

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BASIS OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

In this study the problem of food insecurity among women living in a communal rural area in the Northern Province of South Africa are examined, using as a case study a food security project in the Bochum district in the Northern Province. The project is evaluated and discussed according to criteria derived from a literature review.

1.1.1 The context of the Bochum food security project

The Babina-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project is an agricultural project designed to provide fresh vegetables on a daily basis and to assist in the alleviation of poverty. The project is also designed to help to enhance the skills and economic productivity in the communities concerned. The word 'multi-purpose' was put into the project title to indicate that in future the project will also focus on other activities; that is, it will eventually not only focus on the vegetable garden which was its initial focus.

'Food security' refers, in broad terms, to the capability of a nation to satisfy the consumption needs of its citizens by producing enough to meet food requirements. In communal rural areas, the term 'food self-sufficiency' is more applicable, because people must derive their livelihood from subsistence farming. The terms 'food security' and 'food insecurity' are discussed in more detail and in different contexts in Sections 1.1.2 to 1.2.3 below.

The problems experienced in the Bochum district are briefly contextualised below, within the broader context of Africa, South Africa and the Northern Province.

1.1.2 Food security in Africa

Most countries on the African continent experience food insecurity problems (CSIR 1997a:4).

Africa is an unstable social and political environment that has precluded sustainable economic growth, resulting in food insecurity. There is no African country that is an exception when it comes to a lack of food to feed her people (Jack & Kelembe 1993:1). Factors that are responsible for food crises in Africa range from policies that inhibit the development of agriculture, retarded economic growth, growing populations, a lack of

investment in human resource development, civil strife and undermined sustainable growth strategies (Dreze & Sen 1990:281). Food shortage problems have become even more distressing as agriculture has gradually deteriorated and food production has increasingly lagged behind population growth (Bigman 1982:11).

Christensen (1987:67) states that 'inadequate domestic food production has seriously weakened Africa's capacity for coping with both short-term food emergencies and the long-term nutritional needs of its population'.

According to the World Bank Report of 1986, one in every five Africans is wasting away through hunger and malnutrition. The report further points out that half the children under the age of five in countries like Tanzania, Sudan and Burundi are malnourished, which means that, even if they survive, they are likely to be physically and mentally impaired for life (Malambo 1988:1). Chronically inadequate food supplies affect nations in all parts of the continent. Moreover, general observations regarding chronic undernutrition in the continent reveal that children and women are more likely to be undernourished than men (Stock 1995:181). Malnutrition affects predominantly the poor and socially weak members of African societies. The prevalence of chronic undernutrition world-wide is the highest in Africa (Dankwa 1992:17)

In Malawi, research by the Institute of Development Studies has shown that there are three competing models for food security policies: food self-sufficiency, market liberalization and safety for the rural people (Bryant 1988:257).

In countries such as Mozambique, food insecurity problems arose following the internal revolution that started in the early 1980s. Political conflict between opposing groups led to the total devastation of economic and social programmes in rural areas, resulting in many rural Mozambicans abandoning their homes and farms for the relative safety of protected encampments. Mozambique has a fairly favourable climate and plenty of arable land, but without peace and security, food production has fallen far short of the levels needed (Stock 1995:181).

Population growth rates in Africa remain high, despite poverty and accompanying problems such as low child survival rates. Limited access to or the absence of basic services such as health facilities and education have meant very limited availability of contraception, poor bodily absorption of available food nutrients because of various diseases and high infant mortality (Dankwa 1992:19).

Food insecurity in Africa is also growing because of a complex and interrelated set of political, social and economic factors. Most people, for



example, in Ethiopia, Eritrea, Sudan, Somalia, Uganda, Rwanda, Kenya, Burundi and Tanzania, are chronically food insecure (FAO 1983:47). There is stunted economic growth in these regions, which lies at the heart of inadequate food production and the low capacity to improve foodstuffs. Poor economic policies limit possibilities for any intensification of agricultural and economic growth (FAO 1997:12).

In Africa, it is probable that, as in South Asia, problems of food insecurity can be linked with gender inequalities and also ignorance at the highest level of government and administration of the participation of women in rural economies. Studies undertaken in South Africa during the 1970s revealed the key role that women should play in social and economic development through their productive activities, their domestic labour and their capacity, as they were the ones involved in all the domestic work and much of the agricultural labour (Nelson 1979:6).

1.1.3 Food security in South Africa

South Africa has two visions in terms of food security. The first vision is to “...make healthy and nutritiously balanced food available to all South Africans at competitive prices. It should reflect producer efforts in a vibrant economic production system taking into account the sustainability of natural resources, management of population development and

empowerment of civil society. The vision also takes into account qualitative education programmes, equitable distribution of public works job creation efforts, development of social safety nets for deployment of the country's scientists in furthering technological innovation that will reduce vulnerability to food production." (CSIR 1997b:3).

The second vision is to distribute resources equally among South Africa's people. This vision regarding the reduction of food insecurity is similar to that in any other middle-income country (CSIR 1997b:4). The major issue in South Africa, however, has always been the maldistribution of resources among her people. Also, differences in income have led to nutritional differences. As a result, the lower income groups in the population experience considerable problems concerning food provision (CSIR 1997a:4).

Dankwa (1992:16) states that food security in South Africa is becoming an increasingly important issue, especially in the light of the negative natural shocks, such as drought, that have occurred in the sub-continent. The heavy summer rains and floods of 2000 have made the problem worse.

South Africa is self-sufficient in most foods, but a large portion of the population does not benefit from the country's resources. This is due to the past government's policies of separate development, which brought about

conditions of food insecurity among the majority of the population (Jack & Kelembe 1993:3). Most of South Africa's African population are settled far from the urban areas where there is often good food security; moreover, some rural population is settled in agriculturally unproductive areas. This limits many Africans living in communal rural areas in their access to sufficient food (Jack & Kelembe 1993:3).

Most of South Africa's poor are African. Nearly 95% of South Africa's poor are Africans; 4% are Coloured; and less than 1% of the poor are Indian or White. Most of South Africa's poor (75%) live in the rural areas and nearly all of them are in the former homelands (CSIR 1997b:5).

It has been confirmed by the Department of Social Welfare that food insecurity in South Africa has emerged as one of the problems that must be solved to ensure economic and political stability (Social Welfare White Paper 1997:9). South Africa can provide a sufficient food supply to feed the nation as a whole. It is, however, estimated that between 30% to 40% of South African households do not have access to an adequate food supply (Department of Agriculture, Land and Environment 1996:15).

An investigation of South Africa's nutritional status showed that 9% of African children are underweight and 23% experience stunted growth, which is an indication of chronic malnutrition. These children also suffer

from Vitamin A deficiency. The highest levels of malnutrition are found in the communal rural areas, where both undernutrition and overnutrition exist, and where diets are high in carbohydrates and fats (CSIR 1997a:5).

Just like in many other countries in the world, the problem of food insecurity has been identified in South Africa as one of the underlying causes of malnutrition, infant mortality and death. Poverty is also considered a major cause of hunger among the rural poor, children, women and the elderly. People living in communal areas are at a higher risk of poverty than most (CSIR 1997b:5).

Bryant (1988:4) states that poverty within South Africa is far more severe and widespread than is commonly realised. It is the poor who starve because they lack the necessary resources either to purchase adequate sustenance or to grow their own food. The so-called food crisis, however, needs to be placed in a socio-economic context, in which disparities in access to food are related to social structure and political and economic processes. Problems that hinder socio-economic advancement result in poverty, which remains a significant obstacle in the alleviation of hunger (Bryant 1988:4).

Spokespersons from the Department of Health and Welfare (Northern Province) indicated that the food insecurity problem is particularly acute in

the Northern Province (Mothapo 1998: Pers.com.).

1.1.4 Food security in the Northern Province

The situation regarding poverty and food insecurity in the Northern Province of South Africa, which is the focal area for this study, is considered to be worse than in other parts of South Africa (Mothapo 1998: Pers.com.), due to a number of factors. These include the fact that the Northern Province is considered one of the poorest regions in the country (Agrekon 1996:310). To make matters worse, the Province is also characterised by problems of drought, resulting in a lack of water for humans and livestock (Agrekon 1996:310).

While food insecurity is of compelling and immediate concern, it is essential to minimise future food emergencies by finding ways to achieve long-term food security for particular areas and individuals. The prevalence of food insecurity can be reduced through strategies that directly address the fundamental causes of food insecurity; moreover, population growth needs to be stabilised (Malambo 1988:7).

Most of these factors have been considered in the 'new' South Africa with the aim of providing an environment conducive to the attainment of food security, especially for rural women. For example, in 1997 in the Bochum

district of the Northern Province, means were provided to help improve the capacity of women in this communal rural area to achieve food security. In addition to a government programme, the people of the Bochum district received considerable contributions from Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) to achieve food security. This government-driven development programme is aimed specifically at women, in order to enhance family food security (Department of Health and Welfare 1997:17).

1.2 RESEARCH CONCEPTS

Before the actual discussion of the research, some central concepts need to be clarified, namely food security, food accessibility, food insecurity, poverty, and hunger.

1.2.1 Food security and accessibility

There are a bewildering number of definitions of food security in the relevant literature. Maxwell and Smith (1992:1) list no fewer than 32 generally accepted definitions of food security and insecurity that have been used between 1975 and 1991.

Broadly, 'food security' refers to the capability of a nation to satisfy the consumption needs of its citizens by producing enough to meet the nation's

food requirements and/or by importing food to meet those needs. On the other hand, food security does not necessarily refer to 'food self-sufficiency', because a country could be self-sufficient in forms of its food production whilst the majority of her citizens are food insecure (Malambo 1988:3).

Food security refers to access to enough food by all people of a country at all times for an active and healthy life. Its essential elements are the availability of food and the means to acquire it (World Bank 1986:1).

Reutlinger and Knapp (1980:1) define food security as the assurance of a minimally adequate level of food consumption.

The Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) indicates that food security must consist of three elements (FAO 1993:1):

- a food supply which is great enough in terms of quantity and quality;
- a stable and sustainable food supply; and
- the accessibility of available food for people who need it.

Green (1993:1) defines food security briefly as 'assured access to an adequate diet'. In his opinion, two conditions are necessary to achieve food security. First, there must be adequate physical supplies of appropriate food at required locations, backed up by a delivery system to maintain flows.

Second, each country must put in place an entitlement for each household (and household member) to receive adequate food, whether through self-production, purchase or transfers. While the condition of entitlement cannot be met without the necessary supply and delivery systems, being able to guarantee supply and delivery does not mean that every household will in fact receive adequate food. The distinction between national and household food security is similar to the above distinction between physical availability and entitlement (Green 1993:1).

The South African Department of Agriculture, Land and Environment (1996:14) defines food security generally as a state of affairs where all persons have access to sufficient safe and nutritious food at all times to maintain health and active life.

It is clear that food security involves much more than food. For example, water is a necessary complement for food; cooking is often the link between raw foods and nutrition; and inadequate health services frequently lead to ill health, which in turn decreases the nutritional impact of available food. Emphasising food security also tends to act as a balance and counterweight to the emphasis on macro-economic adjustments and 'getting the prices right' (Maxwell 1990:4).

According to Dankwa (1992:1), food security has two sides, food availability (the national availability of food through production, storage and trade) and food access (the ability of a household to acquire food through production, purchases or transfers).

Food security, therefore, has two interrelated components; they are food availability and food accessibility. Food availability is ensured through production, trade or storage. Access to food is achieved through production, purchases in the market from income earned or food transfers. The most important feature of the concept of food security is that it focuses attention on the accessibility of food, the price of food and people's incomes.

There are wide ranges of descriptions that address the idea of 'enough food'. Without going into too much detail on this extremely important question, four aspects can be distilled. First, the unit of analysis must be the individual, not the household. Second, the main concern is one of satisfactory intake of calories, not of protein, micro-nutrients or food quality and safety. Third, one must accept that food is not only required for survival, but also for an active and healthy life. A properly fed, healthy, active and alert population contributes more effectively to economic development than one that is physically and mentally weakened by inadequate diet and poor health (Hobson 1994:58). Finally, one should not

only assess the extent of the shortfall, but also the implications of the shortfalls (Hobson 1994:12).

The concept of access to food flows largely from Sen's (1981) pioneering work that provided a systematic approach to the definition and assessment of vulnerability. Sen's (1981) initial contribution was to show that the mere presence of food in the market does not entitle a person to consume it. Famines could, and often do, take place where there has been no production failure, or where food is readily available. Sen (1981:15) argues: 'Starvation is the characteristic of some people not having enough food to eat. It is not the characteristic of there not being enough to eat.'

Household food security focuses on the ability of households to meet their consumption needs in terms of their access to food, determined by a combination of wages and other income, social transfers and own production. Household food security also refers to the availability and stability of supply of food from own production, access to food by households, as well as the purchasing power of the households. Households which do not have access to enough food are referred to as being food insecure (Department of Agriculture, Land and Environment 1996:14).

1.2.2 Food insecurity

Food insecurity is defined as one of the underlying causes of malnutrition and death (Foster 1992:27). Malnutrition is a nutritional disorder or condition resulting from faulty or inadequate nutrition. People who cannot grow or buy enough food suffer from undernutrition. Foster (1992:38) defines undernutrition as the situation in which an individual simply does not get enough food. Many of the world's poor people suffer from both undernutrition and malnutrition. Nutritional status is used at household level in trying to find out about, or as an indicator of measuring, household food security (Malambo 1988:213). There are three different kinds of food insecurity (World Bank 1986:1):

- chronic food insecurity;
- transitory food insecurity; and
- emergency food insecurity.

Chronic food insecurity refers to a continuously inadequate diet caused by the inability to acquire food (mostly caused by poverty). It affects households that persistently lack the ability either to buy enough food or to produce their own. Many people have too little food to sustain an active, healthy life. These inadequate diets increase individual vulnerability to diseases (World Bank 1986:17).

The World Bank policy study (World Bank 1986:21) defines transitory food insecurity as a temporary decline in a household's access to enough food (resulting from an instability in food prices and incomes). Salih (1994:25) indicates that transitory food insecurity is a temporary decline (or shortage) in a country's or household's and/or region within the country's access to enough food. These shortages may result from an inability to acquire food, leading to chronic food insecurity, which is the continuous inability either to buy enough food or to produce own food (Salih 1994:25).

Emergency food insecurity occurs when there is a food shortage, which arises when there are wars, earthquakes, floods and other natural disasters. It also occurs when there is a breakdown in normal mechanisms; for example, when there is crime, social disruption and when disease levels increase. Emergency food insecurity is a short-term disaster (CSIR 1997a:1).

Hobson (1994:14) argues that households can be divided into four groups in terms of food insecurity, as set out in Table 1 (overleaf).

Table 1.1: Risk of food insecurity

	Resource poor	Resource adequate
Food secure	A	B
Food insecure	C	D

Source: Hobson (1994:14)

Group A refers to households that are food secure at the expense of sacrificing other things. They therefore use too much time and resources to obtain food. Group B refers to households that can obtain food security with a very small proportion of their resources, while Group C is obviously the worst off. They are food insecure. They do not have resources that can at least help them to obtain food security (Hobson 1994:14). This group includes women who are single and unemployed and who do not have husbands or maybe mature children to support them (Hobson 1994:14). Group D, while having resources, still fail to obtain food security for reasons such as a lack of control over resources by women in the household. The important point is that different strategies are required when dealing with the different groups. The balance between vulnerability, risk and insurance can therefore define security (Hobson 1994:14).

Food insecurity can be thus summarised as a lack of access to enough food, especially fresh nutrients or rich food, that is, a situation that exists when people lack secure access to sufficient amounts of safe and nutritious food

for normal growth and development and an active and healthy life. People experience food insecurity and low nutritional status because of poor access to the required means of production, low income, and educational level. The unavailability of food, insufficient purchasing power, inappropriate distribution or the inadequate use of food at household level are causes for food insecurity.

1.2.3 Poverty and hunger

The fundamental cause of hunger is the poverty of specific groups of people and not a general shortage of food. In simple terms, what distinguishes the 'poor' from the 'rich' is that the 'poor' do not have sufficient purchasing power and/or cannot create an effective demand to enable them to acquire enough to eat (Dankwa 1992:12). This means that hunger, malnutrition and family food insecurity are, to a large extent, caused by poverty. Poverty results from a shortage of rural non-agricultural employment opportunities in rural areas and a lack of resources at the household level (Bryant 1988:4).

The poor are trapped in a vicious cycle of poverty, marked by chronic undernutrition, poor health, unsanitary drinking water, large families and crowded housing, which in turn, increase their vulnerability to infectious diseases, reduces their motivation, reduces the capacity to do physical

work, and thus dooms them to remain in hopeless poverty. The tragedy of these people who cannot obtain enough to eat and have no hope of becoming self-reliant is the crux of the food crises of our time (Dankwa 1992:15).

Hungry people cannot work, and hungry children cannot learn, and without a well-nourished, healthy population, development is impossible (CSIR 1994:4).

The problems of food insecurity can be resolved only if poverty is eliminated from society, or if effective targeted feeding programmes are implemented (Foster 1992:13).

The accumulated field experiences of development agencies and NGOs suggest that poverty can be eradicated in a cost-effective way, with much of the required savings and investments coming from the poor themselves who have a large reservoir of underutilized and often unrecognized productive capacity. The rural poor cannot only grow out of their poverty but in many instances can become a dynamic leading sector of the economy (Jazairy, Alamgir & Panuccio 1992:2).

1.3 ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT

'Development' is defined differently by various authors such as Coetzee (1989), Beukes (1989), Gabriel (1991) and Beukes *et al.* (1994) and others.

Coetzee (1989:7) states that development is, in general, a process of directed change leading to economic growth, political freedom and a large basis of social reconstruction. Social reconstruction includes the principles of freedom, equality, the satisfaction of basic needs and a general process of community growth.

Gabriel (1991:75) also mentions that development as a concept includes social, physical, political and economic development. Social development is aimed at the welfare of the whole community. Physical development is aimed at developing a specific area. This development entails spatial development and the provision of infrastructure. Political development assists the community to understand the field of politics. Economic development is primarily sectoral, aimed at agriculture, mining, trade and industry.

For the purposes of this study, the viewpoint followed is that development should be inclusive. It should not only be confined to material things but it should include the intangible as well.



Development builds upon ordered change and is a process by which order is imposed upon observable changes (in human beings) to result in 'development'. Development is a human undertaking involving humanity in its totality, that is development of all people as well as the development of the total person. All development efforts have to be based on the assumption that all people value respect and want to be treated as worthy individuals. No development is worthy without participation (Coetzee 1989:8).

Development concerns people and not things. Human development implies the progressive unfolding of the existing or present capabilities of people through constructive change (Beukes 1989:215). Furthermore, Beukes *et al.* (1994:1) state that it must be recognized that there can be no fixed and final definition of development, but only suggestions of what kinds of change hold out the largest promise in a particular context.

Development involves organised and purposive human action. In development policies, self-help plays a central role, and implies helping people help themselves (Bodenstedt 1976:7). In development, people's development choices and life-chances should be increased. These choices should include access to income and employment opportunities, education and health, and a clean and safe physical environment. Each individual

should also have an opportunity to participate fully in community decisions and to enjoy civil, economic and political freedom (Bodenstedt 1976:7; Anderson 1978:11).

Kottak (1986:326) states:

“Putting people first in development interventions means eliciting the needs for change that they perceive; identifying culturally compatible goals and strategies for change; developing socially appropriate, workable and efficient designs for innovations; using rather than opposing, existing groups and organisations; drawing on participants' informal monitoring and evaluation of projects during implementation so that socio-economic impact can be accurately assessed.”

Development, therefore, implies change and transformation in the way of life of a group of people. These changes include changes in the social, economic and political institutions of the lives of such a group of people. Only then can the development process be regarded as a road moving away from 'underdevelopment' and helping people to rise out of poverty.

1.4 RUNNING A PROJECT

Lewis (1995:2) defines a project as a one-time job that has definite starting and ending points, clearly defined objectives, a defined scope and (usually) a budget. Thus a project is a problem scheduled for solution. It means that a project is always conducted to solve a problem for a group or organisation. The Babina-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project, where rural people

are assisted who are food insecure and do not live healthy lives, is an example of such a project .

The uniqueness of each project makes special demands on project leaders and simultaneously makes project management an exciting discipline.

1.4.1 Project management

Project management refers to the planning, scheduling and controlling of project activities for a given scope of work, while using resources efficiently and effectively. Every organisation (a group of people who must co-ordinate activities in order to meet objectives) has limited resources. Failure to manage resources properly is one of the most common causes of project failure (Carley & Christie 1992:11).

Time and costs are important in project management, as there is a given duration for each project at which costs can be kept to a minimum. As the project duration is extended, costs rise because of inefficiency, and eventually a point of diminishing returns is reached (Lester 1991:9).

For a project to be successfully managed, there are important elements that need to be in place in the organisation and those elements together constitute a project management system. Lewis (1995:16) indicates the key

system components of a project management system as the following systems:

- culture;
- organisation;
- methods;
- planning;
- information; and
- control.

The human cultural system is the basis for project management and is valuable if the people are really involved in the planning and implementation of the project. Human relations skills are needed. For example, the project leader should have the ability to provide proper leadership and the ability to negotiate with project members to ensure the required performance. The leader should have an understanding of how to handle decisions in a project. Knowledge of how to motivate project members is also essential (Wassermann & Kriel 1997:25).

The cultural system concerned is of great importance when working with people, as culture is the combined effect of the values, beliefs, attitudes, traditions and behaviours of the members of a specific community. Those who participate in the project should have enough authority to feel that they are responsible for their actions (Carley & Christie 1992:41).

Planning systems for development projects are important, because if a poor plan is developed, it may be impossible to implement the project successfully. That is why information systems (data gathering) are important and such systems should be available for the project leader to know whether the project implementation is on target or not (Carley & Christie 1992:41).

Control systems refer to the application of scarce resources, which must be controlled to achieve the desired organisational objectives. The project leader should use data on the project status to determine where and how the project is implemented in respect of the plan. Control is achieved by comparing where one is, with where one is supposed to be, then taking corrective action to resolve any discrepancies that exist (Lester 1991:21).

1.4.2 Project planning

Planning is a key function in any project. Without a plan, there is nothing to track progress against. If there is no plan, then there is no control. Planning and control are inseparable (Wassermann & Kriel 1997:32).

When planning is done, the people who want to do the project should be involved in the planning process, because if the people who will work on a

project are not involved, the people that are making the plan might use a self-based estimate (Glass 1995:119).

When writing a project plan, firstly, one must define the problem to be solved by the project. Then comes strategy listing, a listing of alternative strategies for doing the work. One should make sure that one selects the best strategy for the project. After the strategy has been chosen, a detailed implementation plan must be developed, that is, one must estimate activity durations, resource requirements and costs; prepare the project schedule; and decide on the project organisation structure (Lewis 1995:36).

Government officials may identify projects. So, for example, the Babina-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project was introduced by the officials of the Department of Health and Welfare. Projects should have criteria, for example, the criteria used in the food security project to select participants, that is, single women with children under the age of five. The formulation of a project involves developing a statement in broad terms which show the objectives and planned outputs of a project and also provides an estimate of the various resources required to achieve a project's objectives (Goodman & Love 1980:11).

In the planning process, designs for a project should be detailed enough so that cost estimates and decisions on various aspects of the project can be made (Lester 1991:27).

The formulation of a project needs a feasibility analysis and appraisal. A feasibility analysis is the process of determining whether the project can be implemented, while the appraisal is the evaluation of the overall ability of the project to succeed. A project should proceed to the feasibility stage only if decision-makers find the project desirable (Goodman & Love 1980:11).

While the feasibility analysis and appraisal are being conducted, several decisions need to be made. These decisions determine whether the project is capable of achieving its objectives and whether the project will proceed. Determining project feasibility depends on the accuracy of the information received. Once the feasibility studies have been completed, a meaningful appraisal of the project is possible. If a project meets the conditions set, it can proceed (Goodman & Love 1980:13).

1.4.3 Project implementation

To implement is to put into effect. Implementation involves the allocation of tasks to groups within the project. Control procedures must be activated

to provide feedback to both the participants and the project leader(s). The control procedures must identify and isolate problem areas (Goodman & Love 1980:177).

If defining the project is the most important step in managing a project, the next most important step is developing the work breakdown structure (Lewis 1995:76): What tasks must be done? Who will do each task? How long will each task take? What materials or supplies are required? How much will each task cost? This work breakdown structure provides a framework from which the following can be done:

- All tasks to be performed must be identified and resources allocated to them.
- Once resource levels have been allocated to tasks, estimates of the task durations must be made.
- All costs and resource allocations must be totalled to develop the overall project budget.
- Task durations must then be used in developing a working schedule for the project.
- Performance can then be tracked against the identified cost, schedule and resource allocations (see also Goodman & Love 1980:135).

1.4.4 Project evaluation

Evaluation is decision-oriented (Grittinger 1990:13). Evaluation means to determine or judge the value or worth of the project. The purpose of evaluation is to assess the overall effectiveness of an operating programme and help develop a new programme. Surveys are an important tool of evaluation efforts directed towards needs assessments, cost estimates, programme acceptability and certain programme-personnel policies and public relations activities (Lewis 1995:207).

Project evaluation is one of the last tasks in the project cycle. In every cycle, the later tasks are linked to the earlier ones. Thus, evaluation leads to continuous planning which leads to further implementation (Goodman & Love 1980:213).

Project evaluation should be conducted to measure whether the project has met its desired objectives, and if not, where and why it failed (Singini & Vink 1995:23).

Evaluation is just like an examination of the project. It involves finding out whether the project has reached its intended goals within the framework of both the timetable and the budget. The evaluation process can be done by those responsible for implementing the project and by others with an

interest in the project, for example, funding organisations (Goodman & Love 1980:223). On the other hand, evaluation must be credible in the eyes of everyone affected or decision-based, else the evaluation will not be considered valid (Singini & Vink 1995:24).

Some reasons for conducting periodic audits as part of the evaluation processes are, according to Lewis (1995:210):

- to improve project performance together with the management of the project;
- to ensure the quality of the project work does not take a back seat to schedule and cost concerns;
- to reveal developing problems early, so that action can be taken to deal with them;
- to identify areas where other projects (current or future) should be managed differently;
- to reaffirm the organisation's commitment to the project for the benefit of the project team members; and
- to learn what is being done well and what needs improvement so that the information can be used before the project ends, as well as later.

The importance of the preceding section in conducting this study lies in the fact that one would be able to determine whether the project under review was implemented in accordance with this theoretical set of standards. The

evaluation of the Babine-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project is presented in Chapter 4.

1.5 RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.5.1 Broad aim of the study

The study examines the Bochum Babina-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project as a project that attempts to alleviate the problems of food insecurity and poverty (outlined above) in a section of the Bochum district. The project is evaluated against the general theory of development. The study investigates the project by means of the methodology set out in Section 1.6 below. The research was carried out between January 1999 and June 2000.

1.5.2 Objectives of the study

This study was designed:

- to identify the factors that contribute to food insecurity among the people living in the communal rural areas of the Bochum district;
- to assess the level of food security among the people of Bochum prior to 1994, when the project started;
- to determine the positive and negative effects of the government's

programme/project for food security in Bochum; and

- to determine whether and how the rural women participating in the food security project in Bochum benefit from the project.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research is a search for knowledge (Mouton & Marais 1990:3). The qualitative method involves interviewing selected key spokespersons, while the quantitative method uses questionnaire surveys done amongst a representative sample of the people in the study area (Mouton & Marais 1990:155). Both methods can be used to get people's opinions on a certain topic (Mouton & Marais 1990:156).

Given the nature of the study, the methods of research were manifold. The study included:

- a literature study; and
- in-field research, involving both quantitative research (questionnaires) and qualitative research (interviews).

A literature study was conducted on the issue of food security in Africa with the emphasis on Southern Africa. Concepts such as food security, malnutrition, undernutrition and access to food were studied. Gender issues

in food security were also studied in the literature. Background reading was also done on the history and situation of the people in the study area.

Against the information gleaned from the literature study, in-depth interviews were conducted. In Anthropology, this method of doing research is generally referred to as the ethnographic method, which is part of the qualitative method (Seymour-Smith 1986:98).

1.6.1 Phases One to Three: Interviews

The **first phase** of the qualitative research focused on households where data was gathered on the following:

- a household's monthly food requirements;
- what households eat – which foodstuffs are bought, which are self-produced, and which are collected from the veldt;
- the financial implications of acquiring monthly food supplies; and
- monthly shortfalls in food supplies and how these are supplemented.

This gave the researcher the base-line data with which to continue further research.



The **second phase** of the research, during which in-depth interviews were conducted, focused on the food security project in Bochum. This entailed research on all relevant aspects of programme planning, programme implementation, and programme continuation. The reasons why the programme was started, who initiated the programme and how it was meant to function were also included in the research. All documentation that could be found that was relevant to the project was gathered and studied.

In the **third phase**, in-depth interviews were conducted with the people responsible for the implementation of the food security programme in Bochum. Interviews were conducted with both the programme implementers and 37 of the 67 women whose households stood to benefit from the food security project.

The Babina-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project is a vegetable garden that was initiated and funded by the Department of Health and Welfare. The officials from the Department of Agriculture gave people taking part in the food security project training on how to plant vegetables. The officials from the Environmental Affairs Department also installed a water pump at the food security project.

The Babina-Chuene Women's Multi-purpose Project was funded for three years (from August 1997 to July 2000). It was programmed so that when the funding ended, the project would be able to sustain itself, after the initial phases.

The women who take part in the Babina-Cheune Women's Multi-purpose Project, plant vegetables and have to sell the produce for the project. The profit does not accrue to the individuals but to the project as a whole. The participating women are given a monthly allowance of R180.00. If there is no profit, then the women receive no additional income.

1.6.2 Phase Four: The questionnaires

The fourth phase of the research entailed the completion of three structured questionnaires (see Annexure A), which were compiled against the background of the gathered research data. Questionnaires were distributed among the officials, participating and non-participating households. The goal of the questionnaires was to confirm the data gathered through in-depth interviews, and also to determine the geographical spread of these aspects throughout the research area. Despite a low return rate of questionnaires, the questionnaire also helped to quantify the research data to some extent.

Structured rather than unstructured questions were preferred to facilitate analysis and in order not only to qualify but also to quantify research data in line with the guidelines of Mouton and Marais (1990:157).

The results of the data obtained from the questionnaires which the people participating in the project and some of those not taking part in the project were asked to complete are presented in Chapter 3. The questionnaires were compiled in such a way that information could be obtained on a variety of relevant aspects.

The first section of the questionnaires for participants/non-participants (see Annexure A, Questionnaires B and C) focused on the personal details of respondents, their age, marital status and level of education.

The purpose of ascertaining the age of those taking part in the project and those not taking part was to determine whether:

- women taking part in the food security project are single and young;
- women who need a job to support their family participated in the project; and
- young women seize the opportunity to become involved in local job opportunities.

The second section of the questionnaires concerned details of the project. It focused on establishing whether the local people were aware of the food security project and its role in improving their socio-economic position as well as their health, and whether this project would be sustainable.

The third section of each questionnaire was concerned with the people's way of life before the project took effect in the community. Questions were aimed at determining the successes and shortfalls of the project. The answers put the researcher in a position to determine the impact of the project on the target group the project was supposed to help.

Questionnaires and interviews supplemented direct observation on the activities of the project. Interviews were also arranged with officials of the Department of Health and Welfare in the Northern Province, Pietersburg and Bochum, particularly those who were directly involved in the project. The aims of these interviews were:

- to obtain information regarding the historical background of the project;
and
- to investigate the method or criteria used to select the people participating in the food security project.

1.7 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

1.7.1 Chapter 1

The first chapter briefly sets the scene of the case study and places the project in context. Research problems are set out, as are the objectives. The chapter clarifies core concepts used in the study, such as food security, food insecurity, food accessibility, poverty and hunger, development and projects. The chapter focuses on theoretical aspects of development projects, namely project planning, implementation and evaluation. It also describes the research methods used.

1.7.2 Chapter 2

The second chapter outlines the (historical) background of the people living in the Bochum district before the implementation of the food security project and how problems related to food security were dealt with before the programme was implemented.

1.7.3 Chapter 3

The third chapter focuses on the Bochum food security project, its origin, goals and objectives, the participants in the project, and more importantly, how the project operates. This chapter also examines the present situation in the Bochum area regarding food security, and the present situation regarding the ability of families to feed themselves after the implementation of the food security programme. It is in this chapter that the interviews and the findings of the questionnaire are discussed.

1.7.4 Chapter 4

This chapter outlines the consequences/results of the project, its achievements and shortcomings. Finally, this chapter also includes some recommendations in terms of addressing food insecurity and the future functioning of the food security programme in Bochum and similar projects elsewhere.