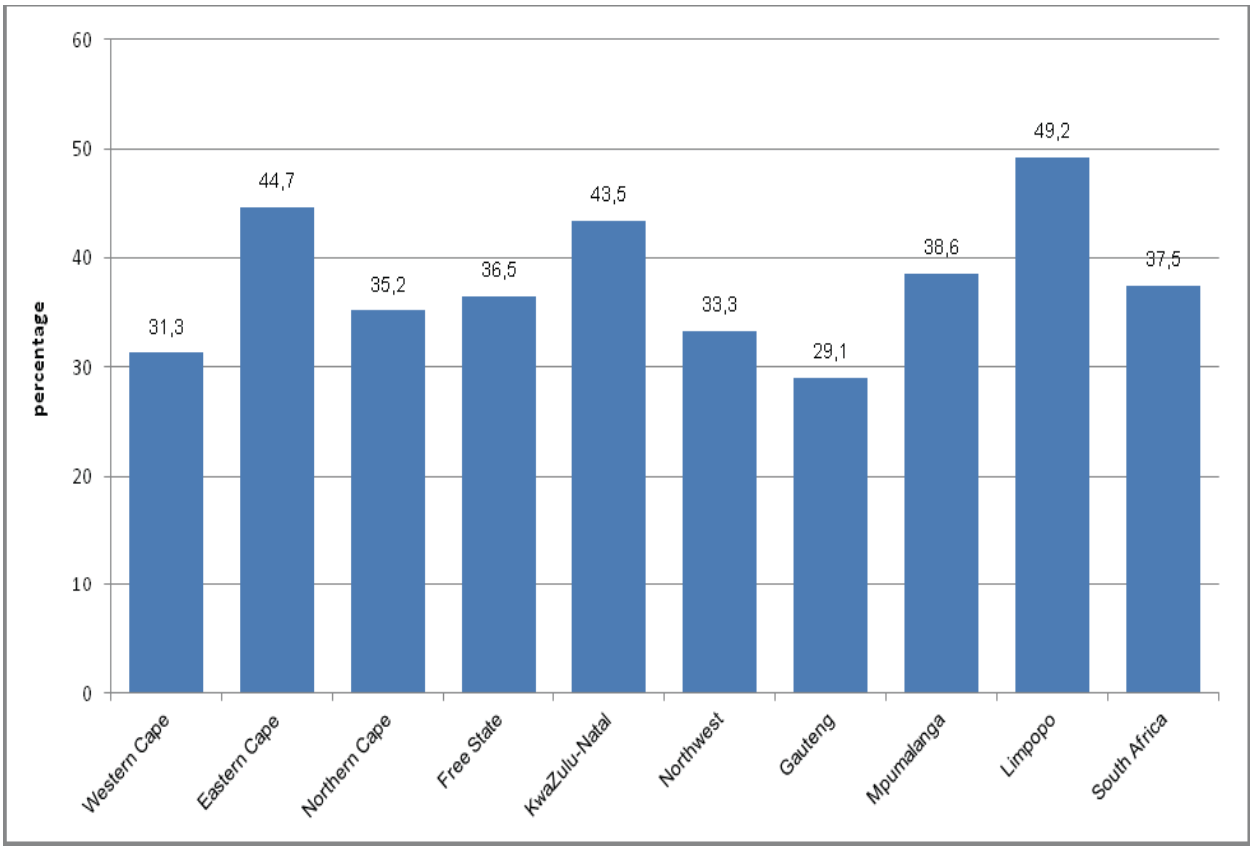
3.11 THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN FOOD SECURITY

The Food and Agriculture Organisation in its "State of Food Insecurity in the World in 2008" Report, has as one of its six key messages the status of female headed household being the hardest hit by global food prices (FAO 2011a). A growing body of evidence has shown that women's empowerment is a key contributor to food security and poverty reduction (Moser 1998: 2). One key element of empowerment is women's control over assets. These assets include;

- "human capital (education, information, health, and nutritional status);
- natural capital (property rights to land, water, and other natural resources);
- financial capital (savings, credit, and insurance);
- physical capital (buildings, tools, equipment);
- social capital (group memberships and social networks); and
- political capital (influence in governance processes)" (Moser 1998: 2).

Within South Africa, an estimated 37.5% of households are headed by women (See Figure below). *The General Household Survey: Food Security and Agriculture* (2012: 13) noted that female-headed households comprise a noticeably higher percentage of households in the provinces that have traditionally provided migrant labourers. Notably, in KwaZulu-Natal 43.5% of households are headed by women.

Figure 3.9: Percentage of Female Headed Households by Province, 2011



Source: Statistics SA (2012: 13)

Female headed households according to Aliber (2009: 385) experience high dependency rates, are characterised by unemployment and rely on social grants as the main source of income. In times of food insecurity there are indications that women's assets may be the first to be sold to maintain consumption levels; women may also disinvest in their own human capital by skipping meals more than do their husbands and children (Quisumbing & Meinzen-Dick 2009: 7). It must be noted that, Quisumbing & Meinzen-Dick (2009: 9) indicate that research into households reveal that increasing assets controlled by women increases their bargaining power within the household. This results in better education and health for their children. Asset ownership and measuring the asset gap between men and women can assist in examining how this shapes gender relations and welfare outcomes within the household. As a result, the role of women cannot be ignored in any strategy to reduce poverty and increase food security levels in South Africa.

Poverty and food security are no doubt critical issues for public administration in South Africa. The extent to which the government is able to respond to the needs of communities through the delivery or goods and services is guided by its ability to do this within a framework of good governance as discussed earlier. An examination of good food security amongst Extension Workers in KZN requires the use of a framework for analytical examination. The discussion uses a SWOT analysis to provide an overview of good food security governance in the KZN DAEA.

3.12 SWOT ANALYSIS

SWOT is an acronym for Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats. It provides a framework by which the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats related to a specific situation are identified and analysed in relation to goal achievement. The elements presented by the World Bank framework, namely public sector management, accountability, transparency, access to information and legal framework for development, will be used as a guideline for a SWOT analysis of good food security governance arrangements for Extension Workers.

3.12.1 Strength 1: The Human Right to Food

Within South Africa, the right to food is entrenched in Section 27 of the Constitution of South Africa and provides that every citizen has the right to access sufficient food and water. Further there is the provision that the state must by legislation and other measures, within its available resources, ensure that this right is realised (RSA 1996).

Chapter 2 of the Constitution outlines a Bill of Rights protecting the rights of all citizens. This Bill guarantees an individual's right to be treated with equality, and thereby guarantees an individual's equal access to the benefit of public administration projects and programmes, as discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

The role and responsibility of the KZN DAEA is to facilitate the acknowledgement of this right through the programmes and initiatives aimed at providing goods and services that reinforce this right. It is thus the duty of Extension Workers to be familiar with this right and the relationship hereof to their roles and responsibilities, as implementers of food security related initiatives.

3.12.2 Strength 2: Policy and Strategy Guidelines

The South African government as part of its efforts to reduce child mortality, the rate of malnutrition and to contribute to reducing the levels of poverty and food insecurity experienced by households, has several policies that have contributed to the achievement of MDG 1. These are discussed below:

There is a number of Nutrition and Support Programmes in South Africa aimed at improving access to food. These include:

- **Community Based Nutrition Programme**
  This was formally known as the National Nutrition and Social Development Programme. This is a national directive, the main aim for which is to provide a food safety net for households. The weakness of the programme in terms of its contribution to food security is that it focuses on relief as a food security strategy and according to Bonti–Ankomah (2001: 12) it experiences poor targeting and administrative incapacity to make a significant impact.

- **Primary School Nutrition Programme**
  This is a national directive, through the Department of Education, aimed at improving the learning capacity of primary school children through the provision of free meals to children. Bonti–Ankomah (2001: 13) states that despite the prevalence of these feeding schemes in South Africa, many households still go hungry as this programme is incapable of addressing extreme poverty.

- **The Integrated Nutrition Strategy**
  The vision for nutrition is optimum nutrition for all South Africans through the Department of Health. Nutrition status is improved through a mix of direct and indirect nutrition interventions implemented at various points of service delivery such as clinics, hospital and communities and aimed at specific target groups.

- **Social Grants** in the form of Old Age pensions, War Veterans grants, Child Support grants, Foster Child Grants, Care Dependency Grants, Disability Grants are available to South Africans.

Extension Workers need to have some knowledge of these, in order to advise communities appropriately, as these programmes seek to improve access to adequate sources of food and as such have the potential to contribute to efforts at reducing the rate of poverty.

The programmes below are specific to the operation of the KZN DAEA and form a key area of function for Extension Workers. These form part of the specific mandates for the Department.

- **The Zero Hunger Programme** seeks to link subsistence producers and smallholder producers to government institutions such as government schools (i.e. to supply the School Nutrition Programme), public hospitals and prisons, and in the medium term also be a conduit through which food produced by smallholders can be used to meet the nutritional needs of low-income individuals and households in communities at large. The programme thus seeks to provide a boost to existing smallholder producers, and an opportunity through which subsistence producers can start generating a sustainable income through farming, and thereby become smallholder producers in their own right. While Zero Hunger has not been adopted yet as a formal policy, its implementation is already being tested and refined through the collaboration of DAFF and the provincial departments of

agriculture and by means of linking it to the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP).

- The aim of the **CASP** programme is to provide post settlement support to the beneficiaries of land reform and for those who have acquired land through private means. The focus is on value adding beyond agriculture and therefore aims at developing skills in this regard.

- **Operation *Sukuma Sake* (Stand up and Build) -** The "War on Poverty" Campaign was launched in 2008 by former President Mbeki in the State of the Nation Address. For KZN, this manifested in the provincial government adopting it as part of its key priority areas, which includes rural development/agrarian reform and food security. Operation *Sukuma Sake* thus forms part of the Provincial Government mandate. The strategic aim of *Sukuma Sake* is "to integrate, co-ordinate and facilitate transversal services to communities" (KZN Provincial Government 2012: 4). The operating framework requires that information be gathered about communities, which generates information that sets the foundation for a database of the identified needs. This information must then be used in a stepped approach where the starting point is the Ward, then Local Council, District Municipality and lastly Provincial Task Teams are set up to address the identified needs (KZN Provincial Government 2012). The KZN DAEA is committed to support this initiative, and provides such support where identified.

- **The Integrated Food Security Strategy**

In 2002 the IFSS was approved by Cabinet as the strategy that would integrate the many previously isolated policies tackling the challenge of food insecurity in South Africa. According to the National Development Agency, a food security strategy was motivated by the many food security programmes by different government departments (RSA, DAFF 2002: 5). The aim was to streamline and harmonize the existing strategies. DAFF is the convenor of this policy, and as a result, the implementers of policy and strategy within the Department, are required to have a working knowledge of this.

The vision of the IFSS is to attain 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. The strategic objectives to realize this goal and the vision of the IFSS are 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 system;
- Provide capacity building; and
- Hold stakeholder dialogue" (NDA 2002: 6).

The expected outcome of the IFSS is the following:

- "Greater ownership of productive assets and participation in the economy by the food insecure;
- Increased competitiveness and profitability of farming operations and rural enterprises that are owned and managed by or on behalf of the food insecure;
- Increased levels of nutrition and food safety among the food insecure;
- Greater participation of the food insecure in the social security system and better prevention and mitigation of food emergencies;
- Greater availability of reliable, accurate and timely analysis, information and communication on the conditions of the food insecure and the impact of food security improvement interventions;
- Enhanced levels of public private civil society common understanding and participation in agreed food security improvement interventions; and
- Improved levels of governance, integration, coordination, financial and administration management of food security improvement

interventions in all spheres of government; between government and the private sector and civil society" (NDA 2002: 10).

Whilst these outcomes provide the basis for food security project intervention, the objectives stated are too broad and would be difficult to assess any real achievement of these goals. The policy suggests several areas for policy consideration, which include interventions in food security which:

- are aimed at improving access to productive resources;
- through segmentation of communities, will target those who require initiatives aimed at income generation and job opportunities to enhance their power to purchase food;
- ensure that the target food insecure population is empowered to have nutritious and safe food;
- ensure that the state provides relief measures that may be short-term to being medium-term and sustained basis, depending on the nature of given interventions; and
- which will proceed from an analysis that is grounded on accurate information and the impact of which - in eradicating hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity – is constantly monitored and evaluated" (NDA 2002: 28-29).

The main criticism here is that there is the assumption that the identification of needs will occur by some other unnamed authority. This is problematic for policy implementation as clear guidelines are needed to gain real effect on the levels of poverty and food insecurity in households and communities.

The overarching principles of this approach are that:

- "Food security objectives are an effort of all concerned departments;
- The objectives need to be comprehended by the totality of government, the private sector and civil society;
- The food-insecure should be made agents of their own development;

- The necessary interventions should be targeted to achieve clear, simple and realistic goals and performance targets – with costs justified by delivering greater social benefits;
- National food security policies, supporting legislation, norms and standards must support national priority programmes and action plans;
- Implementation of strategy to be harmonized with the three spheres of government system;
- The food security strategy should contribute to regional food security efforts; and
- The strategy maintains a household level focus, but not oblivious to the national and regional focus" (NDA 2002: 14-15).

These objectives reiterate the failure of the strategy to compel specific individuals with specific actions that must be carried out. For food security to be achieved amongst households in KZN, a more directed effort is required by Extension Workers who need to be guided by clear policy frameworks.

At the national level of the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, has four operational divisions, namely;

- Food Security and Agrarian Reform;
- Agriculture, Production, Health and Food Safety;
- Forestry and Resource Management; and,
- Marine Fisheries and Coastal Management.

Food Security has its own Chief Directorate for which Extension is considered the mechanism for delivery of programmes and projects. Food Security as a sub programme provides frameworks to promote "the Sustainable Household Food Security programme through improving the

production systems of subsistence and smallholder producers in the agriculture, forestry or fisheries sector to achieve food security livelihoods and facilitate the provision of inputs, implements and infrastructure support" (Worth 2012: 54). As a result, each of the provincial departments is responsible for implementation of the mandates held within the strategy. Within KZN the DAEA is responsible for the implementation thereof through intervention by Extension Workers.

It can be deduced that the IFSS provides a broad mandate for food security intervention through agriculture. The problem however, is that these are too broad as no specific targets are identified with a strategy. As a strategy, the will to succeed in this regard may be secondary to agriculture related issues within the Department. Further, with no clear policy, the identification of food insecure households, the targeting of those areas requiring additional inputs, and the identification of mechanisms to improve the food security status of households, the strategy will remain a secondary issue to the targets around agriculture. As a result, the overall success of food security interventions may be at risk of becoming checklists ticked as part of compliance.

3.12.3 Strength 3: Public Sector Management- The KZN DAEA

The KZN DAEA has a clear vision, mission and aims statement to guide activities. The vision of the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Services is to provide "optimum agricultural land use, sustainable food security, sound environmental management and comprehensive, integrated rural development." (KZN, DAEA 2013: 1).

The vision and mission exist within the framework of several values:

- ***"Batho Pele* Principles and service orientation** - Departmental officials will conduct themselves in a manner befitting a government that is caring, dedicated and pro-poor, influenced by the spirit of *ubuntu*;

- **Self sufficiency and independence** - the Department commits itself to the promotion of self-sufficiency in all its interventions and focuses on the empowerment of people to be more independent and entrepreneurial;

- **Cooperative governance and working together** - the Department will continuously engage in joint planning and coordination with stakeholders and government entities in order to ensure holistic, integrated and coherent government programmes;

- **Professionalism** – the Department's employees must perform their duties in a professional, ethical (open and honest) and value adding manner;

- **High Staff Morale** – The Department is committed to facilitate a constructive and supportive work environment; and,

- **Development and recognition** – The Department's employees are recognized as its most valuable asset and therefore it aspires to ensure the ongoing development and recognition of an effective, professional team" (KZN, DAEA 2013: 1).

The department has strong values that align with national values of good governance, accountability, transparency, adherence to the rule of law, ethical conduct and professionalism. These are critical elements for the success of any food security intervention as identified earlier in this Chapter.

3.12.4 Strength 4: Public Sector Management through Transformation in Extension

The Agricultural system prior to 1994 operated within a dualistic model. Agricultural policy had two main categories. Firstly, large white commercial farmers on the one hand, and secondly, subsistence farmers based largely within the former homelands (Worth 2012: 14). As a result, there were two systems of extension (Koch & Tereblanche 2013: 109). The post 1994 period has seen attempts to depolarize extension services. This attempt to solve the problems created under apartheid, have been spearheaded by the Extension Recovery Plan during the period 2008 up to 2011. The strategic objectives of the ERP were to:

- Ensure visibility and accountability of extension;
- Promote professionalism and improve the image of extension;
- Recruit extension personnel;
- Re-skill and re-orientate extension workers; and
- Provide ICT infrastructure and other resources (RSA, DAFF 2011: 3).

The overarching aim was thus to profile all those involved in extension in order to identify appropriate training, development and to identify areas for resource intervention. Despite these efforts, studies have indicated that extension has not had a significant enough impact. This has been attributed to the large numbers of people requiring assistance versus the number of adequately trained staff (Worth 2012; Duvel 2002; Machete & Mollel 1999: 340). Further, Duvel (2004: 10) argues that extension programmes are not flexible enough and do not “provide enough variation to the optimum solution” in the country.

The KZN DAEA has attempted to remedy this by increasing the number of Extension Workers and has engaged in a process of improving the skills base in Extension amongst its Extension Staff. In 2007, there were an estimated 360 Extension Workers employed in the KZN DAEA (Worth 2012: 50). This number has almost doubled at 607 Extension Workers as listed in the Extension Directory

for 2013. The following categories of staff are included in these numbers, Agricultural Community Workers, Agricultural Development Workers, Agricultural Advisors, Subject Matter Specialists, Extension Co-ordinators (Worth 2012: 49) and Veterinary Services (Extension Directory 2013). This shows commitment by the Department to the mandates at hand by employing public servants to implement mandates of the Department and hence constitutes a strength for the potential provided in public sector management.

3.12.5 Strength 5: Public Sector Management- Guidelines for Extension Workers

Several Constitutional provisions are important for consideration in terms of guidelines for Extension Workers in regards to public sector management. These include Section 195 of the Constitution and the *Batho Pele* Principles as described in Chapter 2, of this thesis, which provide constitutional guidelines for the functioning of public servants in South Africa. With these, the *Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture* outlines a range of norms and standards specific to the implementation of strategy and policy for those who form part of the Extension and Advisory Services. These norms and standards form part of the attempts by government to bridge the gaps created by dual agricultural extension system that operated pre 1994 period. The objectives of the norms and standards for extension and advisory services are the following:

- "To improve the efficiency, relevance and cost-effectiveness of publicly funded agricultural extension and advisory services;
- To promote a participatory approach to agricultural extension and advisory services; and
- To promote and implement the value chain approach to ensure a holistic support service" (RSA 2005: 10).

These are directed at efficiency and effectiveness that Extension Workers display through the carrying out of their roles and responsibilities.

As a means of achieving the objectives, the following functions were recommended in the norms and standards:

- "To facilitate access to extension and advisory services, resulting in sustainable income generation by clients;
- To provide and facilitate access to agricultural information for improved planning and decision making;
- To facilitate access to technology and, where possible, provide such technologies;
- To provide and facilitate access to advice on sustainable agricultural production;
- To provide and facilitate advice on skills development in agriculture; and
- To strengthen partnerships for the effective delivery of services" (RSA 2005: 10).

The guidelines enshrined within the Norms and Standards for Extension Workers thus provide a basis for ethical conduct and adherence to professional values in the functioning of the Extension Worker. The Extension Support and Advisory Services are further tasked with facilitating the implementation of government priority programmes guided by the following principles:

- ***"Demand-driven:*** Extension must respond to targeted potential entrepreneurs/farmers' needs while maintaining professional standards.
- ***Relevant:*** Advice and technologies must be applicable within the opportunity realm of resources and market environment of the clients.
- ***Pluralistic, flexible and coordinated extension:*** As many service providers as possible should be encouraged to become involved and contribute towards agricultural development. With many service providers, there is a need for proper coordination to prevent negative impact on the welfare of clients and duplication or working at cross-purposes. The extension and advisory services must be sufficiently flexible to respond to

the miscellaneous and ever-changing needs occasioned by changing socio-economic environment.

- ***Equity:*** Agricultural extension and advisory services must go to those who really need them, especially the subsistence small-scale farmers, women and the disabled to promote equity, though not necessarily excluding commercial farmers.
- ***Sound governance:*** All agricultural extension and advisory services projects/ programmes and structures must have competent personnel with clear planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and financial accountability procedures.
- ***Effective monitoring and evaluation***: The projects/activities must be results-oriented and problem solving with monitoring and evaluation built in, and must consider social, economic and environmental impacts.
- ***Human and social capital development:*** The Extension and Advisory services must build the capacity of farmers and stakeholders. Emphasis must be on developing targeted and comprehensive capacity towards problem solving, ownership and sustainability of the clients.
- ***Participatory:*** Clients/beneficiaries must be involved in the planning, implementation and evaluation of their projects in a manner that promotes ownership and empowerment.
- ***Sustainability:*** All extension and advisory services must provide advice and information that meets the criteria of sustainability, viz. (a) productivity, (b) risks reduction, (c) protection of the environment, (d) economic viability, (e) social acceptability, (f) technical feasibility, and (g) commercial feasibility.
- ***Cooperative governance:*** Extension and advisory services are concurrent functions to be regulated and controlled under the framework of cooperative governance. Operational authority and responsibility are allocated to national, provincial as well as local levels of governance consistent with organizational competences and efficient use of resources.
- ***Priority focused:*** The extension service should be guided by government strategic priorities.

- A***ccountability:*** There should be a system of communication with, and evaluation by clients on agreed deliverables by extension and advisory service and other service providers. The provision of extension and advisory services must be customer focused.
- ***High quality advisory service:*** The extension and advisory service must provide high quality service by incorporating innovations and entrepreneurship into its programmes.
- ***Batho-Pele:*** There must be compliance with the eight *Batho Pele* principles in dealing with clients and execution of development efforts" (RSA, DAFF 2005: 11-12).

These principles seek to combine the guidelines of *Batho Pele* and good governance. Whilst it can be concluded that there are adequate legislative frameworks to guide public sector management amongst Extension Workers towards effective good governance in place, the absence of a policy on recommended extension approaches for South Africa, and the absence of a professional body to enhance the practice of extension are limiting factors that cannot be ignored. In the absence of these, Extension Workers are largely guided by the public sector arrangements identified above, and thus need a comprehensive, working knowledge thereof together with knowledge of the constitutional and legislative guidelines.

3.12.6 Strength 6: Accountability and Transparency – M&E Systems

As discussed earlier, accountability in the public service requires that administrators are held responsible for their actions and are required to report to a recognised authority. Accountability thus forms an integral part of the level of legitimacy that a government possesses and displays. Critical issues for government accountability are: Who does the planning? How it is implemented? Who implements it? Who organises the process of accounting? (Zwane & Duvel 2008: 116).

Accountability within a good food security governance framework requires Extension Workers to "follow the formal chain of command in decision making to ensure that ethical standards have been maintained and engage in participatory methods in the identification of needs" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 4). Establishing and maintaining accountability amongst Extension Workers begins with a legislative framework to guide elements of loyalty, neutrality, diligence, punctuality, effectiveness and impartiality as discussed earlier in this Chapter. The South African government has a plethora of guiding acts and policies. These include:

- The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (*1996) provides guidelines within which government has to determine its policies and how the administration of the public sector has to be conducted. Chapter 10 of the Constitution (1996) requires public administration to be governed by democratic values and principles.
- The *White Paper on Transforming Public Service* Delivery, 1997 outlined the eight *Batho Pele* principles which provide a set of values and principles which place people first in the public service delivery process, as discussed in Chapter 2 of this thesis.
- The *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service*, 1995 promotes a professional ethos and greater accountability.
- The *Public Service Act*, 1994 and the Public Service Regulations of 2001 promote high ethical behaviour amongst public servants.
- The *Public Protector Act*, 1994 provides guidelines for the dismissal of a member who engages in misconduct, maladministration, corruption and unlawful enrichment in the course of their duties.
- The *Promotion of Administrative Justice Act* aims to ensure that public administration within the country is effective and accountable to its citizens. This act works together with the Bill of Rights, the *Batho Pele* Principles, and section 33 of the Constitution (which seeks to guarantee that administrative actions will be reasonable) aims to ensure effective delivery of services.

- The *Prevention and Combating of Corruption Activities Act*, 2004 is aimed at preventing corrupt activities. The act further provides guidelines for the reporting of such activities.
- The *Code of Conduct for Public Servants*, 1998 provides guidelines for ethical conduct by public servants. This act forms the basis for public servant professionalism by way of providing ethical values and guidelines for accountability and transparency.
- The *Department of Public Service and Administration and in the Public Service Commission* outlines several indicators based upon constitutional principles which include the elements of ethics, efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability.

In examining these, it is clear that the public service in South Africa has a strong set of legislative guidelines for accountability. These work together with the *Framework for Managing Programme Performance Information* issued by National Treasury in terms of the mandates set out in Section 215 and 216 of the Constitution. Further, the Framework for Strategic Plans and Annual Performance Plans outlines the key concepts that must guide government institutions in developing their Strategic Plans and Annual Performance Plans.

This Framework is applicable to all national and provincial departments, constitutional institutions and public entities. The regulations require institutions to:

- "Prepare and table a Strategic Plan that outlines the planned sequence of projects and programme implementation, whilst identifying the resource implications and other important information for a five year period.
- Produce and table an Annual Performance Plan including forward projections for a further two years, consistent with the medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF) period, with annual and quarterly performance targets, where appropriate, for the current financial year and the MTEF.

- Identify a core set of indicators needed to monitor institutional performance.
- Adopt a quarterly reporting system, including submission of agreed information to executive authorities, the Presidency or Premier's Offices, the relevant treasury and Parliamentary Portfolio Committees. Public entities are encouraged to submit the reports to their executive authorities and responsible departments.
- Ensure that there is alignment of reporting between the Strategic Plans, Annual Performance Plans, budget documents and annual and quarterly reports" (RSA, National Treasury 2010).

As a result of these regulations, departments at the provincial level, like the KZN DAEA, are required to prepare plans and activities that must be guided by the legislative mandates for which the department is directly responsible in terms of implementing, managing and/ or overseeing.

Accountability in the public sector thus revolves largely around the Annual Performance Plan. These are drawn up annually, and set out directives for the department in terms of actions, outputs and indicates a commitment of resources. Annual performance Plans are aimed at ensuring fiscal responsibility by public officials. It forms part of the *Government Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System* with an emphasis on monitoring outcomes. For Extension Workers, the Annual Performance Plan outlines timeframes for submission of reports, outlines relationships between the institutions' plans, development policy, outlines budgets; and provides details and definitions of key concepts and information that needs to be reported on. As a result, there is a clear emphasis on the need to generate information on performance, through the identification of performance indicators and targets which are linked to the budget process. In linking these, performance plans provide a mechanism for monitoring and evaluation and for ensuring accountability and performance in the identified targeted areas.

Key outcomes outlined in the KZN DAEA Strategic Plan for the next five years, that are significant for this study, include:

- Gazette Green Paper on Food Security : National Food Security Policy

  The Department intends to adopt a Food Security Policy for South Africa in the near future. Provincial Departments have begun preparing draft documents for consideration.

  The emphasis of this policy will be to reduce the number of food insecure households, thereby contributing towards overall poverty alleviation in South Africa. This proposed policy calls for increased and better targeted public spending in social programmes, education and health services, and public works programmes, as well as a re-prioritisation of government procurement on food to provide markets for community food production initiatives.

- As part of the drive towards a food security policy, a Zero Hunger Programme has been initiated and the process for adoption will be finalized during the year.

The KZN DAEAs Annual Performance Plan outlines an array of strategic objectives and outcomes. For the objectives of this research, Strategic Outcome 6 - Efficient and effective governance must be noted. The aim here is to "improve departmental service excellence through implementation of quality standards, *Batho Pele* principles and general legislative mandates....to improve financial management and accountability, towards audit reports and improved financial systems and practices." Each of the outcomes in the Annual Performance Plan has a delivery agreement between the responsible political principals and accounting authorities in all spheres of government provide detailed output, targets, indicators and key activities to achieve each outcome. With these strategic outcomes is a commitment to Operation *Sukuma Sake*, the Provincial government initiative, as discussed earlier.

There are thus clear measures and mechanisms for accountability. Policies are in place, and clear guidelines are provided through performance agreements.

3.12.7 Strength 7: Transparency and Access to information - Guidelines for Public Servants in South Africa

Ghaus-Pasha (2007) sees transparency as action that is participatory, consensus oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law. The South African government has sought to ensure transparency and access to information through two main pieces of legislation; namely, The Promotion of Access to Information (Act 2 of 2000) and the Promotion of Administrative Justice (Act 3 of 2000). The Promotion of Access to Information together with the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act makes provisions to overcome corruption by encouraging transparency amongst public servants. Ethical public servants need to lead the way in identifying corruption and this could be encouraged through making staff familiar with the protection they are afforded through the Protected Disclosures Act, 2000.

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 100) argue that "whilst the codes of conduct and principles exist for those employed within the Public Service, they do not guarantee that professional ethics will be maintained. Edwards (2007: 29) argues that the moral decay being experienced within the public service needs to be identified and treated early in order to prevent the total breakdown of the Public Service. Ethical public servants thus need to lead the way in identifying corruption and this could be encouraged by making staff familiar with the protection they are afforded through the Protected Disclosures Act, 2000. There is an increasing need for a more professional approach to public administration that is based on ethical conduct. The challenge is to ensure that codes of conduct and principles for the Public Service are part and parcel of the everyday activities of public servants. Furthermore, monitoring and evaluation systems are necessary to ensure that policy is implemented effectively and to ensure that public servants perform and that they remain accountable."

3.13 WEAKNESSES

Within a SWOT analysis, the weaknesses are identified as a mechanism for identifying those key issues that can affect the achievement of success in any initiative.

3.13.1 Weakness 1: Food Security is Not only Agriculture

According to Colonnelli & Simon (2013: 10) the majority of food insecure people remain to be poor small farmers in developing countries who are net buyers of food as opposed to being producers of food. The issue for the poor is not only how to increase production but the need to generate an income to purchase sufficient quantity and quality of food remains a challenge. Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 100, also Colonelli & Simon (2013) argue that reduction of poverty should not only focus on agricultural and rural development, but rather, policy should incorporate mechanisms to improve the capacity of the people suffering from food insecurity to overcome poverty.

Poverty according to Colonelli & Simon (2013: 10) “is not just a technical factor related to food production but it is a political one referring to the improvement of the livelihoods in the most affected areas. It is now finally recognized that agricultural development has a positive impact on food security not only because it provides food and increases food availability. It mainly represents an engine for the development of the rural areas since it contributes to the creation of employment, the increase of income and purchasing power of rural people who, as a consequence, may strengthen their access to food and contribute to the development of local non-farm activities. The main factor is that the benefits of agricultural growth have to be enjoyed by the small-scale farmers and local labourers that, spending the additional income locally, will contribute to the development of the rural areas”.

Governments have a central role to play in the socio-economic development of citizens to attain food for all. The question thus for this study is, Are the necessary strategies and policies required available and are they being effectively and efficiently implemented to ensure food security?

The leadership for the IFSS lies within the DAFF which has resulted in a focus on agriculture as the main opportunity for success in obtaining food security. This according to Drimmie & Ruysenaar (2010: 325) is evidence of apartheid residual memory which focused on production issues of white commercial farmers with little consideration for the majority black subsistence farmers. Altman, Hart & Jacobs (2009: 356) reiterate this, and emphasize that whilst policy tends to focus on commercially oriented production, there are about 4 million people (2.5 million households) are engaged in some kind of own production, with 300 000 to 400 000 being full time subsistence farmers. Agriculture for these households is a livelihood strategy. About 3 million small scale farmers produced food to meet household consumption needs (Aliber & Hart, 2009), with women making up 61% of those involved in agriculture (Altman *et al.* 2009). According to Aliber & Hart (2009: 454) the large number of rural households who rely on agriculture as a means for survival and to supplement their income should be taken as evidence of the importance of subsistence agriculture and thus places significance on its role in maintaining food security. Thornton (2008: 243) highlighted that agriculture is increasingly playing an important role in household livelihood of urban and peri-urban areas.

According to Altman *et al.* (2009) smallholder and subsistence farmers have largely been neglected by policy makers despite the fact that they make significant contributions to mitigate households' vulnerability to food insecurity. According to Statistics SA (2013) almost two thirds of South Africa's agricultural activities take place in KZN. Evidence however, reveals that despite studies previously indicating that rural households have historically been able to produce majority of their own food, South African households have become net consumers rather than

producers of food. Baiphethi & Jacobs (2009: 476-477) point out that where households engage in subsistence farming, it is a mechanism to supplement market purchases. However, with low levels of agricultural productivity being possible in these households as a result of the prevalence of the large number of female headed households and HIV/AIDS, their ability to improve access to food is hampered. The lack of inputs and access to productive resources further complicates their situation.

Baiphethi & Jacobs (2009: 7) state that despite households constantly seeking opportunities to diversify their livelihoods towards a reduced reliance on cash, households seem to more readily engage in activities aimed at increasing non-agricultural sources of income.

Aliber & Hart (2009: 454) argue that the current agricultural level of support does not benefit those who need it most, and that existing programmes need to be expanded. Misselhorn (in Matshe 2009: 488) identifies that climate/ environment, poverty, property rights, human capital, market access and unemployment are the critical drivers in determining the food security status of households. If agriculture is adopted as a risk strategy against food insecurity, then policies need to improve sustainable access to markets for smallholders whilst ensuring access to land and extension services.

The problem, however, is that achieving a reduction in extreme poverty and improving the food security status of households requires a multi sectoral intervention (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2013: 100). Van Rooyen (2000: 8) reiterates this in his argument that food security is “no longer viewed as an exclusive agricultural issue.” Van Rooyen (2000: 8) argues further that given the dimensions of poverty which have been refined quite extensively by the work of Sen, indicated in Chapter Four, it is important for food security strategy to take a broader more holistic view. The South African government does realize that the

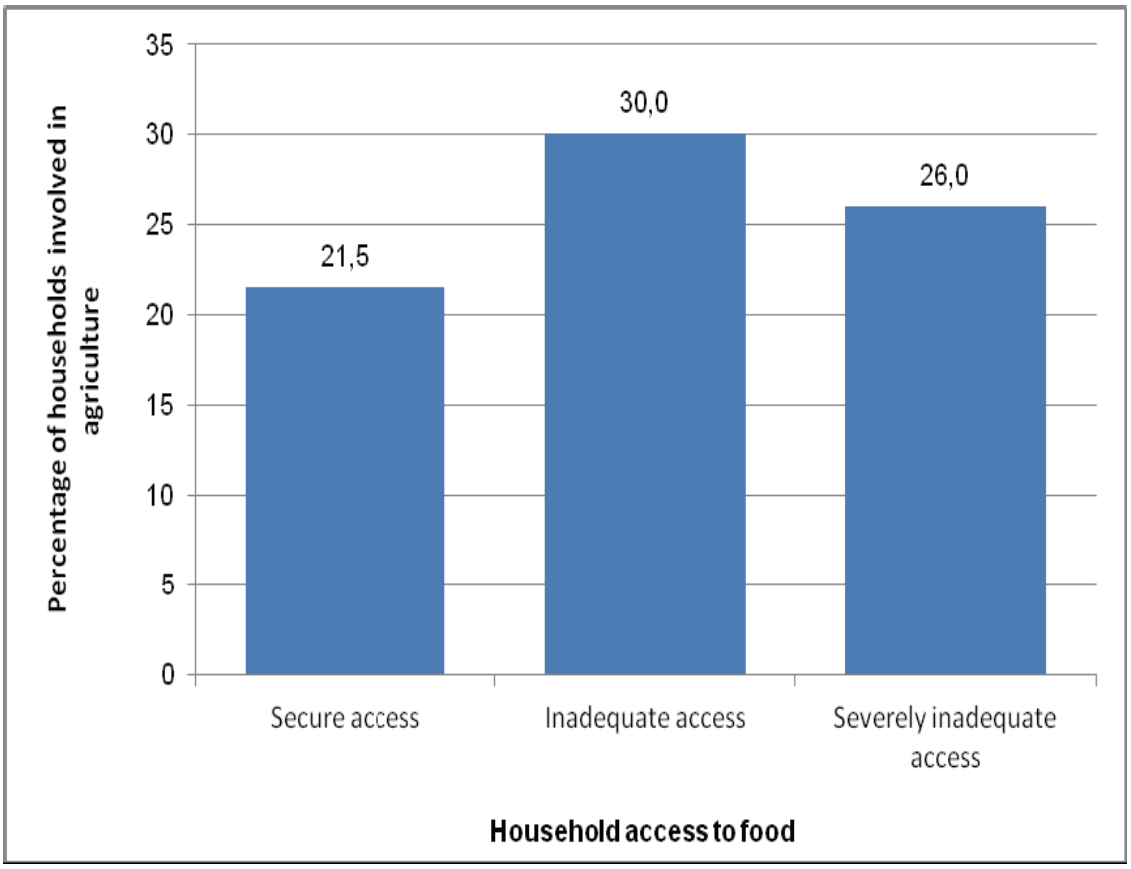
present approach is not sufficient, and has as part of its National Development Plan 2030, stated as one of its priorities the passing of formal legislation in regards to food security. This could have the impact of provision of a multi-sectoral approach, and by virtue of being formal policy; the level of motivation and commitment to targets may be more forthcoming.

3.13.2 Weakness 2: Accounting- Achieving Food Security at a Household Level

Despite the national 'food secure' status within South Africa, about 35% of the population is estimated to be vulnerable to food insecurity (Statistics South Africa 2000). The DAFF recognizes the need to fast track food security policy implementation as they have failed to meet household food security targets, and have further failed to deliver the transformation agenda of the policy (RSA, DAFF 2009). The National Strategy for South African Agriculture provides the foundation for agricultural transformation post -1994.

Household food production is widely considered to be a potentially important approach to promote household food security. The Figure below shows that, households are more likely to be involved in some agricultural endeavour when they have inadequate or severely inadequate access to food. This observation could possibly be explained by the tendency of struggling households to attempt to diversify their livelihood strategies when the existing strategies fail or are placed under pressure (RSA, Statistics SA 2012: 22).

Figure 3.10: Household Access to Food by Participation in Agriculture, 2011



Source: Statistics SA (2012: 23)

3.13.3 Weakness 3: Transparency, Learning and Change

Transparency promotes openness of the democratic process through reporting and feedback, clear processes and procedures, and the conduct and actions of those holding decision-making authority. By being transparent, information can be made accessible and comprehensible to citizens. This can allow for better understanding by communities of public policies, and through engaging with communities, public servants have the opportunity to understand the real needs of food insecure households.

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012: 69) point to studies that indicate that the "personal characteristics of the extension officers and mentoring ability, community

cooperation and networks, communication and training extension officers…" requires human capacity development (Van Niekerk, Stroebel, Van Rooyen, Whitfield & Swanepoel 2009: 74). Duvel (2004: 10) argues that extension programmes are not flexible enough and do not "provide enough variation to the optimum solution". Further, he argues that participatory approaches need to be valued for their ability to bring about consensus and knowledge acquisition.

Whilst these issues raise opportunity for learning and change, the dilemma for extension workers is to work within a framework of political requirements, the community with its internal dynamics whilst striving for good governance through processes that are transparent, accountable and allow for the participation by the community towards contributing to their livelihoods and thus their social capital (Diamond 2005: 5). Social capital takes the form of "networks and associations that brings citizens together in relations of trust, reciprocity, and voluntary cooperation for common ends" (Diamond 2005: 5). "Social capital leads to the establishment of civic spirit, participation, and respect for law" (Diamond 2005: 5). These aspects of social capital are seen as vital to laying the bases of both political development and good governance. In a variety of ways, good governance has the potential to make up a "virtuous cycle" in which many of the elements underpin one another (Diamond 2005: 5).

3.13.4 Weakness 4: The Policy Gap

According to Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 98) Extension Workers as implementers of South Africa's Food Security Strategy need to respond to the "needs of communities whilst, at the same time, adhering to the guidelines provided within relevant policy documents." They further refer to the recent uprisings by communities discussed by Kanyane (2010: 77) as a "wake-up call to those in leadership positions to reconsider the impact they are having on peoples' lives and to re-evaluate the extent to which the promises made pre-1994 are being achieved."

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 55) argue that "it is equally relevant to understand the specific power dynamics involved in food security governance itself. All countries have governance regimes of agricultural and food security policy that have developed in response to particular historical, socio-economic and political challenges. These involve a variety of public and private actors developing and implementing formal and informal rules and procedures to organise and coordinate food production, processing, distribution and consumption, albeit on different scales.

Cloete (2004: 620) argues that an insufficient use of policy impact indicators to enable governments to effectively assess the impact of policy has a devastating impact on policy implementation. Public servants need to account for their actions and the interventions that they encourage communities to engage in. The problem, however, is in the policy gap that is created largely by incapable, ill resourced public servants (Brynard 2007: 357; Madue 2008: 197). Further to this, the issue of corruption needs to be addressed more conscientiously through the more rigorous implementation of rules regarding transparency and access to information."

3.14 OPPORTUNITIES

As part of a SWOT analysis, the opportunities identify those aspects of a situation that offer an opportunity for change.

3.14.1 Opportunity 1: Accountability and Transparency

Development practitioners and extension workers tend to have multiple accountabilities, to their managers (upward), and to their beneficiaries (downward). Chambers (1997) argues for the case of the enabling state which is critical for success with good governance. Chambers (1997: 20) argued for a reversal in development strategy calling for the "Last" or the poor to be put first in

the development agenda. This challenge attempts to resolve the contradiction between the neo-Fabian thesis that the state should do more, and the neo-liberal antithesis that the state should do less. Chambers argued in 1997 that the state should become a protector and supporter in the development arena, through the adoption of a role wherein it maintains peace and democracy, provides services, and manages the economy through good governance. It seems that this has become a critical part of development agenda and sets the foundation for accountability as a key for the success of policy implementation.

It is important to deduce here that, central to accountability is that those to whom one is accountable exercise power (through the ability to participate) to regulate and guide interventions. These public servants become participants in development and are responsible for the substantive meanings given to development, to the boundaries one draws (or does not draw) between interventions and their turbulent contexts, and the rationale (goal-oriented or action-learning oriented) for interventions. Extension Workers thus have the power to directly impact Food Security Strategy implementation and thus this influence needs to be monitored and evaluated.

3.14.2 Opportunity 2: Research and Development within the DAFF

Post 1994, the DAFF embarked on a strategic framework to broaden access and participation in agriculture through the Broadening Access to Agriculture Thrust (BATAT) process. BATAT continues to be the agricultural sector's guiding perspective towards its vision of “equitable access and participation in a globally competitive sector that contributes to community development, income generation, employment creation, food security and a better life for all in a sustainable manner” (RSA, DAFF 2008: 2).

A number of research and development problems were identified, namely:

- "Lack of policy and long–term strategic management in research and the linkage mechanisms between agricultural research institutions and their clients.
- Lack of clarity on how linkages should be strengthened to improve the farmer-extension researcher linkages.
- The need to design and establish suitable institutional linkages to support effective coordination and prioritization of research needs at all levels" (RSA, DAFF 2008: 3).

The strategic framework provides opportunity for improved Extension services and thus cannot be ignored as it contributes to renewal and reform in the delivery of goods and services within the DAFF. Further to this, a *White Paper on Science and Technology* in 1996 established a framework for science and technology which reinforced the need for innovation and action through multiple role players. In 2001 *The Strategic Plan for South African Agriculture* with its core strategies of access and participation, competitiveness and profitability, and, sustainable resource management sought to realize the vision of a united and prosperous agricultural sector. These changes provided some of the foundation for the *South African National Research and Development Strategy* of 2002 which entrenched the move towards a focus on research, innovation and change (RSA, DAFF 2008). The DAFF as a result has strategic direction in regards to responding to community needs. This needs to be implemented in a manner that achieves solutions to the problem areas it identified.

3.14.3 Opportunity 3: Collaboration with Institutions of Higher Learning

Opportunity 3 has been adapted from MOHAMED SAYEED, C. & PILLAY, P. 2012. Skills development and professionalism to promote Food Security Policy

Implementation in South Africa. *African Journal of Public Affairs 5 (2): 68-79* completed as part of this research.

There are increasing calls for increased effectiveness and efficiency amongst public servants. As part of the response to the demands for improved performance, the DAFF sees the attainment of a "cadre of qualified, experienced and motivated world-class agricultural research and development specialists, managers and policy makers to lead South Africa towards achieving the long term goals of food security, poverty alleviation…" as being essential (RSA, DAFF 2008). As part of their mandate outlined in the National Agricultural Research and Development Strategy (NARS), DAFF is tasked with supporting training at higher education institutions and with the role of monitoring and evaluation as a mechanism for ensuring that an effective skills base is available for policy implementation. Higher education institutions are mandated with the task of capacity development and curriculum development in Agriculture Extension (RSA, DAFF 2008: 22), and as a result presents opportunity for a number of factors, namely:

- improved service delivery,
- improved implementation of the IFSS through improved knowledge about the policy, its role and its targets;
- improved adherence to roles, responsibilities and improved professionalism;
- improved levels of efficiency and effectiveness; and
- improved governance within public administration.

It is envisaged that the long term impact of the strategy would be measurable through the level and extent to which farmers and farming communities realize an improvement in their practices. For the rural subsistence farmers, this implies the attainment of food security.

Duvel (2004: 9) argues that "in order to improve the current levels of policy implementation, training and development in monitoring should be undertaken" owing to the poor level of education and training of staff responsible for the implementation of policy. He further argues that together with striving towards higher levels of professionalism, it is important for tertiary institutions to play a more "decisive role regarding developing an appropriate skills base." Van Rooyen, Barnard & van Zyl (1996: 713) argue in support for an integration of training, research and extension towards improved capacity. Bembrigde (1994: 6) sees the need for Higher Educational Institutions (HEI) to broaden their curricula. Here he argues they need to begin to consider "new ways of knowing as well as new kinds of knowledge". Wallace (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012: 69) reiterates this argument, by encouraging "academics and higher educational institutions to broaden the content and approach of their curricula in order to integrate agricultural policy into extension approaches."

Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2013: 103) point out that "like the policy guidelines for the Department of Agriculture, there has been a parallel transformation since 1994 in the system of higher education. These transformations have resulted in calls for increased participation, greater institutional responsiveness to policy priorities, and new partnerships between higher education and the broader society." According to Kuye (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012) "higher education in a post 1994 era is required to obtain and sustain higher levels of economic growth, improve the standards of the masses, institute socio-economic change and development, enable good citizenship by empowering citizens to participate in a meaningful manner in the democratic processes, develop knowledge bases and contribute to citizens utilising opportunities and allowing them to compete internationally in a quest for excellence in delivery. Reform according to Kuye, calls for a closer alignment of academic and vocational learning" such as Extension. *The Higher Education and Training Strategic Plan 2010/11 – 2014/15* makes such commitment towards socio-economic growth through education and training. As a result, this requires action on the part of HEIs to respond.

Auriacombe (2000: 7) argues that curriculum reviews through an evaluation of three types of competencies are a critical part of reform. These are:

- Practical competency - knowing how to do things and the ability to make decisions;
- Foundational competency - understanding what they are doing and why; and
- Reflexive competency - learning and adapting self-reflection, applying knowledge appropriately and responsibly (Auriacombe 2000: 7).

Within this perspective, Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012: 103) suggest that Extension curriculum "ought to be focused on effective learning that promotes accountability by virtue of being competency based." Worth (2008: 65) notes that within this perspective, the key indicators for competencies can be generated from existing and proposed policy.

Transformation in the curricula of HEIs is thus a critical part of changing not only the content of subjects, but seeks to reaffirm the critical link between policy and training/ research. This allows for the negotiation of the context and form of change (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012).

An overview of curricula by HEIs within KwaZulu Natal offering Agriculture and/ or Agricultural Extension as a qualification by Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012) found that:

- "Further to the formal qualifications offered by the HEIs there are diverse training programmes in capacity and skills development in Agriculture Extension;
- A key shortcoming is that none of these institutions offer the policy process and analysis, nor appear to offer monitoring and evaluation as opportunities for learning and change under the Agriculture Extension programmes;

- The University of KwaZulu Natal Food Security programme offers a multi-disciplinary approach to Food Security Policy implementation which is unique within the province;
- There is insufficient focus on policy monitoring, evaluation and comparative content. This adversely affects those entering the public service tasked with the implementation of policy without being mentored into being aware of those critical systemic issues;
- Higher education institutions concentrate on the policy approach rather than interrogating the systemic issues related to the policy process (Cloete & Rabie 2006: 67); and
- The University of KwaZulu Natal is the only institution in KwaZulu Natal that offers post graduate studies in Agriculture Extension.

As a result, several recommendations for improving Extension curricula were made by Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012) and are included as part of the final recommendations for this study. These recommendations must be considered as part of the way forward in improving the skills base and policy knowledge of Extension Workers.

3.15 THREATS

Identifying threats in the process of completing a SWOT analysis, seeks to identify those circumstances that have the potential to inhibit change.

3.15.1 Threat 1: Maintaining Professionalism

Duvel (in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2012) notes as a result of national survey of the perceived importance rank order of accountability and extension relative to other factors needed for improved extension, that there is a low level of knowledge or skills base amongst extension workers.

Table 3.2: **Perceived importance of Factors Impacting on Agriculture related Projects**

Factor	Mean weighted percentage	Rank order position
More training	55.3	1st
More accountability	53.7	2nd
More resources	52.9	3rd
Improved management	48.9	4th
Better staff selection	47.6	5th
Better extension approach	44.7	6th
More commitment	41.4	7th

Source: Duvel (2007: 79)

Duvel (2007: 91) found that that there is increasing pressure for extension to become more professional. Training together with an effective monitoring and evaluation system is seen as necessary to improve the potential of Extension Workers. Dassah & Uken (2006: 716) also note that training opportunities in South Africa are inadequate to deal with the socio-economic issues.

3.15.2 Threat 2: Monitoring and Evaluation System

Performance and accountability have become major issues worldwide. The importance of M&E also lies in its potential of improving all current and future extension services offered by the DAFF and provincial DAEA. Whilst there may be recognition that M&E is important at the implementation phase, however, whether and to what degree M&E activities are carried out depends largely on interpretation. According to Düvel (2002: 55) evaluation can vary from casual everyday assessment as a form of subjective reflection to rigorous scientific studies; from being purely summative (Van den Ban & Hawkins, 1996: 209) in

nature to evaluations that also focus on monitoring or on formative evaluations; from being focused only on input assessment to evaluations that are primarily output focused.

Monitoring and evaluation presents opportunity to reduce the critical gaps in policy design and policy implementation. Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2011: 15-16) contend that:

- A monitoring and evaluation framework can be successful in assisting officials with learning thereby improving extension efforts.
- Small-scale interventions require evaluation systems in order to offer improved opportunities for development and learning through improved implementation.
- A culture of evaluation and learning, combined with attention to policy design is necessary for improved policy implementation.
- Information systems can contribute to improved policy implementation.
- Monitoring and evaluation can facilitate decision making by public officials.

Ijeoma (2010: 353) supports a call to mainstream monitoring and evaluation. This implies that it will become part and parcel of the activities of public sector officials at all levels and that it is part of the training of those within the public sector and those being trained for employment within the public sector. "Monitoring and evaluation can provide information about the performance of government policies and can present value to the implementation process depending on how the information is generated and is used" (Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay 2011a: 11). Monitoring and evaluation is increasingly becoming a major indicator in professionalism that moves beyond ethics as a reflection of effective performance

and accountability within the public service. Monitoring and evaluation are however part of a wider attempt to improve policy implementation. In assessing the real gaps in policy design versus policy implementation and the role of Extension Workers, it is necessary to look at the situation holistically.

3.16 CONCLUSION

This Chapter provides an exposition of poverty, food security, and good food security governance. In so doing, the discussion begins by tracing the development of food security from its earliest perceptions, as a lack of nutrients to its current focus on household and individual access to adequate quality and quantity of food to support a healthy life, and introduces the concept of "good food security governance". Further, food security is described in terms of supply, stability and household access. Food security is then briefly explored as a Human Right. This is followed by an introduction to the Millennium Development Goals and the relationship between MDG1 and food security. In so doing, the link between agriculture and food security is established.

The discussion then provides an exploration of the relationship between food security and good governance and contextualises the term "good food security governance" to refer to the "formal and informal rules and processes through which interests are articulated, and decisions relevant to food security in a country are made, implemented and enforced on behalf of members of a society" as defined by the FAO (2011b: 5).

The Chapter then examines the poverty and food security status of households in South Africa with an emphasis on the role of women and HIV/AIDS in food security. Finally, the Chapter examines food security in South Africa through the use of a SWOT analysis using the World Bank's elements of good governance. The discussion has reflected that whilst marked improvements have been made in

terms of reduction of extreme poverty, and despite the prevalence of good legislative frameworks and guidelines for Extension Workers, much still needs to be done. One can deduce however, from the SWOT analysis, that there are more strengths than weaknesses. The weaknesses noted include the problems related to remedying food insecurity primarily through agriculture, the level of professionalism displayed by Extension Workers, the extent to which they engage in participatory methods in addressing the needs of communities and a review by HEIs of their curricula in order to adequately equip Extension Workers.

The empirical study that follows later in this research study, attempts to investigate these issues through an examination of policy knowledge amongst Extension Workers. It can be concluded that the elements of good governance, namely public sector management, accountability, transparency, access to information and legal framework form a critical basis for interrogating good food security governance.

Chapter Four now follows and provides an overview of the Research Methodology used to complete this study.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Brynard & Hanekom (1997: 4) define research as a systematic, multi-dimensional process by which data on an issue of concern is accumulated and analysed to make conclusions that extend the boundaries of knowledge (also Bulmer & Warwick 1998: 27). Scientific research, according to Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 11), is the translation into practice of the relationship between facts and theory. Hutchinson (in Brynard & Hanekom 1997: 2) sees research as scientific investigation that can be differentiated from other human activities based upon its systematic nature. Smit (1995: 3) goes further, by stating that scientific research is a critical and purposeful action to collect data and new facts, and provides an interpretation of such data and facts which may re-evaluate or reinterpret existing paradigms or theories based upon the new insights gained.

Research design, according to Webb & Auriacombe (2006: 589), includes the plan, structure and strategy of the research. Mouton (in Fouche & de Vos 2002: 137) indicates that research design is a blue print or plan that outlines the processes to be followed in conducting research. The research design therefore does not provide answers to the research questions, but provides a mechanism by which such questions may be answered. The research design should be based upon a research problem or question and focus on a plan for the collection of data in the best way possible.

From these arguments, good research would be the result of carefully selected approaches for investigation, and where the choices made are reasonable and provide meaning. Research design is used to describe how the study is to be arranged when it comes to the selection of participants. Research methodology, according to Babbie & Mouton (2005: 104) refers to the “methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan”. Brynard & Hanekom (1997: 28) point out that the research

methodology necessitates a "reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the research in order to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity." Data collection and analysis thus include the following steps: deciding when and how often to collect data, constructing measures, identifying a sample or test population, choosing a strategy for contacting subjects, selecting statistical tools and presenting the findings. These steps constitute research methodology.

This study focuses on good food security governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN. The World Bank framework for good governance is used as the starting point for this inquiry. This study is useful as it can enhance effective food security policy implementation in KZN and can highlight opportunities for improving good governance within the KZN DAEA, thereby contributing to the theory and practice of public administration.

This chapter outlines the research methodology and it incorporates the main objectives of the study, the sampling techniques, and a description of statistical analysis and interpretation for the data.

4.2 KEY OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In Chapter One, the following primary objectives are highlighted:

- Determine the current status of policy knowledge amongst Extension Workers permanently employed by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?;
- Identify the success and challenges in public sector management relative to food insecurity;
- Explore the extent to which accountability and transparency are key indicators used to track and measure good food security strategy implementation;

- To what extent are the principles of transparency and access to information part and parcel of the functioning of Extension Workers;
- What systems are in place to communicate information in this regard?; and
- Investigate the existing governance arrangements for Food Security Strategy implementation within the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs and make recommendations for improved service delivery.

4.3 KEY QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED IN THIS RESEARCH

The following key questions are identified:

- What is the existing policy knowledge regarding food security amongst the Extension Workers employed by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?
- What are the success and challenges in public sector management relative to food insecurity in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?
- What does accountability, performance and professionalism mean to Extension Workers, and what are their perceptions regarding its contribution to the success/ and or failure of policy implementation?
- What arrangements are in place to ensure transparency and accountability?
- What systems do they use to communicate information?
- Are the governance arrangements for food security adequate, and what can be done to improve current practices?

4.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Bulmer &Warwick (1998: 28) argue that the key factors that must be considered in generating a choice of a sample include the need to simplify research; save time and costs; and the need to secure access to the sample. These factors were key in generating the sample for this study as there is a large number of Extension Workers permanently employed by the KZN DAEA, who are spread over 828 Wards (COGTA 2012: 2), which constitutes a large geographical area. Thus, in order to simplify the research, and to save time and costs, as it is easier to study a sample of a population than to study the entire population, one Region formed the focus of data collection process.

This study focused on the South Region of the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs as a sample. This region offers opportunity to include two of the most deprived districts in KZN, namely, Ugu and Sisonke which are, according to the Community Survey 2007 (Statistics South Africa 2009) two of the five, most deprived districts of KZN. As a result, for the objectives of this study, the inclusion of these was imperative. Further, this region includes Ethekwini, which is the only Metropolitan District in KZN. Thus, this methodological approach provides an opportunity to sample Extension Workers based in a cross section of districts.

An additional limitation of the study identified by one of the Examiners is that the study does not seek to obtain inputs from the communities living in the various rural areas. In response to this, the perceptions of communities receiving support from government are of critical importance for understanding the role and impact of communities in the service delivery process. However, this study seeks to address the governance, public administration and management aspects of food security policy implementation and does not seek to offer a case study in service delivery.

4.5 QUALITATIVE vs QUANITITATIVE METHODS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION RESEARCH

The social world, according to Mouton, Auriacombe & Lutabingwa (2006: 575), "is not unproblematic". They argue that the debates around the philosophy in the social sciences have revolved around different ways of seeing the social world. The debates around public administration as outlined in Chapter 2, through the history of public administration, reflects varied ideas about the term public administration and the ideas around logic. It is unfortunately beyond the scope of this study to fully explore the theory of knowledge or epistemology and, nature of being or ontology around the theories of public administration. What, however, must be acknowledged, is that each of these different ways of looking at public administration, gave rise to different ways of thinking and analysing public administration.

These different ways of thinking, or paradigms, are rooted in specific methods of inquiry (Stout 2013: 15) based in either the qualitative or quantitative methodologies. Here, the methodology is taken to be that which guides the way in which research is conducted. Methodologies according to Stout (2013: 16) are linked to the analytic processes that are adopted. These could either be an inductive logic of discovery or a deductive logic of proof. In deciding on a methodology, one must note that these two are dependent and that the methods arising out of each guides the methodology adopted in public administration research.

Table 4.1: Methodological Differences

Dimension	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontology	Singular, research objective	Multiple, subjective realities
Epistemology	Detached observer	Interacting, participating researcher
Research questions	Specified and measurable	Open-ended and ambiguous
Research design	Closed and fixed	Open and iterative
Goals of sampling	Generalizability	Variation and richness for explanatory power
Analytic process	Deductive	Inductive
Cause-effect explanations	Nomothetic, static relationships	Idiographic, emergent and changing patterns
Basis for conclusions	Replicable, numeric data	Naturalistic evidence
Role of values	Value free, neutral	Value laden
Rhetorical style	Impersonal, past tense	Personal, often present tense

Source: Brower (in Stout 2013: 16)

From this table, qualitative methods provide the basis for building on understanding of experience, whilst quantitative methods use deductive reasoning to test hypothesis against empirical evidence.

4.5.1 Quantitative research

Mouton *et al.* (2006: 580) describe quantitative research as the "collection of primary data from large numbers of individuals and projecting the results to a wider population". Quantitative studies thus allow for the inclusion of many cases and variables which can be measured in a predetermined manner. This data is then used to test theories, determine facts, and through statistical analysis demonstrate relationships between variables. The data produced is numeric and can be summarised and analysed using statistical techniques (Lutabingwa & Auriacombe 2007: 547). Babbie & Mouton (2005: 104) identify observation, pilot

studies, quantitative analysis and questionnaires as appropriate for quantitative data collection.

4.5.2 Qualitative research

Mouton *et al.* (2006: 580) see qualitative research as producing data that seeks to "uncover new ideas from, or hidden feelings/ beliefs of respondents". Qualitative research reflects on verbal descriptions of characteristics, cases and settings being investigated. Webb & Auriacombe (2006: 592) argue that qualitative research provides the researcher with an "insider's view" through the use of methods that promote better understanding of the "meanings people assign to social phenomena" and thereby increases the researchers insight into the human condition. Auriacombe & Mouton (2007: 441) highlight that qualitative data relies on an extensive use of verbal information, with a preference for developing full information on relatively few cases and its consideration of the unique features of each case.

The Table that follows provides an overview of the comparative features of qualitative and quantitative research. The Table highlights the recommended sample size and techniques, and the main advantages of each technique.

Table 4.2: Comparative features of Qualitative and Quantitative Research

	Qualitative	**Quantitative**
Survey size	Small (30- 200)	Large (100+)
Sampling method	Quota or purposive, non random	Random
Coverage	Modal	Arithmetic average
Data collection techniques	Unstructured or flexible	Structured or rigid
Enumeration	Interviewer perception and initiative crucial	Interviewer precise, discipline crucial
Questionnaire	Adaptive; responsive	Rigid, inflexible
Enquiry method	In depth	Uniform, formal
Analysis process	Innovative, exploratory, individual, varied research techniques	Established, deductive, standardized
Report content	Soft, impressionistic data	Hard, precise
Report style	Interpretive narrative with illustrations	Comparative, but non interpretive commentaries on statistical tables
Focus and approach	Multidisciplinary, but only a few well – specified objectives	Single and multi disciplinary, more general
Perceived uses	Understanding and insight of prescriptive value	Facts of descriptive value
Characteristics	Normative/ implicative, different investigatory tools	Positive, wide ranging, general purpose scope, relatively unselective in terms of narrow objectives, expensive, usually time and resource consuming
Advantages	Enables people to investigate problems outside traditional boundaries of enquiry. Important where direct measurement of characteristics and understanding of behaviours and attitudes is difficult.	Precise quantification with estimates within defined limits. Makes easy for comparisons. Visible techniques. Representative (and thus enables estimation at population level)

Source: adapted from Bulmer & Warwick (1998: 137 -138)

Table 4.2 clearly shows that there are advantages in using each method. As a result, the use of a multi-method approach must be considered.

4.5.3 Methodological Pluralism

Stout (2013: 19) argues that the arguments over deductive/ inductive and qualitative/ quantitative debates around public administration research are extension of the debates over the political – administration debates. The field according to Stout (2013: 19) is open to methodological pluralism which requires critical thinking rather than deductive reasoning in forming conclusions.

This study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods. The idea here is to create a platform for research conducted based on methodological pluralism which is seen as a more appropriate response for contemporary research in public administration (Stout 2013: 19). This research uses both qualitative and quantitative methods, through the use of the interview and self administered questionnaire respectively as part of the survey.

4.5.4 The Survey Method

Babbie & Mouton (2006: 232) argue that survey research "is probably the best method available to the social scientist interested in collecting original data for describing a large population". The aim of survey research is thus to gain information from a large population through gaining insights about their opinions or attitudes regarding a particular subject matter. Leedy & Ormond (2005: 183) concur in this regard. The ultimate aim of a survey is to represent the response of the entire population through the use of a set of standard questions that are asked of a sample of people which are combined. The survey method has been chosen to conduct this study due to its ability to produce descriptive and explanatory information.

4.6 SAMPLING

Sampling design, according to Burger & Silima (2006: 658) refers to that "part of the research plan that indicates how cases are to be selected for observation". According to Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000: 92) the quality of research is linked to the appropriateness of the sampling strategy employed. Sampling thus requires the use of various techniques to select groups from a wider population. Due to time or financial constraints, it may not always be possible to include the whole population in research. Sampling thus provides a practical method of data collection, especially when the population is extremely large or difficult to get to (Bryman & Cramer 2001: 96).

Denscombe (2007: 130) states that whilst sampling allows one to gather information from a portion of the whole, it is expected that at least some of the data produced will be applicable to the entire population. Having said this, one cannot assume that all the findings will necessarily be reproduced in the rest of the population. Hence, the sample, according to Burger & Silima (2006: 658), needs to be carefully selected if there is to be any confidence that the findings from the sample are similar to those found amongst the rest of the population being investigated.

Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 85) state that a good sampling procedure implies:

- A well-defined population;
- An adequately chosen sample; and
- An estimate of how representative of the whole population the sample is.

The sample must therefore be a reflection of the population. This contributes to the validity derived through the study, which is a reflection of the extent to which sample distributions reflect those of the population which the sample is supposed to represent (Jupp 2006: 312).

The primary objectives of sampling are:

- To make certain deductions and generalisations about the population; and
- To accept or reject statistical hypotheses about the population (Smit 1995: 16 -17).

According to Nzimakwe (2005: 222) in order to attain the above objectives, the following three aspects must be borne in mind:

- The unambiguous definition of the population in terms of extent, content and time;
- The size of the sample;
- The extent to which the sample is representative of the population; and
- The method of sampling.

Descombe (2007: 271) argues that because sampling theory is based on the assumption that inferences can be made, or conclusions can be drawn about the population from which the sample is taken. The aim of research should be to determine some characteristics of a population, and to draw inferences about the unknown population through the use of sample statistics (also Bless & Higson-Smith 2000: 84). The ultimate goal of sampling according to Smit (1995: 16) is to obtain valid answers to the research problem in the form of knowledge and insight, through a sample that is representative of the population.

4.7 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

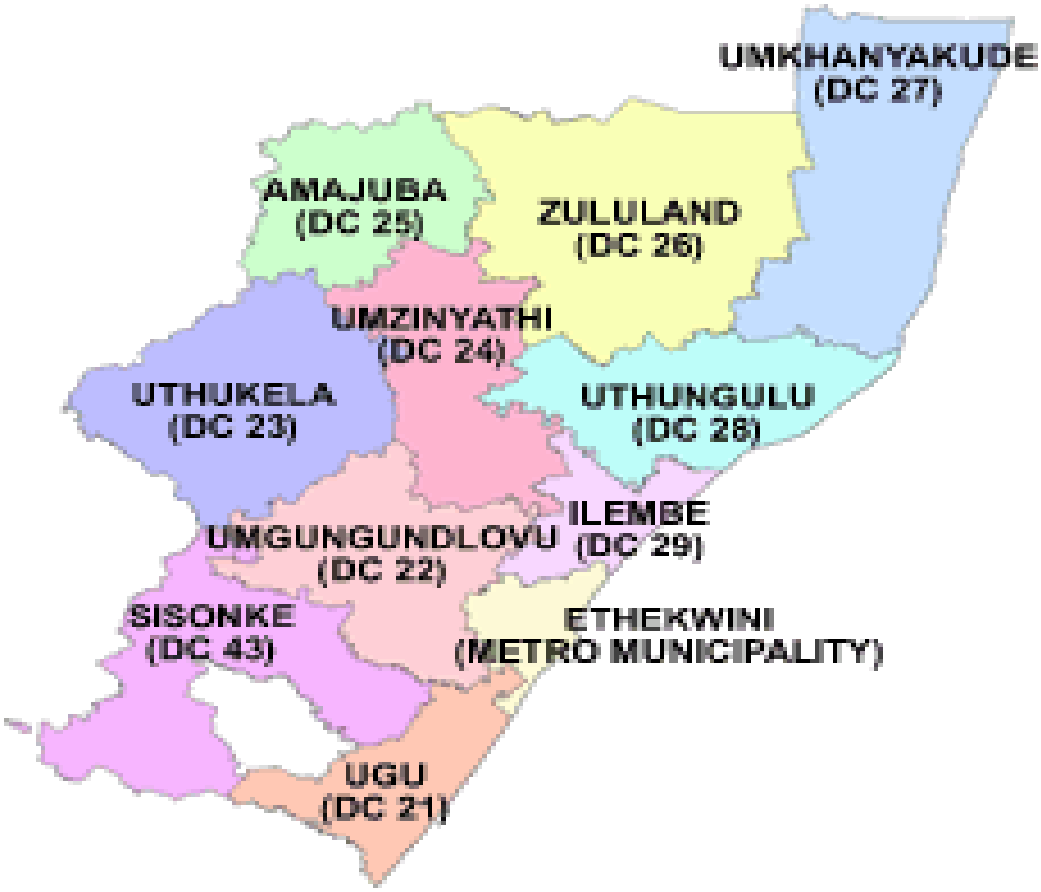
4.7.1 Target Population

O'Sullivan & Rassel (in Nzimakwe 2005: 220) define the population as the total set of units that the investigator is interested in. Bryman & Cramer (2001: 96) define a population differently by referring to the population as a discrete group of units of analysis. Nichols (1991: 50) highlights that it is important at an early stage of

survey design, that the researcher defines exactly which group of people or units he/ she is interested in. This group is the target population.

Burger & Silima (2006: 657) identify geographic area and time frame as the key determining factors when identifying the target population. These were used as guidelines to determine the target population for this study. The target population for this study is the Extension Workers of the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs and their Managers. KwaZulu Natal has 11 Districts (see map below)

Figure 4.1: KZN District Municipalities



Source: KZN Department of Local Government (2013)

The KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs Offices are divided for administrative purposes, into three regions; namely the North Region, Central Region and South Region (as indicated in the Table below). According to the most recent Extension Directory by the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs, there are a total of 603 permanently employed Extension Workers.

Table 4.3: Total Number of Extension Workers in KZN

Name of District	**Region**	**Number of Extension Workers**
iLembe	North	33
Zululand	North	78
uMkhanyakude	North	53
uThungulu	North	98
uMzinyathi	Central	48
Uthukela	Central	52
Amajuba	Central	34
uMgungunlovu	South	52
eThekwini	South	49
uGu	South	66
Sisonke	South	40
		603

Source: National Extension Directory (2013)

The total number of Extension Workers, or total population, as indicated in the National Extension Directory (2013) was used as the basis for calculating the sample size.

4.7.2 Sample Size

According to Babbie & Mouton (2001: 202) a sample is a "specific subset of a population observed in order to make inferences about the nature of the total population itself". Burger & Silima (2006: 657) point out that even though sampling is a technical process, it is important from a feasibility standpoint as it is costly and time consuming to study an entire population which is large. As a result, the sample should be representative of the larger group (population or universe) and should include all elements of the population. The major criterion that must be used when deciding on a sample size according to Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 96) is to question the extent to which the sample will be representative of the population. Sample size thus depends on the objectives of the investigation and the population being investigated.

Neuman (2003: 232) emphasises that the larger the population the smaller the percentage of the population required for the sample, and vice versa. Neuman (2003: 232) highlights further that the size of the sample should be influenced by the extent to which the sample can potentially represent the larger population. Grinnel & Williams (1990: 127) argue that a 10% sample is sufficient for sample error control, and that at least 30 cases are needed for the objective of qualitative research. Burger & Silima (2006: 666) however, do point out that there are varying opinions on the minimum number of responses required for a study. They argue that the greater the probability of sampling error, the greater the sample size should be. Here sampling error refers to "the difference between the results obtained from the sample and the results obtained if the entire population had" been included (Burger & Silima 2006: 666). Stoker (in Burger & Silima 2006: 667) provides a guideline for researchers to guide the sample size in survey research.

Table 4.4: Guidelines for Determining Sample Size

Population Size	Percentage suggested	Number of Respondents
20	100%	20
30	80%	24
50	64%	32
100	45%	45
200	32%	64
500	20%	100
1000	14%	140
10000	4.5%	450
100000	2%	2000
200000	1%	2000

Source: Burger & Silima (2006: 667)

Burger & Silima (2006: 666) point out that for effective survey research, 100 - 150 cases should be collected in order to be able to use descriptive statistics correctly.

In conducting this study, the South Region of the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs was used as the sample. The major reason for sampling in this way was due to feasibility and accessibility to Extension Workers who are based in communities around the province. The South Region constitutes 34% of the total population, as indicated in the Table below.

Table 4.5: South Region

DISTRICT		TOTAL EXTENSION WORKERS	TOTAL DISTRICT MANAGERS	TOTAL	% OF TOTAL POPULATION
uMgungunlovu	South	51	1	52	8.62
eThekwini	South	48	1	49	8.12
uGu	South	65	1	66	10.94
Sisonke	South	39	1	40	6.63
		203	4	207	34%

Source: Researchers Own Calculations based upon the National Extension Directory (2013)

After discussions with the Human Resources Department who produce the Extension Directory which is based upon data generated from the pay system, a minimum response rate of at least 60% (124) within this Region is seen as sufficient to accommodate a number of human resource anomalies that occur as a result of the normal functioning of the KZN DAEA, namely:

- Some staff may be on sick, personal or study leave in the period that the data collection takes place;
- Some staff may not be contactable as a result of working in rural, inaccessible areas;
- Some may have transferred to a different district or province that does not form part of the study but this move is not yet reflected on the Extension Directory; and
- To accommodate any other staff turnover related issues.

The sample size thus complies with the arguments by Grinnel & Williams (1990: 127), Burger & Silima (2006: 666) and Stoker (in Burger & Silima (2006: 667).

According to Van der Waldt & Doyle (2002: 291-292) samples can be classified in two types, namely; probability and non-probability sampling.

4.8 Probability Sampling

According to Bulmer & Warwick (1998: 8-9), probability sampling is at the "heart of survey procedures, for they enable inferences to be made from a small sample (from whom data are collected) to a very much larger population (whose characteristics are unknown or inadequately known)". Probability sampling ensures that the likelihood of each element of the population being included in the sample can be ascertained. Jupp (2006: 238) defines probability sampling as any method of sampling that uses random selection that ensures that all units in the population have an equal chance of being selected. According to Dayaram (2010: 207) "the assumption is that in random sampling, provided that there are sufficiently large numbers of examples selected, and the selection has been genuinely 'at random', then the resulting sample is likely to provide a representative cross-section of the whole."

4.8.1 Simple Random Sampling

In simple random sampling, each member of the target population has the same chance of being selected as part of the sample. The biggest advantage related to a simple random sample is that as a researcher, one can achieve a fairly unbiased sample in an easy manner (Van der Waldt & Doyle 2002: 292). According to Nichols (1991: 59), a simple random sample will be free of bias if the sampling frame is accurate, detailed, and cover the full target population; and, data collectors must succeed in contacting and interviewing or administering a questionnaire to all those selected.

4.8.2 Stratified Random Sampling

This method of sampling is designed to ensure that the sample has certain characteristics that are usually representative of the population on key variables. In other words, the principle of stratified random sampling is to divide the population into different groups, called strata so that each element of the population belongs to one and only one stratum. For example, the population may be stratified according to the criterion of gender, in which case the strata of male and female is generated (Bryman & Cramer 2001: 98). Denscombe (2007: 15) writes that the significant advantage of stratified sampling over pure random sampling is that the researcher can exert some control over the selection of the sample in order to ensure that crucial people or crucial factors are covered by it. Further, it allows for proportionality of the sample in relation to the larger population. This is supported by Bryman & Cramer (2001: 99) who also agree that the advantage of stratified sampling is that it offers the possibility of greater accuracy by ensuring that the groups which are created by a stratifying criterion are represented in the same proportions as in the population.

4.9 NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING

Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 155) state that non-probability sampling is sampling techniques where the probability of each element of the population being included in the sample is unknown (see also Denscombe 2007: 17). Jupp (2006: 196) reiterates this and identifies several techniques associated with this approach, namely, convenience sampling, snowball sampling and quota sampling. Some of the reasons for choosing this approach include that:

- “it is not feasible to include a large number of examples in the study;
- the researcher may not have sufficient information about the population; or
- it may be difficult to contact a sample selected through conventional probability sampling techniques” (Denscombe 2007: 16).

According to Van der Waldt & Doyle (2002: 292) non-probability samples are created because the units selected for the sample appear representative or because they are conveniently assembled.

4.10 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 97) argue that data consists of measurements collected as a result of scientific observations. These can then be classified according to the way in which it was collected or in terms of its meanings. Babbie & Mouton (2006) sees data collection as a method of obtaining information from a group of respondents by means of direct contact, personal interviews or self-administered questionnaires. This study made use of both qualitative data collection methods as well as quantitative data collection methods. Whilst the methods differ in many ways, they complement each other in the way in which they contribute to the patterns generated and thus assist to understand and explain social life (Neuman 2000: 122).

4.10.1. Data Collection Using Questionnaires

Neuman (2000: 517) refers to a questionnaire as a "written document in survey research that has a set of questions given to respondents or used by an interviewer to ask questions and record answers." A questionnaire is one of the most widely used data collection techniques because it can reach large numbers of people with little time or cost involved. A further advantage is that it can ensure anonymity of the respondents, and hence helps to gather honest responses. Mailed questionnaires are problematic due to the low response rate which adversely impacts on the quality of research. Neuman (2000: 271-272) identifies several advantages of using self-administered questionnaires. These include that:

- Researchers can give questionnaires directly to respondents who read instructions and questions, then record their answers;
- This is the cheapest way to conduct a survey by a single researcher;

- Questionnaires can be sent to a wide geographical area;
- It is possible for respondents to complete the questionnaire when it is convenient for them; and
- Questionnaires produce high response rates for target populations that are well-educated or have an interest in the topic or the survey being conducted.

Denscombe (2007: 169) expands on these by identifying several advantages of questionnaires as a method of investigation. These include that:

- Questionnaires are economical;
- They are easier to arrange as compared to, for example, personal interviews;
- Questionnaires supply standardized answers with little scope for data to be affected by 'interpersonal factors';
- It encourages pre-coded answers which allows for speedy collation and analysis of data; and
- There is data accuracy particularly with surveys that use the internet so that the human error factor is eliminated.

However, there were various disadvantages that were associated with the use of questionnaires, the most important being low response rates and these have been concisely summarized by Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 115) as follows:

- Respondents do not have enough time;
- The respondent may not have received the questionnaire;
- The participant lacked interest and could not be bothered to fill it in; and
- Respondents lacked knowledge of the issues contained in the questionnaire.

Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 113) and Babbie & Mouton (2006: 234-248) identify several things that should be avoided if the study is to be a success:

- The needs, interests and potential problems of respondents must be considered in the design of the questionnaire;
- The time and venue must be suitable to respondents;
- The environment must provide some privacy;
- The questionnaire must be in the language of the respondents;
- Questions should be short, simple, and easy to understand and respond to;
- Leading questions should be avoided;
- Double-barrelled questions should be made into two separate questions;
- Avoid ambiguity in the questions;
- Avoid being too vague;
- Avoid being general;
- The flow of the questionnaire should encourage the interest of the respondents;
- The questionnaire should not be too long so as to create a fatigue effect in the process of answering the questionnaire;
- The intended responses should be easy to edit and ought to be easily coded;
- Avoid fixing the response set;
- Avoid leading questions;
- Avoid the use of jargon or professional language;
- Avoid complex sentences with various sub-clauses and/or double negatives;
- Make sure instructions for completing the questionnaire are clear;
- Make sure that the subject matter of the question is easily identifiable; and
- Avoid sensitive or embarrassing issues, or at least approach them with necessary care.

Denscombe (2007: 164) also adds that it is equally important to avoid the following when constructing a questionnaire:

- Do not make unwarranted presumptions.
- Avoid phrases which might cause offence to the respondent.

The advantages and disadvantages were taken into consideration when designing and administering the questionnaire. The type of question also required careful attention. There are two types of question, namely, open ended and close ended questions.

4.10.2 Types of Questions

4.10.2.1 Open Ended Questions

Open-ended questions allow respondents to provide responses to questions in their own words. Neuman (2000: 515) emphasizes this and states that it is a type of survey research question in which respondents are free to offer any answer they wish to the question. Therefore, information obtained through open ended questions can provide rich detail to the issue being investigated.

Open-ended questions are useful where the issue being investigated is new or relatively unknown to the researcher as the responses generate a spectrum of responses (Delport in de Vos 2002: 179). According to O'Sullivan & Rassel (in Nzimakwe 2005: 213-214), researchers ask open-ended questions for at least five reasons:

- They help a researcher identify the range of possible responses;
- They avoid biases that a list of responses can introduce;
- They yield rich, detailed comments;
- They give respondents a chance to elaborate on their answers; and
- Respondents can more easily answer some questions in a few words rather than selecting an answer from a long list of possible responses.

4.10.2.2 Close-Ended Questions

Closed-ended questions provide the respondent with a list of possible answers from which he or she is expected to choose an option that best describes his or her response (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 233). The reliability and validity of closed-ended questions depends on the extent to which the list provided covers all the potential responses.

The advantages of closed ended questions are that:

- it produces results that the data generated can be easily analysed;
- respondents understand the meaning of the questions better;
- they provide better uniformity in responses; and
- the responses are made within the same framework and responses can consequently be compared better with one another (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 233; Delport in de Vos 2002: 180).

Closed questions can usually be answered quickly, allowing the researcher to get a lot of information quickly (Van der Waldt & Doyle 2002: 290).

4.11 MEASUREMENT

For the objectives of this research, the independent variables were determined as responses and perceptions to aspects namely; accountability, the rule of law, transparency, information systems and good governance were used. Combinations of these are used in the questionnaire designed for this study.

4.11.1 Nominal Scale

The nominal scale, according to Babbie & Mouton (2006: 131) can “offer variables whose attributes have only the characteristics of exhaustiveness”. An example of this is gender, age and category of employment.

4.11.2 Ordinal Scale

Ordinal scale is a measuring scale that orders the values of a variable and allows an investigator to order cases based on their variable value (O'Sullivan & Rassel 1999: 497). A scale involves categorisation. Each object or event observed should be described by one and only one value or category of a scale. Ordinal scales rank a variable's values. According to O'Sullivan & Rassel (1999: 103) they do so without regard to the distance between values. If you rank values but do not determine how far apart they are, you have an ordinal scale. The numbers assigned to the values must be in the same order as the ranking implied by the scale, for example: I-Very Dissatisfied; 2-Dissatisfied; 3-Neutral; 4-Satisfied; 5-Very Satisfied.

The ordinal scale of measurement offers variables which can be logically ranked (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 131). An example here would be in response to the question: How important is effective transport to you? The responses offered would be:

Not very important;

Fairly important;

Very important; and

Most important thing in my life.

4.11.3 Ratio Scale

“Most of the social scientific variables meeting the minimum requirements for interval measures also meet the requirements for ratio measures” (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 133). The difference here is that the starting point is zero. Examples here include age, years employed, and length.

4.12 SCALE CONSTRUCTION

According to Babbie & Mouton (2006: 151) scales offer a mechanism of ensuring greater ordinality in responses. The Likert scale offers the greatest ordinality in responses (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 153). The Likert scale is most likely to be used when the cases can be rated on several items. Likert scales are also called rating scales.

4.12.1 Likert Scale

According to Babbie & Mouton (2006: 154) to develop an index using Likert scale, the analyst should select a set of statements, each of which reflects either positively or negatively on some aspect of the characteristic that he wants to measure. A rating scale is provided for each item with several ranked responses. The dimension is then rated on each item according to the responses provided with numerical values being assigned to each response.

A Likert scale is a scale often used in survey research in which people express attitudes or other responses in terms of several ordinal-level categories (for example, agree, disagree) that are ranked along a continuum (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 154; Neuman 2000: 513). Likert scaling is often used to measure opinions or attitudes of individuals. If it is used in an interview or survey, respondents are asked to indicate on the rating scale the degree to which they agree or disagree with each statement. The agreement scale may have only two choices (Agree - Disagree), or it may have more choices, permitting an indication of the level of agreement or disagreement (Babbie & Mouton 2006: 154; O'Sullivan & Rassel 1999: 298).

Five categories are commonly used:

Rating Value

- 1 - Strongly Disagree
- 2 - Disagree
- 3 - Neutral (Undecided)
- 4 - Agree
- 5 - Strongly Agree

The outcome of using the Likert scale according to Kumar (2005: 150) provides an analysis that is limited to statements such as respondent 'a' has a more positive attitude than respondent 'b'. As a result, whilst the researcher will not be able to conclude the respondent's attitude in numerical terms, it will allow for the rating of a group of individuals in descending or ascending order with respect to their attitudes towards the issues in question.

The Likert scale was used extensively in the design of the questionnaire used for this study as it has the potential to provide opportunity for inferences and descriptions to be made.

4.13 CODING, DATA PROCESSING AND EDITING

Coding is the process of converting raw information or data into another form for analysis. It also means systematically reorganising raw data into a format that is readable (Neuman 2000 506: 314). It enables data to be processed quickly and with fewer errors. Babbie & Mouton (2005: 418) refer to data processing as the act of keying data directly into the computer. Lutabingwa & Auriacombe (2007: 529) refer to this process as the act of preparing the raw data into a computer readable form. Data editing, according to Lubatingwa & Auriacombe (2007: 529) is an important quality control process. Here, they argue, the researcher needs to check "the completeness of the data, identification of errors, and readability of the data".

4.14 DESCRIPTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This research used a pre-coded self administered questionnaire which was carefully constructed by the researcher and amended on the advice of the supervisor, co-supervisor and the statistician to obtain the maximum responses and detailed information pertaining to the topic of the research. The questionnaire was directed to Extension Workers of the South Region of the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs. The questionnaire aimed to survey the extent to which the aims of good food security governance are being achieved amongst Extension Workers in the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.

Questionnaires were issued to all Extension Offices through the district office. The rationale here was to increase the response rate, as attempting to contact each Extension Worker within their Wards would have been a time consuming process, as many of them are based within rural areas governed by rural codes of conduct which require permission from the traditional authorities to gain entry. The questionnaires were administered in the period from November to December 2013. A copy of the questionnaire is contained in the Appendix I of this thesis.

The questionnaire was divided into the following sections:

SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL DATA
SECTION B: FOOD SECURITY
SECTION C: POLICY KNOWLEDGE
SECTION D: PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT
SECTION E: ACCOUNTABILITY AND TRANSPARENCY
SECTION F: POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

A covering letter addressed to the respondents outlined the importance and nature of the study and contained the contact details of the researcher, the supervisor and co supervisor. The covering letter indicated the institutional affiliation of the researcher and was signed by the researcher to ensure the authenticity of the

study and facilitate co-operation from the respondents. The respondents were assured that confidentiality and anonymity would be strictly maintained. Instructions were given on how to complete the questionnaire and respondents were informed that additional space was available for any further information.

4.15 DATA COLLECTION USING PERSONAL INTERVIEWS

An interview involves direct personal contact with the participant who is asked to answer questions relating to the research problem. An interview according to Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2007: 242) is a "purposeful discussion between two or more people". Some of advantages of personal interviews include that they:

- Help the researcher to gather data that is the most valid and reliable in relation to the research question;
- Obtain a high response rate;
- Allow the interviewer to ensure that all items on the questionnaire have been considered;
- Allow the interviewer to ensure that responses are obtained for difficult questions;
- They can be used to obtain responses from respondents who cannot read or write; and
- They allow for misunderstandings and misinterpretations of words or questions to be further explained (Bless & Higson-Smith 2000: 108).

4.15.1 Planning

Leedy & Ormrod (2005: 189) identify several factors that were taken into consideration when planning the interviews for this study, namely:

- Ensure that the interview is set up well in advance;
- The Interview Schedule must be sent to the interviewee in advance;
- Permission must be sought to record the interview;
- The date, time and venue for the interview must be confirmed in writing;

- Be prompt; and
- Follow the schedule as far as possible in the interview.

4.15.2 Conducting an Interview

These advantages and guidelines in planning an interview were used to set up and conduct face-to-face interviews with the District Managers and the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services. The researcher explained the focus of her doctoral thesis to each of the Managers and posed each of the questions in the interview schedule. It is important to note here that the Interview Schedule was e-mailed to each of the managers before the interview in order to give them opportunity to respond fairly to the questions and seek information where necessary.

Each was asked to sign a consent form and was informed that their responses are confidential and that they were free to withdraw from the interview at any stage. Their permission was also sought to record their responses with the use of a data recorder. A report of each interview was compiled within 24 hours of each interview to ensure that as correct an account of the interview would be recorded. The findings are integrated and presented in Chapter Five.

The table that follows indicates the managers approached for interviews, with the details of the dates, times and venue of interviews:

NAME	Position	DATE & TIME
Mr. N. Ncgungama	District Manager: uGu	26 November 2013 Port Shepstone 13h45 – 14h15
Mr. G. Naidoo	District Manager: Ethekwini	28 November 2013 Murchies Passage, Durban 08h00- 08h30
Mr. D. Chetty	District Manager: Umgungundlovu	2December 2012 Allerton 13h45 – 14h15
Mrs N. Mvusi	District Manager: Sisonke	UNAVAILABLE
Mr. K. Moodley	Strategic Services Manager	19 December 2013 Cedara 10h00 – 10h30

4.16 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Statistics are used in the analysis of data to aid in decision-making. A large number of statistical techniques are available for analysing data and it is imperative that the researcher select the correct and appropriate technique which is dependent on the nature of the survey undertaken. Statistics can give researchers additional credibility in terms of the interpretations they draw from the data they collect and thereby adds value to the findings drawn (Lind, Marchal & Mason 2001).

The services of a qualified statistician were utilised to assist in the analysis and presentation of data. However, the overall research undertaking and the findings of the study remains the ownership of the researcher. Two types of statistical methods are important for this study, namely; descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.16.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics is described by Huysamen (1998: 4) as the description and/or summation of the data obtained for a group of individuals. Descriptive statistics therefore provides a description of the information through the summation of quantitative data. Univariate and bivariate data analysis are the two most commonly sets of analyses used for descriptive statistics. Univariate analysis is based upon the measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion. For interval data, the mean is used as a measure of central tendency, and standard deviation is used as a measure of dispersion (Lind, Marchal & Mason 2001: 6). Descriptive statistics provides a mechanism to summarise the results of data collection. As a result, it provides opportunity for effective analysis. In summary, descriptive data analysis allows the researcher to describe the data by examining the distribution of scores on each variable, and by determining whether the scores on different variables are related to each other (Lind *et al.* 2001).

Linear correlation is an associated degree of measure between two interval variables. The level and the direction of any relationship between the perception and expectation variables are therefore described by the correlation coefficient calculated by correlating the two means of the variables (Lind *et al.* 2001: 457–460).

The Pearson's r-value gives an indication as to the strength of the relationship between the variables. Significant relationships are closer to $p < 0.05$ (both positive and negative). The closer the value is to 0, the weaker the relationship.

4.16.2 Measures of Central Tendency

Three types of average, namely, the mean, median and mode are the 'measures of central tendency' (Lutabingwa & Auriacombe 2007: 534). These are used to where quantitative data has been produced, and provides a means of assessing

the common values or average values, known as measures of central tendency (Tredoux & Durrheim 2002: 40).

The choice of a measure of central tendency may be limited by the nature of the measurements involved. If nominal-scale data are involved, the *mode* is the only measure of central tendency which can be used sensibly. With ordinal data the *median* is usually preferred, since it not only takes the frequencies of various categories into account, but also their rank. The *mean* is usually preferred in the case of numerical data. In the case of skewed distributions the *median* may be preferred to the mean. These approaches are discussed below.

4.16.2.1 The Median

The median of a collection of scores is the middlemost score when the scores have been arranged in ascending or descending order (Lutabingwa & Auriacombe 2007: 535). As a result, the median is a kind of average for interval variables. The middle value is when the data are arranged in order of size. Where the set of data has an even number of values, the median is the mean of the two middle values. The median is the mid-point of a range. Calculation of the median is done by placing the values in the data in either ascending or descending rank order and the point which lies in the middle of the range is the median (Lutabingwa & Auriacombe 2007: 535)

4.16.2.2 The Mode

According to Lutabingwa & Auriacombe (2007: 535) the mode of a collection of scores is the score value which has the highest frequency of occurrence. In an ungrouped frequency distribution, the mode is that score value which has the highest frequency. The mode is the value which occurs most frequently (Saunders *et al.* 2007: 352-353). The mode as a measure of central tendency thus identifies the value that is most common. Identification of the mode is thus done by seeing which value among a set occurs most frequently.

4.16.2.3 The Mean

The *mean* (also known as the arithmetic mean or average) is the sum of the scores divided by the number of scores (Lutabingwa & Auriacombe 2007: 535). The mean is an average for interval variables and is often known as the average score in a distribution, which includes all data values in its calculation (Tredoux & Durrheim 2002: 40).

4.16.3 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics is used to make inferences regarding the properties of the population on the basis of the results obtained (Huysamen 1998: 4). Bless & Higson-Smith (2000: 86) describe the process of "generalizing from findings based on the sample of the population" as called statistical inference. Inferential statistics provides a means of testing the hypothesis. The t-test is the most common test for a comparison of the means, by testing whether there is any significant difference between the two variables. Inferential statistical analysis thus allows the researcher to draw conclusions about a population from the sample data.

4.17 VALIDITY, RELIABILITY AND OBJECTIVITY

According to Saunders *et al.* (2007: 367) reliability raises the issue over whether or not the questionnaire will produce consistent findings, if administered at different times, or different conditions, or even different samples. Saunders *et al.* (2007: 367) describe the ability of the questionnaire to measure what you intend to measure as internal validity.

Bulmer & Warwick (1998: 156) describe reliability as the "extent to which a research instrument gives a consistent or reproducible result". The issue of validity according to Bulmer & Warwick (1998: 10) seeks to answer the question, "Does the researcher obtain measurements of what he is trying to measure?"

4.18 RESEARCH ERRORS

According to O'Sullivan & Rassel (1999: 484) errors are inevitable in research and maintain that "errors arise from constraints that force investigators to compromise the quality of their efforts. Errors also arise from a person's or group's point of view, type of knowledge, and degree of ability. The potential for error occurs throughout the research process. Four potential sources of error are: the accuracy and precision of measurements, the generalisability of experiments, the quality of the experimental design, and the interpretation of the practical significance of the findings". When conducting research, researchers must (O'Sullivan & Rassel 1999: 484) disclose their research procedures, subject their work to peer-review, and acknowledge and correct errors. This must be done to reduce the persistence of incorrect knowledge. Full disclosure allows others to scrutinise the research more effectively. Errors may also be found by examining the research documents.

The data cleaning process, as described earlier by Lutabingwa & Auriacombe (2007: 532) is necessary to engage in a data cleaning process after the data has been collected and analysed, in order to detect any errors. Errors in this case refer to bias or inaccuracies in measurement which if detected, can be controlled or eliminated.

Babbie & Mouton (2005: 417) identify several sources of error that occur in social research:

- Vague definitions and faulty hypotheses;
- Inadequate design and planning of the research report;
- Sampling errors;
- Imperfection in the research instrument;
- Interview bias;
- Respondent bias;
- Analyst bias; and
- Researcher bias.

Singleton & Straits (2004: 451-453) point out that research bias is a negative feature of research and should be avoided. Bias has the potential to distort the data or may produce data and resultant information that distorts the real situation. Whilst the personal characteristics of the researcher and the researched may have some impact on the success and/ or failures in the process, it is important that the researcher be mindful of his or her influence. Bless & Higson-Smith (in Dayaram 2010: 206) reiterate this and argue that "throughout the research process, the beliefs of the researchers, their political, religious and racial attitudes and convictions have the potential to play a role and could lead to choosing a particular population, adopting a certain sample, asking or refraining from asking specific questions, deliberately omitting to take into consideration some theories or research findings that contradict the validity of their approach due to bias. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that bias is limited to a minimum and that inconsistencies in research results can be explained after taking into account shortcomings and limitations of the research."

4.19 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter outlined the planning and design of the empirical research undertaken. It provided a rationale for the choice of research instruments, the research design and methodology, the procedure in explaining the objectives of the study, and a description of the target population and how the sample was drawn. This chapter also highlighted the sampling technique employed, the description of questionnaire and how it will be administered. Descriptive and inferential statistics were deemed to be sufficient for the objectives of completing this study. This chapter has focused on the research methodology used in this study. Two methods of research were discussed, namely qualitative and quantitative research. The chapter also looked at the design of the questionnaire structure, namely, open-ended questions and close-ended questions. Sampling, the population, and the use of statistics in the analysis of data were also explained. The chapter acknowledged that when conducting

research there will always be errors or bias that the researcher must endeavour to overcome.

The next Chapter will focus on the analysis and presentation of data. Presentations and interpretations are presented through the use of figures, tables, graphs and charts. The patterns that emerge through this analysis will assist the researcher in giving meaning to the data.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary data for this study was gathered using the interview method and self administered questionnaire as described in the previous Chapter.

The qualitative data collected from the interviews was recorded and summaries made which were combined to form the discussions related to the interviews. Once the quantitative data was gathered using the self-administered questionnaire, the researcher prepared the raw data into a computer readable form through data editing as described in the previous Chapter by Lutabingwa & Auriacombe (2007: 529). This set the data up for scientific analysis, in that it transformed and reduced the data from an unmanageable form into manageable summaries or information (Babbie (2001: 436). The data collected from the responses was then analysed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 under the advice of a Statistician. Once in this form, the data was scientifically analysed in order to reach conclusions.

Several themes have emerged through the analysis in line with the themes of this study, namely; poverty & food security; accountability & transparency; public sector management & governance; and the broad theme of public administration. It was found that whilst Extension Workers are well qualified, they have little policy knowledge and are unable to see the synergy between the legislative frameworks within which they operate, nor the links between their daily functioning with the aim of good food security governance.

This Chapter presents an analysis and interpretation of the data gathered from the respondents in this study. The main findings of the interviews are first discussed through discussions that highlight the main themes of this study. The findings of

the self-administered questionnaire then follow, with the descriptive statistics presented in the form of graphs, cross tabulations and other figures with relevant discussions. Inferential techniques include the use of correlations and chi-square test values; which are interpreted using p-values.

5.2 PRESENTATION OF DATA COLLECTED THROUGH THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interviews with the District Managers and the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services was undertaken in order to gain information from influential, well-informed individuals (Rossman & Rallis 1998: 134). Two semi-structured interview schedules were used for data collection (See Appendix II and Appendix III). Appendix II was used as the basis for the interviews of the District Managers, and Appendix III was used to interview the Provincial Manager: Strategic Support Services. The findings are now presented.

5.2.1 Findings from Interviews with District Managers

Each of the District Managers was contacted telephonically to set up a convenient date, venue and time, and was followed by an e-mail to confirm the details agreed upon. These interviews were centred around a semi-structured schedule of around nine questions that seek to gain the opinions of the District Managers on issues related to good food security governance, as indicated in Appendix II.

Of the four District Heads in the South Region, three were interviewed. An interview was scheduled at the convenience of the District Manager in uBhuhlebezwe. Upon arrival, the researcher was advised that the District Manager had an unforeseen personal circumstance and could not attend. Several further attempts were made to reschedule an interview, but due to personal commitments of the District Manager, this was not possible.

There was no significant difference in the opinions obtained from the District Managers, only slight variations. An account of the responses obtained now follows.

- **What is the Food Security Status of households in your District?**
  All District Managers responded that there is varying circumstances within their districts. As a result, there are both food secure and food insecure households within all districts. The managers indicated that prevalence of food insecurity exist in large pockets of deprivation.
  Given this response, a key for improved public management would be to identify those who require the assistance of the Department through effective targeting and identification of needs.

- **In your opinion, are there sufficient resources to implement the Food Security Strategy with success? Why? What resources are available and how are they been used?**

  Managers indicated that the KZN DAEA sees vegetable production as a key mechanism for intervention in situations of food insecurity.

  Managers indicated whilst there are limited resources, they are attempting to manage the situation as best as they can whilst seeking to achieve the objectives of *Sukume Sake* as a focus of activities. Records are generated at Events where the starter packs are distributed in order to monitor the use of the packs and they actively engage in a process of training subsistence farmers.

  Gaps in delivery are largely around insufficient infrastructure like fencing and irrigation to effectively engage in agriculture activities. Whilst much good work is being done, it was noted in the interviews that education in food security knowledge is lacking amongst the implementers of strategy especially in areas such as food processing.

- **What governance arrangements are there in place for the elements of good food security governance?**

  All managers indicated that whilst food security is the ultimate goal, it forms part of their overall activities to engage in agriculture related activities within their Districts. The distribution of Starter Packs forms a critical part of the food security strategy. In general, each district uses *Sukume Sake* as one of the main delivery tools aimed at food security. A focus on Integrated Service Delivery forms part of this process with the provision of goods and services being made at the point of demand. As a result, there has been partial achievement, in that they are attempting to comply with their mandates as opposed to stimulating bottom-up development.

  Some District Managers made specific mention of Food Security Steering Committees that meet once per month to identify challenges. Through these committees, it was noted, that Extension assistants are tasked with the training of communities in the use of the Starter Packs distributed at events, as is the case in other Districts. Constant checks are conducted to ensure that food security is part of the overall functioning of the department. The researcher finds it necessary to note that the District Manager of Ugu, spoke with passion about his teams' commitment to working together and with other government departments to address the needs of the poor.

  All District heads interviewed indicated that strategic planning through the Annual Performance Plan forms the basis of the governance arrangements. The focus on mandates and functioning in line with the Annual Performance Plan indicates that there is a strict adherence to guidelines for performance, accounting, reporting, and monitoring and evaluation. The concern identified by this study is that it appears that the provincial and national targets are the focus of food security, rather than the real needs of communities.

- **In your opinion do the Extension Workers in your area have sufficient knowledge of the legislative frameworks within which they operate? (Like Section 195, the Bill of Rights, Norms and Standards for Extension Workers). Has there been sufficient training and awareness in this regard?**

  All District Managers indicated that Extension Workers have very limited knowledge on the legislative frameworks such as Section 195, the Bill of Rights and the Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services.

  District Managers noted that Extension Workers are encouraged to focus on effective service delivery with a focus on forward planning. Hence, they are trying to comply with some of the legislative frameworks.

  It is important to note here that planning is a critical part of ensuring that Extension Workers are delivering services and thereby comply with the guidelines for effective service delivery. Identifying challenges, and attending to these should form part of this process (Mikkelsen 1998).

  It was noted that in the interviews that Extension Workers have no policy knowledge about food security per se, as there is no policy. Further they have very limited knowledge of the legislative frameworks largely because they don't use the information related to the legislative frameworks often enough. As a result, they do not have a working knowledge thereof. Extension, as a result, in its traditional form is not the focus of the functions of Extension Workers. There is a focus is on compliance with mandates and towards the key indicators of the Annual Performance Plan.

The lack of the relevant policy knowledge related to governance is linked to the fact that Extension Workers, as the managers indicated, do not engage in pure Extension. Rather, they spend a lot of time with delivery and thus do not necessarily comply with the Norms and Standards because they become absorbed in daily activities. As a result, Extension is being lost between daily routines.

- **What types of training have Extension Workers been exposed to?**
  All managers indicated that those Extension Workers who have been employed for a long period attend refresher courses. This training is provided around new technologies around agriculture and is not related to roles and responsibilities, or policy. The aim of training is thus around keeping abreast of the changes in the field.

  It was noted in one interview that there is no structured attempt to train Extension Workers in policy. Whilst the Extension Recovery programme was aimed at up skilling, the related training focused on training around the scientific aspects of agriculture. Also, there is no Induction programme offered by the Department which has the potential to assist with training or awareness regarding policy knowledge, as extension is very much about people who go beyond merely the delivery of goods and services. It was noted in the interviews that Extension Workers, are orientated towards their responsibilities outlined in the Annual Performance Plan, and that whilst much can be learned on the job, it is not sufficient.

  The KZN DAEA needs to consider the value that can be gained in a brief Induction Programme. It is in this platform, that the main guiding legislative frameworks can be discussed. Further, grooming and succession planning become important exercises to engage in, in order to improve the capacities of Extension Workers, thereby improving governance.

- **What accountability measures are there in place?**
  All District Managers indicated that there are measures to ensure that Extension Workers are carrying out their roles and responsibilities. These, they indicated, revolve around the Annual Performance Plan, from which, targets are set at the beginning of the year for each Extension Worker. The monthly reporting systems are a compulsory part of the monitoring and accounting process. In regards to food security issues, the Food Security Co-ordinators work together to provide these reports which are then forwarded to the Food Security Directorate.

What is interesting about this process is that Extension Workers have no control, and very little input into these processes which revolve around these targets that pre-determine the kinds of actions that they are required to engage in. This reiterates Duvel's (2004: 10) argument that extension programmes are not flexible enough and do not "provide enough variation to the optimum solution".

- **What transparency measures are there in place?**

  Transparency within the KZN DAEA, according to the District Managers interviewed, is focused around the budgeting process. District Managers work with their Local Managers who together plan around the provisions in the budget. Resources are then allocated around the needs of communities within the parameters of the Annual Performance Plan. Opportunities for dialogue towards improved performance are present at this level, with record keeping being a priority as part of complying with the contents of the performance plans.

- **What are the challenges and successes in these processes?**

  It was noted that whilst resources are available they may not be available at the time that they are needed. As a result, they have had to find innovative solutions to this dilemma through the reorganisation of the ways in which they plan and implement. The example that was given is that seeds are often not delivered on time for the planting season. The solution in one District has been to find places to store the seeds given in a particular year, to be kept for use at the correct time in the following year. This kind of planning and foresight needs to be encouraged amongst managers.

  Managers indicated that the poor training of some Extension Workers impacts adversely on some key performance areas. This needs to be addressed by HEIS who need to reassess the content of the Extension curricula.

These challenges, combined with the preoccupation with targets set out in the performance plan, as opposed to the needs of the communities, provides a further challenge in Extension Workers ability to respond to the needs of communities.

- **How do you think that good food security governance amongst Extension Workers can be improved?**

A number of suggestions were made by the managers:

- A food security policy is necessary in order to better guide their actions around food insecurity;
- All Extension Workers should be affiliated to a professional body in order to assist to resolve issues around compliance;
- Extension Workers need to engage in more effective planning in order to ensure that that service delivery standards can be maintained;
- The Department needs to target people who are interested in agriculture instead of distributing seed starter packs at Events;
- The Department needs to start the planning process with the identification of community needs;
- Extension Workers need to adopt more traditional Extension principles as the driving force behind intervention;
- The Department needs to acknowledge that agriculture is not the only solution towards food security, as it is not having the impact that it should;
- The Department needs to adopt an Extension philosophy to guide the actions of all Extension Workers tasked with extension related roles and responsibilities;
- Sustainability of projects needs to be addressed as currently the Department is becoming responsible for entire projects with little or no farmer involvement. This must be addressed as a matter of urgency;
- Reporting and accounting mechanisms need to go beyond financial accounting. Some flexibility needs to be employed in this regard; and
- Events held by MEC not very effective in addressing food insecurity.

These suggestions must be considered as part of a way forward towards improved performance within the KZN DAEA.

An interview was also held with Mr K. L. Moodley who is the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services.

5.2.2 Findings of Interview with Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services

The following is a summary of the discussions held in relation to the questions included in the interview schedule as indicated in Appendix III:

- **What governance arrangements are there in place for the Food Security Strategy?**

The Provincial General Manager indicated that food security forms part of larger mandate of the Department which operates within the ambit of a whole governance structure. These include the Public Finances Management Act, the Strategic Plan and Annual Performance Plan which outline specific targets for performance. Funding for the Department is derived through the equitable share given by government, with the M& E directorate providing oversight in terms of targets by Extension Workers. Each region, has a Chief Directorate to give leadership in regards to the application hereof, with specific governance rules being applied regarding the delivery of goods and services. Each region is required to report, with the Department reporting to Parliament and at national on targets for national agendas. The Department is required to comply with all targets applicable to government. The Smart Digital Pen has been introduced as a mechanism for monitoring and evaluation in order to track and record progress, and to compile and submit reports. Currently, a food security policy is being prepared, and will need to be approved by the Honorable Member of Executive Council, and forms part of a national food security policy and implementation plan currently under discussion.

- **Comment on the successes and failures of these.**

Mr Moodley indicated that there is a need to look at a more structured approach to management of the Digital Pen. In 2013 the focus was about training and making the new technology accessible. The second phase for 2014 is aimed at more aggressive awareness around report analysis. Mr Moodley pointed out that the challenge is that Extension Workers, like most people are not receptive to change. They see changes in monitoring mechanisms as a policing tool rather than as a tool to improve overall performance. Hence, the key is to get local managers to learn how to use the reporting system more effectively and to filter the use of the tool at that level. The rationale here is that once Extension Workers understand how such a monitoring and evaluation tool can assist in their daily activities, it will be used more readily.

- **In your opinion do the Extension Workers have sufficient knowledge of the legislative frameworks within which they operate? (Like Section 195, the Bill of Rights, Norms and Standards for Extension Workers)**

Mr Moodley is of the opinion that Extension Workers have adequate knowledge. He indicated that they have been trained and adequately resourced to carry out their duties. The challenge for Extension Workers, he feels, is to gain a balance between their core functions (extension and advisory services), where profiling and identification of needs should be the bulk of their work; with the requirements and mandates of the Department. The challenge thus is to deal with the tension between what they should be doing versus what they are being tasked to do by the Department.

What is interesting about this, is that the identification of needs of communities is viewed as part of the normal activities of an Extension Worker, whilst Extension Workers, as discussed later, see this process as a challenge in the implementation of projects and programmes.

- **What types of training have Extension Workers been exposed to improve the elements of good food security governance?**

Mr Moodley indicated that Extension Workers do not need basic technical training. Rather, he indicated that they need to change the way that they think about their role in development. He sees creativity in thinking and approaches as key to changing the ways of functioning, with farmer led extension as being one mechanism to stimulate such change. Here, he acknowledged that HEIs need to relook at the ways in which the methods that they teach to encourage them to think creatively.

- **From the departmental perspective what are the major challenges being experienced in achieving good food security governance? And, how do you think that these can be addressed?**

A number of challenges were identified:

- Extension Staff need to understand the principles around their field of practice.
- Outreach programmes need to be introduced in communities.
- Extension Workers need to have their own local programmes, where they take ownership at the local level.
- Extension Workers need to understand that the Department is there for support, and not to be the driver of projects.
- The Client base needs to be identified for effective food security projects. In other words, they need to identify who the safety net should catch.
- Extension Workers need to be prepared to work with primary health care centres, hospitals and schools in order to identify those who are at risk.

Mr Moodley indicated that a number of steps have been taken by the Department to remedy many of the challenges. These include:

- An Extension and Advisory component that now overlooks the activities of Extension Workers, and provides support.

- Extension Workers have been elevated to that of professional thus providing conditions for them to be motivated to perform effectively and efficiently.
- Efforts have been made to help incentivise people for work well done through the annual awards.
- The Honorable Member of Executive Council has provided commitment to support the work done by Extension Workers.

From these interviews it can be surmised that:

- The formalisation of a Food security policy must be a priority.
- Much good work is being done through the efforts of Extension Workers.
- Extension Workers need to better understand their roles and responsibilities within the structures of the Department.
- Extension is a calling and thus needs people committed to the development of others.
- A more effective way of integrating the Identification of needs must be adopted into the normal functioning of Extension Workers.
- The Department needs to consider the implementation of a programme whereby Extension Workers are exposed to the basic roles and responsibilities and guiding principles around their field of practice.
- HEIs must assess whether their curricula is adequately equipping graduates to function as Extension Workers.

5.3 PRESENTATION OF DATA COLLECTION USING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

This section provides a presentation of the data collection using the self administered questionnaire.

5.3.1 The Research Instrument

The research instrument consisted of 57 items, with a level of measurement at a nominal or an ordinal level. The questionnaire was divided into 6 sections which measured various themes as illustrated below:

Section A: Biographical Data

Section B: Food Security

Section C: Policy Knowledge

Section D: Public Sector Management

Section E: Accountability and Transparency

Section F: Policy Implementation

Each section was pre-coded with the assistance of a Statistician.

5.3.2 The Sample and Response Rate

Questionnaires were conducted in November and December 2013. In total, 203 self administered questionnaires were dispatched to all KZN DAEA district offices of the South Region. A total of 141 questionnaires were returned which gave a 69% response rate. Of these, 11 were largely incomplete and did not form part of the findings.

Table 5.1: Response Rate

District	Extension Staff Sample	No of Responses	% Response
uMgungunlovu	51	48	94
eThekwini	48	26	54
Sisonke	39	10	26
Ugu	68	46	68
TOTAL	203	130	64

Source: Researchers Own Calculation

The District Manager of Ugu was the first to respond to the researchers request to conduct the study. The District Manager invited the researcher to the local area managers meeting, where the study was briefly explained and the local managers undertook to assist by distributing the questionnaires to the Extension Workers in their areas and returning the questionnaire to the main district office where they were collected on an agreed date. The local managers made a point of including the Agricultural Scientists and those involved with Veterinary Services. This accounts for the high response rate in this District.

The uMgungunlovu District Manager, who was just as receptive to the request, asked the local managers in his area to assist with the research. Arrangements were then made with the Local managers to distribute the self administered questionnaires to Extension Workers at the tail end of monthly meetings. As a result, the researcher attended the tail end of two Extension Worker meetings in Allerton (Pietermaritzburg) where the research was briefly explained to Extension Workers, who where then welcomed to participate. The Local Managers assisted

in distributing the questionnaire to the Extension Assistants, who do not attend the monthly meetings. This contributed to a high response rate in this District.

For eThekwini, which constituted 20% of the sample, a similar approach was adopted after consulting with the District Manager. The researcher was invited to the monthly meetings in the sub-districts of Umbumbumbulu and Inchanga to speak to Extension Workers and circulate the questionnaires. Agricultural Scientists in this District do not attend the monthly meetings. Upon being contacted and questionnaires being forwarded to them, they chose not to respond. They indicated that food security was not part of their profile; that food insecurity is the work of the Extension Workers; and further that their work was concentrated around commercial farmers and not small scale farmers.

The Sisonke District Manager, upon being contacted, gave permission for the questionnaire to be distributed through the local office in Ubhuhlebezwe. The questionnaires were sent to the local office with the permission letter from Mr Moodley. After two weeks had lapsed, no responses had been returned. The researcher then contacted Extension Workers and Local Managers individually to encourage them to participate. Initially local managers expressed that it was their planting season and that staff could not complete the questionnaire. The researcher discovered that the questionnaires were treated with suspicion, with some respondents later indicating that they thought that the questionnaire was being conducted on behalf of the Cedara office and not independent research. This has adversely impacted on the response rate from this area. It was later revealed that the questionnaire was received at the same time as a massive forensic investigation into the DAEA office in the district (IOL 2014). This accounts for the poor response rate in this District.

5.3.3 Reliability Statistics

The two most important aspects of precision are **reliability** and **validity**. Reliability is computed by taking several measurements on the same subjects. Poor levels of reliability can impact on the precision of a single measurement and reduces the ability to track changes in measurements. Validity is established by comparing the recorded experimental values to the true standard value.

A test was conducted on the results of the questionnaire to establish the level of reliability of the results obtained. Cronbach's Alpha Score Theory was used as the basis of this analysis. The table that follows reflects the Cronbach's Alpha score for all the items that constituted the questionnaire. A reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered as "acceptable".

Table 5.2: Cronbach's Alpha Scores

	Number of Items	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Section B	10 of 10	.781
Section C	2 of 5	.659
Section D: Q25	5 of 5	.946
Section D: Q26	5 of 5	.960
Section E	6 of 6	.715
Section F	3 of 3	.563

Almost all of the sections have a reliability score that exceeds the recommended value of 0.700. This indicates a high (overall) degree of acceptable, consistent

scoring for this research. Section F has a value that is slightly lower than the standard. Primary amongst the reasons for this is that the construct is newly developed and would require further testing.

5.3.4 Factor Analysis

"Factor analysis attempts to identify underlying variables or factors that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables. Factor analysis is often used in data reduction to identify a small number of factors that explain most of the variance that is observed in a much larger number of manifest variables. Factor analysis can also be used to generate hypotheses regarding causal mechanisms or to screen variables for subsequent analysis, for example, to identify co-linearity prior to performing a linear regression analysis" (SPSS, version 21.0). Factor analysis is thus a statistical technique whose main goal is data reduction.

A typical use of factor analysis is in survey research, where a researcher wishes to represent a number of questions with a small number of hypothetical factors. For example, as part of a national survey on political opinions, participants may answer three separate questions regarding environmental policy, reflecting issues at the local, state and national level. Each question, by itself, would be an inadequate measure of attitude towards environmental policy, but *together* they may provide a better measure of the attitude (Tredoux & Durrheim 2002: 289-306). Factor analysis can be used to establish whether the three measures do, in fact, measure the same thing. If so, they can then be combined to create a new variable, a factor score variable that contains a score for each respondent on the factor.

Factor techniques are applicable to a variety of situations. A researcher may want to know if the skills required to be a decathlete are as varied as the ten events, or if a small number of core skills are needed to be successful in a decathlon. You

need not believe that factors actually exist in order to perform a factor analysis, but in practice the factors are usually interpreted, given names, and spoken of as real things. Certain components are divided into finer components. This is explained below in the rotated component matrix (Tredoux & Durrheim 2002: 289-306).

Table 5.3: Factor Analysis Component Matrix of Section B

Section B	Component		
	1	2	3
I have a working knowledge of the Food Security Strategy?	.269	.029	.758
There have been training programmes and/ or workshops offered related to the Food Security Strategy.	-.083	.209	.789
I am familiar with the targets for food security and poverty reduction?	.249	.044	.616
There are sufficient resources (human, technical, financial) available for food security strategy intervention within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.	-.054	.820	.123
The available resources are used effectively in the implementation of food security strategy within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.	.375	.661	.147
The targeted outputs of the Strategy are achieved through interventions.	.590	.503	-.046
The interventions are available to the people who need them most.	.702	.190	.170
The local community makes use of all the services available by the Department.	.760	-.149	.219
The outputs of the intervention meet the needs of the community.	.697	.282	.157
The necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention.	.495	.494	.104

Table 5.4: Factor Analysis Component Matrix of Section C

Section C	Component
	1
Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution.	.864
Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture.	.864

Table 5.5: Factor Analysis Component Matrix of Section D, Question 25

Section D: Q25	Component
	1
Personal development	.882
Maintaining professional ethics	.931
Adhering to rules and guidelines	.884
Performing to specific targets	.931
Responding to community needs	.914

Table 5.6: Factor Analysis Component Matrix of Section D, Question 26

Section D: Q26	Component
	1
Maintaining professional ethics	.927
Efficiency and effectiveness	.939
Accountability	.934
Effective monitoring and evaluation	.931
Adherence to duties and responsibilities	.916

Table 5.7: Factor Analysis Component Matrix of Section E

Section E	Component	
	1	2
Are there any mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of food security strategies?	.677	-.175
Are policy impact indicators used as a guideline in your functioning?	.274	.625
I feel free to report on the positive outcomes of intervention.	.006	.846
I feel free to report on the negative outcomes of interventions.	.428	.280
Are recommendations made for improved intervention included in further project planning and implementation?	.787	.229
I am encouraged to make recommendations for improved intervention.	.778	.240
My recommendations are taken into consideration in further planning and intervention.	.715	.275

Table 5.8: Factor Analysis Component Matrix of Section F

Section F	Component
	1
The efforts of the Department are sufficient for reducing food insecurity in your district.	.870
The projects implemented by the Department are successful in reducing the level of food insecurity of the community?	.829
I feel that I am adequately qualified to carry out the implementation of food security programmes.	.418

With reference to the tables above:

- The principle component analysis was used as the extraction method, and the rotation method was Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. This is an orthogonal rotation method that minimizes the number of variables

that have high loadings on each factor. It provides opportunity to simplify the interpretation of the factors.

- Factor analysis/loading show inter-correlations between variables.
- Items of questions that loaded similarly imply measurement along a similar factor. An examination of the content of items loading at or above 0.5 (and using the higher or highest loading in instances where items cross-loaded at greater than this value) effectively measured along the various components.

It is noted that the variables that constituted sections C, D and F loaded perfectly along one factor. This means that the statements (variables) that constituted this component perfectly measured the component. That is, the component measured what it was meant to measure. Only the variables that constituted Sections B and E split along 3 and 2 sub-themes respectively (as indicated by the colour coding).

5.4 Frequency Summaries

The section that follows provides a presentation of the frequency summaries obtained from the self-administered questionnaire.

5.4.1 SECTION A - Biographical Data

This section presents the frequency summary of the composition of the sample in regards to the biographical characteristics of the respondents. The gender, age, district and numbers of years of employment of the respondents are described.

The Table 5.9 that follows describes the gender distribution by age.

Table 5.9: Gender

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Age Group	18 - 29	Count	4	0	4
		% within Age Group	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	7.7%	0.0%	3.1%
		% of Total	3.1%	0.0%	3.1%
	30 - 49	Count	34	47	81
		% within Age Group	42.0%	58.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	65.4%	60.3%	62.3%
		% of Total	26.2%	36.2%	62.3%
	50 - 59	Count	13	27	40
		% within Age Group	32.5%	67.5%	100.0%
		% within Gender	25.0%	34.6%	30.8%
		% of Total	10.0%	20.8%	30.8%
	60 and above	Count	1	4	5
		% within Age Group	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	1.9%	5.1%	3.8%
		% of Total	0.8%	3.1%	3.8%
Total		Count	52	78	130
		% within Age Group	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%

Within the age category of 18 to 29 years, 100.0% were male. (There were no female respondents in this age group.) Within the category of males (only), 7.7% were between the ages of 18 to 29 years. This category of males between the ages of 18 to 29 years formed 3.1% of the total sample.

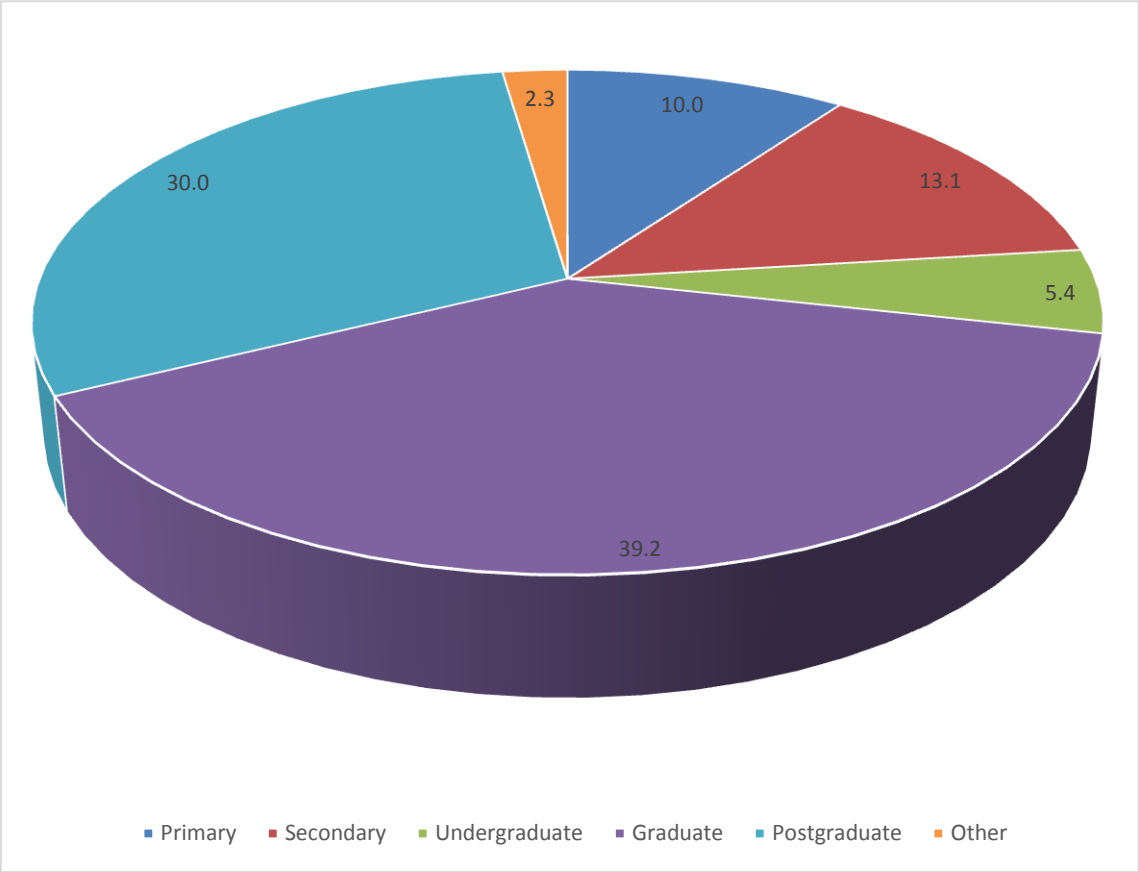
At 62.3%, respondents within the category 30 – 49, were the largest group. Males accounted for 42% of the group, whilst the females accounted for 58%. As percentages of gender, they accounted for 65.4% of females, and 60.3% male respondents.

Respondents within the age category of 50 to 59 constituted 30.8% of the total. Within this category, 67.5% were females and 32.5% were male. At almost one third of the respondents, the large number of Extension Workers in this age category indicates that one third of permanent Extension Workers will be of retirement age over the next ten years. It is thus imperative that the KZN DAEA develop a succession plan in order to ensure that younger staff are employed and mentored by the older/ more experienced staff members. Respondents within the age category 60 and above formed 3.8% of the total.

The ratio of males to females in the sample is 4:6 (40.0%:60.0%). This demonstrates that more females are employed as Extension Workers.

The pie chart indicated in Figure 5.1 that follows indicates the educational qualification of the respondents.

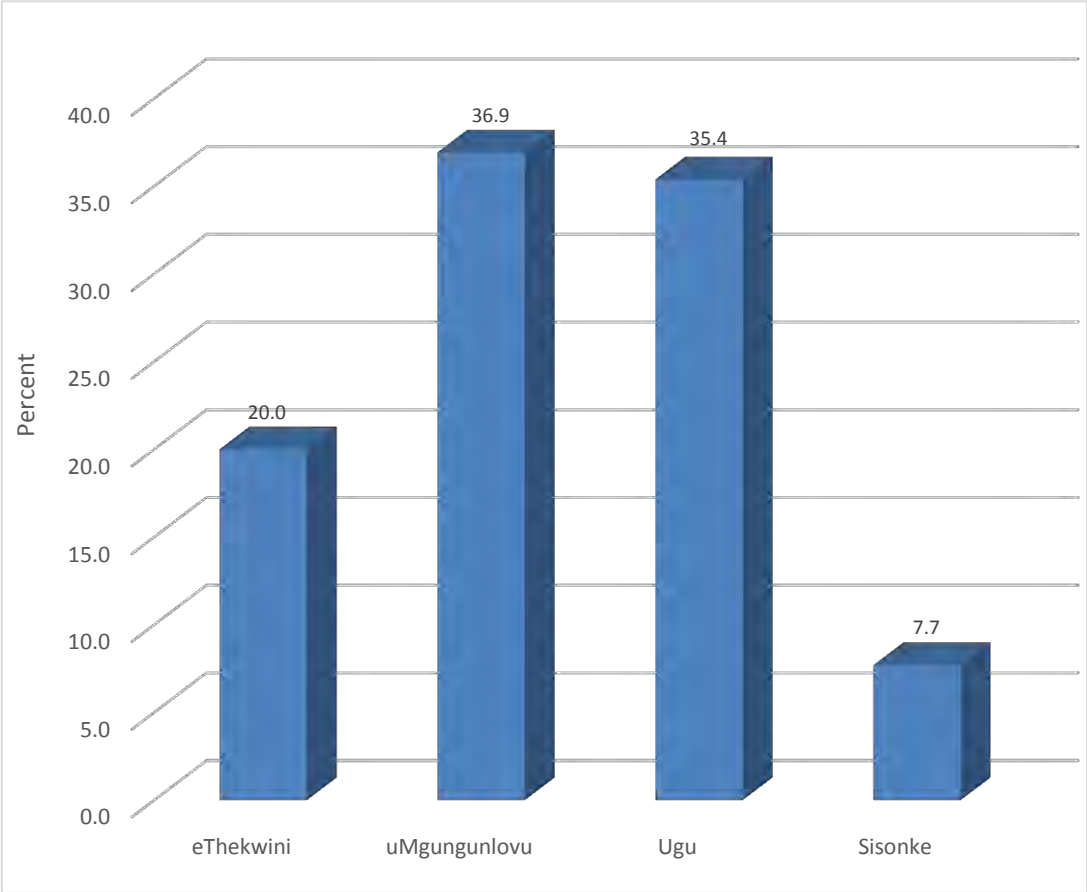
Figure 5.1: Educational Qualifications



Nearly three-quarters of the respondents (74.6%) had a tertiary qualification. About 39.2% have a graduate degree and 30% have post graduate qualifications. This demonstrates that Extension Workers permanently employed by the KZN DAEA are qualified. These statistics reveal that staff are well qualified and bears some indication that they ought to be sufficiently trained to implement the mandates outlined in poverty reduction and food security policy.

Figure 5.2 that follows indicates the districts from which the respondents were drawn.

Figure 5.2: Districts



The figure indicates that similar numbers of respondents were from each of uMgungunlovu (36.9%) and Ugu (35.4%) districts. The smallest grouping of respondents (7.7%) was from Sisonke District.

Table 5.10 that follows gives the distribution of respondents in terms of “How long have you been employed as an Extension Worker? * How long have you been employed within the Department of Agriculture?”

Table 5.10: How long have you been employed as an Extension Worker?

			How long have you been employed within the Department of Agriculture?			Total
			0 – 5 years	5 – 10 years	More than 10 years	
How long have you been employed as an Extension Worker?	0 – 5 years	Count	15	0	0	15
		% of Total	11.5%	0.0%	0.0%	11.5%
	5 – 10 years	Count	0	15	5	20
		% of Total	0.0%	11.5%	3.8%	15.4%
	More than 10 years	Count	0	0	95	95
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	73.1%	73.1%
Total		Count	15	15	100	130
		% of Total	11.5%	11.5%	76.9%	100.0%

Nearly three-quarters of the respondents (73.1%) had been employed by the Department of Agriculture and worked as an Extension worker for more than 10 years. This is a useful statistic as it indicates that the sample is constituted by experienced respondents who are also fairly well qualified. It can be assumed thus that the responses would be from a perspective of some knowledge as a result of this experience. This consistency is borne out with the high levels of reliability obtained earlier.

This result further indicates that these Extension Workers have been with the Department through the restructuring, the setting up of the Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services and have been part of the Extension Recovery Plan.

5.4.2 Section Analysis

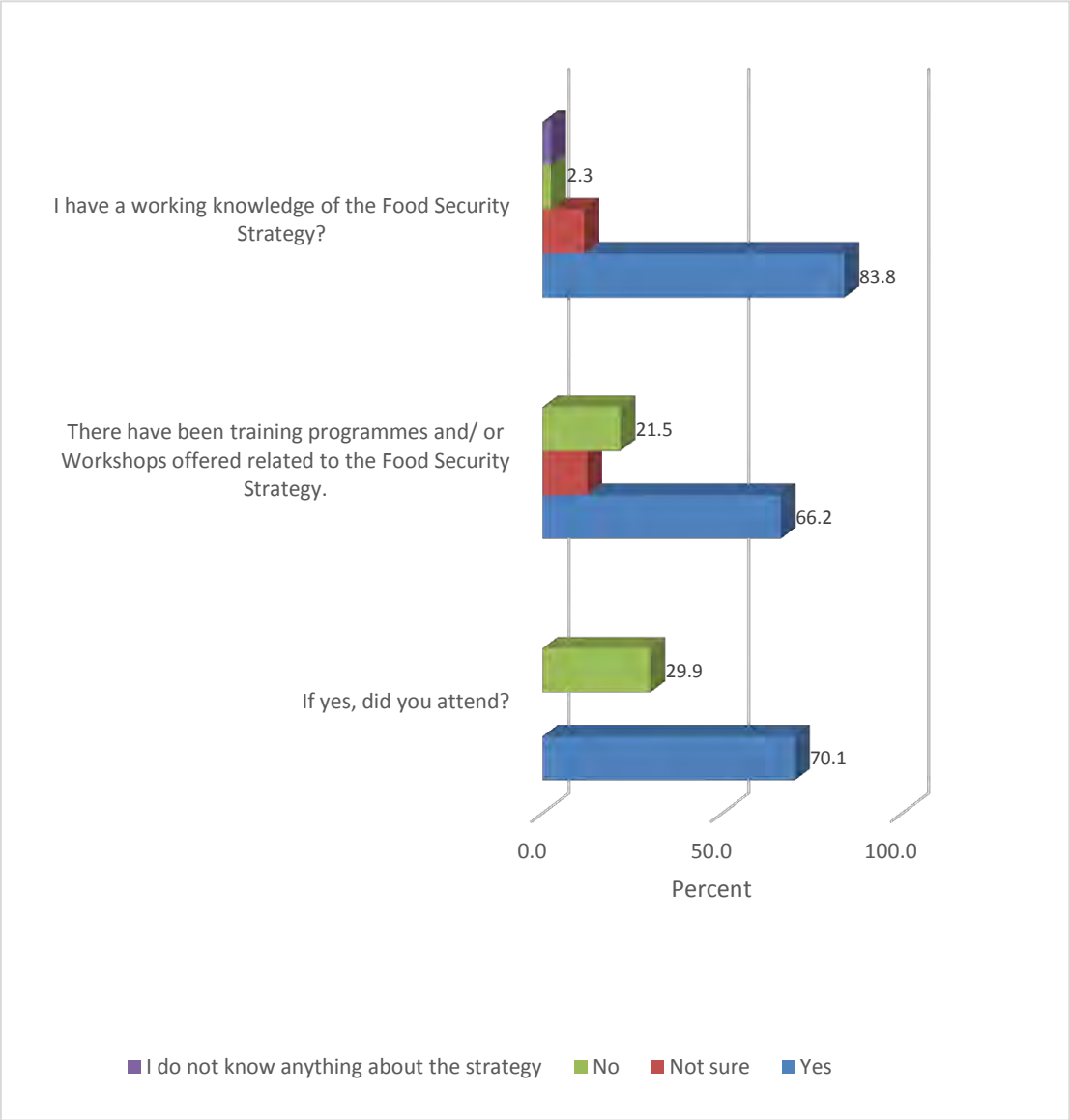
The section that follows analyses the scoring patterns of the respondents per variable per section. Where applicable, levels of disagreement (negative statements) were collapsed to show a single category. A similar procedure was followed for the levels of agreement (positive statements). This is allowed due to the acceptable levels of reliability.

The results are presented using summarised percentages for the variables that constitute each section. Results are then further analysed according to the importance of the statements.

5.4.3 Section B: Food Security

This section deals with policy knowledge. The following figure illustrates the level of awareness of the Food Security Strategy, training programmes and whether they have attended any such programmes.

Figure 5.3: Working Knowledge of IFSS



A large proportion of the respondents (83.8%) indicated that they have a working knowledge of the Food Security Strategy. Approximately two-thirds (66.2%) of the respondents knew about training programmes offered in relation to Food Security, whilst nearly a fifth (21.5%) were not aware. Of those who indicated that they had been aware of the training programmes, 70.1% attended whilst the remainder did not.

To determine whether the differences were significant, chi-square tests were done by variable (statement). The null hypothesis tested the claim that there were no differences in the scoring options per statement. The results are shown below.

Table 5.11: Null Hypothesis

	I have a working knowledge of the Food Security Strategy?	There have been training programmes and/ or Workshops offered related to the Food Security Strategy.	If yes, did you attend?
Chi-Square	243.046	64.677	17.28
Df	3	2	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000

All of the sig. values (p-values) are less than 0.05 (the level of significance), it implies that the distributions were not even. That is, the differences between positive responses and negative responses were significant. It is noted that in all instances except 1 (highlighted later), all of the p-values are less than 0.05. This implies that the scoring patterns were not uniform across the various options per statements (See Appendix V).

The illustration below presents the findings in relation to familiarity with the targets for food security and poverty reduction.

Table 5.12: Familiarity with the Targets for Food Security

I am familiar with the targets for food security and poverty reduction?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	95	73.1	73.1	73.1
	Not sure	22	16.9	16.9	90.0
	No	13	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	130	100.0	100.0	

The majority of respondents (73.1%) indicated that they are familiar with the targets for food security and poverty reduction. About 26.9% were not familiar with the targets or are uncertain. For food security policy to be effectively implemented, all Extension Workers need to have accurate knowledge on the key aspects of the policy frameworks within which they operate if they are to make a significant contribution to development (Zwane 2012: 19).

The KZN DAEA would thus need to have a strategy in place in order to capacitate all Extension Workers with the key targets that should guide their daily, weekly or monthly activities as policy implementation is problematic largely due to a lack of co-ordination and inappropriate skills base to implement policy (Bird, Booth & Pratt 2003: 42). This was further reiterated by Steyn & Labadarios (2003: 347) that a lack of capacity to translate policy mandates into implementation at the local levels is an impediment to successful implementation of programmes. As a result, the core values and principles for public administrators need to be the focus of creating change in an attempt to achieve a “cadre of qualified, experienced and motivated world-class agricultural research and development specialists,

managers and policy makers to lead South Africa towards achieving the long term goals of food security, poverty alleviation…" as identified by the DAFF (RSA, DAFF 2008: 9).

When asked "What is the food security situation in your area?" Extension Workers responded as follows.

Table 5.13: In your opinion what is the situation of households in the area where you are based?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Food secure	45	34.6	34.6	34.6
	Not sure	23	17.7	17.7	52.3
	Food insecure	51	39.2	39.2	91.5
	Other	11	8.5	8.5	100.0
	Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Of the respondents, 39.2% indicated that the households in their area are food insecure. Approximately 34.6% indicated that the households in their area are food secure, with 17.7% indicating that they were not sure, and 8.5% indicating other. These results indicate that the situation of households in the South Region vary from food insecure to food secure. This reiterates the findings of the *General Household Survey: Food Security and Agriculture*, for the food security status of households in KZN (2012). These results reinforce the statements made by the District Managers that there are varying conditions in households. As a result, the strategies employed by the KZN DAEA need to take these varying conditions into consideration for the planning and implementation of food security initiatives. Thus the food security policy currently under discussion needs to perhaps

consider a multi-sectoral approach to food security, where mandates are provided to deal with food insecurity through agriculture and other socio-economic related development efforts.

The figure below is a summary of the scoring patterns of the following statements related to resources and outputs.

Table 5.14: Resources and Outputs

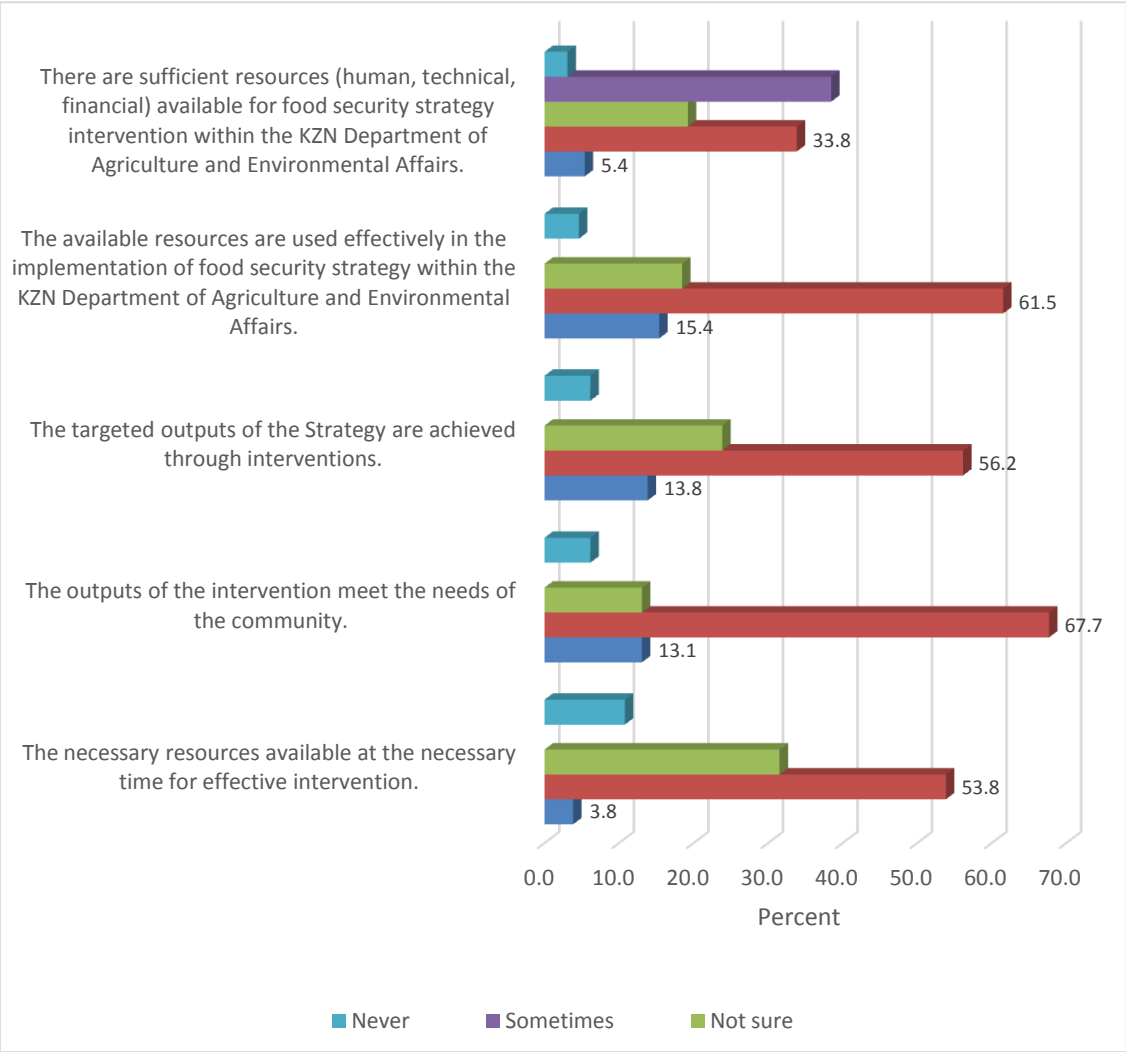
	Always	Most of the time	Not sure	Sometimes	Never
There are sufficient resources (human, technical, financial) available for food security strategy intervention within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.	5.4	33.8	19.2	38.5	3.1
The available resources are used effectively in the implementation of food security strategy within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.	15.4	61.5	18.5		4.6
The targeted outputs of the strategy are achieved through interventions.	13.8	56.2	23.8		6.2
The outputs of the intervention meet the needs of the community.	13.1	67.7	13.1		6.2
The necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention.	3.8	53.8	31.5		10.8

When asked whether there are sufficient resources (human, technical, financial) available for food security strategy intervention within the KZN DAEA, 39.2%

indicated that these are always available. However, 60.8% responded that these are never (41.6%) available or that they are uncertain (19.2%). These results, reiterate the opinions of District Managers that resources are available, but sometimes too late in the season for effective project implementation. The KZN DAEA needs to investigate why resources are being received late.

The figure below displays the Extension Workers perceptions regarding resources and outputs.

Figure 5.4: Resources and Outputs



In response to being asked whether the available resources are used effectively in the implementation of food security strategy within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs, the majority of respondents (76.9%) indicated that they are used effectively. Approximately 18.5% indicated that they are uncertain, and 4.6% indicated never. This information illustrates that Extension Workers overall feel that there is effective management and use of those resources available by the Department.

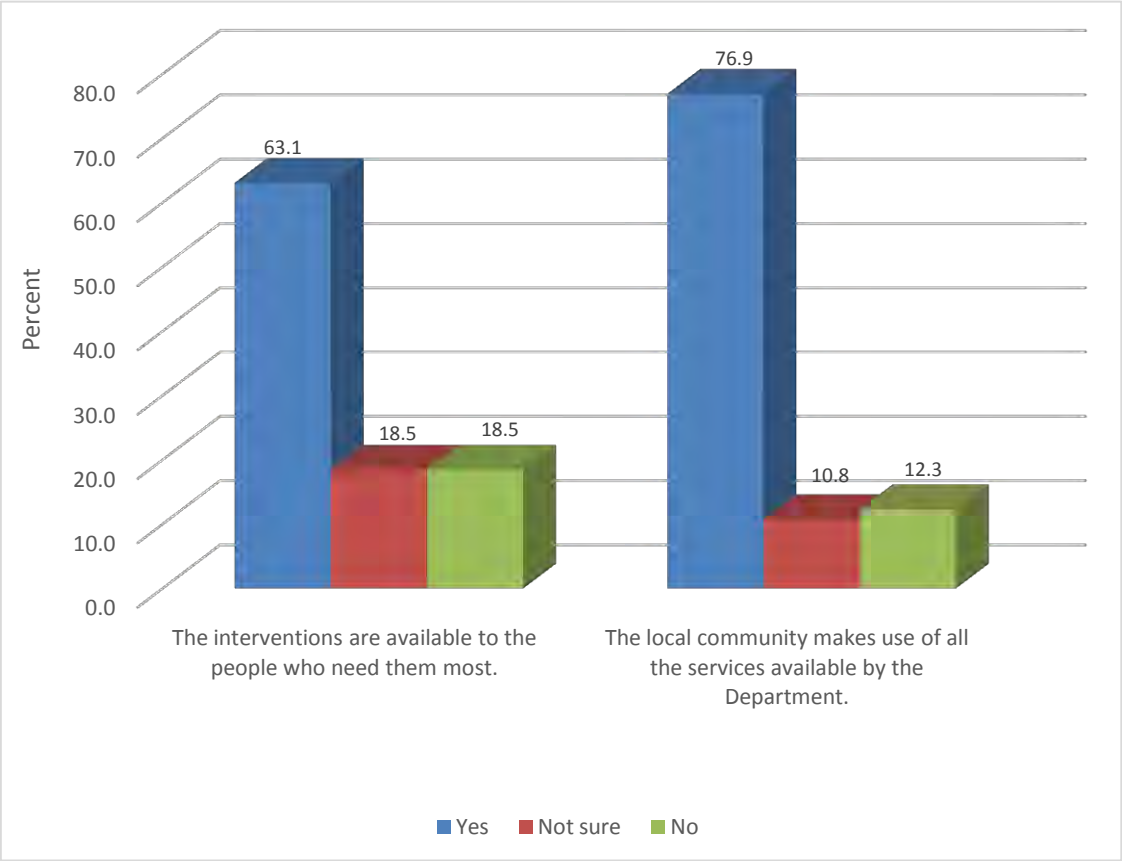
The majority of respondents (70%) indicated that they felt that the targeted outputs of the strategy are being achieved through interventions. Of the remainder, 23.8% were uncertain and 6.2% indicated that the targeted outputs are not achieved. The reason for these results could be attributed to the regular reporting on targets or bureaucratic accountability exercised within the Department, which for Cheema & Rondinelli (2003) is a critical part of the accounting process for any institution.

When asked whether the outputs of the intervention meet the needs of the community, 67.7% responded most of the time; 13.1% indicated always; 13.1% were uncertain and 6.2% indicated that these needs are not met. These results reiterate the overall expressions made by the District Mangers.

When asked whether the necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention, 31.5% were uncertain, 57.6% said most of the time, and 10.8% indicated that these were never available. The negative responses to this question by 42.3% of the respondents could perhaps be linked to the delivery of inputs which appears to be problematic, as discussed earlier.

The figure below relate to the extent to which interventions impact on the communities.

Figure 5.5: Responding to Community Needs



The above illustration indicates that 63.1% of respondents felt that the interventions offered by the Department are available to those people who need them most. 37% indicated that this is not the case or that they are unsure. This high negative response could be attributed to poor targeting, as described by some of the District Managers, and as discussed later in this Chapter.

Of the respondents, 76.9% felt that communities make effective use of the services made available by the KZN DAEA, whilst 23.1% indicated that communities do not make effective use of the services, or were uncertain.

The figure below indicates responses to opinion on whether agriculture projects are enough in reducing food security.

Table 5.15: In your opinion, are agriculture projects enough in reducing food insecurity?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	35	26.9	26.9	26.9
	Not sure	19	14.6	14.6	41.5
	No	76	58.5	58.5	100.0
	Total	130	100.0	100.0	

The responses indicate that the majority (58.5%) of respondents are of the opinion that agricultural projects are not enough for dealing with food security. Approximately 26.9% indicated that they felt that agriculture is enough, whilst 14.6% indicated that they were unsure. Some of the reasons given by respondents for this opinion are that:

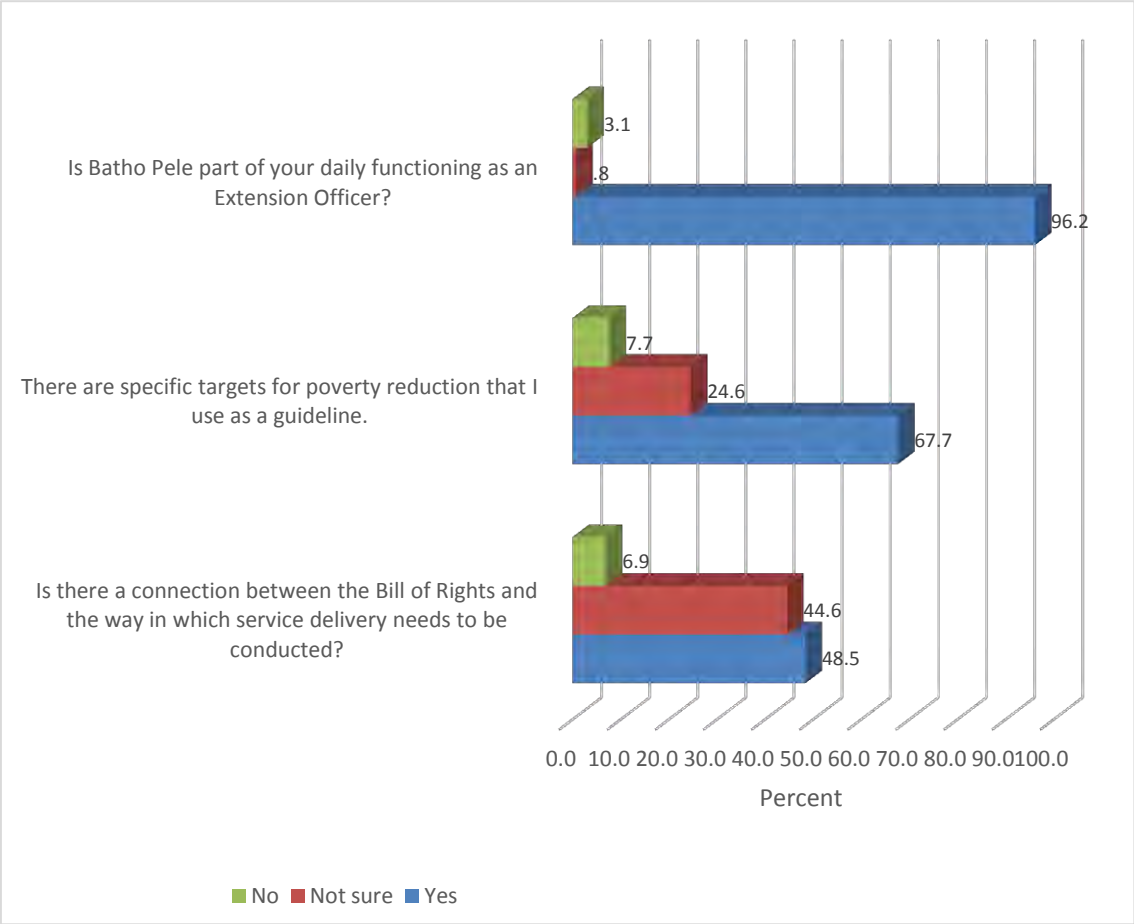
- More bottom-up approaches need to be adopted.
- There is a delay in the delivery of resources.
- There is insufficient funding for all the projects necessary.
- There is ineffective management of resources.
- There is insufficient arable land to effectively engage in agriculture.
- There is poor targeting of poor households.
- Communities experience water shortages making agriculture as a food security strategy very difficult to accomplish.

These responses reiterate the opinions of the District Managers, and must be addressed.

5.4.4 Section C: Policy Knowledge

This section deals with the level of policy knowledge amongst Extension Workers. The figures below are a summary of the statement scores.

Figure 5.6: Policy Knowledge

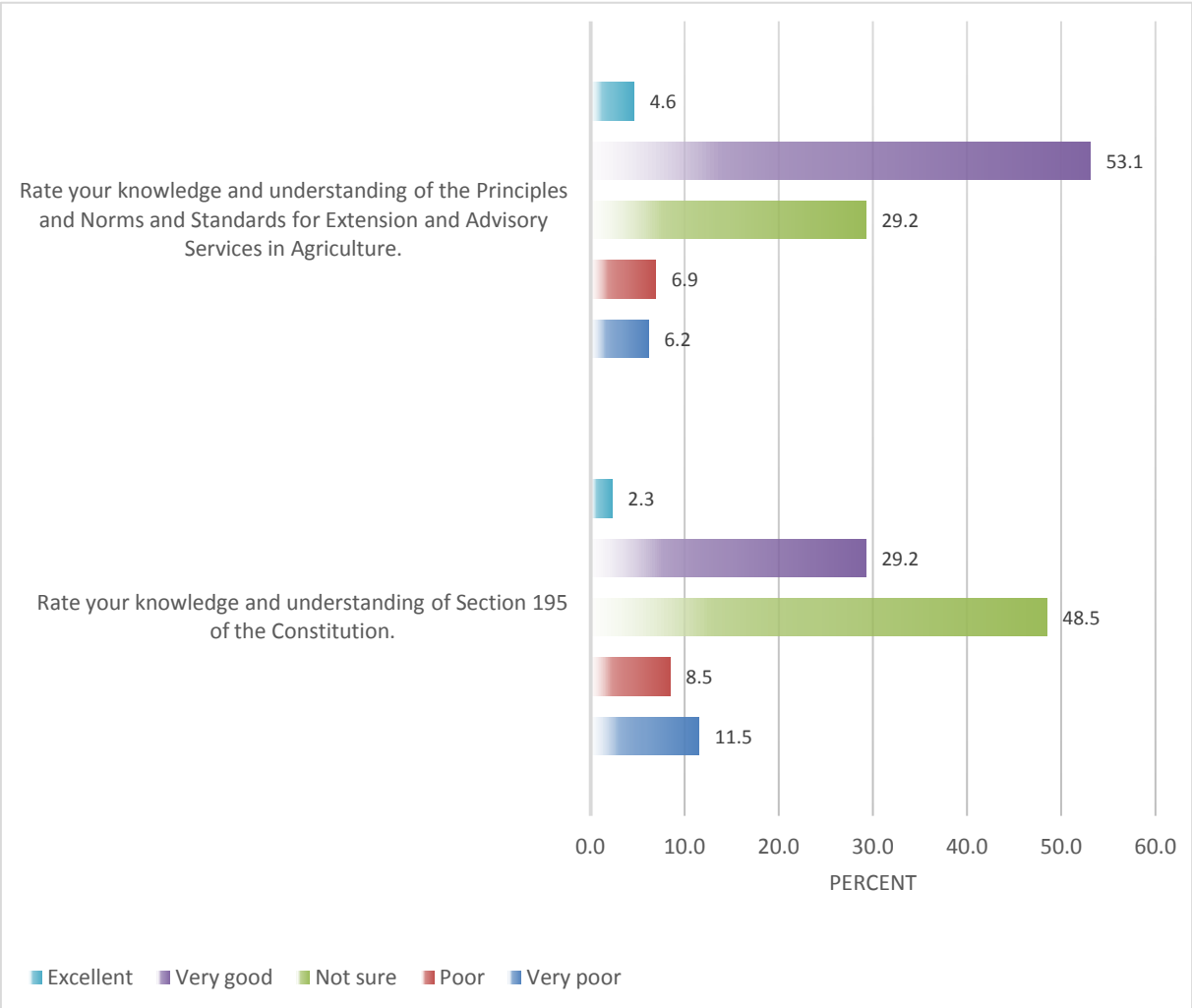


The figure above indicates a decreasing level of agreement and increasing level of uncertainty pattern. Whilst the majority of respondents (96.2%) feel that *Batho Pele* is part of their daily functioning as an Extension Worker, fewer (67.7%) are aware of the targets for poverty reduction that they use as a guideline, and even fewer (48.5%) see a connection between the Bill of Rights and the way in which service delivery needs to be conducted. Half the respondents saw no connection or were uncertain. This is alarming as the Bill of Rights sets the foundation for food security intervention by guaranteeing a person's right to food and identifies

that the government has a responsibility in ensuring this right. The Department thus, as part of its education/ training/ awareness drive needs to highlight these links, as it would help to position the responsibilities attached to being in the employ of government and the role of Extension Workers in the delivery of government mandates.

The figure that follows illustrates the responses to "Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles, Norms and Standards for extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture" and "Rate your understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution".

Figure 5.7: Rate your Policy Knowledge



It is important to note here that the politico-administration dichotomy proposed by Wilson rests on the idea that administration should find the most cost-effective, efficient and effective ways of doing those things that have been determined by the politicians and desired by the populace. Good governance requires that the public administrators have knowledge of the procedures that need to be followed and are able to balance politics and administration. The responses above indicate that the level of positive scores higher than those for negative. The responses to "Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution" has nearly a 50% rating of uncertainty. When asked to rate their knowledge and understanding of the Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services, 53.1% rated themselves as Very Good. Only 4.6% rated themselves as Excellent. Overall, 13.1% rated themselves as poor, whilst an alarming 29.2% rated themselves as unsure. The Norms and Standards provide guiding standards for principles, values, ethical conduct and adherence to professional values in the functioning of the Extension Worker. With 42.3% providing a negative response, there is clearly a need for the Department to consider training in this regard if the professionalization of Extension Workers is to translate into a reality.

The majority of the respondents (48.5%) indicated that they were uncertain about their knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution, with an additional 20% rating themselves as having a Poor/ Very poor understanding of the section. This alarmingly high (a combined 68.5%) negative response, clearly indicates that Extension Workers are largely unaware of the guidelines for all those who form part of the public service.

These results indicate that Extension Workers have a poor knowledge base in the legislative frameworks that guide them. As a result, they have limited ability to contribute to good governance in this regard. Whilst the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services did point out that knowledge hereof comes out of studying public administration in more detail, it nevertheless forms a critical part of the boundaries public servants need to operate within and must be

addressed as an area of concern. Kroukamp (2007: 4) argues that training "will assist government to develop the professional capacities of politicians/public servants and promote institutional change, thereby contributing towards equipping them with the necessary knowledge, skills and competencies to carry out their jobs effectively. These skills and competencies will not only be occupational, technical or professional in nature, but should also relate to problem solving, innovation, decision-making and leadership issues in order to address the changes brought about by transformation." Thus, the correct training at the level of HEIs combined with on the job training can assist in producing an improved skills base amongst Extension Workers as implementers of food security policy.

5.4.5 Section D: Public Sector Management

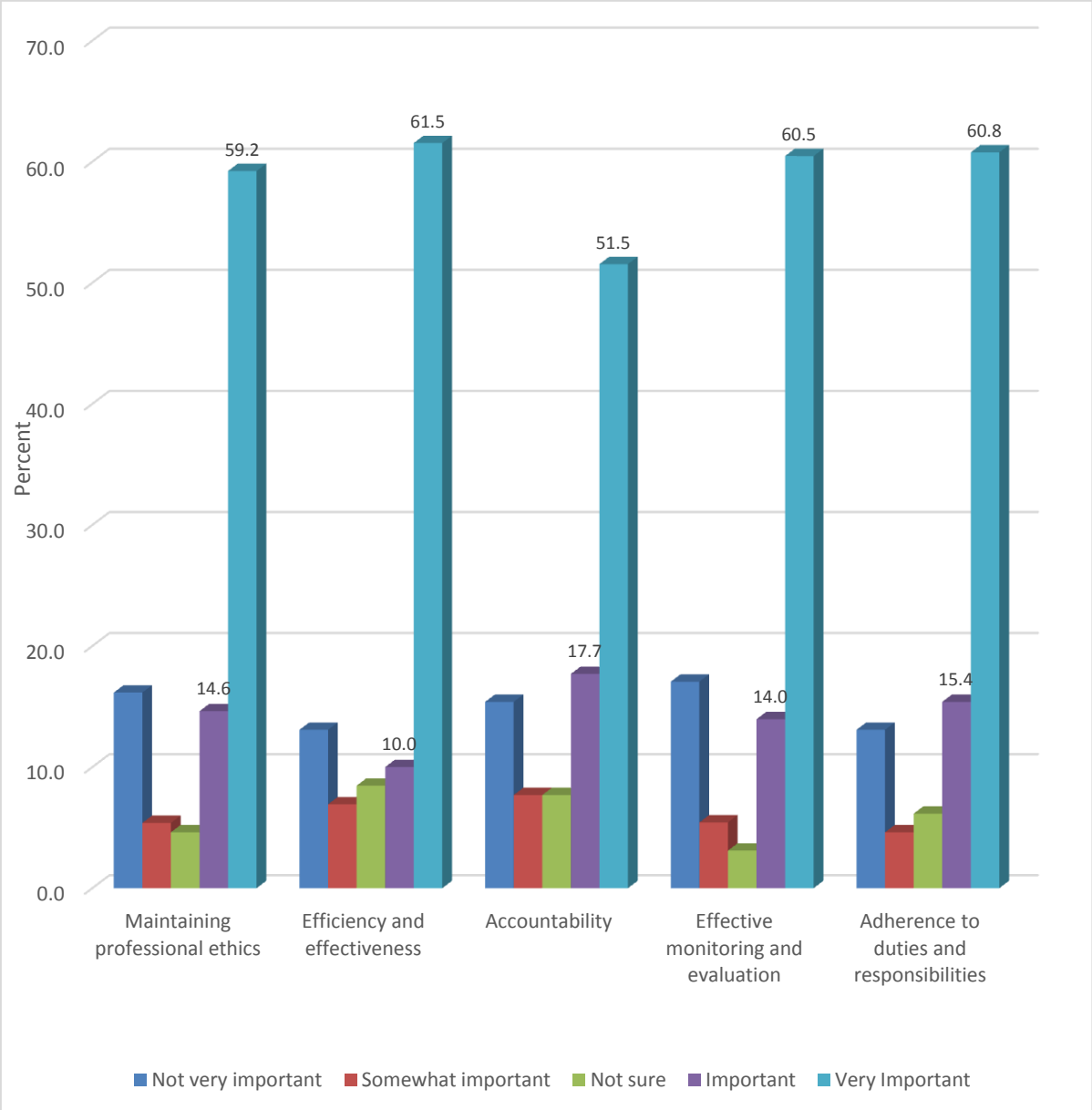
This sections looks at the ratings attributed to issues related to public sector management.

Table 5.16: Public Sector Management

	Most Important	Important	Not sure	Not as important	Least Important
Personal development	60.0	9.2	10.8	7.7	12.3
Maintaining professional ethics	43.8	29.2	7.7	10.0	9.2
Adhering to rules and guidelines	43.1	21.5	15.4	8.5	11.5
Performing to specific targets	58.9	10.9	7.0	10.9	12.4
Responding to community needs	69.2	6.9	1.5	6.9	15.4

On average, 70% of the respondents allocated a degree of importance to each statement. This was obtained by combining Most Important and Important. This indicates that there is some acknowledgement that each of these is critically important in the fulfilment of their roles and responsibilities. However, in allocating a degree of importance to all, perhaps indicates that prioritizing these is problematic in their daily functioning.

Figure 5.8: Public Sector Management



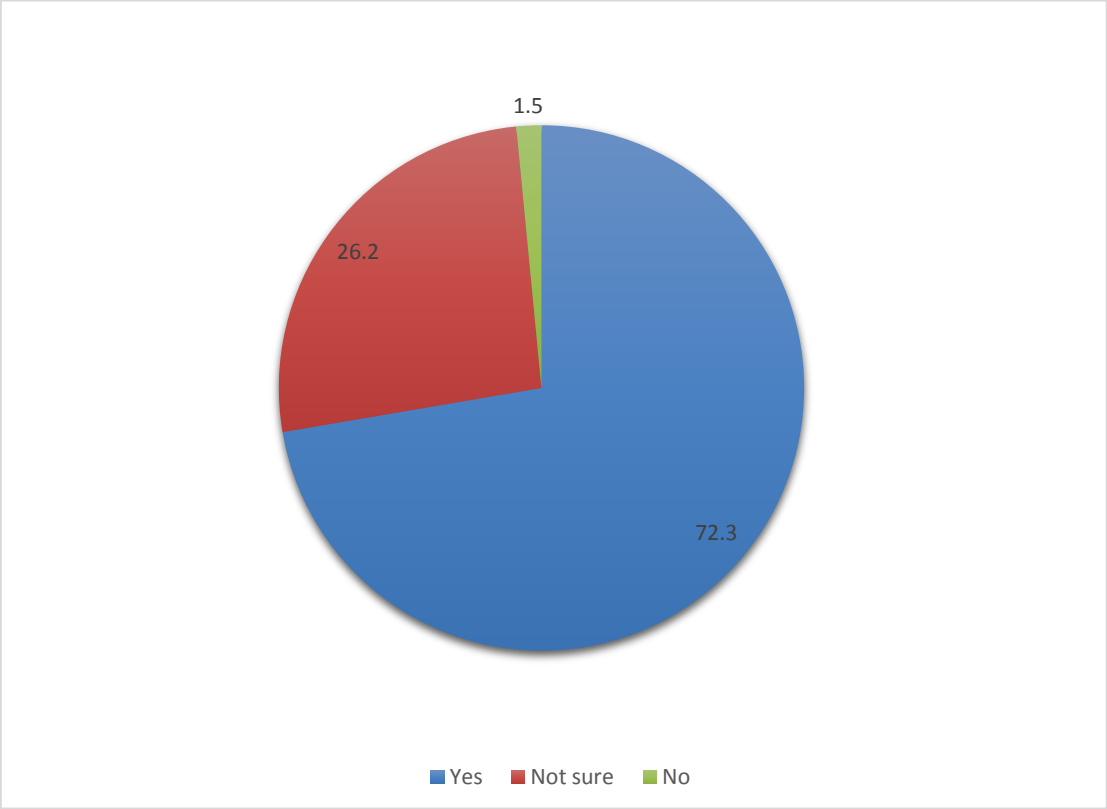
The average level of high importance for each statement is 72%. The majority of respondents attached a degree of importance to each statement. This indicates that overall Extension Workers feel that each of these is critical, but are not willing to rate the level of importance of each.

It is important to note here that each of these statements is linked to the key performance areas for public officials (Cloete 2005: 3) and to the Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services and as a result should be areas in which Extension Workers have clear ideas about the priority of these. The results in reflecting that prioritizing them is problematic supports the argument by Labadarios *et al.* (2011: 891) that clear administrative frameworks are necessary and that training in this regard is critical.

5.4.6 Section E: Accountability and Transparency

This section presents findings on accountability and transparency. Figure 5.9 that follows indicates the responses to the statement "Are there any mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation in the implementing of food security strategies?"

Figure 5.9: Are there any Mechanisms for Monitoring and Evaluating the Implementation of Food Security Strategies?



Nearly three quarters (72.3%) of the respondents indicated that there were mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of food security strategies. This gives the impression that some level of mainstreaming of monitoring and evaluation has taken place which Ijeoma (2012: 353) considers to be critical for policy implementation. Or it could be a reflection that bureaucratic accounting is made possible through the monitoring and evaluation systems in place. Over one quarter (27.7%) of the respondents indicated that they were uncertain. This indicates that despite the weekly or monthly meetings being set up and conducted to track progress (as indicated in the results below), some Extension Workers do not see this as part of a monitoring and evaluation process. This presents a critical gap for training and development opportunity which for

Dassah & Uken (2006: 716) consider to be a critical part of achieving socio-economic development.

The frequency of reporting is shown in the table below.

Table 5.17: Frequency of Reporting

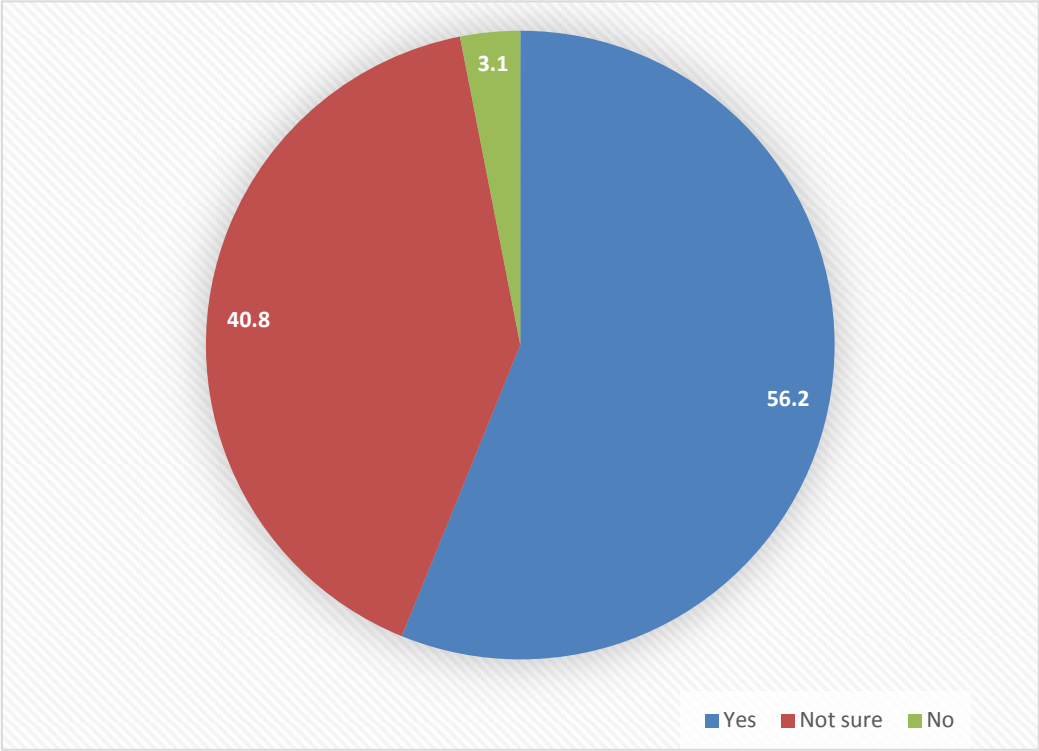
	Frequency	**Percent**
At least once per month	82	63.1
Once every week	18	13.8
At least once per year	5	3.8
I have never provided a report on Food Security Strategy implementation	6	4.6
I do not know what this is	3	2.3
Total	114	87.7
Missing System	16	12.3
Total	130	100.0

At 63.1%, the majority of the respondents indicated that they reported on food security related issues at least once per month. Approximately 13.8% indicated that they reported at least once per week, whilst 6.9% indicated that they either did not know what this was, or that they have never reported on Food Security Strategy implementation. This indicates that whilst some Extension Workers see agricultural intervention as part of food security intervention, others do not view it as being part of their daily roles and responsibilities. Food Security Policy thus needs to depict agriculture and monitoring and evaluation as part of strategy intervention towards to achievement of good governance (IFAD 2013: 1).

When asked whether policy impact indicators are used as a guideline in their daily functioning, 56.2% indicated Yes, whilst 40.8% indicated they were uncertain.

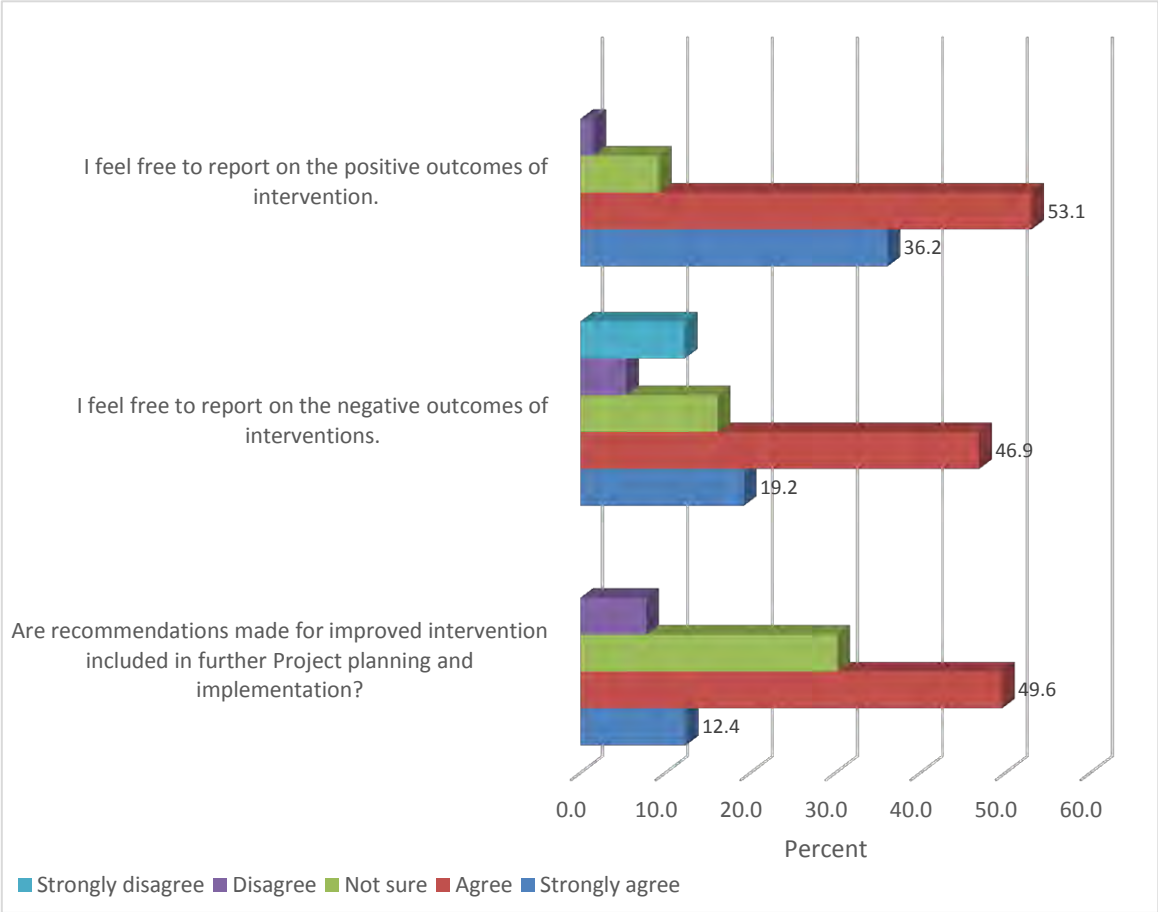
This high level of uncertainty reflects that many Extension Workers whilst having some policy knowledge do not understand the details of the policy. This is problematic in that only a working knowledge of policy can allow implementers of policy to make the kinds of judgements, changes and amendments to implementation when in the field and thus forms a crucial part of being professional within the field (Mafunisa 2001: 325).

Figure 5.10: Are Policy Impact Indicators Used as a Guideline in your Functioning?



The figure below is a summary of the statement scores related to reporting and accounting mechanisms.

Figure 5.11: Reporting and Accounting Scores



Overall, 89.3% felt that they are free to report on the positive outcomes of intervention. Of the respondents, 66.1% felt that they are free to report on the negative outcomes of intervention. These results indicate that the reporting mechanisms are open to all the experiences by Extension Workers. Approximately 62% of respondents felt that their recommendations for improved intervention are included in further planning. This reinforces the idea that the KZN DAEA has mechanisms in place to encourage the reporting of the experiences of Extension Workers and that their recommendations for improved intervention are largely taken into consideration.

The table below indicates the cross tabulation for “How does this reporting take place? * How often do you report on projects you are involved with? * Who do you report to?”

Table 5.18: Cross Tabulations

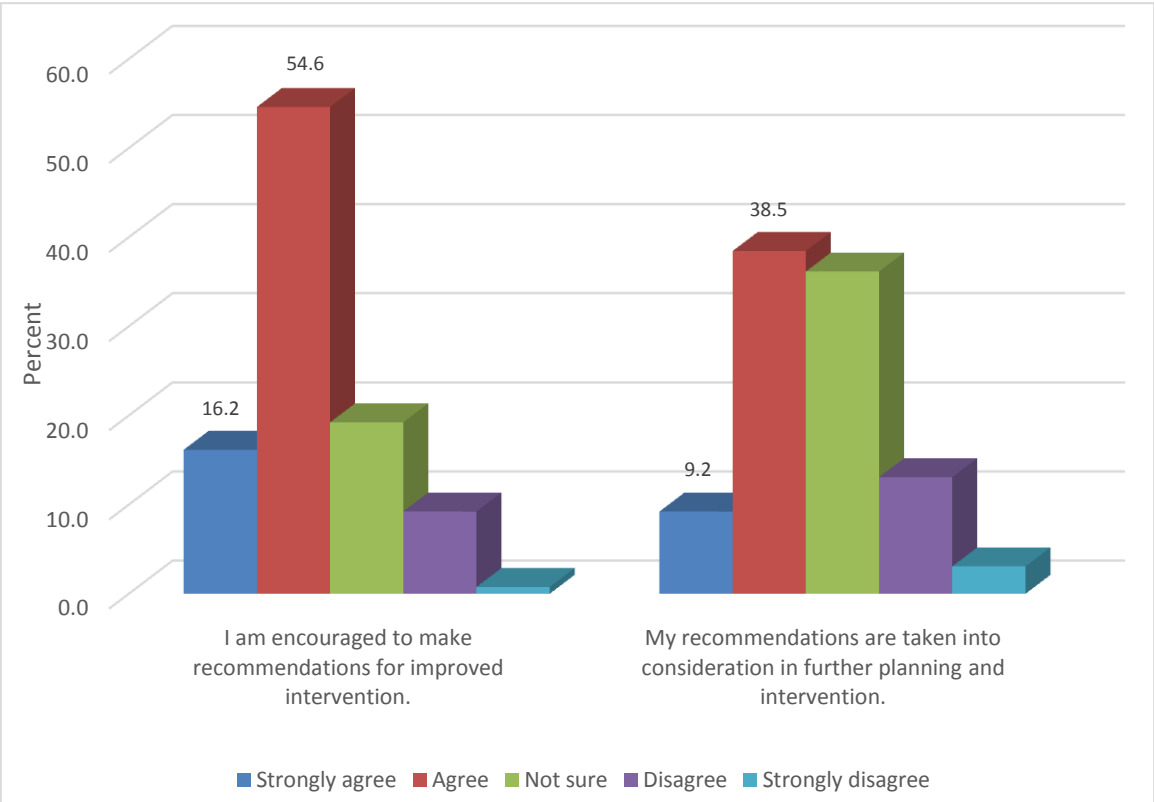
Who do you report to?			How often do you report on projects you are involved with?							Total
			Every day	Once per week	Once per month	Every couple of months	Every day and Once per month	Once per week and Once per month	Once per week, Once per month and Every couple of months	
District Manager	How does this reporting take place? Formal written report	Count	2	10	19		1			32
		% of Total	4.70%	23.30%	44.20%		2.30%			74.40%
	Verbal account	Count	0	0	1		0			1
		% of Total	0.00%	0.00%	2.30%		0.00%			2.30%
	Formal written report and a Verbal account	Count	0	2	8		0			10
		% of Total	0.00%	4.70%	18.60%		0.00%			23.30%
	Total	Count	2	12	28		1			43
		% of Total	4.70%	27.90%	65.10%		2.30%			100.00%
Ward Manager	How does this reporting take place? Formal written report	Count	1	10	22	1		0		34
		% of Total	2.70%	27.00%	59.50%	2.70%		0.00%		91.90%
	Verbal account	Count	0	1	0	0		0		1
		% of Total	0.00%	2.70%	0.00%	0.00%		0.00%		2.70%
	Formal written report and a Verbal account	Count	0	1	0	0		1		2
		% of Total	0.00%	2.70%	0.00%	0.00%		2.70%		5.40%
	Total	Count	1	12	22	1		1		37
		% of Total	2.70%	32.40%	59.50%	2.70%		2.70%		100.00%

Other	How does this reporting take place?	Formal written report	Count	1	10	23	0			1	35
			% of Total	2.10%	21.30%	48.90%	0.00%			2.10%	74.50%
		Verbal account	Count	0	1	2	0			0	3
			% of Total	0.00%	2.10%	4.30%	0.00%			0.00%	6.40%
		Formal written report and a Verbal account	Count	0	3	5	1			0	9
			% of Total	0.00%	6.40%	10.60%	2.10%			0.00%	19.10%
	Total		Count	1	14	30	1			1	47
			% of Total	2.10%	29.80%	63.80%	2.10%			2.10%	100.00%
Total	How does this reporting take place?	Formal written report	Count	4	30	64	1	1	0	1	101
			% of Total	3.10%	23.60%	50.40%	0.80%	0.80%	0.00%	0.80%	79.50%
		Verbal account	Count	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	5
			% of Total	0.00%	1.60%	2.40%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	3.90%
		Formal written report and a Verbal account	Count	0	6	13	1	0	1	0	21
			% of Total	0.00%	4.70%	10.20%	0.80%	0.00%	0.80%	0.00%	16.50%
	Total		Count	4	38	80	2	1	1	1	127
			% of Total	3.10%	29.90%	63.00%	1.60%	0.80%	0.80%	0.80%	100.00%

Table 5.18 gives the reporting structure in terms of time frames, manner and personnel involved. "Who do you report to?" is the only statement that does not have a significant chi-square value. An examination of the frequencies indicates similar frequencies. In all configurations, Extension Workers report at least once per month (63%), with formal written reports being the most frequent response (75%). This reiterates the comments made by the District Managers and Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services in their interviews. Further, it indicates that the guidelines for reporting as included in the Annual Performance Plans are being applied on the ground.

The figure below is a summary of the statements related to recommendations made.

Figure 5.12: Making Recommendations



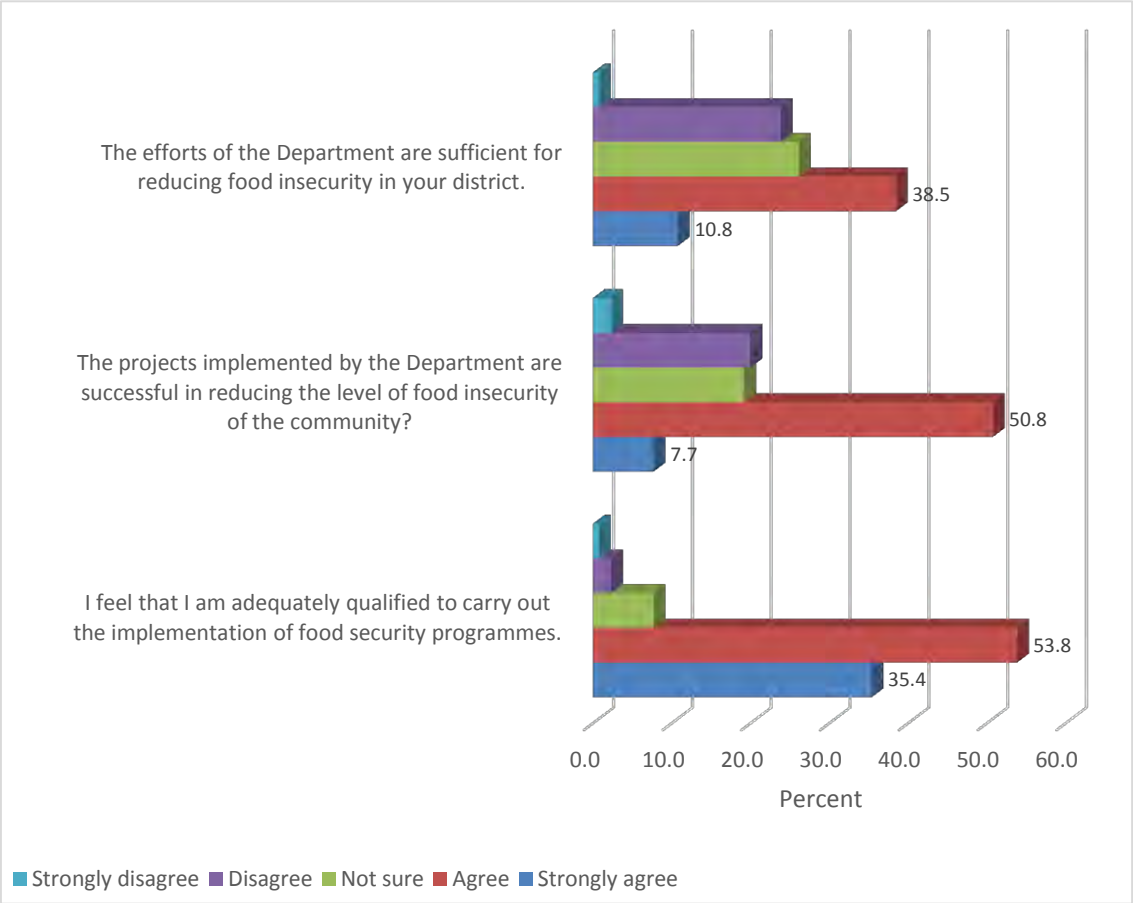
When asked whether they are encouraged to make recommendations for improved intervention, 70.8% agreed, with 29.2% being uncertain or disagreeing. However, only 47.7% of respondents felt that their recommendations are taken into consideration for future planning.

This result could be attributed to the strong planning processes and targets set based upon the Annual Performance Plan. Whilst, flexibility in these is often difficult, District Managers need to find innovative ways of addressing the situation within their areas through the use of both positive and negative feedback from the Extension Workers as it forms a crucial element of being transparent (Diamond 2005: 4).

5.4.7 Section F: Policy Implementation

This section presents the findings related to policy implementation. The figure below indicates the responses to the statements, “The efforts of the Department are sufficient for reducing food insecurity in your District”, “The projects implemented by the Department are successful in reducing the level of food insecurity of the community?”, and “I feel that I am adequately qualified to carry out the implementation of food security programmes.”

Figure 5.13: I feel that I Am Adequately Qualified



There are differing levels of agreement and disagreement here. Only 49.3% of respondents felt that the efforts of the Department are sufficient for reducing food security in their district. The majority thus feel that these efforts are not sufficient. This reiterates the argument that agriculture on its own is not sufficient in reducing food insecurity, but needs to be part of a multi-sectoral approach where existing programmes need to be expanded beyond agriculture (Aliber & Hart 2009: 454). The KZN DAEA at a District level thus needs to use an impact assessment in order to establish what aspects of projects are successful in which areas. As a result of those findings, approaches would need to be designed around these.

Approximately 58.5% of respondents indicated that the projects implemented by the Department are successful in reducing the level of food insecurity in the community.

The majority of respondents (89.2%) felt that they are adequately qualified to carry out the implementation of food security programmes. However, it must be borne in mind that these respondents have poor policy knowledge and begs the question, how effective are they in the achievement of good food security governance if they do not have the relevant policy knowledge.

5.5 Hypothesis Testing

The traditional approach to reporting a result requires a statement of statistical significance. A **p-value** is generated from a **test statistic.** A significant result is indicated with "$p < 0.05$". These values are highlighted with a * in the Table that follows. The Chi-square test was performed to determine whether there was a statistically significant relationship between the variables (rows vs columns). The null hypothesis states that there is no association between the two. The alternate hypothesis indicates that there is an association. The table below summarises the results of the chi-square tests.

Table 5.19: Chi-Square Tests

	Age Group	Gender	Level of Education	District	How long have you been employed within the Department of Agriculture?	How long have you been employed as an Extension Worker?
I have a working knowledge of the Food Security Strategy?	0.852	0.165	0.130	0.531	0.723	0.774
There have been training programmes and/ or Workshops offered related to the Food Security Strategy.	0.500	0.850	0.745	0.056	0.564	0.355
If yes, did you attend?	0.356	0.845	0.605	0.440	1.000	0.997
I am familiar with the targets for food security and poverty reduction?	0.621	0.880	0.287	0.241	0.075	0.204
In your opinion what is the situation of households in the area where you are based?	0.512	0.164	.020*	0.095	0.157	0.104
There are sufficient resources (human, technical, financial) available for food security strategy intervention within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.	.000*	0.692	0.170	0.734	0.430	0.522
The available resources are used effectively in the implementation of food security strategy within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.	0.648	0.396	0.353	0.810	0.341	0.463
The targeted outputs of the Strategy are achieved through interventions.	0.759	0.538	.002*	.003*	0.662	0.463

The interventions are available to the people who need them most.	0.693	0.541	0.186	.047*	.037*	0.095
The local community makes use of all the services available by the Department.	0.054	.009*	.023*	0.145	0.104	0.405
The outputs of the intervention meet the needs of the community.	0.714	0.235	0.078	0.624	0.581	0.904
The necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention.	0.281	0.397	0.735	0.184	.030*	.040*
In your opinion, are agriculture projects enough in reducing food insecurity?	0.904	0.100	0.200	0.459	0.620	0.849
Is *Batho Pele* part of your daily functioning as an Extension Officer?	0.790	0.427	0.931	0.294	0.169	0.160
There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline.	0.748	0.387	.042*	.001*	.039*	0.092
Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution.	0.465	0.051	.027*	.000*	0.521	0.572
Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture.	.036*	.010*	0.064	.000*	0.606	0.477
Is there a connection between the Bill of Rights and the way in which service delivery needs to be conducted?	0.453	0.317	0.586	.000*	0.225	0.167
Personal development	0.235	0.080	0.500	0.133	0.121	.009*
Maintaining professional ethics	0.322	0.179	0.258	.013*	0.195	0.125

Adhering to rules and guidelines	0.545	0.487	0.258	0.701	0.368	0.711
Performing to specific targets	0.512	0.203	0.181	0.419	0.235	0.211
Responding to community needs	.008*	.031*	0.312	0.473	0.334	0.099
Maintaining professional ethics	0.933	0.450	0.405	0.114	0.544	0.788
Efficiency and effectiveness	0.410	0.840	0.115	0.590	0.553	0.548
Accountability	0.306	0.749	0.863	0.347	0.360	0.472
Effective monitoring and evaluation	0.534	0.880	0.513	0.257	0.493	0.618
Adherence to duties and responsibilities	0.585	0.424	0.497	0.449	0.498	0.635
Are there any mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of food security strategies?	0.793	0.141	0.822	.035*	0.319	0.122
If yes, how often are these reported on?	0.153	.013*	0.369	0.680	0.687	0.748
Are policy impact indicators used as a guideline in your functioning?	0.187	0.082	0.791	0.157	0.468	0.465
I feel free to report on the positive outcomes of intervention.	0.594	0.677	0.128	.005*	0.430	0.198
I feel free to report on the negative outcomes of interventions.	0.081	.011*	0.074	.000*	0.076	.037*
Are recommendations made for improved intervention included in further project planning and implementation?	.015*	0.118	0.201	.000*	0.593	0.363
Who do you report to?	.047*	0.418	.008*	.000*	0.246	0.173
How often do you report on projects you are involved	1.000	0.255	0.871	0.143	0.378	0.176

with?						
How does this reporting take place?	0.577	0.112	0.806	0.119	0.117	0.110
I am encouraged to make recommendations for improved intervention.	0.222	0.662	0.094	.000*	0.198	0.454
My recommendations are taken into consideration in further planning and intervention.	0.449	0.252	0.730	.032*	0.902	0.697
The efforts of the Department are sufficient for reducing food insecurity in your district.	0.982	0.812	0.729	0.650	0.060	0.171
The projects implemented by the Department are successful in reducing the level of food insecurity of the community?	0.690	0.776	0.586	0.619	0.958	0.839
I feel that I am adequately qualified to carry out the implementation of food security programmes.	0.329	0.563	0.541	0.331	0.613	0.647

For example: The p-value between “In your opinion what is the situation of households in the area where you are based?” and “Level of Education” is 0.02 (which is less than the significance value of 0.05). This means that there is a significant relationship between the variables. That is, the education level of a respondent does play a role in terms of how household situations are evaluated. The direction of the scores can be obtained from the frequency tables in the appendix.

There are several significant relationships between variables. As part of addressing the objectives of this study, the significant relationships that reflect upon good food security governance, are identified here.

There is a significant relationship between the “Level of Education” of the respondent and how the following were evaluated:

1. “What is the situation of households in the area where you are based?” (0.02)
2. “The targeted outputs of the Strategy are achieved through interventions” (0.002).
3. “The local community makes use of all the services available by the Department” (0.023).
4. “There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline.”(0.042)
5. “Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution” (0.027).

These p values indicate that there is a relationship between the level of education of the respondent and their perceptions about the levels of poverty being experienced, the targets being used for project implementation and gives evidence that the level of education of Extension Workers has impact on their knowledge and understanding of policy frameworks.

There is a significant relationship between the District of the respondent and;

- “The targeted outputs of the Strategy are achieved through interventions” (0.003)
- “The interventions are available to the people who need them most.”(0.047)
- “There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline.” (0.001)
- “Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture.” (0.000)
- “Is there a connection between the Bill of Rights and the way in which service delivery needs to be conducted?” (0.000)
- “Maintaining professional ethics” (0.013)

These significant p values provide evidence that there is a relationship between the District of the respondent and their perceptions about strategy, their policy knowledge and the extent to which they value professional ethics as a key part of their functioning as Extension Workers.

In terms of accounting, and monitoring and evaluation aspects of governance, there are significant relationships between the District of respondents and:

- “Are there any mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of food security strategies?”(0.035);
- “I feel free to report on the positive outcomes of intervention” (0.005);
- “I feel free to report on the negative outcomes of interventions” (0.000);
- “My recommendations are taken into consideration in further planning and intervention” (0.032); and
- “Are recommendations made for improved intervention included in further project planning and implementation?” (0.000).

These relationships suggest that perhaps there are varying management styles in each district resulting in differing perceptions. It also gives the impression that recommendations by Extension Workers for improved practice may not always be taken into consideration in some Districts.

There is a significant relationship between “How long have you been employed within the Department of Agriculture?” and:

- “The interventions are available to the people who need them most”(0.037);
- “The necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention”(0.030); and
- “There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline”(0.039).

These relationships indicate that there is a link between the length of employment and the respondent perception of their impact on the community through resource

availability, the targets being used and the extent to which their efforts are successful.

Significant relationships are identified between “How long have you been employed as an Extension Worker?” and:

- “The necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention” (0.040);
- “Personal development” (0.009); and
- “I feel free to report on the negative outcomes of interventions”(0.037).

These indicate that the length of employment as an Extension Worker does play a role in how respondents perceive the availability of resources, their personal development and the ability to report on the negative outcomes of intervention.

All values without an * (or p-values more than 0.05) do not have a significant relationship.

5.6 BIVARIATE CORRELATIONS

Bivariate correlations were also performed on the (ordinal) data. The results are found in Appendix V. The results indicate the following patterns. Positive values indicate a directly proportional relationship between the variables and a negative value indicates an inverse relationship. All significant relationships are indicated by a * or **. For example, the correlation value between “There have been training programmes and/ or Workshops offered related to the Food Security Strategy.” and “If yes, did you attend?” is 0.635. This is a directly related proportionality. Respondents thus agree that the more training programmes offered would result in greater attendance in these programmes.

Negative values imply an inverse relationship. That is, the variables have an opposite effect on each other. For example, the correlation value between "There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline." and "Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture." is -0.420. Respondents indicate that the more guidelines that exist for poverty reduction, there is a decrease in rating of knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture.

There are a number of positive and negative values. However, for the purposes of highlighting those elements related to the themes of this study, only some of these values will be commented on.

5.6.1 Positive P Values

"I am familiar with the targets for food security" produced positive relationships with:

- "The interventions are available to the people who need them most" (0.413); and
- "There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline." (0.300).

There is a direct relationship between these values. In other words, where respondents attached a higher value to "I am familiar with the targets for food security produced positive relationships", they were more likely to be familiar with the targets for poverty reduction and were of the opinion that interventions were available to the people who needed them most.

“The available resources are used effectively within the KZN DAEA” produced positive values with:

- “Adhering to rules and guidelines” (0.199);
- “Performing to specific targets” (0.221); and
- “Maintaining professional ethics” (0.199).

These positive values indicate that respondents, who felt that the KZN DAEA use resources effectively, also felt that adherence to rules, performing to targets, and maintaining professional ethics are an important part of their daily functioning.

“There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline” produced a positive value with “Rate your knowledge of the norms and standards” (0.429). This relationship indicates that there is a direct relationship between those respondents who use specific targets and their rating of their knowledge of the Norms and Standards.

Overall, there are direct relationships between respondents who feel that they have adequate knowledge of the legislative frameworks, and their choices regarding reporting, making recommendations, and their perceptions of their impact as Extension Workers. Respondents who feel that they are free to report on both positive and negative outcomes of intervention were more likely to have a higher rating for their policy knowledge.

5.6.2 Negative P Values

There is a inverse relationship between, “Is *Batho Pele* part of your daily functioning as an Extension Worker?” and “Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture.” (-0.173). This indicates that the more *Batho Pele* becomes part of their daily functioning, there is a decreasing rating for the

respondents' knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture. It is an unusual result, as *Batho Pele* aims at improving service delivery, and as a result requires public servants to be more aware of the mandates within which they operate.

The p value for "Is there a connection between the Bill of Rights and the way in which service delivery needs to be conducted?" and "Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture" is -0.429. This result suggests that Extension Workers do not understand these critical connections between the legislative frameworks and the guiding principles for Extension Workers. This needs to be addressed if any real impact is to be made into food insecurity within the province.

The Bivariate value for "Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution." and "Professional ethics" is -0.376. This indicates that there is an inverse relationship between these variables. Hence an increased rating by the respondents of their knowledge and understanding of Section 195 produced a decreasing rating on professional ethics. This is interesting as it clearly shows that there is a poor understanding of the contents of Section 195 and the implications for maintaining professional ethics amongst all public administrators within this section of the Constitution.

Similar inverse relationships are noted between:

- "I have a working knowledge of the food security strategy" and "Rate your knowledge of the Norms and Principles for Extension and Advisory services" (-0.285);
- "Is *Batho Pele* part of your daily functioning as an Extension Worker?" and "Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution (-0.200)";

- “There are specific resources available” with “Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution”(-0.186);
- “Rate your understanding of the Norms and Standards” with “Maintaining professional ethics” (-0.196); and
- “Adhering to rules and guidelines” and “Accountability” (-0.205).

These inverse relationships present an opportunity for intervention and influence the recommendations made in Chapter Six.

5.7 Conclusion

Chapter 5 provided a presentation of the empirical findings through the analysis of data gathered from the interviews and questionnaires. The data gathered was analysed through the use of SPSS and was presented through the use of bar charts, tables and graphs, which were interpreted and supported through reference to relevant literature. Chi-square, Cronbach’s Alpha and Bivariate correlations were used for the statistical analysis. The analysis proved that the empirical study was relevant to the research being undertaken, with several significant findings emerging.

The next Chapter focuses on the conclusions and recommendations emanating from both the literature review and the empirical study.

CHAPTER SIX: GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This study was designed to address the extent of good food security governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN through a public administration perspective. The main aim was to contribute towards identifying mechanisms by which the governance arrangements related to the implementation of food security initiatives amongst Extension Workers can be improved.

Chapter One provided a background and overview of the study. It provided a breakdown of the key research objectives of the study and the questions to be answered through the study. Chapter Two contextualized the research through a historical account of the field which took the discussion from public administration to good governance. Further, this chapter examined the meaning and content of good governance through the introduction of the World Bank Framework for good governance. Chapter Three began with an examination of poverty and food security in South Africa. The chapter then explored good food security governance in South Africa through the use of a SWOT analysis. Chapter Four provided a discussion of the research methodology that underpinned the empirical study on Good Food Security Governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN. The chapter explored the rationale for the sample choice and the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methodology. Further, it outlined the basis of the statistical analysis. In Chapter Five the data collected through the empirical study was analysed and presented. This chapter as the concluding chapter presents conclusions and recommendations emanating from the study.

These conclusions form the basis of making sense for the recommendations that follow, which have either practical application, or provide scope for further research into the field of public administration.

6.2 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In line with the main objectives of the study and the key themes identified in Chapter One, namely; public administration and governance; poverty and food security; extension and the role of agriculture; accountability and transparency; and professionalism, the conclusions from the study are now presented.

6.2.1 Conclusions from the Literature Review

- **Public Administration and Governance**

Public administration has and continues to adapt in practice and theory with parallel changes in the nature of what it means to "govern". Public administration constantly attempts to balance the often contradicting views about social problems and the role of government in finding solutions to these problems. Good governance, as the current form of public administration refers to the policies that are made, the levels of effectiveness with which they are carried out; the rules and qualities of systems; the levels of cooperation to enhance legitimacy and effectiveness; and the attention to new processes and public-private arrangements in the attempt to address socio-economic issues. Whilst "good" governance ought to be participatory, consensus-oriented, accountable, transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable, inclusive and follow the rule of law; the issues of corruption and the extent to which governments are able to incorporate the views of minorities and vulnerable groups remain challenges.

The World Bank framework of good governance presented five components of good governance, which whilst individually cannot attain good governance, together, they provide a platform for this achievement. Thus, for public administrators to achieve good governance, the adoption of ethical and professional values, whilst balancing multiple

accountabilities is a key to success. Good governance, as a result, is displayed where government through the functioning of its public administration, is seen as being responsive to the present and future needs of the society.

- **Poverty and Food Security**

The literature review has shown that poverty has steadily increased with the rise of modern industrialization with a parallel decline in subsistence farming. Technological advancements, migration, HIV/AIDS and the prevalence of female-headed households, means that food insecurity, has become a reality for many households, especially in rural areas. The literature has shown that these households inability to access adequate government goods and services contributes to the state of food insecurity and keeps households and individuals trapped in a cycle of poverty.

Poverty reduction through the pursuit of MDG1, requires a positive policy environment, adequate resources, and an institutional framework to guide these processes. In other words, the critical dimensions of good governance are required. The argument has shown that, food security through a good governance lens does not suggest an ideal future state of government, but merely provides an opportunity to understand food security in relation to public administration or governance issues.

The challenge for any food security policy is to examine the extent to which its strategies presented will translate into socio-economic development, poverty reduction and hence lead to the attainment of food for all. Food security policy needs to focus on creating opportunities for the poor to enable them to improve their livelihoods. This, the literature has shown, means that government policy needs to promote development and

needs to ensure that policy implementation leads to access to food, thereby improving their productive potential.

- **Extension and the Role of Agriculture**

Extension is related to agricultural performance, rural development and to the overall education of the community in relation to socio-economic development. The literature has argued that Extension Workers have training in technical knowledge and communication skills that should enable them to effectively communicate knowledge and skills to improve agricultural activities and thus have the potential to contribute to poverty reduction and food security. Extension Workers have been described as having a "comparative advantage" over other professions. This means that they are in a better position to facilitate the socio-economic conditions of food insecure households, especially within rural areas.

The problem identified in the literature, is that whilst agricultural activity has the potential to increase production of food and provide food stability on a national level, agriculture on its own cannot eliminate food insecurity. Hence, the link between Extension and agriculture must be viewed as one option towards achieving some progress in reducing food insecurity. Agriculture, the literature has shown, provides one mechanism for achieving food security through its potential contributions to improving the availability of food, access to purchasing additional foods and overall increasing the incomes of the poor. The success hereof, however, is limited to the ability of the Extension Worker to facilitate such change.

- **Accountability and Transparency**

The literature has shown that the ability of Extension Workers to be successful in the implementation of policy is linked to their ideas of

accountability and transparency. This translates into their performance and the extent to which they are able to adhere to ethical conduct and professionalism. As a result, accountability and transparency are key issues for good governance at the level of policy implementation.

- **Professionalism**

Public sector management provides the basic frameworks within which Extension Workers operate. These include the provision of resources including human, technical, infrastructure and technological. If policy implementation is to be improved, the identification of the successes and challenges in providing adequate public sector management at the level of the managers and on the ground through Extension Workers can assist in identification of ways and means to improve strategy implementation. As a result, the literature has shown that, this is a key challenge for the implementers of policy, especially Extension Workers as the primary policy implementers of policy in the KZN DAEA. Whilst a skilled public service, can assist in achieving good governance and socio-economic development through being adequately trained in legislative frameworks, policy and the areas of knowledge required for policy implementation, they require a complex array of moral resources to exercise discretion. This needs to go beyond accountability and personal responsibility, but requires ethical decision-making, adherence to rules and guidelines, and requires the adoption of professional ethics. The literature did however highlight that, whilst the phenomena of maladministration and corruption gives the impression that codes of conduct and principles are necessary, they do not guarantee that professional ethics will be maintained. As a result, Extension Workers need to have personal characteristics that value learning, cooperation and change.

6.2.2 Conclusions from the Empirical Study

Several conclusions can be drawn from the empirical study in line with the objectives of the study.

Objective 1: What is the existing policy knowledge regarding food security amongst the Extension Workers employed by the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?

Policies are abundant in South Africa. Whilst there is no policy on food security, the mandates given by national government has sought to mobilize Extension Workers towards addressing the issue of food insecurity. A large number of Extension Workers however, do not have sufficient working knowledge on these directives, nor do they see the critical linkages between Constitutional Rights and Guidelines with the work that they do. This disjuncture, or policy gap, contributes to poor implementation of policy, and an impaired ability to effectively contribute to good governance.

Objective 2: What are the success and challenges in public sector management relative to food security in the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs?

This study revealed that whilst access to resources is not the main challenge, it is the coordination of this access to resources when they are required that must be addressed. In terms of human resources, whilst Extension Workers are adequately trained in technological knowledge, they have an inadequate knowledge base in regards to the relevant policy knowledge that ought to be guiding their daily roles and responsibilities. This presents a challenge to the extent to which the legislative frameworks are adhered to and the extent to which the mandates of government can be achieved.

Objective 3: What arrangements are in place to ensure accountability and transparency?

Clear targets are set and regular accounting is the practice of the KZN DAEA. The Annual Performance Plan sets the foundation for all forms of accounting and transparency displayed within the KZN DAEA. These arrangements lack flexibility, but ensure that the targets set out in the Annual Performance Plan are adhered to. The strong need to account through the Annual Performance Plan contributes to financial accounting however, limits the ability of Extension Workers working within local communities, to be flexible and truly address the needs of communities and thus limits their ability to exercise their comparative advantage in addressing socio-economic development. It was also revealed that some farmers, who have expanded production beyond subsistence farming, have become complacent in their approach, requiring the KZN DAEA to be responsible for the farming activities. This needs to be addressed as a matter of urgency. The Department is not the farmer, but should play a role in assisting the farmer.

The study also revealed that there appears to be an inability of the current system to work from a bottom-up approach, where the needs of a community, is a starting point. The results revealed that Extension Workers see that this is problematic. This issue arises out of the tendency for Extension Workers to focus on the targets set through the Annual Performance Plan, and the desire to comply with the mandates identified here. This reiterates the findings from the Interviews, where the Managers acknowledged that the true essence of Extension is being lost amongst this desire to comply. If Extension Workers are to truly account both upwards and downwards, they need to have a better understanding of the relationships between accounting, transparency and being ethical and professional.

Objective 4: Is professionalism part of the daily functioning of Extension Workers?

The study revealed that Extension Workers see accountability, performance and professionalism as being an important part of being an Extension Worker. This, however, is contradicted by their poor policy knowledge, especially where it relates to the Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services. Further their inability to see a connection between their roles and responsibilities as Extension Workers and the Bill of Rights and Section 195 that guides all those employed in the public service is a disabling factor in the pursuit of good food security governance.

The study revealed that Extension Workers are overall adequately trained in Extension, but do not have the necessary knowledge of the basic legislative and guiding frameworks. In a void of understanding the ethical values and standards that are intended to guide Extension Workers, it becomes difficult for them to be truly professional.

Objective 5: What systems do they use to communicate information?

The study revealed that the KZN DAEA communicates its information through a number of mechanisms. These include the use of emails. This study found that scheduled monthly meetings sets the foundation for communicating important information and events to Extension Workers who are widely geographically dispersed. The reporting system is managed through a system of reports, both verbal and written. The introduction of the Digital Pen seeks to improve the monitoring and evaluation system through the production of digital reports that can be used and filtered upwards. Whilst the Department acknowledges that the introduction of new accounting mechanisms are not easily accepted by Extension Workers, they have a phased plan in place to improve the use of the system which it hopes will improve existing practices.

Objective 6: Are the governance arrangements for good food security adequate?

The arrangements for governance by the KZN DAEA are adequate. The problem arises out of the disjuncture between the legislative guidelines, the policy frameworks, the strategic frameworks, with the abilities of the implementers of such policy/ strategy/ mandates to work within the ambit of these. This disjuncture amongst Extension Workers comes largely out of their lack of understanding of the contents of such policies. This creates a disability amongst Extension Workers as implementers of food security related strategies.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section provides a discussion of the recommendations emanating from both the literature review and the empirical study. These recommendations are made in line with the objectives of the study and the key themes.

- **Recommendation One**

  The finalisation of the Food Security Policy currently under discussion must be a priority for the DAFF and the KZN DAEA

  As part of the argument by Ghaus-Pasha (2007) that policy is required to improve the ability of governments to achieve good food security governance, the food security policy currently under discussion must be a priority for the DAFF and South African government if real progress in food insecurity is to be achieved. The policy needs to clearly indicate the roles and responsibilities of those tasked with the implementation thereof and should further indicate clear targets to guide actions, with a commitment of resources to such processes and the education of implementers of such policy.

- **Recommendation Two**

  Public Sector Management amongst Extension Workers must be improved through awareness programmes on policy and legislative frameworks

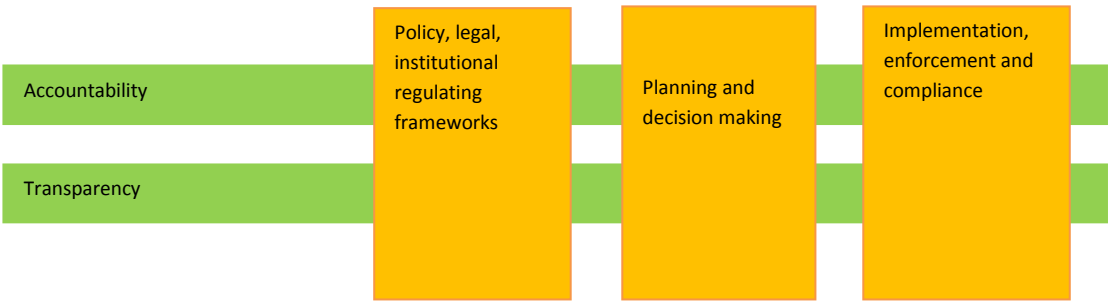
  The overall success in implementation of the Food Security Strategy lies in the ability of Extension Workers as implementers of policy within the KZN DAEA, to have a knowledge and awareness of relevant legislative frameworks, and strategies and their targets. The rationale here is that the directives from this strategy need to be implemented by Extension Workers as implementers of policy directives of the DAFF. It is thus important for the KZN DAEA to consider the adoption of a brief induction programme, or policy awareness workshops, as part of their training programmes, to translate the key areas of the legislative mandates to Extension Workers.

- **Recommendation Three**

  Accountability and transparency amongst Extension Workers must be integrated into all areas of functioning within the KZN DAEA

  In finding ways for public administration to reconcile bureaucracy with democracy public servants need to have a better understanding of government and its relationship with the society it governs. Whilst this begins with good policies, the accounting systems that the implementers of such policies use need to allow them to be able to account upwards (through accounting for the use of resources) and downwards (to the communities they provide relevant goods and services to). With the key goal of good governance in mind, it requires that effective coherence and co-ordination become a focus of their activities. Here, in considering the relationship of accountability and transparency to good governance, the FAO (2011b) argues, that transparency and accountability need to be the underlying factors for policy, legal and institutional regulating frameworks; planning and decision making; and implementation, enforcement and compliance, as indicated in the figure below.

Figure 6.1: Understanding Good Governance through Accountability & Transparency

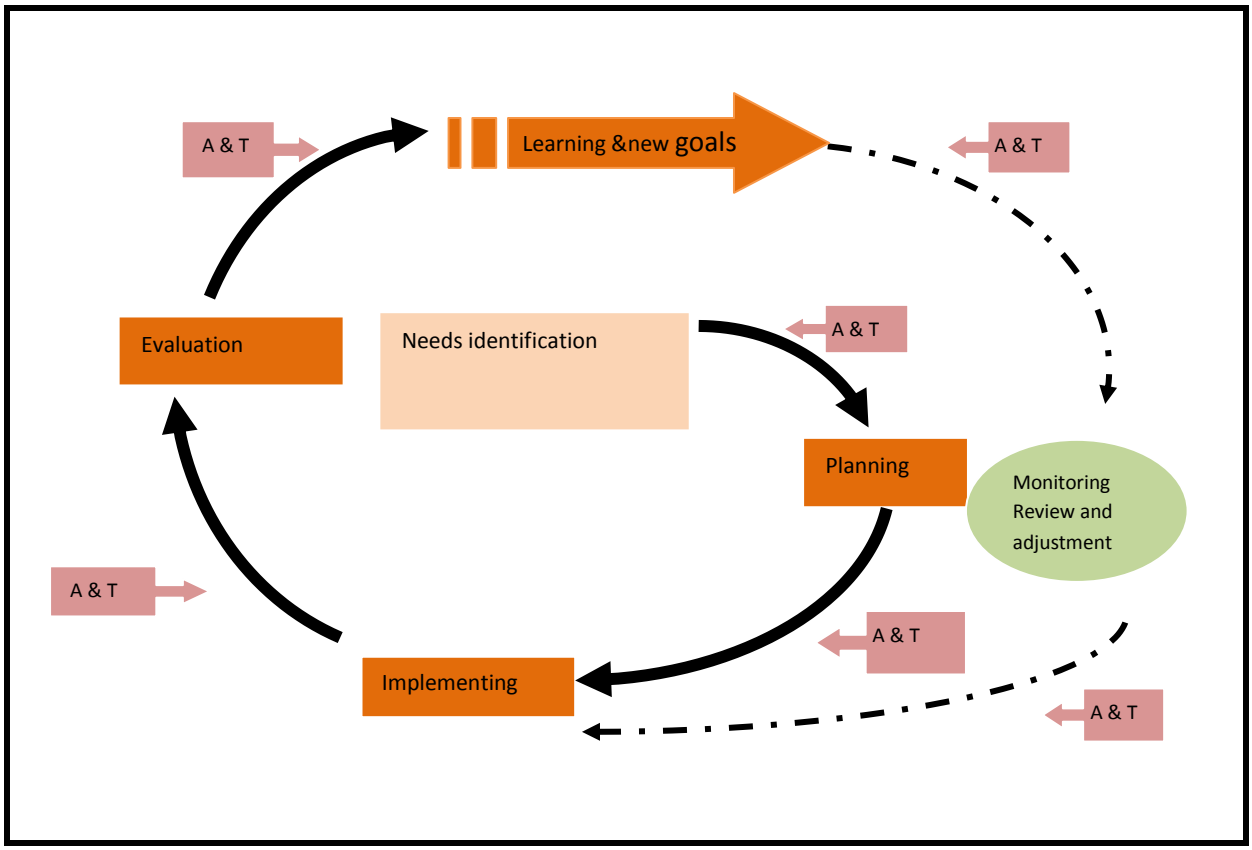


Source: Adapted from FAO (2011b)

This study adopts the argument by the FAO, that through this framework, co-ordination and coherence are **fundamental** to achieving good governance through any policy or strategy aimed at improving the food security status of households.

Once the elements of accountability and transparency have been accepted into their daily functioning as a means for contributing to good governance, the project cycle, as the key planning methodology of government, is a good starting point. Integrating the elements of accountability and transparency at each of these opportunities as identified in the Figure below allows for a consistent referral to the guiding norms, values and principles required of Extension Workers.

Figure 6.2: The Role of Accountability and Transparency in the Project Cycle



Source: adapted from Mikkelsen (1995: 170-171)

If Extension Workers are to improve their effectiveness and efficiency and thereby contribute to the government's good governance record, then they need to include the elements of accountability and transparency in ALL areas of their functioning as public administrators. Figure 6.2 shows accountability and transparency as issues that ought to cut across all aspects of the functioning of the state in relation to food security strategy. Given that policies are in place providing the foundation for an accountable and transparent Extension service, adherence to the guiding norms, values and principles, with corresponding reprimand for non-compliance, would make a significant contribution to good food security governance.

- **Recommendation Four**

  There is a need to mainstream monitoring and evaluation into all areas of functioning amongst Extension Workers

  As part of the National Development Plan to engage with all sectors to understand how they contribute to policy implementing, improving the quality of service delivery and overall transformation of the public service, there has been a call for the use of evidence-based monitoring and evaluation. For Extension Workers, a monitoring and evaluation system that goes beyond financial accounting, but accounting downwards towards communities by responding to their needs must be seen as a critical part of progressing towards improved policy implementation. Mainstreaming monitoring and evaluation into all the activities of the Department can assist in improving implementation of policy, strategies and projects, whilst at the same time has the potential to improve the levels of professionalism displayed by the implementers of such policies, strategies and projects. It is important to note, as argued in the literature, that mainstreaming an issue does not solve all the problems related to it, rather it moves it higher up on the unofficial agendas of meetings and reporting, and as a result, stimulates the real kinds of changes that are necessary for truly transforming the way in which public servants function.

- **Recommendation Five**

  There is a need for HEIs offering Agriculture Extension to work with the KZN DAEA in order to assess the extent to which their programmes and courses are able to enhance policy implementation within the public sector.

  This study has revealed that there is poor policy knowledge amongst Extension Workers in KZN. Part of this is created by an inability of HEIs to keep abreast of the needs created by a transforming public service. Further, as part of the process to up-skill and professionalise Extension, it is necessary for HEIs who train in the ambit of Extension to review their

curricula to ensure that the changing needs of the future employer of their students are being addressed.

The training provided by the KZN DAEA is focused on technological advancements and refresher courses related to agricultural production, rather than on policy. As a result, it is essential that the Department considers ways of introducing opportunities for learning about the legislative frameworks within which the Extension Workers operate. Further, given that there appears to be regular meetings in all Districts, one way of addressing this is by providing policy briefing sessions at these meetings, where Extension Workers are able to become familiar with the policies, and to consider what the implications are for their field of practice.

HEIs offering Agriculture Extension ought to network with each other and government bodies to offer programmes and courses to enhance capacity building within the public sector. Through these partnerships, skills development and professionalism could be enhanced and thus contribute to good food security governance.

Recommendations made in Mohamed Sayeed & Pillay (2012) as part of this study must be considered here.

- "Research, quality assurance and community engagement could help ground Agriculture Extension curricula with contemporary trends and best practices as outlined in policy.
- Representatives of Advisory Boards should include senior practitioners, farming communities, the NGO sector and the private sector who need to play a more rigourous roles in the quality assurance process.
- Service learning, internships or work integrated learning can assist in blending theory with practice.

- Students studying Agriculture Extension should endeavor to undertake community engagement work.
- A multi-disciplinary approach to Agriculture Extension with a focus on policy analysis can improve the skills base and thus the level of professionalism displayed" by Extension Workers.

These can assist in the process of up-skilling Extension Workers as an expansion of the Extension Recovery Programme.

- **Recommendation Six**

  The government must develop a vision for food security that goes beyond agriculture as the solution

  Good governance no doubt is a critical part of socio-economic development and the adherence to the elements of good governance sets the foundation for improved service delivery by the public sector. The attainment of food security is can no longer be viewed as an exclusive agricultural issue. The dimensions of poverty and food insecurity require that government strategy take a broader, more holistic view.

- **Recommendation Seven**

  The implementation of projects and programmes related to food security by Extension Workers must be approached from a more systemic approach wherein the roles and impact of the elements of good governance are considered

  This study has shown that improved governance can contribute to the elimination of poverty by encouraging higher levels of efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services aimed at improving the quality of life of communities. Poverty reduction mechanisms however, need to deal with the multi-faceted nature of human development and thereby is required to support the need for participation in the process of development. In line

with the argument by Nair (2008: 75), this study calls for a more holistic, systemic approach to policy implementation by Extension Workers that recognises the impact of the socio-economic and political environment of development efforts. Whilst the starting point is the policy itself, the implementation thereof must be informed by the Constitutional arrangements and Bill of Rights that enshrine the right to food; the Constitutional guidelines for those in the employ of the public service; and, an Extension framework together with the Norms and Principles for Extension Workers.

- **Recommendation Eight**

  The KZN DAEA needs to adopt an Extension Framework in order to guide the activities of Extension Workers

  Given that extension practices are not flexible enough and limit the ability of Extension Workers to practice extension in its traditional sense, an extension framework needs to be adopted by the Department that promotes the use of participatory approaches. The adoption of an Extension Framework will allow the efforts of Extension Workers to revert to the tradition behind Extension methodologies and can assist in cementing the norms and standards for Extension Workers into their daily activities, and thus contribute to the professionalization of Extension. This in turn will contribute to the extent to which good food security governance can be achieved.

- **Recommendation Nine**

  All Extension Workers must be registered to a professional body in order to enhance the dissemination of the key values, roles and responsibilities of the Extension Worker

  The survey found that the KZN DAEA needs to consider ways of improving the levels of policy knowledge amongst Extension Workers. The rationale here is that policy knowledge has the potential to improve the overall levels

of good governance in the implementation of projects and programmes related to food security. As part of this process, the professionalization of Extension through the registration of all Extension Workers to a professional body can assist in ensuring that the key values, roles and responsibilities of Extension Workers can be more easily assimilated and practiced.

6.4 Report to the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services

At this stage of this study, before concluding, it is important to note that Chapter 5 and the details that precede 6.5 of Chapter 6 were sent to the Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services in a brief report prior to this thesis being examined in fulfilment of the conditions of permission to conduct the study (see Appendix IV). As a result of this communication, it has been agreed that the researcher will present this study after the outcome of the examination process to the management committee of the KZN DAEA. Also, the Department would like to present the findings of this study at the national level. All preconditions for this study being made public have thus been met.

6.5 Conclusion

Food security is a critical issue in South Africa and especially KwaZulu Natal whose population is largely rural. The objective of this study was to identify mechanisms to improve good food security governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN. This study has shown that government needs to benchmark the advantages and disadvantages of institutional arrangements for good food security governance. Furthermore, whilst no one measure can be seen as the solution to the problems, it offers opportunity to move in the direction of poverty reduction and food security. Measures adopted need to be seen as part of a road map to achieving success in socio-economic development, and can only be made possible through a commitment of resources, attitudes and motivations of all participants.

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APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
Public Governance

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Cheryl Mohamed Sayeed (0822009734)

Supervisor: Prof P.S. Reddy (0312607578)

Co-Supervisor: Prof P.Pillay (0219184341)

UKZN Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office: (031 2608350)

Dear Respondent,

I, CHERYL Mohamed Sayeed a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu Natal, am conducting a research project entitled **Good Food Security Governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN: A Public Administration Perspective**. The aim of this study is to answer the question: To what extent are the aims of the Food Security Strategy being achieved within a good governance agenda?

Through your participation I hope to understand the extent of good food security governance and the related challenges in public sector management in KwaZulu Natal. For this to be possible it is important for me to consider your views as Extension Workers.

Your participation in this Project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the Project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey.

Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the University of KwaZulu Natal.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or one of my Supervisors at the numbers listed above. The survey should take you about 20 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely

Cheryl MOHAMED SAYEED

Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

<u>CONSENT – Please ensure that you sign</u>

I……(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the Research Project and I hereby consent/ do not consent to participating in this project. I understand that participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT DATE

……

SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL DATA (please place an X in the correct column)

1. Age Group

18 – 29	1
30 - 49	2
50 – 59	3
60 and above	4

2. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

3. Level of Education

Primary	1
Secondary	2
Undergraduate	3
Graduate	4
Post graduate	5
Other	6

4. District

eThekwini	1
uMgungunlovu	2
Ugu	3
Sisonke	4

5. How long have you been employed within the Department of Agriculture?

0 – 5 years	1
5 – 10 years	2
More than 10 years	3

6. How long have you been employed as an Extension Worker?

0 – 5 years	1
5 – 10 years	2
More than 10 years	3

7. Employment Status

Permanent	**1**
Contract	**2**

SECTION B: FOOD SECURITY

These questions should be answered from your own opinion. Please place an X in the correct column.

8. I have a working knowledge of the Food Security Strategy?

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3
I do not know anything about the strategy	4

9. There have been training programmes and/ or workshops offered related to the Food Security Strategy.

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3

If yes, did you attend?

Yes	1
No	2

10. I am familiar with the targets for food security and poverty reduction?

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3

11. In your opinion what is the situation of households in the area where you are based?

Food secure	1
Not sure	2
Food insecure	3
Other. Please specify.	4

12. There are sufficient resources (human, technical, financial) available for food security strategy intervention within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.

Always	1
Most of the time	2
Not sure	3
Sometimes	4
Never	5

13. The available resources are used effectively in the implementation of food security strategy within the KZN Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs.

Always	1
Most of the time	2
Not sure	3
Never	4

14. The targeted outputs of the Strategy are achieved through interventions.

Always	1
Most of the time	2
Not Sure	3
Never	4

15. The interventions are available to the people who need them most.

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3
Explain, why?	4

16. The local community makes use of all the services available by the Department.

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3

17. The outputs of the intervention meet the needs of the community.

Always	1
Most of the time	2
Not sure	3
Never	4

18. The necessary resources available at the necessary time for effective intervention.

Always	1
Most of the time	2
Not sure	3
Never	4

19. In your opinion, are agriculture projects enough in reducing food insecurity?

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3
Explain, why?	4

SECTION C: POLICY KNOWLEDGE

These questions should be answered from your own opinion. Please place an X in the correct column.

20. Is Batho Pele part of your daily functioning as an Extension Officer?

Yes	1
Not sure what Batho Pele is.	2
No	3
Other. Please specify.	4

21. There are specific targets for poverty reduction that I use as a guideline.

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3
Other. Please specify.	4

22. Rate your knowledge and understanding of Section 195 of the Constitution.

1	2	3	4	5
Very poor	Poor	Not sure	Very good	Excellent

23. Rate your knowledge and understanding of the Principles and Norms and Standards for Extension and Advisory Services in Agriculture.

1	2	3	4	5
Very poor	Poor	Not sure	Very good	Excellent

24. Is there a connection between the Bill of Rights and the way in which service delivery needs to be conducted?

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3
Other. Please specify.	4

SECTION D: PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT

These questions should be answered from your own opinion. Please place an X in the correct column.

25. Rank the following in terms of what you feel are the most important in the carrying out of your duties and responsibilities? (**1 is most important and 5 is least important**).

Personal development	1	2	3	4	5
Maintaining ethical standards	1	2	3	4	5
Adhering to rules and guidelines	1	2	3	4	5
Performing to specific targets	1	2	3	4	5
Responding to community needs	1	2	3	4	5

26. In your opinion, how important is each of the following in the carrying out of your roles and responsibilities? (**1 is not very important and 5 is very important**)

Maintaining professional ethics	1	2	3	4	5
Efficiency and effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5
Accountability	1	2	3	4	5
Effective monitoring and evaluation	1	2	3	4	5
Adherence to duties and responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: ACCOUNTABILITY AND TRANSPARENCY
These questions should be answered from your own opinion. Please place an X in the correct column

27. Are there any mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of food security strategies?

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3

If yes, how often are these reported on?

At least once per month)	1
Once every week	2
At least once per year	3
I have never provided a report on Food security Strategy implementation	4
I do not know what this is.	5

28. Are policy impact indicators used as a guideline in your functioning?

Yes	1
Not sure	2
No	3
Other. Please specify.	4

29. I feel free to report on the **positive outcomes** of intervention.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

30. I feel free to report on the **negative outcomes** of interventions.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

31. Are recommendations made for improved intervention included in further Project planning and implementation?

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

32. Who do you report to?

District Manager	1
Ward manager	2
Other	3

33. How often do you report on projects you are involved with?

Every day	1
Once per week	2
Once per month	3
Every couple of months	4
Once per year	5
Never	6
No response	7

34. How does this reporting take place?

Formal written report	1
Verbal account	2
Net based system	3
Other. Please specify.	4

35. I am encouraged to make recommendations for improved intervention.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

36. My recommendations are taken into consideration in further planning and intervention.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

These questions should be answered from your own opinion. Please place an X in the correct column.

37. The efforts of the Department are sufficient for reducing food insecurity in your district.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

38. The projects implemented by the Department are successful in reducing the level of food insecurity of the community?

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

39. I feel that I am adequately qualified to carry out the implementation of food security programmes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

40. What do you think could assist in improving food security policy implementation?

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

5_____

41. Any further comments

1_____

2_____

3_____

4_____

Thank You

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DISTRICT MANGERS

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
Public Governance

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Cheryl Mohamed Sayeed (0822009734)

Supervisor: Prof P.S. Reddy (0312607578)

Co-Supervisor: Prof P.Pillay (0219184341)

UKZN Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office: (031 2608350)

Dear Respondent,

I, CHERYL Mohamed Sayeed a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu Natal, am conducting a research project entitled **Good Food Security Governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN: A Public Administration Perspective**. The aim of this study is to answer the question: To what extent are the aims of the Food Security Strategy being achieved within a good governance agenda? Through your participation I hope to understand the extent of good food security governance and the related challenges in public sector management in KwaZulu Natal. For this to be possible it is important for me to consider your views as Extension Workers.

Your participation in this Project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the Project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. **Confidentiality and anonymity** of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the University of KwaZulu Natal.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or one of my Supervisors at the numbers listed above. The survey should take you about 20 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely
Cheryl MOHAMED SAYEED
Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

CONSENT TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW– Please ensure that you sign

I……(full names of participant)
hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the Research Project.
I hereby consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded.
I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.
SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT DATE
……

Interview Schedule

District

Date

Start Time

End Time

- What is the Food Security Status of households in your district?
- In your opinion, are there sufficient resources to implement the Food Security Strategy with success? Why? What resources are available and how are they been used?
- What governance arrangements are there in place for the elements of good food security governance?
- In your opinion do the Extension Workers in your area have sufficient knowledge of the legislative frameworks within which they operate? (Like Section 195, the Bill of Rights, Norms and Standards for Extension Workers) .Has there been sufficient training and awareness in this regard?
- What types of training have Extension Workers been exposed to?
- What accountability measures are there in place?
- What transparency measures are there in place?
- What are the challenges and successes in these processes?
- How do you think that good food security governance amongst Extension Workers can be improved?

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PROVINCIAL GENERAL MANGER: STRATEGIC SUPPORT SERVICES

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
Public Governance

PhD Research Project

Researcher: Cheryl Mohamed Sayeed (0822009734)

Supervisor: Prof P.S. Reddy (0312607578)

Co-Supervisor: Prof P.Pillay (0219184341)

UKZN Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Office: (031 2608350)

Dear Respondent,

I, CHERYL Mohamed Sayeed a PhD student at the University of KwaZulu Natal, am conducting a research project entitled **Good Food Security Governance amongst Extension Workers in KZN: A Public Administration Perspective**. The aim of this study is to answer the question: To what extent are the aims of the Food Security Strategy being achieved within a good governance agenda? Through your participation I hope to understand the extent of good food security governance and the related challenges in public sector management in KwaZulu Natal. For this to be possible it is important for me to consider your views as Extension Workers.

Your participation in this Project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the Project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. **Confidentiality and anonymity** of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the University of KwaZulu Natal.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or one of my Supervisors at the numbers listed above. The survey should take you about 20 minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this survey.

Sincerely
Cheryl MOHAMED SAYEED
Investigator's signature _____ Date _____

CONSENT TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW– Please ensure that you sign

I……(full names of participant)
hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the Research Project.
I hereby consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded.
I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT DATE

- ……

Interview Schedule

- **Provincial General Manager: Strategic Support Services**

Date

Start Time

End Time

- What governance arrangements are there in place for the Food Security Strategy?
- Comment on the successes and failures of these?
- In your opinion do the Extension Workers have sufficient knowledge of the legislative frameworks within which they operate? (Like Section 195, the Bill of Rights, Norms and Standards for Extension Workers)
- What types of training have Extension Workers been exposed to improve the elements of good food security governance?
- From the departmental perspective what are the major challenges being experienced in achieving good food security governance? And, how do you think that these can be addressed?

APPENDIX IV: GATE KEEPERS PERMISSION LETTER

agriculture
& environmental affairs
Department:
Agriculture
& Environmental Affairs
PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL

KZN Department of Agriculture & Environmental Affairs
Private Bag X9059, Pietermaritzburg, 3200
Tel: 033 355 9100 | Fax: 033 355 9122
Toll-Free: 0800 000 996
Email: callcentre.agriculture@kzndae.gov.za
Website: www.kzndae.gov.za

9 September 2013

Public Governance Department
University of KwaZulu-Natal (South Africa)
Westville
DURBAN

Attention: PROF P.S. Reddy

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: Cheryl Natasha Mohamed Sayeed (Student No. 901357320)
Titled : Good Food Security Governance in KwaZulu Natal : A Public Administration Perspective

Sir

I have received an application from the above candidate to conduct research within the KwaZulu Natal Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs with special emphasis on the food security programme in the South Region.

The Department has perused the proposal and we believe that the thesis towards the PHD in Public Management will be of value to the Department.

The Department has no obligations to the study on the following provision.

1. All protocols regarding interviews / respondents in the Department be adhered to.
2. There will be no financial obligations to the Department.
3. A report will be presented to the Department towards the final conclusion of the thesis.
4. Copy of the final thesis to be presented for the Department's library.
5. The study should be concluded within the 2013 academic year.
6. The General Manager South Region, Senior Agricultural Manager and Food Security Senior Manager to note the contents of this proposal and provide the relevant access to the researcher, Mrs C.N.M. Sayeed.

Kind Regards

2013 -09- 0 9

KUBEN L. MOODLEY
GENERAL MANAGER : STRATEGIC SUPPORT SERVICES

C.C. **Mr M.J. Mfusi – General Manager : South Region**
Mr T. Van Rooyen – Senior Agricultural Manager
Mrs M. Gwala – Senior Manager Food Security

APPENDIX V: BIVARIARE CORRELATIONS

APPENDIX VI: REPORT TO PROVINCIAL GENERAL MANGER: STRATEGIC SUPPORT SERVICES

APPENDIX VII: CERTIFICATE OF PROOF-READING

APPENDIX VII: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE