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**The development of a public-private partnership framework to support
smallholder farmers in South Africa**

by

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my Lord and Saviour. Thank You for giving me the strength to keep going, You are a man of Your word.

*“So shall my word be that goes out from my mouth;
it shall not return to me empty,
but it shall accomplish that which I purpose,
and shall succeed in the thing for which I sent it.”—Isaiah 55:11*

Thank You for Your faithfulness! I also dedicate this to my mother, Ketiwe Ketty Nyabvudzi (Nyazika). Not only did you raise and nurture me, but you also exerted yourself amorously over the years for my education and intellectual growth. You have been my source of motivation and strength during moments of discouragement and despair. You mean everything to me.

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"To educate a woman is to educate an entire generation."

ABSTRACT

The right to access adequate food in South Africa is a constitutional directive entrenched in the Bill of Rights of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996). The South African government has committed itself to promote and protect the right to access adequate food that is safe and nutritious to sustain a healthy life. The government's commitment covers four interrelated elements known as the four pillars of food security: food access, food utilisation, food availability, and a stable supply of food. The four pillars of food security are embedded in the National Policy for Food and Nutrition Security in South Africa. Although a national policy exists, food insecurity has been an ongoing issue in South Africa. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa states that the government must take the necessary efforts within its disposal to obtain the progressive realisation of this right. Thus, the study's argues that a transformed agriculture, forestry and fisheries sector with specific focus on smallholder farmers by establishing public-private partnerships are critical to eliminate waste and ensure better access to food for all. Smallholder farming can be viable, profitable and effective as large-scale farming if they receive the necessary developmental support from relevant parties. This study analyses current government programmes and policy frameworks underlying food security and smallholder farmers, focusing on the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD). The objective is to explore DALRRD's public-private partnership approach to support smallholder farmers' contribution to food security to meet the growing needs of the population. The study proposes the development of a public-private partnership framework that emphasises coordination and collaboration of the government sector, private sector, civil society, and non-governmental organisations to support smallholder farmers and, in turn, contribute to food security.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AAMP	Agro-processing Master Plan
ACB	Agriculture Credit Board
Agri-PPPs	public-private partnerships for agribusiness
APAP	Agriculture Policy Action Plan
ARC	Agriculture Research Council
ASDS	Agriculture Sector Development Strategy
ASDSP	Agricultural Sector Development Support Programme
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CASP	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme
CCT	conditional cash transfer
CFS	The Committee on World Food Security
CNAN	Conference on Food and Nutrition
CONSEA	National Council on Food and Nutrition Security
DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
DALRRD	Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DOH	Department of Health
DPME	Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation
DSD	Department of Social Development
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FNDE	National Education Development Fund
GDP	global domestic product
GHI	Global Hunger Index
GTAC	Government Technical Advisory Centre
IFSS	Integrated Food Security Strategy
IGDP	Integrated Growth and Development Policy for Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries
IPAP	Industrial Policy Action Plan
LOSAN	Organic Law on Food and Nutrition Security
MAFISA	Micro-Agricultural Financial Institution of South Africa
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MOU	memorandum of understanding

MTEF	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework
MTSF	Medium-Term Strategic Framework
NDP	National Development Plan
NFSNP	National Food and Nutrition Security Policy
NGOs	non-governmental organisations
NGP	National Growth Plan
NPM	New Public Management
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PAA	National Food Acquisition Programme
PANE	The Nation Schools Meals Programme
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
PNSAN	The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy
PPPs	public-private partnerships
PRONAF	National Programme for Strengthening Family Farming
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SISAN	National System for Food and Nutrition Security
SMEs	small-medium enterprises
UNEG	United Evaluation Group
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND TO STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

South Africa was one of the countries of the United Nations in 2015 to commit to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The commitments are to end poverty, set the world on the road to peace, success and opportunities for all. Seventeen goals have been outlined under the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which request for transformed economic, political and financial systems that govern the society to secure the human rights of all (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) (2020). The agenda, which acknowledges food security, looks at more than just hunger and looks beyond attaining goals of ensuring access to nutritious, safe and sufficient food for all (Food and Agriculture Organisation, International Fund for Agricultural Development, the United Nations Children's Emergency Fund, World Food Programme & World Health Organisation 2020:2). The objective is to attain SDG 2: Zero Hunger which emphasises eliminating hunger through improving food security, food nutrition and promoting sustainable development of agriculture (United Nations Development Programme 2019).

A report by the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) in synergy with International Fund for Agriculture (IFAD), United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), World Food Programme (WFP) and World Health Organization (WHO) (2021:xii) underlined that five years after the commitment of the world to food security, ending hunger and eradicating all forms of malnutrition, the challenge still being faced globally is staying on track to achieve the goal of eradicating hunger by 2030 as envisioned by the SDGs. An estimated number of between 720 and 811 million people globally faced hunger in 2020 (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP & WHO 2021:8). People globally are suffering from food insecurity. Approximately one in three people did not have access to sufficient food in 2020, an increase of almost 320 million from 2019 (FAO *et al.* 2021:8). The prevalence of food insecurity, severe or moderate, is still a challenge, especially in Africa, where there is an upward trend. According to FAO *et al.* (2021:8), of the 2.37 billion people facing moderate or severe food insecurity, 1.2 billion reside in Asia, 799 million in Africa and 267 million in Latin America and the Caribbean. There is a need to examine alternative mechanisms to address the food

insecurity challenges that are on the rise. Small-scale producers are recognised as critical to reversing trends in order to decrease hunger and eliminate poverty among the people (UN DESA 2021:28).

In South Africa, a need to broaden food and nutrition security measures towards achieving the SDG 2: Zero Hunger has been recognised. The targets to be achieved to promote sustainable development under SDG 2 are to put an end to all aspects of malnutrition, to increase agricultural production and income of small-scale food producers by double, to promote sustainable systems of food production, to implement firm agricultural practices that foster production to preserve ecosystems and to fortify capacity to adapt to changes in the global climate (UN DESA 2019). Further, the targets under SDG 2 are set to expand investment by boosting global cooperation and collaboration in agricultural resources, rural infrastructure, technological developments, and extension services to promote agrarian productivity capacity in emerging countries. Lastly, the goal aimed to adopt measures to ensure well-functioning food commodity markets (UN DESA 2019).

The South African government has made significant efforts to enhance food security, in line with its constitutional mandate of promoting and protecting the right of its citizens to have adequate access to food and to domesticate international indicators, with SDG 2 on food security as a basis to closely monitor progress across the different organs of the government. The country's National Development Plan (NDP) adopted in 2012 provides a roadmap for South Africa's future and recognises agriculture and the development of rural areas among the crucial priority areas for employment creation, economic development, alleviating poverty and addressing food security in the country (National Planning Commission 2012; Moleke & Mpotshane 2018). The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy and the Household Food and Nutrition Security Strategy have been developed by the South African government coordinated by the Presidency to promote the eradication of hunger and achieve food security (Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) (2019c:1). In agreement with SDG 2: Zero Hunger of expanding cooperation and collaboration, the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy has included the use of investing in agriculture through the involvement of government and private agencies, which can be referred to as public-private partnerships (Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF)(2013:7). This study explores the

Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development's (DALRRD) support to smallholder farmers through public-private partnerships (PPPs) to address the issue of food insecurity. PPPs are recognised by the National Food and Nutrition Policy and the DALRRD as vital to addressing the overall national vision of ensuring food security by optimising economic opportunities in developing areas. The role of the private sector stimulates private investment in agriculture which will create an enabling environment by improved support to smallholder farmers, innovative output, access to credit and improvement infrastructures thus contributing to food security. It is imperative to investigate the programmes and partnerships that exist with the DALRRD concerning the support of smallholder farmers. The study aims to recommend and provide components of a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers with specific reference to the DALRRD. The background and motivation for the study are presented in this chapter. A problem description is provided, and the research question, objectives and methodology for the study are described. The key concepts and terms that were used for this study are also clarified in this chapter.

1.2.BACKGROUND

Even though the term food security was only neologised in the 1970s, in relation to South Africa, food security is a prominent role-player and is a fundamental administrative declaration that has moulded the historical aspect of the country since the 17th century (Hendriks 2014:1). As a result of changes in the interpretation of food security internationally over four decades, South Africa's food security determining factors have been construed differently by different ruling governments over three centuries (Hendriks 2014:1). In the advent of colonialism, the Dutch East India Company in the Cape Colony in 1652 was driven by the desire to feed its crew. The company acknowledged that there was a necessity to provide food security for its crew to ensure that they were fit and performing adequately during the duration of their long journeys. This resulted in the creation of the official agriculture sector in Cape Town. Food security demands led to the colonisers furthering away in quest of liberation and additional productive territory (Hendriks 2014:1). White colonisers and black farmers excelled as they reacted to the rising demands for the production of food requirements from the new mining town and settlements during the 1860s (National Department of Agriculture, 1997). However, this gave rise to complaints from white farmers. Their

complaints were associated with a lack of labour and rivalry from the black farmers, which resulted in friction between the two farm groups (National Department of Agriculture 1997 & 2002). The conflict brought forth by the friction resulted in the development of the Native Land Act (No 27 of 1913) and the formation of Bantu homelands in 1951 (Hendriks 2014:1). The Native Land Act encouraged land discrimination, and the law shaped assets for blacks and banned transactions of white land to blacks. The development of Bantu homelands in 1951 led to additional disparities in terms of acquisition of land and other resources, and it also increased household food insecurity with specific reference to the rural areas (Van der Merwe 2011). The formulation of the land-related legislation brought a dualistic farming sector with large-scale white farmers having more access to land and subsidies, which led to the elimination of rivalry from black farmers within the agriculture sector (Von Loeper, Musango, Brent & Drimie 2016:749). Thus, the study argues for the necessity to promote smallholder farmers, especially the underprivileged farmers that were negatively affected by the land discrimination legislation, as well as inadequate support in competing fairly and accessing the market.

Within its democratic era, since 1994, South Africa's ideal has been to nullify the imbalances shaped under colonisation and the apartheid regime by developing assistance programmes for emerging black farmers and reformation of the land administrations. Although there has been an attempt to develop and address the challenges faced in the past, the government admits the efforts demonstrated have not been the envisioned outcome (Von Loeper *et al.* 2016:749). Altman, Hart and Jacobs (2009:346) argue that the administration's attention on emerging commercial farmers has resulted in a minimal emphasis on the development of smallholder farmers. On the one hand, the phrase "smallholder" is used synonymously with "small-scale". Smallholder farming is regarded as farming on small plots of land on which smallholder farmers produce subsistence harvests (DAFF 2012a). On the other hand, commercial farming, which is also known as large-scale farming, takes part in large capital-intensive agriculture. Commercial farmers cultivate in large areas by using enhanced modern inputs (Surbhi 2017). According to Hendriks (as cited by Von Loeper *et al.* 2016:749), a greater part of the redistribution of land has proven to be unproductive and non-operational. To this extent, smallholder farmers are said to produce only a quarter of what is provided for by commercial farmers. According to

Delgado in Von Loeper *et al.* (2016:749), “smallholder agriculture is simply too important to employment, human welfare and political stability in sub-Saharan Africa to be ignored.” The argument presented in this study is that there is a need to focus on smallholder farmers as there is a notable unexploited capability for them to contribute to food security.

The subject of food insecurity has been a continuous challenge in South Africa. The country is faced with the challenge of attaining the goal of ensuring that every individual has adequate access to food and that there is the availability of food and safe and nutritious food for all to sustain a healthy life (Oxford 2018). As a result of the challenges faced, the question that has been on the horizon is whether to focus on commercial agriculture only to address food security or whether smallholder agriculture is just as important. The argument against smallholder agriculture is that small-scale farming is associated with a negative viewpoint, frequently being equated to being non-productive, backward and non-commercial (Farming Portal 2019). However, small-scale farming can be viable, profitable and as effective as large-scale farming if it receives the necessary developmental support from the relevant parties (Farming Portal 2019). Baiphethi and Jacobs (2009:459) acknowledge that the productivity of smallholder farmers must be increased to promote food security. Increased production from smallholder farmers will increase food availability within households, which will consequently dampen the outcome of goods and price of food and improve food insecurity simultaneously. Additionally, from a global perspective, smallholder farmers have received recognition as having the ability to be influential players in eliminating hunger, decreasing rural insufficiency and enhancing international food security. This study specifically focuses on support for smallholder farmers in South Africa with specific reference to the DALRRD.

The NDP was established to improve areas in which South Africa is not developed fully; the agricultural sector has been identified as the main challenge (National Planning Commission 2012:219). The plan proposes that small-scale, labour-intensive agriculture and integration of smallholder farmers, formal corporate-dominated agrosystems should be pursued (National Planning Commission 2012:219). South Africa should dedicate more of its resources to smallholder farming if it intends to overcome food insecurity, especially at a household level, ending the culture of relying on social

grants to satisfy the United Nations' Goals on ending poverty (Fields 2011). The small-scale farming sector can be more vibrant in South Africa, but only once the smallholder producers are empowered and supported to produce competitively (Sender 2016:17). For this to occur, the following factors need careful consideration: providing the farmers with a primary agrarian skill-set and instituting adequate access to low-cost finance, technology and markets. In light of the aforementioned, the study's objective explores DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to address the issue of food insecurity. The following section will give a brief explanation of food security and four pillars that it is associated with and will provide a brief global perspective of agriculture and smallholder farmers in relation to food security.

1.2.1. The nature of food security and its four pillars

The human right to adequate food is a fundamental right enshrined within international and national law, which secures the right to access food. Within international law, the right to adequate food is outlined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 and within the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights of 1996 (United Nations [sa]; United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)(2019). The covenant indicates within Article 11.1 that the right to adequate nutrition is a component for each person to have an acceptable quality of life. As stated in Article 11.2, the international law identifies that it is the basic right of each person to be free from experiencing starvation, and government entities should take measures inclusive of specific programmes needed to ensure that the right is catered for adequately.

From a national law viewpoint, the right to adequate food in South Africa is a constitutional directive as recognised within the Bill of Rights of South Africa, which is rooted in Chapter 2 Articles 26 and 27 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (hereafter referred to as the Constitution). The Constitution states that the government must take the necessary efforts within its disposal to obtain the progressive realisation of this right. To achieve the directive, the study argues that a transformed agriculture, forestry and fisheries sector is vital to economic prosperity and food security. The duty of achieving a transformed agricultural sector that promotes the right to adequate food, as highlighted by the NDP, lies with the DALRRD. The sector needs to maintain a healthy industry that contributes to food

security through developing policies relating to agriculture and the institutions' assistance programmes that ensure that the South African citizens can produce their food to eliminate food insecurity (DALRRD 2021a). The agricultural sector is, therefore, a significant sector in achieving the NDP objectives with the intended purpose of promoting food security to address the global SDG 2: Zero Hunger.

In support of the agricultural sector as being a significant sector, the White Paper on Agriculture, 1995 outlines that the sector is regarded as a precondition in achieving related goals to cultivating food security. This can be attained by the expansion and development of smallholder farmers. The NDP 2030 recognises them as key players in agricultural development, especially in terms of rural development. Under the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) and with the alignment to the SDGs, the overall aim of the MTSF is to have comprehensive rural development and food security for all. The DALRRD has put in place strategic goals and objectives which are based on the MTSF to achieve the outcome of comprehensive rural development and food security for all. Four strategic goals and eleven strategic objectives have been identified and developed, whereby strategic goal 3 aims at supporting smallholder farmers to foster food security. The goal emphasises that an enabling environment must be created for food security to be obtained and for the transformation of the sector to be achieved by leading and coordinating food security initiatives of the government, strengthening the capacity for efficient delivery in the sector and strengthening planning, implementation and monitoring of the support programmes (DAFF 2015a:119).

Food security is an extensive-phrase defined in diverse ways by different organisations. The Committee on World Food Security is a leading comprehensive global and intergovernmental forum for investors to operate collectively to guarantee food security and nutrition for everyone (Committee on World Food Security 2019). According to the Committee on World Food Security

...“food security exists when all people at all times, have physical, social, economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life” (International Agri-Food Network 2019).

The definition covers four interrelated elements of access, food availability, food

utilisation and a stable supply of food which are recognised internationally as dimensions to food security. The pillars are also embedded in the South African food policy. The section below will provide a brief definition of the four elements embedded in food security.

The first pillar is the availability of food. Availability of food is the production and procurement of sufficient quantities of food on an everyday basis (Department of Social Development (DSD) & DAFF 2013:12). Food availability is the quantity of food physically present in a country through various ways such as national production, stocks, food aid and commercial inputs (FAO *et al.* 2021:190). This element is the first component that must be attained to contribute to food and nutrition security, which will lead to food access. There cannot be food accessibility without food availability.

The second pillar is food access, and it refers to having enough food at both a national level and household level. Accessibility of food includes earnings, spending and purchasing capability of individuals within a household. The pillar is associated with whether or not individuals within a household have sufficient means to obtain appropriate amounts of quality food (Food Climate Research Network 2018). This is connected to the promotion of eco-friendly farming methods, permitting land access for farming production, promoting smallholder farmers as well as the livelihood farming and application of social security procedures for those who are underprivileged and vulnerable (National Development Agency 2013:3). Once households have access to food, they must receive enough nutrition from the food that has been produced or imported, which is the third pillar of food security. The utilisation of food alludes to relevant food uses based on information on primary nutrition and care. It suggests that families are optimising their intake of enough nourishment and energy (FAO *et al.* 2021:190). While the accessibility of food makes sure individuals within households have enough capital to ensure that they have adequate resources to acquire the nourishment they require through purchase or production, utilisation of food refers to the ability of an individual to properly consume and digest the food. Ultimately, the stability of food refers to guaranteed continuity of the mentioned pillars that feed into food and nutrition security once all pillars are addressed effectively.

The last pillar, food stability, therefore addresses the stability of the three pillars, recognised as food availability, food access and utilisation of food over time. All three elements are linked to the stability of households. Households are food secure when there is food availability, food access and utilisation of food is sufficiently met. They are considered food insecure when the opposite is in effect. Food instability is triggered by the unpredictability of the market value of basic food and insufficient risk exposing the capability of the household. Unfavourable conditions such a climate change, i.e., natural disasters, unexpected weather (droughts or too much rain), political, economic factors such as unemployment, and social instability are major factors affecting the stability of the pillars of food security (Gibson 2012:20). In addressing the four pillars as described, agricultural development is an important tool for promoting food security to feed South Africa's growing population. It is thus significant to ensure that the needs of each element are met as this contributes to the overall household food and nutrition security of a country, which in turn will reduce the number of people going hungry per day, thereby addressing the issue of poverty.

1.2.2. Agriculture and smallholder farmers in relation to food security

From an international viewpoint, the function of agriculture from an economic development perspective has been considerably discussed. The debate dates back historically to the 1950s, in which agriculture was perceived as being a regressive unprofitable sector from which workforce and capital were to boost the growth of the industrial sector (Lewis 1954). Nevertheless, during that time, different perspectives on agriculture as the main element came into play. Agriculture was viewed as being important within the initial stages of growth development. Scholars at the time, notably Johnston and Mellor (1961), highlight that agriculture contributes to growth in different areas, and they outlined that investment and reformation of policies about agriculture could lead to accelerated economic development. The above debates gave rise to the recognition of agriculture and whether or not it is important to focus on it in the current century.

In support of Johnston and Mellor's view of agriculture, Apanovich and Mazur (2018) have acknowledged the importance of the agricultural role in enhancing food security, notably in sub-Saharan Africa, where the majority of the population places reliance on self-sufficiency farming. The development of the agriculture sector is recognised as

the most influential mechanism to eliminate excessive poverty, enhance communal wealth and feed its anticipated 9.7 billion population growth by the year 2050 (World Bank 2018). The development in the farming sector is said to be more effective in increasing earnings amongst the underprivileged in comparison to the other existing industries. The world's food is produced on a range of farm sizes-small, medium and large. A considerable quantity of food in emerging nations is produced on approximately 608 million small-scale farms, which occupy 70 to 80% of farmlands and produce roughly about 80% of the world's food in terms of value (Lowder, Sánchez & Betini 2021:1). This emphasises that smallholder production will still be a dominating form of production in emerging countries by 2030. It is, therefore, important that smallholders can participate in advances in productivity (World Bank Group 2015:11).

Additionally, in the agreement of smallholder farmers as being an effective tool to enhance production that improves food security, SDG 2: Zero Hunger argues that smallholder farmers are important and supporting them is essential to boost food security and nutrition for the underprivileged. Smallholder farmers also add to food production for local and international markets where more than half of the world's population is undernourished. Undernourishment has increased from 8.4% in 2019 to 9.9% in 2020 (United Nations 2021:28). Considering the above, agriculture and smallholder farmers can contribute to securing food from an international perspective. For this reason, the study focuses on how smallholder farmers in South Africa are contributing to enhancing food security to feed the country's growing population through collaboration and coordination of the government and private agencies to ensure the maximisation of resources.

1.3. MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH

The motive to undertake this study is derived from the principles governing public administration in South Africa. Section 195 (b) of the Constitution states that efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted. The pertinence of this principle to this study regarding DALRRD is making use of all resources, getting rid of excess and waste to ensure better access to food for all. Making use of all resources is an important element. The motivation of maximising the use of all resources is

promoted by the comparison of the statistical data from 2017, where 6,8 million people experienced hunger and 10.4 million people had inadequate access to food in 2017 (Statistics South Africa (StatsSA)(2019c:6). Therefore, making use of all available resources can be achieved through maximising support of small-scale agriculture, namely smallholder farmers through programmes such as Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASAP), Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative and Illima/Letsema. The NDP acknowledges that if the development of agrarian production occurs within the present arrangement of agriculture by simply increasing commercial farming, the possibility of generating additional jobs is restricted. Taking into account the importance of agriculture in creating jobs and food security, the simple reason that well-directed investment is pressing is to improve sustainability and food production (Von Bormann 2019). The NDP expresses the hope that smallholder farmers will be responsible for one-third of South Africa's trade surplus when it comes to food security. The National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security aims to increase the production and distribution of food as well as provide support to community-based and smallholder production. However, there are fewer commercial farmers than in 1994 (120 000), and according to StatsSA (2017:3), Census of Commercial Agriculture report, the number was down to 40 122. The remaining commercial farmers are barely getting by, with about 57% of farmers having an annual gross income as opposed to profit (Visser 2018). The reduction has been due to a highly competitive environment and scarce government resources to assist the agricultural sectors (Visser 2018; van Rensburg 2018a). This has resulted in farmers having no alternative other than to obtain larger farms to take part in the competitive market, but this makes it increasingly problematic for smallholder farmers who desire to contribute to the sector if a third of South Africa's established farmers since 1994 have exited the sector due to competition. The questions left lingering are how can smallholder farmers do better, and is it wise for the smallholder farmers to bank on the support of the government in this cutthroat trade environment? (Visser 2018).

According to the African Farmers' Association of South Africa youth wing, young black smallholder farmers have been pleading for governmental assistance in terms of their businesses, but not much has been done (van Rensburg 2018b). The youth state that their success has been despite the government, not because of it. The Bureau for Food and Agricultural Policy (BFAP) has highlighted that to make small-scale farming

more profitable, a combination of government support and mentorship from the private sector is key (BFAP 2018).

In alignment with BFAP on the acknowledgement of private sector involvement, collaboration and coordination between the government and stakeholders, i.e., non-governmental organisations (NGOs), private sector, development partners and international donors, is the main motivation of this study. According to the National Policy Comprehensive Producer Development Support Draft 5 version 3, 2018, although the sector is receiving support from various role players in the development smallholder producer sector, challenges of skewed participation, inadequate, inefficient and ineffective systems persist, which were initially highlighted in the Strategic Plan for South Africa Agriculture in 2001. Furthermore, several programmes directing their efforts to the same beneficiaries and each having their institutional implementation structure is resulting in limited programme impact (DAFF 2018:28). A functional coordination mechanism requires development to improve coordination and collaboration amongst the two stakeholders to achieve maximum benefits and to avoid duplications in activities. The “silo approach”, which refers to when departments or organisations do not share information or knowledge, can be inefficient and counterproductive. This viewpoint was also echoed by the Integrated Growth and Development Plan in 2012 that non-alignment between the government and government-owned entities as well as non-alignment in programmes has not resulted in having a positive impact. Thus, resulting in poor implementation of programmes as a result of poor integration, coordination and monitoring (DAFF 2013:4 & DAFF 2018:1-6). The study seeks to explore DALRRD’s support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to address the issue of food insecurity.

1.4. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Despite various interventions such as CASP, Fetsa Tlala Food Production initiative and Illima/Letsma by the government, several priorities are regressing concerning ensuring food security for all. When observing child development, the levels of stunting is worsening in South Africa. The WHO (2019) definition of stunting is impaired child development and growth to poor nutrition, not consuming adequate food or the consumption of food lacking nutrients that promote growth. A key factor to millions of people globally suffering from insecurity, hunger and malnutrition is them not being

able to afford a healthy diet. Unhealthy diets are the main drivers of global diseases and are associated with increased food insecurity resulting in different forms of malnutrition, inclusive of overweight and obesity, wasting and stunting (FAO *et al.* 2020:ix; FAO *et al.* 2021:112). The Global Hunger Index (GHI) (2020) revealed that South Africa had not made significant progress towards reducing stunting, with 27.4% of children under five years affected, which is lower than the average for Africa, 29.1%. The National Food Consumption Survey of 2005 revealed that the levels of stunting amongst children one to three years of age were 23.4% compared to the 2016 South Africa Demographic and Health Survey estimated stunting levels which were 27% (Ngomane 2017:9; StatsSA 2016a:179). The statistics reveal that stunting amongst children has increased by 3.6%, meaning that more children are vulnerable to regressing growth as a result of malnutrition. Further, observing food and nutrition security at a household level is decreasing at a slow rate, according to the General Household Survey, where 11.8% of households were exposed to hunger in 2016 and 10.3% in 2019. On average, over the four years, vulnerability to hunger has declined by 1.25% (StatsSA 2016b:59; 2019a:59). Considering this, the inability of South African households to have constant access to food is an unending challenge, as stated by Moyo (2019). It is an aspect of a perpetual cycle regarding poverty.

Food security is said to be “more than just arrival of a meal on a table; it spans a variety of factors, including malnutrition, hunger seasons and low dietary” as expressed in above when referring to stunting and household food security levels (Oxford 2018). As outlined in Section 27 (1)(b) of the Constitution, “everyone has the right to have access to sufficient food”. Therefore, to meet the growing demands of ensuring this constitutional right is addressed, one of the four pillars, food production, should increase to ensure all have access to food. According to Alfreds (2019), the country is confronted with the challenge of producing enough, and it is estimated that the agricultural sector will have to increase production by more than 50% by 2050 to feed the estimated number of 73 million people. The growing concern is whether there is enough food available to meet the constantly growing population while combating poverty and hunger simultaneously. The South African population is at risk of a widened food insecurity gap; thus, it is imperative to ensure that agriculture is productive and sustainable at the same time. The National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security has acknowledged that the support of agricultural development is

imperative in promoting food security and acknowledges that investing in the sector is vital. The agricultural investment includes providing or granting subsidies of supply of inputs and extension support services to increase production and improve the storage of food as well as networks of distribution through government and private agencies to eliminate waste and ensure better access to food for all (DSD & DAFF 2013:7). To increase production, the DALRRD has been made the leading department to ensure the availability of food in South Africa. The department recognises smallholder farmers as being a tool to increase food security given the fact that 1 292 600 smallholder farmers are residing in former homelands, with a majority of 414 000 located in KwaZulu-Natal (StatsSA 2020:5).

Though the government continues to provide support to smallholder farmers and recognises them as vital role players, challenges persist within the smallholder producer sector according to the National Policy on Comprehensive Producer Development Support Draft 5 version 3. There is a lack of a comprehensive policy framework to guide, harmonise and regulate provisions of support services. The lack of a coordinated and collaborated policy framework, i.e., a public-private partnership framework for support to smallholder farmers, has led to the sector's inability to regulate the provision of services. The deficit has led to the confusion of roles and responsibilities of institutions providing support to smallholder producers, although their coordination and collaboration has been recognised and are of importance to enhance the sector (DAFF 2018:1). There are four key concerns the sector is facing which need to be resolved by the policy:

- i. *Unequal access and ownership of resources along with distorted participation of the previously disadvantaged along the agricultural value chain.* In relation to unequal access to resources, the sector is underfunded, resulting in challenges of accessing financial resources due to lack of collateral, infrastructure and funds. The resources are thus limited as financiers see smallholder producers as high risk and are thus reluctant to assist with funding. Furthermore, competing demands for land use by human settlement or for mining is having an impact on the use of land patterns for agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Another challenge that the smallholder producers are facing is the scarcity of water. Despite efforts by the government to ensure equitable allocation of water, it is unevenly distributed. Access to markets is another area

where inequality persists for smallholder producers. The deregulation process though positive; farmers are facing competition from international and domestic markets. Furthermore, the smallholder producers lack technology, infrastructure and they have low technical and entrepreneurial skills; they are facing constraints associated with having to be compliant with strict market standards. Concerning land, skewed land ownership issues are resulting from the delayed implementation of land reform programmes which are impeding the achievement of developmental objectives. These objectives are summarised in the NDP, New Growth Plan (NGP) and other policy and strategic government documents, specifically those in connection with agricultural transformation and development of the rural areas.

- ii. *The productivity of agriculture, forestry and fisheries is low.* The sector has been regarded by the NDP and NGP as one that contributes to job creation through increased productivity along with new developments and sector expansion. Those who have acquired land through programmes of land reform struggle with maintaining productivity as a result of the lack of technical skills. The land has been transferred to beneficiaries with minimal or no support to assist in productive land use. Furthermore, there is a lack of linkages to extension and advisory services, developmental and systems approaches where practitioners have a holistic view and have an understanding of the value chain. Increased mechanism support services are required to increase production. Limited access to proper machineries such as tractors, timber, harvesters and irrigation schemes is reducing productivity. It is critical that such support services are provided to meet the governmental objectives.
- iii. *Unsustainable agricultural practices along with the vulnerability of the sector to climate change.* South Africa experiences rainfall erratically along with seasonal variations and high evapotranspiration. Increased incidents such as droughts, fires or floods are common. Thus, the agriculture, forestry and fisheries support programmes are required to put proper mechanisation in place for smallholder farmers not to be affected. The development of irrigation systems during drought seasons is an example. Further, the lack of technical skills of farmers coupled with extensive land use will result in depletion and degradation of natural resources, which can result in irreversible soil loss over time.

- iv. *Inadequate collaboration and coordination among stakeholders in the provision of producer support.* Lack of proper coordinated and collaborated support packages is one of the greatest challenges facing the sector. To improve the coordination, a functional coordination mechanism should be developed. Coordination will result in maximised use of resources to avoid counterproductivity, resulting in poor implementation of programmes due to absent integration and coordination (DAFF 2018:1-6).

Additionally, South Africa is affected by global challenges which affect food production. External drivers influence these challenges that harm food systems. These drivers consist of political conflicts and inefficient food supply chains (FAO *et al.* 2021:51). Thus the FAO *et al.* (2021:vii) highlight that in getting on track towards ending hunger and all forms of malnutrition, it will be important to move away from solutions that work in silos towards more integrated food systems solutions as well as policies and investments that will address the food and nutrition security challenges. The complex challenges to food security and nutrition call for greater synergy and coherence in policy formulation and implementation across sectors. This must be supported by more strategic investments from both the public and private sectors, which is key to avoid undesirable trade-offs (FAO *et al.* 2021:126). This study, through an analysis of current government programmes and the current policy framework underlying achieving food security through smallholder farmers with a specific focus on DALRRD, aims to investigate the support provided to smallholder farmers in order to contribute to food security and meet the growing needs of the population. The study explores the DALRRD public-private partnership approach to support smallholder farmers.

1.5. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A theoretical framework is an outline for a study. It functions as a guide in which research can be constructed (Grant & Osanloo 2014:13). For the purpose of this study household livelihood and security approach finds relevance. Frankenberger and McCaston's 1998 approach to household livelihood and security forms the conceptual basis approach to accessibility and food availability in achieving food security. According to Frankenberger (1992:6), food security was primarily considered in the context of national and global supplies of food. The 1970 crisis on food in Africa accelerated concern from the international donor community in relation to shortfalls in

supply as a result of a failure in production due to desert encroachment and drought. The limitations on the supply of food became known as a result of the food crisis, which further brought enlightenment that adequate availability of food from a national perspective does not provide automatic guarantee food security at a household and individual level. Frankenberger's theory challenged Sen's 1981 theory of "entitlement" as researchers and development practitioners realised that insecurity in terms of food occurs where there is inadequate availability of food and no accessibility based on entitlement (Frankenberger & McCaston 1998:30). The Entitlement approach, according to Sen (1981), "concentrates on each person's entitlement to commodity bundles including food and views starvation as resulting from a failure to be entitled to any bundle with enough food" (Burchi & De Muro 2009:10). The concept of entitlement is based on a personal endowment, which an individual holds ownership of, such as a house or non-tangible goods and commodities through production and trade. Household entitlement, on the other hand, is derived from own income, production and support from the community, implying that several social and economic factors have an impact on access to food in a household.

The household food security approach evolved as a result of this view in the late 1980s, emphasising the importance of food availability and accessibility. Availability of food nationally and regionally as well as the sustainability of access at the local level were considered important to household food security. Other factors were considered to influence the food supply to households, such as food systems and production. However, the approach lacked emphasis on how the nutritional aspect was factored into the approach (Frankenberger & McCaston 1998:30). Household food security was not sufficient for nutritional security. Low satisfaction of nutrition results in malnutrition which is described as imbalances in the intake of nutrients, which can result in health deficits such as stunting in terms of low height and weight or obesity, which can result in strokes, diabetes, cancer and many other health-related issues (WHO 2016). There was a realisation of the need to broaden the term food security in addition to availability and other fundamental dimensions such as utilization, access, focus on agriculture, productivity, supply and technology in order to protect future livelihoods (Burchi & De Muro 2016:11). Thus, the concept of household and nutrition security led to the development of household and livelihood security which allows for a multifaceted understanding of food insecurity as it is inclusive of various dimensions.

The household and livelihood security approach refers to the ability of a household to have adequate access to resources and income to meet basic needs such as water, educational opportunities, health facilities, housing and accessibility to food either through own production or purchases of adequate food to meet the dietary needs of the members of the household (Frankenberger, Luther, Bechet & Mcaston 2002:1). Livelihood includes on and off-farm activities that provide procurement strategies of both cash and food. Livelihood security is thus existent when a household has ownership of or accessibility to resources and income activities through tangible and intangible means (Frankenberger *et al.* 2002:1). The approach is relevant to the study as it emphasises food availability and stable access to it. Taking into consideration that access to food is essential to ensure household food security, the idea of using small scale farming as a means to improve food security will be taken from this approach. The interest in this approach by the researcher centred on understanding other factors that can influence or promote the supply of food over time.

1.6. RESEARCH QUESTION AND OBJECTIVES

This section of the research will discuss the research question as well as the research objectives to be addressed in this study.

1.6.1. Research question

How does the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development promote a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers' contributions to food security?

1.6.2. Research objectives

The objectives of this research are:

- to examine legislative and policy environment promoting food security through small-scale farming and the use of smallholder farmers in South Africa
- to review the programmes implemented in the DALRRD to support smallholder farmers' contribution to food security
- to investigate the support provided to smallholder farmers in the DALRRD in the implementation of PPPs
- to explore international best practices with regards to PPPs' interventions to

support smallholder farmers' contribution to food security and

- to propose a public-private partnership framework to address smallholder farmers and food security in South Africa.

1.7. SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

This study's significance is on the premise that agriculture constitutes an essential element within a broad range of strategies that can be adapted to contribute to agricultural production, which will reduce food insecurity. In an age of rapid globalisation, small land-use still matters for both system science and reflects a concern with inequality and poverty (Vadjunec, Radel & Turner 2016:1). Therefore, it can be agreed that subsistence farming continues to be pivotal when considering food insecurity in several emerging countries. According to Mbatha and Masuku (2018:34), the contributions of both subsistence and small-scale agriculture in improving the rural economy (employment, income, the supply of food) has not been well studied in South Africa. Keinbooi, as stated by Mbatha and Masuku (2018:34), suggested a review of procedures used in exploring studies researching small-scale agriculture to ensure that it accurately records the role of small-scale agriculture and its potential to contribute to rural economic development.

Despite various approaches through policies and interventions to improve the small-scale agriculture sector by the South African government and private agencies, there is the uncertainty of whether smallholder farmers contribute to household food security and the effectiveness of the two sectors coordinating and collaborating because of a scarcity of research on the topic. This study aims to contribute to the current body of knowledge on providing government support to smallholder farmers through PPPs. The study proposes alternative recommendations for promoting small-scale agriculture to address food security and the development of the smallholder sector in South Africa by focusing on the DALRRD intervention programmes and private partnerships.

1.8. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

With the intended purpose of describing how the research was carried out, the methodology used was to determine the validity and accuracy of the research to respond to the research questions objectively. This section of the study was vital for

guaranteeing that a successful study was carried out. The data relevant to the study was collected through the appropriate implementation of the research methodology to tackle the problem statement (problem description).

Research methodology, as its name suggests, is the study of methods to solve a research problem. It is the science of learning the way research should be performed systematically (Surbhi 2016). The term refers to detailed actions or methods to be made use of for identifying, selecting, processing and analysing information related to a study. The methodology section allows for a reader to be critical when evaluating the overall validity and reliability of the study (Boncz 2015:8,23).

A research design is a structure, plan or strategy of investigation, according to Kumar (2014:123). The design serves as a guide to conceptualise an implementation plan to conduct tasks and procedures that are mandatory to accomplish the study and make sure that the procedures are adequate to attain the objective. As well as ensure accurate and valid responses to answer the research questions appropriately (Kumar 2014:123). The research design for this study was exploratory. The exploratory research design is used to determine the scope and breadth of a specific topic or to steer more searching for research. The research design is required where insufficient information or knowledge exists in association with a specific subject matter, and the purpose is to attain a broader understanding of a situation, phenomenon or community (Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole 2016:57-60). A research design elaborates on the manner of data collection from respondents, the selection of respondents, the analysis of data collected and how the findings will be communicated. A research design provides an overall structure of study or plans to answer the research question, whereas a research methodology is a strategy used to implement research design.

Therefore, the methodology of research ought to specify the sampling method, the method of data collection and tools that are utilised in the implementation process of research design with the intended purpose of gathering the necessary information to address the research problem. The next section will elaborate on the research methods that relate to the research design and methodology, as well as describe the method that applied to the research.

1.9. RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods are instruments and procedures for conducting research, which forms the body of research methodology. The term research is used to refer to any form of investigation that intends on uncovering new information (Walliman 2011:1). Research involves describing and reformulating problems, developing theories or proposed solutions, gathering, systematising and evaluating data. It is a systematic effort to gain new knowledge (Pandey & Pandey 2015). The new knowledge gained from research can be used for different purposes, such as classifying ideas, describing situations and providing explanations that seek to go beyond collecting facts and bringing about understanding. It can take the form of comparison to find differences and similarities that clarify the phenomena, evaluation which involves passing judgment on the quality of events or objects in which the quality is assessed through means of comparison (Walliman 2011:8-10). There are two main methodologies that researcher can employ, qualitative and quantitative methods.

1.9.1. Quantitative research method

The quantitative approach focuses more on the objective and measurability of the relevant variable throughout the research. It follows a structured and predetermined set of procedures to explore and highlights the need for reliable and valid conclusions (Kumar 2014:14). The quantitative approach focuses on detail and narrative in the data collection process. According to Rahman (2017:105), quantitative has several advantages and disadvantages. The advantage is that it uses a large sample size. Therefore, the results are more representative of the population being studied. This means the collected information from the sample is more general and represents a larger population. The disadvantage is that it does not provide a descriptive explanation of the phenomenon as to the reasons an individual holds particular views. The study aimed to explore DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to contribute to improving the status of food security from a household level perspective. Thus qualitative method was chosen for the study, which will be described in the following section.

1.9.2. Qualitative research method

Qualitative research refers to research that is not statistical but rather incorporates multiple realities. Rahman (2017:103) associates qualitative research as being

concerned with analysing the social production or subjective meaning of issues, events, or practices through collecting non-standardised data and analysing texts and images rather than numbers and statistics. This definition emphasises that qualitative research is associated with multiple aspects. It seeks to attain multiple perspectives to formulate an understanding of the research problem and questions. The method comprehensively explains the participants' experiences, events, opinions and construes the reasoning behind their actions (Rahman 2017:104). The advantages of using qualitative are that it follows a flexible, non-structure and open approach; such approach enables the researcher to acquire details, particularly in research aiming to have a broader understanding of the target population's perception or experiences concerning a particular research (Kumar 2014:14). The disadvantage is that the research findings are difficult to generalise and may not represent the population being studied. The findings may lack rigour questioning the validity and conclusions.

The qualitative approach was chosen for the study as it allowed for an interpretation and naturalistic approach to the subject matter. Using the qualitative method allowed the researcher to obtain more profound insight into support made by the government department (DALRRD) and non-state partnerships towards smallholder farmers to enhance food security in South Africa. Methods identified by Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007:317-412) are unstructured interviews, describing records, direct observation and participant observation. These formed part of the in-depth analysis used to collect data for the study.

According to Creswell (2014:42), qualitative research can be collected using six designs, which are ethnography, narrative, phenomenology, grounded theory and case studies. Ethnography is the in-depth study of the culture or a facet of culture. It involves the researcher immersing themselves in the targeted participants' environment to understand goals, culture, challenges and motivation. The researcher often immerses themselves for years to experience the environment first-hand through observation and interviews. The focus is on context or culture within this approach. The narrative approach involves studying an individual's life and questions one or more individuals for them to provide stories on their lives. The focus of this approach is individual experience and sequence, whereby data collection is story-based from individuals or documents (Sauro 2015). Phenomenology is where the researcher aims

to describe an event, activity or phenomenon. This form of research is aimed at understanding how individuals experience a circumstance, taking no regard for cultural or social backgrounds or preconceived ideas associated with the experience. Phenomenology is based on four characteristics of a lived experience, namely time, lived space, human relation and the body (Astalin 2013:119). Grounded theory intends to generate or discover a theory. The theory may be defined as the discovery of theory from data systematically obtained from social research (Scott 2009). This approach looks to provide an explanation or theory behind the events and makes use of primary interviews and existing documents to build a theory based on data (Sauro 2015).

Rose, Spinks & Canhoto (2015:1) state that the word “case” refers to “an instance of”, and the main element of a case study design is to investigate one or several “instances of”. This type of data collection was used for the study. A case can be something tangible such as an organisation, group, an individual or something more intangible such as an event or change programme. The case study design is an investigation located in several fields, particularly in the evaluation field. In this field, the in-depth analysis of a case, often an event, programme, processes, activities on one or several persons of interest, is examined (Creswell 2014:43). This research approach permits for the investigation and insight into complex problems in the sense that it can provide a holistic and thorough explanation for community-based issues such as poverty, unemployment, illiteracy and other issues. This form of research allows the researcher to go beyond the quantitative statistical outcomes and comprehend behavioural circumstances through the actor’s viewpoint (Zainal 2007:1). A case study is natural as it is not manipulated as in an experiment meaning its study is of real-life context.

According to Harrison, Birks, Franklin and Mills (2017), case study research is a strategy for methodological exploration. The case study is a

...“qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information, for example, observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports, a case description and case-based theme.”

The exploratory seeks to answer the questions framed by the pronoun “what”, according to Yin (2014 in Hill 2017:42). For this study, the questions that can arise are:

what support methods do smallholder farmers receive from the government?; to what degree are smallholder farmers employing methods on which they were trained? and what are the reasons for smallholder farmers choosing to use those methods promoted by the training? The study used an exploratory case study design. This method of research allowed for extensive data collection to understand the contributions being made to smallholder farmers through existing PPPs with the intended purpose of achieving SDG 2: Zero Hunger which emphasises food security for all. Now that the methodological approach used for the study has been identified, it is necessary to provide the manner that the data was collected. The next section will pay specific attention to qualitative data collection methods that were utilised in the gathering of data from the participants who were part of this research.

1.10. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection methods are defined as instruments by which information is collected (Sutton & Austin 2015:227). The data is collected systematically about the objective of studies such as people and phenomena objectively and relates to the environment in which they occur to answer research questions (Chaleunvong 2009:3). Data was collected from officials within the DALRRD in the Small Holder Directorate who are involved in smallholder development programmes, with the intended purpose of understanding how their support of smallholder farmers through these programmes contributes towards food security. The researcher collected information regarding PPPs that exist to ascertain how their role can enhance smallholder farmers. The qualitative method of data collection that was used is the case study technique, which has been highlighted in the previous section, together with a review of relevant literature and interviews.

i. Review of literature

A literature review is a secondary data collection technique whereby information required is already available in other sources for the specific purpose of a study (Kumar 2014:347). According to Creswell (2014:60), a literature review provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study as well as a benchmarking for comparing the results with other findings. In this study, review of relevant literature, particularly books, journal articles, both published and unpublished theses and dissertations, annual reports, strategic plans, newspaper articles, official statistics by

non-private organisations, NGOs and the government concerning food security and smallholder farmer programmes, policies and strategies were used to collect data with the intended purpose of answering the research question. The advantage of collecting secondary data is that it is cost-effective and saves effort and expenses, and is not time-consuming. It helps to make the primary data (interviews) more specific. The disadvantage of this method is that the accuracy of data is sometimes unknown, and data is collected for reasons diverse for the research, which one can easily conclude that the data is not appropriate for the research. Besides, the research and data may be outdated (Cheng & Phillips 2014). Taking the above into consideration, the study recognised this challenge and consequently committed to extensively checking the data to ensure that there were limited defects that may exist.

ii. Interviews

Interviews are a commonly used technique for collecting data from people. Many different scholars have defined the interview. Kumar (2014:137) defines an interview as involving an interviewer reading a set of questions to a participant and noting their responses. He also maintains that an interview is a spoken transaction, which usually occurs face-to-face or through telephonic interviews whereby the interviewer attempts to extract information, beliefs or opinions from others. An interview is thus a two-way conversation between two or more individuals. Using this method to collect data is to acquire rich data that focuses on the defining aspect. This method of data collection assists the researcher in understanding the participants' knowledge of construction and social reality (Doringer 2021:265). This data collection method is flexible because the interviewer can construct the questions as they come to mind when the issue is being investigated. In comparison, inflexibility of interviews may exist when the researcher has restricted questions decided beforehand. These are known as unstructured and structured interviews. Unstructured interviews allow for flexibility in terms of content and structure and allow the spur of the moment questions and responses. With structured interviews, there are predetermined set questions. One main advantage of structured interviews is that they promote uniformity when collecting data, thus assuring comparability data and requiring few interviewing skills (Kumar 2014:137-138).

For this study, the interviews were structured and consisted of open-ended questions. The questions in the interview were administered by the researcher who led the discussion. The benefit of using this method of data collection for a study is that it allows for in-depth data collection, questions can be explained if they are misunderstood, and information can be supplemented through observation of non-verbal reactions. The disadvantage of this method, as highlighted by Kumar (2014:142), is that interviewing is time-consuming and expensive, especially if the potential partakers are distributed over a wide geographical area. However, if they are situated within an office, it is less costly and less time-consuming. The quality of data collected during the interviews is dependent upon the interviewer, as data generated could be influenced by the skills, experience and commitment levels of the interviewer.

1.11. SAMPLE SELECTION

For a researcher to answer the research questions, the researcher ought to conduct data collection of all cases. Therefore, there is a need to select a sample. Sampling is regarded as a segment of the population that a researcher intends on studying. As defined by Bless *et al.* (2016:161),

...“sampling is a technical accounting device to rationalise the collection of information, to choose an appropriate way in which to restrict the set of objects, persons or event from which actual information will be drawn.”

Kumar (2014:346) describes sampling as a procedure of selecting a few respondents from a bigger population group to become the basis for estimating the relevance of data of interest. A researcher neither has the resources nor the time to analyse the whole population. Subsequently, the application of the sampling method is aimed towards the reduction of numbers. Therefore, this process is a quicker and more cost-effective way to analyse a sample than a complete survey. The typical steps in the sampling process are to define the target population, which refers to the subject's phenomenon, cases, activities and objects which the researcher would like to research to identify his or her data (Taherdoost 2016:19).

For this study, the target population was public officials who work in the Directorate: Smallholder within DALRRD. The officers were selected based on their knowledge regarding to smallholder development sector and relationships with private sector. They are aware of specific policies and programmes that promote standards for

household food security, the programmes for support of smallholder farmers, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes and relationships they have with the private sector.

Selecting a sample framework entails, in this instance, public officials within the DALRRD from which the sample was drawn. The sample should represent the entire population, and for this study. The next stage is to select a sampling technique, which denotes the process by which the sample entities have been selected. Two primary forms of sampling techniques exist probability (random) and non-probability (non-random) sampling. When a sample is selected through probability sampling, it shows a reliable representation of the entire population. It makes use of random methods to select the sample. Whereas the non-probability technique relies on the researcher's judgment or is based on an accident. This form of sampling cannot be used to generalise the entire population (Walliman 2011:96).

For this study, a purposeful sampling technique that falls under non-probability (non-random) sampling was used to conduct the research. The purposive sampling method was used for the selection of the department. Purposive sampling is a tactic in which persons, events or settings are deliberately selected to provide important information that cannot be acquired from other choices. This sampling method allows the researcher to include participants or cases in the sample as the researcher believes that these participants and cases permit inclusions (Kumar 2014:189). It is based on the researcher's judgment about which participants or cases will be most suitable or would best represent the population. It can also be referred to as judgmental sampling (Babbie 2013:128). The use of this method is that it has a low cost, is convenient, not time-consuming and is ideal for exploratory research design. The disadvantage of using this method is that it does not allow generalisation, and it is subjective (Taherdoost, 2016:23). There are 40 officers who work in the department, in order to have a representative sample it's important to select 10 percent of the population. 10 employees were selected based on availability as the sample size however as a result constraints explained in section 1.13.2 of this chapter only 5 participants were interviewed.

1.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics relates to morals, and they both address issues relating to what is right and/or wrong (Babbie 2013:66). Compiling research with the standards of conduction of a given profession or group is considered to be ethical. It is important to know the difference between ethical and unethical behaviour. Unethical behaviour is any professional activity that is not in agreement with the accepted code of conduct (Kumar 2014:350). Anyone involved in social science research should be aware of general agreements shared by the researcher about what is proper and improper in the conduct of scientific inquiry (Babbie 2013:67). There are several reasons why adhering to ethical norms in research is important. Norms promote the objectives of the research, such as the truth, avoidance of error and knowledge. Subsequently, the research contains a great deal of coordination and cooperation between many diverse people in diverse disciplines and institutions. Ethical standards encourage the principles that are fundamental to collaborative work, such as fairness, accountability, mutual respect and trust. In addition, norms of research promote a variety of moral and social values such as human rights, compliance with public health and safety and the law (Resnik 2015). A lapse in research ethics can significantly harm humans, the public or the subject of the matter; hence it is important to adhere to them. The following section summarises the most significant ethical arrangements that exist in social research:

- i. Voluntary participation- voluntary (exercise of free will)
- ii. Informed consent- all participants will be informed
- iii. Anonymity and confidentiality and
- iv. No harm to the participants' physical or mental suffering (Babbie 2013:32-37).

This study was carried out in agreement with high principled standards. Participants in the study received a letter of consent to comprehend the nature, purpose and expected consequences of participating in the research. The participants were given informed consent forms, which they signed. This allowed for voluntary participation or for the participant to decline participation. All the information that was collected from the participants was used for academic purposes only, and the researcher maintained confidentiality and anonymity in accordance with the participant. The study ensured that no harm came to the participants both during and after research in terms of physical or mental harm. The researcher recognises that plagiarising is a severe

academic infringement, and consequently, all the secondary data utilised for this dissertation acknowledged all sources and authors accordingly. The study went through an ethical clearance procedure by the University of Pretoria, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences Ethics Committee.

1.13. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations in research is any issues that can affect the validity of a conclusion and generalisation and problems in relation to the methodological aspect of a study according to Kumar (2014:273). Limitations encountered in the study are discussed as following.

1.13.1. Scope of the study

South Africa comprises of two types of scales in agriculture, namely small-scale or smallholder agriculture and large-scale or commercial agriculture. The following study has been narrowed down to focus on household food security challenges within the field of smallholder agriculture only. Furthermore, the study is limited to one government department, the DALRRD, whereas other departments are associated with enhancing food security. This means the findings for the study are not necessarily an overview and reflection of the South African public sector as a whole. The challenges faced by the National department may not be similar to those experienced at a provincial level. It would be advantageous for a comparative study of this nature focusing on provincial government department level. The rationale for the selection of the department is that this department is the lead department in terms of the implementation of the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security. The DALRRD is responsible for comprehensive smallholder support programmes in South Africa. The department provide recommendations to be adapted to departmental levels i.e. the provincial departments.

1.13.2. limit in previous research

There is great amount of literature of smallholder farmers and food, their contributions towards rural household food security development security, irrigation schemes, market participation, accessibility and its lack of. There is little research on involvement of the private sector involvement in relation to promoting agriculture with focus on smallholder farmers to improve food security. Public-private partnerships have been

known to be associated with infrastructure development and in relation to agriculture it is still a new concept. Hence this study attempts to explore the public-private partnership framework in South Africa and to recommend components to be considered when developing the framework.

1.13.3. Constraints

This study was limited by constraints resulting from the global pandemic in which was in effect at the time the interviews were conducted. Firstly there were time constraint challenges, securing appropriate times to conduct interviews as a result of public officials working remotely. Additionally the research instrument chosen was altered from face to face interviews to virtual due to the social distancing regulations put in place. The interviews were conducted virtual however, internet connectivity was a constraint which affected the research instrument chosen for the study. This will be further elaborated on in Chapter Five of the study.

1.14. CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Every study conducted has certain terms and concepts that form the foundation of the study and provide meaning to the topic of research. These concepts must be defined in the context of the study and field of public administration and development as the study is a multidisciplinary study. The following terms are of importance and must be defined for the study purpose:

1.14.1. Food security

The primary aim of the study is to improve food security access on a household level in South Africa. The United Nations' Committee on World Food Security defines food security as

.....“means that all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their food preferences and dietary needs for an active and healthy life” (International Food Policy Research Institute 2020).

1.14.2. Smallholder farmers

Smallholder farmers are drivers of many African economies and even though their potential is not recognised often. Smallholder farmers can play an important role in

livelihoods of the rural poor and are important for household food security. The definition of smallholder farmers differ based on the context, the country and ecological zone. For the purpose of this study smallholder will be used interchangeably with small-scale farmers. According Pineaar and Traub (2015:6) “small-scale” or “smallholder” refers to households participating in any agricultural production. Producers can either be involved in selling their produce or producing for household consumption.

1.14.3. Public-private partnerships

There is no single definition of PPPs leaving room for loose interpretation when applying the concept. Nonetheless valuable elements can be used to define and clarify the concept. For the purpose of the study the Asian Development Bank’s definition will be applicable. PPPs are mechanisms for improving public goods and services by partnering with private sector while retaining an active role for government to ensure that national socio-economic objectives can be achieved. PPPs are defined as

...“a framework-that while engaging the private sector, acknowledge and structure the role for government in ensuring that social obligations are met and successful reform and public sector investment achieved” (Food and Agriculture Organisation. 2016a:4).

Public-private partnerships can be located at a community level where the strengths of the public and private sectors complement each other in providing advisory services and information that addresses the need of farmers and rural communities. (FAO 2021a).

1.15. FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

Chapter One is the introduction to this research, which describes the background to the problem, significance of the study, research purpose and assumptions. It introduces the reader to what the research will discuss to provide a better understanding of what one should anticipate. It also provided an outline of the research as well as a research methodology. This identified the type of research methods that were used to obtain the information and gave a detailed briefing of which formats were used and how they were used.

Chapter Two explains how the study is located within the discipline of Public Administration by providing a brief historical development of the discipline as well as the generic functions identified within the study. This section of the study comprehensively outlines the link between public administration and evaluation with a specific focus on programmes implementation and monitoring and evaluation to assess the contributions towards food security.

Chapter Three pays specific attention to agricultural development pertaining to smallholder farmers concerning food security. The chapter provides historical background on South African agriculture, which includes the evolution of legislation supporting smallholder farmers' agricultural development. This chapter discusses institutional arrangements applicable to food production and smallholder farmers by highlighting policies and legislation applicable to food security and programmes that are in place to promote smallholder farmers in South Africa with the intended purpose of addressing food security.

Chapter Four presents the international best practice for food security through smallholder farmers. A review of case study countries that can be compared to South Africa is presented in this chapter.

Chapter Five is concerned with the presentation and discussion of results with regard to the field findings. The collection of data was done during the practical fieldwork. Case study, literature, interviews and document review were examined, construed and presented. This chapter examines the support smallholder farmers are receiving with the overall outcome of contributing to food security. This is done by evaluating policies and programmes that have been put in place.

Chapter Six will be the last chapter of the study. It provides recommendations and potential solutions to the general challenges examined in the fifth chapter of the study. This section of the chapter will make deductions, therefore, drawing general conclusions.

1.16. CONCLUSION

This chapter provided concepts that are of vital importance to this study and reviewed empirical literature concerning food security and smallholder farmers. Firstly, the historical development of food security was clearly outlined and defined. Thereafter, the four pillars of food security were highlighted with reference to smallholder farmers. The chapter outlined the governmental interventions that exist, notably programmes. The chapter then went on to explain the theoretical framework of the study, and thereafter, the state of food security and smallholder farmers in South Africa was explained and explored. The next aims to conceptualise the study within the discipline of public administration.

CHAPTER TWO: CONCEPTUALISATION OF FOOD SECURITY AND SMALLHOLDER FARMER SUPPORT IN THE DISCIPLINE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The background of the study, including the research question and objectives, were outlined in the first chapter. A descriptive methodology for the research and data collecting procedures to be used for the study were specified in the chapter, which assisted in answering the research question and research objectives. Chapter Two will give attention to the historical development of Public Administration and outline the nature and scope of Public Administration. Considering that the research is located within the discipline, the concepts of implementation and monitoring and evaluation are the central principles of the research and will be localised in the theory of the field to which it relates.

The chapter aims to conceptualise the study within the discipline by providing a conceptual framework of Public Administration and public administration with the intent of understanding the connection and distinction of Public Administration as a discipline and as a practice. Public Administration has gone through several stages whereby it has faced challenges concerning its development as a result of globalisation and the pluralisation of service provision. This has resulted in scholars within the field debating the need to re-tool the discipline appropriately and at the same time place the interests and needs of its public at the centre (Robinson 2015:4). With the intent of placing the interests and needs of the public at the focal point, the following chapter will pay attention to the affiliation between Public Administration and implementation of policy and provide a comprehensive description of evaluation as it forms as a fundamental function within the field of public administration. This chapter will explore and analyse the relationship between public administration and implementation within the policy-making process. A comprehensive description of public policy components and monitoring and evaluation will be given to provide contextual background for exploring the DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through a public-private partnership to contribute to food security in South Africa. Doing so will contextualise the theoretical basis for the chapters to follow.

2.2. NATURE OF ADMINISTRATION AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration is a genus of a more general concept known as administration. (Marume 2016:15). Administration is understood as an activity that is as old as humanity itself, but as a research field, its roots are founded within Woodrow Wilson's 1887 publication, 'the study of administration'. Based on his publication, the administration process occurs in both public and private organisations. It transpires in various organisations, to name a few: labour unions, educational institutes, business firms and many more. The nature of administration is thus determined by the sphere where its concerns are located (Thomas 2008). The term administration is generally viewed from two perspectives, namely private and public administration. Private administration alludes to the administration of private business corporations, and the public refers to governmental operations. Public administration as governmental operations dates to the development of political systems (Marume, Jubenkanda & Namusi 2014:42).

To understand public administration, it is essential to comprehend the operative aspect of administration, as herein lies the understanding of the government. The origin of the term administer is rooted in two Latin terms combined: "ad" and "ministrate", which implies "to serve" or alternatively, "to manage". Administration, therefore, denotes the management affairs of the government (Marume 2016:15). The concept can be described as the actions of a team collaborating to achieve a mutual objective. A brief overview of this definition discloses administration as comprising of two necessities: the pursuit of mutual objectives and collaborative efforts. This alludes that the administration cannot exist if there is only a mutual drive without collaborative effort or vice-versa. Administration is thus a common process within and a part of the government.

Wilson (1887:209-210) refers to the administration as being the most significant part of the government. It is the government's inaction, its executive and operative parts, which are the most noticeable sides of the government. One can deduce from these definitions that administration is a governmental responsibility associated with the visible side of government, regarded as service delivery. In public institutions that have the responsibility of providing services to citizens, collaborative efforts of human actions are therefore important to attain a common goal through which service is

provided. Collaborative effort involves different departments within the government coming together for a specific purpose despite differences that may exist. For instance, in South Africa, the DALRRD, the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) and the Department of Health (DOH) are currently working together towards the pursuit of reducing poverty, hunger and promoting good health. DALRRD is focusing on the agricultural aspect, DOH is focusing on promoting good health by ensuring that citizens are eating enough nutritious food to make sure the citizens live a longer life and then DHET is educating the public.

2.2.1. Public Administration and public administration

Public Administration, as highlighted in the previous section, is a part of the larger field of administration. Two types of public administration exist, Public Administration in uppercase and lowercase public administration. Before delving into the historical development of Public Administration, it is relevant to establish the difference between the types of public administration. The lower-case public administration implies the actions the government performs. This type of administration consists of the six generic functions executed with the intended purpose of meeting governmental objectives. These are staffing, control, financial management, work procedures and methods, policymaking, and organising (Thornhill 2012:88).

On the other hand, uppercase “P” and “A” in Public Administration indicate the discipline. As an academic field, Public Administration assesses all aspects of government efforts to carry out laws and to have an influence on public policy. Public Administration as a process relates to all the steps taken between the time an enforcement agency assumes juridical power and the last halt is placed (but also includes that participation of agency, if any, in the program formulation). As a vocation, it is the directing and organising of activities of others in government agencies (Thelestane 2014:363).

Consequently, the study of public administration refers to the study of the way governments are managed, and public administration as an activity focuses on actual work undertaken by public administration practitioners in the public sector on an everyday basis (Uwizeyimana & Basheka 2017:3). Public administration is thus a field of investigation and action, and for the theory to exist, it should describe and explain

the confinements for inquiry as demonstrated by the activity itself (Thornhill & van Dijk 2010:96). This study will focus on both the discipline and the activity of public administration and makes a contribution to both.

2.3. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT OVERVIEW

The attempt to develop Public Administration into a discipline that is separate from politics and any other interrelated fields is a result of a long and well-entrenched development that occurred over 100 years and has developed through contrail periods with significant changes. Within this section, it is critical to note that this research does not intend to scrutinise the different periods of evolution that the discipline of Public Administration has endured but rather to give an overview of the momentous changes that have transpired over time. Uwizeyimana & Basheka (2017:9) have presented seven stages of how Public Administration has evolved (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Stages in Public Administration development

Stages	Years	Period Name	Main historical features	
Stage 1	1887– 1926	Politics-administrative Dichotomy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Woodrow Wilson 1887 • Politics and Administration Goodnow – 1900 • Introduction to the Study of Public Administration Leonard White – 1926 	OLD/TRADITIONAL PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION
Stage 2	1927- 1937	Principle of Administration and Scientific management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public Administration and towards efficiency • Gulick and Urwick import Henri Fayol's 'theories of business administration Fredrick N. Taylor's scientific management in the public sector -POSDCORB.' 	
Stage 3	1938- 1950	Period of heterodoxy (conceptual challenge)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Challenge – scientific management and politics-administrative dichotomy • Hawthorne's experiment and human relation 	
Stage 4	1950s- 1970s	The New Public Administration (NPA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Crisis of identity • Rejection of Taylor and Wilson's notion • Simon's and Robert Dahl's essay Broadening Public Administration by 	

			associating it with psychology, sociology, economics and political science	
Stage 5	1970s – 1990s	The New Public Management (NPM)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Managerialism • Forms of privatisation • Private sector institutions involved in the management of service delivery to the public • Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) 	NPM
Stage 6	1990s- 2017	Governance/Good Governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhancement of administrative and civil services • Governmental oversight strengthened • Participatory decision-making promoted • Judicial reforms adopted 	GOVERNANCE
Stage 7	2017 - onwards	E-governance and 4 th Industrial Revolution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public sector services is increasingly provided via electronic means (such as computers, mobile phones, etc.). The 4th Industrial Revolution is driven by artificial intelligence (AI) and Cyber-Physical Systems (CPS) such as robots and drones 	E-GOVERNANCE AND 4 TH INDUSTRIAL

Source: Adapted by Uwizeyimana & Maphunge (2014: 94) based on arguments presented by Coetzee (2012); Basheka (2012); Basu (2009); Xing and Marwala (2017).

Although several stages exist, the fifth stage relates to the evaluative aspect of the study as well as the private sectors' involvement in service delivery to the public. The fifth stage is the accountability stage, also known as the New Public Management (NPM) or Managerialism, which will be elaborated on in the next section.

2.3.1. New Public Management (1970s to 1990s)

The fifth period, NPM became apparent in response to limitations associated with traditional or old public administration by including the private sector within the public sector (Robinson 2015:7). The NPM further came into existence to solve the economic challenges in the 1970s era and to give rise to a government that “works better but costs less” (Vries & Nemeč 2013:6). The new approach was applied by the Britain macroeconomy policy, which aimed at the reduction of public expenses through several public sector reforms. Another country to make use of NPM was the United

States of America under the leadership of President Reagan. He called for the small-sized public sector to cut government expenditures and reduce oppressive governmental regulations (Reagan 2018). The era of NPM drew attention to the entrepreneurial management model described by Osborne and Gaebler in their publication in 1992, reinventing the government. Their concept of NPM was sparked by applying the business model strategy within the government, for instance, using private sector resources, innovation and organisational ideas to enhance the public sector. In line with enhancing the public sector, Gore's National Performance Review outlined in 1993 sought to improve the government by making it customer-oriented and performance-based (Moe 1994:11). The series of ideas outlined were noted to improve the efficiency and utilisation of non-governmental actors to perform public services.

Many countries (developed and developing) globally since the 1980s have started examining the responsibilities and roles of governmental departments (Hope 2008:93). Several functions previously conducted by the state sectors have been decentralised to the private sector. Those remaining within the state machine have become subjected to types of business disciplines, as an illustration, performance-related pay, performance measurement and competitive tendering (Islam 2015). The assumption appears to be that the most effective way to attain the best outcome from governmental organisations is to adopt market-based mechanisms, put forward firm performance measurements and engage in partnerships with the private institutions into the production and provision of goods and services.

The era is known for promoting the efficiency and effectiveness of the governmental sector. Effectiveness and efficiency can be accomplished through the discharge of public services through the private sector. Thus, the focus of the study is exploring the DALRDD support to smallholder farmers through a public-private partnership approach to contribute to food security. As highlighted in the section to follow, efficiency and effectiveness are promoted by six generic functions that contribute to the role of the South African government's plans to improve the functionality of departments to meet the needs of its citizens.

2.4. PRIMARY FUNCTIONS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration, according to Nkwana (2016:61), is the administration and operational side of all spheres of government activities intended to serve the needs of its people by administering goods and services. The primary concern of administration is the organisation of government policies and programmes in a way that will permit activities to be administered appropriately to further benefit societal needs along with other administrative authorities (Cornell 2010). Public administration draws attention to government officials' conduct and provides regulations and standards about the way they should execute their duties (Theletsane 2014:364). Thus, a well-functioning public administration as an action-oriented government is fundamental. This section of the research describes the core functions of public administration to put into context the DALRRD public-private partnership approach to enhance food security through supporting smallholder farmers. For the operation and management of governmental agencies to be carried out, particular functions ought to be put into effect. These functions can be categorised as generic and administrative, instrumental and line functions which promote the effectiveness and efficiency in the delivery of service concerning the South African government (Nkwana 2016:61).

Generic administrative processes are inclusive of policymaking, organising, personnel, financing, work procedures, and methods and control. The general duties were cultivated from the work of Urwick and Gulick (POSDCORB), as highlighted within the second period in the historical development of Public Administration. The instrumental functions are carried out to assist the generic, administrative and line functions. Instrumental functions include different forms of communication, for instance, reading and writing, conducting meetings and speaking and negotiating, while on the contrary, line functions perform the main purpose for which the government departments came into existence. They directly carry out the function of accomplishing the sustentative areas of the organisation, giving authority to make decisions and issue orders and directives. For example, the South African Police Service department is responsible for maintaining law and order. The department directly comes in contact with its people and provide different services and regulate conduct (Marume *et al.* 2016: 44). The agriculture department, which is the focal department of the study, forms part of the line functional departments.

2.4.1. Organising

A process that interconnected authority networks, functions and positions are formally and deliberately created and well-managed to make purposeful action by individuals and groups possible is referred to as organising. Organising in simple terms means establishing an ordered structure (Thornhill, van Dijk & Ile 2014:417). According to (Sokhela 2014:109), organising involves structuring human and other resources necessary to carry out the plan and determining the best method for grouping activities and resources. As stated by Thornhill (2012:166), organising

...“consists of classifying and grouping functions as well as allocating the groups of functions to institutions and workers in an orderly pattern so that everything the workers do, is aimed at achieving predetermined objectives.”

This emphasises that for any project to work, the organisation is necessary as it determines who is responsible for undertaking the task. Failure to determine this will lead to poor implementation of objectives as individuals will be uncertain of their duties. The branch’s chief director is responsible for ensuring that directorates are occupied by individuals who are competent and qualified to ensure appropriate assigning of tasks and responsibilities.

2.4.2. Personnel

Personnel refers to staff or human resource management. Human resources are crucial for any organisation. Considering a government institute is seen as not being able to function without financial resources, it will not be able to operate if it does not have the personnel to perform the duties. Personnel administration plays a key role in institutes as they are needed to execute duties with the purpose of goal achievement. All positions within the government require persons with set skills, knowledge and competencies and the personnel administration is responsible for ensuring that the right individuals occupy the appropriate positions. Cloete and Thornhill (2012:227) reaffirmed the importance of staffing as they emphasised that the government functions on a wide scale with several tasks, and

...“because so many functions are involved, it is necessary to employ officials with diverse qualifications and varied experience in the central personnel institutions (offices) of these large public institutions and in parastatal institutions such as state corporations and universities.”

As highlighted in Chapter 10 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, public administration principles maintain that public administration should be related to the development and that excellent personnel administration and professional advancement measures should be aimed at cultivating human potential. It is thus important that the personnel within public administration are responsible for delivering government services are trained regularly to ensure continued learning and development of individuals as it is important to maximise their potential to ensure efficiency and effectiveness is achieved (van Dijk 2014:315). The personnel function in public administration finds relevance in this study as the focus is on a framework of the DALRRD's partnership with the private agencies and how such a relationship is amplifying the support provided by the agriculture department to smallholder farmers to improve food security. For the public-private partnership to be effective and achieve its set objectives, the necessary personnel capacity is important in order to produce a positive outcome.

2.4.3. Financing

Service delivery is key in public administration, and for services to be provided, financial resources are necessary. Public finance management refers to the management of public funds, which the government is in charge of. Financial management requires officials to make decisions on funds required for the implementation of government projects and programmes, where funds will be obtained. It also requires the utilisation of financial resources and decisions on how to ensure control of financial procedures within the time-bound framework (Nkwana 2016:64). Public administration is required to promote accountability and transparency in activities performed as per section 195 of the Constitution. For adherence to take place, there are mechanisms for monitoring public funds. Budgetary procedures on a national, provincial and municipal level that promote accountability and transparency are a requirement as per section 215 of the Constitution. All government spheres are thus required by the law to provide clearly described information on revenue source and expenses and how these comply with the national law (Nkwana 2016:64). The Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999 (PFMA) is recognised as the act fostering the management of public finances of the national and provincial government spheres to ensure that effective financial management is achieved. The PFMA needs to be

maintained by the public administrators considering that regulations and procedural prescripts on their own cannot guarantee the realisation of good governance.

Finances are crucial in any organisation for the government to retain personnel effectively, procure goods and services to provide to the citizens and implement programmes. Appropriate management of the resources is important. The financial aspect concerning the study is vital in implementing the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security objectives. For the PPPs to effectively nurture food security through smallholder farmers and for the financial capacity of the agricultural department to implement programmes, collaboration and coordination with private agencies should be strengthened. Strengthening collaboration and coordination avoids duplication and maximises the resources allocated to this sector in order to have a more considerable impact. Therefore, the study finds relevance in finance as a function of public administration.

2.4.4. Work procedures and methods

Work-related procedures and methods pertain to organisational practices enabling public officials to execute their day-to-day duties. The function of procedures and methods is not regarded as law but has originated from the government's combined agreements to execute their work. There are sets of work procedures located in the public sector, according to Thornhill (2012:252). Work procedures are described as the process adhered to by the government when they have made a decision and set in motion a new course of action. Procedures are to be adhered to when dealing with the diverse tasks undertaken in the government sector.

The Constitution requires public administration to be held responsible for its people. Therefore, it is important to outline specific processes to adhere to. The White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery, 1997, outlines conditions for the department procedural codes which lay out certain processes to be followed in the delivery of public services. The process of creating work procedures is a related function of organising. As positions are determined in an organisation, functions have to be carried out by people in those positions (Thornhill 2012:228).

2.4.5. Control

Chapter 10 of the Constitution highlights the importance of accountability. Public administration should practice accountability. Every department of the government should set up control measures to ensure that all activities are carried out with the public interests in mind. Control can be in the form of internal control. Internal control in terms of public administration and management is demarcating in the work environment in which the functionaries pursue their goals respectively (Thornhill 2012:270). Control helps public officials to monitor the effectiveness of set objectives that require to be achieved. Thornhill (2012:273) identifies control measures as the following:

- Written reports which provide physical proof of the work that has been performed by the public sector.
- Investigation and inspection, which comprise of physically visiting a work environment to assess the progress made. This form of control can take place after the identification of an unauthorised task is carried out to try to address a problem.
- Auditing, which is required at all government levels. It is a measure whereby the Auditor-General checks management of finances of the public sector organisations to ensure that public resources are being used to benefit the public.
- Cost comparisons, analysis and accounting. By analysing the costs and comparing them, the estimated expenses of the government can be controlled. It allows the government to compare prices to utilise public resources in the most cost-effective manner.
- Measurement of performance which relates to goal-setting intending to evaluate the way the government has performed against its intended objectives. By measuring performance, the duties of public officials in the public sector are regulated, which is a form of control.

It is thus imperative for the department of agriculture to practise control as it is necessary to monitor the performance of the programme to identify if the targets that were set were achieved or not and if they were not achieved, the reasons for deviation must be provided which shows whether control systems were adhered to.

2.5. POLICY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

In a complex society, several policies are administered in the arena of public administration. Practitioners and academics have the responsibility to evaluate the impact of the policy they administrate. The policy is a “broad statement of future goals and actions and expresses the ways and means of attaining them” (Khan 2016:3). The framework of intervention covers a range of activities (Khan 2016:3). Therefore, the policy is identified as a moderately stable, intentional course of action or inaction that a player or a group of players adhere to in addressing a matter of concern or problems (Anderson 2011:6). Public policy is the guidelines for action, which is a framework to operationalise a vision, philosophy, principle and mandate that is transformed into a variety of actions and programmes. Public policy is how a government maintains order or addresses the needs of citizens through a course of action to deal with a matter of concern. For governmental action to occur, precise objectives and goals should be set in motion. Public policy is defined in various ways by different authors. According to Dye (2012:3-4), public policy is defined as “whatever the government chooses to do or not to do”. Khan (2016:3) maintains that public policy is the pattern of efforts of the government or decisions geared towards rectifying a social issue. The government’s activities can be done directly through the government or through non-governmental actors, which can be referred to as PPPs to ensure that they meet the needs of the people.

Decision-making is a critical function in public administration. Decision-making entails making an independent choice between two or several options. Policy-making is the flow and pattern of actions, including various decisions, and decision making involves selecting a plan of action between two or more possible options to arrive at a solution (Nkwana 2016:71). Within the policymaking process, issues are theorised and brought to the agenda of the government. Alternative resolutions are articulated by public organisations and non-governmental players. Strategy plans are applied, assessed and reviewed. Thus, policy-making does not only comprise of a sole decision but several decisions (Kulac & Ozgur 2017:144).

For this study, Dye’s (2012:3-4) definition of public policy finds relevance as it provides an appropriate meaning for analysis of the implementation of a policy and evaluation of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy. Policies turn into programmes in

which, through implementation, the focal points are executing, accomplishing and completing a task. Policy implementation and evaluation are localised in the policymaking process. Leburu (2018) states that policy unfolds over time and has a recurring nature, and arises from a process over time, therefore, implying that the policy process is a continuous process. The process illustrates how societal issues are identified and solved by following a step-by-step sequence.

It thus can be concluded that public policy declaration is the path that is adopted by the government to accomplish institutional and societal objectives. The public policy responds to societal and institutional problems and explains when, how and for whom the problem will be addressed within the policymaking process. The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy clearly states the purposes and the goals to be achieved in the context of food security. The policy identifies PPPs as key to addressing food insecurity. Therefore, this study seeks to explore DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to contribute to food security to improve the status of food security on a household level.

2.5.1. Public policymaking process

The translation of political vision into programmes and actions to deliver outcomes can be referred to as the policymaking process (Ferris 2015:87). The process can be complex because public policy functions in an immensely broad environment in which the government is obliged to be accountable to civil society (Ferretti, Pluchinotta & Tsoukiàs 2019:353). The policymaking process stipulates that a department requires to find the right balance among a wide variety of diverse interests without losing sight of the expected outcome of the policy. The process outlines the necessary steps to be followed by the government to address institutional or public concerns.

The policymaking cycle, as already highlighted, is a continuous process that was initially proposed by Harold Laswell in the 1950s and was subsequently adopted by others (Howlett & Giest 2015:288). The cycle depicts a process that leads to the formulation of public policy. Public policymaking is a decision-making process by the government of action to be taken, how it must be done, and the when and why it should happen. The process includes in chronological order: problem identification, setting of

agenda, formulation of policy, legitimating of policy, implementation and evaluation of policy.

2.5.1.1. Problem identification

The first stage in the public policymaking process is problem identification. During this stage, a problem is identified, which becomes a public policy target and receives the attention of policymakers to be included as part of the agenda of the government, i.e., getting the government to review measures to address the challenge (Anderson 2011:3; Thornhill 2014:168). Concerning the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy, the development was on the basis of three reasons. The first reason is the need for a standardised definition and food and nutrition security measures based on the multifaceted nature of food security and diverse key actors involved in programmes aimed at promoting food security. Thus, the second reason realises that there was a need for the global community, civil society, research institutions and government to share a similar view on food security. The third reason as a member of the Southern African Development Community, South Africa contributes to food and nutrition security on a regional level. The country will need to play the lead role in this regard.(DSD & DAFF 2013:3-4).

The challenges South Africa faces regarding food security are inadequate safety net and food emergency management systems to provide to those who are not capable of meeting their immediate nutritional needs or curb the impact of natural disasters. Another challenge is the lack of adequate access to knowledge and resources that citizens can utilize to make an informed choice of nutritious and safe diets (DSD & DAFF 2013:4). Farmers are faced with overproduction which can result in downing of prices to a point where farmers do not make a profit and are unable to sell their produce. Producers who produce on a small scale, i.e., foresters, farmers, and fishers, experience limited access to facilities and markets. Change in climate and in land highly threatens production domestically, which impacts the availability of food. Another challenge recognised by the policy is insufficient timely and relevant information on food security (DSD & DAFF 2013:4).

The problem identified in this study is that food access by everyone is not a guarantee. South Africa is secure on a national level and not on a household level. The National

Food and Security Policy outlines five priority areas that require multisector programmes and initiatives: investment in agriculture, nutrition education, market participation, improved nutritional and safety needs and risk management (DSD & DAFF 2013:7). For this study, investment in agriculture will be the focal point. The study seeks to explore DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs and how such collaborations can contribute to food security and alleviate household food insecurity.

2.5.1.2. Agenda-setting

The second stage is known as agenda-setting. The setting of the agenda is not well-known, yet it is the most crucial phase in the process of policy making (Wu, Ramesh, Howlett & Fritzen 2010:190). This stage includes the participation of various actors, identification of a problem, defining the problem, structuring and prioritising the problem appropriately (Cloete & Meyer 2011:91-95). Agenda-setting involves developing the proposed course of action. The stage is known for deciding the problems to be tackled by the government. The process of agenda-setting consists of planning, where the challenges relating to a policy are identified, prioritising the issues and promoting support for decision-makers. Agenda-setting aims to draw the attention of policymakers' particular policy issues and ensure that these issues are addressed. Nkwana (2016:82) identifies two primary rationales for the inclusion of policy agenda-setting in the public policymaking process.

Firstly, it assists in determining major focus areas that the public policy should address. Secondly, it assists with identifying the key players within the process and presents information on how non-governmental actors impact the policy agenda. Within agenda-setting, two approaches exist according to Dye (2012:34): Setting the agenda from the top-down and from the bottom-up. The top-down approach is where the elite few reach decisions on behalf of the public. The bottom-up approach makes viewpoints from the public a priority, and they stem up to the officials in government for policy implementation.

2.5.1.3. Policy formulation

Formulation of policy as a plan requires the government to make a decision on action to take and not take and therefore planning and developing content for the policy

(Roux & Cloete 2011:99). Developing policy content includes goals and objective setting, prioritisation and choices creation and assessment (Roux & Cloete 2011:104). During the formulation process stage, public administration is concerned with creating policies by examining the multiple policy possibilities it deems as feasible solutions. The formulation stage includes parliament and government in the creation of a regulative, legislative and programmatic approach to tackle the issue as identified in the setting of the agenda stage. A coalition of players strives through the utilisation of advocacy tactics to place priority for one particular interpretation of both the issue and solution (National Collaborating Centre for Healthy Public Policy 2013:2).

2.5.1.4. Policy legitimization/adoption

The legitimacy of the policy is the fourth stage in the public policymaking process. According to Nkwana (2016:83), this stage entails the enactment of policy into law, proposal selection and making a decision on the constitutionality of the policy. The Household Food and Nutrition Strategy, The National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security, and the Festa Tlala Production Integrated Initiative are national strategies. It is crucial to examine the policies and strategies that are in place promoting food security through small-scale farming. Policy legitimacy is aimed at translating policy objectives into quantifiable outcomes through an effective implementation strategy. Administrative units carry out a legitimate policy through the mobilisation of financial and human resources to ensure that both aspects comply with the policy. Every sphere of government and stakeholders is involved in deciding on action taken to give an effect to the policy.

2.5.1.5. Policy implementation

Policy implementation is the fifth stage within the process and is the most vital stage but also the most difficult to execute. Allocation of resources, control and coordination, as well as the human and financial resources required for policy implementation, are key considerations during this stage as the departments need to have the capacity and means to implement programmes. Thus, the study seeks to explore DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to contribute to food security in South Africa.

In policy implementation, the policy objectives are critical in the process as the most thoroughly designed policy that is widely accepted can fail as a result of improper implementation (Hudson 2019). Execution of law which several stakeholders both from public and private sectors, organisations' techniques and procedures, unite efforts to put policies into actual practice to achieve policy goals is referred to as implementation. The implementation process entails interaction between goal-setting and the actions directed towards attaining them (Khan 2016:4-5) thus, involves the accomplishment of a given task.

From a governmental perspective, the process of implementation is what develops between the intent of the government to do something and its final impact as a result of an action. According to Koma (2014:44), policy implementation is defined as the "setting in motion of policy directives as authorised by decision-makers and according to their prescriptions." Examples of decisions made are decisions made by the cabinet in 2002 on the introduction of the Integrated Food and Security Strategy, the Household Food and Nutrition Security Strategy and Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative and the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security.

Public policy implementation can be approached in different ways: bottom-up, top-down or hybrid approach. However, Mthethwa (2012:45) argues that not one viewpoint can be singled out or exceeds the other. Therefore, in the process of implementation, policymakers may use some of or all components of the approaches discussed in detail below based on the one that is most suitable for their intention. The top-down approach, also known as the system or rational model, emphasises hierarchical control within government structure (Koontz & Newig 2014:420). The approach is characterised by the production of explicit policy objectives by decision-makers. The criticism of the approach, among other things, is that it is challenging for advocates of a policy to identify if a policy is succeeding or failing, and policy formulation should not be in silos as it impacts multiple non-state actors (Mthethwa 2017:72). This approach is unable to guarantee that the process of implementation will be successful to meet the reality as a result of unrealistic and oversimplified targets. According to Mthethwa (2017:73), the bottom-up approach is primarily based on implementation theories as a critique of the first model. The bottom-up permits lower-level managers to take part in the modification of policy to address the concerns and needs of their respective

communities. However, the approach was criticised as it excluded top-level management. The approach thus lacked political interference in the formulation of policy which may lead to policy failure if they are excluded.

The final approach is known as the hybrid approach. This approach sees the process of implementation as exchanging, bargaining and negotiating action with suggestions from both bottom-up and top-down, which bridges the gap that exists between the different approaches. As far as implementation of policy is concerned in South Africa, one major obstacle is that the national policy seldom aligns with the capabilities of the municipalities (Leburu 2018:33). Hence, it is important to practise the hybrid approach in the DALRRD inclusive of stakeholders to get a complete picture as well as aligning the two to avoid duplication and maximise the impact through maximisation of all resources available to the sector. Public-private partnerships find relevance in the implementation of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy in supporting smallholder farmers to contribute to food security. Policy monitoring and evaluation will be discussed in detail in the following section.

2.6. MONITORING AND EVALUATION IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Policies worldwide have been developed to address challenges that exist worldwide. Some of these policies may or may not have translated into effective management of several actions or, to a large degree, contributed towards achieving outlined objectives in the policies. It is thus imperative to monitor and evaluate policies and programmes to ensure that they are making a difference. In South Africa, since the establishment of a democratic state in 1994, monitoring and evaluation have developed into an active discipline. Monitoring progress and evaluating the impact of programmes and strategies is important in South Africa to promote accountability (Levin 2017:137). Section 195 of the Constitution mandates the principles of public administration and states that public administration must promote economic, effective and efficient use of resources and must be aimed at the development and encourage accountability. The public sector must foster transparency by providing the citizens with accurate, timely and accessible information. Thus, the Constitution provides a legislative framework for the effective and efficient delivery of government programmes and public policies. Monitoring and evaluating is an important tool that can be used to measure the implementation effectiveness (Ile 2014:178).

Monitoring and evaluation provide data that permits the public sector departments to engage in evidence-based policy assessment to improve the performance of the state institutions and governance functions. Monitoring and evaluation involve progressive steps which emphasise on principles as highlighted in the preparation (planning) of a project, and the process allows one to assess if what was planned at the beginning of the project is transpiring and, if it is not, what the reasons hindering the objectives from being obtained are (Govender 2013:815). Monitoring allows for the government departments, in this instance DALRRD, to identify whether governmental programmes such as CASP, Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative and Illma/Letsema need to take a different route or require additional resources to achieve the desired objectives. The historical overview highlighted that it is necessary to measure what gets done and the importance of recognition between failure and success. Monitoring and evaluation play a key role in measuring whether a programme has failed or succeeded. The two terms are interconnected, yet they do not denote the same meaning. Within the process, they are independently conducted. The following sections will elaborate on monitoring and evaluation with a specific focus on the evaluation. The theoretical context will be discussed to lay a foundation for exploring the department's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to contribute to food security.

2.6.1. The concept of monitoring in public administration

The term monitoring

...“involves collecting, analysing and reporting data on inputs, activities, and outputs in a manner that effectively tracks and measures the coordination of services and resources to achieve the desired outcomes. It aims to provide managers, decision-makers and other stakeholders with a framework that guides regular feedback on progress in implementation” (The Presidency 2014:2).

According to (Ile 2014:179), monitoring is a never-ending oversight process that generates information about progress made by focusing on tracking activities directed towards the achievement of results. Monitoring is, therefore, the production of information that can track the performance of the execution of developmental projects or programmes. It is an influential instrument that can direct the decision-making of senior government officials to oppose issues that may exist that make it problematic for the actual situation to agree with the expected results. Constant monitoring is

therefore vital as a programme can easily drift if officials of the public carry out different activities from those originally envisaged (or even not all) and for the programme to reach clients other than those originally intended.

Monitoring needs to be effective, and for effectiveness to occur, it is necessary to consider specific principles highlighted by Ijeoma (2014:65). Cost is an element one should understand concerning procedures and reporting, i.e., money and time. It is essential to consider monitoring at the beginning of any project, highlighting specific terms and conditions in terms of how frequently the reporting will occur and being able to give justification on the relevance of why one needs such information. Communicating early during monitoring is important as this provides feedback to help the public officials to understand where they went wrong and discover how they can improve for further projects. Monitoring highlights the relevance of the reporting mechanism, i.e., ensuring that the objectives are being attained most efficiently with great resource utilisation, allowing for the recognition of information one deems as important to provide a guideline to achieve practical monitoring requirements and comply with deadlines. It promotes coordination to make sure that appropriate personnel gather the necessary data and makes use of a present system.

Taking into account that governments are moving towards the promotion of efficiency and effectiveness through the implementation of private-sector tactics, government officials must be accountable for how their funds are spent and how they carry out their duties. Therefore, the implementation of monitoring allows the government to quickly react to challenges that may arise, permitting them to deal with issues identified. To contextualise the above into the context of smallholder farmers and to enhance food security, the NDP outlines its objective of increasing the number of smallholder farmers involved in agricultural activities to have more farmers contributing to eliminating hunger and making the country food secure at a household level (National Planning Commission 2012). Obstacles such as limited funds may hinder the NDP goal from being adequately attained. The government, therefore, must find other ways to reach the smallholder farmers to enhance food security to provide them with the necessary inputs.

The discussion regarding what monitoring involves can undoubtedly be observed as being limiting and too simple, but it is imperative to remember that monitoring is more than just a collection of information; it requires decisions about what measures shall be taken if performance deviates disproportionately from the desired outcome. Thus, monitoring is about the exerting of power and control.

2.6.2. The concept of evaluation in public administration

In the context of international development, the objective of evaluation has been to assess the project, strategy, activity, policy units, or sectors referred to as activities. Cracknell's evaluation in the 1950s was initially put into operation in the United States-based organisations concentrating on appraisal and not evaluation (World Intellectual Property Organisation 2010:6). Agencies put effort to design projects following the logical models in which their main focus was on the outputs of the project rather than the impact and outcome of a project. The Logical Framework Approach (LFA) was developed as a management tool. The LFA is a highly effective strategic planning and project management methodology. It is an analytical approach that summarises the intent of the project and identifies the key assumptions and how outputs and outcomes will be monitored and evaluated (Dillion 2019). However, as time progressed, the international agencies during the 1890s shifted from the LFA management tool and launched the utilisation of evaluation by forming units primarily as accountability tools to satisfy both the government and the general public's awareness of the utilisation of public resources. During the 1890s, the trend was for agencies to internalise the importance of and the need for the evaluation function within an organisation (Dillion 2019). The agencies began to recognise the significance of evaluation as a strategic tool for the acquisition of knowledge and construction to simplify organisational learning facilitating decision-making.

As time progressed, regulations that govern evaluation developed and were first promulgated under the United Nations' activities on the 19th of April 2000 in the Secretary-General bulletin (Policy Planning, Budgeting, Monitoring and Evaluation Directorate). Regulations and policies similar to that of the ones developed have been adopted by various United Nations system organisations. A group of professional practitioners referred to as The United Evaluation Group (UNEG) took the lead role to define standards that contribute to the professional development of the evaluation

function and to provide support to officers in drawing up their evaluation resource skills, activities and policies (Ijeoma 2010:345; UNEG 2019). Their initiative was carried out in response to the General Assembly A/RES/59/250 2 of December 2004, which stimulated the UNEG to foster progress in system-wide cooperation on evaluation, mainly to harmonise and simplify procedures, standards, principles and sequences of evaluation (UNEG 2019).

Evaluation within the South African government is relatively new, whereas other agencies have been practising evaluation for quite some time, as highlighted. It is after the establishment of the Department of Planning Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME) and approval of the National Evaluation and Policy Framework (NEPF) in 2011 that evaluations have been systemised and institutionalised within the South African government (The Presidency 2011). The DPME is an oversight unit to promote the operation of monitoring and evaluation evidence in government. The department's focal area is programme monitoring and evaluation (Amisi 2015:1).

Evaluation is a broader approach that assesses the possible influence of research in priority, the performance and quality of activities in development, setting and planning exercises, the ultimate impact of results on the attainment objectives and the successful completion and relevance of activities (Ijeoma (2010:345). The Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) describes evaluation as a system and objective assessment of programmes, policies, projects that are ongoing or completed, the design, implementation and results (OECD 2010: 4). The evaluation compares the anticipated outcomes against the actual activities. It is constructed by the use of procedures that analyse what has been accomplished in contrast to what can be expected. The use of evaluation assesses the rationale for the actual successes or failures in achieving the outlined objectives and the role that the stakeholders play in the implementation. The concept can be steered at different stages, notably prior to implementation, at actual implementation and after the implementation. Evaluation is bound by time. It might be once every month, quarterly, annually or midway within the year. The information generated from the evaluation can be used to provide information on policy, which can be used for decision-making, efficiency and effective enhancement in government procedures or policy. (Ile 2014:179-192). From the definitions provided on evaluation, one can conclude that

monitoring is detailed, focusing on tracking performance, while evaluation is whereby one makes value judgment to establish the cause of good or poor performance.

According to the Presidency (2011:2), four key purposes of evaluation exist, which are: to improve performance, to enhance accountability, to generate knowledge about what works what does not and to improve decision making (Goldman, Mathe, Jacob, Hercules, Amisi, Buthelezi, Narsee, Ntakumba & Sadan, 2015:2). Improving performance aims to provide feedback to programme managers on whether the intervention taken was the correct type for the stated objective. Accountability is associated with how the government is spending and if financial resources that have been spent are providing value for money. Evaluation generates knowledge for research, increasing knowledge on what has worked in relation to public policy programmes, which allows for the government to build an evidence base for future policy development. The fourth primary purpose is to allow for decision making to occur as policymakers, planners and finance departments need to be able to judge the merit of an intervention in terms of whether it has been successful, beneficial and in line with meeting its goals and objectives (The Presidency 2011:2). The key purposes highlighted can be associated with Result Based Management (RBM) within the context of public programmes. It is a management approach aimed at achieving development targets, clarifying roles and responsibilities of public servants, increasing transparency and accountability of public affairs and using good quality data to plan. Therefore, evaluation is important in the efficiency and effectiveness of the execution of its activities outlined in its programmes (Levin 2017:139).

Further, Ile, Eresia-Eke and Allen-Ile (2012:132) highlighted key issues for evaluation which are relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, replicability, impact and sustainability. Relevance is associated with how the initiative has addressed the problems, for example, whether the development of a recreational facility in a community is of higher priority to community members than of a school. Effectiveness expresses the extent to which the outputs have generated expected results, i.e., has the developmental initiative produced the expected changes among members of the targeted group. Efficiency focuses on the number of outputs created and their quality in relation to the resources utilised. Replicability of a programme needs to occur, i.e., the feasibility of repeating the same initiative in another context. The impact is concerned with the

overall consequences of the initiative on society, i.e., how society benefited from the developmental programme. Sustainability relates to the maintenance of positive achievements induced by the implemented initiative after it has been concluded.

Evaluation is thus associated with record-keeping of developments, observed programmes or policy implementation and makes use of that data as a guideline for the preparation (planning) stage for upcoming tasks, programmes and policies. Evaluation is essential in future decision-making as it pertains to the kind of developmental initiatives to execute in particular circumstances. Evaluation can aid the process of allocating budgets for the development of developmental interventions, which is observed when resource allocations are based upon performance data where performing can attract increased funding. By doing this, the government can optimise its funding of developmental interventions. It is thus important that departments are responsible for incorporating evaluation into their management function to continuously improve their performance. This study seeks to explore DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to contribute to food security, and the focal programme will be the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative hence the discussion of programme evaluation in the next section finds relevance.

2.6.2.1. Programme evaluation

Programme evaluation involves monitoring ongoing programs or one-time studies of programme procedures and results achieved or programme impact. Programme evaluation aims to establish the importance of the programme based upon a systematic review of the programme outcomes whereby the programme alludes to resources and activities directed towards the achievement of a goal or goals. Therefore, feasible programme evaluation efforts are to determine the degree to which results can be measured and ascribed to the activities of a programme (Olson 2014:27). Rossi, Lipsey and Freeman define programme evaluation as involving the ...“use of social research methods to systematically investigate the effectiveness of social intervention programs in ways that are adapted to their political and organizational environments and are designed to inform social action to improve social conditions” (Holden & Zimmerman 2009:2).

The idea behind this form of evaluation is for identifying whether they are successful in achieving their objective of improving the conditions of communities. As highlighted by Prosek (2019:2), programme evaluation is best described as the intersectionality of research and practice, meaning that the main objective is empirical findings that indicate the success and effectiveness of a programme. Evaluation of programmes is important to gain insight into a programme and its operations to identify where the programme is going and where it is coming from, and to establish what is working and what is not working. It allows for the improvement of practice by modifying or adapting the practice to enhance the success of activities. It determines whether the government programme or project evaluation enables programme assessment concerning the objectives and goals highlighted within the programme and promotes the building of capacity through increasing funds, enhancing skills and strengthening accountability (Bless *et al.* 2016:119).

2.6.2.2. *Types of programme evaluation*

The type of evaluation depends on particular interests, and different types of evaluation efforts may be undertaken to address different concerns. As highlighted previously, evaluation efforts are concerned with and ultimately geared towards providing answers to questions concerned with the performance of a project or programme. The project and programme will be used interchangeably. No single type of evaluation can address all the concerns that may arise from the performance of a programme. Primarily though, in developmental work, evaluation tools are utilised to address the concern regarding investigating relationships between interventions or intended interventions and changes in society. Choosing the appropriate types of evaluation is dependent on the phase at which the development programme is. Each evaluation can assist one in making better decisions by providing one with the right kind of data at the appropriate time (Ill *et al.* 2012:133).

2.6.2.2.1. *Diagnostic evaluation*

This type of evaluation is often identified as an ex-ante evaluation and is used in the identification of neglected areas of need, focus groups and challenges located within organisations and programmes (The Presidency 2011:9; Bless *et al.* 2016:120). Diagnostic evaluation notifies programme leaders about the current condition within the communities, bringing attention to trends, forces and resources as well as potential

implications of several forms of interventions. Thus, a diagnostic evaluation is a method for gathering information that is vital to the new project or programme and will assist in ascertaining that the chosen intervention is capable of addressing a specific problem (Ile *et al.* 2012:133; DPME 2014a: 1-2). This form of evaluation takes place in the early life of a programme, possibly during the phase of conceptualisation. The purpose of using this form is to prevent waste and identify potential areas of concern while increasing the chances of success (Nanda 2017).

There are different ways that diagnostic evaluations assist organisations and communities. Firstly, the organisation or community is aware that something is not going in the intended direction but is incompetent in the accurate identification of the problem. The organisation or community finds it difficult to define their problems precisely. Secondly, this form of evaluation can assist communities and organisations in societies that are undergoing rapid social change. They may desire change but may be unable to fully understand how such change will affect them. Thus, a diagnostic evaluation can serve to map out the full range of probable outcomes of any project. Thirdly, during the initial planning stages of the project, it is useful for the project manager to specify the project or programme's broad aims in a couple of points. These broad aims are usually broken down into several more manageable objectives that should be stated explicitly and in detail. This will allow for them to be evaluated using other evaluative research techniques at a later date. Finally, programme leaders should examine difficulties that may occur during the programme. Where such problems cannot be avoided, contingency strategies should be established to overcome them so that the programme can attain its desired objectives. In summary, a diagnostic evaluation is an attempt to understand the successes or failures of a project by looking at the root causes of the problem and how they are addressed by the intervention.

The National Evaluation Plan, since its inception in 2011, the Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation has conducted numerous evaluations targeting programmes that support smallholder farmers. CASP and Land Restitution Programme are the two programmes that have been evaluated. The results from the evaluations conducted revealed that there are considerable weaknesses in the programmes and how to strengthen them. The evaluation from the specific

programmes supporting smallholder farmers identified that there is a need for them to be thought through in an intergraded way (DPME & DAFF 2015:4). Diagnostic evaluation can take place in terms of government-supported smallholder farmers' programmes to draw accurate assessments and reviews of expenses to develop an evidentiary basis on which to consider a future policy on smallholder farmers, the key programme needs and how to integrate the programmes effectively.

2.6.2.2.2. *Formative evaluation*

Programme evaluation can take the form of formative or summative evaluation. Formative evaluation can also be referred to as process implementation evaluation and is conducted to examine several areas of ongoing programmes to make changes or improvements during the implementation of the programme (Bless *et al.* 2016:123; Kowalski, Veesser & Heisler 2018:3). This evaluation aims to structure the programme in a manner that will have the optimal beneficial impact upon the targeted community. Formative evaluation is appropriate for long term intervention as it can occur regularly throughout the life cycle of the programme to guarantee that it adapts to the changes in social reality and thus continuing to produce the best result possible.

There are two perspectives to consider during this form of evaluation: the theoretical and practical nature. From the theoretical perspective, it is important to take into account whether the content of the programme has been adequately improved to social reality and whether the theoretical explanations have been appropriately operationalised. This is relevant when the particular theory is rooted within Europe, the United States of America or areas of the world that have a social reality that differs from that of Africa. There tends to be a generalisation to assume that all conditions and people are the same universally and that theories established abroad are just valid locally. From a practical level, one needs to take into consideration the availability of resources for the project and the most effective way of using those resources, potential areas and difficulty in the programme (Bless *et al.* 2016:122-123).

There are many different ways in which formative research can take form. The method depends largely on the programme being assessed. Evaluation relies heavily on the experience of similar programmes, understanding of social reality and theoretical knowledge. One very useful method, as identified by Bless *et al.* (2016:123), is the

reputability study. The technique involves the researchers identifying experts from within the community, academic institutions, government and NGOs. The idea behind having a wide range of people with different backgrounds and qualifications is to reduce any chance of bias. The researchers of the reputability technique will interview the experts and present an overview of the programme. The information that is then gathered relates to how the programme was planned and implemented, from which their comments and criticism form the basis of formative evaluation. This type of evaluation attempts to record accurately what is occurring in a programme. Information is collected and analysed on the programme, and thereafter, changes can be made to ensure that the quality of the programme implementation is maintained throughout. The main objective of formative evaluation is focused on the manner in which services are delivered, how the team interacts with the participants and the overall flow of the programme (Prosek 2019:7). Developing an understanding of the participants' experience can assist in highlighting the areas of strengths and weaknesses of the programme. The use of qualitative methods such as interviews, observations, document reviews, budgetary notes and the mission statement of the programme can be used to develop an understanding of participants' experience and can inform the evaluator.

As highlighted, a reputability study is a method that can be used to evaluate a programme. In relation to this study, it could be used to assess whether a formative evaluation in the DALRRD occurs in the pre-implementation phase, during the implementation or after the implementation. In addition, to assess how the evaluation of the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative is conducted, it is important to determine if smallholder farmers are experiencing a low production yield. They may be responsive to receiving assistance in terms of inputs and equipment from the programme, which are requirements to increase productivity. The programme can be working but not really to its desired objectives, and for the DALRRD to know how to improve their programmes, it is crucial to conduct the use of formative evaluation by constructing a panel of experts. These experts may include the staff associated with the programme, the farmers (community) or necessary parties who are active in the programme. The formative evaluator can interview each person separately and compare and contrast different responses. Some clear patterns may emerge, which in turn will be translated into recommendations to the DALRRD. For example, from the smallholder farmers'

perspective, low productivity could be a result of their not being aware that it was necessary to test the soil that they are harvesting in and the fertiliser input they are receiving is not suitable for the type of soil, hence low productivity despite government interventions.

2.6.2.2.3 *Summative evaluation*

Summative evaluation can be referred to as being outcome evaluation. The summative evaluation aims to determine the degree to which programmes meet their stipulated goals and objectives. The information gathered is used to gain credibility with several groups of people, specifically prospective sponsors and future target communities. Moreover, successful programmes may be replicated in other communities. Summative evaluation is carried out at different intervals, after the completion of a programme and regularly during the life cycle of a long-term programme. Over time, the results generated from performing this form of evaluation might emphasise the modifications that need to be made to the programme with the intended purpose of improving the subsequent implementations. Furthermore, the results generated provide information on the current condition and status of the programme to promote accountability and can also be used to conduct a needs assessment for subsequent preparation of changes in programmes or of the introduction of new programmes and interventions. The process of summative evaluation generally occurs in five of the following steps, according to Bless *et al.* (2016:124-125):

i. The identification of the aims and objectives of the programme

To assess change and identify whether the “treatment” is designed to achieve its intended objective, it is key to know what the programme hopes to achieve for the evaluation process to take place; if not identified, one is unable to move to the next step. Whether or not the aims or objectives were adequately selected falls in the domain of formative evaluation.

ii. Formulation of the aims and objectives in measurable terms

It is important to translate the aims and objectives into observable changes that can be measured in the target community. This section aims to observe behaviours. All programmes aim to induce observable changes in behaviour that can be accurately measured and studied. However, it is important to acknowledge that programmes also produce effects less easily observed in

people's actions, such as emotional and psychological changes. These are measured by asking people for subjective reports on their own experiences or creating situations where they are likely to be translated into observable behaviours.

iii. The construction of the instrument of measurement

It is necessary to identify the instrument that can measure the dependent variable. These instruments are, for example, detail psychometric and sociometric tests, interviews, questionnaires and observation techniques.

iv. The designing of the evaluation study and data collection

Summative evaluations are almost always quantitative as they include inferential statistics allowing the researcher to estimate whether the differences are real or merely due to change factors.

v. Reporting back

Once the evaluation is complete, the researcher presents findings to those responsible for the intervention, namely the participants and other interested parties.

The summative evaluation assesses the overall quality and programme outcomes. The purpose of conducting these evaluations is for decision-making and to conclude if the programme was able to meet its intended outcome relative to its initial cost (NEPF 2011:20). Although diagnostic, formative and summative evaluations have been presented separately, they are all interconnected and transpire alongside each other during the ongoing intervention. The diagnostic evaluation, background circumstances highlighting the need for intervention as well as forces that are expected to influence the interventions are identified. The objectives and procedures are assessed by the use of formative evaluation, and recommendations for improving the programme are discussed. Lastly, summative evaluation as a form of evaluation decides if the goals have been achieved. If the goals have not been achieved concerning the programme, then those in charge of the programme must consider a further diagnostic and formative evaluation to isolate the problem areas. Comprehensive and integrated programme evaluation, which makes use of the three forms, maintains ongoing effectiveness, enables flexibility as a result of changing conditions and ensures the credibility of ongoing survival of the programmes.

2.7. CONCLUSION

Chapter Two contextualises the area of research into the field of Public Administration. The evolution of Public Administration was discussed to reflect how it has transformed and evolved over the years to its form. The chapter explained critical concepts in Public Administration, New Public Administration, New Public Management and governance to the contribution of knowledge in the discipline. The function of public administration as an activity of government was discussed. These functions are carried out in public organisations, including financing, decision-making, control, staffing and organising. The importance of discussing these functions was to contextualise the study in terms of locus and focus. The relationship between policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation and public administration was discussed. The next chapter will provide an international perspective of public-private partnership developments concerning smallholder agriculture and their impact on food security in South Africa.

CHAPTER 3: LEGISLATIVE AND INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS APPLICABLE TO FOOD SECURITY AND SMALLHOLDER FARMERS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two conceptualised food security and the support of smallholder farmers within the discipline of Public Administration. The subsequent Chapter Three will describe the legal environment applicable to food security and smallholder farmers. The four pillars of food security with a focus on food availability determined by food production, trade, programmes and policies that are in place to tackle food insecurity through agriculture will be outlined and explained in this chapter.

Exploring DALRRD's support through PPPs to address food security institutional arrangements and the framework of legislation applicable to smallholder farmers and food security finds importance. South Africa is an associate of a wider international and regional society and is a signatory in multiple multinational treaties impacting food security and agriculture. This chapter discusses the treaties and arrangements. Chapter Three examines the different legal frameworks, international and regional standards applicable to food security and smallholder agrarian development in South Africa. The focus of the study is that smallholder farmers can enhance food security to meet the growing population. Institutional arrangements relevant to the economic, social and agricultural policies in South Africa are of importance to meet the needs.

3.2. THE FRAMEWORK GOVERNING FOOD SECURITY AND NUTRITION SECURITY AND AGRICULTURE

Addressing food insecurity and agricultural challenges requires a comprehensive policy approach that supports the demand and supply of healthy food. Table 3.1, formulated through the approach developed by Harris, Drime, Roopnaraine and Covic (2017), provides an overview of these arrangements. The aim of this section of the chapter is to identify arrangements governing food security and agriculture development in South Africa.

Table 3.1: Framework governing food security and nutrition security and agriculture

<i>International Sphere</i>
Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 Article 21
Universal Declaration on Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition 1974
Universal Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights 1976
World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development 1979
International Conference on Agrarian reform and rural development 2006
Sustainable Development Goals 2015
<i>Regional Sphere</i>
Maputo Declaration on agriculture and food security 2003
Dar-es-Salaam Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in the SADC Region 2004
Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods 2014
Comprehensive Africa Agriculture development programme
<i>National Sphere</i>
White Paper on Agriculture 1995
The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996
Integrated Food and Security Strategy (IFSS) 2002
National Development Plan (NDP) 2009
New Growth Plan (NGP) 2010
National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security 2013
Household Policy on Food and Nutrition Security 2013
Medium-term strategic framework (MTSF) 2014-2019
Agricultural Policy Action Plan (APAP) 2015-2019
Industrial Policy Action Plan 2018/2019-2020/2021
<i>Sectoral Sphere</i>
Ilima/Letsema
Integrated Growth & Development Policy for Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries (IGDP) 2012
Festa Tlala Integrated Food Production Initiative 2013
Comprehensive Agriculture Support Programme (CASP) 2004
Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries Strategic Plan 2015-2020

Source: Harris et al. 2017

3.2.1. Food and nutrition security and its regulatory framework

This section of the chapter provides a brief description of key international, regional, national and sectoral regulatory arrangements. These will be outlined in the following section providing descriptions of the programmes governing South Africa's food security and agriculture development pertaining to smallholder farmers. An overview of these arrangements is presented in Table 3.1.

International Sphere and Regional Sphere

People having social, physical, economic, and food access that is safe and is of quality, consumed in adequate quantity to meet the dietary requirements is known as food and nutrition security. Food security as a concept has developed sustainably in the last decades, both in practice and theory. The concept is receiving attention worldwide due to billions of people suffering from hunger and undernourishment, particularly in developing countries (Rater 2019). Millions die yearly, directly or indirectly, as a result of undernourishment and malnutrition. Over time, the international community at various forums has decided to end undernourishment globally by advocating for the right to access food to be embedded in various international human rights instruments (Durojaye & Chilemba 2018:1). The human right to sufficient food has unrestricted access to food permanently. Food access can occur in two forms, either directly through farming or indirectly through financial means of purchase. Access ensures that physical and mental needs individually and collectively are met to promote a fulfilling and dignified life free of the fright of hunger (FAO 2019b:1). Therefore, people should have access to resources and the necessary means to purchase or produce food independently. Access resources can be quantified in terms of land, seed, water, fertiliser, credit to technology, local and regional markets. The entitlement to access sufficient food is embedded in several declarations that South Africa has signed in agreement. These declarations aid understanding and elaboration of the right to sufficient nutrition and encourage nations to commit to finding measures to address the right.

South Africa is part of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR) agreement of 1948. The declaration acts as a global roadmap for freedom and equality protecting the rights of every individual globally (Amnesty International 2019). Relating to food security, Article 25(1) of the declaration alludes that “everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate, health and well-being for himself and his family, including the right to adequate food” (United Nations 2015:52). Despite the fact that the right exists, the FAO *et al.* (2021:125) report highlighted that in 2020 one in three people in the world did not have food access regularly that is sufficient and nutritious. Even though some might not be affected by hunger, they are at a higher risk of suffering from different types of malnutrition. The FAO's recent 2020 and 2021 publications further highlighted that ending hunger is not on track. The new projections to eradicate

hunger by 2030 will not be possible unless bold actions are taken to address insufficient access to food (FAO *et al.* 2021:xii-xiii). Further to this, the coronavirus disease (Covid 19), which has caused a pandemic of respiratory illness, has created challenges for households to have access to food that is adequate, safe, healthy and nutritious (World Bank 2021 & FAO *et al.* 2021:vi). The pandemic has had a negative impact on the world's economies, triggering an unprecedented recession not seen since World War II. The food security and nutrition status of millions has deteriorated and has exposed the weakness of many countries' food systems which is threatening the most vulnerable (FAO *et al.* 2021:v). The mentioned further highlights that food security is still a challenge and needs to be addressed appropriately to prevent an increase in the population suffering from hunger; thus, this study focuses on smallholder agriculture.

To address malnutrition resulting from hunger, the South African government showed its commitment by countersigning the Universal Declaration on Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition of 1974. The declaration on malnutrition and hunger states, "every man, woman and child have inalienable right to be free from hunger and malnutrition to develop fully and maintain their physical facilities" (United Nations Human Rights Office of the Higher Commissioner 2021). Furthermore, the Rome Declaration on World Food Security (1996:808) reiterates everyone's right to access nutritious and safe food, in harmony with the right to sufficient food and the basic right is for all to be hunger-free. The declarations highlighted food security and emphasises the importance of promoting food security and ensuring that everyone has the right to food as it impacts health. If not addressed, it goes against human rights. Thus, the study aims to promote food security by focusing on the agrarian sector to feed the growing population of South Africa.

The agrarian focus to enhance food insecurity is stated Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1966 outlines the legal right to access food is legally bound to 169 State Parties. All countries in Africa signed the ICESCR agreement except Botswana, Mozambique and South Sudan. State parties acknowledge everyone's right to a dignified standard of living by including food and without hunger. States should take measures, individually and through the international community, particularly regarding specific programmes required to

enhance production methods, conserving and food distribution by using scientific and technical knowledge. The aforementioned is attainable by disseminating knowledge on principles relating to nutrition and establishing or improving agricultural systems in a way that facilitates efficient development and the utilisation of resources (FAO 2019b:1-2).

Since their commencement, the SDGs have provided a blueprint for general welfare in a sustainable world where everyone can live a life full of vibrant and tranquil productivity. Its establishment resulted from correcting the previous Millennium Development Goals' (MDGs) imbalances by promoting coordination of global economic and environmental agenda (Delpont 2019:22). The SDGs consist of 17 goals adopted by all United Nations member states in 2015 with a narrowed focus on hunger and poverty, explicitly including nutrition under SDG 2: Zero Hunger to achieve food security and better nutrition and promotion of sustainable development of agriculture (Hendriks 2018:2). SDG 2 addresses the most significant human fundamental needs of accessibility to nutritious, sustainable procurement and healthy food. The goal acknowledges that resolving the problem of hunger cannot solely be focused on a production increase. The SDG 2 recognises that in the aim to obtain food security, markets are required to function well, there is a need for access to land and technology, need for increased income for smallholder farmers, and that additional investments contribute to generating a vibrant and effective agriculture sector aimed at obtaining food security (United Nations Statistics Division 2021).

Within the context of Africa, the SDGs 2030 agenda's efforts to address food insecurity challenges through agricultural means are outlined in the Dar-Es-Salam Declaration on Agriculture and Food Security in Southern African Development Community (SADC). The declaration, established in 2004, identifies agriculture as the economic backbone of the SADC region, in which the majority depended on agriculture production for food, economic and employment (SADC 2004).

In further alignment with the agenda for 2030, the SDGs have been adopted by the African Union Agenda 2063 and further reaffirmed by the Malabo Declaration on Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and Improved Livelihoods 2014. Prior to the Malabo Declaration, the African Union signed

a 2003 Maputo Declaration on Agriculture *and Food Security* in which South Africa is a party. The declaration recognised food availability as a critical factor in addressing food insecurity. The declaration came into existence due to 30% of the African population suffering from undernourishment. The African continent had become the net food importer and the largest recipient of food aid globally. As a result of these concerns, the declaration emphasised the full utilisation of Africa's potential to increase the availability of food by improving food production to safeguard sustainable food (African Union 2003:1). However, the Malabo Declaration is a series of new objectives demonstrating a more targeted approach. Still, it reconfirms that agriculture is critical to the agenda for development on the continent and is an important strategic initiative for economic expansion and alleviation of poverty for Africa. The shared prosperity position emphasises alignment, harmonisation and coordinated initiatives and activities. It further recognises the importance of multi-sectoral engagement in the transformative agenda within the public sectors, including technology, trade and infrastructure. This reflects the importance of establishing consistent inter-sectoral cooperation initiatives and efforts for maximising the use of resources, optimising outcome and impact. Furthermore, acknowledging the complementary duties and responsibilities among relevant stakeholders, including public, private and civil societies, drives the agricultural transformation agenda (African Union Commission 2014:1-2). Therefore, the study finds relevance as it focuses on exploring DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through PPPs in contributing to food security with the intended purpose of addressing the food requirements of the growing population of South Africa.

National sphere

i. National Development Plan

The NDP came into existence in 2012 due to continuous challenges relating to poverty and inequality. The plan has become a long-term strategic plan with an overarching government development agenda. It outlines a strategic plan to guide critical decisions and activities of how best to use its limited resources to accomplish its envisioned desires of poverty elimination and inequality reduction by 2030 (National Planning Commission 2012:219). The plan seeks to achieve the highlighted desires by developing a viable economy, capacity development, state capacity enhancement and leadership and partnerships throughout South Africa. The plan has extensively

consulted the judicial authority, parliament, national and provisional departments, unions, state-owned and financial entities, religious leaders, businesses and non-private organisations. Taking into consideration the complexities, the evolving nature of national development has interlinked focus areas. The primary outcome of the NDP is employment generation and sustainable livelihood for all by providing essential services to its public such as:

- Water, electricity, sanitation and housing;
- Public transport that is safe and reliable;
- Good education quality and development of skills;
- Security and safety;
- Good healthcare quality;
- Employment;
- Leisure and recreation;
- Pollution-free environment and;
- Adequate levels of nutrition (Cooperative Governance Traditional Affairs 2018)

In the context of food and nutrition security, the NDP stipulates a framework that is innovative to inform the actions that are mandatory across society to deal with pervasive hunger. The NDP makes multiple statements that reverberate with literature internationally in assessing what it would take to eliminate food insecurity. The NDP, therefore, deems it necessary to have entities' engagement within the feeding systems along with multiple relationships throughout the various sectors and governmental departments (Drimie & McLachlan 2013). Thus, the NDP's suggestions call for collaboration and coordination with the government, civil society and private sectors, which is the focus of the study.

The NDP further acknowledges the importance of food security by ensuring adequate nutrition levels through the empowerment of farmworkers. The plan highlights that South Africa should strive to maintain a positive trade balance for primary and processed agricultural products and not achieve food self-sufficiency in staple foods at all costs. The NDP suggests integrating food security strategies on a regional level to increase supply and stability of prices (Greenberg, Thow & Hara 2017:7). Thus, this study is focused on the private-public approach to address food security through

smallholder farmers. The DALRRD is responsible for the transformation of the agriculture sector. The department's strategic goals include practical and strategic management, administration and governance, a conducive environment for sustainable agrarian transformation, food security, employment, enhanced production and economic growth (DALRRD 2021a). Their goals and objectives are in response to the NDP and provide support in line with the expectations of the NDP, specifically stating that a third of the surplus of food should be produced by smallholder farmers or the household sector (DAFF 2015a:5). The department seeks to contribute to the NDP by implementing several strategies and programmes to enhance productivity and efficiencies for smallholder producers. Three essential programmes are in alignment with DALRRD goals and objectives concerning food security. The Fetsa Tlala aimed at the massive production of staple food. Ilima/Letsema is for the purpose of supporting agriculture that is sustainable and the promotion of developing rural areas for smallholder producers. Landcare aims to address the challenges of degradation and promote natural resource use in a sustainable manner. Later on in the chapter, these programmes will be discussed in detail, focusing on Fetsa Tlala concerning the study.

ii. *New Growth Plan*

A national economic policy referred to as the NGP was introduced in 2009. The vision of the NGP prioritises decent jobs at the focal point of economic policy founded on the firm and sustainable inclusion of economic growth (Department of Economic Development (DED) 2011:1-2). Its target is the creation of jobs. The creation of good work opportunities, defeating poverty and lessening inequality can be accomplished through a mixture of direct job creation, rebuilding of productive sectors and various industrial and labour policies (South African Government 2020).

Whilst The NDP focuses mainly on unemployment, reduction of poverty, and equality, the NGP's purpose is to enhance economic development, creation of jobs and equity, with the intention of complementing the Industrial Policy Action Plan (IPAP). A labour-absorbing industrial route with a focus on marketable labour absorbing goods and services and economic connections that create jobs is promoted by IPAP. According to the DED, the IPAP seeks to perform macroeconomic and microeconomic interventions with more precise and solidified commitment from stakeholders to

advance South Africa to a faster and broader economic expansion. The overall intention is to facilitate the reorganising of South Africa's economy to enhance its performance, increase its labour absorption in addition to its composition and growth rate (DED 2011:6). The NGP proposes a series of measures to increase absorption of labour expansion within targeted sectors, namely infrastructure, mining and agriculture value chains, social economy, manufacturing sectors, knowledge economy, green economy, public sector, tourism and high-level services, rural and African regional development (DAFF 2015a:6).

Within the context of food and nutrition security, NGP emphasises the challenges of food scarcity and the relevance of developing the agricultural sector through land reform restructuring and improving commercial agriculture employment. To achieve this, it sets out to assist smallholder programmes with comprehensive infrastructure, financial resources, extension services support, marketing, support commercial farming growth, and solve challenges of fluctuation of price in wheat and maize to support food security (Hendriks & Olivier 2015:562). The DALRRD is responsible for the agrarian sector's rural development and South Africa's regional development.

In contributing to the NGP, the department developed and has implemented a National Policy Framework on the Support and Development of Small and Medium Agro-processing enterprises in the Republic of South Africa 2014/30. The policy's primary purpose is to enhance Small-Medium Enterprises (SMEs) support focused on competitive, sustainable and inclusive processing. The agro-processing policy serves as a guideline to all governmental levels (national, provincial and local) on a quest for advancing entrance and active SME agro-processors in the economy. The purpose is to reduce post-harvest losses and increase food availability, nutritional quality and food safety (DAFF 2015b:1-2). Post-harvest losses amongst smallholder producers can be reduced by supporting and developing agro-processing activities in rural areas. These activities include accessing finance and markets, mentorship, incubation, entrepreneurial and technical skills development, facilitating research and technology transfer and facilitating infrastructure investment in rural areas (DAFF 2015b:3).

The National Policy Framework on the Support and Development of Small and Medium Agro-processing enterprises in the Republic of South Africa 2014/30 and the

NGP encourage strong partnerships to enhance the agriculture sector that contributes towards food security and promotes economic development. Partnerships among private and public sectors and improved cooperation with other African countries and other BRICS countries make the sector a success that will overspill to address food insecurity. Agriculture plays a significant part in the improvement of food security, and PPPs are crucial to promoting food accessibility and availability. The study emphasises that the public-private approach supports smallholder farmers' contributions to feed the growing population. Similar challenges regarding uncoordinated sectors persist as an impediment to the sector development, resulting in low access to finance, poor linkages in the market sector and post-harvest losses, to mention a few.

iii. *National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security*

Following the declarations from a national perspective in 2002, the South African government provided approval for the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) 2002 as a strategy that would incorporate the several previously secluded policies confronting challenges of inadequate food in South Africa. The rationale of the integration was due to the previous challenge whereby the implementation of food security-related programmes by various government departments in all sectors exposed their lack of prior unification, thus the harmonised and integrated strategy. However, the IFSS implementation was not broad enough. The strategy lacked sectoral coordination, reducing its efficiency and effectiveness to address food insecurity (Drimie & Ruysenaar 2010:322;332).

To promote food security and achieve its 2030 goals in eliminating hunger and poverty, the South African cabinet implemented the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security in 2013. The policy was gazetted on 22 August 2014 and aimed at addressing the weaknesses of the previous IFSS. Concerns already arose in the policy development phase, primarily characterised by failure to consult and develop cooperation between stakeholders across the unique food chains. This centred decision-making method contradicted the one promoted within the central policy itself. It states that the National Food and Nutrition Security is distinctive as it encourages an interdisciplinary approach. The Food and Nutrition Security Policy intends on providing an overall policy basis that maximises the synergy between various

programmes and strategies of the government and civil societies. In contrast, previously, there were no clear procedures or guidelines on civil society's and private agencies' involvement in implementing the policy (DSD & DAFF 2013:6).

The policy aims to ensure the affordability, accessibility of safe and nutritious food at all levels. It acknowledges that investment in agriculture alignment should be towards local rural economic growth. It involves input provision or subsidisation and supporting services to boost the production and food distribution by engaging the government and private sector entities to ensure increased food access for all. Therefore, focusing on agriculture is vital to address food security challenges and increasing food production is vital to have adequate access to food. The food must be made available. Food availability will be discussed in the following section, as well as the specific regulatory framework applicable to food production through agricultural development to support smallholder farmers to contribute to food insecurity.

iv. *Medium-term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2014-2019*

The MTSF was the South African government's five-year strategic plan for the 2014 to 2019 parliamentary term outlining the obligations to be undertaken by the party's election in government. The strategic plan served as the primary guide for planning and allocating government resources during the fifth democratic administration (DMPE 2019:10). The MTSF consisted of eight priority outcomes:

- economic growth, economic transformation and creation of jobs
- development of the rural, land, agrarian reform and food security
- adequate access to quality essential services and human settlement
- improved access and quality of to education and training
- improved quality care and social security for all
- social cohesion and nation-building
- fighting corruption and crime
- contributing to a better Africa and world. (Republic of South Africa 2014:6).

From the eight priorities, 14 outcomes were developed from the National Development Plan and National Growth Plan framework in which 12 focus on 2009 to 2014 administration and two new outcomes of protection of social welfare and national building and social integration (DPME 2014b). The MTSF supported the NDP vision

of improving the rural economy by 2030 by creating close to one million jobs via primary agriculture and obtaining the NGP vision of reducing overall unemployment. The sixth administration continuing from the MTSF 2014 to 2019, has developed a framework for 2019 to 2024. The framework has reduced the priorities to seven priorities. It aims to address challenges of unemployment, inequality and poverty through three main pillars achieving a more capable state, building and strengthening the capabilities of South Africa and driving a strong and inclusive economy (DPME 2019:10). The MTSF 2019 to 2024: The framework focuses on seven priorities :

- a developmental state that is capable and ethical
- economic transformation and creation of jobs
- consolidation of social wages through reliably and quality essential services
- spatial integration, human settlement and local government
- safe communities and social cohesion
- a better Africa and the world (DPME 2019:17).

When comparing the MTSF for 2014 to 2019 and 2019 to 2024, the government in relation to economic transformation and rural development priorities and interventions across the country national development pillars are similar, further signifying the relevance to agricultural development. Agrarian reform is outlined in both frameworks and is important to economic, social and environmental viability (DPME 2019:149). The MTSF 2014 to 2019 and MTSF 2019 to 2024 outline the following policy priority areas relating to agriculture and unemployment:

- Rural enterprises industries that are sustainably characterised by strong rural-urban linkages
- Improved market access and financial services and increased agro-processing trade development investment
- Development and support of smallholder farmers
- Enhanced administration and use of land for planning integrated development in rural areas
- Increasing the accessibility to basic infrastructures of quality and services, particularly regarding health care, public transport and education in the rural areas
- Improvement of food and nutrition security

- Land reform that is sustainable for overall agricultural transformation (DPME 2014b & DPME 2019).

These priority areas will require coordination between state actors and private sector industries to implement them successfully.

v. *Agriculture Policy Action Plan (APAP) 2015-2019*

The Agriculture Policy Action Plan was planned over five years which strived to transmute responses from the high-level offered in the Integrated Growth & Development Policy for Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries (IGDP) into clear, practical steps. Considering that this is the primary iteration of the IPAP, the plan is not proposed as a fully comprehensive plan but instead dependent on the model of IPAP. APAP was developed with the purpose of the plan's main objective aligned to those of NDP, IPAP, MTSF and NGP in relation to the following outcomes the achievement of decent work through economic growth that is inclusive, vibrant, equal and sustainable agrarian communities contributing to food security and the protection and enhancement of natural resources and assists (DAFF 2014b:1)

APAP focus areas in relation to achieving the NDP, NGP and IPAP goals were i) to contribute to food and nutrition security, ii) creation of employment, iii) production value, iv) potential to grow and v) potential contributions to trade balance (in particular import substitution and export expansion) (DAFF 2015a:7). APAP was effectively to address Outcomes as Outcome 4: the achievement of decent work through economic growth that is inclusive, Outcome 7: vibrant, equal and sustainable agrarian communities contributing to food security and Outcome 10: the protection and enhancement of natural resources and assists. The objectives are highlighted in the different plans that unlock agriculture, forestry and fisheries production potential. It identified 11 sectoral interventions, also referred to as crucial action programmes. These critical sector interventions are forestry, biofuel, sugar, wheat, aquaculture competitiveness improvement programme (ACIP), red meat value chains, wine industry, soya beans, maize integrated value chains, poultry, fruit and vegetables and small-scale fisheries (DAFF 2014b:22-68). APAP proposed several transversal interventions to complement the sectoral interventions. The interventions are innovative research, biosecurity, strategic integrated projects (SIPs), development of agribusiness, climate-smart agriculture promotion and Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative

(Delpoort 2019:37). Collectively, these cross-cutting interventions are aimed at strengthening the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sectors by various alternative means.

From an agriculture perspective, the study focus is on the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative, which seeks to foster food security and address the challenges of food insecurity. Fetsa Tlala focuses on more than just attaining food security but also eliminating hunger. It, therefore, is a framework that is overarching to optimise synergies between diverse strategies and programmes of government and civil societies. The focus of intervention is supporting smallholder farmers to increase production (DAFF 2014b:68). The capacity lies in the institutionalisation of planning, monitoring and evaluation to successfully increase support to smallholder production. APAP provides an engagement platform where the government and other non-state actors can pinpoint binding constraints and necessary intervention (DAFF 2014b:79). Such platforms include various stakeholders, including but not limited to government, labour civil societies, sector organisations and provincial departments of agriculture.

Through the establishment of forums, various stakeholders can engage, lay out their observations and attain relative consensus regarding the nation around agriculture, forestry and fisheries on the focus nationally and provincially. Thus, the study intends to explore the support of smallholder farmers through PPPs to promote food security.

All the policies, declarations, plans, and strategic framework aim to ensure the accessibility, affordability and availability of safe food and food nutrition at national and household levels and recognises that investment in agricultural alignment is towards local rural economic growth. Investment in agriculture involves input provision or subsidisation and supporting services to boost the production and distribution of food by engaging the government and private sector entities to ensure increased food access for all. Therefore, focusing on agriculture is critical to address food security challenges, and increased food production is essential to have adequate access to food; the food must be made available. Food availability will be discussed in the following section, as well as a specific regulatory framework applicable to food production through agricultural development to explore the support smallholder

farmers receive through PPPs to respond to the needs of the growing population of South Africa.

Sectoral sphere

i. *Integrated Growth & Development Policy for Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries (IGDP) 2012*

The IGDP, implemented in 2012, was the DALRRD's first effort to merge three sub-areas, namely agriculture, fisheries and forestry, to develop a shared vision and merged implementation framework. By ensuring the emphasis of integration as the underlying fundamental focus of its principles, the IGDP vision is an "equitable, productive, competitive, profitable and sustainable Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries sector growing to the benefit of South Africa" (DAFF 2012b:6). The vision is congruently supported through the mission of the IGDP to attain a sustainable and developed sector that is contributing to economic growth and development of agriculture, food security, job creation, rural development, sustainable natural resource use, sustainable development and conservation of biodiversity and ecosystems (DAFF 2012b:13).

The IGDP strategy is derived from the 14 outcomes identified in the MTSF 2014-2019 (DAFF 2012b:30). The attainment of these outcomes places reliance on key policies inclusive of NGP, NDP, IPAP and the IGDP for agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Therefore, given the various areas that influence the development and growth of the sector, the IGDP seeks to improve policy effectiveness governing the three sectors. Concerning the three sectors, DALRRD's contribution is towards 3 out of 14 outcomes. The IGDP plays a crucial role in achieving these outcomes, notably Outcome 4: the achievement of decent work through economic growth that is inclusive; outcome 7: vibrant, equal and sustainable agrarian communities contributing to food security and Outcome 10: the protection and enhancement of natural resources and assists (DAFF 2012b:6).

The objective of the IGDP addresses the outcomes mentioned, focusing on four broad sectors: growth that is equitable and competitive, transformation and equity, environment conservation and governance (DAFF 2012b:16). These sector goals were aligned to the strategic government outcomes to ensure that the sector releases

its capability to contribute towards development and growth, specifically in the rural areas mandated by the government to ensure that commercial, smallholder and subsistence farming contribute to development in agriculture.

Concerning food and nutrition security, the IGDP notes that there is a need to emphasise both economic and physical food access when addressing food and nutrition security. The role of the agriculture sector will ensure national and household level food security through a qualitative and quantitative improvement of South Africa's agricultural productivity and trade and regulatory environments (DAFF 2012b:1-2). Thus, firmly coordinated and collaborated private partnerships are crucial to develop the three sectors further, especially concerning agriculture and smallholder farmer support and development. IGDP emphasised that building strong and productive partnerships with the relevant organisations and the private sector will allow for inclusive coordination, planning and implementation of programmes supported by monitoring. This will improve the fragmented programme implementation and ensure that South Africa executes its outlined objectives through the IGDP successfully by utilising all the necessary resources (DAFF 2012b:38).

3.3. FOOD AVAILABILITY AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT

Food availability is whereby food exists and is accessible to all. On a national level, it combines commercial food imports and exports, domestic food production, food aid and domestic stock. On a household level, food is produced from local production or purchased from local production supermarkets (Burchi & De Muro 2016:11). The Declaration of Principles of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development 1979 states that reducing hunger, poverty, and malnutrition is an aim of global development. Through an efficient and effective agrarian sector, the world can meet the needs of domestic needs of hunger, poverty and malnutrition (Parliamentary Assembly 2014; Durojaye & Chilemba 2018:7-8).

On the basis that the study focus is South Africa, it is essential to acknowledge that the White Paper on Agriculture 1995 recognises the value of agricultural contributions to the development of employment, food security, income and standard of living. The White Paper recognises the necessity of having designed agricultural support programmes to enhance the standard of living, skills of farmers and farm workers and

a need to identify the contributions made by farmers to agricultural production. Support services are necessary to farmers who participate in land reforms to improve their production. According to the White Paper on Agriculture 1995, agricultural production systems and practices are directed towards increasing national and household food security. Therefore, government support should be from a broad spectrum of subsistence farming and smallholder farming for household income and food security. It is essential to feed the growing population of South Africa. The following sections will describe the South African agriculture structure and highlight the institutional arrangements that support smallholder farmers and its programmes focusing on agriculture production.

3.3.1. South African agrarian structure with focus on agriculture production

The purpose is not to go into detail, however it is provide a brief description of the agrarian structure of South Africa. The agrarian structure is commonly known to be formed by apartheid and colonisation, expropriating land, restricting any production among black farmers. Apartheid created a dualistic agricultural structure that resulted in unsupported black farmers not producing enough to feed their families and make an income and large-scale white-owned commercial farmers. The majority of the black food producers are located in former homelands with fragmented presences in white only regions. The structure has more or less persisted since the apartheid era with some modifications, for instance, increased urbanisation and squatter settlements around rural villages, some land tenure reform and reparation accounting for 9 % of the area of land and the release of publicly owned land for producers in certain areas (Cousin 2018).

Production of agriculture in South Africa can be categorised into three general categories: commercial agriculture, smallholder agriculture and subsistence agriculture. Commercial producers are known as large-scale farmers, which cover 82 million hectares, and consist of an estimation of 40 000 farming units that produce approximately 95% of the country's standard marketed agriculture output (households (African Centre for Biodiversity 2018:10). On the other hand, smallholder producers cover approximate 14 million hectares, predominately black individuals in 150 000 households located in the former homelands. On average, 2 million South African households that consisted of subsistence producers produced mainly or solely for self-

consumption (African Centre for Biodiversity 2018:10). Based on the agriculture activity in South Africa, the government regards the rural community's participation in the agriculture sector as a vital strategy to enhance rural economies. However, this is more practical on paper but not the reality. In South African rural communities, agriculture is characterised by smallholder production. Due to poor production in the country's agriculture sector and lack of productivity, rural small-scale farming food security has been threatened (Mbatha & Masuku 2018:35).

When countries have adequate nutrition to feed their societies, this is referred to as food security. However, this has long been the case for South Africa. Through its attempt to enhance food production, the country has managed to ensure food security on a national level. Agricultural production increased by 24%, from 50.8 million tonnes in 2016 to 62.9 million tonnes in 2017 (South African Government 2019). Although the increase is evident and the country has sufficient food nationally, with proper farming production to supply enough food to its population, South Africa is still insecure at a household level. A distinction exists between being food secure on a national level and a household level. The national perspective of food security is when a nation can self-produce, import and maintain food sustainability deemed necessary to sustain the population with the lowest per capita dietary standards.

From a household perspective, food security relates to food availability in an individual's household to which they have accessibility. In this instance, the household food is secure when all the members within the household do not experience hunger or experience low fear of famine (Anderson & Cook 1999). Thus, agriculture is essential to contribute to food security on both levels, national and household. The StatsSA (2019:61) report highlights that households take part in agriculture on a national level to obtain an extra source of income whereby more than three-quarters (75.4%) of households are involved in agriculture, as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

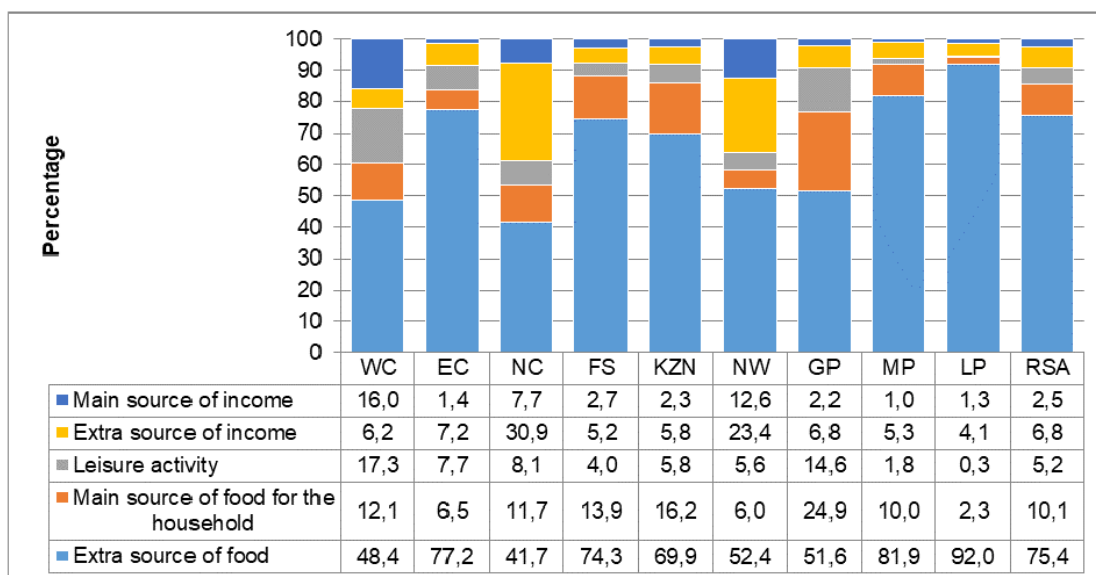


Figure 3.1: Percentage of the rationale for agricultural involvement by province, 2019

Source: StatsSA (2019a:61)

The top three provinces involved in agriculture as a source of food in chronological order were Limpopo, Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga. 92.0% of households in Limpopo province, 77.1% in Eastern Cape and 81.9% in Mpumalanga practised agricultural production to supplement their current food source. Western Cape had 17.3% of households engaged in agriculture as a recreational activity. In North West, 30.9% of households practised agriculture to acquire extra income. Subsequently, agriculture is not common in the Northern Cape (Refer to Figure 3.1: General Household Survey). The households involved in agricultural production may suggest that households take part in agriculture as a last resort. This illustrates that food production is necessary as households depend on agriculture as the main food source, as shown in Figure 3.1.

As reported by the General Household Survey, 15.3 % of households were involved in some sort of agriculture. In comparison to 2018, where agricultural involvement was at 14.8%, the increase in involvement went up by 0.5 % in 2018, involved in agricultural production, as demonstrated in Figure 3.2 (StatsSA 2018:69; StatsSA 2019a:61). Production of food comprises fresh foods such as fruits and vegetables, cattle farming, poultry and grains (StatsSA 2019a:61). The importance of these statistics to the study

is to highlight the importance of smallholder farmers in enhancing food security in South Africa.

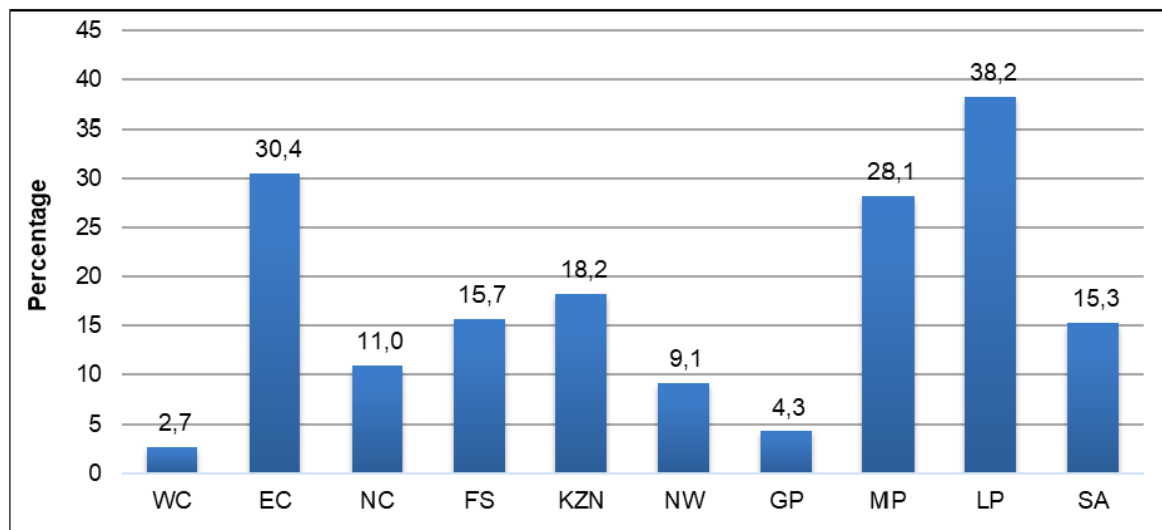


Figure 3.2: Percentage of households involved in agricultural activities by province, 2019

Source: StatsSA (2019a:61)

It is therefore evident from the statistical results relating to the general household survey of 2019 that agriculture production is still a fundamental supporter of the growing economy of South Africa. Agriculture is a mechanism for the bulk residing in rural areas to be food secure as they rely on production as an additional food source. Food production is related to food availability, one of the four pillars of food security as per the National Food and Security Policy. To ensure that food security through food production is achieved, institutional arrangements apply to it in South Africa. The institutional arrangements include international standards which South Africa has agreed to abide by and existing responsible departments for implementations of programmes aimed at reaching the goal of ensuring food security through one of the food security pillars; food production focused on smallholder producer" development.

3.3.2. Agriculture and smallholder farmer support institutional arrangements

The 6th Chapter of the NDP states that there should be a consolidated and all-inclusive rural economy targeting the growth of one million jobs, including farming livelihood. Concerning smallholder and subsistence producers, the NDP proposes to target 300 000 opportunities from agriculture by 2030 (National Planning Commission 2011:199).

DALRRD is responsible for all the major programmes and plans emanating from the NDP via the MTSF. Since the NDP, an increase in programmes and policies has been established in agriculture, food security and smallholder farmer support under the DALRRD (African Centre for Biodiversity 2018:11).

The DALRRD is chiefly accountable for actions related to agriculture, rural development and land reform in the country given the legal mandate derived from section 24(b)(ii) and 27(1)(b) of the Constitution (DAFF 2017). The department envisions a unified and transformed agriculture sector. It seeks to provide food that is nutritious and secure for all and economic sustainability through job creation, food security measures, economic development and transformation of the agricultural sector through inclusive, innovative and sustainable legislation, policies and programmes (DAFF 2017). Therefore, the department's aim is to establish a conducive environment for equal opportunity access and establish standards and norms to provide financial aid and support mechanisms to farmers. For DALRRD to cultivate such an environment, strategic plans are mandatory to be developed to meet its objectives. The strategic planning process for DALRRD is informed mainly by the MTSF. The outcome on comprehensive rural development, food and nutrition security will be of relevance for this study. The outcome focus is on measures oriented towards strengthening food and nutrition security and agricultural competition whilst lifting disadvantaged rural areas, especially those based on former homeland areas, out of poverty. Therefore, the NDP's crucial actions and critical outputs are utilised to develop indicators and targets to ensure that the department aligns with the 2030 vision.

DALRRD indicators and targets need to be aligned towards achieving the 2030 vision. To obtain them, it has strategic goals entrenched in the MTSF, and the department has focused on attaining three of the 14 outcomes. DALRRD outcome focusing on food security is Outcome 7, which focuses on vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities contributing to food and nutrition security for all. DALRRD Outcome 7 comprises Strategic Goal 3, which states that the sector should promote an environment that is enabling for food and nutrition security, the transformation of the sector through Programme 3: Food and Nutrition Security and Agrarian Reform. Programme 3 is aimed towards promoting and facilitating household food and nutrition

security and agricultural reform programmes and initiatives by implementing the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security, targeted towards smallholder, subsistence and natural producers. It includes three sub-programmes: Sector Capacity Development, National Extension Support Services and Food Security (DAFF 2015a :28). The Food Security sub-programme provides a national framework encouraging household food security by enhancing production systems of smallholder and subsistence producers to obtain food security and sustainable livelihood and facilities providing inputs, implements and infrastructure support.

As previously highlighted, practical plans and programmes flow from the NDP via MTSF. The APAP released by the DALRRD operationalising the NDP in five-year increments is one of the plans established (African Centre for Biodiversity 2018:12). APAP focused on two primary goals: establishment of a decent job through growth inclusion, comprehensive rural development and food security. APAP's objective is to ensure access to high-quality basic services that will enable the society to be well-nourished, healthy and increase skilled communities residing in rural areas to have opportunities to take part in the country's social, economic and political life. Rural economies supported by agriculture were through mining, tourism, fishers, agro-processing to better integrate the country's rural area through the creation of jobs, reform of land and poverty alleviation (DAFF 2014b:2). Agriculture is a primary economic activity, and the government sees the potential to achieve the APAP objective (DAFF 2014b:2). Production has thus been identified as a way to meet the APAP goals. The following section will highlight the programmes as established by the DALRRD to increase smallholder agriculture productivity to achieve food security. The study seeks to explore support through public-private arrangements to address food insecurity.

3.3.3. Smallholder farmer support programmes

Before discussing smallholder farmer support programmes that exist in South Africa in detail, it is important to acknowledge where the programmes' inspiration is derived from. Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) is an African legal framework for transformation in agriculture, creation of wealth, food security and nutrition, economic development and prosperity for all introduced in 2003 under the AU Summit in Maputo (United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa

[Sa]). CAADP is inspired and energised by African research institutes that are agriculture-focused, farmer associations, African governments and the private sector who believe that the agriculture sector has a pivotal role in development. The policy is associated with increasing investment to encourage growth within the agricultural sector. CAADP's focus is bringing public-private sectors together at international, regional and national levels to increase investment, enhance coordination, share knowledge, failures and successes, encourage one another and promote joint and separate efforts. The community practically aims to provide space for these stakeholders to share best African practices and leadership that can engender inclusive economic growth, benefit smallholder farmers, increase food products and end hunger across the continent (NEPAD 2019). Thus, the study finds relevance in exploring PPPs by supporting smallholder farmers to improve accessibility to food through increased production to promote food security.

The agricultural sector in South Africa is a concurrent responsibility between national and provincial governments, meaning both can establish programmes in agriculture. DALRRD has two support programmes to support smallholder farmers with technical, infrastructure and financial support. These are notably the Comprehensive Agriculture Support Programme which is the focus of the study, and Ilima/Letsema. The Landcare programmes aimed at increasing farm output towards the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative (DAFF 2015a: viii). These programmes all share one objective of supporting 145 000 smallholder farmers per year.

CASP is a programme that was introduced in the 2004/2005 financial year-end in response to the gap that existed, resulting in the closure of the Agriculture Credit Board (ACB) in 1998, which had an impact on farmer support received from the government. ACB's closure was the result of the reduction in support the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) received, which led to the decline of support to smallholder farmers directly and indirectly (DAFF 2019:5). However, it was difficult for emerging beneficiaries of land reform to have access to credit or other means of support from land or commercial banks without other institutions or instruments in play. Attempts were made to replace the ACB with a similar institute with a similar mandate to support smallholder farmers (DAFF 2019:5). However, they were unfruitful, and investments towards the farmers were not enough to cultivate and bring into production their newly

inherited land and assets. The historical context of commercial white farmers receiving marketing, storage, extension services and input supply further resulted in the need for CASP as the gap grew in terms of differences between white farmers and black farmers instead it narrowing.

CASP creates a conducive environment for emergent farmers and expands the provision of support services for the development of agriculture. CASP was initiated to assist the target group of land tenure reform, redistribution and restitution and later incorporated black producers who received land through private methods. The programme has four targeted groups which it supports and is determined by their needs. The first group is the vulnerable group with no access to food, and through the provision of food, packages were able to access food. The second group consists of subsistence and household producers who receive support directed towards food production by providing them with starter packs inclusive of chemicals, seeds and fertilisers (DAFF 2019:6-10; Western Cape Department of Agriculture 2019). The third and fourth groups are smallholder producers and black commercial farmers who are given support at a farm level by supplying them with inputs, infrastructure development and mechanisation services to produce more efficiently and effectively. The difference between smallholder producers and black commercial farmers is that the commercial farmers include an enabling involved in and ownership and proprietorship of the value chain (Western Cape Department of Agriculture 2019).

The Ilima/Letsema programme was announced in 2008 and implemented nationwide in 2009. The programme is aimed at poverty reduction through increased production of food initiatives. The programme is geared towards increasing household food production, focusing on smallholder and subsistence farmers, occasionally commercial farmers. The Ilima/Letsema programme consists of a starter pack and production resources, for instance, seedlings, irrigation infrastructure fertiliser, machinery and equipment and breeding animals and poultry with feed and medication. The communities under this programme are recommended to produce food for selling and consumption in the commercialisation of the farmers. The approach taken by the programme is to coordinate identified vulnerable families with the assistance of other social departments and profile and study their information (Joala & Nkyanyiso 2018). Then, information is analysed, such as potential beneficiary households needing to

prove their security of tenure and their vulnerability status with confirmation from the relevant department. The Household Food and Nutrition Security Programme was approved in 2013 for specific support for household and small-scale production strategies to be expanded. The strategy identifies the need to expand their existing network for distribution and support, including the Food Banks and support for Community Nutrition Development Centres (National Government 2015).

The Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative was put in place to facilitate a regulations system that ensures that **“all have food on the table”** (DAFF 2014a:1). The plan addresses food production. The approach used by the programme is through maximising the cultivation of food by putting land under production. The leadership of the programme is by DALRRD. They have established a National Task Team consisting of government departments and the private sector that will manage the implementation and delivery of programme targets. DALRRD, under its Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme, has been attempting to improve food production (DALRRD 2021b). The programme has aimed to provide post-settlement support to targeted successors of land reforms and other producers. (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2015). CASP, Ilima/Letsema and Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative are strategic interventions in the realisation of the NDP vision 2030 **to reduce poverty through increased production initiatives** contributing towards food and nutrition security for everyone. The success of the programmes will depend on proper coordination and collaboration, including the availability and utilisation of all enabling resources (DAFF 2015a). This highlights the importance of public-private partnership coordination to maximise the use of resources and promote food security.

3.4. CONCLUSION

If smallholder farmers are acquiring enough support, this segment could likely positively impact food security within households. This may address food insecurity and can be essential to increase the food supply in South Africa. The programmes and arrangements mentioned in this chapter concerning assisting smallholder farmers must be grounded on regional context, developing present local methods and tackling threats relating to production. Activities relating to agriculture can thereby have a progressive influence on households. Through efficient programmes, agendas for enhanced production in agriculture in underdeveloped areas can influence food

security on a household level. It is crucial to investigate how smallholder farmers (producers) are supported to ensure contribution to food security.

CHAPTER 4: INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICE FOR PROMOTING FOOD SECURITY THROUGH PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS AND SMALLHOLDER FARMERS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the regulatory environment and discussed relevant institutional arrangements applicable to food security and smallholder farmers. The chapter provided an overview of both an international and regional perspective on the importance of PPPs to promote food security and smallholder agricultural development in South Africa. Chapter Four will expatiate on Chapter Three by providing international best practices for building smallholder farmer agricultural development through PPPs to promote food security. Brazil and Kenya were selected as international standards from where South Africa will draw its lessons.

The chapter provides an overview of PPPs that apply to food security through smallholder farmers. Secondly, the chapter provides the rationale for Brazil and Kenya's selection about food security and support smallholder farmer development. Chapter Four will outline programmes implemented in Brazil and Kenya and describe partnership interventions in the countries and their successes to tell the public-private partnership framework in South Africa.

4.2. PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP FOR AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT

Historically, the agriculture sector is critical in economic growth, which constitutes a labour source during industrialisation and food supply for the more urbanised population. The majority of the employment is in rural communities. Therefore, the agricultural sector is essential vital for reducing poverty due to high employment in the community. The sector's main challenge is increased productivity and the predominance of smallholder farmers (Murekezi, Menezes & Ridler 2018:1). Eastern Africa's agricultural output is 75% from smallholder holdings which employ more than three-quarters of the entire labour force. These smallholdings are homogenous; however, a small minority have capital, access to credit and information, limited assets and traditional techniques. PPPs, therefore, emerged as a significant mechanism of worldwide development, both in well-developed and resource-poor environments.

The government's scarcity of resources and expertise has given the platform for innovative partnerships to emerge that allow for collaborative efforts from government, businesses and civil society to increase productivity and to steer the agricultural sector growth and the food sector globally. The application of PPPs in agriculture is relatively new. However, agri-PPPs are promoted widely as having contributed to the agricultural sector through modernisation. They can provide many benefits that can support agriculture development that is sustainable and inclusive of smallholder farmers (FAO 2016:3).

From a public administration perspective, PPPs are mechanisms for improving public goods delivery and services by collaborating with others, i.e., the private sector, while maintaining the governmental role to ensure that national social and economic objectives are achieved. The emergence of PPPs is associated with market and policy failures in delivering public goods such as education, infrastructure and health. From an agricultural perspective, which is the study's focus, PPPs in agriculture seek to reduce food insecurity and promote adequate and nutritious food to all, environment protection and rural area viability. Combining public and private resources avoids goods delivery failure. Through PPPs, under a clearly defined legislative and regulatory environment, the government can get socio-economic benefits from the private sector investment that they would not have been able to get as a single entity due to limitations of technical expertise, resources and management skills (FAO 2016:5-6).

Policymakers and practitioners of agricultural development are interested in PPPs for four primary reasons (FAO 2016:6). They have the potential to leverage finance, risk-sharing, food and security inclusion, market access and innovation. To leverage finance, considerable investments are needed to unlock the potential sustainable development of agriculture and poverty alleviation in developing economies. PPPs are recognised as a tool for risk-sharing in which the involvement of the private sector can lower the risk. A combination of institutional mechanisms and market incentives can be integrated into PPP projects to assure investors and help to bridge the absence of an enabling regulatory environment (FAO 2016:6). Food security and inclusion is the third reason policymakers, and practitioners are interested in PPPs. Emerging "mega-agricultural PPPs" is becoming an increasingly popular concept about agriculture.

Mega-agricultural PPPs are global multi-stakeholder partnerships incorporating global partnerships developed to boost agricultural investment on a larger scale with the view of furthering the inclusion of smallholder and food security in low to middle-income economies (FAO 2016:15).

Market access and innovation is the fourth reason for increased accessibility to international markets (FAO 2016:6). Public-private partnership projects add value through strong innovation and the efficiency of the private sector, simultaneously promoting agricultural policy objectives that are sustainable. Further, the value addition comprises accessibility to superior management and marketing skills and new technologies to enhance further production efficiency and delivery of agri-food products and services (FAO 2016:8). According to FAO, International Fund for Agricultural Development, UNICEF, WFP and WHO (2020:118), low productivity levels in the production of food result in increased food insecurity. Addressing low-level productivity levels in the production of food can increase the overall supply of nutritious food by lowering prices of food and increasing incomes for less privileged smallholder farmers (family farmers) in low-middle income countries. Sustainable growth in productivity in food and agriculture without natural resource depletion is dependent on producers of food having innovative capabilities making it possible for them to increase yields, manage inputs in a way that is efficient and be able to adopt new crops and enhance the quality while simultaneously preserving natural resources (FAO *et al.* 2020:118). Agricultural production needs to increase in parallel to efficient food systems, ecological protection, healthy food, inclusive development and climate adoption policies that promote sustainable food production in an intelligent climate, achieving food security and good nutrition (Rampa & Kakari 2017:9).

Investment in agriculture through PPPs can raise low productivity. Growth in productivity at all phases of the supply food chain needs technology innovation. Countries in their developing stages, notably in Asia and Latin America, have implemented pioneering research and development projects. These projects focus on addressing complex challenges hindering increased productivity caused by diseases and pest outbreaks, limited access to mechanisation and irrigation systems, changes in climate, adoption of improved seed, post-harvest, poor agronomic practices and food loss due to poor product quality (FAO 2016:6-7; FAO *et al.* 2021:163).

Implementation of pre-harvest and post-harvest strategies are crucial efforts for productivity increase. The strategies will not only reduce the loss of food but will also assist in maintaining the nutrient content of food and promote food safety, thus contributing to environmental sustainability (FAO *et al.* 2020:147).

Under the appropriate conditions, private sector involvement can accelerate the reduction in poverty by continuing to cultivate partnerships that merge the interests of smallholder farmers as the majority are located in rural areas, especially in developing economies. Private sector investment can contribute to raising incomes, strengthening food security and promoting favourable policy environments that provide infrastructure to allow rural businesses to thrive. The following sections will discuss how Kenya and Brazil have successfully implemented PPPs focused on smallholder farmer development to contribute to food security.

4.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR SELECTION OF BRAZIL AND KENYA AS INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICES

The selection for the international best practices was based on a benchmark to ensure uniformity in selection. The benchmark is in the countries selected, which are Brazil and Kenya. The right to access food is a South African basic human right recognised by the land's superior law. Agricultural development and food security are a primacy in South Africa in the context of signed international and regional treaties and agreements discussed in Chapter Three. The two countries identified international best practices to demonstrate how public-private partnership implementation to support smallholder farmers can contribute to food security. Brazil and Kenya have both approved the right to have access to food in their constitution. They both have signed international treaties and covenants relating to food access similar to South Africa. The entitled food access is in Brazil's Constitution of the Federal Republic of Brazil of 1995 and the Constitution of the Republic of Kenya of 2010.

Brazil has been selected as an international benchmark as it has made impressive strides in reducing poverty, food insecurity and hunger through various means, inclusive of agriculture development through smallholders. The country managed to meet the Millennium Development Goals 2015 to half poverty and hunger between 1990 and 2015 (World Bank 2014). The GHI further demonstrates Brazil's efforts to

improve food security, which has been through agriculture development as a critical element. The GHI is an instrument geared towards comprehensively measuring and tracking hunger on all levels (global, regional and national). The tool helps to promote awareness and provides an understanding of hunger challenges providing a mechanism of comparing hunger levels between countries and regions to identify where to direct efforts to get rid of hunger. GHI has four key indicators: undernourishment, child wasting, child mortality and child stunting. For each component, the score is a standardised score on a scale of 0 to 100 based on the highest observed level for the indicator on a global scale. 0 indicates no hunger, and 100 is the worst score (GHI 2021). According to the 2019 GHI, Brazil ranks 1 out of 17 countries (out of a total of 107 qualifying countries) with a GHI score below 5, meaning that Brazil suffers from a low hunger level. As represented in Figure 4.1: Brazil has managed to get a downward trend, dropping from an index of 11.3 to below 5 (GHI 2021).

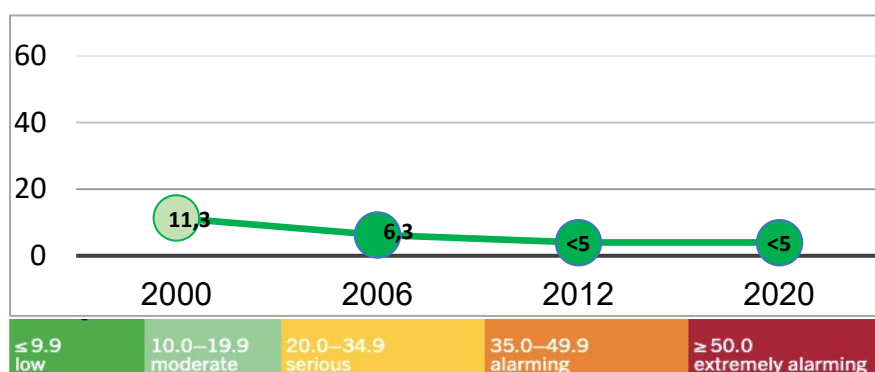


Figure 4.1: Global Score Trends of Brazil

Source: Adapted from Global Hunger Index (2021)

Given that Brazil has managed to continuously reduce their GHI, it is well known for well-functioning agriculture sectors that influence food security. This further provides the rationale for selection.

The selection for Kenya for the study was not just because the country is located in the same continent as South Africa, but it can be easily related to South Africa's policy implementation. They have put similar efforts into addressing food security challenges by developing the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security to meet their growing population needs. The population sizes of the two countries are similar. Kenya's population is 53.77 million people, and South Africa's population is 59.30 million

people, according to the World meter (2021). Also, Kenya has enacted a Public-Private Partnership Act, which came into effect in 2013. Act no. 15 of 2013 states that private sector participation is in construction, financing, operation, growth and project support through concession or other contractual agreements. The public-private partnership framework mainly supports many public-private partnership projects, and PPPs have been delivering several services within the country to help various public functions (World Bank 2020a). Kenya has a robust regulatory and institutional framework for PPPs at various levels. The country has successfully implemented several PPPs.

Furthermore, Kenya was selected based on the country being in Africa ten biggest economies based on its GDP. The country can become Africa's success story from its increasing young population, its dynamic private sphere dynamic, highly qualified workforce, the new constitution and its prominent role in East Africa. Kenya benefits as a social, transport and economic hub for East Africa and from its diversified economy (World Bank 2021). The country's economic growth averaged 5.7%, positioning the country as one of sub-Saharan Africa's fast-growing economies in 2019. The recent economic growth has escalated due to a stable macroeconomic environment, favourable investor confidence and a resilient services sector (World Bank 2021).

The two Brazil and Kenya's agricultural development is the principal driver of their economies. The majority of the countries' people depend on agriculture as a main supply of food, forming the basis for selecting the two countries. Furthermore, developing economies like South Africa form the basis for using these two countries as countries like South Africa can learn from improving their agricultural sector through public-private partnership support to smallholder farmers to address food insecurity. This dissertation does proclaim that Brazil and Kenya do not have agricultural development and food security challenges; however, it recognises the positive efforts of the two countries from which South Africa can learn.

4.4. PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT FOR FOOD SECURITY IN KENYA

The Republic of Kenya (local form Jamhuri ya Kenya) is an East African country, boarding the Indian Ocean between Somalia and Tanzania. Kenya's independence was gained in 1963. The country's total area makes it the 48th largest in the world in terms of its total area (half a million square kilometres). Nearly half of its land is for agriculture, with a population of 55 million people (World Bank 2021; Central Intelligence Agency 2021a). The highlands in Kenya is one of the most suitable agriculture production regions in Africa. Since 2014, Kenya has evolved in the agricultural sector structural and economic reforms, contributing to steady economic development and social growth (Central Intelligence Agency 2021a).



Figure 4.2: Map of Kenya

Source: <http://geology.com/world/kenya-satellite-image.shtml>

Agriculture is the anchor of economic development and alleviation of poverty in Kenya. Agriculture is an integral part of improving food security, employment and foreign exchange earnings to protect the environment and for sustainable development. Economic growth is correlated to development and growth in the agriculture sector, contributing to 34.5 % of GDP, translating to one-third of the GDP (Central Intelligence Agency 2021a). Although the GDP declined after 1977, agriculture increased from 31.07% in 2016 to 35.5 % in 2020, which is a 4.43% increase, further alluding to the agriculture sector's importance (Statista 2021). Furthermore, an estimated 75% of the

employment is in agricultural activities, and over 75% of agricultural output is from small-scale farming (Central Intelligence Agency 2021a).

Agriculture is a large and complex sector in Kenya with multiple parastatals, non-governmental, public and private sectors. The sector is the reason for 65% export earnings and the main driving force of non-agricultural related economic growth. These include manufacturing and providing inputs and markets for non-agricultural related operations such as construction, education, tourism, transportation and other social services (FAO 2021b). Growth in the agricultural sector is more effective than other sectors in enhancing food security and poverty reduction.

4.4.1. Food security in Kenya

The Kenyan government sought to get a food secure, healthy and productive wealthy nation. All Kenyans' right to be hunger-free and have access to sufficient food of satisfactory quality is enshrined in the Constitution of Kenya in Article 43(1) (c). The constitution reaffirms the long-term development road map of Kenya 2030 vision of "a globally competitive and prosperous country with high quality of life for its people" (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2017:ix). The state's duty and every organ in fulfilling the right to enough food as per the Constitution Article 21(1) are to protect, promote, observe, respect and fulfil fundamental rights in the Bill of Rights. Under Article (21)(2)(4), the government is to adopt legislative policies and measures that are necessary to get the progressive implementation of rights under article 43(1)(c). Furthermore, the state enacts and enforces legislation to fulfil its international commitments about human rights protection.

Kenya has ratified the following international instruments on the right to be hunger-free and have access to adequate nutrition:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948,
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1966 in 1972,
- Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979 in 1984,
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989 in 1990 and

- Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) of 2006 in 2008 (Food and Agriculture Organisation 2020a).

These ratifications acknowledge the importance of food security, according to the Kenyan government. Kenya and South Africa have similar approaches to achieving food security in terms of the policies implemented. The National Food Policy (Sessional Paper No. 4 of 1981) is the first policy. At a later stage, it was integrated into Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth, intended for the self-reliance in major foodstuffs and the promotion of balanced and nutritious food distribution to all its citizens. The Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986 resulted from government interventions utilising price-setting of grains, input distribution and fertiliser subsidies across the board. The National Food Policy (Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1994) was the second policy focused on a market demand approach but had a restricted scope. The 1994 National Plan of Action on Nutrition was designed to address nutrition problems by involving different sectors. However, the implementation framework lacked a precise coordination mechanism and commitment to funding the planned activities.

Despite these policy initiatives only having met limited process and success, lessons learnt have been over time. They have helped to guide the formulation of the Kenya National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (NFSNP). The lessons emphasise strong links between agricultural and health sectors, which are essential in building mutual beneficial cross-cutting synergies and policy arena and broad stakeholder participation, and all the stages will provide food security with collective national responsibility. Overarching policies and a solid institutional framework are crucial to the agricultural sector's success. Systems of monitoring and evaluation are necessary to ensure effective implementation of policy and to remain dynamic as needs and conditions evolve. The NFSNP aims to add value-building synergies and implement present regional and national policies to confront food deficit and issues of malnutrition in Kenya more effectively (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2017:1). Similar to the South African National Food and Nutrition Security Policy, Kenya's policy on food acknowledges that the state and partner initiatives are essential to avoid effort duplication in improving food security. The Kenyan government has developed a National Food and Nutrition Security Policy Implementation Framework 2017-2022

(FNISP-IF). The FNISP-IF is adapted from the NFSNP, which outlines the actions to follow. It involves integrating major programmes, institutional structure, policies, and corresponding action into cooperative actions to manage the multidimensional challenges faced in attaining food and nutrition security. Hence FNISP-IF serves as an instrument for NGOs, the private sector, government and other stakeholders to facilitate an extensive and coordinated action for the implementation of food and nutrition security to all Kenyans. The Implementation Framework (IF) aims to improve NFSNP, ensuring access to food that is safe and nutritiously acceptable for the population in terms of quality. The implementation framework intention is to improve food security through coordination, strengthening and networking amongst appropriate public and private agencies across sectors such as trade, health, agriculture and water on local, regional and international levels (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2017:1).

Kenya emphasises the PPPs to address food insecurity and economic improvement. (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2017:4). The country has successfully attracted global investors, more notably United States companies. They establish local and regional operations as Kenya's location is strategic with a diverse economy, entrepreneurial workforce and status as a regional financial centre (North Eastern [Sa]:1). The agriculture sector contributes 26% of the GDP and another 25% indirectly through linkages within manufacturing and distribution services (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2017:4). The high GDP contribution is due to the Kenyan government's effort to enhance agriculture and food security by introducing various policies that promote agriculture development and PPPs. The following section will provide details on adopted policies and strategies.

4.4.2. Policy and strategies for agricultural development in Kenya

The government of Kenya has made substantial progress in the establishment of prerequisite policies and legislation required for the development of vibrant PPPs. The Public Procurement and Disposal Act (Act 3 of 2005) presents an overview of procurement contracting and management, designing competition and procurement, which apply to public-private partnership frameworks. In the Privatisation Act (Act 2 of 2005), PPPs are recognised as privatisation and establish an institutional structure for implementing public-private partnership secretariat and public-private partnership unit.

Once the public-private partnership secretariat was in place, the government directed their efforts toward developing PPPs regulations. This led to the passing of the Public Procurement Disposal Regulations 2009. Regulations included the private sector performing public sector functions or providing services for the procuring entity. In return, the private sector received benefits such as public funds compensation, charges or fees collected from services that they provided or a combination of the two. The regulation led to the established Public-private Partnership Steering Committee and a secretariat responsible for leading the public-private partnership development of policy, raising awareness, technical support, approval of PPPs and regulatory functions (FAO 2013:5-6).

To revive the agricultural and economic sector, the government created the Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation (ERS) 2003-2007 development strategy. The strategy identified industry, tourism and agriculture trade as the main tools for the recovery programme and emphasised sustainable agriculture development as essential food security elements, creating jobs and alleviating poverty (World Bank Group 2019:3). The ERS provided a pathway to the launch of the Strategy for Revitalising Agriculture (SRA) 2004-2014. The SRA goal was to transform the agriculture sector using six primary interventions: Reviewing and harmonising the regulatory, legal and institutional framework, restructuring and privatisation of the core agricultural ministries functions, improved research delivery, advisory and extension services, access to financial services and better-quality inputs, domestic and external market and formulate policies for food security and programmes. The implementation had a positive impact and yielded growth at an average of 3.1% between 2003 and 2007, reduced food insecurity by over 12% and reduced poverty by 10% and increased productivity. The SRA assisted in revitalising several agriculture institutions and forming the Agricultural Coordination Unit, which coordinated ministerial agribusiness activities. The SRA became the Agriculture Sector Development Strategy (ASDS) (2010-2020). The ASDS is a ten-year strategy with an overall objective of transforming the agriculture sector. 'SDS's mission is to create a commercial-oriented, advanced and innovative agriculture sector with the intention to ensure food security and a thriving nation. The 2030 vision, the social and economic pillars, emphasise the productivity of livestock and crops of importance, food security, nutrition and income. The vision identifies the agricultural sector among the six-priority

economic sectors where 21 flagship projects to enhance agriculture productivity were adopted and developed under the Public-Private Partnership framework (FAO 2013:5-6; Mbugua 2015:1).

From an African continental perspective, Kenya committed to the Abuja Declaration of March 2010. The African leaders' commitment was to support the implementation of the Agribusiness and Agro-industries Development Initiative (3ADI) (Mbugua 2015:1). 3ADI's main objective increased investment flow from the private sector into the agricultural sector by mobilising agribusiness and agro-industrial resources development from international, regional and local financial systems (FAO 2013:1).

To meet the international standards of enhancing food security, the Kenyan government committed to various international agreements and declarations to end hunger and reduce poverty through the agricultural sector, namely the World Food Summit of 1996, the United Nations SDGs, the African Union Commission (AUC), the African Task Force on Food and Nutrition Development (ATFFND), the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) prepared in 2002 and the Malabo Declaration on Agricultural Transformation of 2014 (Agricultural Coordination Unit 2011:7; Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2017:5). Thus, the pursuit of PPPs is to accelerate agribusiness development by improving market systems, increasing production and improving value addition and storage capacity.

4.4.3. Public-private partnerships for smallholder farmer development in Kenya

In making use of PPPs in the development of agriculture and smallholder farmers, Kenya has made an effort to promote PPPs. The country amended its Public-Private Partnership Bill of 2013 on the 31st of July 2018. In the Public-Private Partnerships Amendment Bill 2017 (2)(a)(i), PPPs are an arrangement between contracting authority and private party. One of the Act's key elements is the inception of the Public-Private Partnership Unit (PPPU), a Special Purpose Unit within the Government of Kenya's National Treasury. The PPPU is accountable for the systematised coordination of all the public-private partnership related projects, review and approval process designed to promote the flow of feasible, bankable and sustainable projects that advance Kenya's National Policy on PPPs. Kenya has introduced the Public-

Private Partnership Bill 2021 as of the 26th of February 2021. The act is to provide participation of the private sector to repeal the Public-Private Partnership Act 2013.

The following section describes public-private partnership programmes that have existed and are currently existing in Kenya that support smallholder farmers to contribute to food security. These programmes have addressed the level of success to derive lessons from it that South Africa can adapt to support its farmers' food security to feed the growing population.

4.4.3.1. Successful implementation of public-private partnerships in Kenya

Kenya's government has developed policies and strategies to promote agricultural sector growth in collaboration with development partners. These collaborations emerged to address Kenya's 2030 vision of transforming into a "newly industrialised, middle-income country providing a high quality of life to all its citizens by 2030" (Chipeta, Hendriks, Wairimu, Muriuki & Marani 2015:3). The aim is poverty reduction and improved economies through the support of the agricultural sector. The 2030 vision identified four significant agricultural challenges: low productivity of livestock and crop, underutilisation of land, poor access to market inputs and output and low-value addition (FAO 2013:v).

Kenya has implemented 30 PPPs vision 2030 flagship projects to overcome these challenges by the following lead agencies: Ministry of Water and Irrigation (11 projects), Ministry of Agriculture (17 projects) and Ministry of Fisheries Development (2 projects). The projects depended on a public-private partnership budgetary framework and specific value-chains taken into account for financing through systems of bank guarantee with low-interest rates for loans (FAO 2013:4). In addition to these flagship projects, the Kenyan government supports agribusiness PPPs through joint ventures, including Kevian Fruit processing, Striga eradication project, National Accelerated Agriculture Input Access Program (NAAIAP) Agricultural Sector Development Support Programme (ASDSP) and Kenya Agricultural Productivity Program (KAPAP). The majority of the projects are donor-supported and directed towards smallholder farmers. Discussions on these projects are in the following sections concerning smallholder farmer support to promote Kenya's food security.

4.4.3.1.1. *Kevian Fruit Processing and Striga Eradication Projects*

Kevian Fruit Processing (hereafter referred to as Kevian) and Striga Eradication are projects selected and identified by the FAO that have successfully implemented PPPs. The selection was based on formal relationships and involved an agribusiness enterprise (FAO 2013:v).

Kevian facilitates the training of farmers on assessing the quality of fruit is an example of a PPPs (FAO 2013:7-8). The Kevian falls under the micro-level value chain development private-public partnership. A micro-level value chain PPP's purpose is value addition through differentiation of product through implementation of food safety and criteria for quality standards to meet the requirements of specialised export markets or through agro-processing materials that are raw to supply to the local market in Kenya (FAO 2016:34). Kevian's main objective under the micro-level value chain is increased value addition and differentiation of products by adopting new technologies and methods of production along the chain to minimise inefficiencies, improve traceability and acquire access to specialised target markets certified products. The Kevian Fruit Processing Project started in 2006 and ended in 2008. The PPPs addressed poor production practices that led to the production of low-quality produce, insufficient facilities for storage, limited access to the market and financial constraints. The public-private partnership was significantly relevant for the private company regarding the substitution of imported semi-finished products with domestic raw materials, therefore saving costs as a result of reduced foreign exchange expenses and increased self-sufficiency of the domestic mango industry. The public-private partnership was the collaboration of a private company, Kevian Company Limited and the National Federation of Agricultural Producers (KENFAP), which was the representative for farmers during the design and mobilisation of farmer groups to participate.

The public sector contributed 53%, the private sector contributed 41%, and the farmer groups contributed 6%, which came in cash or kind (FAO 2013:12; FAO 2016:34). Kevian Company was responsible for liaising with farmers and out-growers for quality control and organising produce collection. They were also responsible for establishing forward linkages with the potential consumer through the wholesale or retail trade. German Technical Cooperation contributed financial resources towards training,

equipment, packing material, collection centres and personnel. They were active in the policy process sectors by supporting Kenya’s Agricultural Sector Coordination Unit (ASU) technical officers.

Table 4.1: The Kevian Fruit processing public-private partnership outcomes

Achievements	450 small-scale mango growers linked to agro processing firm 2 collection centres established creating 14 jobs 8 cottage processing facilities established
Benefits for the public partners	Mango value chain Development strategy finalized and subsector coordination working group established under leadership of KEVIAN Co. Demonstration of model for small-scale value addition to reduce postharvest losses and increase rural income and employment opportunities on- and off-farm
Benefits for the private partners	Reduced import costs through increased availability of domestic raw materials Packaging infrastructure and technologies introduced at plant Improved post-harvest transport resulting in 25% reduction in waste Increased profits and sales (undisclosed)
Benefits for the farmers/FOs	Farmers’ incomes increased by 42% Losses at farm level reduced by 40% Employment creation Enhanced skills in semi-processing, packaging and transport management

Source: FAO (2013:12)

Kenya and other parts of Africa are primarily affected by Striga weed infestation. Striga is a parasitic weed that ruins cereal crops such as maize crops, upland rice, sorghum, sugarcane and millet. Striga’s effect can cause food insecurity in thousands of households and minimises rural development in the long run. The western part of Kenya experiences yield losses ranging from 20% to 80% in a given field, resulting in losses of 300 000 tonnes of maize per year (FAO 2013; CIMMYT 2016). To overcome the adverse effects, the Strigaway initiative came into effect in 2006 and is still ongoing. This initiative resulted in stakeholders collaborating in developing the best Striga control practices. Strigaway is a public-private partnership project that promotes innovation and technology transfer (ITT PPPs) (FAO 2016:58; CIMMYT 2016). The overall objective is to eradicate Striga weed for increased maize yield and farm productivity. There are three main drivers under the projects that have been identified:

- i. To devise a practical technology for managing Striga, as other conventional methods were ineffective

- ii. To develop a technological package that would suppress Striga and increase yield
- iii. To encourage the involvement of private sector participation, which was needed due to the envisaged potential for profitable seed supply investment.

Table 4.2: Summary of Striga ITT public-private partnership performance

Achievements	51 280 farmers planted seeds 107 demonstration sites 30 field days 82 000 Additional tonnes of maize produced, worth
Benefits for the public partners	Contribution to national food security and poverty reduction programme New skills developed in striga weed biology and control, weed resistant seed technology can be transferred to other crops Enabling environment for investment created New contract farming agreements Revolving funds
Benefits for the private partners	New product and market entry Sole distributor of weed resistant maize variety
Benefits for the farmers	300–400% yield increase in some areas, averaging 1.1 tonnes/ha Reduced costs associated with weeding and herbicide spraying

Source: FAO (2016:63-64)

4.4.3.1.2. Agricultural Sector Development Support Programme

The Agricultural Sector Development Strategy (ASDS) 2010-2020 was formed based on the 2030 vision, which is focused on transforming the agriculture sector of Kenya into an industrialised middle-income country. The objective was to achieve 7% agricultural growth yearly (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:3-4). The Agricultural Sector Development Support Programme (ASDSP) was developed under the ASDS to promote the agriculture sector's transformation into a commercially oriented, innovative, competitive and modern industry in Kenya. The transformation will reduce poverty and improve Kenya's urban and rural areas (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:4). The ASDSP provides a path for integrating and harmonising agriculture development programmes at the national and county level and harness synergies to improve agricultural sector development efficiency interventions (National Farmers Information Service 2016).

Kenya's government is responsible for executing ASDSP and matching funds, and other interested development partners provide co-funding. The programme is fully incorporated into the ASDS coordination mechanism, consorted with the new constitutional dispensation, and applies to the Kenyan government's procedures

(National Farmers Information Service 2016). The ASDSP is implemented in 47 counties and emphasises three implementation strategies for supporting a transformed partnership-based, stakeholder-led and demand-driven, (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:4; Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries 2014:4).

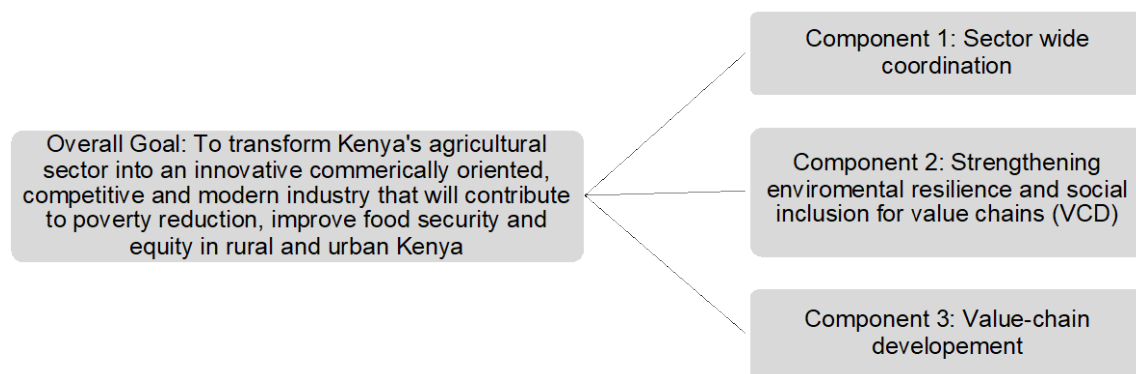


Figure 4.3: ADSP component supporting the transformation of Kenya's agricultural sector

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Fisheries (2014:4)

The overall goal of Kenya's agriculture sector and its key elements for supporting a transformed agriculture sector is shown in Figure 4.3. The first component, sector-wide coordination, supports coordination and harmonisation and creates a conducive institutional environment for the implementation of ASDSP. The sector-wide coordination develops and rolls out comprehensive policies, strategies and regulations supporting environmentally sustainable and socially inclusive value chain development (ASDSP 2013:4). Coordination and harmonisation are facilitated by ASDSP at the national and county government levels within and across the counties' value chains. Through the initiative established by development partnerships, the ASDSP is active in facilitating intergovernmental dialogues. Such dialogues resulted in a Government Consultative Forum on fisheries, livestock and agriculture in Mombasa in June 2014 (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:4). At a county level, coordination has resulted in the formation of coordinated structures. Additionally, the government and private partners have successfully developed a Coordination and Partnership Strategy and Partnership Guideline.

An example of a good partnership developed includes the development programme Kenya Agricultural Productivity Programme (KAPAP), where Kenya's Ministry of Agriculture partnered with the World Bank. The partnership focus was on development in the value chain. (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:21-22). KAPAP is an agricultural support programme implemented over five years from 2010 to 2014 under the World Bank Adaptable Programme loan. The second phase of the project was to support the agriculture sector through the KAPAP, which was formed to support policy implementation requirements for institutional reforms in the national agricultural research system and the agricultural extension services (The World Bank Group 2019:ix). KAPAP was to consolidate and up-scale the gains achieved under the first phase and address some remaining issues in the agriculture industry in accordance with the vision 2030 and ASDS (Wanjala, Mputhuia, Achieng, Muriruri & Ogola 2017:153). The aim was to increase the incomes of smallholder farmers participating in the project and improved agricultural productivity (The World Bank Group 2019:xiv). The government aimed to resolve medium long-term supply response related to agricultural technology or research implementations of reforms in extension service delivery and farm inputs.

The second component of strengthening value-chain environmental resilience for development is the focus and engine for achieving the overall programme goal. Climate change and delayed rains, extended droughts, increased temperatures, and flash floods have led to land degradation and increased diseases and pests. The environmental resilience has resulted in decreased yields, increased food insecurity and reduced income for agribusiness. The strategies intended for building environmental resilience among communities include promoting awareness and knowledge of the effect of climate change, the importance of sustained environment and the use of technology and services to preserve better and improve natural resource management. The community-based adaption approach to climate information services (CIS), known as Participatory Scenario Planning (PSP), was first introduced in Garissa County by the CARE International Adaption Learning Programme (ALP) in 2011 (Gbetiouo, Obuya, Mills, Snyman, Huyser & Hill 2017:1). Through partnerships with the Kenya Meteorological Department (KMD), the ASDSP and ALP, the PSP extended into all 47 counties in 2014. The partnership has attracted finance from a range of parties, including county government and NGOs.

The Kenya Meteorological Department (KMD) in 2014 signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with ASDSP for implementing the resilient environmental component of the programme. The meteorological department emerged from the World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) Convention. The convention seeks to provide timely and accurate information on weather and climate changes for life protection and preservation of the natural environment to reduce poverty and protect the environment generations (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries & ASDSP 2017:ii). The MOU is to bridge the gap between climate service providers and users in the agricultural sector through the PSP process and appropriate advisories. The PSP encouraged value chain actors (VCA) to seek weather information and advisories before embarking on their activities (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries & ASDSP 2017:i). Kenya has counties that either experience high rainfall, low rainfall and are arid and semi-arid. The involvement of advisories and PSP has impacted the different regions to promote environmental sustainability and climate change resilience in the value chain development.

According to the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries and ASDSP (2017:2), Bungoma is a county in western Kenya with high rainfall regions. The rainfall range is between 1000 mm and 1800 mm. The leading agricultural enterprises include food crops such as finger millets, bananas, Irish potatoes, assorted vegetables, beans and maize. For optimal climate conditions required for the development of various enterprises is between rainfall levels between 700 mm and 2000 mm. However, this is hardly obtained due to changes in the climate and variability. The county experiences long dry spells during the dry season and flash floods and hailstones during the wet season, negatively affecting productivity, profitability and value-chain sustainability. Kilifi is in a region that experience low rainfall ranging from 300 mm to about 1300 mm along the coastal belt (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries & ASDSP 2017:30). The Songa Mbelele youth group was established in 2007 and focused on cassava. Its purpose was for economic empowerment and food self-sufficiency. The county group receives advisory elements, including the planting of high yielding medium to late maturing crops. They started receiving advisories in 2015 and continued up to 2017 through brochures, local FM radio stations, Barazas and SMS (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries & ASDSP 2017:49). The group

used to plant more maize and little cassava. However, as the advisory result, they can now grow other drought-tolerant crops like millet and cowpeas.

Through the PSP dissemination of advisories, value-chain actors introduced and evolved in 2014 accurate weather and disseminated climate information. Channels used previously to share climate information were limited, including national radio and television stations. The weather information was associated with regions and was not downscaled to county levels indicating that the information provided was inaccurate. Also, advisories were underdeveloped and could not interpret the information into practical formats for the value chain actors. Links between ASDSP and KMD in weather predictions now bring together stakeholders that are capable of interpreting the forecasts and formulating simple advisories or messages with the value-chain actors. As a result, tomato production increased in the Bungono country from 3 tonnes per acre to 5-6 tonnes per acre. In contrast, the greenhouse increased from 600 kg to 6000 kg. Further, increased rainfall tended to result in increased pests and loss of production. Through advisories, farmers could plant early and spray crops on time (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries & ADSP 2017:2). In Kilifi County, PSP has saved the county from crop failure and scarcity of food. Using cassava, value addition activities and manure application have improved soil fertility resulting in increased crop productivity. Cassava productivity improved in 2015/2016 (Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock & Fisheries & ADSP 2017: 26).

The third component focuses on value chain development. The component supports viable, equitable and long-term commercialisation of the agricultural sector for income generation, food and nutrition security and sustainable livelihood, particularly for women, youth and vulnerable groups (ASDSP 2013:6). Table 4.3 outlines county coordination support through the various value chains (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:33).

Table 4.3: ASDSP country-level structures

<p>Programme Unit The programme unit at the county level is the County Coordination Unit (CCU). In most counties this consists of a Coordinator, four technical specialists and five support staff members.</p> <p>County structures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • County Steering Committee (CSC) consisting of up to 20 key stakeholders for sector coordination with the role to oversee the coordination of programme activities in the county • Three Value Chain Platforms (VCP) consisting of stakeholders involved in the value chains • Three Value Chain Core Groups (VCCG) – one groups for each of the VCPs • Technical Working Groups (TWG) consisting of technical experts related to the subject matters to be addressed • Project Management Teams (PMT) for overseeing the implementation of projects related to the VCD • Social Audit Team • In some cases, there is also sub-county Steering Committee
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Source: Chipeta *et al.* (2015:21)

Phase 1 of the ASDSP programme has achieved developing capacity among government institutions and private sectors. The programme has supported vulnerable stakeholders, notably women and youth, by providing comprehensive training to improve the overall agricultural sector coordination. A significant challenge for VCAs is getting access to insurance and financial services. Through ASDSP 1 success, 400 000 VCAs received access to financial services. Phase 1 of the ASDSP has provided a strong foundation for achieving the agricultural sector vision and mission.

Thus, it resulted in the renewal and contract for the Agricultural Sector Development Support Programme II, signed in February 2019, to provide continued support to the Kenya agricultural sector (NIRAS 2019). The programme will address lessons learnt from ASDSP I and enhance productivity. The programme's long-term goal is to build enough capacity to require no further programme assistance along the entire value chain. The renewal and continued development of the agricultural sector highlight public-private partnerships' successes. They provide additional funding and provide strategic thinking to promote the agricultural sector's efficient and effective growth.

Key lessons applicable to South Africa will be expanded in the last section of this chapter to provide a comprehensive overview, including Brazil as the second country selection. The following section will provide an overview of Brazil and its PPPs to draw lessons further.

4.5. PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS AND AGRICULTURE DEVELOPMENT FOR FOOD SECURITY BRAZIL

The Federative Republic of Brazil (*Republica Federativa do Brasil*), also known as Brazil, is located in the central-eastern part of South America. Brazil is the largest country in terms of geographical area and population aspects. Geographically the country occupies an area of 8 514 877 km² and based on the recent world meter statistics. The country population stands at 214 433 687 people (WorldoMeter 2021; Nations Online 2020). Portuguese is the official and most widely spoken language. Brazil is a federal presidential republic that gained its independence in 1822 following more than three centuries under Portuguese rule. The country is vast and has 26 states and one federal district. Nine of the states are landlocked out of the 26 states (Central Intelligence Agency 2021b).



Figure 4.4: Map of Brazil

Source: <https://geology.com/world/brazil-satellite-image.shtml>

Brazil has conquered more than half a century of military intervention in the country's governance to pursue industrial and agriculture growth and development of the interior. Brazil is known as one of the world's giants in terms of mining, manufacturing and agriculture as the sectors are rapidly growing and are solid. The country is leading in the production of minerals such as diamonds, iron and other gems and the exportation of a vast amount of electronics, transport equipment and iron ore. Its most significant imports include machinery, electricals and oils (Britannica 2020). When it

comes to exports, the sector is only behind the European Union and the United States. Brazil is self-sufficient in basic foodstuffs and is a leading exporter of coffee, soya beans, oranges and cassava (Britannica 2020).

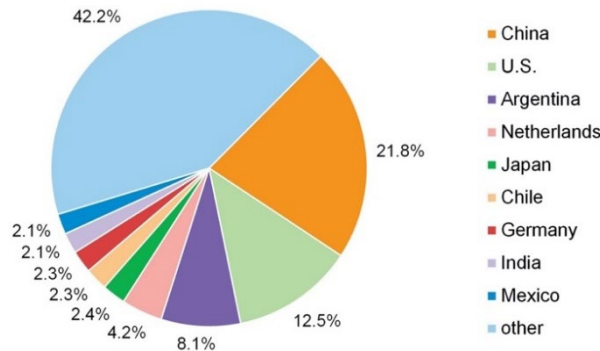


Figure 4.5: Brazil major export destinations 2017

Source: <https://www.britannica.com/place/Brazil/Manufacturing>

Brazil's high exports confirm its growth as an emerging economy, further reassuring its coining as a member of BRICS together with Russia, India, China and South Africa. BRICS refers to group five major emerging countries that Goldman Sachs indicated in 2001 are emerging powers alongside the United States and will dominate in the years to come (BRICS 2019).

In Latin America, agriculture is one of the most important economic sectors. With Brazil's extensive land area abundant natural resources, the sector contributes more than 4% of the annual value added to the country's GDP. The percentage has remained above 4% since 2010, accounting for a 9% share of the total employment in the country. Though the percentage has decreased by 3.5% since 2010, many are employed within the sector, emphasising its importance (Alves 2020; Statista 2020). The sector is vital not only to economic development but social development and receives support from two ministries: the Ministry of Agrarian Development (MDA), which was created in 1999 to create land reform, promote development sustainably and support family farming and the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food Supply (MAPA), which primarily focuses on the development of agribusiness and market integration (FAO 2014:1). According to da Silva (2020:9), Brazil's agricultural sector (small-medium scale farmers) has contributed and continues to enhance food security within the country. The country managed to meet its food security of the Millennium

Development Goals, and the experiences in Brazil prove that it is possible to conquer hunger and combat severe poverty.

4.5.1. Food security in the context of Brazil

Brazil is a good example of a country that has taken comprehensive action to realise the right to food security. Efforts to support the human right to adequate food began with the First National Conference on Food and Nutrition (CNAN) in 1986, which was part of the drafting process for the new constitution (FAO 2007:1; Burity, Cruz & Franceschini 2011:15). Brazil's constitution was adopted in 1988, and the Constitution of the Federative Republic of Brazil 1988 recognises access to sufficient food as a fundamental right. Article 277 of the constitution explicitly states that society, family and government are responsible for ensuring adolescents and children with precedence to the rights to health, nourishment, life, leisure, professional training, culture, dignity, respect, education, liberty and others. Other pertinent provisions for the realisation of the right to food security are set out in Article 7(IV) of the 1988 constitution, which provides a uniform minimum wage nationally to allow its citizens to be able to satisfy their basic human rights, inclusive of food, housing, health, education, leisure, clothing, hygiene, transport and social security (FAO 2020a). The Brazil constitution of 1998 and the subsequent amendment of 2003 incorporates some of the world's most progressive constitutional rights to food references. The reform of the constitution explicitly guarantees the entitlement to food as a social right for all citizens in Article 6 of the Brazilian Constitution. The basic social right is inclusive of the right to receive an education, health care, a job, housing and food, which is similar to South Africa, Brazil guaranteed the right of sufficient food access in its supreme law (FAO 2007:1; Nkwana 2016:120).

The Republic of Brazil has ratified the following international instruments pertaining to the right to be free from hunger and to have adequate nutrition:

- Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1948,
- International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1979 in 1992,
- Convention on the elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) of 1979 in 1984 and

- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989 in 1990 (FAO 2020a).

The ratification of international treaties further recognises food security as being important to the Federation of the Republic of Brazil. With respect to protecting and promoting human rights, Brazil is the most advanced globally. On 3 February 2010, the constitution of Brazil was amended to establish the right to nutrition as a constitutional right under Amendment 64, Article 5 of the Federal Constitution (Burity *et al.* 2011). The approval of the amendment strongly signifies progression in the realisation of the right to food. The amendment of the constitution resulted in the creation of the National Council of Food and Nutrition Security (CONSEA). CONSEA's creation served a significant advisory role to the President of the Republic on the formulation of policies pertaining to food security and defining guidelines for the country to ensure adequate food for all (Castro 2019:1). The council consisted of 57 counsellors; one third was the government, and two-thirds were a representation of civil society. CONSEA, with multiple representations and participation from different sectors, led to the passing of the National Food and Nutrition Security Framework Law (LOSAN) in 2006 (Burity *et al.* 2011:16). The law was a step in the right direction towards the guarantee of claim mechanism for the right of violation of food. CONSEA was a section of the National Food and Nutrition Security System (Sistema Nacional de Segurança Alimentar e Nutricional –SISAN) with a strong right to food component, which led to Brazil not being included on the hunger map in 2014 (Carvalho, Viola & Sperandio 2020:561). However, CONSEA has been abolished since Jair Bolsonaro was sworn into a presidential role in 2019. Jair Bolsonaro, the President of Brazil, issued a statement on Provisional Measure No. 870, which, among many decisions, revokes provisions in the Brazilian LOSAN (FIAN International 2019). The termination of CONSEA has put the decisive agenda of the country into jeopardy and has developed the likelihood of Brazil to return on the hunger map. Budget cuts to the programmes that promote and support family agriculture and the disbandment of these programmes' institutional and policy changes undermined the state's capability to fulfil the demands that the COVID-19 pandemic imposed on the food available to its people.

Brazil's definition of food security, according to the Organic Law of Food and Nutritional Security (LOSAN) of 2006, is

...“realisation of everyone's right to regular and permanent access to quality of food in sufficient quantity without compromising access to other essential needs based on health-promoting food practices that respect cultural diversity and that are environmentally, culturally, economically and socially sustainable” (Souza & Chmielewska 2011:3).

In promoting the right of access to adequate food, Brazil established a National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (PNSAN) guided by the human rights-based approach. The human right to food lies at the focal point of public policy. The human rights-based approach means that the government is not only in charge of providing food to all but the government is also accountable for ensuring that the right is fulfilled for all its people. The PNSAN was formally approved in 2010 and did not develop new programmes. Its purpose is to provide well-defined guidelines, monitor and evaluate state action food and nutrition, as well as management procedures and mechanisms for funding. The delivery of the policy is through the National Food and Nutrition Security Plan renewed at four-year intervals (Institute of Development Studies 2017:7). The PNSAN provides in detail all actions, programmes to be implemented with measurable targets and timeframes connected to the public budgets. The programmes in the plan cover a wide variety of challenges covered by public intervention, including access to land, food access, income transfer, food and nutritional health, strengthened agriculture and education for food and nutrition security (Nkwana 2016:121).

Two institutions led SISAN, which monitored and coordinated the national systems. The National Intersectoral Chamber on Food and Nutrition Security (CAISAN) was developed by CONSEA and ministers. The two institutions deliberate on the national conference as an integral part of their process of making decisions. The conferences occur at four-year intervals, and citizens participate and provide their response to the food policy as it leads to the approval of priorities and guidelines of the food policy and annual plans. SISAN's element is multisector, and it allows the government to draft and connect programmes that combat elements that negatively impact the food and nutrition status of the diverse individuals and social groups in the country. According to the Institute of Development Studies (2017:7), SISAN calls for a wide range system

approach that takes into consideration the many challenges that the diverse citizens face and aims to prevent overlapping or duplicating of programmes and policies while delivering cost-effectiveness. It seeks to bring together government and civil society service providers. The wide range system approach is an important feature in recognising the importance of bringing the government (public) and private sector together to promote food security. Though CONSEA no longer exists, it has been a successful instrument in reducing hunger in Brazil. South Africa can learn from Brazil in terms of developing a council similar to that of CONSEA, which the country can use to fend off starvation and promote food security.

4.5.2. Policy and strategies for food security and agricultural development in Brazil

Brazil's agriculture sector transitioning from low production and backwardness to its current status as a significant player in global markets has resulted from the policy environment influence. Brazil's transformation is not associated with one specific policy but rather more of a general institutional structure that emerged in the mid-1990s. This created an environment whereby interference by the government in agriculture was reduced and where the private sector felt more confident and secure to invest and produce (Mueller & Mueller 2016:13-16). Brazil prides itself in separating its agricultural policies from other policies. Agricultural policies experience hindrance when they must compete with other policy goals for resources. Their attention and policy can become distorted and favour other policy areas' goals, thus undermining the agriculture sector's performance in which Brazil has managed to get right by strengthening its institutions. The policy associated with agriculture is no longer a secondary instrument for other policy objectives (Mueller & Mueller 2016:13-16).

The Brazilian agriculture evolution is categorised into three time periods. The horizontal expansion phase was between 1945 and 1970, which was from the end of World War II to the beginning of the 1970s, in which agricultural production growth was the result of the expansion of the agricultural frontier. The conservative modernisation between 1970 and 1995 consisted of changes from a technical perspective instead of land expansion. The phase included diversification and modernisation of agriculture without reforming the land, and unsustainable development was attained through policies that supported credit and price. The third

phase, known as low government intervention from 1995 and 2014, is characterised by increased participation in agribusiness complexes with increasingly important roles in supplying the international and domestic markets (International Research Initiative on Brazil and Africa 2014). These phases are key to understanding the unpredictable performance of Brazil's agriculture policy over time, as well as its eventual success in fostering growth and productivity. The primary strategies and policies related to food, nourishment and agricultural development (since 2000) are the multi-annual plan of the Ministry of Agriculture, Food Supply and Livestock, implemented between 2008 and 2011 (MAPA). The plan promoted sustainable development of agribusiness competitiveness for Brazil society's benefit with integrated programmes intended for small, medium and large farmers and the aim is to develop agribusinesses in a socially, environmentally and economically sustainable manner. The Ministry of Agrarian Development (MDA) implements the sector's annual support to increase innovation and technology and stimulate food production together with income protection (FAPDA 2014:2; AgricultureInfoAgro 2020).

The development of the agricultural sector is the result of the diverse adoption of policies for the integration of family farming into the various market dynamics. These policies provide guidelines for international policies and are being implemented in developing countries in Asia and Africa (Wilks 2016:6). The collapse of the agricultural commodity price in the 1980s affected millions of smallholder farmers' incomes, which provoked four types of responses from different actors. World recognised organisations, specifically regional development banks, provided incentives in the form of credit from non-traditional exports (flowers, seafood, fresh produce). Brazil launched the Fair-Trade Movement and simultaneously entered into the World Trade Organisation (WTO) for the purpose of aligning with the liberalisation of markets. This brought about a need to introduce intellectual property rights related to trade with its legalisation and institutional initiatives related to geographic indicators. The Fair-Trade Movement aligned with diverse movements to capture value for the smallholder farmer sector by appealing to the traditional artisan practice and the rural promotion. Though these strategies offered a solution to smallholder producers, the sector faced competition from large-scale agriculture. In response, the establishment of the National Programme for Strengthening Family Farming (PRONAF) and a range

of policies developed in Brazil to provide access to market to the small-scale farming sector (Wilksom 2016:6).

Through family farming policies, Brazil has developed and launched strategies to promote the food security and agricultural development of smallholder farmers, illustrated in Figure 4.6.

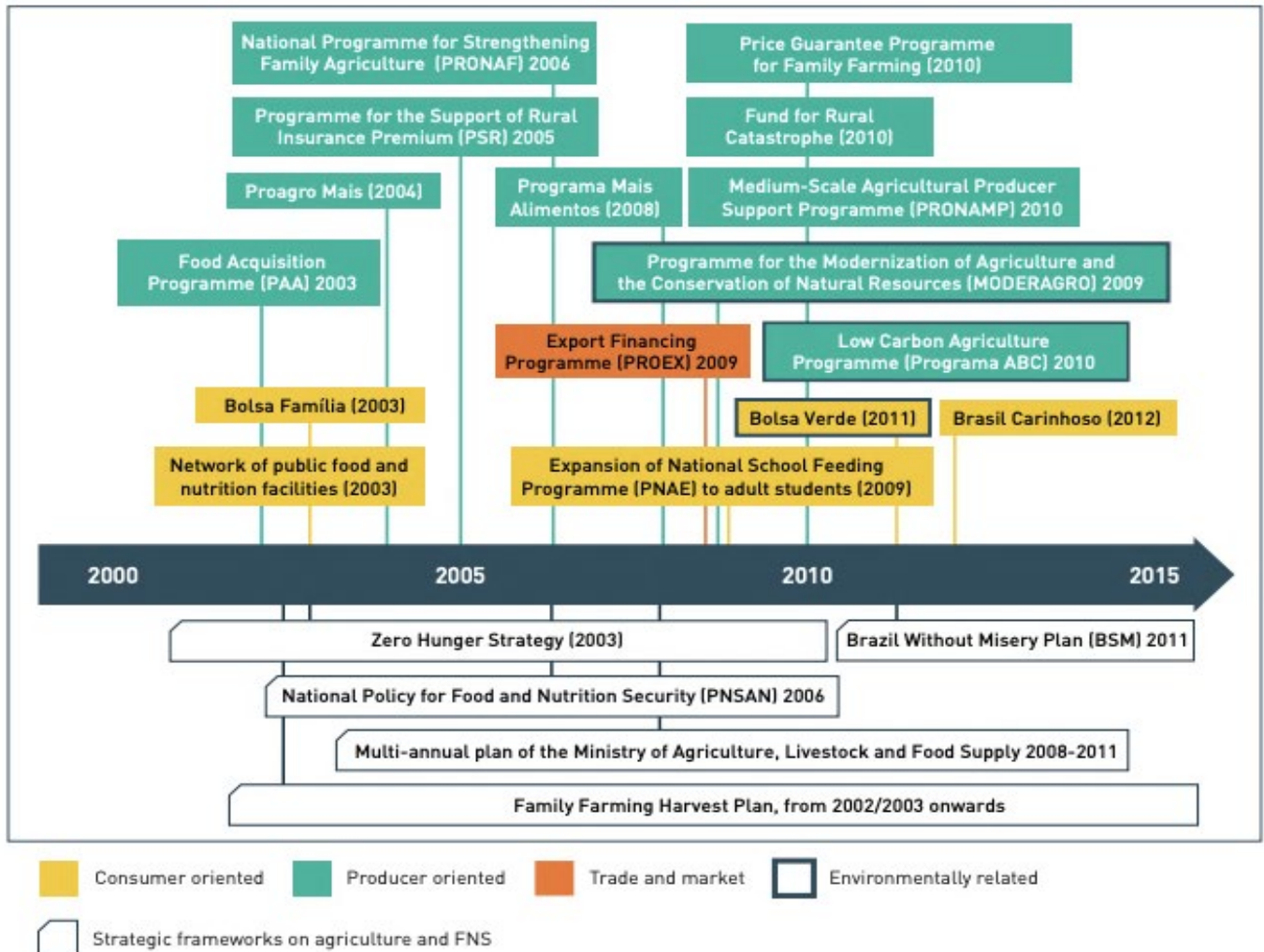


Figure 4.6: Primary strategies and policies related to food security and nutrition since 2000

Source: FADPA Fact Sheet (<http://www.fao.org/3/i3759e/i3759e.pdf>)

Other strategies and policies that have played a role in agriculture and smallholder farming policies as per Figure 4.6 are the Zero Hunger Strategy Food Acquisition Programme (PAA), the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme and National Programme for Strengthening Family Farming, Bolsa Familia and the National School Feeding Programme (PNAE). Through these strategies and policies, Brazil has made

significant strides in production increase and enhancement of the social quality of life conditions. The decline in people living in poverty has been from 50 million in 1996 to below 3 million, which amounted to 5% of the population total by 2015. Brazil made a significant investment in technology which was primarily led by the Brazilian Corporation for Agricultural Research (Embrapa) and resulted in expectational yield gains. Furthermore, the PPPs as a vehicle for supporting the formulation in the policy process and expressing demands for local produce has had a massive impact (Bojanic 2017:5-6).

4.5.3. The Zero Hunger (Fome Zero) Strategy

The battle to eliminate hunger has transformed into an important and bold initiative in Brazil's political objective. The Fome Zero (Zero Hunger) strategy aimed at the whole population and consisted of a number of programmes and actions put into effect between 2003 and 2010. The strategy was successfully implemented from then onwards; the country is now a global reference to achieve food security and eliminate poverty through policies (da Silva 2020:22). The four pillars which form the Zero Hunger are access to food, social control, income generation and articulation strengthening family agriculture. These four main pillars resulted in four categories of policies:

- Particularly for families: basic food baskets, food card programmes (cash transfer for food), school meal programmes and food security stocks
- Structural: application of minimum wage, universal social security, expanded agrarian reform, incentives for family planning, scholarship programmes, employment and income generation
- Household and community food security: support was provided in small and medium cities concentrated on food banks (restaurants, urban agriculture), partnerships with retailers were focused on bigger cities people residing in rural area households were encouraged to produce their own food
- National: Fome Zero Strategy implementation 2003 (Figure 4.7) (da Silva 2020:23).

Civil societies and private sector involvement were the centre of the Zero Hunger Strategy. The federal authority made use of multiple mechanisms to increase political policy support and monitored its implementation. In some cases, close to 1000 NGOs

were producing the equipment to transfer technology to the beneficiaries' communities. The Zero Hunger Strategy identified the private sector to assist their beneficiaries in cash and food transfers and provide jobs (Sousa & Vaitsman 2014:4348), thus promoting PPPs in addressing challenges relating to food security. Having both sectors working together results in effectiveness in addressing policy agendas.



Figure 4.7: Fome Zero Strategy by 2003

Source: da Silva (2020:26)

4.5.3.1. Bolsa Familia Programme

Bolsa Familia conditional cash transfer (CCT) programme has influenced social and production gains in rural areas. The programme was introduced at the end of 2003, which comprised three main objectives: reduction of poverty and inequality by providing a minimum income level for extremely low-income families and breaking the poverty cycle by making income transfers conditional. Families received cash only, which was the conditional element. Their adherence is to main responsibilities such

as taking care of the health of the child by taking them to health facilities and ensuring that they receive an education by attending school. The aim is to obligate the recipient to invest in human development. Beneficiaries are empowered by connecting them to services such as training, employment and social assistance programmes. The Bolsa Familia programme has been recognised globally as the model Programa Bolsa Família (PBF) as it reached over 46 million people yearly, making it the world's most extensive CCT programme. It demonstrates a favourable impact across inequality, hunger reduction, programme access and reaches, poverty, as well as health and educational outcomes dimensions. The engagement of stakeholders during the policy design process and implementation were effective. The PBF ultimately was supported by all stakeholders, public and private, recognising the need to unify efforts in the context of complex challenges such as food insecurity (Ćirković 2019).

4.5.3.2. Food Acquisition Programme and the National School Feeding Programme

In the successful initiative of fighting hunger and extreme poverty, one area of success concerns agricultural programmes. Brazil has successfully linked smallholder farmers supply to the demand of institutional procurement for food and safety net programmes. “Structured demand” was coined by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (IPC-IG 2013:5). The structured demand links significant, anticipated demands for smallholder farmers’ agricultural products, reducing risks and encouraging enhanced production quality, improved systems and overall improved livelihoods as income is increased, poverty is reduced, and food security improves.

The two policies created to take part in the structured demand for smallholder farmers producing food crops are the PAA and the PNAE. They are the most prominent institutional procurement programmes globally that intentionally prioritise buying from vulnerable family farmers. Both programmes serve as social safety nets guaranteeing food access for vulnerable groups and school children (International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth (IPC-IG) 2013:5). The policies have positively increased food and nutritional security, expanded production in agriculture and improved income in the rural area. The following sections will provide backgrounds.

i. Food Acquisition Programme

PAA's purpose is to strengthen the family agricultural component of the hunger strategy, which was established in 2003 (da Silva 2020:28). As a crucial programme, established by the Law No. 10.696, it was based on the following objectives: valorisation and consumption of family production, processing of expansion of value-added production, promoting food access in terms of quality, quantity and regularity necessary for its people to meet their human right and boosting production by family farmers through promoting their social and economic inclusion with stable growth in surplus. The legislation for the right to food is structuring public food stocks produced by farmers. Farmer cooperatives and other organisations are key players in the assistance with food stocks which will strengthen local and regional networks for commercialisation (IPC-IG 2013:9). Forgoing competitive bidding is an important element of the different conditions of the programme. Since the bidding legislation bypasses, it is difficult for smallholder farmers to compete fairly with larger producers and companies in the public bidding process. The main aim of PAA is to support family farmers to access the markets through a less complicated public procurement process. The procured food can be acquired as part of market support intervention when the prices fall, and there is an excess of food to be distributed for food assistance (IPC-IG 2013:9).

PAA works through a modality to try maximising its effectiveness and reach in the country. Although it is a federally funded programme, the plan is to localise the arrangement through decentralised management and make use of the private sector. See Figure 4.8 of the illustration of the decentralised system.

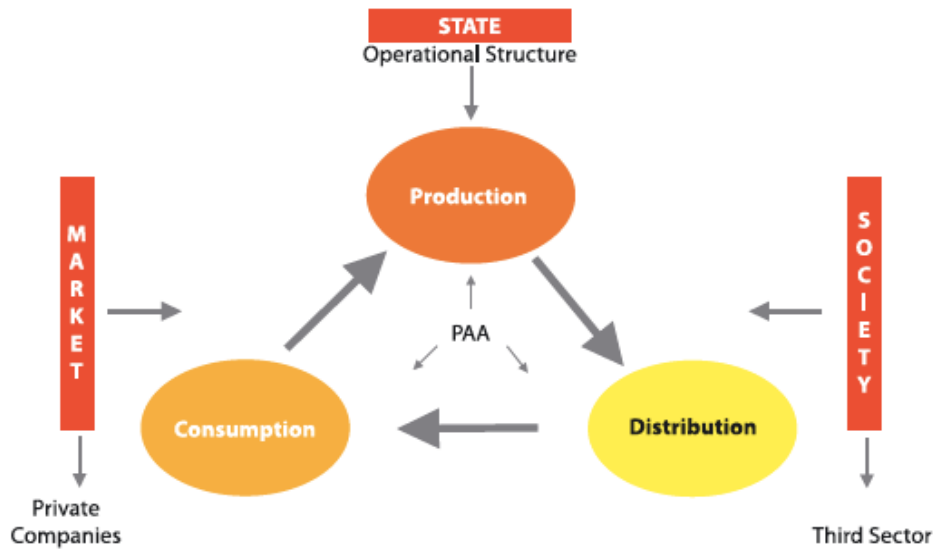


Figure 4.8: Decentralised systems of food and nutrition security

Source: IPC-IG (2013:11)

The National Supply Company (Conab) is one such institution that plays a primary role in the organisation of purchases, distribution of produce through regional social protection networks and municipal state and operating food stocks. Conab is one of the main organisations with the responsibility of maintenance of food stocks. Conab's establishment came about in 1990 after Brazil returned to being a democratic country under MAPA. The mandate of Conab is the management of agriculture policies and the supply of food to address society's needs in ways that foster market mechanisms. The aim was carried out by guaranteeing prices for farmers and restricted procurement programmes that focus on small family farming. The Conab role increased in 2008 as a result of the food crisis to ensure sufficient food stocks, to lessen the rise in global prices and to maintain a sufficient demand for production of family farming and household intake. The institutional structure has been an important element to cover structured demand and reach the vulnerable and marginalised population (IPC-IG 2013:11).

PAA also addresses the challenge of commercialisation in family farming production. Family farmers are vulnerable to market volatility prices as private traders and investors tend to favour cash crops over localised food. The intervention of the state

increases demands for the production of food from smallholder farmers, which can be an important instrument in facilitating new markets and sustaining diverse and regional food production. PAA allows for farmers to have the ability to diversify their crops which therefore contributes to the eating habits of the population, improving the nutrition aspect outlined in the policy. Furthermore, as a result of local organisations, for example, urban food banks, schools, restaurants and hospitals, food purchases and distribution programmes have promoted improved integration between urban and rural areas and also between consumers and producers. PAA operates in 40% of the communities, reaching 15 million people annually through the distribution of nutritious food in all types of communities (Teague 2016).

ii. National School Feeding Programme

PNAE is another major source for structured demand for family farming (IPC-IG 2013:16). The programme is popularly known as school meals managed by the National Education Development Fund (FNDE), and it aims to transfer, in a supplementary manner, financial resources to states, the Federal District and municipalities destined to partially meet the nutritional needs of students. It is considered one of the largest programmes in the field of school meals globally and is the only one with universal service. The initiative feeds around 40 million students each day in Brazilian public schools (WFP 2020).

The origins of the programme date back as early as the 1940s, when hunger and undernourishment were recognised as a severe problem to the public health of the country (FNDE 2017). The National Commission for Food (Comissão Nacional de Alimentação-CNA) was therefore created in 1945 and almost ten years after the Company for School Feeding (CNAE) was created, which received its resources from the global community. Between 1955 and 1970, interventions on school feeding were mostly led by partnerships with global organisations that were concerned with food and nutrition, specifically in relation to children's health. As a result of the lack of funds by the government, the first partnership that emerged was with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), which allowed for the distribution of surplus powdered milk. In 1965, a list of American aid programmes emerged, among which stood out Food for Peace financed by the Food for Peace, a programme of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) Food for Development Programme aimed at

serving needy populations and feeding school children and the World Food Programme of the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO/UN) (IPC-IG 2013:16; FNDE 2017). With the promulgation of the Federal Constitution in 1988, the right to school meals was guaranteed to all elementary school students through a supplementary school meals programme to be offered by the federal, state and municipal governments. Similar to PAA, PNAE combines the objective of improving the food and nutritional security of consumers with the object of offering structured demand for family farming.

PNAE's demand aspect other than addressing food and nutritional security of public-school students is that it functions as an extensive intervention on social protection that encourages enrolment and attendance at school for the intended purpose of improving children's health status. PNAE's objectives are to attend to the nutrition needs of children by providing them with a meal a day, to promote healthy nutrition habits and to prevent school dropout and graded repetition. PNAE is known worldwide as a case study for sustainable school food programmes. The 2009 sanction Law No. 11 947 on June 16 brought advances to the PNAE, such as the extension of the programme to entire public basic education network students, young people and adults. With the intended purpose of supporting smallholder farmer development, PNAE legislation introduced legal requirements that at least 30% of the products purchased should be bought from smallholder farmers or their organisations. The programme prioritises agrarian settlements, traditional indigenous communities and *quilombola* communities regarding the acquisition of the family farming genre (FNDE 2017). PNAE from this perspective has become an essential instrument for strengthening structured demand for food produced by local smallholder farmers.

PAA and PNAE are the most significant contributors to food and nutrition strategy. These programmes intersect with other social policies such as education and health, as well as broader objectives of reducing poverty and inequality and increasing their effectiveness as they address all vital areas.

4.5.3.3. The Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme and National Programme for Strengthening Family Farming (PRONAF).

The Zero Hunger Strategy makes provision for the PRONAF to strengthen family agriculture. PRONAF has had a significant impact on Brazilian agriculture, particularly through the enablement of family farmers to raise production and increase acreage. The programme's initial system approach was about matching diverse produce to a variety of production systems and strengthening farmer operations by providing access to loans, technology or land (Guanziroli & Basco 2010:44). Before the 1990s, the country did not have a specific policy that offered financial means to support family farming. Farmers were faced with issues of lack of credit access and high costs, which affected Brazil's family-based agriculture operations. Following the enactment of the constitution in 1998, the state reorganised and prioritised decentralising actions of the state, which made it possible for the introduction of new instruments for social management of public policies intended to equalise public funds access. In 1994, the Brazilian government established PRONAF through the June 28th 1948 decree. The programme was Brazil's first public policy that focused on family farming. The establishment was the result of combined pressure from social movements such as FAO, Institute for Colonisation and Agrarian Reform (INCRA) and rural worker unions (National Confederation of Agricultural Works-CONTAG) (Guanziroli & Basco 2010:44; da Silva *et al.* 2018:1721). FAO and INCRA signed an agreement to map out an agriculture policy that would incorporate land tenure into set measures designed to promote and strengthen family farming in Brazil.

The Ministry of Agrarian Development (MDA) manages PRONAF under the Family Farming Secretariat (SAF). Since then, the secretariat has had its technical staff and three departments (department of technical assistance, value creation, financing to production and rural extension and income (Flexor, Grisa, Kato & Zimmerman 2017:1). The MDA is responsible at the federal level for the proposition and implementation of public policies related to land reform, promotion and sustainable development and strengthening of the rural sector formed by family farmers. Its action is guided towards fighting rural poverty, food security, sustainability of production systems and value generation. The Ministry of Agrarian Development's mission is to operate in a participatory, decentralised and coordinated way with states, municipalities and civil society. The MDA provides funding for the National Food Acquisition Programme. The MDA is a critical initiative in terms of budget and scope, supporting family farmers. PAA programme assists farmers in gaining market access

through direct purchase of agriculture goods and provision of monetary resources to farmer organisations. The programme organises stocks to regulate the price for purchase of donations to institutions dealing with a food-insecure population. The focus is on food producers and consumers. Thus, CASP is comparable to PRONAF implemented by the DALRRD (Nkwana 2016:128).

PRONAF provides funding for family farming through low-interest rates. It is the most extensive rural credit programme. Family farmers in Brazil receive financial support to cover the costs of agriculture, agroindustry and other agricultural activities. The agribusiness sector in 2014, including processing distribution, agriculture and production, accounted for 21% of Brazil's GDP (Ely, Parfitt, Carraro & Ribeiro 2019:1864). Households that financed their productive operations through PRONAF were able to access technical assistance under SAF/MDA and other partnerships with public institutions and non-governmental rural extension organisations. PRONAF paved the way for the creation of differential instruments of rural development for family farming.

These are some of the public policies that the Brazilian government have established which have had a considerable impact on smallholder farmers. Brazil has undergone a distinctively expectational transition from having low production producers off a few essential commodities into a major front-runner both in volume, diversity and productivity. The country's total factor productivity due to these developments has increased and achieved higher total factor productivity growth. Brazil has been able to become a significant agricultural power as a result of stabilised policies.

4.6. LESSONS FROM INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICE

South Africa has similarities with Kenya and Brazil in the food security and smallholder farming sector. These similarities can provide a platform for lessons that can be adapted, adopted and shared to fit in the context of South Africa. The presentation of international best practices for food security through smallholder farmers and the public-private partnership mechanism is where the study draws lessons from the Kenya and Brazil experiences.

4.6.1. The establishment of a food security council

A regulatory framework that promotes food security and smallholder farming development is vital. Kenya and Brazil both have laws that focus on the right to adequate food and nutrition security. Kenya and Brazil's policies emphasise stakeholder participation. The participation includes a solid private sector, markets, civil society and local communities' participation in all phases to make food security a shared national responsibility. Kenya's implementation of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (NFNSP) aims to add value, build synergies and implement existing national and sectoral policies to address food insecurity and malnutrition effectively. The policy implementation emphasised strong links between the government and private partnerships referred to as PPPs. The policy acknowledges that PPPs are essential to avoid duplication of efforts to improve food security and shared national responsibility.

Furthermore, South Africa can adopt the development of a National Food Security Policy Implementation Framework. The framework provides a mechanism in which PPPs can facilitate an extension and, in a coordinated manner, the implementation to ensure food and nutrition security to all. The adoption of specific public-private partnership frameworks in Kenya has allowed for progress in the sector. Kenya created a public-private partnership steering committee with a secretariat responsible for policy development, raising awareness and technical support. South Africa needs a national food security committee to fend off starvation. A national food security committee is a pivotal element to address food security. South Africa can adopt high-level accountability and coordination structures overseeing food security and programme implementation to improve food security.

The government of Brazil enacted the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (PNSAN) through collaboration with all ministers involved and participation of civil society (Souza & Chmielewska 2011:5; Nkwana 2016:150). The enacted policy resulted in the creation of a National Council on Food Security. Although the council no longer exists, it is a critical player in improving food security in Brazil and removing the country from the hunger map. The council served an essential role in advising the President and the Republic on the formulation of food security policies and defining guidelines for the country to ensure adequate food for all. The need for coordination

of a food and nutrition council is not new in South Africa. It was explicitly spelt out in the Food Security Policy for South Africa 1997: A Discussion Document where an interdisciplinary team in government was discussed. South Africa's Integrated Food Security Strategy 2002 suggested the establishment of an inter-ministerial committee. The ministers who were responsible for food security and nutrition were to provide political leadership, reporting to the Ministers' Social Sector Cluster chaired by the health minister. In efforts to establish such a committee, in 2017, the portfolio committee on agricultural land and rural development reported the formulation and implementation status of the National Food and Nutrition Security Plan 2017-2022. The multi-sectoral FNS Council oversees the alignment of legislations, policies and programmes, the coordination and implementation of programmes and services which address FNS and the drafting of new policies and legislation where appropriate. The FNS Council will comprise public and private partnerships, civil society representing the necessary different communities, i.e., climate change and environmental practitioners, to provide an appropriate overview of the sector. However, the execution has been minimal (Hendriks & Oliver 2020).

4.6.2. Research development and financial investments

South Africa's agricultural sector can learn to be more marketable to attract more external investors to enhance the sector and improve food security. Kenya has successfully attracted global investors. They establish local and regional operations as Kenya's location is strategic with a diverse economy, entrepreneurial workforce and status as a regional financial centre. The agricultural sector has managed to contribute significantly to food security through manufacturing linkages and distribution services.

Brazil owes its agricultural success to solid government investment in research and development. Empresa Brasileira de Pesquisa Agropecuária (EMBRAPA) or the Brazilian Agricultural Research Corporation has become the world's leading tropical research institution. The education quality of most Brazilian universities is of a high standard. The scientific capacity of EMBRAPA for extension systems and developing new technologies has made innovation possible at a farm level. This, in turn, has made possible the fast production growth rate that has precipitated Brazil to the top of the league table. Investing in people has paid dividends. One of EMBRAPA's most valuable contributions was developing new varieties of soybeans better suited to

tropical climates like Brazil's and had a much shorter growing period (Sobrinho 2017). This emphasises that South Africa can learn from Brazil through significant investment in Research and Development. Increasing investments will ensure that programmes development is according to the needs of the country. There tends to be a disconnect between business and scientific communities in Africa as a result of underinvestment.

Furthermore, Brazil success in agribusiness is its effective financial services delivery sector. The country receives assistance from a range of financial institutions, from commercial banks, cooperative banking networks to specialised boutique lenders. Investors provide advisory services and products to supply chain actors, including long-term investment and financial equity participation. Brazil is one of the few countries in the world that offers agri-prenuers the opportunity to trade farm product bonds on future crops or use these as collateral financier input loans. This innovation has enabled developed supply chain finance products that the International Food Policy Research Institute (2020) defines as structuring the finance-based organisation and inherent cash flows between supply chain market partners. African Development Bank has identified low levels of specialised financing as one key constraint of boosting the agricultural sector. South Africa can learn from Brazil's specialised financial services and products for agribusiness.

On the other hand, Kenya is an excellent example of collaboration with Kenya Commercial Bank. The country's largest bank, M-Pesa and Safaricom's mobile money services, have partnered to issue loans to the country's micro-SMEs using credit scores derived from mobile data. Although the risk is usually that the borrowers are considered uncreditworthy, farmers usually struggle to receive the credit due to a lack of history. KCB M-Pesa accepts 80% of applicants with a default rate of just under 2% (Sobrinho 2017). South Africa can learn a great deal from Brazil and Kenya's approach to financial services and investment to assist their smallholder farming sector growth and contribute to food security.

4.6.3. Programmes promoting public-private partnerships

Kenya and Brazil's value agriculture is an essential aspect to contribute to food security. Both countries acknowledge the importance of supporting smallholder farming as crucial to developing the agricultural sector and promoting food security.

Kenya has made strides in establishing programmes that promote PPPs as mechanisms to enhance the agricultural sector. The KEVIAN Fruit Progressing public-private partnership strategy was significant for the private sector regarding substituting imported semi-finished products with local raw materials, thus saving on costs due to reduced imports and an increase in the self-sufficiency of domestic products such as mangos. KEVIAN was responsible for liaising with farmers and out-grower for quality control and organising the collection of produce. The role the private sector emphasised was value-chain linkage. South African government partnerships with the private sector's emphasis should be linking farmers to potential consumers through wholesalers and retail trade. South African smallholder market linkages are low, and putting a value-chain development strategy emphasising linkages will assist in developing and growing the sector. Value-chain development is crucial for any public-private partnership. There are sector-wide approach lessons learnt from Kenya that can be applicable in South Africa. Policies that are more robust towards nutrition-sensitive value chains are a necessity. Key policy actions comprising of investing in enhanced storage, processing, and preservation to maintain the nutrition value of food rather than investing in foods that are highly processed. Road networks, market infrastructures and transportation involvements are important to ensure great affordability of healthy diets; hence policies must incorporate these to promote support to smallholder farmers for the expanded purpose of improving food security.

The Government of Kenya is responsible for executing ASDSP and matching funds, and other interested development partners provide co-funding. The programme is integrated into the ASDS coordination mechanism, aligned with the new constitutional dispensation. It applies to the government of Kenya procedures (NAFIS 2016). The ASDSP emphasises three strategies for its implementation, demand-driven, stakeholder-led and partnership-based (Chipeta *et al.* 2015:4). ASDSP has facilitated coordination and harmonisation of agricultural actors at national and county levels of government within and across the counties' value chains. Through the initiative established by development partnerships, the ASDSP is active in facilitating intergovernmental dialogues. Such dialogues resulted in a Governmental Consultative Forum on agriculture, livestock, and fisheries in Mombasa in June 2014. The government and private partners have successfully developed a Coordination and Partnership Strategy and Partnership Guideline.

On the other hand, Brazil launched programmes that have evolved through family farming. Brazil developed strategies to promote food security and agricultural development of smallholder farmers. The policies and strategies have involved the private and public sectors providing financial support or contributing to family farming policy development and implementation (FAO 2020b). The alliance between farmers and their collectives with the private sector and government help farmers to better align their production with market demand and reduce the number of intermediaries in the value chain (Kumar & Gupta 2018). The importance of credit through PRONAF, has had played an enormous role in fighting hunger. Family farming has been recognised as a global strategy that a country can adopt to enhance and improve its agriculture sector. A key lesson from the effects of the world economic crisis on agriculture is the importance of keeping coherence between macroeconomic and agricultural policies. It is vital in making sure that these policies follow a market-oriented approach (de Moraes 2014:63).

Brazil's intersectoral approach is a lesson to be applied to South Africa. This approach is identified in the PAA established in 2003. The executive steering group established for PAA was inter-governmental. The PAA has provided empirical evidence that it is possible to buy from family farmers. Notably, pricing and procurement can work, and family farming could supply sufficient food (Hawkes 2016).

4.7. CONCLUSION

In order to explore the DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through public-private partnerships to address food insecurity, it is important to consider best practice lessons. Chapter Four provided discussions on international best practices with a specific focus on Brazil and Kenya. The legislative frameworks of the two countries were provided. Chapter Four described how the two countries had used public-private partnerships to support smallholder farmers in contributing to food security. Key lessons from which South Africa can adopt lessons were discussed in the chapter. The next chapter will present the research findings and analyse the selected government department, which is the focus of this study.

CHAPTER 5: AN ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP FRAMEWORK TO SUPPORT SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed international best practices and established the importance of PPPs for smallholder farmer development. The chapter explored Brazil and Kenya as international best practice interventions by PPPs to support smallholder farmers and agricultural development to contribute to food security. The previous chapter aimed to identify fundamental components that are essential in promoting PPPs support directed towards smallholder farmers. This chapter's focus will be on analysing the public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers in South Africa. As outlined in the first chapter, the findings presented are based on data captured using a qualitative method in the form of a case study design. The tools for research used to collect data comprised interviews with the DALRRD public officers. However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, the researcher had to resort to virtual means to interview the public officials as physical contact was limited.

Through the responses stemming from the interview schedule provided (Annexure B), the chapter achieves the study's third research objective to investigate the support provided to smallholder farmers through DALRRD and the implementation of public-private partnerships to contribute to the support. This chapter will present the results attained from empirical research. An analysis of the DALRRD will be presented. This chapter examines the support to smallholders from the DALRRD with the overall outcome of contributing to food security. The chapter explains supporting farmers and promoting PPPs. The examination was done by evaluating policies and programmes that have been put in place to explore the DALRRD's public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers. The findings identified in this chapter emphasise the importance of agriculture in contributing to food security.

5.2. BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY

DALRRD was selected as a case study for the research. DALRRD is explicitly dedicated to equal land access, development of rural areas, sustainable development of agriculture and food security for all (DAFF 2021a). The department recognises

smallholder farmers as an essential tool to contribute to the increase of availability of food.

Under the leadership of former President Jacob Zuma from 9 May 2014 to 14 February 2018, the agricultural department included fisheries and forestry functions (The Presidency 2018). The department was known as the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF). The DAFF was established as a result of the new government term and the appointment of a new administration on 10 May 2009. The government was faced with challenges of disproportionately high rates of hunger, poverty, unemployment in rural areas (DAFF 2010:2). DAFF was one of the government departments leading the supervision and support of the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sector in South Africa and ensuring sufficient access to nutritious and safe food by the country's population (Du Toit, Ramonyai, Lubbe & Ntsuhelo, 2011:1). DAFF was one of four lead departments dedicated to coordinating programmes that promoted food security in South Africa. The IFSS in 2002 served as a guide to the department efforts to contribute to resolving food insecurity challenges in South Africa (DA 2002:8). The department was assigned to coordinate multiple-stakeholder engaged programmes relating to food security in the IFSS in 2002. The DAFF was the lead department responsible for implementing IFSS in the national and provincial spheres of government; the Food Security Branch was assigned to provide secretariat services (DA 2002:9). The chief directorate's primary focus is the food security issue. Food security is categorised into three directorates: Subsistence Farming, Smallholder Development, and Infrastructure Support (Du Toit *et al.* 2011:16). The Directorate for Smallholder Development, amongst others, are involved in the development and promotion of policies nationally and improving household standards for food security (DALRRD 2021b). The DAFF developed a Zero Hunger Programme, which is a strategy aimed at combating hunger and its structural causes to continuous inequality and social marginalisation. The aim was more than just the creation of food security on all provincial levels; the strategy is committed to ending hunger for all in South Africa (Qikani 2012).

The primary intention is to develop programmes and strategies at the national level with implementation at the provincial and local government levels. In this regard, the DAFF practically supported these programmes (Du Toit *et al.* 2011:16-17). The Food

Security and Agrarian Reform Branch of DAFF was to maintain the responsibility under the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security and to lead the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative.

The DALRRD reconfigured in June 2019 to include a new Department of Land Reform and Rural Development while the new Department of Environment, Forestry and Fisheries (DEFF) incorporated the forestry and fisheries function. The department's reconfiguration aimed to "promote coherence, better coordination and improved efficiency" of government (Ramaphosa 2019). The rationale for reconfiguring the department is to further reform the department. Thus, this research study is aimed at exploring a public-private partnership framework to contribute to the support of smallholder farmers. Better coordination is of importance between governments and also with other stakeholders. DALRRD was selected on this basis as the lead of the agricultural sector to understand how they effectively coordinate and partner with non-state actors to promote food security on a household level by supporting smallholder farmers.

The following section provides a discussion at a departmental level. It outlines the department's mission, vision and objectives and provides the organisational structure with specific reference to Directorate: Smallholder Development, which is the focus of the study.

5.2.1. The mission, vision and strategic objectives of the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development

Agriculture plays a significant role in the economic development process and contributes to household food security. 15.3 % of households in South Africa were engaged in some agricultural production activities from 2019 to 2020. According to the General Household Survey (StatsSA 2019a), 10.1% of the households, which is equivalent to 5.93 million households, were actively engaged in agricultural activities as the primary source of food for the household. 75.4%, which is 44.31 million households out of a 58 million population size in 2019, engaged in agricultural activities as an additional source of food (StatsSA 2019a:62; StatsSA 2019b: iv). The outlined statistics emphasise the importance of agriculture, specifically smallholder farming, to household food security.

The NDP sets out the broader vision of poverty elimination and reduction of disparities by 2030 (South African Government 2021). DALRRD envisions a department that is united that promotes agriculture that is sustainable and food sufficiency for all. The mission of DALRRD is the initiation, facilitation, coordination, catalysis and implementation of a holistic programme for rural development to stimulate economic development and food security (DALRRD 2021a). The strategic objectives of the department are:

- corporate governance and excellent service through compliance within the legislative framework,
- spatial planning and administration for integrated sustainable development and growth towards rural development,
- equal land access,
- proper land utilisation for development,
- enhanced rural services to promote sustainable livelihoods,
- increased employment access and development of skills opportunities
- the promotion of environmentally, socially and economically feasible enterprises and industries and
- the restoration of rights to land.

For the purpose of this study, the focus was on the Directorate: Smallholder Development. The directorate aims to better systems of production and supports the development of smallholder farmers in agriculture, fisheries and forestry sectors to achieve food sufficiency and sustainable livelihood (DALRRD 2021b). The unit has eight core functions:

- i. To provide guidance for the development of existing and new smallholder farmers (“Farmers” have changed to producers to accommodate fishers and foresters).
- ii. To provide a programme to support and graduation of farmers
- iii. To set standards and norms for viable farmer settlement programmes
- iv. To monitor and evaluate policies and programmes
- v. To develop and promote national policy and standards for household food security

- vi. To coordinate cross-cutting activities with other entities
- vii. To provide facilitation for the design and planning of food security household programmes and
- viii. To facilitate the effective administration of agricultural land (DALRRD 2021b).

South Africa is food secure on a national level and insecure on a household level, with 10.3% (6 million) of households being vulnerable to hunger (StatsSA 2019b:59). The study emphasises smallholder household agricultural farming as essential to address challenges of food insecurity. These core functions of the directorate, specifically the development and promotion of national policy and standards for household food security and facilitation of the design of household food security and programmes, are essential as they formulate the focus of the study. The department is responsible for implementing the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security and CASP, which aims to provide practical agricultural support and streamline the provision of services to the targeted different levels of clients within the farming continuum (Du Toit *et al.* 2011:17). The Household Food Strategy targets the availability and affordability of nutritious food to households. Ensuring national-level food security is a critical component of improving the nutritional status of all South Africans, which was expanded upon in the Food Security Policy and the Food Production Strategy led by the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development. However, due to the reconfiguration, it is now being led by DALRRD (Household Food and Nutrition Security Strategy for South Africa 2013).

The Food Production Plan is referred to as the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative, which aims to promote food security and address the causes of food insecurity. The intervention focuses on more than just attaining food security but also eliminating hunger. It, therefore, is an overarching framework to maximise the synergy between different strategies and programmes of government and civil society. The focus of intervention is supporting smallholder farmers to increase production (DAFF 2014a:68). The DALRRD is the lead department for the initiative, and given its association with smallholder farmers, the researcher found it fit to select the department. The production increase is critical from a commercial perspective and from a smallholder and subsistence farming perspective, as most of the population

resides in rural areas. Therefore, an increase in production will meet the needs of the growing population.

5.2.2. Organisational structure of the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development

An organisational structure can be defined in various ways. An organisational structure defines positions in the organisation and the relationship between these positions. In doing so, organisational structure defines a particular position of the decision-making and authority in an organisation. An organisation structure creates a framework for order and the coordination of the myriad of tasks carried out in an organisation.

The DALRRD's organisational structure provides an indication of which units are responsible for programmes related to smallholder farmer development and food security, with the intention of establishing the specific individuals responsible for representing the department's smallholder development in relation to food security programme implementation. The DALRRD is categorised into 13 branches: administration, agriculture production, health and food safety, corporate support services, food security and agrarian reforms, financial management, land redistribution and tenure reforms, rural development, spatial planning and land use management, restitution, deeds registration trading entity, national geomatics management services and provincial operations.

The Food Security Agrarian Reform branch is the main focus of this study. The branch consists of eight sub-branches, as illustrated below in figure 5.1. The sub-branches are mainly responsible for smallholder development, providing extension services and training to farmers, supporting subsistence farming, developing and designing food security policies, i.e., National Food and Nutrition Security and lastly, developing programmes such as CASP and Fetsa Tlala to promote food security.

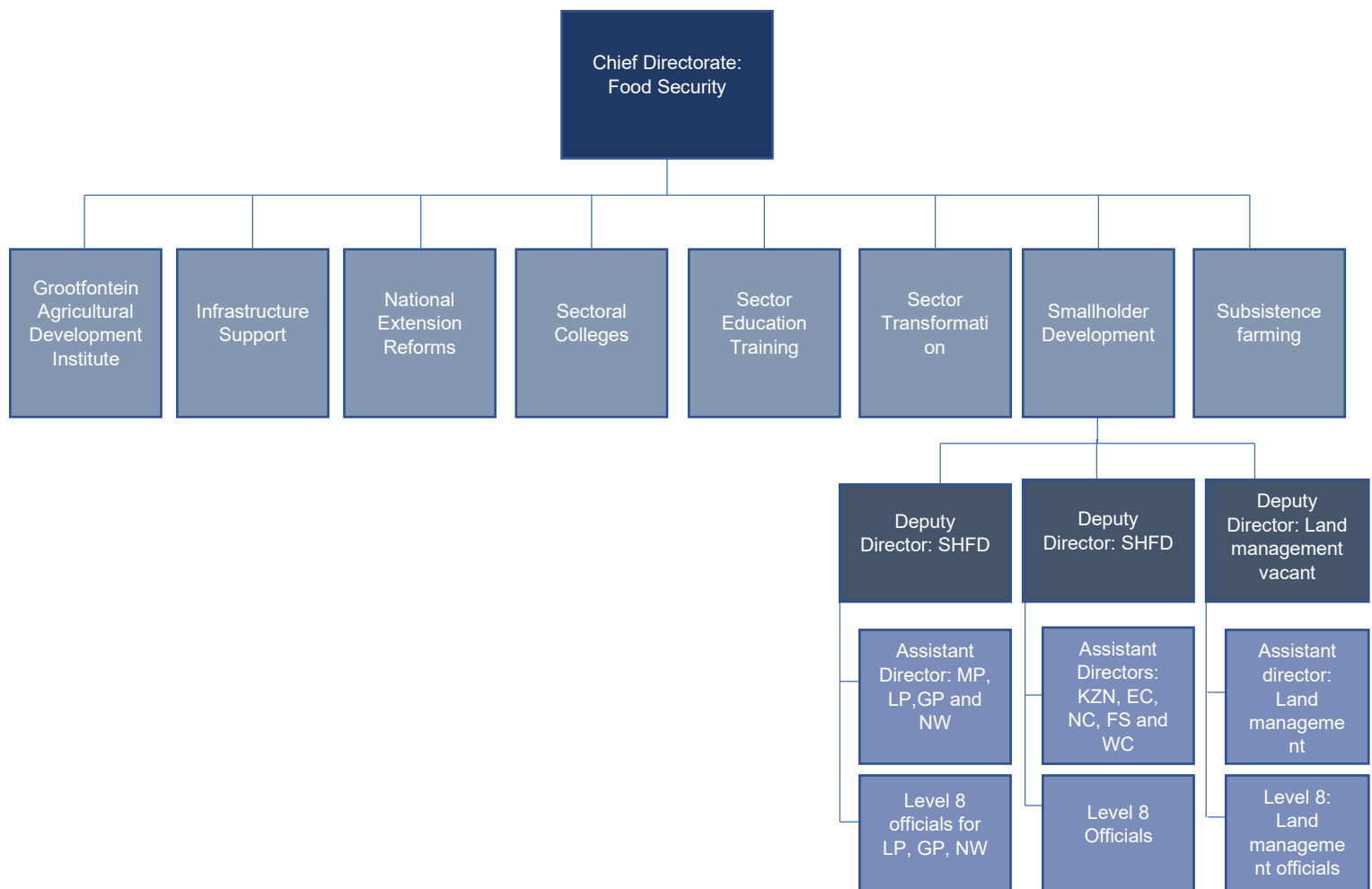


Figure 5.1: Branch: Food Security and Agrarian Reform
Source: Author’s adaptation from DALRRD (2021c).

To explore DALRRD’s support to smallholder farmers through public-private partnerships to address food insecurity, the Smallholder Development Directorate was fit for the study. The directorate aims to improve systems of production and support the development of smallholder farmers in the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sectors to achieve food security and sustainable food livelihood for all (DALRRD 2021a).

5.3. PRESENTATION OF ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Qualitative data research is conducted to support a researcher in developing an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon. For this study, data was collected using the qualitative method. Qualitative research results are usually dependent on interpretation (Ibrahim 2012:39; Lester, Cho & Lochmiller 2020:95). The

trustworthiness of the data is determined when the researcher can prove that the analysis was carried out in a consistent, meticulous and comprehensive manner through recording, systematising and disclosing the methods of analysis with enough detail to permit the reader to determine whether the process was credible (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules 2017:1).

Thematic analysis is a method used to detect patterns across language-based data (Lester *et al.* 2020:95). It is defined as

...“An umbrella term, sometimes designating quite different approaches aimed at identifying patterns across qualitative sets” (Braun, Clarke, Hayfield & Terry 2019:844).

For this research, the thematic analysis was found relevant to analyse the information obtained through virtual interviews. Clarke & Braun (2013:120) state that thematic analysis is helpful. It is flexible and allows researchers from different disciplines to engage theories of discipline and perspectives when undertaking their analysis, allowing for the generation of relevant analysis for a particular field. The results in thematic analysis can either be data-driven or theory-driven findings that engage a variety of research questions (Braun & Clarke 2006:79). Miles and Huberman (1994) and Nowell *et al.* (2017:2) maintain that when carrying out a thematic analysis, it is common to sort and search through data for the purpose of identifying similar relationships and/or phrases, a practice which has been shared across many qualitative analytic approaches. The analysis is appropriate for analysing various kinds of data and a range of data set sizes (Lester *et al.* 2020:98), thus assisting research to determine and outline main ideas in case there is extensive data said. It encourages the researcher to carefully construct the data analysis, which provides a well-organised and clear research report.

As discussed in Chapter One, the interviewer recorded and transcribed the responses provided in the virtual interviews. Each respondent's response was transcribed, ensuring that there was an accurate representation of the opinions and experiences of the participants. As highlighted, all five participants contributed their opinions, thus ensuring that conducting a thematic analysis would provide accurate results which are representative and inclusive of all participants' experiences and did not exclude the opinion of any individual. The responses were interpreted on this basis.

The thematic analysis involves identifying themes that are commonly aligned with the theoretical or analytic goals of the study and consequently are designed in response to the study's main focus or research questions (Lester *et al.* 2020:101). Therefore, it implies that this form of analysis goes beyond just counting explicit phrases or words. The researcher should not simply outline data but focus on the interpretation and analysis of data through exploring themes. Researchers who use thematic research tend to experience challenges in formulating themes derived from the interview questions as it reflects summarised and organised data, not necessarily analysed. Therefore, the following sections of this chapter will outline the research findings obtained using the instrument attached in Annexure B for data collection.

The findings will be presented based on the most relevant themes from the responses obtained from the interviews. The results were analysed to describe current support to smallholder farmers by the DALRRD to contribute to food security. The presentation and analysis are divided into three sections. The first section outlines the general function of the department in order to understand the support they provide to smallholder farmers. The second section discusses the view of the officials from the department on public-private partnerships and their view of their effectiveness in contributing to food security through programme formulation and programme implementation. The last section focuses on the policies implemented by DALRRD to support smallholder farmers to promote food security. The aim is to explore the DALRRD public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers to contribute to food security.

5.4. DATA FROM THE INTERVIEWS

The researcher, in this section, discusses the responses obtained from the data collected from the virtual interviews with public officials of the DALRRD. The individuals selected are associated with the Smallholder Development Directorate, and they understand the programmes supporting smallholder farmers to address food security. The interview schedule consisted of 26 structured questions (Annexure B). The questions were asked to understand PPPs within DALRRD and their effectiveness, implementation issues and evaluation and monitoring of support to smallholder farmers with the overall objective of contributing to food security on a household level. The interviews permitted for open-ended engagement, and

consequently, the questions in the interviews were followed by relevant additional follow-up questions. The interviews were divided into three themes: general overview of the department and their understanding of PPPs, policies and programme implementation and the monitoring and evaluation aspect of the department concerning PPPs.

The study recognises that South Africa is suffering from hunger whereby the country is food secure on a national level and insecure on a household level (StatsSA 2019c:6). Given that the population is increasing faster than anticipated, the purpose of this study is to explore how DALRRD promotes the framework of a public-private partnership to support smallholder farmers' contributions to food security. Thus, these themes found were significant to understand how agriculture plays a significant role in food production and, by extension to food security. The DALRRD is a department that aims to offer support to smallholder farmers; that support will be outlined to show how the department has made significant strides to assist farmers to evolve and contribute to the growing needs of the population.

5.4.1. Overview of the Smallholder Development Directorate

The Smallholder Development Directorate's objective is to improve production systems and development support of smallholder farmers in the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sectors to achieve food security and sustainable livelihood. One of the directorate's functions is to facilitate household food security programmes (DALRRD 2021b). The questions asked were focused on the mechanisms and strategies in place to promote smallholder farmer support by DALRRD. The aim of the questions asked to the respondents was to establish programmes designed to promote household food security programmes and obtain an in-depth understanding of support provided to smallholder farmers by the Smallholder Development Directorate.

5.4.1.1. Smallholder farmers' support mechanisms and challenges

The first question posed to the respondents was on the current support mechanisms in place within DALRRD to support smallholder farmers. The responses provided that there are policies, legislation, norms and standards. The DALRRD, from a national perspective, is responsible for providing oversight to make sure that those policies,

norms, standards and legislations are enforced. One respondent mentioned that the National Department of Agriculture does not implement projects. The implementers are the provincial departments, as highlighted in Chapter 5 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 Section 217, which also states that the National Department functions like an Inspection Service. The institutional arrangements developed from a national level include programmes to be developed to support farmers. They provide financial support to provinces regarding production loans, inputs such as seeds and fertiliser, mechanisation services, extension services and other services. Another respondent outlined that a pilot development finance programme has been established in addition to the pilot in terms of financial development. Support from a financial perspective is provided by the blended finance model and the Micro Agricultural Financing Institutions of South Africa (MAFISA).

When it comes to agricultural support initiatives aimed at reducing poverty and promoting food security, CASP was mentioned by all the respondents as a progressive initiative for agricultural development in South Africa. The primary objective of CASP is providing support to agriculture that is effective towards agriculture development and streamlining the service provision to address the lack of support service access to farmers to facilitate an improved agriculture development, specifically smallholder agriculture. The respondents further added that the programme consists of six key pillars: technical and advisory services, on- and off-farm infrastructure, capacity building, information and training, marketing and financial services.

Concerning the six CASP pillars, one respondent reiterated the importance of training farmers before providing any form of support which is one of the six pillars. Training encompasses farmer development. Before the department under the programme gives them resources, the extension officers must know how to train them in business and project management. The same respondent outlined that from an infrastructure development perspective, the directorate has engineers that can assist the farmer in terms of specifications and the actual monitoring of infrastructure development and then finance if they need production inputs. The respondent stated that CASP is a programme that is grant-specific. It, therefore, means that farmers are not expected to pay back the funds provided by the programme. The funds should assist them in kick-starting and hopefully become independent to carry on their own. However, the

department does have a combination of grants and loans to support smallholder farmers.

Additionally, another respondent highlighted other supporting mechanisms: the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative and the Ilima/Letsema programme, which specifically provide support for production inputs. Supporting smallholder farmers and developing such programmes as CASP is critical to promoting household food security. Moreover, their support is critical to ensure South Africa is food secure on a household level.

The DALRRD has made strides to ensure that support towards smallholder farmers is adequate by programme implementation such as CASP, Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative and Ilima/Letsema, which focus on the production aspect of smallholder farmers. The research's purpose of understanding the challenges that the directorate faces is to promote public-private partnerships to reduce the strain on the government to promote effective and efficient service delivery to meet the growing needs of the population concerning food insecurity challenges.

All the respondents outlined that though support is provided to smallholder farmers through CASP, there are various sustainability challenges. One of the challenges programmes are facing are related to financial issues. Smallholder farming financial support is provided based on the Public Financial Management Act. The PFMA has several restrictions and is not economic generating. The Act reduces spending, as stated by a respondent.

Furthermore, one respondent stated that the limited budgets smallholder farmers receive resulted from not being able to meet the minimum requirements of the programme, resulting in farmers not being able to access funds provided by the government. They are therefore ineligible for government initiatives. Another respondent outlined an issue that emerged from the research conducted by the DPME of CASP. The research concluded that although programmes are effective, they do not have enough reach to support the more prominent grouping: the smallholder producers or farmers. The smallholder farmer section is larger than the commercial sector, which started with about 100 000 and is now down to 36 000 commercial farmers. The smallholder farmer sector in South Africa predominately consists of

farmers who were previously disadvantaged. Constitutionally, those are black farmers. According to the respondent, the term 'black' refers to Africans, Coloureds, Indians and Chinese. The population is thus substantial. According to the same respondent, when referring to the reach of the population, it is roughly two to three million smallholder farmers. The challenge is that the government cannot reach everyone due to budget constraints and is forced to prioritise the smallholder farmers in terms of who receives support and who does not. Another respondent stated that there is a big gap that would require a sum of work to reach the majority of the smallholder farmers. A respondent highlighted the lack of a policy to counter the challenge. The DALRRD drafted a National Producer Comprehensive Development Support Policy. A few respondents reiterated that the lack of coordination between national, provincial and local governments is another challenge. Proper coordination, working together, and alignment between the government departments and private sector could avoid misalignment of programmes.

In association with poor coordination and alignment, another respondent highlighted a lack of public-private partnerships. The respondent emphasised that the government departments such as DALRRD provide similar support provided by the private sector, referred to as "double-dipping". In relation to poor coordination or proper alignment with the government activities, engagement with public-private partnerships would avoid the misalignment of programmes. The respondent further emphasised a lack of youth participation in the programmes. The majority of the beneficiaries are elderly farmers. If employment is to be created for the youth, the programmes should increase youth participation. Another respondent stated that the procurement system is a hindrance to the support provided to farmers. It is a hindrance because an official procedure is required to follow, which entails sourcing three quotations. In order to receive these three quotations, one needs to advertise tenders, leave them for a month after that and then award a tender. During that process, when the conditions become conducive for planting, suppliers will not be able to supply inputs on time resulting in smallholder farmers receiving agri-inputs late, thus affecting the project.

A respondent stated that farmers are not entrepreneurs. One needs to start giving them production pools, getting tractors and then identifying markets for the produce, which results in them being inactive in their projects. Furthermore, another limitation

to planting on time, as one of the respondents stated, is limited mechanisation. The department (DALRRD) purchased tractors for the farmers. However, they cannot cater to all smallholder farmers simultaneously, resulting in farmers not being able to plant during suitable conditions and starting the planting season late, thus, not getting the expected yields. Another respondent stated that the government is good with planning but does not do a great job at policy or project implementation, which affects the smallholder farmers.

5.4.1.2. Mechanisms to counter challenges

In response to the challenges that the department face towards supporting smallholder farmers, a follow-up question was asked to the respondents on how the department counters the issues they face when it comes to identified programmes. The respondents provided varying responses. One respondent mentioned that the Job Fund Project has been established, which provides blended funding to meet the farmers' needs. The project is based on a loan and grant basis. To counter the smallholder farmers receiving agri-inputs late, which affects the planting season, smallholder farmers must be engines of their development, as highlighted by a public official. If they acquire financial resources on time, they will be able to buy the inputs in time for the planting season; however, they are expected to pay the loan portion of the finance.

Farmers have to be agents of their development, and they cannot be passive participants in the whole farming operation. Through funds that have been made available by economists who assist in business development, the right specialists have been employed to ensure the farmers' involvement in the whole operation. This strategy is intended to increase the number of active projects, as stated by one of the respondents.

To assist with the inadequate mechanisation, which was highlighted as a challenge by a respondent, the department has been assisting in outsourcing mechanisation schemes. They have identified members of the society with tractors. They then rent those as the department during the planting season to assist farmers to plant on time and produce expected yields.

Another respondent stated that several programmes had been put in place to counter the department's challenges, and several engagements or relations have been formulated to support smallholder farmer development. For example, the Department of Social Development, Department of Trade and Industry and Department of Small Businesses work hand-in-hand with smallholder producers. However, though these engagements exist, the collaboration needs to be strengthened. New programmes such as the Agriculture and Agro-processing Master Plan (AAMP) have been established. The AAMP is a social compact plan that includes labour, organised business, agriculture and government across the sector. The main focus is observing the agricultural sector from an entire value-chain perspective. The plan not only emphasises the movement of commodities between South African provinces but also export markets. DALRRD has been assisting in linking farmers to the market. An example provided by the respondent, though not food security-related, is that of the mohair and wool exports in the world, 70% of that comes from South Africa and from the majority of the smallholder farmers. This further emphasises the importance of providing access for farmers to the market. Another respondent highlighted that economists had been identified to assist from a business perspective. Further, extension workers that link the smallholder farmer producers to the relevant specialists' other mechanisms are developing Good Agricultural Practices (GAP). GAP looks at the production factors, water quality; it is inclusive.

From a policy perspective, the National Comprehensive Producer Development Policy was highlighted by some of the respondents as a policy to counter the challenges and as a mechanism to create a conducive environment for farmer support. The policy will guide the national, provincial and local departments and other stakeholders involved in the sector. In an attempt to promote sustainable smallholder farmer programme development, the respondents have highlighted extension officers as significant players. There is a National Extension System with its official that is supporting smallholder farmers. Extension officers identify a constraint thereafter; they can activate the services of one of the specialists who will visit the farm and identify how best to plan around the constraints to ensure that the programme is sustainable.

5.4.2. Public-private partnerships and their effectiveness

The second section of the research questions was to obtain the public officials understanding of PPPs and their effectiveness. As indicated in Chapter Four of this research, government scarcity of resources and expertise has given the platform for innovative partnerships to emerge that allow for collaborative efforts from government, businesses and civil society to increase productivity and steer agricultural growth and food security globally. PPPs are a mechanism for improving public goods delivery and services by collaborating with others, i.e., the private sector, while maintaining the governmental role to ensure that national, social and economic objectives are achieved. PPPs in agriculture seek to reduce food insecurity and promote access to adequate and nutritious food for all. The respondents responded based on their understanding. The questions focused on the strategies within DALRRD to strengthen PPPs, their effectiveness in promoting food security and procedures followed by DALRRD to strengthen relations with private agencies with public agencies to support smallholder farmers. Further, the questions aimed to identify key challenges faced by the DALRRD in collaborating with the private sector.

5.4.2.1. Strategies to strengthen public-private partnerships

The participants in the interviews indicated the following regarding strategies to strengthen PPPs. The smallholder development sector has established the National Food and Nutrition Security Coordinating Committee, where different stakeholders participate similar to a commodity group and farmer organisations. According to one respondent, the committee encourages and deliberates on how best the government and stakeholders can advance support to smallholder producers from the perspective of public and private sectors. The respondent highlighted that as a department, they also have the stakeholder engagement section that they get involved in in the organisation of annual forums such as the Food and Agricultural Organisation Global Forum for Food and Nutrition Security.

Another respondent highlighted a policy that has been developed and at the cabinet level to be approved. The majority of policy development has been the result of the agriculture department evaluation undertaken by the DPME. One of the recommendations from CASP, which was the programme evaluated, was a need to

develop a comprehensive policy that will assist in ensuring that these departments and stakeholders are responsible for supporting smallholder producers. The public and private working together will assist in the reduction of one farmer receiving similar support collaboration, and having proper alignment and a policy in place will promote coordination. The Jobs Fund Project is an initiative between the National Treasury, the Government Technical Advisory Centre (GTAC) and the department. According to GTAC (2015), GTAC promotes “public sector capacity building through partnerships with academic and research institutions, civil society and business organisations.” The project was implemented to address limited budget within the department to acquire funds through other funders, i.e., commodities, partnership with organisations to ensure that delivery of services or the implementation of programmes to support smallholder farmers are not compromised. It is a form of partnership developed to promote public-private partnerships to contribute to economic growth and support smallholder farmers. The Blended Funding Scheme is a tripartite between the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFF), former Rural Development and Land Reform (RDLR) and the Land Bank. DAFF and RDLR have become one department referred to as DALRRD. The Land Bank provides loans to smallholder farmers, and the department provides grants. In relation to the Jobs Fund Project, the respondent outlined that funds have been provided to farmers on a blended funding arrangement where for instance, if one applies for R8 million, 50% will be grant. The other 50% will be the loan portion which is repayable at a 7.5% interest rate not linked to the prime rate. The interest rate is lower than the standard Land Bank arrangement, whereby farmers will be repaying the loan at an estimated interest of 15%. The funds are revolving for the department to replicate the support to other farmers, unlike if the focus was on grants only then at the end of the day, the facility runs dry, resulting in the inability to support other farmers.

One of the respondents stated that a document in place speaks on how the department engages with the private sector. This intergovernmental framework includes the private sector in terms of how they communicate and engage with the private sector and other departments and stakeholders. AAMP is one of the most significant social compacts established. The Agriculture and Agro-processing Master Plan aim to complement and advance the actualisation of national development priorities as set out in the NDP, the MTSF (2019-2024) and ongoing programmes in

land and agrarian. The plan's primary purpose is to coordinate and guide investment, infrastructure and programmatic intervention in the agricultural and agro-processing sector in an integrated model that enhances stakeholders (Department of Trade Industry and Competition 2021). The respondent highlighted that the plan had made strides in acquiring the necessary investments in market access for smallholders. Further, the respondent highlighted that there are standing arrangements with organised agriculture with AgriSA. These standing arrangements stated by several respondents are referred to as Memoranda of Agreement (MOAs) or Memoranda of Understanding (MOUs). MOUs govern interactions with the private sector. The respondents highlighted their partnership with Tiger Brands as an example of engagement with the private sector entity. The department identified farmers who would be able to supply Tiger Brands and were paid accordingly. When the MOU lapsed, they wanted to enter into a formal public-private partnership; however, the approval process is a bit of a challenge as it needs to be submitted to National Treasury.

Similarly, the department entered into an MOU with the UN whereby they stated that they needed a specific product and identified farmers who would produce those. If there is a need to capacitate those farmers, they are capacitated through the MOU signed. Such partnerships have promoted market linkages with smallholder farmers, allowing them to supply their produce to the private sector or civil society.

5.4.2.2. Effectiveness of public-private partnerships

PPPs' application, in general, is relatively new. However, it is widely promoted as having contributed to the agricultural sector through modernisation. PPPs can support agricultural development that is sustainable and inclusive of smallholder farmers, as outlined in Chapter Four. The researcher asked the respondents whether they think there is a need to have PPPs within the agricultural sector directed towards smallholder farmer development.

All the respondents agreed that there is a need for PPPs to enhance support to smallholder farmers. The varied reasons for why the respondents highlighted a need will be elaborated. One respondent stated that it is very critical to have PPPs. The

private sector brings specific expertise, with many of them coming with international experiences, which could be helpful. The respondent stated that the combination would bring change not only to the technical support but development perspective because

“The point when a certain root cause of a problem is identified within the smallholder sector, then you bring in private-public, they come together, work together to design a relevant policy to design relevant programme.”

Involvement of the private sector should not just be delivering or attending to issues but ongoing involvement from the initial issue to the implementation to solving the issue. They need to be included during the time for policy development to promote ideas coming together, thus ensuring the success of smallholder farmers.

In acknowledgement of the need for PPPs, one of the respondents highlighted that the department on its own could never be enough in as much as they do their best; there are just not enough resources available. In the Gauteng Province, the department targets a certain number of farmers to support, but other concerns arise close to the end of the year. The department is unable to reiterate that initial target as identified at the beginning of the year. The target is from a numerical perspective in terms of supporting itself, year in year out. It is not sufficient for smallholder farmers to develop and grow.

Another respondent stated that public-private partnership engagement is needed. However, the government has not done enough to improve the relations. The government's approach to PPPs has been a top-down approach instead of informing the partners such as the private sectors, social organisations and community groups. The top-down approach requires alteration as it is challenging to interrogate an official in a higher position.

One of the respondents referred back to the AAMP as a document focused on subsistence and commercial agriculture. The primary focus of the country is smallholder farmers. The reason for focusing on them is that the next generations of farmers will emerge from them. Though these agreements or documentations exist,

they have not turned out as expected, but they are a work in progress. The department is constantly working on documentation on the arrangements.

Another respondent stated that smallholder farmers must have a relationship with input suppliers and that the relationship with commodity organisations assists farmers in receiving specific extensions or advice. Other relationships with the private sector assist in servicing those farmers who do not have the necessary mechanisation. Government can work with the private sector by providing the necessary capital to assist in attaining food security, thus, the importance of having private-public relationships in the agricultural sector.

One of the respondents reiterated that though the government supports 90% to 95% of the smallholder farmers and spends close to R2 billion or more, there is still a gap. It shows the frailties in that if they do not have public-private partnerships, the reach will not be enough. The respondents stated that their resources could be used more effectively and that private partnerships can play a critical role in assisting in the reach.

5.4.2.3. The department's relationship with the private sector and how they should be organised to support smallholder farmers

Forums were highlighted as a strategy to strengthen PPPs by respondents. Forums are where the private sector and government are solidified as the private sector can advise the public sector on how best to develop and plan to support farmers. Forums allow for a better understanding of knowing where the farmers are and their needs.

One of the respondents highlighted that there had been discussions on how the approach to development support of smallholder farmers should be modified. The approach to the development and support of smallholder farmers should start using the district development model. One respondent said

“MOUs and MOAs are just pieces of paper until there is something, like a sort of legislation, that will force the government to say that no, we need to work with the private sector, you need to identify someone, they need to be part of your institutional arrangement.”

The private sector does come up with good ideas, but more effort needs to be directed towards actually engaging with them.

5.4.2.4. Key challenges the department faces in collaborating with private partners

In response to the strategies identified to strengthen relationships with the private sector, the researcher asked a follow-up question to understand the department's challenges in collaborating with private partners—one of the respondent's stated that there are levels of mistrust, stating that

“The private sector normally, they think that they have got better skills than people who are sitting in the government, which normally they tend to undermine government officials in terms of knowledge of the sector.”

There tends to be a lack of understanding between the two sectors, and sometimes expectations do not occur as planned. There is no convergence in terms of what they intend on achieving.

Not having clear policies in place creates a challenge in terms of how the government engages with the private sector. Specific structures are required to be put in place. Another challenge highlighted by officials is the buy-in. The private sector and public sector think differently. For example, a government department introducing a specific project or programme but not getting buy-in from the private sector results in the two not reaching a consensus in what needs to be designed or implemented are. There is less participation from both sectors.

The respondents highlighted that the motives of the private sector are questionable. As both the public and private sectors have different objectives, the manner in which they intend to achieve them is usually not similar. The private sector is not for social benefit. Their primary focus is to gain profits, yet the government ensures that the agricultural constituency does benefit. Sometimes getting on to the same vision in terms of beneficitation is a challenge.

Barrier collaboration and proper programme implementation with the private sector lack proper forums and terms of references that guide such forums to ensure the public's voice is heard and their inputs are taken into account. As stated by a

respondent, they must take part in the district development model to ensure that farmers' development and support are strengthened.

Unclear roles and responsibilities are one of the biggest challenges the department faces today. One respondent shared that

“If the government itself or department itself is still struggling to define the roles and responsibilities on their own, like roles and responsibilities within themselves in the public sector, there will be confusion of departments supporting the same farmers.”

If the government and departments cannot define these themselves, it is challenging for the private sector. As highlighted by the respondent,

“If we cannot put our house in order, what more when we bring the private sector?”

When the private sector is involved in projects or policies, clearly defined responsibilities are a barrier.

5.4.3. Public-private partnership framework

The third section of the research questions focused on understanding policies implemented by DARRLD to address food security and promote smallholder farmers. A regulatory framework that promotes food security and smallholder farming development is vital. In Chapter Four, when describing best international practices for Kenya and Brazil, their policies emphasised stakeholder participation. The participation includes a solid private sector, markets, civil society and local communities' participation in all phases to make food security a shared national responsibility. The policies must emphasise stakeholder participation. A public-private partnership framework is essential to avoid duplication efforts to improve food security and to encourage shared national responsibilities. Policymakers and practitioners of agricultural development are interested in PPPs for four primary reasons. They have the potential to leverage finance, risk-sharing, food and security inclusion and market access and innovation. This section aims to explore the DALRRD's public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers in contributing to food security.

The respondents were asked what the guiding policy framework promoting food security through smallholder farmers is. The respondents highlighted the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy. The policy was approved in 2014. From the policy, the National Food and Nutrition Security Plan was developed with different strategic

objectives that focus on smallholder farming. The plan had outlined guidelines on how smallholder producers can be supported to maximise their productivity, produce nutritious food, reduce food insecurity and promote food security at a household level. The plan also focuses not only on smallholder farmers but other aspects of food security. Coming down to a departmental level, the Draft National Comprehensive Producer Development Support Policy will become the overarching policy in agricultural development and other policies within the department. A respondent highlighted that the previous policy did not address the issues raised in the agricultural sector properly. Hence, the policy will cover issues starting from categories of farmers and all the approaches in terms of other support. A respondent stated that a framework is trying to ensure that smallholder producers graduate into commercial producers.

The previous question focused on a framework for a general overview. The next question directed to the respondents was intended to explore a guiding framework that promotes PPPs to support smallholder farmers. The majority of the respondents stated that they had not come across such a policy or strategy. However, respondents highlighted that in terms of the departments' development policies or development programmes and other department strategies, they consult with the private sector and other stakeholders such as commodity groups and farmer organisations. Respondents referred to MOAs as being used to engage with stakeholders, but there is no framework specifically focusing on PPPs.

Another respondent stated that in terms of the department, they have an Intergovernmental Relation Framework. An IGR is

“to establish a framework for the national government, provincial governments and local governments to promote and facilitate intergovernmental relations, provide mechanisms and procedures to facilitate settlements of intergovernmental disputes, and provide for matters connected therewith”.

5.5. DATA ANALYSIS

The previous section presented the responses from the virtual interviews conducted with officials from the Smallholder Directorate in the DALRRD. The section focused on three themes. The first theme looked at the general function of the department and aimed to understand the support they provide to smallholder farmers. The second

aimed to obtain the respondents' views on public-private partnerships and their effectiveness in contributing to food security through programme formulation and programme implementation. The third aimed to identify policies implemented by DALRRD to support smallholder farmers to promote food security. The aim of this study is to explore the DALRRD public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers in contributing to food security. The following section will provide an analysis of the data presented in the previous section. The section will be subdivided into themes to form the discussion.

5.5.1. Government support to smallholder farmers

As stated in Chapter One of this study, the small-scale farming sector can be more vibrant in South Africa. However, this can only happen once the smallholder producers are empowered and receive the necessary development support from relevant parties to produce competitively (Sender 2016:17; Farming Portal 2019). For this to occur, the following factors need careful consideration: providing the farmers with a primary agrarian skill-set and instituting adequate access to low-cost finance, technology and markets. DALRRD has put in place strategic goals and objectives based on the MTSF (2014-2019) to achieve the outcome. Four strategic goals and 11 strategic objectives have been identified and developed, whereby strategic goal 3 aims at supporting smallholder farmers to foster food security. The goal emphasises that an enabling environment must be created for food security to be obtained and for the transformation of the sector to be achieved by leading and coordinating food security initiatives of the government. Other goals are strengthening the capacity for efficient delivery in the sector and strengthening the support programmes' planning, implementation, and monitoring (DAFF 2015a:119).

The respondents' findings regarding support are evidence that DALRRD has made a significant effort to support smallholder farmers. CASP is a significant contributor to supporting smallholder farmers, according to the respondents. The agricultural support initiative aimed at reducing poverty and promoting food security. It is a progressive initiative for agricultural development in South Africa. The primary objective is the provision of agricultural support that is effective towards agricultural development and streamlining the service provision. CASP is a programme that was introduced in 2004/2005. It is a national government initiative aimed at supporting

provincial departments of agriculture to create a conducive environment for emergent farmers and expand support services for agricultural development. The purpose of CASP is to revitalise agricultural colleges into centres of excellence and assist the provide post-settlement support to the targeted beneficiaries of land reform and to other producers who have acquired land through private means. The programme has four targeted groups which it supports and is determined by their needs (DAFF 2019:5). It consists of the hungry who receive support through the provision of food packages. The second groups are subsistence and household producers, who receive support directed towards food production by being provided with starter packs inclusive of chemicals, seeds and fertilisers. The third and fourth groups are smallholder producers and black commercial farmers. They receive support at a farm level by being provided with inputs, infrastructure development and mechanisation services to produce more efficiently and effectively. As mentioned earlier in the chapter, the six pillars of CASP: training and capacity building, technical and advisory and regulatory services, building market and development of business, knowledge management, financial assistance through Micro-Agricultural Financial Institution of South Africa (MAFISA), product inputs and on and off-farm infrastructures are there to meet the needs of the smallholder farmers (Western Cape Department of Agriculture 2019).

The programme in relation to the study is improving national and household levels of food security, expanding access for black subsistence and smallholder farmers agricultural support, increasing sustainable and profitable black producers' numbers in horticulture, livestock, aquaculture and grain value-chain and increasing the beneficiaries of CASP market access and accurate and reliable information on agriculture for management decision-making (The Government Gazzette No. 42464 2019:309. The primary outcomes of the programme are, Outcome 4:decent job through growth inclusion, Outcome 5: a skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path and Outcome 7: a comprehensive rural development and land reform. Training of the smallholder farmers is an effort made by the department to promote food security through CASP. Training of smallholder farmers will contribute to the outcomes, notably Outcome 5. In 2017/2018, the government managed to support 11 669 smallholder farmers and 1 136 black commercial farmers. 22 906 beneficiaries were supported from 456 implemented projects, with 305 projects

completed at the end of the financial year. It is essential to note that the government promotes support of women and acknowledges their role in contributing to food security. 49% of the beneficiaries were women, 14% were youth, and 0.4% were individuals with disabilities, according to Gazette No. 42 464 (2019). A respondent highlighted that youth need to be incorporated more into agriculture-based on these results. The government is ensuring that it identifies youth in agriculture. Market access is usually a challenge for smallholder farmers. The government-assisted 64% of the smallholder farmers supported access formal, and 23 480 farmers were trained in targeted training programmes. Respondents stated that the government provides extension services to assist smallholder farmers in areas of need. According to Gazette No 42 464 (2019), 87 extension officers were recruited nationally, and 885 were maintained in the system. Infrastructure is usually a hindrance to smallholder farmer development, and the government provided support to 498 farmers to assist with infrastructure repairs due to flooding.

Chapter Four identified Kenya as one of the international best practices for supporting smallholder farmers. The country identified production as critical to achieving food security. A report by the World Bank (2015b) indicates that the agricultural sector in Kenya covers small-, medium- and large-scale farming. Production on a small scale accounts for 75% of the total outputs in agriculture. The report further highlights that production on a small scale accounts for 70% of marketed produce in agriculture and not large-scale farming, which accounts for 30% of traded agrarian. This serves as evidence of the significant role that smallholder farmers play in feeding the Kenyan population as the country focuses on food production for their own families and for local and national markets. On the contrary, in large-scale farming with specialisation in cash crops, production is based on commodities and concentrates on export crops that people are unable to consume. Additionally, their focus is primarily on return investment (Nasike 2020).

Ilima/Letsema and the Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative are additional programmes led by the department and provide support to address food security challenges and empower smallholder farmers. These initiatives focus on the production aspect of smallholder farmers. As part of the MTEF period, 145 000 subsistence and smallholder producers are expected to be supported with agricultural inputs and

mechanisation of farmers and 120 000 hectares of productive land is expected to be planted.

Ilima/Letsema is an initiative according to the Government Gazette No. 42 464 (2019). The strategic goal of the Ilima/Letsema grant is to reduce poverty by increasing production. The aim is to assist vulnerable farming communities in South Africa and to increase agriculture production and investment infrastructure directed towards unlocking agricultural production. The grant has several outcomes; however, the following outcomes are applicable for this study: improved farm income and household and national food security. In order to achieve these programme outcomes, the focus is increased yield per unit area of land under production. The primary outcome of the grant is to contribute to two outcomes, Outcome 4: decent job through growth inclusive growth and Outcome 7, comprehensive rural development and land reforms. Based on past performance between 2017/2018, 11 760 smallholder farmers received support, 52 883 households received starter packs, and production inputs and 187 740 beneficiaries were supported by the programme (50% women, 26% youth and 0.5% individuals with disabilities). Additionally, between 7 to 10 tonnes per hectare of maize were achieved. Thus, the DAFF, now known as the DALRRD, has made a difference in increasing production (Government Gazette No. 42 464 2019:313-314).

As stated earlier in the chapter and in Chapter One, Fetsa Tlala is funded through the Ilima/Letsema project grant. It is a multi-disciplinary approach by the government to deal with structural problems of food insecurity. The initiative stems from various legislative frameworks, including the Republic of South Africa's Constitution and the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security. The government intends to assist smallholder producers and subsistence farmers to put arable land under production as per the NDP.

5.5.2. Challenges faced by the government and strategies to counter them

The government had made efforts to provide support to smallholder farmers; however, they are also faced with various challenges identified as findings from the respondents. The following section will focus on financial challenges, smallholder farmers' reach and coordination and the importance of collaboration and coordination to support smallholder farmers in contributing to food security.

5.5.2.1. Procurement process and effect on food security

A series of activities necessary for timely goods and services to satisfy user requirements and fulfilment of organisational goals is referred to as procurement. Activities under procurement activities should be connected to the organisational goals, management plans and stakeholder's expectations, according to Malta and Gilbert (2006) (in Mofokeng & Luke 2014:1). Procurement, therefore, aims to obtain high-quality goods and services to meet the customer requirements cost-effectively and efficiently.

Public procurement fulfils a significant role in the economy and public expenditures of a country. It can be regarded as an important indicator for government effectiveness as it is the core aspect of public service delivery (Fourie & Malan 2020:1). Public procurement refers to

...“the purchase by government state-owned enterprises of goods, services and works. As public procurement accounts for a substantial portion of the taxpayers' money, governments are expected to carry it out efficiently and with high standards of conduct in order to ensure highlight quality service delivery and safeguard public interest” (OECD 2019).

OECD works on public procurement by providing support to its members' governments in reforming their systems to ensure long-term sustainability and growth inclusion and trust in the government. OECD provides international standards on public procurement, assesses their procurement systems, provides proposals for improvements and develops frameworks and indicators to assess public procurement systems. It is essential to highlight that South Africa is a member of the OECD and thus benefits from the outlined work that the OECD is involved in regarding public procurement.

The World Bank (2020b) states that public procurement is an imperative instrument for the promotion of good governance and embedding of efficient and effective use of public resources, which ultimately leads to high levels of delivery of services. Taking into account the accelerating focus on sustainable development, public procurement's role and focus have evolved from largely technical and administrative processes to a number of processes based on transparency, accountability and efficiency in the use

of public resources. This is in pursuit of improved development outcomes, and economic expansion, public procurement and management of contracts that are sound are essential (Fourie & Malan 2020:3). Section 217 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 states that the main and broad procurement goals expect all spheres of government (national, provincial and local) and other institutes as identified by the national legislation to obtain services or goods through fair, equal, competitive, transparent means and to have a system that is cost-effective (Bolton 2016:8). These principles form the foundational basis for the entire legal framework of regulatory government procurement in South Africa and are arches in other legislations relating to procurement (Fourie & Malan 2020:6).

The PFMA governs all public management practices in South Africa, thus providing the regulatory framework for national and provincial supply chain management. In support of PFMA, the National Treasury issued the General Procurement Guidelines, thereby pouncing its commitment to enabling the procurement system towards developing small-, medium- and micro-businesses (National Treasury 2014:1-88). The procurement system's five pillars comprise value for money, open and effective competition, ethics and fair dealings, accountability and reporting and equity.

From the findings, the government does adhere to its procurement processes, as highlighted by the respondents. The government promotes open and effective competition. However, the findings indicated that there needs to be an improvement in the turnaround time when selecting a tender. The hindrance that exists is that the process a public official needs to follow to acquire sourcing of quotations is lengthy. In order to receive sourcing quotations, three quotations must be obtained and advertised for a month after the tender is awarded. During that process, conditions become conducive for the planting season. However, the process can result in harvest, with the aftermath of negatively impacting food security on a household level due to the delays. The highlighted hindrance was also reiterated as one of the challenges amongst many (Fourie & Malan 2020:14). Inadequate planning and linkage of demand to the budget are crucial. It is essential to align procurement plans with the needs and objectives of the institution. Strategic and annual performance plans which are not well-thought through or unrealistic could ultimately compromise procurement planning and implementation and could result in poor delivery of services and goods.

The procurement process system could be improved by being more streamlined and putting farmers' needs first to avoid delays in planting and harvesting season.

5.5.2.2. Access to finance

The main challenge, which was echoed by the respondents considerably, was the lack of access to sufficient finances. According to The World Bank (2016), financial access is a growing interest globally, particularly in emergent and developing countries. The concern of policymakers is that the benefits produced by financial intermediation and markets are not being spread widely throughout the population and across economic sectors, which could negatively impact growth, income and increase poverty levels. According to a report by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development: Financial inclusion for developing better access to financial services for women, the poor and migrant workers, financial inclusion is defined as

...“the proportion of individuals and firms that use financial services. It refers to a state in which all working-age adults have adequate access to convenient and responsible service delivery at an affordable and sustainable cost to customers including credit, savings, payments and insurance from formal providers” (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) 2021:7).

Financial access is a critical achievement of the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals. It is in association with SDG Goal 2: Zero Hunger and achieves food security. Financial access can empower smallholder farmers to acquire the necessary tools and inputs to double the agricultural productivity and income of small-scale food producers, particularly indigenous people, women family farmers, fishers and pastoralists, through secure and equal access to productive resources, inputs, knowledge and financial services (UNCTAD 2021:4)

The research findings from the interviews were that financial support is provided based on the PFMA. The PFMA has several restrictions and is not economic generating. It reduces spending. The reduction in spending results from the limited budget smallholder farmers receives due to them not being able to meet the programme's requirements and not accessing funds provided by the government. The limited budgets are a challenge that necessitates PPPs, which is the focus of the research. The government requires assistance from the private sector to increase its budget

lines and financial management systems to support the farmers better. PPPs are mechanisms being promoted to drive growth and improve productivity in agriculture and the food sectors.

PPPs are seen as initiatives that can transform the agricultural sector and deliver many benefits that can be contributed towards the pursuit of sustainable development in agriculture that is inclusive of smallholder farmers. PPPs are attractive, particularly in developing countries' agricultural sectors where uncertainty and risk are predominant. Risks extend to issues in production, i.e., natural disasters, adverse weather, market risks, volatility in outprice, exchange rate, business-enabling environments such as infrastructure or political risk. The public-private partnership model allows the government to divide what to do with these risks, either to maintain them, share or transfer them to the private sector depending on who would best manage them. Furthermore, PPPs can assist in reducing transactional costs associated with sourcing from smallholder farmers and can thus encourage growth fostering collective action, capacity building and increasing participation of smallholders in modern value-chains while reducing transaction costs for lead private partners (FAO 2016).

5.5.2.3. Smallholder farmers reach

Findings from the respondents further necessitate the need for smallholder farmers when referring to the reach. Research conducted by the Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation on CASP concluded that although programmes are effective, they do not have the resources to reach the bigger population group. Smallholder farmers are predominately disadvantaged farmers. The assistance of PPPs can assist the government to expand its reach. Other than the PPPs to increase the reach and access to finance, government efforts do not go unseen. Findings from the interviews were that a Jobs Fund Project has been established, providing blending funds to meet the farmers' needs. The Jobs Fund was established during the State Nation Address on 10 February 2011 and was successfully launched in June 2011 by the Minister of Finance. The objective of the Jobs Fund is to co-finance projects by public-private and NGOs that will significantly contribute to job creation (The Jobs Fund 2012a). The Smallholder Farmer Support Programme is an example of a project under the Jobs Fund. The programme focus was on smallholder farmers located in

KwaZulu-Natal. Generally, smallholder farmers in rural areas are isolated from the input and produce market, production information, reliable contractors and credit facilities. Stiff competition from their commercial counterparts is an added challenge. The challenge faced in KwaZulu-Natal was a poorly managed plantation area requiring proper management to make it productive. The aim of the intervention through matching funds from the Jobs Fund was to link farmers to well-developed markets, thus improving productivity, sustainability, reducing business transaction cost and increasing farm turnover. The project resulted in the Lima Rural Development Foundation partnering with DAFF at the time; this further emphasises the importance of PPPs. Smallholder farmers generally face challenges of having access to inputs and training in comparison to commercial farmers (The Jobs Fund 2012b; Lima 2017). From the findings from the respondents, commercial farmers have reduced from 100 000 to 36 000 farmers, which are easily supported compared to smallholder farmers estimated at 2 million households. Investment by both parties is critical to growing the agricultural sector and supporting smallholder farmers.

The government has recently made further efforts to address financial challenges affecting the reach and access to finance. A draft policy has been recently developed by the department of the National Treasury Republic of South Africa, which has drafted a document to establish a legislative framework for financial inclusion in South Africa on the 28th of October 2020, referred to as An Inclusive Financial Sector for All. This follows a policy document published in February 2011 entitled “A Safer Financial Sector to Serve South Africa Better” (National Treasury 2020a). The objectives are to deepen the financial inclusion of individuals, extend financial access for small-medium micro-enterprises and level more diverse providers and distribution base for financial services in South Africa (National Treasury 2020b). The document provides outlines on government’s policy to form regulatory approach, the evolving Financial Sector Code (FSC) and sector market practices. The plan is in response to the global COVID-19 pandemic from an inclusive financial perspective. The delivery of financial services is provided at an affordable cost to a historically discarded or under-served population by the formal financial sector. The policy considers financial inclusion as the mechanism to target these disadvantaged individuals and business enterprises (National Treasury 2020b).

The international best practice focus on Kenya from Chapter Four is an excellent example of collaboration. The country's largest bank, the Kenya Commercial Bank, uses mobile money known as M-Pesa or Safaricom. The bank has partnered to issue loans to country micro-SMEs using credit scores derived from mobile data. Although the risk is usually that the borrowers are considered uncreditworthy, farmers usually struggle to receive the credit due to a lack of history. KCB M-Pesa accepts 80% of applicants with a default rate of just under 2% (Sobrinho 2017). South Africa can learn a great deal from Kenya's approach to financial services and invest in assisting their smallholder farming sector's growth and contributing to food security.

5.5.2.4. Coordination and collaboration

Farmers and other stakeholders' collaboration has continually been identified as a critical strategy for sustainable development in agriculture. Collaboration is believed to explicitly and implicitly contribute to the ecological, social and economic benefits in an agricultural context. Collaboration permits for the management of resources effectively and coordination of farming practices (Velten, Jagar & Newig 2021:14620). Lack of shared knowledge among the government and stakeholders contributes to uncoordinated and duplicated efforts, thereby limiting effectiveness. Enhancing coordination and collaboration is vital to improving agricultural productivity (Lamm, Masambuka, Lamm, Davis & Nahdy 2020).

Chapter Four of the study stated that the need for food and nutrition council coordination is not new in South Africa. It was explicitly spelt out in the 1997 Food Security Policy for South Africa. The obstacles identified in the IFSS 2002 were institutional capacity and insufficient coordination, making it difficult for government structure and other organisations to function (Koch 2011:36). It is essential to highlight that factors that impact food security necessitate the collaboration and coordination of differences, i.e., PPPs. Further, the NDP for 2030 makes multiple statements that resonate with literature internationally in assessing what it would take to eliminate food insecurity. The NDP, therefore, deems it necessary to have entities' engagement within the food system along with multiple linkages throughout the various sectors and governmental departments (Drimie & McLahlan 2013). Thus, the NDP's suggestions call for collaboration and coordination with the government and civil society and private

sectors, which necessitated acquiring primary data from the department as the study explores PPPs framework to promote smallholder farmers, which expands to contributing to food security.

In association with the study, the Smallholder Farmers Directorate is responsible for coordinating activities that are cross-cutting with other entities. However, the department has faced poor coordination and alignment between PPPs in terms of support to smallholder farmers, resulting in double-dipping. The issue of poor coordination or proper alignment with the government activities and public-private partnerships would avoid the misalignment of programmes. Chapter One highlighted that the issue of inadequate coordination and collaboration among stakeholders in the provision of producer support is one of the key concerns that the department is facing according to the National Policy on Comprehensive Producer Development Support Draft 5 version 3 (DAFF 2018:1-6). In addition to the double-dipping, poor coordination and collaboration result in the departments working in silos. The non-alignment in programmes will negatively impact programme implementation, resulting in poor integration and impacting the country's food security.

For the public-private partnerships to adequately nurture food security through smallholder farmers, the financial capacity of the agricultural department to implement programmes, collaboration and coordination with private agencies should be strengthened. It is essential to collaborate and coordinate to avoid duplication and maximise the resources allocated to this sector to have a more considerable impact. The findings from interviewees in terms of PPPs' effectiveness acknowledge that there is a need for PPPs to enhance smallholder support. From the responses, PPPs bring a different perspective to the government and provide an international perspective based on their experiences. The private sector's contributions can bring about change not only to the technical aspect but the developmental side as well. The DALRRD has made efforts that will support coordination and collaboration. They acknowledge that the work by the government alone can never be enough in as much as they do the best that they can with the available resources, thus necessitating the need to work with the different stakeholders. The success of the programmes will depend on proper coordination and collaboration, including the availability and utilisation of all enabling

resources (DAFF 2015a). This highlights the importance of public-private partnership coordination to maximise resources and promote food security.

There is evident importance for investment in agricultural development. Smallholder farmers are vital instruments available for promoting economic growth and household food security. There is a clear view that coordination and alignment of DALRRD and the private sector and proper utilisation of financial resources are critical to enhancing overall support to smallholder farmers. The DALRRD has made a significant effort to support smallholder farmers and identify strategies to overcome the challenges that they face when it comes to programme implementation and execution to meet the needs of smallholder farmers.

5.5.3. Framework for food security and public-private partnerships

Smallholder farmers have an important part to play in achieving food security globally. However, they are a vulnerable group often neglected by development policy. They account for most of the world's poor and hungry (Fan & Rue 2020:13). Development rarely enjoys institutional and policy support necessary to permit smallholder and rural economies to thrive. A commitment to handle smallholder farmers as viable to business is the main factor to unlock the sector's potential to contribute to a broader agenda in development. Enhanced viability of smallholder farming could reduce rural poverty and improve food security (Fan & Rue 2020:14). Therefore, a regulatory framework that promotes food security and smallholder farming is vital.

Government frameworks are important for legal operations and modern governance. It directs the interaction with the organisation, governors and stakeholders to closely guide and monitor operations (McMenemy 2019). According to South Africa, the National Policy Development Framework 2020 is

“an overarching structure tabulating a set of steps, procedures, principles, values, and standards that officials out to comply with to ensure the realisation of an organisation's adopted policy” (The Presidency 2020:9).

It provides comprehensive guidelines that are crucial to the proper policy implementation (The Presidency 2020:9). Chapter Two defined policy as an overall statement of future targets and actions which states the way and means of attaining them. It is an intervention framework for covering a range of activities (Khan 2016:3).

The public policy provides guidelines for action with a broader framework to operationalise a principle, philosophy, vision and mandate translated into a range of programmes and actions. The need for public policies is to inform the public vision and government intention. By doing so, it ensures that all intentions address societal issues and that rule of law and democratic values are respected and maintained.

For governmental action to occur, precise objectives and goals should be set in motion. These activities that the government pursues can be actioned directly through government or a working relationship with non-governmental actors, which are referred to as PPPs, to ensure that the needs of the public are met.

PPPs have emerged as crucial vehicles for development globally in both developed and resource-poor environments. Prosperous models of PPPs is to facilitate communication between stakeholders while ensuring that investments are adequately coordinated within the commodity supply chain. This is done by providing support infrastructure and another enabling mechanism. Partnerships are able to assist smallholder farmers to access both finance and profitable market (Muyunda 2019). The initial step for a government in establishing a public-private partnership framework is to articulate its public-private partnership policy. OECD developed a Principle for Public Governance of PPPs, which provides concrete guidance to policymakers on making sure that PPPs represent value for money for the public sector. The OECD framework has 12 principles focused on three objectives:

- i. To establish predicable, transparent and legitimate institutional frameworks supported by well-resourced and competent authorities
- ii. “Ground the selection of PPPs in value for money.”
- iii. To ensure that the budgetary process is open to reduce financial risk and ensure the integrity of the procurement process (Muyunda 2019).

For the study, the first objective of establishing predicable, transparent and legitimate institutional frameworks supported by well-resourced and competent authorities is deemed relevant. The objective emphasises that political leaders should ensure public awareness of PPPs’ benefits, risks, relative costs and conventional procurement. Popular PPPs require active consultation and engagement with stakeholders and the

involvement of end-user in defining the project and, subsequently, monitoring service quality.

Engagement with stakeholders and active consultation should be integral components of the process. A more private-sector approach can be adopted by PPPs to service delivery in sectors previously part of the government. Active private actors, i.e., civil society groups and NGOs, are able to create transparency about challenges that might sometimes be overlooked and can become severe if not addressed at an early stage. The study finds that PPPs are vital to address sustainable agricultural objectives such as developing agricultural value-chains, combined agricultural research innovation, technology transfer and delivery of development services to farmers and enterprises.

In Chapter Four of the study, when describing international best practices, the countries selected emphasised stakeholder participation in their policies for promoting food security and smallholder farmer support. The participation includes the market, private sector, local communities and civil society in all phases to make food security a collective national responsibility. Kenya's implementation of the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (NFNSP) aims to add value, build synergies, and effectively implement existing national and sectoral policies to address food insecurity and malnutrition. The policy implementation emphasised strong links between the government and private partnerships referred to as PPPs. The policy acknowledges that PPPs are essential to avoid duplication efforts to improve food security and shared national responsibility. The government of Brazil enacted the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy (PNSAN) with collaboration with all ministers involved and participation of civil society (Souza & Chmielewska 2011:5; Nkwana 2016:150). The enacted policy resulted in the creation of a National Council on Food Security. Although the council no longer exists, it was a critical player in improving food security in Brazil and removing the country from the hunger map. The council served an essential role in advising the President and the Republic on formulating food security policies and defining guidelines for the country to ensure adequate food for all.

The research findings from the respondents are that South Africa has made efforts to develop policies to address food security challenges. The guiding policy framework for promoting food security through smallholder farmers is the National Food, and

Nutrition Security Policy approved in 2014. The National Food and Nutrition Security Plan has different strategic objectives that focus on smallholder farming from the policy. The plan had outlined guidelines on how smallholder producers can be supported to maximise their productivity, produce nutritious food and enhance food insecurity or food security at a household level. From a departmental perspective, the Draft National Comprehensive Producer Development Support Policy, which will become the overarching policy in agricultural development and other policies in the department, has been developed. However, the National Policy Development Framework approved by the cabinet on 2 December 2020 further highlighted that stakeholder participation is a challenge hence its development. Coordination and collaboration from all perspectives are critical to enhancing a department or sector.

In addition to the previous point on stakeholder involvement, the top-down approach to addressing food security challenges has been identified as ineffective. The research findings emphasised that public-private partnership engagement is needed. However, the government has not done enough to enhance these relations. The government approach has been chiefly top-down approach instead of being informed by partners such as the private sectors, social organisations and community groups. The top-down approach requires alteration as it is challenging to interrogate an official in a higher position. Mthethwa (2017:72) states that the top-down approach, among other things, include the difficulty of the advocates of the policy to find out if the policy is succeeding or weak and that the policy should not be developed in solitude as there is the involvement of several stakeholders. The top-down approach lacks a guarantee that the formula for successful implementation will meet the reality as a result of unrealistic or oversimplified goals. The misconception of the approach is that officials at the lower levels will be in agreement with the decisions made by those in higher or top management positions, as the assumption is that they have the necessary resources, specific information to ensure that implementation is effective. Therefore, the study emphasises PPPs from a perspective where both parties are equally involved in policy formulation and address challenges faced in the smallholder development sector to promote food security.

5.6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter explored responses provided by virtual interviews conducted for this research. The data collection was carried out with public officials of the Department of Agricultural, Land Reform and Rural Development, focusing on the Smallholder Development Directorate. The results revealed that though the department supports smallholder farmers and efforts have been made through policies or draft policies towards private-public partnership, there is still work to be done. The responses revealed that there is no straightforward or proper framework to promote public-private partnerships to support smallholder farmers in promoting food security. The literature review in Chapter One showed that the lack of a coordinated and collaborated policy framework, i.e., the public-private framework for support to smallholder farmers, has led to the sector's inability to regulate the provision of services. The deficit has led to the confusion of the roles and responsibilities of institutions providing support to smallholder producers. However, their coordination and collaboration have been recognised and outline as being of importance to enhance the sector.

The questions outlined and the responses were significant in fulfilling the objective of this research to examine the support smallholder farmers are receiving with the overall outcome to contribute to food security. The research was able to explore the DALRRD's public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers. Despite there being a lack of framework, the public sector makes an effort to improve on their public-private partnership relations and develop procedures and policies to promote PPPs to empower smallholder farmers.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Smallholder farmers are essential role players in achieving food security on a household level, particularly in a country such as South Africa, which is secure on a national level and insecure on a household level (StatsSA 2019c:6). The dissertation aimed to explore the DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to address food security issues on a household level. Non-state partnerships, according to the National Food and Nutrition Policy, are vital to addressing the overall vision of ensuring food security.

The previous chapter presented the responses attained from the data collection process and, after that, provided an analysis of current support by the DALRRD towards smallholder farmers. The purpose was to explore the department's public-private partnership framework directed towards the support of smallholder farmers in South Africa in accordance with the objectives of the research outlined in Chapter One. For the purpose of the study, it is worthwhile to revisit the research objectives that guided the study:

- i. To examine the legislative and policy environment promoting food security through small-scale farming and the use of smallholder farmers in South Africa
- ii. To review the programmes implemented in the DALRRD to support smallholder farmers' contribution to food security
- iii. To investigate the support provided to smallholder farmers in the DALRRD in the implementation of public-private partnerships
- iv. To explore international best practices regarding public-private partnerships interventions to support smallholder farmers' contribution to food security
- v. To propose a public-private partnership framework to address smallholder farmers and food security in South Africa.

Against the background, this chapter will summarise fundamental elements discussed in previous chapters and provide main conclusions drawn from the data collection

process. The chapter will provide recommendations precisely aligned to the challenges presented in the study, which will assist in the development of proposed key components for a public-private partnership framework that can promote support to smallholder farmers in South Africa to address food security. This completes the final research objective of the study.

Although the study was in-depth and comprehensive, the study identifies limitations of the research. Therefore, the chapter concludes by suggesting areas of further research that may contribute to a different perspective.

6.2. SUMMARY OF PRECEDING CHAPTERS

Chapter One served as an introductory chapter. The chapter provided the concepts that are important to this study and reviewed empirical literature concerning food security and smallholder farmers. The chapter described the historical development of food security and introduced the nature of food security divided into four pillars. The four pillars of food security are food availability, food utilisation, food access and production of food for smallholder farmers. The chapter outlined government interventions to smallholder farmers by describing the departmental programmes established to support and promote agricultural development. On food security, smallholder farmers and the importance of PPPs to support smallholder farmers, the chapter laid out the background and motivation focusing on challenges and critical issues to food security, specifically the two food security pillars, food availability and food production. South Africa's population is growing, and production was emphasised as critical to ensure that everyone has the right to access sufficient food. As outlined in section 27(1)(b) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the country is confronted with the challenge of producing enough. The chapter explored Frankenberger and Mcaston's theoretical approach to household food security, which formed the basis of this study as South Africa is insecure on a household level by using smallholder farmers to improve food security. The research question, objectives were explained in the chapter. The chapter outlined the methodology in which the qualitative research method, case study design and data collection were used.

Chapter Two of this dissertation focused on conceptualising the study of support of smallholder farmers towards enhanced food security in the discipline of Public

Administration. The chapter presented a brief historical development of the discipline and the generic functions within the study. This section of the study comprehensively outlined the link between public administration and evaluation with a specific focus on programme implementation and monitoring and evaluation to assess the contributions towards food security. This study aimed to explore a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers contribute to food security. The government is obligated to develop policies and devote resources, structures and legislation to promote the right for all to access adequate food security by exploring all possible ways to enhance food security. In this context, therefore, the study is contextualised in the study of Public Administration. Policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation monitoring and evaluation of policy are components of public policy.

Chapter Three outlined the legal framework and institutional arrangements applicable to food production and smallholder farmers by highlighting policies and legislation applicable to food security and programmes to promote smallholder farmers in South Africa for the intended purpose of addressing food security. South Africa is an international and regional community member and is a signatory in multiple multinational agreements impacting food security and smallholder farmers. This chapter discussed international treaties and arrangements. The chapter discussed a historical background on South African agriculture, which includes the evolution of legislation supporting smallholder farmers' agricultural development. This discussion contributed to the fulfilment of the first research objective, examining the legislative and policy environment for promoting food security through small-scale farming and the use of smallholder farmers in South Africa.

Chapter Four explores the DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to address food insecurity. It is important to recognise best practice lessons which are research objective number four of the study. The fourth chapter discusses international best practices with a particular focus on Brazil and Kenya. The legislative framework for food security, PPPs and smallholder farmers of the two countries was provided. The chapter outlined how the two countries use PPPs to support smallholder farmers in contributing to food security. Critical lessons from which South Africa can adopt lessons were discussed in the chapter.

The purpose of Chapter Five was to provide the research findings of the study. The government department selected for the study was discussed with specific reference to their role in smallholder farmer support to contribute to increasing food availability. The chapter explained the application of thematic analysis as a means of data analysis for the applied qualitative research approach. The section began by defining thematic analysis and its significance in qualitative research, followed by an outline of a framework used to conduct the analysis. The data collected from the virtual interviews with the Smallholder Directorate officers was presented following different themes. The chapter responses were significant in fulfilling the objective of this research to examine the support that smallholder farmers are receiving with the overall outcome to contribute to food security.

6.3. SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

As stated in the previous chapter and the introduction of this study, the study applied thematic analysis into three main themes with subthemes. The purpose of these themes was to examine the support that smallholder farmers are receiving with the overall outcome to contribute to food security and explore the government department's public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers to contribute to food security. The findings of this study revealed that the government department support of smallholder farmers has been significant, and efforts to acknowledge the importance of PPPs in smallholder development and support has been outlined in policies. However, through data analysis, it became apparent that stakeholder contribution is limited, and there is no proper framework to promote PPPs to support smallholder farmers. As such, the key findings of the study are summarised as follows:

- Finding 1: PPPs are identified as initiatives that can transform the agricultural sector and provide many benefits that contribute towards the pursuit of sustainable agriculture development that is inclusive of smallholder farmers.
- Finding 2: There is limited smallholder farmer population reach. The involvement of the private sector can increase the smallholder farmer reach. The government has limited resources to reach the bigger population group.
- Finding 3: The top-down approach is used in addressing food security. The government approach to PPPs has been a top-down approach instead of

informing the partners such as the private sector, social organisations and community groups. The top-down approach requires alteration as it is challenging to interrogate an official in a higher position.

- Finding 4: Lack of clear policies creates challenges in terms of how the government engages with the private sector.
 - i. Lack of understanding between the public and private sector results in expectations not occurring as planned, and misaligned motives result in different objectives between the two sectors.
- Finding 5: Unclearly defined roles and responsibilities for stakeholders and lack of proper forums and terms of references to guide such forums to ensure that all voices are heard.
- Finding 6: There is a lack of stakeholder participation and shared knowledge between stakeholders and the government. There is also a lack of coordination on all levels: the national, provincial and local government departments and a need for improved communication.
- Finding 7: There is a lack of access to sufficient finance to support the smallholder farmers. Budgets are restricted. PPPs can assist the government in improving financial management systems.
- Finding 8: There is a lack of access to timely agri-inputs affected by the procurement process. The government requires attention, and the turnaround process needs to be improved as it affects the planting season resulting in harvest delays.
- Finding 9: Smallholder farmers have limited access to technology, i.e., mechanisation.
- Finding 10: The department is faced with poor coordination and poor alignment with the private sector resulting in 'double-dipping'. The inadequate coordination and collaboration among the stakeholders and department results in working in silos, reducing programme effectiveness.

As stated in the first chapter, the main aim of the study was to identify the challenges that hinder smallholder farmer support by understanding the overall support that the government provides to smallholder farmers, with the intention to explore the DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to address food insecurity. Having established these challenges as summarised above, the study will now

outline feasible recommendations to address the outlined findings.

6.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

The thesis aimed to explore the DALRRD's support to smallholder farmers through public-private partnerships to address issues of food security on a household level. It is imperative to investigate the programmes and partnerships that exist within the DALRRD concerning the support of smallholder farmers. The previous chapter identified challenges that hinder the government from supporting smallholder farmers, and this section will provide recommendations to respond to the challenges. The recommendations form key components for the proposed public-private partnership framework for smallholder farmers. In developing these recommendations, the five chapters that formed part of the study provide the context within which the recommendations are made. The ten key findings will be the primary basis for the proposed recommendations in chronological order.

6.4.1. Proposed public-private partnership framework

Not having clear policies in place creates a challenge in how the government engages with the private sector. Specific structures are required to be put in place, as stated by one of the respondents. South Africa can adopt the development of an institutional framework for the implementation of PPPs. The framework can provide a mechanism in which PPPs can facilitate the implementation to ensure food and nutrition security to all in a coordinated manner. The adoption of specific public-private partnership frameworks in Kenya has allowed for progress in the sector. Kenya created a public-private partnership steering committee with a secretariat responsible for policy development and technical support. The committee is in charge of the development and implementation of public-private partnership policy initiatives. The public-private partnership is domiciliated at the national department responsible for finance, to act as a national centre for public-private partnership expertise. The public-private partnership unit in public entities is responsible for developing and managing public-private partnership projects and support funds to provide an avenue for the government to promote public-private partnership projects. South Africa needs a national food security committee to fend off starvation. A national food security committee is a pivotal element to address food security. South Africa can adopt high-level accountability and coordination structure overseeing food security and

programme implementation to improve food security. The overall aim of developing a public-private partnership framework is in relation to Findings 1 and 2 of the study.

6.4.1.1. The hybrid approach to public-private partnership engagement

Finding 3 emanating from the research indicated that the government's top-down approach to PPPs has not been effective. The top-down approach requires alteration as it is challenging to interrogate an official in a higher position. According to Chapter Two of the study, under the public policymaking process, policy implementation section, the top-down approach can also be referred to as the system or rational model that emphasises hierarchical control within the government structure. With the top-down approach, there is a lack of security that the prescription for effective implementation will be met in reality as a result of oversimplified and unrealistic goals. The development of the second approach, the bottom-up, for the most part, is based on the implementation theories as a critique of the former model. The bottom-up advocates for lower-level management (local implementers) to amend policies to respond to the needs and concerns of their respective communities. The research thus proposes a hybrid approach to public-private partnership engagement to promote equal involvement from both parties in terms of policy formulation and implementation to address the challenges smallholder farmers face. The approach views the process of implementation as bargaining, negotiating and exchanging action with inputs coming from both the top and bottom, which bridges the gap between the different approaches. This shows the importance of practising the hybrid approach in the DALRRD, inclusive of stakeholders, to get a complete picture and align the two sectors. This will be beneficial to avoid duplication and maximise the impact through the maximisation of all resources available to the sector. Public-private partnerships find relevance in implementing the National Food and Nutrition Security Policy in supporting smallholder farmers to contribute to food security.

6.4.1.2. Assessment of current and redefining institutional arrangements.

The 4th key finding highlighted by one of the respondents' is that there have been discussions on how the approach to development support of smallholder farmers should be modified. The approach to the development and support of smallholder farmers should start using the district development model. The MOUs and MOAs are not as effective as they should be; the private sector needs to be involved in the

institutional arrangements. They come up with good ideas, but more effort needs to be directed towards actually engaging them. Institutional arrangements are policies, systems, processes and structures used by organisations to legislate, plan and manage their activities efficiently and coordinate with others to fulfil their mandate effectively. Institutional arrangements can enhance the department's capacity by strengthening systems to increase its effectiveness, impact and achieve its goals and sustainability over time. Institutional arrangements must be clearly outlined. As explained by another respondent, there is a lack of understanding between the two sectors, and expectations do not occur as planned. Formal agreements that clearly outline terms of reference to define purpose scope and expected outcome need to be outlined to deliver the project or programme deliverables effectively. Improving the domestic policy, legal, regulatory and macroeconomics environment is suitable for sustainable economic growth and agricultural partnerships. The rule of law and effective institutions are the bedrock of South Africa's economy.

The research proposes that institutional arrangements for effective project management and implementation should be developed by following the four-pillar guide outlined by International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD). The guide emphasises oversight for policy and strategic guidance. Oversight for mechanisms provides policy and strategic guidance to ensure delivery of the project outcomes and achievement of the objective and goals. The tasks consist of stakeholders providing advice on work plans, budgets, monitoring the quality of the project and providing guidance on changes to the project, including harmonisation and alignment with government priorities and policies, regulatory environment and legislative changes. Project management includes mechanisms being put in place to coordinate budgeting and planning, financial management, procurement work, technical and implementation support, monitoring and evaluation, communication and knowledge management. Coordination mechanisms facilitate interaction both between project stakeholders and partners with other complementary or potentially competing initiatives. Lastly, implementation or delivery arrangements involve structures to govern the delivery of planned project goods and services to beneficiaries or beneficiary groups, with some delivery services handled exclusively by the public sector or public sector contracts delivery of specific services by the private sector or non-state entities (IFAD 2017:7)

6.4.1.3. Strengthening of the food security council to promote smallholder farmers contribute to food security

Finding 5 emphasised that forums are where the private sector and government relations are solidified. However, these relations need to be strengthened. Chapter Four of the study stated that the need for food and nutrition council coordination is not new in South Africa. The chapter identified that both Brazil and Kenya have forums/councils that emphasise stakeholder participation (non-state actors) in their policy framework. The participation includes a solid private sector, local communities, civil society and markets participation in all stages to make food security a collective national responsibility. The policy implementation emphasised strong links between the government and private partnerships referred to as PPPs. In Brazil, the National Council on Food Security was established, which is now dismantled. However, it was a critical player in improving food security in Brazil and removing the country from the hunger map. The council served an essential role in advising the President and the Republic on formulating food security policies and defining guidelines for the country to ensure adequate food for all. A strengthened coordination council or forum is essential. It was explicitly spelt out in the Food Security Policy for South Africa, 1997: A Discussion Document where an interdisciplinary team in government was discussed. South Africa's Integrated Food Security Strategy, 2002, suggested the establishment of an inter-ministerial committee. The ministers who were responsible for food security and nutrition were to provide political leadership, reporting to the Ministers' Social Sector Cluster chaired by the health minister. In efforts to establish such a committee, in 2017, the portfolio committee on agricultural land and rural development reported the formulation and implementation status of the National Food and Nutrition Security Plan 2017-2022. The multi-sectoral FNS Council oversees the alignment of legislations, policies and programmes, as well as the coordination and implementation of programmes and services which address food security. However, the execution has been minimal (Hendriks & Oliver 2020). Hence, the research recommends revisiting the current council and redefining it in line with the council established for Brazil to identify gaps where it can be improved and implemented appropriately to support smallholder farmers adequately.

6.4.1.4. Clearly defined roles and responsibilities for stakeholders

One of the respondent emphasised that unclear roles and responsibilities are one of the biggest challenges the department faces today. If the government and departments cannot define these themselves, it is challenging for the private sector. When the private sector is involved in projects or policies, clearly defined responsibilities are a barrier. Current policies do not clarify the roles and responsibilities. The recommendation is that the National Policy on Food Nutrition Security is reviewed and clearly outline the roles and responsibilities. Before it is approved, the Draft National Policy on Comprehensive Producer Development Support should ensure adequate representation of civil society and stakeholders in the process of policy formulation. The development of terms of reference (TOR) for stakeholders is a recommendation for this study. The TOR must include the duties of the group, or the forum must identify or indicate the composition of the overall numbers of membership. The frequency of meetings should be highlighted in the TOR, which should be signed as a seal of approval. The TOR aim to provide clarity on different responsibilities.

6.4.1.5 Ensure transparency and effective communications

A few respondents reiterated that the lack of coordination between national, provincial and local governments is another challenge. Another respondent emphasised that there is a lack of shared knowledge between non-state stakeholders and the government, which is the 6th finding of the study. A communication strategy is proposed to address the lack of coordination among the departments and stakeholders. A communication strategy conveys objectives, roles and safeguards and key performance targets of the projects. Communication helps to identify conflicts earlier, manage risks and increases success in smallholder farmer programmes. It is therefore essential that information is regularly communicated and updated on one platform where all the stakeholders are able to access the information pertaining to formulation, implementation and approval strategies. The unit should disseminate regular information for all stakeholders to be aware and play an equal role in contributing to smallholder development policies.

6.4.1.6. Increasing funding innovation

The main challenge, which was echoed by the respondents considerably, was the lack of access to sufficient finances, as outlined in finding 7. The research findings from the interview were that financial support is provided based on PFMA. The PFMA has several restrictions and is not economic generating. It reduces spending. The reduction in spending results from the limited budget that smallholder farmers receive due to them not being able to meet the programme's requirements and not accessing funds provided by the government. Increasing funding innovation is being proposed as an element to be considered as part of the public-private partnership framework. PPPs are becoming more widely used for innovation in agriculture to leverage public funds, improve efficiency and enhance the adaption of innovation for the demand for fostering wider and more rapid diffusion. PPPs for innovation for governments are but one policy option, whose advantages and disadvantages need to be compared with other options. Policy and regulatory environments need to be put in place by governments to facilitate public-private partnership development for innovation, including financial systems and intellectual property protection. Programmes are not always specific to food and agricultural systems but applicable to the economy-wide innovative system. The main prerequisite for forming successful PPPs between participants is the existence of common objectives, shared mutual benefits and complementarity of financial and human resources. This is particularly relevant for agricultural innovation.

6.4.1.7. Improved procurement process

From the findings, the government adheres to procurement processes and promotes open and effective competition. Finding 8 indicates that there needs to be an improvement in the turnaround time when selecting a tender. The hindrance that exists as a process a public official needs to follow to acquire sourcing of quotations is lengthy. A public official must obtain three quotations through advertising the tender for a month there after it is awarded. The process can result in harvest, with the aftermath of negatively impacting food security on a household level due to the delays. Annual and strategic performance plans which are not well-thought through could ultimately compromise procurement planning and implementation and could negatively impact the delivery of services and goods. The first recommendation is the review of the current procurement processes. The second recommendation, to

improve the procurement process, is the processes being more streamlined and putting farmers needs first to avoid delays in planting and harvesting season.

6.4.1.8. Public-private partnerships support to promote mechanisation

Finding 9 highlighted that farmers have limited access to technology. A respondent stated that farmers are not entrepreneurs. One needs to start giving them production pools, getting tractors and then identifying markets for the produce, which results in them being inactive in their projects. Furthermore, another limitation to planting on time, as one of the respondents stated, is limited mechanisation. The department (DALRRD) purchased tractors for the farmers. However, they cannot cater to all smallholder farmers simultaneously, resulting in farmers not being able to plant during suitable conditions and starting the planting season late. This results in farmers not getting the expected yields. The National Policy on Comprehensive Producer Development Support Draft 5 version 3 reiterates that there is limited access to proper machineries such as tractors, timber, harvesters and irrigation schemes, reducing productivity. Therefore, it is critical that such support services are provided to meet the governmental objectives. The recommendation will be that public-private partnership involvement would increase access to machinery. Machinery can be very costly, and dividing the responsibility between the two sectors would assist in making the department deliver on its objectives more efficiently and effectively.

6.4.1.9. Promote collaboration and coordination

The final finding highlighted that there is poor collaboration and coordination. Proper coordination, alignment, or properly having the government departments and private sector working together could avoid misalignment of programmes. One of the respondents highlighted that there is a lack of proper coordination of public-private partnerships. In most cases, the public sector works in silos creating confusion in programme implementation. It is essential to highlight that factors that impact food security necessitate the collaboration and coordination of differences, i.e., PPPs. Further, the NDP for 2030 makes multiple statements that resonate with literature internationally in assessing what it would take to eliminate food insecurity. The NDP, therefore, deems it necessary to have entities engagement within the food system along with multiple linkages throughout the various sectors and governmental departments. Thus, the NDP's suggestions call for collaboration and coordination with

the government and civil society and private sectors. This necessitated acquiring primary data from the department as the study explores PPPs framework to promote smallholder farmers, which expands to contributing to food security. The findings from interviewees in terms of PPPs' effectiveness acknowledge that there is a need for PPPs to enhance smallholder support. From the responses, PPPs bring a different perspective to the government and provide an international perspective based on their experiences. The private sector contributions can bring about change not only to the technical aspect but the developmental side as well. Therefore, the study proposes a need development of a public-private partnership framework that is focused on promoting coordination and collaboration between the public sector and the private sector, civil societies and NGOs.

6.5. KEY COMPONENTS OF A PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP FRAMEWORK

The main research objective of the study was to propose a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers to promote food security. The fifth chapter of the study identified and described key challenges and limitations to the support of smallholder farmers. This section provides components to be considered by the department when developing a public-private partnership framework, as illustrated in figure 6.1 below. The framework is proposed based on the key findings and recommendations discussed in the previous section of this chapter.

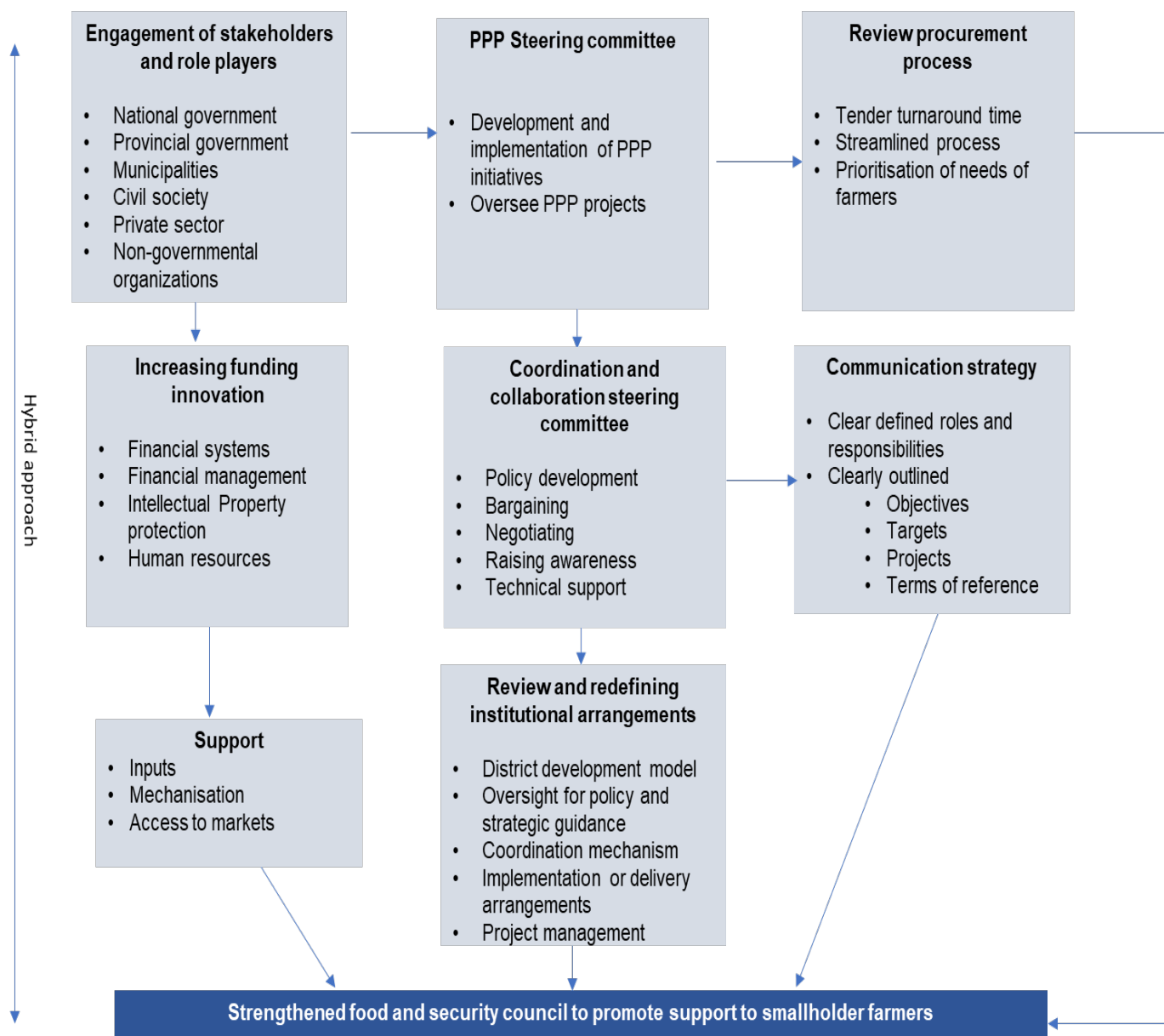


Figure 6.1: Proposed components of a public-private partnership framework

Source: Author

6.6. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Although the study attempted to be in-depth, there are areas of the subject that are still to be researched. The Smallholder Development Directorate officers informed the study on a national level. There is a need for research to be conducted with employees from a departmental level narrowed down to specific provinces. A study encompassing these will assist in providing an in-depth understanding of PPPs and their effectiveness in promoting smallholder farmers to address food security challenges.

The study was also limited to one unit in the department, i.e., Smallholder Development Directorate. A comparative study must be conducted with different directorates, such as the directorate of intergovernmental relations and stakeholder relations, to obtain different perspectives on the public-private partnership framework in association with supporting smallholder farmers to promote food security. The study recommends that future research focus on how these two directorates engage with each other and with NGOs to support smallholder farmers to promote food security.

6.7. CONCLUSION

Food access is a constitutional right entrenched in the Bill of Rights of the Constitution Republic of South Africa, 1996. Agriculture plays an essential role in contributing to the right as it increases the production of food. 11.5% of households are experiencing inadequate access to food. Food access is one of the pillars of food security. Food security is multisectoral and requires a multisectoral approach to the policy framework. This dissertation focused on developing a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers in South Africa. It investigated the programmes and partnerships that exist within the DALRRD concerning the support of smallholder farmers. As highlighted in Chapter One, the fundamental purpose of the study was to explore the DALRRD support to smallholder farmers through PPPs to address food security issues on a household level. The guiding research question was

How does the DALRRD promote the framework of a public-private partnership to support smallholder farmers' contributions to food security?

The research question allowed the researcher to acquire insightful data to inform the study and provided the study's primary objectives. The institutional arrangements in the IFSS, the National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security Policy, CASP, Fetsa Tlala Production Initiative, Household Food and Nutrition Strategy and Ilima/Letsema were highlighted.

The study's key findings indicated that a public-private partnership framework needs to be developed that focuses on smallholder farmers to promote food security. Hence, Chapter Six proposed key elements to be considered for the framework. The literature provided evidence that despite efforts being made by the government and there being various policy measures in place, those policies need to be revisited to accommodate

the public-private partnership framework more clearly. Literature also revealed that there are indeed several existing programmes and strategies in place to support smallholder farmers in South Africa. However, there is still a gap regarding planning and implementation of the existing models, particularly regarding collaboration and coordination, limited access to adequate resources, limited participation of stakeholders and unclear roles and responsibilities. Coordination and collaboration among the sectors can play a pivotal role in transforming food security. It will allow for more resources to be directed to a programme to avoid waste and encourage efforts towards promoting food security.

This chapter made recommendations based on understanding the root causes of the challenges affecting the support of smallholder farmers to promote food security. The recommendations mainly focused on the department engagement with other sectors. The focal point was to explore how PPPs can increase the support provided to the smallholder farmers in South Africa. PPPs can foster economic development and transformation of the agricultural sector. This study emphasised their importance to meet the National Development Plan vision 2030 of eliminating poverty and reducing inequality by 2030. The realisation of these goals by South Africa can be achieved by relying on the energies of its people, growing a sustainable economy, enhancing the capacity of the state, building capabilities and encouraging leadership and partnerships throughout society.

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Annexure A: Informed consent form

Title of the Study

The development of a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmers in South Africa

Research conducted by:

Miss RM Nyabvudzi

Student Number: 12026779

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Rumbidzai Michelle Nyabvudzi, a Masters' in Public Management and Policy student from the School of Public Management and Administration at the University of Pretoria. The purpose of the study is to explore How the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform, and Rural Development (DALRRD) promote a public-private partnerships framework to support smallholder farmers' contributions to food security in South Africa.

Please note the following:

- The study will make use of a structured interview method. The interviews will be audio-recorded as they will be transcribed once the research is complete, the recordings will be destroyed. The responses from the interview will be anonymous as your name will not appear on the questionnaire. The answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate, and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 60 minutes of your time.

- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.

Please contact by study leader (Dr Mapula Nkwana at 012 420 2051, or Mapula.nkwana@up.ac.za) if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understood the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis

**Participant's
Signature**

Date

Annexure B: Interview schedule

Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development

Smallholder Development Unit

1. What are support mechanisms in place within the DALRRD to support smallholder farmers development?
2. What mechanisms are available to ensure smallholder farmer programme development is sustainable?
3. What are the current challenges the DALRRD is facing in supporting smallholder development sector programmes?
4. To counter the impending challenges, what mechanisms have been identified and put in place to promote smallholder farmer development?
5. What strategies are available within DALRRD to strengthen public-private partnerships/relations?
6. Public-private partnerships have been said to be effective in addressing the needs of the public, in this instance, food security challenges in South Africa. In your opinion, do you think there is a need to have public-private partnerships within the agricultural sector directed towards smallholder development?
7. In your opinion, has the DALRRD support to smallholder farmers its own entity been sufficient to contribute to food security?
8. In your opinion, are public-private partnerships an effective mechanism to promote smallholder farmer development and enhanced food security?
9. How do you think DALRRD relations with private sector entities should be organised if they were to be effective in supporting smallholder farmers?
10. What is the role of DALRRD in strengthening the existing relationships with public agencies to enhance support to smallholder farmers?
11. Does the DALRRD have the capacity to manage smallholder farmer development PPPs projects?
12. What are the key challenges the DALRRD face when it comes to collaborating with different partners within the private sector?

Policy/Programme implementation

13. What is the guiding policy framework for promoting food security? And through smallholder farmers?
14. What framework promotes a public-private partnership framework to support smallholder farmer development?

15. Does the DALRRD have a regulatory framework in place for governing public-private partnerships?
16. What procedures are adhered to when it comes to implementing programmes that support smallholder development?
17. At the implementation, levels are the roles and responsibilities of the partnerships and DALRRD clearly defined?
18. What are the barriers to programme implementation experience in the DALRRD?
19. What strategic plans exist within the DALRRD to overcome barriers to effective programme implementation?
20. What recommendations can you make to improve the implementation of the current and future PPPs?

Monitoring and Evaluation

21. How does the DALRRD monitor and evaluate their partnerships to contribute to the effectiveness of project delivery?
22. Are there challenges when it comes to cost management in public-private partnership projects? If yes, explain.
23. How could management of costs strategically improve service delivery through monitoring and evaluating public-private partnership projects?
24. How is poor performance in project delivery through public-partnerships addressed after monitoring and evaluation are conducted? What are the next steps given there is a contractual agreement to guarantee the partnership?

Closing Remarks

25. Are there alternative support mechanisms that you consider more sustainable to support smallholder farmers and contribute to food security?
26. What recommendations can you make to improve the implementation of current and future PPPs and programmes supporting smallholder development?

Thank you for your cooperation