

THE IMPACT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS ON THE
EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN IN THE MALAMULELE AREA OF THE
THULAMELA LOCAL MUNICIPALITY IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE

by

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Mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree of

MASTERS OF DEVELOPMENT

in the

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF LEADERSHIP, FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AND LAW

at the

University of Limpopo, Turfloop Campus

South Africa

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December 2012

DECLARATION

I declare that this is my own original work, and that all the sources are quoted and acknowledged by means of references. The mini-dissertation has never been submitted to any other University, University of Technology or College.

Signature:

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the impact of community development projects (CDPs) on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality in Limpopo Province. The study investigates whether the implementation of CDPs really changes the living conditions of women or whether it is merely a smokescreen to cover the failure of the government to provide decent jobs for people who are living in absolute poverty. The aim of the study, however, is to assess the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment. The objectives of the study that were derived from the main aim include identifying the types of projects, and their impact on women and men. The findings of the study would contribute to social science knowledge and would also help to develop new strategies that could be used to solve problems of poverty. Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were used in this study. The population of the study were projects in which both women and men were involved. However, more women were selected from sampled projects because the aim of the study was to investigate the impact of CDPs on women. Stratified random sampling was used to select respondents in order to ensure that all strata were represented in the sample. The findings of the study suggest that CDPs improve decision-making capacity, the acquisition of assets and skills, and create job opportunities for women. It is, therefore, recommended that development planners consider increased funding in order to implement more projects in the area as these are the tools through which women in rural communities can eradicate poverty.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to Dr T. Moyo for her personal advice, encouragement and academic support. I also want to thank Diana Coetzee for editing my research report.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this mini-dissertation to my wife, Victoria, my mother, Tsatsawani N'wa-Phahlela, and my children, Glen, Lorna and Munene. Thank you for your unwavering support during hard times.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ABET	:	Adult Basic Education and Training
AIDS	:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

ANC	:	African National Congress
CBO	:	community-based organisation
CBPWP	:	Community-Based Public Works Programme
CDD	:	Community-driven development
CDP	:	Community Development Project
COSATU	:	Congress of South African Trade Unions
CRDP	:	Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
DAWN	:	Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era
EPWP	:	Expanded Public Works Programme
FAO	:	Food and Agriculture Organization
GAD	:	gender and development
GEAR	:	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
GID	:	Gender in Development
GNU	:	Government of National Unity
HIV	:	human immunodeficiency virus
IDP	:	Integrated Development Planning
IDS	:	Institute of Development Studies
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
ISRDS	:	Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy
KNP	:	Kruger National Park
LED	:	Local Economic Development
LRPP	:	Land Reform Pilot Project
MDEV	:	Masters of Development
NGO	:	non-governmental organisation
NPWP	:	National Public Works Programme
NURCHA	:	National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency
OECD	:	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development.
PSC	:	Public Service Commission
RDP	:	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RSA	:	Republic of South Africa
SACP	:	South African Communist Party
SAIRR	:	South African Institute of Race Relations
SAPs	:	Structural Adjustments Programmes
SIDA	:	Swedish International Development Aid
TGSL	:	Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership
UN	:	United Nations
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
US	:	United States
USAID	:	United States Agency for International Development
WCED	:	World Commission on Economic Development
WID	:	women in development

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and background

One of the most disturbing features of South African history is the notorious ways in which whites used political and economic power at their disposal to deprive people of African origin of reasonable opportunities for social, economic and entrepreneurial development (Terreblanche 2003:396). Terreblanche (2003:397) shows that Africans were not only deprived of the opportunities to own farms, dwellings and other tangible property, but they were also not allowed to own the kind of property that could protect them against the impoverishing effects of inflation. It is clear that political and economic power was abused for the benefit of the minority group who lived in lavish style at the expense of the majority who lived in abject poverty (Mathole 2005:1). Mathole (2005:1) indicates that the misuse of power led to the creation of a nation that showed extreme disparities in terms of how wealth was distributed among the population. It is, therefore, obvious that the unequal distribution of wealth, as Terreblanche (2003:397) and Mathole (2005:1) argued, led to a widening gap between the rich and the poor.

Poverty became a serious problem for Africans in general and black women in particular (Mathole 2005:1; Terreblanche 2003:396–397). Joseph (2002:10) points out that poverty had been systematically, socially and politically engineered by the previous regimes, and it was mostly well located in the rural areas where the infrastructural development was poor or, at most, lacking. According to South Africa's National Policy on Women Empowerment and Gender Equality (2007:11), 'poverty was found to be concentrated in rural areas among black people'. As shown by Mathole (2005:1), the majority of those who made up the constituency of the poor were women in the rural areas. Poverty, according to Joseph (2002:10), affected women in South Africa in general and black women in particular who have been on the bottom rung in terms of participation in economic, social and political life. The reason why black women were stuck right at the bottom of the ladder was that during the so-called apartheid era there was little or no recognition at all of human rights, which included commitment to democratic participation and the recognition of women empowerment by the then South African regime (Joseph 2002:11). Mathole (2005:2) shows that it was those ordinary people who were neglected, marginalized and confined to rural areas, and they were the very same people who were feeling the actual pain, inconvenience, shame and prejudice of poverty. Mathole (2005:2) argued that 'poverty was not only an issue for political, social, economic and theological debate and reflection, but it was about real people who were desperate to improve

their livelihood because the situation that they found themselves in was inhumane'. The National Policy on Women Empowerment and Gender Equality (2007:11) stresses that the problem of poverty was compounded by the fact that women's multiple roles as farmers, mothers and home-makers put extra burdens on them.

A clear background on how women were affected by the socially constituted stereotypes and how past regimes looked into the issues of women will be discussed below, taking into account their marginalization, poverty, economic progress and social exclusion.

1.1.1 Marginalization of women

As pointed out by the National Policy on Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (2007:2), women in South Africa's history of institutionalized racism were the most oppressed group of the population because discrimination in the various racial groupings was determined by gender designation. The National Gender Framework stipulated that socio-cultural dictates of all groups defined women as being inferior to men and, as such, they were assigned to occupy lower positions in both the public and the private spheres of life (p. 3). According to Ntomb' futhi Zondo (cited in Kongolo & Bamgose 2002:81), 'women in the African tradition were marginalized because their culture prescribed their roles as less important than the ones played by men'. The 1994 African Common Position on Human and Social Development Forum (cited in Kongolo & Bamgose 2002:81) highlighted the fact that women were described as 'part of the marginalized, vulnerable sections of the population and they were grouped in the same league as children, the youth, the elderly and the disabled'. Joseph (2002:13) shows that 'the traditional view of women as minors was also legislated under section 11.3 of the Black Administration Act 38 of 1927, which considered women in customary marriages as minors in the eyes of the law'. The effects of such legislation were that 'restrictions were placed on the ability of women to own property, access credit, enter into contracts, and to bring legal actions, and their mobility was highly restricted' (p. 13). Coetzee *et al.* (2001:169) point out that the Women's Charter in South Africa recognizes that women's subordination stemmed, not only from one source but from many sources, such as, patriarchy, customs tradition, colonialism, racism and apartheid. According to the African National Congress (ANC) (2012:2), discrimination against women was legally practised until it was abolished in 1994 after the dawning of the first democratic government.

1.1.2 Poverty among women

As already indicated (Joseoh 2002:10), poverty was a major problem in South Africa. Poverty among women was systematically and socially engineered because women were made to reside in rural areas where there was an underdevelopment of infrastructure (p.10). The apartheid laws, coupled with repressive customs and traditions, disempowered women in ways that will take generations to reverse (p.10). Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:81) explain that women in rural areas do all sorts of work, among others, proper transportation and storage of food, and processing, including tasks such as drying, winnowing, peeling, grating, sieving and pounding, yet they are not credited for their efforts in terms of accessing financial services which makes them even poorer. Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:81) argue that 'the efforts made by women to try to stabilize their families and contribute towards food security are not recognized by both men and those that are in authority, and this has created abject poverty among rural women'.

1.1.3 Women and economic progress

Oberhauser (2012:1) indicates that economic livelihood at both household and national level is a key aspect of global development. Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:82) argue that 'women make a significant contribution to the economic production of their communities and assume primary responsibility for the health of their families which leads to global development'. The authors point out that 'women's active participation is crucial for meeting development goals' (p. 82). They argue that without the involvement of women there will be no societal transformation (p. 82). Despite rural women's best efforts to contribute towards economic progress, 'local governments have shown a lack of political will and sustained commitment to meeting the economic needs and interests of these women' (p. 82). According to the ANC (2012:8), the government has endorsed a number of pieces of legislation to create an enabling environment for women and to improve their participation in economic-generating activities in the economy since 1994 but the rate of unemployment continues to increase, which shows a lack of political will on the part of government officials to implement the decisions of the government. Oberhauser (2012:6) maintains that 'it does not make sense to exclude women from economic participation since their inclusion in development efforts leads to economic advancement of all members of society which, in turn, directly leads to gender equity'. Bankole and Eboiyehi (2003:102) believe that social exclusion, deprivation and marginalization of women also undermine the social cohesion of the society.

1.1.4 Social exclusion of women

According to the European Foundation (cited in Allen & Thomas 2000:14), *social exclusion* refers to 'the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live'. Oberhauser (2012:3) points out that 'livelihoods involve social relations in the household and community, hence gender plays a role in these activities as well as access to, and control over, resources; in other words, the exclusion of women leaves a gap in terms of creating social relationships, which is needed for sustainable development'. The government should not abandon women if it really wants to transform society from social ills and their manifestations.

According to Visser (2004:3), the creation of a state department of Social Welfare in 1937 signalled a conscious state decision to become more involved in welfare programmes so as to transform society. However, the problem with that decision was that the services were directed towards whites, who received more services and a higher standard of service than any other population group; in other words, black women were excluded from that kind of arrangement. The apartheid regime introduced a separate welfare service (p. 4). The 'separation of welfare services according to race groups served to perpetuate and entrench discrimination in terms of the quality of services' (p. 4). Meyer (2000:3) claims that 'with the ANC's victory in the 1994 national election, the South African Communist Party (SACP) and the congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) saw its victory as a stepping stone for the introduction of socialism in order to reverse what they thought was unfair'. Meyer (2000:3) maintains that the ANC surprised its alliance partners by discarding socialism and opting for capitalism. He argues that the ideology that the ANC followed did not even partly yield the desired results because there was friction between the ANC and its alliance partners. The ANC intended to reverse what it thought was not correct but it came up against many implementation challenges. The ANC (2012:9) points out that South Africa's social security system, for example, currently offers no form of income to indigent people between the ages of 17 and 60 years unless they have a disability, and this has also hindered the social progress of women. Some of the challenges raised are socially constituted, for example, in a number of societies, according to Oberhauser (2012:3), women cannot own property, and their access to capital and other assets is restricted. The traditional belief of many African societies compounded the problem which the ANC thought it would address quickly (ANC 2012:9). However, the ANC argues strongly that the fact that many women have to live off someone else has a number of negative social consequences, including 'the loss of independence, dignity and being forced to remain in abusive relationships' (p. 9).

As pointed out by Terreblanche (2003:397), the start of the new dispensation in 1994 came as a huge relief to millions of South Africa's poorest population, particularly women of African origin who experienced a number of challenges as raised above. For the very first time they were regarded as normal human beings with feelings, hopes and aspirations by the newly elected government (p. 397). The author argues that 'human rights for the disadvantaged groups in general and women in particular were restored' (p. 397). It was not surprising that the newly elected ANC-led Government of National Unity (GNU) adopted rural development as a 'multifaceted attempt aimed at improving the provision of services and infrastructure (Motebang 2005:2). Hirway (1990:126) maintains that rural development strategies are aimed at maximizing production by tapping the growth potential in rural areas in such a way that equal distribution of wealth benefits all. Motebang (2005:3) points out that approaches to rural development comprised community development; integrated rural development strategy; basic needs and participation. According to Motebang (2005:4), Rural Development Policy Framework was developed and, included the following strategies, namely (i) Rural Development Programme (RDP), (ii) Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), (iii) Rural Development Strategy 1995, (iv) Rural Development Framework 1997, and (v) Rural Development Initiative. The RDP was adopted as one of the policies to deal with challenges created by the apartheid regime (Terreblanche 2003:89). Terreblanche (1999:2) maintains that the good thing about the RDP was that it was people-orientated, that is, it was community-based and driven.

According to Marais (2001:89), 'the RDP was adopted because it was a reference point that seemed to confirm and remind the ANC of the political-history continuity of the Freedom Charter and the realities of post-apartheid South Africa'. Within a short space of time, the RDP, according to Visser (2004:7), had managed to achieve remarkable progress in terms of social security. Marais (2001:190) indicates that the RDP also managed to provide pregnant women and small children with health care programmes, and primary school children with nutrition. However, the challenges of unemployment were not addressed and the ANC-led government had to conduct its own introspection and, as a result, it abandoned the RDP in 1996 and adopted the GEAR strategy as a macroeconomic policy (Visser 2004:7). The RDP experienced challenges because RDP staff lacked the capacity to implement the programme and, as such, huge backlogs in providing access to basic services occurred (p.7). Terreblanche (1999:4) believes that the most important reason for the failure of the RDP was that 'the government was too soft, too hesitant and in the end avoided making critical choices about RDP priorities'. Besides the challenges raised above, Meyer (2000:2) argues that the RDP failed because 'there was a legacy of inequitable distribution of resources, and corrupt and inefficient practices in certain areas with which the government was not willing to deal'.

Agupasi's (2008:6) point of view is that the failure of the RDP, besides the challenges raised above, was because the ANC leadership did not have the political will to implement the RDP as the targets were seen to be unrealistic.

However, GEAR also did not live up to its expectations because job opportunities were destroyed due to a shrinking economy (Visser 2004:10). The challenge with GEAR was that labour-saving technologies were introduced to save costs and, as a result, the unemployment rate increased among the employable population (Visser 2004:10). In 2004, during its election campaign, the ANC realized that the majority of people were no longer employed and that poverty had risen by an alarming rate. Former President Thabo Mbeki then launched the first Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in a rural area of Limpopo with the intention of reducing poverty among the population in general and women in particular (Visser 2004:13). The issue of CDPs was revived by launching the EPWP so that people could do things on their own and, by so doing, job opportunities would be created.

Meyer (2000:4) argued that in terms of policy rhetoric, the ANC still regarded the RDP as a top priority and, claimed that GEAR was not a substitute for the RDP. Meyer points out that the Deputy President of the ANC-led government, Thabo Mbeki, emphasized in parliament on 16 June 1996 that the GEAR strategy was an elaboration of the RDP, not its substitute. The rhetoric was uttered in the context that GEAR was not formulated as a product of the Tripartite Alliance and that COSATU and the SACP had not been properly consulted, which generated internal friction (p. 5).

1.2 Problem statement

The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) advocated the promotion of community development programmes as a way to deal with the problem of poverty in South Africa (Terreblanche 2003:89). As such, the RDP Office was established and located in the Office of the President to show how important it was for the country to eradicate poverty (Visser 2004:7). It was within this context that the *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) encouraged the three spheres of government; the private sector in the form of business and non-governmental organizations (NGOs); and individuals to play a meaningful role in assisting the government in dealing with the problem of poverty. A number of strategies were designed to assist the rural population. The contributions by individuals, government and the private sector play an important role in combating poverty. Akpabio (2007:1361) points out that NGOs play a critical role in the emancipation of women and in ensuring that women participate in the development

process. The government also introduced a number of strategies such as the provincial growth and development strategies, local economic development (LED) strategy, rural development programmes, integrated rural development strategy, and Integrated Development Planning (IDP) which were aimed at assisting communities with participating in development projects (Motebang 2005:7). The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDS), for example, was designed 'to realize a vision that would attain socially cohesive and stable rural communities with viable institutions, sustainable economies and universal access to social amenities, able to attract and retain skilled and knowledgeable people who were equipped to contribute to growth and development' (p.7). The ISRDS was launched in 2001 (p.3). It was introduced as 'a creative and ambitious attempt to address institutional weaknesses, deepen the impact of service delivery and bolster local capacity for participation' (p.6).

Rogerson (2011:149) refers to an LED as 'a process in which public business, and NGOs, work collectively to create better conditions for economic growth and employment generation'. The purpose of the LED was to build up the economic capacity of a local area to improve its economic future and the quality of life for all (p.149). However, the LED strategy that the government introduced was 'a relevant public policy in South Africa but, it failed to yield the intended results' (p.149). On the contrary, the LED practice increased geographical inequalities in economic activities and social development across the country since the national government 'failed to assume a greater leadership role to establish clear LED guidelines to assist poorly capacitated local authorities to facilitate LED activities' (p. 149).

On 17 August 2009 the government also launched the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP), which falls under rural development programmes in the Muxeye village in the Greater Giyani Municipality. At the launch, President Jacob Zuma indicated that the government had taken a decision to include rural development and land reform as one of the five key priorities for his administration in order to change the face of rural areas. President Zuma indicated in his keynote address that the CRDP strategy was designed to link land and agrarian reform and food security. He went on to indicate that the CRDP was a national collective strategy to fight poverty, hunger, unemployment and lack of development in rural areas. He emphasized the fact that a critical part of the rural development strategy was to stimulate agricultural production with a view to contributing to food security.

In trying to deal decisively with the problem of poverty, CDPs were also introduced in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality as part of the RDP. The objectives of introducing these projects were, among others, 'to empower women who had been

disadvantaged and impoverished not just due to past discriminatory policies, but also due to discrimination based on sex, negative cultural attitudes and beliefs; and exclusion from the mainstream economy' (Terreblanche 2003:396). The challenge that arises is to determine to what extent the projects are really achieving what they are intended for. The questions that can be asked about the CDPs include the following: is it a legitimating exercise for top-down implementation of what the government has decided for the people, is it a transformative exercise or is it a genuine attempt to give people in general, and women in particular, more power of control over their own lives? According to Roodt (2001:480), 'the failure rate of participatory initiatives is so high around the world, and Africa in particular, what makes South Africa different enough, if anything, to ensure its success here'. This assessment of the impact of CDPs on women will assist in trying to give an indication of whether these projects are attaining their goals. The current study, therefore, set out to investigate whether these projects had in fact changed women's social, economic and political position in society or whether they were simply used as a smokescreen to cover up the failure of the ANC-led government to address the fundamental causes of poverty; in other words, this study examines whether the promotion of CDPs is aimed at eradicating poverty among women or is an acknowledgement by the government that it is not able to provide decent jobs to the employable population in general and women in particular, in order to deal decisively with the problem of poverty.

1.3. Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to assess the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele cluster of the Thulamela Municipality of the Vhembe District Municipality in Limpopo Province.

1.4. Objectives

The main objectives of the study are to

- (a) identify the types of projects that are being implemented in the area and also to examine the nature of women's participation in CDPs in the cluster;
- (b) examine the power relations/dynamics between men and women;
- (c) examine the amount of time respondents invest in the CDPs;
- (d) evaluate the perception of respondents on the empowerment of women through CDPs;
- (e) assess the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women in terms of income generation, job creation and asset acquisition;

- (f) establish factors that promote or hinder women empowerment; and
- (g) make appropriate policy and strategic recommendations as may be necessary.

1.5 Research questions

- (a) What types of CDPs are being implemented in the cluster and what is the nature of women's participation in CDPs?
- (b) What are the power relations/dynamics between men and women in the projects?
- (c) How much time do respondents invest in running the projects?
- (d) What are the perceptions of respondents on the empowerment of women through CDPs?
- (e) What impact are projects making on the empowerment of women in terms of income generation, job creation and asset acquisition?
- (f) What are the factors that promote or hinder development?
- (g) What further actions are necessary to enhance the impact of the CDPs on empowering women?

1.6 Significance of the study

The importance of this study is to contribute to social science knowledge and to the improvement of the living conditions of people in general and women in particular. The study, therefore, intends to investigate the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele area so that the findings could be used by different stakeholders involved in development to accelerate the empowerment of women. The findings of the study are likely to provide individuals, groups, planners, policy-makers, developers, project staff and other interested parties with an understanding of how CDPs impact on women in order to improve their living conditions or to improve policies related to women empowerment. It is assumed that if the impact of CDPs on women is not investigated and analysed, it is likely to cause a dilemma among development practitioners as to whether the implementation of CDPs has any significance in trying to improve the living conditions of women. The research findings will help to determine the viability of CDPs in trying to reduce poverty among women in a cost-effective manner. As already indicated above, the research findings will also assist the population in general and women in particular to better understand their roles and needs in society. The findings will not only be limited to what has already been said, but they will also serve as a basis for further research on the impact of CDPs on women empowerment in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality.

1.7 Operational definitions

1.7.1 Poverty

Bankole and Eboiyehi (2003:95) maintain that 'scholars are unanimous in the opinion that a concise and universally accepted definition of poverty is elusive, largely because it affects many aspects of the human conditions, including physical, moral and psychological'. The controversy is compounded by the fact that poverty has different meanings from community to community and, from culture to culture (Sithole 2008:81). However, De Santa (cited in Mathole 2005:7) defines *poverty* as 'the unfulfilment of the basic human needs required to adequately sustain life free from disease, misery, hunger, pain, suffering, hopelessness and fear, on the one hand, and the condition of the defenceless people, suffering from structural injustice on the other'. As shown by Mathole (2005:7), poverty is 'a condition where people experience lack of basic resources and services that are critical for their survival as human beings'. However, Tshuma (2012:4010) argues that even though there is some consensus on the definition of poverty, the concept 'remains a greatly contested domain because its definition transcends economic description and analyses'. Tshuma (2012:4010) argues that the concept cannot be defined in simplistic terms because it is a relative concept. Bankole and Eboiyehi (2003:95) believe that most definitions followed the conventional view of poverty as a result of insufficient income for securing goods and services while others view it, in part, as a function of education, health, life expectancy, child mortality rate, among others. However, Tshuma (2012:4010) notes that in the definition of poverty consensus has been reached on issues such as 'having access to a far wider range of resources than those necessary for mere survival'. Tshuma (2012:4010) points out that 'any definition that does not include issues agreed upon by development theorists and researchers needs to be refined'.

1.7.2 Empowerment

Empowerment is one of the most complex concepts in social science and it has been the subject of much intellectual discourse and analysis because of its multiple definitions (Kay 2002:69). As Tasli (2007:33) shows, the term *empowerment* is not only difficult to define and conceptualize, it is also difficult to measure. The term *empowerment* is 'rooted in power' (p. 33). Tasli (2007:33) maintains that the term *power* is 'a multi-dimensional concept with different and sometimes contradictory meanings'. For Swanepoel and de Beer (2006:29), the challenge of how to define this concept is also brought about by the fact that people tend to use it very loosely while, in essence, it refers to political power. These authors explain that teaching somebody to acquire a particular skill is often regarded as empowerment which,

strictly speaking, it is not (p. 29). The concept *empowerment* often brings up more questions than answers because of its complexity. Despite this, many researchers and theorists in development practice use the concept widely. Narayan (2005:1) argues that what makes this concept so complex is the fact that 'society has local concepts for autonomy, self-confidence, self-direction and self-worth, which do not have exactly the same connotation'. Tasli (2007:33) believes that the meaning of empowerment 'depends on context and interpretation of each society'. Brown (2010:15) argues that 'the controversy surrounding the issue of defining empowerment emanates from the fact that it is a relational concept'. However, The World Bank (2002:10) sums up the controversy by indicating that indeed, the term *empowerment* 'has different meanings in different socio-cultural and political contexts, and does not translate easily into all languages'. For the purposes of this study, most of the definitions will be accepted. However, the one that is going to be used most frequently is that of the World Bank (2002:10) which states that 'empowerment is expansion of assets and capabilities of people to participate in, negotiate with, influence, control and hold accountable institutions that affect their lives'.

1.7.3 Community development

According to Swanepoel and de Beer (2006:36), community development is 'not an action of an individual or of a few individuals but it is defined as a collective effort of a group of people sharing a mutual problem, need, sentiment or concern, acting together and in concert, and sharing a certain responsibility for the action'. The Tenth International Conference of Social Work held in 1958 (cited in Roodt 2001:470) defined *community development* as 'the conscious process wherein small, geographically contiguous communities are assisted to achieve improved standards of social and economic life'. This is done 'primarily through their own local efforts and through local community participation at all stages of goal selection, mobilization of resources, and execution of projects, thus enabling these communities to become increasingly self-reliant' (p. 470). Mubangizi (2008:278), however, offers a number of options for defining community development. Mubangizi believes that community development

involves working with local people, especially grassroots communities to give them an opportunity to air their views about what the public planners and decision-makers have in mind for them; to give them control over what happens in their community; to make them believe that even though they are poor and feel disempowered, they have rights –it is about community ownership, self-determination and social justice. (P. 278.)

In conclusion, Woodward (cited in Sithole 2008:85) believes that community development is not about the so-called 'experts' imposing solutions but, assisting communities in making informed decisions.

1.7.4 Gender

According to Østergaard (1992:6), *gender* refers to 'the qualitative and interdependent character of women's and men's position in society'. It is clear that the definition of the concept is also complex because many researchers do not define it in the same manner. Moser (1993:230), for example, differentiated between *gender* and *sex*. In Moser's definition, *sex* refers to 'the biological differences between men and women, while *gender* does not refer to men or women but to the relationship between them, and the way this is socially constructed' (p. 230). The complexity of the concept has generated many definitions, for example, Beasley (2005:11) and Akpotor (2009:2506) argue that the concept of gender 'typically refers to the social process of dividing up people and social practices along the lines of sexed identities'. However, none of these definitions defines the concept from the same perspective, which shows that it is multi-dimensional. However, the current study will adopt the concept as defined by the three researchers but slightly leaning towards the one by Moser.

1.7.5 Development

According to Todaro and Smith (2009:16), development is 'a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and eradication of poverty among people in general'. Development is a multifaceted and a relative concept with multiple definitions (p.16). The term *development* may mean different things to different people, and 'what is seen to be development in the eyes of external agencies may not necessarily be viewed in the same light as the beneficiaries' (p. 14). It is, therefore, suggested that development is defined in many ways, for example, the Human Development Report of the United Nations (cited in Gergis 1998:3) states that 'development must be woven around people and not people around development—and it should empower individuals and groups rather than dis-empower them'. However, Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:79) define the term *development* as 'a process by which people are awakened to opportunities within their reach, and indicate that development starts with people and progresses through them and, as a result, women should be involved in ongoing development initiatives'. The paradigm shift in development thinking has been brought about by the fact that despite decades of

development assistance accompanied by growth in some instances, the number of people who are in abject poverty continues to increase (Luyt 2008:1; Østergaard 1992:1).

However, none of the definitions offers an all-encompassing definition that can be embraced by all development theorists and researchers. It is clear that the concept refers to a complex issue. Nevertheless, the current study adopts Todaro and Smith's definition, which forms the basis for the entire research project.

1.7.5.1 Community-based development

Community-based development is a general term for 'projects that actively include beneficiaries in their design and management' (Mansuri & RaO 2004:1).

1.7.5.2 Community-driven development

Mansuri and RaO (2004:1) refer to *community-driven development* (CDD) as community-based projects in which communities have direct control over major project decisions, including planning and the management of investment funds. Everatt and Gwagwa (2005:1) agree that CDD refers to 'a set of practices that, generally speaking, seek to give control of decisions and resources to community groups'. The authors emphasize the fact that CDD relies on communities having the space and resources to generate and pursue its own ideas and goals (pp.1-2).

1.7.5.3 Social development

Weyers (1997:50) defines *social development* as 'a process of a planned change that must be undertaken jointly by government and the people of the country'. Midgley (1995:11) maintains that social development is a people-centred approach to development. Gray (1998:56) views this approach to development as an effective strategy to combat poverty and is implemented through community development as an intervention mechanism for poverty reduction.

1.7.6 Community

According to Edwards and Jones (cited in Swanepoel & de Beer 2006:43), *community* refers to 'a grouping of people who live in a specific locality and who exercise some degree of local autonomy in organizing their social life in such a way that they can, from that local base, satisfy the full range of their daily needs'.

1.7.7 Women's multiple roles/triple role

According to Moser (1993:230), 'gender planning recognizes that in most societies low-income women have to perform a triple role, namely (i) reproductive, (ii) productive and (iii) community managing activities, while men undertake productive and community politics activities'.

1.7.7.1 Reproductive role

As shown by Moser (1993:230), *women's reproductive role* refers to 'child-bearing and domestic tasks done by women. It includes not only biological reproduction, but also the care of the present workforce (male partner) and future workforce (children).'

1.7.7.2 Productive role

Moser (1993:230) indicates that *productive role* refers to 'the work done by both men and women for pay in cash or in kind'. It includes both market production with an exchange value, and subsistence production with a use-value, and also a potential exchange value.

1.7.7.3 Community managing role

According to Moser (1993:230), the *community managing role* refers to 'activities undertaken primarily by women at the community level, as an extension of their reproductive role to ensure the provision and maintenance of the scarce resources of collective consumption, such as the collection of water, and it is voluntary unpaid work.'

1.7.8 Gender needs

According to Moser (1993:39-40) and Andersen (1992:91), women have peculiar needs that differ from those of men, and not because of their multiple roles, but because of their subordinate position in terms of men. As shown by Molyneux (1985:232), gender needs or interests are those that women or men may develop by virtue of their social positioning through gender attributes, and distinguishes between strategic and practical gender interests. There are two types of these needs, namely (i) practical gender needs and (ii) strategic gender needs:

1.7.8.1 Practical gender needs

Practical gender needs, according to Moser (1993:230), are 'the needs that women identify in their socially accepted roles in society'. The author argues that these needs are practical in nature, and often relate to inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision and food preparation for the family. Andersen (1992:91) emphasizes the fact that women's practical gender needs are those needs that arise by virtue of their gender in the existing division of labour. The author argues that despite the fact that these needs affect all members of the household, they are identified as women's needs. Molyneux (1985:233) states that 'the distinction between strategic and practical gender needs is of critical importance because practical gender needs or interests do not in themselves challenge the prevailing forms of subordination, even though they arise directly out of them'; in other words, policies and programmes that are designed to meet practical gender needs do not necessarily improve women's situation with regard to their strategic gender needs.

1.7.8.2 Strategic gender needs

Moser (1993:230) defines *strategic gender needs* as 'those needs that women identify because of their subordinate position in society such as wages and women's control over their bodies'. Andersen (1992:91) states that women's strategic gender needs are 'formulated in terms of a more satisfactory organization of society, for example, removal of existing discriminatory laws against land-ownership by women is regarded as meeting women's strategic gender needs'. However, Molyneux (1985:233) defines *strategic gender interests* slightly differently as 'those interests that are regarded as being women's "real" interests'. She argues that it requires a certain level of feminist consciousness in order to fight for them. Her definition of *strategic gender interests* is as follows:

Strategic gender interests are derived in the first instance deductively, that is, from the analysis of women's subordination and from the formulation of an alternative, more satisfactory set of arrangements to those which exist. These ethical and theoretical criteria assist in the formulation of strategic objectives to overcome women's subordination, such as the abolition of the sexual division of labour, the alleviation of burden of domestic labour and childcare, the attainment of political equality, the establishment of freedom of choice over childbearing and the adoption of measures against male violence and control over women. (P. 233.)

The conclusion that can be reached is that meeting strategic needs leads to greater autonomy for women.

1.8 Structure of the research report

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the overall mini-dissertation; it clarifies the scope of the study by providing the background, the problem statement, aim of the study, objectives, research questions, significance of the study and some key operational definitions that are explored in the study.

Chapter 2 gives a brief introduction and background to the study against the background of a literature review. The conceptual framework provides clarity on different approaches to women's development. The following approaches are discussed in chronological order welfare: women in development (WID), which has three sub-approaches, namely (i) the equity approach, (ii) the anti-poverty and (iii) efficient approach. The WID approach focuses on the economic growth while women are isolated from the development process. The basic needs approach is also discussed in this chapter. This approach focuses on the satisfaction of basic needs as crucial for development. The gender and development (GAD) approach considers gender as crucial for development. The GAD approach in South Africa is also outlined. The chapter concludes by discussing the empowerment approach. It also gives evidence of the role of CDPs in the empowerment of women in South Africa. Examples of local projects that serve as best practices on the empowerment of women through CDPs are highlighted. Some of the lessons learnt on the empowerment of women through CDPs are also listed in this chapter. The chapter concludes by giving a summary of key issues raised.

Chapter 3 is devoted to the research methodology, which deals with the following aspects: study area; population of the study; sampling method and sample size; research design; data collection methods, which include the primary and secondary data collection methods; questionnaire design; and the questionnaire itself. The data collection procedure is also discussed in this chapter. The chapter also discusses ethical considerations, which includes avoidance of harm to respondents; violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality; the actions and competence of researchers; co-operation with contributors; release or publication of the findings; and debriefing of respondents and fairness. The challenges encountered are also raised. The chapter concludes by giving a summary of the applicability and relevance of the research methods used.

Chapter 4 describes the presentation, analysis and discussion of results. The chapter gives a summary of the findings, which includes the impact that the CDPs have on the following empowerment indicators: decision-making capacity; self-confidence; education and skills acquisition; participation in economic activities; political freedom; health and well-being; social

capital; income generation; job creation and asset acquisition. The chapter also looks into the factors that hinder or promote the empowerment of women and the willingness of women to participate in future development initiatives. The chapter also highlights some of the constraints and challenges raised by respondents. The chapter also discusses the validity and reliability of the results. In conclusion, some of the key findings are highlighted.

Chapter 5 concludes the report by summarizing some of the key research issues discussed in the four chapters, including the following: the problem statement, the aim of the research, objectives, significance of the study, the key operational definitions, research designs, data presentation, analysis and discussion. The chapter also briefly discusses the summary of the findings, main conclusion and the recommendations.

1.9 Summary

This chapter dealt with the introduction and backgrounds to CDPs. Key issues such as the origin of CDPs were raised. The chapter also looked at critical issues such as the marginalization of women, poverty among women, women's economic progress and social exclusion.

Marginalization of women, poverty among women, lack of economic progress by women and social exclusion prompted the government to introduce CDPs as a means and tool to eradicate poverty among women.

The problem statement was outlined wherein poverty in South Africa was said to be at an alarming rate despite the fact that South African had achieved political freedom since 1994. Individuals viewed the introduction of CDPs differently. The challenge that arose was to determine to what extent the projects were really achieving what they were intended for. The aim of the research, the objectives, research questions, significance of the study and operational definitions were also dealt with in this chapter.

Ultimately, the structure of the research report was outlined.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: BACKGROUND TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 Introduction and background to the study

According to Terreblanche (2003:396), South Africa 'has been dominated by repressive systems of government such as colonialism, racism, apartheid, sexism and repressive labour laws that adversely affected the population in general and women in particular'. Agupasi (2008:3) points out that prior to 1994 South Africa was isolated internationally as a consequence of apartheid policy. The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) acknowledged that the different systems that the government used contributed immensely to the way in which the income and wealth were distributed among the population. The uneven distribution of income and wealth resulted in an uneven development with extreme poverty in many rural parts of South Africa as already alluded to (Mathole 2005:1; Terreblanche 2003:396; Joseph 2002:10). Gebremedhim (2002:183) believes that poverty is a product of the 'failure of development' to improve the lives of people.

The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) indicated that basic infrastructure was lacking in poorer areas of most provinces and the spatial distribution of resources was also extremely uneven. To deal with these challenges, The White Paper (Republic of South Africa 1994) directed that the three spheres of government should work hand in glove to deal with the problem of poverty that had been created over many years by the different systems of government, including apartheid. Agupasi (2008:5) believes that the RDP gave clear and all-inclusive explanations of past social, economic, and political injustice. Agupasi (2008:5) maintains that the RDP also identified five major policy programmes whose implementation would rectify the past wrongs against the majority of the population. This included the development of human resources, affirmative action, programmes to meet the basic needs of the poorest members of society, programmes to restructure the economy, and democratise the state and society (p.5). However, the ANC-led government recognized that the South African economy was in a serious structural crisis and, needed a strong administrative restructuring in order to fulfil its promises in the RDP document (p.5). The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994), therefore, responded to the challenges by directing provinces to develop their own strategies for implementing the RDP in the contexts of their particular circumstances because the legacy of apartheid could not be overcome with unco-ordinated policies but, required a coherent set of strategies that needed a co-ordinated, coherent strategy that would

be implemented at the national, provincial and local spheres of government. According to the *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994), some of the responsibilities of the Provincial Government were to re-direct expenditures and resources to the RDP priorities. It is within this context that the provincial RDP mechanisms were geared towards developmental planning and service delivery. The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) also called for local governments to play their role as they were the key institutions to the delivery of basic services and redistribution of public services.

The *White Paper on Reconstruction Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) again stressed that the RDP was an integrated, coherent, socio-economic policy framework. The main purpose of the RDP was to mobilize all people and the country's resources to the final eradication of apartheid and the building of a just society. The RDP was a people-driven process, which meant that it was community-based and driven; in other words, communities were expected to drive the development process themselves. The RDP was, therefore, a programme that was initiated to improve the standard of living of the entire South African population within a stable society. The RDP clearly recognized the fact that millions of South Africans, particularly women, had struggled and fought against the unjust apartheid system over many years because they were not given space to play a role in the mainstream economy of the country. It is within this context that the leaders of the apartheid regime failed to understand, according to Nkiko (2008:1103), that women had 'peculiar abilities, needs, feelings, rights and expectations that had to be recognized and guaranteed by constitution'. Former Mozambican President Samora Machel (cited in Joseph 2002:6) summed up the emancipation of women from exploitation in the following manner:

The emancipation of women is not an act of clarity, the result of a humanitarian or compassionate attitude. The liberation of women is a fundamental necessity for the Revolution, the guarantee of its continuity and the precondition for its victory. The main objective of the Revolution is to destroy the system of exploitation and build anew society, which releases the potentialities of human beings. This is the context in which women's emancipation arises.

Joseph (2002:11) argues that if South Africa were to take the issue of empowerment seriously, it would mean that the participation of women in all democratic activities should be accompanied by capacity-building programmes. Joseph explains that the capacity-building programmes were not only designed to give women the necessary skills, but also 'to create enabling environments in areas where the development of women was needed' (p. 11).

Bankole and Eboiyehi (2003:95) maintain that the reduction of poverty is the most difficult challenge facing many developing countries in the developing world where on the average majority of the population is considered poor. It is, therefore, crucial to take women on board when development issues are planned because poverty in South Africa has a strong gender dimension (Sadie & Loots 1998:2). A former President of the ANC, Oliver Reginald Tambo (cited in ANC 2012:1), outlined the need to mobilize women to participate in matters that affected the political and socio-economic status of their life in the following manner:

The mobilization of women is the task, not only of women alone, or of men alone, but of all of us, men and women alike, comrades in the struggle. The mobilization of the people into active resistance for liberation demands the energies of women no less than that of men. A system based on the exploitation of man by man can in no way avoid the exploitation of women by the male member of society. There is no way in which women in general can liberate themselves without fighting to end the exploitation of man by man, both as a concept and as a social system.

However, according to Mthethwa (2012:83), the continued oppression of women is not only the act of men but it can as well be worsened by opportunistic elite women who use women oppression to climb the social ladder. However, the RDP was designed as a development programme that would emancipate women from different types of oppression irrespective of its source (Sadie & Loots 1998:5). As indicated by Terreblanche (1999:2), the RDP programmes were successful in democratizing the state and society. According to the first democratically elected President of South Africa, Nelson Mandela in his State of the Nation address in 1994 (cited in Sadie & Loots 1998:2) maintained that true freedom could be achieved only when women have been emancipated from all forms of oppression. President Mandela emphasized the fact that the objectives of the RDP would not be realized '[u]nless we see in visible and practical terms that the condition of the women of our country has radically changed for the better, and that they have been empowered to intervene in all aspects of life as equals with any other member of society'.

Sadie and Loots (1998:6) argue that women's minimal involvement in the decision-making process at community level limits the responsiveness of projects to women's strategic and practical gender needs. According to the authors, the lack of basic services such as water supply and sanitation shows that the practical needs of women are not catered for. However, the satisfaction of practical needs only without attending to strategic needs, such as achieving the emancipation of women, defeats the aim of the RDP. Sadie and Loots (1998:6) maintain that the provision of basic services is crucial but meeting both the practical and strategic gender needs is central to reconstruction and development in South Africa.

According to Asmah-Andoh (2009:108), programmes and strategies for South Africa that were 'anti-poverty are intended to alleviate poverty by meeting both the practical and strategic gender needs of women in communities that are characterized by inequality and uneven distribution of wealth'. Mubangizi (2008:278) is of the opinion that CDPs are some of the initiatives that are intended to alleviate poverty and its manifestations. Asmah-Andoh (2009:100) believes that projects are intended to empower women through skills development and training. Women who participate in CDPs, according to Asmah-Andoh (2009:109), are also trained in financial management and leadership. Training in financial management and leadership equips them with the relevant skills that may be required beyond the existence of a particular project.

Luyt (2008:1) argues that South Africa has an excellent Constitution and Bill of Rights, justifiable economic and social rights, and generally good pro-policies that promote the implementation of anti-poverty programmes and strategies as raised in the previous paragraph. According to the records of the Public Services Commission (PSC), (Luyt 2008:1), since the dawn of democracy in 1994 about 29963 government projects had been established that were aimed at reducing poverty. Luyt argues that despite the huge number of projects that have been established, the poverty levels in South Africa remain high and have not been reduced since 1994 (p.1). The question that arises is what could have led to this state of affairs? The extent of poverty reduction remains a bone of contention because all measures of income inequality uniformly indicate a widening gap between the rich and the poor, and between women and men (p.2). Luyt (2008:3) argues that the major obstacle to poverty alleviation in South Africa is poor governance, which includes 'not simply corruption, but also performance of government officials in their management of public resources and a lack of political will to act against underperforming officials'. The negative tendencies of government agencies to deal with corrupt practices in government institutions and projects compromise the role that CDPs play in empowering women folk (Meyer 2000:2).

2.2 Conceptual framework

Development strategies, according to the Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) (2003:5), are clearly more equitable when they take into account 'the different needs, constraints, opportunities and priorities of men and women'. Strategies that are inclusive are not only equitable, but they are also far more effective and sustainable. FAO (2003:5) argues that 'recognition of men's and women's valuable, distinct skills and knowledge can help to shape

policies and programmes that contribute significantly to both economic growth and equity objectives'.

It is, however, crucial to indicate that development projects sponsored and implemented by Western organizations usually reflect ethnocentric bias, which reflects development programmes based on Western culture and the tendency to ignore the culture of the recipient countries (Østergaard 1992:1). Most of the development projects in recipient countries have failed to yield the desired results or not fulfilled their goals because 'planners have ignored the social and family structure in which the development was to take place and, instead, used the Western model of a family structure in which a household comprised a husband, wife and children' (p. 1). Planners have used the colonial form of the family structure to implement so-called 'development projects' to solve problems of poverty in Third World countries (p. 1). The Western model, according to Østergaard, that development planners used was based on macroeconomic theories which were not relevant to solve problems of hunger and poverty in the recipient countries (p. 1).

The aim of sponsoring and implementing development projects was to help Third World countries to fight against abject poverty but, instead, the approach used had the unforeseen side effects of making the poor and the underprivileged even poorer (p. 1). Østergaard (1992:1) argues that it was not clear to donor agencies from Western organizations why the poor became poorer instead of moving out of abject poverty. It was for that reason that donor agencies such as the World Bank resorted to introspection and re-examined their policies and approaches, and have come to acknowledge the shortcomings of the approach based on a macroeconomic approach to development and broadened their policies to include the micro-economic aspect of development as well (p. 1). Development, according to Østergaard (1992:1-2), must be a human-centred process because people are both the ends and means of development. It must be understood that poverty affects real people with aspirations, feelings and hopes, and it is about people who are desperate to move out of abject poverty (Mathole 2005:2). In order to take them out of this condition, planners must recognize the fact that women play a key role in sustainable development (Østergaard 1992:2).

Østergaard (1992:2) maintains that 'until the 1970s, development planning had been gender-neutral or gender-blind due to the lack of information about women and their contributions in various countries'. Aid agencies did not have adequate knowledge of the gender roles in development (p. 2). The gender-blind approach is an approach in which all human beings are viewed as the same and are seen to be deserving of the same treatment (Joseph 2002:8). The proponents of this view, according to Joseph believe that society should be dictated to by

universal laws and values, while the approach itself does not question what these norms and values are, where they come from or for what purpose they have been developed (p. 8). The gender-blind approach had a number of shortcomings because an inquisitive attitude was lacking and that made it unsuitable in the development process (p. 8).

The lack of information about gender roles contributed immensely to the bad tendency of marginalizing women in developing countries, and development planners have often seen women only as passive recipients of social and health services which, of course, impacted negatively on the reduction of poverty in many countries (Østergaard 1992:2). Sadly enough, women's active and productive roles in their society were not recognized, and not included explicitly in development planning because aid agencies regarded women as nothing but passive beneficiaries who needed men to assist them in moving from absolute poverty (Østergaard 1992:2). However, the author argues that development planning based on insufficient information about the gender roles in general and the exclusion of women in particular did not solve problems of poverty in Third World countries. The proposed solution was to change the policies of the donor agencies so that women were brought to development as an essential component and also to initiate special women's development projects which would cater for the marginalized women (p. 2). Development planners had to change their attitudes towards women, which was hard to swallow, and accept that development goals would only be achieved by ensuring that women were given an opportunity to participate in projects on equal footing with men (p. 2). Bringing women into the mainstream of economic development would ensure that each gender played its own important role in the process (p. 2).

The paradigm shift in development thinking brought about many changes in the development process. Development for low-income or underprivileged women, according to Moser (1993:55), 'has become a central issue for discussion since the period starting from [the] 1950s to date'. Many different interventions have been formulated using different approaches to Third World development (p. 55). The paradigm shift in development thinking towards women, 'from the welfare concept, to equity to anti-poverty to efficiency to empowerment reflects changes in macro-level economic and social approaches to Third World development' (p. 55). The changes in approaches, however, created confusion because new approaches were developed, yet, they were not clearly understood by different institutions or donor agencies (p. 55).

Wide-scale confusion still exists about both the definition and use of different policy approaches to development (Moser1993:55). This confusion leads to much cause for concern

among many institutions at both the national and international agency level. Many institutions are not clear about their policy approach to women and, as a result, the so-called WID approach has caused more problems rather than clarify conceptual categories (p. 55). The myths that have been brought about by lack of clarity with respect to the definition and the use of different approaches have 'served to legitimize a range of approaches to women, which incorporate different underlying assumptions in relation to their practical and strategic gender needs' (p. 55). According to Moser (1993:55), it was exactly because of confusion such as this that development theorists had to develop a new approach with more clarity, using rigorous tools that would enable policy-makers and planners to understand with greater clarity the implications of their interventions in terms of what they were capable of doing and limitations in assisting Third World women.

According to Andersen (1992:173), in formulating policy options, aid officials should be aware that there are different approaches to development such as the welfare approach, WID, basic needs, GAD, and empowerment approach and these affect women differently. The policy interventions will be discussed in chronological order, starting from the welfare, through to the WID approach, which encompasses three models or sub-approaches, namely (i) equity, (ii) anti-poverty and (iii) efficiency, and basic needs, GAD to the empowerment approach.

2.2.1 The welfare approach

The welfare approach, according to Andersen (1992:173), is 'a social policy that is designed generally to address the challenges that disadvantaged groups, particularly women, face'. According to Tasli (2007:11) and Moser (1993:57), the welfare approach is the earliest approach that was concerned with development efforts and it is rooted in the social welfare of the colonial administration and post-World War II development agencies. The welfare approach, according to Tasli (2007:11), was prominent between 1950 and 1970. It is imperative to understand that the fact that the approach was dominant in this period does not, however, suggest that it is no longer used. Moser (1993:56) indicates that the welfare approach is still very popular in development practice, especially in the Third World. It is for this reason that this approach contains some of the elements of the colonial administration that are foreign to developing countries. As pointed out by Andersen (1992:173), the welfare approach views women as passive recipients of development. The approach, according to Moser (1992:92), focuses on enhancing women's reproductive role. By focusing on the reproductive role, the approach neglected and ignored women in the development process (p. 92). The goal of the welfare approach, as indicated by Moser (1993:58), is to bring women into development as better mothers. The approach, according to Razavi and Miller (1995:6-7),

addresses women solely in their capacities and roles as mothers and wives, and the policies designed to address challenges for women are restricted to social welfare concerns such as nutritional education and home economics. Andersen (1992:173) argues that the approach was preferred by donor agencies because no proper consultation was necessary for its implementation. The main implementation method, according to Tasli (2007:11) and Moser (1993:60), is 'the top-down distribution of free goods and services in the form of food aid, relief aid, family planning programmes and other related aid'. The challenge, however, was that 'beneficiaries had no say about the nature of the goods and services that were to be given to them but the donors had to decide on their own what was good for the recipients without really trying to consult them' (Moser 1993:61). Hence, this approach has created a dependency syndrome among beneficiaries because they depend more on welfare programmes since they are excluded from the development process.

However, according to Moser (1993:61), the welfare approach remains popular since it is 'politically safe'. It is free from politics since women's positions in society are not questioned by this approach; in other words, the welfare approach does not question or attempt to change the traditional role of women in society. Hence, politics are not used to challenge the traditional structures within the stable society and for that reason it is popular with government and traditional NGOs (p. 61).

In terms of multiple roles for women, the welfare approach, according to Tasli (2007:11), addresses women solely in their reproductive role as mothers and wives, on the one hand, and ignores women's productive and community-managing roles entirely, on the other. The approach does not really treat women's problems the same way as those that are experienced by men. The welfare approach meets women's practical gender needs which arise from being mothers and wives, on the one hand, and, on the other, completely leaves out strategic needs that arise from the need for greater autonomy (p. 11).

2.2.2 Women in development

Since the 1970s, development workers have become aware of the fact that women had been excluded from much of the development benefits (Akerkar 2001:2). Akerkar argues that instead of leaving the matter as it was, women responded to the unfair treatment and a WID approach was advocated which aimed to increase the local women's involvement in the market economy and project activities (p.2). Rai (2002:72) explains that the WID approach views the absence of WID plans and policies as the major problem. A WID approach, according to van Marle (2006:125), is an approach to development that calls for the treatment

of women's issues in development projects. Jaquette (2008:5) points out that the approach was developed 'during the period when the Women's Movement in the United States had reached its peak and there was a backlash against the push for greater equality. However, the failure of the Equal Rights Amendment by mid-1970, despite a long, hard and frustrating campaign for equal rights, was an indication of the need for a paradigm shift in development thinking (p. 5). This was the period and environment in which the WID approach emerged (p. 5). The Women's Movement changed its approach to development and 'rather than pushing for women's equality, the strategy of the WID office of [the United States Agency for International Development] USAID was geared towards promoting women's access to resources, using empirical evidence to show that women were economically active and relying on efficiency arguments to convince those responsible for aid projects to include, rather than ignore, women' (p. 5). However, the pioneer of this approach, according to van Marle (2006:125) and Østergaard (1992:2), was a Danish economist, Ester Boserup, who is the author of the book titled *Women's Role in Economic Development*, published in 1970. According to Bolles (1999:23), Boserup wrote that many authors did not reflect on the particular problems of women but, instead, chose to deal with such problems in isolation. The deep-rooted problem of women's absence in development was not really addressed by institutions, and women were often restricted to the roles of housewife and mother, whereas men had both family and work as sources of satisfaction (Golombok & Fivush 1994:212). Boserup (cited in Bolles) wrote in the preface of her book: 'In the vast and ever-growing literature on economic development, reflections on the particular problems of women are few and far between.'

It is evident from the literature that many researchers did not pay much attention to identifying and addressing the challenges that women from the Third World faced. Østergaard (1992:1) says that after the release of Boserup's book, 'there were no other serious activities that took the approach forward until a remarkable breakthrough in 1978 when a number of new studies were conducted'. Researchers did not reflect much on the role of women in economic development. Different policy responses and interventions, according to van Marle (2006:125), focused on women as a separate group, resulting in women's concerns being 'added on' and peripheral to mainstream development efforts. Women's issues were treated at a superficial level, while men's issues were taken into serious consideration because of the socially constructed stereotypes. Pattnaik (1996:42) points out that the challenge then was that women's issues were treated as 'separate issues that did not really affect the mainstream economy because women were engaged in an unorganized sector and were employed mainly in agriculture'. According to van Marle (2006:125) and Østergaard (1992:1), the 'add and stir' approach, frequently resulted in adding components and actions targeted only at adding

women, rather than integrating them fully into project activities. WID policies and interventions have, in the main, concentrated on women's productive work without integrating them into the development process (van Marle 2006:125). However, according to Akerkar (2001:2), problems with this kind of approach soon became apparent, even though women were already working very hard, their efforts were not recognized as such or remunerated accordingly. One of the major challenges with the WID approach was that 'the involvement of women in projects and markets at times meant primarily increasing their workload. Women in the Third World have been presented in a particular way, with their problems and needs identified by so-called 'experts and their control over the development process restricted' (p. 2).

The validity of the basic assumptions of the WID approach have been accepted by some and criticised by others because they did not go far enough in addressing women's issues (Ascher 2001:89). The latter group maintains that the WID ignored the larger social processes that affected women's lives and their reproductive roles (p. 90). The approach did not address the root causes of gender inequalities (Taylor 1999:20); in other words, the approach did not try to link women's roles in the economy and their roles in the family settings. Østergaard (1992:7) shows that the failure to make an explicit link to women's reproductive work had often added to women's workload. The approach did not try to take the women's reproductive role into consideration, and this created a conflict of interests between the economy and family settings. Gradually, it was recognized that an approach that focused on women in isolation was inadequate and not sustainable because it did not take into account the overall project objectives or integrate women fully into their implementation (van Marle 2006:125). Moreover, it did not address or change unequal gender relations in various social and economic settings. The approach, according to Østergaard (1992:3), was criticized for being 'descriptive, empirical and non-theoretical because many studies were mainly surveys'. This view shows that the WID approach had serious shortcomings in trying to improve the living conditions of women. A new approach was, therefore, necessary to address these inadequacies. According to FAO (2003:5), since the first World Conference in Mexico City in 1975, approaches to women's issues have changed considerably. The information collected 'throughout the United Nations (UN) Decade for Women (1975–1985) highlighted the existing poverty and disadvantage of women and their invisibility in the development process' (Østergaard 1992:3). It is of the utmost importance to indicate that although the WID approaches had serious shortcomings, they did, however, provide the important purpose of rendering visible facts about the reality of women's lives, which were initially unnoticed or invisible, such as the actual economic role played by women whose labour was unpaid (FAO 2003:5). Providing information that was later used by other development theorists as a foundation for new approaches that were implemented in later years was the main achievement of the WID

approach because women became visible in development theory and practice (Tasli 2007:13). However, the first major success of this approach, according to Andersen (1992:167) and Tasli (2007:13), was based on the *1973 Percy Amendment to the US Foreign Assistance Act* that required that the assistance granted by USAID should pay particular attention to those programmes, projects and activities that integrated women into the national economies of the foreign countries so that the status of women could be improved and, in turn, assist total development. The WID approach initially accepted existing social structures in the recipient country and looked at how to better integrate women into existing development initiatives (Taylor 1999:20).

The weaknesses of the WID approach, according to Rathgeber (cited in Tasli 2007:13), include the following:

- The WID concept is firmly grounded in traditional modernization theory of the 1950s–1970s which equated development to industrialization.
- The WID approach is not radical enough, that is, non-confrontational and its main emphasis is looking at how best could women be integrated into development initiatives without really challenging the existing traditional structures. The WID approach initially accepted existing social structures in the recipient country and looked at how to better integrate women into existing development initiatives without any form of confrontation (Taylor 1999:20). The straightforward goal was to increase the productivity and earnings of women.
- The WID approach focused exclusively on the productive aspects of women's work and ignored the reproductive aspects of their lives.

The weaknesses of the WID approach were also identified by Young (1993:130) who made a significant contribution to development theory and practice as they are today. The weaknesses of the approach, according to Young (1993:130), are the following.

- The WID approach ignored the gender aspect of the matter and assumed that women could become sole agents of their destiny without any form of assistance from men.
- The WID approach neglected the ideological aspects of the matter. The unequal balance of responsibilities, work and value was seen perfectly as natural if not God given, and therefore unchangeable.
- The strong and exclusive emphasis on poverty had the effect of masking the structures of gender inequality.

However, the WID approach was defended by other development theorists, for example, Jaquette (2008:5) indicated that although the WID concept had been criticised for its 'add women and stir' approach and for highlighting efficiency rather equity, there were practical reasons for the way in which the approach was implemented.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) established a special Division for Women in Development, promoting concrete action to ensure that women participated in UNDP projects (Agrawal & Aggarwal 1996:210). The UN paper titled 'International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade', issued in 1980, recognized a number of WID issues (p. 210). It 'called for women to play an active role in all sectors and at all levels of the Programme of Action adopted by the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, both as agents and beneficiaries' (p. 210). Joekes (1990:147) believes that 'policies on industrialization, food and agriculture, science and technology, and social development should all involve women'

A 1985 report issued by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Centre (cited in Weekes-Vagliani 1985:52) surveyed a broad sample of development projects aimed at women. The report concluded that many of them were too welfare-orientated (p. 52). The report states 'future projects should avoid the home economics approach and focus on income-generating activities which are relevant and useful to the women participating' (p. 52).

The report also noted the lack of information about women's roles and activities, and called for greater research as input to development projects (p. 52). The World Bank commissioned Harvard University to look into the matter (Moser 2002:174). The Harvard Analytical Framework attempted to address the concerns raised above. The framework originated in 1980 with a request to Harvard University for WID training from the World Bank (p. 174). James Austin, who was well known for case-method training at Harvard, led a team of three women experienced in WID work: Catherine Overholt, Mary Anderson and Kathleen Cloud, who became known as the 'Harvard Team' (p. 174).

The framework was elaborated on by the Harvard Institute for International Development in collaboration with the WID office of USAID, and was first described in 1984 by Catherine Overholt and others (Moser 2002:174). The starting point for the framework was the assumption that it made economic sense for development aid projects to allocate resources to

women as well as men, which would make development more efficient—a position named ‘the efficiency approach’ (p. 174).

Andersen (1992:165) and Tasli (2007:14) indicated that the WID approach underwent a major transformation throughout the 1970s and the 1980s. Although the two researchers have different views in terms of the number of the WID sub-approaches, they agree that there was a paradigm shift in development thinking. Rippennar-Joseph (2009:22) maintains that the term *WID* did not denote a uniform approach but, refers to the approach that comprises a number of sub-approaches. Andersen (1992:173) indicates that there are five different sub-approaches to WID and they can affect women differently. However, Tasli (2007:14) argues that the actual number of the basic sub-approaches or models that can be included in the WID is three, namely (i) the equity approach, (ii) the anti-poverty approach and (iii) the efficiency approach. Tasli (2007:14) maintains that the welfare and the empowerment approaches are not sub-approaches of WID.

Despite the challenges raised by the two researchers, there must be a strategy on how to implement these sub-approaches. Andersen (1992:172) believes that a realistic starting point for implementing the WID approach into development is ‘to recognize women’s multiple roles or triple role’, and also ‘being able to make a distinction between women’s practical gender needs and strategic gender needs’. According to Moser (cited in Andersen 1992:172), the reason why it is so important to incorporate the triple role in WID is because approximately 33 per cent of the world’s households are now headed by women. It is also of critical importance to choose an appropriate model that could be included in the WID approach (p. 172). The current study supports the view expressed by Tasli (2007:14) on how to classify the WID sub-approaches.

2.2.2.1 The equity approach

The equity approach was the original WID approach (Andersen 1992:173). It was introduced by the WID movement in the US, and became prominent during the UN Decade for Women (1975–1985) (p. 173). It recognizes that women ‘are active participants in the development process and in economic growth through their productive and reproductive roles’ (p. 173). However, the economic aspect of development often has a negative impact on women and they should be brought into the development process (p. 173). The equity approach, according to Tasli (2007:14), advocates ‘equal distribution of the benefits of development between men and women’; in other words, the purpose of the approach is to ensure that women get a share in the development process without weakening the share that is obtained

by men. The equity approach supports women's integration into the development process through access to employment and the market place. Moser (1993:56) shows that women are seen as active participants in the development process. The concerns of this approach are not restricted to economic inequality, but to all spheres of life and across socio-economic groups. Moser (1993:66) indicates that the equity approach focuses mainly on reducing inequality between men and women through top-down government intervention. As pointed out by Tasli (2007:15), the equity approach demands 'economic and political autonomy for women through top-down intervention of the state in order to reduce the inequalities between men and women'. The recognition of equity as a policy principle does not guarantee its implementation in practice since it is considered threatening and not popular with government (Moser 1993:65). The equity approach, according to Tasli (2007:15), considers women 'not only in their reproductive role, but also in their productive role'; in other words, the equity approaches meet strategic gender needs and link development with equality. However, the equity approach is not a preferred model since there is an interference that is generally brought about by the host country's traditions. This approach, according to Andersen (1992:173), is thought to be problematic, hence it is not preferred since it 'requires increased research efforts, specific evaluations and collaboration and exchange of information'. Moser (1993:65) is of the opinion that the approach is not politically 'safe' since 'the majority of development programmes were hostile to the equity approach precisely because of their intention to meet not only the practical needs but also strategic gender needs, whose very success depended on an implicit redistribution of power'. As Buvinic (cited in Moser 1993:65), commented:

Productivity programmes for women usually require some restructuring of the cultural fabric of society, and development agencies do not like to tamper with unknown and unfamiliar social variables. As a rule of thumb they tend to believe in upholding social traditions and thus are reluctant to implement these programmes. (1983:26.)

Moser (1993:66) points out that 'development agencies and Third World countries had problems with some of the underlying principles of the equity approach and, as a result, it was dropped by the majority of them'. The political sensitivity of the equity approach has prompted a shift to the anti-poverty approach (p. 66).

2.2.2.2 The anti-poverty approach

The anti-poverty approach is the second approach to dealing with the WID approach (Moser 1993:67). The anti-poverty approach is 'a milder form of the equity approach' (p. 67). It became popular in the early 1970s because of a paradigm shift in development thinking

wherein there was a shift in focus from the equity approach to the anti-poverty approach (p. 67). The emphasis of the approach shifts from 'reducing inequality between men and women, which was the main purpose of the equity approach, to reducing income inequality' (Moser 1993:67). The approach emerged when the general study on development programmes revealed that 'accelerated growth strategies did not solve poverty and unemployment problems, nor lead to a redistribution of income' (Andersen 1992:175). The paradigm shift in development thinking 'enabled Institutions such as the World Bank to assess the impact of the accelerated growth strategies on the livelihood of people in general and women in particular, and began to realize that one of the reasons for the failure of the "trickle-down effect" was that development planning had been ignoring women as an important component in the development process' (p. 175). The proponents of this approach saw poverty as a condition caused by underdevelopment (Rippenaar-Joseph 2009:23). The anti-poverty approach focuses on programmes that seek to increase the employment and income generation for women (Tasli 2007:16). The reason why employment and income generation are considered as crucial for development is because this approach sees women's poverty as a problem of underdevelopment, not of subordination (Moser 1993:68). The anti-poverty approach focuses mainly on low-income women with the main aim of reducing poverty (Tasli 2007:16). The anti-poverty approach, according to Moser (1992:92), focuses mainly on the productive role and isolates poor women to form a category on their own. The problem with this approach is that the reproductive and community managing roles are ignored. A balance should be struck between the productive actions and the other two roles so as to avoid an increase in women's workload.

However, new employment opportunities and income-generating activities may increase women's access to additional income, thereby meeting the practical gender needs. Moser (1993:69) maintains that strategic gender needs can be met if new employment and additional income lead to greater autonomy for women.

Tasli (2007:15) argues that the approach uses two different anti-poverty strategies for poverty reduction, which are explained as follows:

- (i) The creation or expansion of employment in order to increase the income of poor workers in general and women in particular.
- (ii) Basic needs strategy whose main aim was to meet the basic human needs which included physical needs such as food, clothing, and shelter, as well as social needs such as education, human rights and participation through employment and political involvement.

The weakness of this approach is that it focuses only on the productive role and assumes that women have 'free time' in which they do not have anything to do; hence their working day is extended, thereby increasing their triple burden (Moser 1993:69). Moser (1993:69) argues that women's practical gender needs cannot be met even if they earn an additional income unless an income-generating project reduces the women's domestic labour and child care.

2.2.2.3 The efficiency approach

The efficiency approach is the third model or sub-approach that the WID movement uses to deal with women's issues in the development process (Moser 1993:69). Asmah-Andoh (2012:21) points out that *efficiency* means doing the things right, that is, providing services of a given quality in the least-cost manner. The efficiency approach became popular during the 1980s (Tasli 2007:17). The emergence of the efficiency approach 'coincided with the rising popularity of the neo-classical economic model' (p. 17). The efficiency approach made the following assumptions:

- There is a given amount of resources in the world, and economics is a tool to determine the allocation of such scarce resources.
- The functioning of free markets guarantees a self-equilibrating economy with long-run sustainable growth.
- The government should only intervene when there is imperfect competition (p. 17).

The efficiency approach, which is rooted in the neo-classical economic model, regards women as 'an unused or underutilized asset for development' (p. 17). The approach, according to Andersen (1992:174), concentrates more on the development process and less on women. The approach, therefore, emphasizes the fact that the potential that women have should be unlocked for the benefit of society in general and women in particular (Andersen 1992:174). As shown by Moser (1993:69), the main purpose of this approach is to ensure that development is made more efficient and effective through women's economic contribution. Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:23) maintains that the efficiency approach is aimed at ensuring effectiveness in development projects. This approach assumes that increased economic participation automatically leads to increased equity (Tasli 2007:17). Moser (1993:70) points out that the approach shifted the focus away from 'women' to 'development'. The efficiency approach focuses mainly on economic growth, and regards women simply as 'an input factor in the economy' (Tasli 2007:18). This approach, according to Moser (1993:70), focuses on the 'delivery capacity of women to make projects more efficient and effective'.

Tasli (2007:18) shows that the approach not only shifts the emphasis from women to development, but also limits the concept of development solely to economic growth. The limitation of the development concept to economic growth, results in it being viewed as a simple concept that has a clear-cut meaning (p. 18). However, Tasli (2007:18) argues that the approach 'fails to give an explicit explanation and to understand development as a multi-dimensional phenomenon, with economic, but also social and cultural aspects'. The concept of development comprises much more than economic growth (p. 18). The problem with the efficiency approach is that it concentrates more on the development process and ignores the plights of women and, as a result, human development is sacrificed at the expense of the development process. Cuts in spending on human development within structural adjustment programmes tended to benefit developed countries, and the developing countries suffered from inflation, deteriorating output, trade deficits, government deficits, and government deficits, among other things (p. 18). The challenge with the structural adjustment programmes was that developing economies were severely indebted and, as a result, there was deterioration in the living conditions of the low-income population (p. 18). Sparr (1994:21) believes that the structural adjustment programmes had a negative impact on development in Third World countries because more women than men became unemployed.

Moser (1993:71) points out that the weakness of the efficiency approach and structural adjustment programmes is that they define *economy* in terms of 'marketed goods and services, and focus only on the productive role of women and ignore the reproductive role since it is not part of the paid work and, as such, it worsened the living conditions for women by increasing their workload'.

The efficiency approach, which concentrates more on the productive role of women, 'fails to address their strategic gender needs because it does not lead to greater autonomy for women' (Tasli 2007:21). This approach assumes that any economic advancement for women would automatically trickle down into other spheres of their lives. However, the approach has failed to address their strategic gender needs, hence; it increases women's domestic workload.

2.2.3 Basic needs approach

The basic needs approach came to prominence in the 1970s (Rai 2002:62). Rai (2002:62) shows that the approach was introduced by the International Labour Organization (ILO) at its World Employment Conference. According to the South African National Policy on Women Empowerment and Equality (2007:ii), a basic needs approach is 'holistic' in nature. It implies

that to deliver programmes using this approach requires that those involved 'will have to mobilize across a number of sectors to address the multiple needs of women assumed within this model' (p. 11). The traditional list of basic needs includes 'water, shelter, food, sanitation, education and health care' (Denton 1990:17). This approach, according to Rai (2002:62), 'questioned the focus on growth and income as indicators of development, and put forward an argument that it was rather misleading if one sees poverty as an end that can be eradicated by earning higher incomes'. Amartya Sen, the 1998 Nobel Laureate in Economics (cited in Todaro & Smith 2009:16), argued using his 'capabilities approach' that 'income and wealth were not the ends in themselves, but the means through which other social benefits could be obtained, particularly the capability to function was what really mattered. According to Rai (2002:62), the liberal 'trickle down' approach was criticized by Sen for lack of reduction in the poverty level and the increase in unemployment. Todaro and Smith (2009:14) argue that development in the traditional sense was criticized because it was seen as 'an economic phenomenon in which economic growth would either "trickle down" to the masses in the form of jobs and other economic opportunities or create conditions for wider distribution of the economic and social benefits of growth and the problems of poverty, discrimination, unemployment and income distribution were of less or secondary importance'.

Rai (2002:63) states that the basic needs theorists argued that it would not make sense to consider poverty as of secondary importance because 'poverty was an indication of the inability of people to meet their basic needs, which included both physical and intangible needs'. The basic needs approach, according to Rai (2002:62), argues that poverty can only be eradicated if the basic needs of the beneficiaries are attended to and prompt actions are taken to address them. The basic needs approach rejected the view that development was about the division between growth policies and income distribution, but it indicated that it must be defined as a selective attack on the worst forms of poverty (p. 63). The basic needs approach shifted development thinking from actual income earners to meeting the basic needs of people (p. 63).

Rai (2002:66) stresses that Sen's work became important to this approach not because of 'its sensitivity to gender relations and its criticism of the neo-liberal economics', but because 'it attempted to move beyond an understanding of human needs and capabilities'. Amartya Sen (cited in Todaro & Smith 2009:16) argued that poverty could not be properly measured by income or even by goods that were consumed, but by the capability to function. Rai (2002:66) argues that Sen was very much against 'a culture-based acceptance of women's entitlements because they were internalized and reproduced as a culture of sacrifice which had a negative impact on the development process'. Sen (cited in Todaro & Smith 2009:17) argued that

'income levels or the levels of consumption of goods and services could not be seen as a measure of well-being'. Sen argued that for being human, 'well-being' referred to 'being healthy; well-nourished, or highly literate and more broadly, having freedom of choice in what one could become and could do' (p. 19).

Rai (2002:66) indicates that because of 'the limited access women have to the world of paid work, or control over family income and its distribution, their position within the family has become adversely affected and compromised'. Todaro and Smith (2009:22) point out that globally women tend to be poorer than men, and they are more deprived of health and education and freedom in all its forms because of their limited access to the mainstream economy. Despite all these challenges, women still have the capacity to bring resources to their families that would break the cycle of transmission of poverty from one generation to another (p. 22).

According to Rai (2002:68), the basic needs theory, similar to human capability and eco-feminist theories, has an interest in sustainable development. Sustainable development became part of the development debate which ultimately resulted in the release of a number of reports which includes that of the World Commission on Economic Development (WCED) in 1987 (p. 68). The WCED's report defined *sustainable development* as 'development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (p. 68).

A number of summits were held after the one in 1987. According to paragraph 13 of the Rome Declaration on World Food Security, issued at the World Food Summit, held in Italy in November 1996 (cited in FAO 2003:3), sustainable development is essential to address the problem of poverty and hunger as indicated at the summit as follows:

A growing world population and the urgency of eradicating hunger and malnutrition call for determined policies and effective actions. A peaceful, stable and enabling political, social and economic environment is the essential foundation which will enable states to give adequate priority to food security, poverty eradication and sustainable agriculture, fisheries, forestry and rural development, promotion and protection of all human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the right to development and the progressive realization of the right to adequate food for all and the full and equal participation of men and women are also indispensable to our goal of achieving sustainable food security for all.

However, sustainable development cannot be achieved by efforts that ignore or exclude women (FAO 2003:5). According to Booyesen-Wolthers (2007:35), the sustainable development

paradigm redirected development efforts from its top-down approach and implementation planning to include communities in the assessment of poverty. FAO (2003:5) argues that development strategies are clearly more equitable when they 'consider the different needs, constraints, opportunities and priorities of men and women'. The recognition of 'men's and women's valuable and distinct skills and knowledge can help to shape policies and programmes that contribute to both economic growth and equity objectives' (p. 5).

However, Todaro and Smith (2009:16) argue that the most challenging aspect of sustainable development is the fact that it is tied to a capital model. The weakness of the capital model is that there is unequal distribution of profits between the owners of the means of production and the workforce and, as a result, a sharp increase in private capital accumulation occurs at the expense of poor workers (Terreblanche 1999:6).

However, the criticism levelled against the politics of a needs-based approach was 'one based on persuasion of information and education rather than any fundamental challenges to the prevailing social conditions' (Rai 2002:70); in other words, the needs-based approach does not challenge other social aspects that affect the living conditions of people beyond needs' satisfaction. The failure of the needs-based approach to address social challenges beyond the satisfaction of basic needs led to a paradigm shift in development thinking (p. 71). Young (cited in Rai 2002:71) indicates that 'a shift in focus from women to gender relationships that position women within society became necessary and it should be at the centre of political activity'.

2.2.4 Gender and development

The GAD perspective emerged as 'a response to the failure of the prevailing WID approach in the 1980s' (Østergaard 1992:6). The debt crisis and the widespread 'shock' treatments and structural adjustment programmes in the US during this period prompted the government to narrow its development agenda (Jaquette 2008:5). The narrowing of the development agenda benefitted the West and created a number of problems for the developing countries because the effects of structural adjustment policies that emphasized privatization and cuts in government spending had a negative impact on employment, incomes and social programmes (p. 5). For example, more women than men in Third World countries became unemployed as a result of the structural adjustment programmes (Sparr 1994:21). The reduction in social programmes as a result of structural adjustment programmes and the frustration experienced with the lack of significant progress made by the WID approach in changing the lives of women and in influencing the broader development agenda in society prompted a desire

among development practitioners to find a different model for promoting gender equity, which would encompass a broader, more multicultural approach and one that took both men and women into account (Jaquette 2008:6; Reeves & Baden 2000:33). The shift in development thinking was necessary because 'a new approach had to be developed to address the shortcomings of the WID approach in response to a new and different set of challenges and opportunities' (Jaquette 2008:6); in other words, the GAD approach was, therefore, developed as a solution to the failure of both the WID projects and the structural adjustment programmes to effect qualitative and lasting changes in women's socio-economic conditions. Rippennar-Joseph (2009:25) maintains that 'the emergence of the GAD approach was in many ways a reaction by women from Third World countries against the predominance of white women from the North in determining the content and the discourse on development'. Third World women were eager 'to demonstrate to the world in general and to white women from the North in particular that they could speak on their own behalf' (p. 25). Rather than focusing solely on women and women's projects, FAO (2003:6) argues that GAD 'provides a framework and an obligation to re-examine all social, political and economic structures and development policies from the perspective of gender relations'. Reeves and Baden (2000:33) point out the WID approach failed because it focused on women as a group separate from the development process and seeing women's problems as the imbalance of power between women and men whereas the GAD concept focuses the matter in terms of the social relations of gender. However, there are different interpretations of GAD, some of which focus primarily on the gender division of labour and gender roles as a relation of power embedded in institutions (p. 33). Despite the fact that there are different interpretations of the GAD concept, development practitioners agree that gender relations are central to this approach. The GAD approach is more concerned with the relationships, the way in which men and women participate in development processes, rather than strictly focusing on women's issues in isolation (p. 33). D'Ágostinho and Levine (2010:141) argue that 'gender-neutral public policies may be inadequate, and gender-specific policies, which are more radical and vocal to gender relations, may be required to alleviate problems of poverty effectively'. It is for this reason that after the 1985 Beijing Conference on Women, many countries that had adopted the resolutions started to create gender-responsive budgeting and integrated women into development (p. 141).

The term *gender*, according to Østergaard (1992:6), refers to the 'qualitative and interdependent character of women's and men's position in society'. According to Joseph (2002:7), *gender* differs from the concept *sex*. *Sex* refers to 'the physical and biological differences between men and women', whereas *gender* refers to 'the different roles and responsibilities that society assigns to people on the basis of whether they are male or

female'. The concept *gender relations*, which is closely linked to the concept of gender 'is constituted in terms of the relations of power and dominance that structure the life patterns of women and men' (Østergaard 1992:6). FAO (2003:6) states that the GAD approach defines gender and the unequal power relations between women and men as essential categories of analysis. Ann Whitehead (cited in Østergaard 1992:6) provided a definition of *gender relations* as a contribution to the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) Conference held in 1978, and outlined the rationale for the concept in the following manner:

No study of women and development can start from the viewpoint that the problem is women, but rather men and women, and more specifically in the relations between them.

The relations between men and women are socially constituted and are not derived from biology. Therefore, the term *gender relations* should distinguish such social relations between men and women from those characteristics, which can be derived from biological differences. In this connection sex is the province of biology, i.e. fixed and unchangeable qualities, while gender is the province of social science, i.e. qualities which are shaped through the history of social relations and interaction.

The new gender focus, according to Tasli (2007:24), is 'not only limited between women and men, but it is extended to their relative positions in the socio-economic and political structures'. According to Young (1993:53), relations between women and men are shaped in a variety of settings. The GAD approach was, therefore, implemented because it encompasses the holistic approach to the development process (Østergaard 1992:7). However, (Østergaard 1992:7) argues that gender relations are 'not necessarily nor obviously harmonious and non-conflicting, but they often take a form of male dominance and female subordination'. Despite the fact that the WID approach had some shortcomings, the GAD approach was developed by building on the knowledge and successes of the WID approach (p. 3). Reeves and Baden (2000:33) indicate that the WID and GAD perspectives are theoretically distinct, but in practice are less clear, because a development programme that uses one of these approaches contains some elements of the other one.

Despite the integration of women into economic development, El-Bushra (2001:56–57) argues that the approach is not clearly articulated as there are points of confusion regarding the GAD concept:

Firstly, the confusion created is that it is not clear what the concept of gender is all about. This has also caused individuals and development agencies to differ radically in terms of interpretation and implementation of the concept. Arnfed (2001:75) argues that the confusion

in terminology stems from the fact that the term *gender* is 'used as a neutral term which refers to both women and men'.

Secondly, the confusion is caused by the assumption that gender transformation equals women's economic betterment. Development agencies, according to El-Bushra (2001:57), still adopt women's economic betterment as their main strategy and assume that any advancement in the women's economic situation of women would automatically trickle down to gender equality.

Thirdly, the confusion was created by oversimplification of complex issues into slogans, for example, to say that women constituted 70 per cent of the world 1,3 billion of the absolute poor and own only one percent of the World's land (El-Bushra 2001:57). Such a claim tends to be highly effective yet it does not have an accurate basis (p. 57).

2.2.5 Gender approach to development in South Africa

Joseph (2002:10) believes that the process of development, 'from policy-making to the implementation of programmes, is determined by the beliefs and values of programme developers'. The challenge of this kind of thinking is that 'any programme that is designed such that certain members of a community are excluded will not meet the needs of the community' (p. 10). Joseph (2002:10) points out that development history shows that women are usually in the least-resourced positions and are seen to be the passive recipients of development. Joseph (2002:10) argues that 'until women's labour is recognized as making a contribution towards economic development, women's development priorities will remain invisible'. There are a number of 'legal, political, moral and economic imperatives for the government to promote gender equity in the community it serves' (p. 10). The term *equity* includes 'full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms' (p. 18).

The definition of *gender* was also a major concern for the ANC in South Africa (ANC 2012:2). According to the ANC (2012:2), *gender* is defined as 'a socially constructed understanding of what it is to be a man and what it is to be a woman'. The ANC is very concerned with the issue of gender such that gender is discussed at almost all its policy conferences (p.2).

Women are not seen as forming a society separate from men but, instead, 'there is only one society and it is on everyone's shoulder to work in unison, women and men, to eradicate socially constructed stereotypes and patriarchal practices that seem to give men dominant authority over women' (p. 4). The rigorous debate by the ANC (2012:4) that 'the engagement

of men and boys to advance the rights and empowerment of women is rather invaluable, incalculable and misleading in achieving gender equality in a stable society'; in other words, 'the absence of women in the development process is a missing link that is needed to advance the needs and interests of women in the society' (p.4).

According to Sadie and Loots (1998:3), the gender approach to development involves not only an integration of women into development, but 'looks for the potential in development initiatives to transform unequal gender and social relations and to empower them'. The gender approach views inequality between men and women as 'structural, dictated and socially constituted' (p. 3).

The RDP is one of the official policy frameworks for South Africa that has been designed specifically to fight abject poverty, and its emphasis is placed on the development and empowerment of women (Sadie & Loots 1998:5).

The guidelines in the RDP document on development in South Africa suggest a gender-based approach to development. However, the challenge of a gender approach lies in its implementation which is the *sine qua non* of all development policies. Although all legal constraints inhibiting women's equality have been abolished since the dawn of the new democracy in 1994, 'what remains as a challenge now is whether the ideals set in the RDP document have materialised in actual projects and whether those projects launched, indeed have managed to meet the criteria of empowerment in terms of meeting other social strategic needs such as participation in decision-making' (Sadie & Loots 1998:6). The issue now is to check whether the projects addressed the practical and strategic gender needs of women; in other words, the GAD checks whether the projects are making any remarkable progress in terms of improving the living conditions of the beneficiaries or they are being used as a ploy for political manoeuvres by politicians to be re-elected to serve in higher offices at the expense of the employable population. To ensure that the 'radical gender-based approach is implemented, it should be accompanied by gender budget analyses work on the principle that budget policies that are key to the formulation of programmes can tell whether the impact of the programmes is in line with the stated gender policy' (Akerkar 2001:18). Gender disaggregated data are used 'to understand the impact of budgetary allocations, and the analysis can enable the re-allocation of programme budgets and act as a gender equalizing measure and the pioneering work has already been done in South Africa' (p.18).

According to Sadie and Loots (1998:28), where policy frameworks are supportive of a gender-sensitive approach such as in the Departments of Agriculture and Land Affairs, and

Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, problems are experienced in translating gender policies into practice. The first challenge is with respect to the 'lack of meaningful participation by women in the planning, management, implementation and assessment of a project which is a significant indication of the extent to which women's strategic needs are met' (p. 28). Participation 'as an activity and process not only increases the information available about the locality in which the projects are to be launched, but enables women to prioritise their needs and develop self-confidence and collective capacity' (p. 28).

Sadie and Loots (1998:29) show that women face various challenges that limit their participation in decision-making such as

time constraints associated with their multiple roles in society, which are exacerbated when there is a lack of infrastructure and service delivery, especially in rural areas, as this increases women's workload, inexperience in articulating views and unfamiliarity with technical concepts; cultural and social barriers in that they are not expected to become involved in decision-making processes and also prevailing attitudes towards women's potential. Widely accepted stereotypes depict men, not women, as having skills required to become involved in decision-making. (P.29.)

The second challenge is with respect to lack of appropriate experience and analytical abilities in dealing with gender issues among officials (p. 29). Lack of training is a major problem that inhibits officials from performing their work as expected and for that reason gender awareness training should be promoted at all level of government, including those officials who are directly involved in projects. Sadie and Loots (1998:29) maintain that training will ensure that officials are able to integrate gender issues into policy, planning and implementation. They argue that 'gender disaggregated information is also relevant so that the information is collected in a way that enables differences between men and women to be established clearly' (p. 29). They are of the opinion that in failing to collect such information it is likely that the specific gender issues will be given less attention if not ignored entirely (p. 29).

Lastly, a gender-sensitive approach 'requires not only the incorporation of gender planning in programmes, but the development of appropriate methodologies for planning and monitoring projects for their impact on gender relations' (p. 29). Only by understanding the effect of projects and policies on women and men can one know with certainty whether their various needs are being met (p. 29).

2.2.6 The empowerment approach

The empowerment approach, according to Moser (1993:74), is the most recent approach to the development of Third World women. Empowerment, strictly speaking, according to Rippenaar-Joseph (2009:23), is not part of the WID concept but is an approach 'used largely by Third World women feminists in the mid-1980 as a result of the paradigm shift in thinking about women and development'. The empowerment approach, according to Moser (1993:57), arose out of the failure of the equity approach. Its origin is in 'Third World women's writing and grass-roots organization' (p. 74). The empowerment approach, according to Aslop and Norton (2004:4), is closely associated with rights-based approaches to development which have their founding principle in justice and equity in relations between people, as well as the idea that individuals are entitled to benefits which the government is obliged to advance, promote and protect. Rights-based approaches emerged from the political understanding of development which has shifted from the technical aspect to justice and equity (Aslop & Norton 2004:4). The empowerment approach, according to the Commission on Women and Development (2007:11), is developed to operate in relation to changes on two levels, namely (i) personal capacity and (ii) in the socio-political dimension. The best-known pioneer of the empowerment approach has been the Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era (DAWN) which was an initiative set up by individual women and women's groups before the 1985 Conference of Women in Nairobi (Moser 1993:75). The purpose of DAWN (quoted in Moser 1993:75) has not only been to analyse the conditions of women throughout the world, but also to formulate a vision of an alternative future society, which they outlined as follows:

We want a world where inequality based on class, gender and race is absent from every country and from the relationships among countries. We want a world where basic needs become basic rights and where basic rights become basic needs and where poverty and all forms of violence are eliminated. Each person will have the opportunity to develop her or his full potential and creativity, and women's values of nurturance and solidarity will characterise human relationships. In such a world women's reproductive role will be redefined: childcare will be shared by men, women and society as a whole. Only by sharpening the links between equality, development and peace, can we show that the 'basic rights' of the poor and the transformation of the institution that subordinate women are inextricably linked. They can be achieved together through the self-empowerment of women. (1985:73–75.)

The empowerment approach, like the equity approach, acknowledges the inequalities between men and women, and the origins of women's subordination and the origins of oppression in the family, and also in the community in terms of race, class, colonial history and current position in the current international economic order, but it goes beyond what the equity approach was capable of doing, by encouraging and maintaining that women have to challenge oppressive structures and situations simultaneously at different levels (Moser

1993:75). Despite the difficulty in defining the concept of empowerment, this approach, according to Moser (1992:92), focuses on reducing inequality between women and men through the bottom-up mobilization of women. The approach, according to Moser (1993:74), sees women's subordination 'not only as the problem of men but also of colonial and neo-classical oppression'. It is for this reason that women need to stand up and fight against the oppression perpetuated by both men and colonialists. In order to fight against these forms of oppression, gender power relations need to be transformed through individuals or groups by developing awareness of women's subordination, and building up their capacity to challenge it (p. 74). The concept *empowerment* is widely used in development agency policy and programme documents in general and in relation to women in particular (Reeves & Baden 2000:35). The term is highly political and, therefore, its meaning is also highly contested (p. 35). They indicate that empowerment is closely associated with power itself. However, Reeves and Baden (2000:35) argued that women empowerment 'despite its complexity did not imply women taking over control of power previously held by men, but rather the need to transform the nature of power relations'. Andersen (1992:174) explains that empowerment does 'not imply transferring power from men to women, but it focuses on increasing women's control over their choices in their life'. The empowerment approach, however, 'may threaten the positions previously held by men because it encourages women to make choices, including an increase in the decision-making capacity in the household and community which men may regard as undermining or challenging their socially constructed authority' (p. 174). Moser (1993:74) emphasizes the fact that the empowerment approach acknowledges the importance of increasing power but it does not seek the power of domination over others; in other words, the approach does not encourage women to have dominant power over men. Contrary to the belief of some men that the empowerment approach seeks to reduce their power in the household and community, it identifies 'power that is required more in terms of the capacity of women to increase their own self-reliance and internal strength without compromising the power previously held by men' (p. 74). This approach only seeks to empower women through the redistribution of power within and between societies (p. 75). However, the empowerment approach, according to Andersen (1992:175), questions the following two assumptions of the equity approach:

- (i) Development necessarily helps all people including men.
- (ii) Women want to be integrated into the mainstream of Western-designed development, in which they have no choice in defining the kind of society they want.

The empowerment approach, according to Andersen (1992:174), goes beyond the equity approach. It seeks to promote self-reliance and self-confidence so that women play a

meaningful role in society. The approach recognizes the triple role of women, namely (i) reproductive work (primary), (ii) productive work (secondary) and (iii) community-managing work. It champions the use of a 'bottom-up' approach to raise women's awareness so that they can challenge their status in society. Recognition of the limitations of the top-down government legislation, according to Moser (1993:76), has led the adherents of the empowerment approach to acknowledge that their strategies will not be implemented without the sustained and systematic efforts of women's organisations and groups that have a common purpose for achieving development. The empowerment approach, according to Moser (1993:77), seeks to 'assist traditional organizations in moving towards greater feminist issues'. The limited success of the equity approach to confront directly the nature of women's subordination through legislative changes has led the empowerment approach to avoid confrontation, and for that reason, the approach 'utilizes practical gender needs as the basis for mobilizing support, and as a means through which strategic needs may be reached (p. 77).

The potentially challenging nature of the empowerment approach, according to Moser (1993:77), has resulted in it 'being largely unsupported by donor agencies and national governments because it emphasizes proper consultation with all stakeholders and those institutions have to work through official channels'. Lack of support for the empowerment approach by donor agencies and national governments is an indication that beneficiaries are not treated as equal partners in the development process but as subordinates.

However, empowerment is a new approach that has been adopted in South Africa to deal with the problem of poverty. Joseph (2002:19) maintains that local government should promote community empowerment because, in reality, 'black women are the majority of the poor, and any strategies to combat poverty must take this into account'. Joseph (2002:19) argues that the empowerment of women is 'a moral imperative' because their contributions are often undervalued and ignored, which 'erodes their self-confidence and limits their opportunities to develop the required skills'.

2.3 Review of the evidence of the role of community development programmes in the empowerment of women in South Africa

The RDP document was originally used by the ANC as an election tool, but was subsequently accepted in 1994 by the GNU as its official development policy document (Visser 2004:6). The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa), which was based on the principles set out in the RDP foundation document was published in September 1994 in order to set discussion in motion. It is of the utmost importance to indicate

that the government thought it wise to locate the RDP Office in the Office of the President in 1994 and have it headed by the Minister without a Portfolio, Jay Naidoo, who was charged with the responsibility of managing the RDP fund and to liaise with the different government departments in implementing the RDP projects (Republic of South Africa 1994). The RDP Office was strategically located in the Office of the President because of the critical role that it played in fighting poverty.

The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) identifies various projects. These projects originally included 15 Presidential Lead projects, 14 Special Integrated Presidential and 48 other RDP-related projects. The Special Integrated Presidential projects are mainly focused on urban renewal. The other 48 RDP-related projects are projects that were initiated through provinces and financed through provincial discretionary funds. However, the important RDP projects were the Presidential Lead projects.

With the closing down of the RDP Ministry in April 1996, the RDP Office, disability, gender and children's programmes were moved to the Office of the then Deputy President, Thabo Mbeki (RDP Development Monitor 1996:2). The closure of the Ministry resulted in the Presidential Lead projects being moved to individual line departments and each department being charged with responsibility for determining its own development programmes, taking into account the issue of gender.

Since the Presidential Lead projects had been moved to the appropriate line departments, the analysis of this study will be structured according to government departments on a national basis so as to give evidence of the role of the CDPs on the empowerment of women in South Africa.

2.3.1 Department of Agriculture

Small-scale farming development was earmarked as one of the programme to be promoted in order to benefit all the rural people of South Africa. The Department of Agriculture committed itself to 'recognising and assisting women in their central role as food producers by supporting small-scale, rural-based agricultural enterprises managed by women' (RDP Development Monitor 1996:2). The Department of Agriculture granted assistance to small-scale farmers and the purpose of the grant was to assist groups of emerging farmers with improving their productivity. According to the Directorate: RDP Development Monitor (1996:2), 814 projects involving 20224 small-scale farmers, were reported until 1996.

The challenge with the issuing of grants to small scale-farmers by the department was that it did not take any gender into consideration (Sadie & Loots: 1998:10). The empowerment of women was therefore compromised and the economic domination by men was maintained as a norm in society.

2.3.2 Department of Education

Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) and the Culture of Learning Programme are two Presidential Lead projects that fall under the Department of Education. The ABET programme was launched to improve both the quantity and quality of delivery to adult learners with special emphasis on rural-based women (Department of Education 1997:24). The project budget was for R50 million and some 10 000 learners were taught literacy and numeracy skills in each province (Department of Education 1997: v).

However, according to Sadie and Loots (1998:13), the ABET policy and plan failed to recognise the interests of women, and that led to its failure to redress gender inequalities in South Africa.

Joseph (2002:16) points out that the '1995 figures reflected that 20 per cent of all African women had no formal education'. The situation was worsened by the inadequate budget allocation on ABET because only 1 per cent of the total education budget was spent on this programme (p.16).

Despite this low percentage budget allocation, there has been remarkable progress in other areas. The Community Survey 2007 (2007:12) indicates that the percentage of people aged 5 and 24 years attending school increased from 63 per cent in 1996 to 74 per cent in 2007, particularly for those aged 5 to 17 years. The percentage of female learners attending school increased from 76,5 per cent in 1996 to 80,6 per cent in 2007, while the percentage of male learners increased from 80,2 per cent in 1996 to 83,5 per cent in 2007. The percentage change in the number of female learners was 4, 1 per cent and that of male learners was 3,3 per cent. The findings revealed that more female learners have benefitted from education since 1996.

2.3.3 Department of Health and Welfare

The Department of Health was charged with the responsibility of 'implementing three projects which form part of the primary health-care programmes, namely (i) free health care for

pregnant women and children under six years of age,(ii) the building of clinics, and (iii) an AIDS Awareness and Prevention Campaign' (Sher 1993:468–469). Despite the fact that the HIV/AIDS Awareness and Prevention Campaign had been identified as a Presidential Lead Project, the Department of Health has failed to implement a national HIV/AIDS awareness programme since 1996, (*The Star* April 1998). According to Ulin (1992:64), there were no particular strategies relating to women and their particular needs. In conclusion, lack of strategies to address women's needs and interests posed a serious health challenge to them.

2.3.4 Department of Housing

According to section 26 entrenched in the Bill of Rights of the Constitution of South Africa (Republic of South Africa 1996), housing is a fundamental right and for that reason every citizen has the right to have access to adequate housing. According to the Department of Finance 1998 Budget Review, approximately 385 000 houses had been built and 700 000 subsidies had been reserved in the period April 1994 to December 1997. A very encouraging initiative was that of a voluntary group supported by the Department of Housing, who set up a Women for Housing Group in 1996, co-ordinated by Mjoli-Mncube, who was the Executive Director of National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency (NURCHA), which is a government-funded development finance company that provides bridging finance and construction support services to contractors and developers. The aim of the initiative, according to the Department of Housing (1997:28), was to empower women through housing, ensuring that they benefitted from subsidised housing, and to prevent the marginalisation of women during the process of housing formalisation (Department of Housing 1997:28). According to Sadie and Loots (1998:29), the weakness in the department, however, was that there were no gender disaggregated data available to show exactly how many women benefitted from the housing initiative.

The key findings of the Community Survey 2007 (2007:12) indicate that housing conditions has improved since 1996. The survey reveals that 71 per cent of households live in formal dwellings as compared to 64 per cent in 1996. However, 15 per cent of the households live in informal dwellings. The survey also reflects that 80 per cent of households use electricity for lighting as compared to 58 per cent in 1996. The survey indicates 67 per cent of households use electricity for cooking as compared to 47 per cent in 1996.

2.3.5 Department of Land Affairs

Land reform and land restitution are two Presidential Lead projects that have been allocated to the Department of Land Affairs. According to the *Green Paper on South African Land Policy*, (Republic of South Africa 1996) the land reform programme comprised the following three important elements

- (i) Land distribution which aims to provide the disadvantaged and the poor with land for residential and productive purposes. The willing seller and willing buyer policy was used by the government to purchase land and the proposed redistribution was not yet quantifiable, but priority was given to the marginalised and the needs of women.
- (iii) Land restitution which aims to restore land to those dispossessed through racially discriminatory measures.
- (iv) Land tenure reform that provides security of tenure to all South Africans.

A land reform pilot project, according to Sadie and Loots (1998:21), was 'an initial exploratory phase of the land redistribution programme and was initiated in December 1994'. The land reform pilot project was used to 'test different approaches that were efficient, equitable and replicable' (p. 21). Large amounts of money were used to kick-start a pilot project for land redistribution. The total financial commitment for the land reform pilot programme in each province until the end of 1996/97 was R35,09 million (Department of Land Affairs 1994:1).

The Land Reform Pilot Project Core Business Plan explicitly states that the elements of the programme are intended to enhance the material, political and social status of women (Hargreaves 1996:20). Despite the fact that there had been gender-sensitive policy proposals on land reform, the translation of the gender policies into practice is problematic (Gwangwa 1996:48).

2.3.6 Department of Public Works

Gwangwa (1996:48) indicates that a community-based public works programme (CBPWP) was launched to create jobs, especially in rural areas. The National Public Works Programme (NPWP), according to Gwangwa (1996:48), was adopted by the GNU in May 1994 as one of the mechanisms for implementing the RDP. The aim of the NPWP, according to Gwangwa (1996:48), was to

- reduce unemployment;
- empower communities;
- create physical assets that would improve the quality of life of the poor; and
- provide education and training to the unemployed, especially women, youth and rural dwellers.

The South African Institute of Race Relations Survey (SAIRR) 1995/96 indicated that since 1994, approximately R350 million had been allocated to the NPWP, and R250 million to the CBPWP from the RDP fund. The target beneficiaries for the CBPWP were rural areas, women, women-headed households and the youth (Visser 2004:7).

Despite the fact that large amounts of money have been invested in the programmes, these programmes do not seem to be vehicles for empowerment for the majority of women nor for giving women a unity of purpose beyond the life-span of a project.

2.3.7 Department of Water Affairs and Forestry

Rural Water Supply and Sanitation is the Presidential Lead project that falls under the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry. The lack of water supply and sanitation in rural areas was evident in the statistics released by Central Statistics in its October 1995 Household Survey. The *White Paper on Water Supply* (Republic of South Africa 1995) published in November 1995 indicates that two thirds of the population in rural areas had no access to running water in their homesteads and more than half of those households (34,3 per cent) had to travel distances of more than half a kilometre each day to fetch water.

The lack of basic services such as water supply and sanitation was an indication of poverty and underdevelopment. According to Modiba (1996:4), the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, experienced the following challenges:

- The staff, of the Department, particularly the technical staff had little knowledge on gender issues.
- Gender disaggregated data were not available within most project plans and without that information it was difficult to evaluate the relevance of the project and its impact on them,
- Sound monitoring tools for women empowerment programmes were largely not available and they relied mostly on quantitative indicators.

From the challenges raised above, one could easily conclude that the implementation of gender-sensitive water projects had many challenges that could not be solved within a short space of time.

However, according to the Community Survey 2007 (2007:13), the percentage increase of households using piped water from inside their dwellings rose from 32,3 per cent in 2001 to

47,5 per cent in 2007. Those who receive piped water inside the yards decreased from 23,2 per cent in 2001 to 19,1 per cent in 2007.

In conclusion, despite the remarkable progress made by the RDP, the 1995 figures reflected a huge disparity in terms of political representation, employment status and income, education, and access to health services. Some of these challenges referred to in this paragraph are explained as follows:

(i) Political representation

According to Joseph (2002:16), the political representation for women was as follows: seats in Parliament (30 per cent), members of Cabinet (28 per cent), deputy ministers (62 per cent), seats in the National Council of Provinces (32 per cent), provincial premiers (11 per cent) and municipal councillors (18 per cent). The results reflected that women were represented above 50 per cent only as deputy ministers.

(ii) Employment status

Unemployed African women constituted 47 per cent as compared to 29 per cent of their male counterparts (Joseph 2002:16). The results showed that women experienced a higher unemployment rate.

(iii) Education

Comparisons of 20-year-olds reflect that African women who had Matric/Grade 12 constituted 18 per cent, while their white counterparts constituted 66 per cent (Joseph 2002:16). The figures were lower than that of their African male counterparts who represented 21 per cent. The results reflected that 20-year-old African women were lagging behind in terms of receiving formal education.

(iv) Access to services

Children not born in formal health facilities represented 18 per cent among African women, while the whites represented 2 per cent of the entire population (Joseph 2002:16). The result showed that African women faced challenges in terms of accessing health facilities as compared to white women.

2.4 Examples of local projects that serve as best practices on the empowerment of women through CDPs

2.4.1 Mukondeni Pottery project

The first example that illustrates the best practice by women is that of the Mukondeni Pottery Group, a pottery co-operative and a garden group (Oberhauser 2012:6). This project is located in the Vhembe district of Limpopo Province. The project started as a collective with 13 women from this local area who initiated it as a small-scale project but who have since expanded its production in the area (p.5). To start the pottery project, the women decided to make use of the available local natural resources in the area which include clay, firewood and graphite stone (p.5). The women who initiated this project are the ones who control the production of pots sold at the market (p.5). The project has since expanded its horizons and these women are a shining example of people who can do something out of nothing. They had humble beginnings but their project is fascinating and appealing to other women, and has encouraged others to do the same.

2.4.2 Fulufhelo Community Garden

The second example of a community-based collective is the Fulufhelo Community Garden, also located in Limpopo Province (Oberhauser 2012:6). This garden collective is located in a rural area with two hectares of land planted with a variety of vegetables and some grains that are sold to the local market (p.6). The land that they are using was given to them by the local traditional chief (p. 6). The group of women who initiated this project has established a system of labour that draws on members to plant, hoe, weed, irrigate and cultivate crops collectively (p.6). The findings from this research demonstrate that women play an important role in rural and community development (p.6). Although women are often excluded from the mainstream economy, such as formal employment, they head households while men migrate to urban areas to seek work in mines, factories and the construction sector (p.6). The activities of these women illustrate some of the best practices by women that are vital to rural economies.

2.4.3 African Flower Trust

The story of Suraya Cassiem is an inspiration to other women who are waiting for a change to break free from poverty (De Villiers & van den Berg 2006:67). She comes from a long tradition of involvement in the flower business and opened her first flower stall in George in the Western Cape (p.67).

With the help of the Western Cape Premier, Ebrahim Rasool, Cassiem was able to expand her business from flower selling to growing and exporting prized proteas and other wild flowers (p.68).The Premier encouraged her to talk to the Land Bank about buying a farm to grow flowers after he had seen her striking flower stall in the main street in George (p.68).

In less than two years after her discussion with the Premier, her business expanded to the level she had never dreamed of (p.68). The story of this woman is one of hope, fascinating, survival, dedication and a will to succeed (p.68). She is able to export a truckload of proteas and bouquets from Cape Town to Europe every second day.

Since then, Suraya Cassiem has been nominated as female Farmer of the Year in the Western Cape and her business has been nominated as one of the top new export companies in the Western Cape (p.69). The objective of this successful company is to become the top protea-growing and -exporting farm in the province (p.69).

Cassiem's company is full of praise for the support it has received from government at national and provincial levels to acquire the farm and for the ongoing assistance received from the provincial department of agriculture (p.71).

In conclusion, it is of critical importance to indicate that this analysis of gender and livelihood strategies in South Africa illustrates the importance of CDPs as outlined in the RDP document. The essential role of gender in this process is especially relevant with regard to accessing and controlling natural resources for rural development. Finally, the aim of this approach is to highlight the crucial role of women and gender analyses in combating poverty among rural women, and ensuring sustainable development as outlined in the UN Millennium Development Goals.

2.5 Lessons learnt on the empowerment of women through CDPs

Some of the lessons learnt include the following:

- Participants in the CDPs should be realistic in their expectations, and be willing to work hard and show their commitment to making things work out.
- A project has little chance of success unless its members are willing to go an extra mile in making sure that things work out their way.

- Political commitment and collaboration should be fostered between key partners and the community
- It is crucial to have a historical, political, social and economic analysis of the country in order to assess carefully whether the government has the capacity to support CDPs in a manner consistent with both upward and downward accountability.
- The government should be committed to a cultural change in the institutional environment, which has to become more participatory, responsive, and transparent with downward accountability; in other words, government needs to create a political environment conducive to partnership and collaboration among partners.
- Existing community resources and organizational systems should be expanded.
- Community participation is of critical importance and it cannot be overemphasized.
- Decision-makers must be convinced of the need for involving the community in all phases of programme planning and implementation.
- Programmes should be built around existing community knowledge for them to be successful.
- Support infrastructure should be strengthened.
- Good management and guaranteed quality service demand committed, motivated and results-orientated staff, with effective leadership.
- Scaling up the implementation of CDPs requires a strong ethic of learning by doing, with rigorous evaluations and reliable monitoring systems to provide constant feedback. Ideally, both qualitative and quantitative methods should be used to provide reliable estimates of impact and an in-depth examination of context and process.
- Lessons drawn from the implementation of CDPs should be incorporated in the next phases of project design to correct mistakes, which might have been committed.
- Training of facilitators should be taken into serious consideration because it is key to successful interventions.
- Inexperienced facilitators should be given an opportunity to learn and grow, under the supervision of leadership of experienced mentors, as part of a gradual learning by doing process.
- Changing from top-down to bottom-up development in a manner that is sensitive to the local context and culture requires a long time horizon; in other words, local people should be listened to and their input should be considered.
- The success of CDPs should not be judged hastily because initial evaluations may well be unfavourable. The reason for not making a hasty judgment is because it is important to fix problems and work towards incremental improvements.

Manuh (1998:16) also supports the lessons learnt by indicating that governments should build partnerships with the emerging women's associations and entrepreneurs to create an enabling policy environment. Governments and local authorities must demonstrate their commitment to removing legal impediments and socio-obstacles against women (p.16). Women's leadership skills in their communities, groups and associations need to be harnessed and formalized to give them political and decision-making power (p.16).

2.6 Summary

The White Paper on Reconstruction and Development acknowledged that the different systems that the government had used contributed immensely to how the income and wealth of the country were distributed in South Africa. The RDP was, therefore, introduced to improve the living conditions of all South Africans within a stable society. Women were targeted as one of the groups benefitting from this initiative. CDPs, as part of the RDP, were introduced as a tool for empowering women and, ultimately, contributing to sustainable development in the Malamulele area. The formation of women's clubs and associations is seen as one route to achieve this goal, and has the support from both national and local government.

However, development projects sponsored by Western organizations promote the Western culture at the expense of the recipient countries (Østergaard1992:1). Women's active and productive roles are ignored, and do not feature in development planning.

Different approaches were developed so as to improve the living conditions of women. These approaches include the following: the welfare; WID, comprising the following sub-approaches: the equity, the anti-poverty and the efficiency; basic needs; GAD and the empowerment.

Evidence of the role of CDPs in the empowerment of women in South Africa includes the introduction of various projects such as the Presidential Lead projects. The Presidential Lead projects were initially located in the office of the Deputy President but they were moved to the appropriate national line departments, which included the Department of Agriculture, Department of Education, Department of Health and Welfare, Department of Housing, Department of Land Affairs, Department of Public Works, and the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry. Despite the efforts made by the line departments, a huge disparity was experienced in terms of political representation, employment status, education and access to services.

This chapter outlined the lessons and best practices on the empowerment of women that have been learnt through the implementation of CDPs. The study of the above-mentioned areas will assist the researcher in drawing conclusions deduced from the responses obtained from the research questions.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

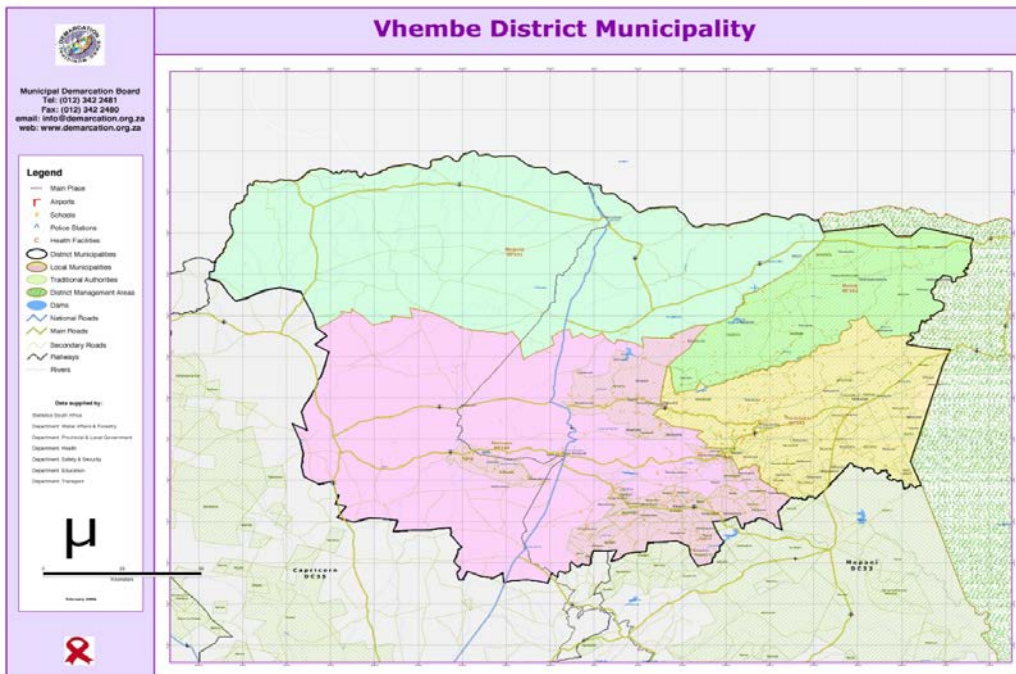
A methodology is 'the plan of action that is fundamental to every purposeful human action, such as scientific research' (Asmah-Andoh 2012:117). The author says that research methodology can be explained as 'a prescribed manner for conducting a research study with adequate consideration of the research problem, objectives and hypothesis' (p. 117). The purpose of this chapter is, therefore, to inform the reader of how this study was conducted; in other words, the chapter details what the researcher did to solve the research problem. The chapter will look into a number of aspects that include a brief discussion of the socio-economic characteristics of the study area, the research design, population and sampling procedures, data collection process, data analysis, and the ethical considerations that are of critical importance to the success of any study.

3.2 Study area

The study was conducted in the Malamulele cluster of the Thulamela Municipality. According to the Review of the Thulamela Municipality Integrated Development Planning 2010/11–2012/13 (2010:7), this municipality is one of the four local municipalities comprising the Vhembe District Municipality. Thulamela Municipality is the eastern-most local municipality in the Vhembe District Municipality (p. 7). The Kruger National Park (KNP) forms the boundary in the east, and it shares borders with Mutale Municipality in the north-east, Makhado Municipality in the south-west and the Greater Giyani District Municipality in the south (p. 7). The Thulamela Municipality was established in 2000 in terms of the Local Municipal Structures Act 177 of 1998 (p. 7). The current Thulamela Municipality is a municipal area covering vast tracts of land, mainly tribal areas. Thohoyandou is its political, administrative and commercial hub (p. 7).

The study area is located in the southern part of the Thulamela Local Municipality of the Vhembe District Municipality in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. The area is bounded by the KNP on the eastern side, and shares borders with the greater Giyani Local Municipality of the Mopani District Municipality in the south, and is bounded by the Thohoyandou area of the Thulamela Municipality in the northern part. The Livuvhu River forms a boundary between the Thohoyandou and Malamulele areas.

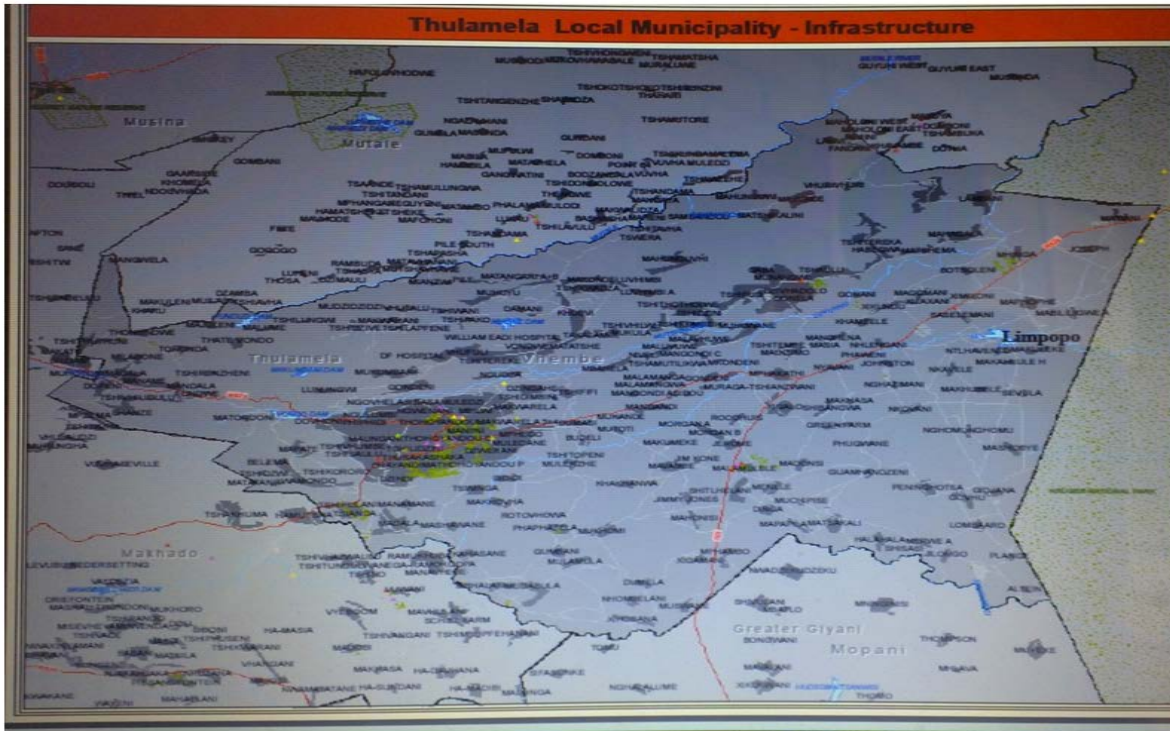
Figure 3.1: Map of the Vhembe District Municipality



Source: Vhembe District Municipality website.

The Thulamela Local Municipality is shown by the yellow portion on the map of the Vhembe District Municipality.

Figure 3.2: Map of the Thulamela Local Municipality



Source: Thulamela Local Municipality website.

In an interview conducted on 15 July 2010 with Mr L. Baloyi, Ward Councillor of Ward 13 in the Thulamela Local Municipality, the researcher asked the councillor about the number of ward councils and villages that constituted the Malamulele area and in his response he said:

Malamulele comprises 16 wards which are formed by 75 villages, three RDP towns and one township established during the Bantustan era, and the cluster follows the exact demarcation boundary of the former Levubu-Shingwedzi Transitional Local Government.

The area has been chosen precisely because of the low-economic activity that is taking place among the majority of the adult population, especially women. The majority of women are unemployed and, as a result, the majority of families live in abject poverty. The population of the Thulamela Local Municipality as per the Thulamela Municipality Integrated Development Planning stood at 602 819 in 2010 (IDP Review 2010:7). In terms of population, Thulamela Municipality is the largest of the four municipalities falling under Vhembe District Municipality (p. 7). The municipality comprises 137 852 households (p. 7). However, the average

percentage of households in the Thulamela Municipal area that is headed by women is unknown (p. 39). The IDP review report further indicated that approximately 55,28 per cent of the population of the Thulamela municipal area are females which is higher than the provincial average percentage of females of 54,29 per cent (p.7). It, therefore, stands to reason that women form the highest percentage of the population of this area who live in absolute poverty. They rely mainly on CDPs as a way to generate income for their families. Few individuals are privileged to work as government employees such as teachers, nurses and police officers. There are no firms or companies that could provide decent jobs, except a few shops that are there to serve the interests of the shareholders at the expense of community members. Security grants in the form of child support grants are forms of poverty-alleviation strategies used by the government to generate income for some of the women within the demarcated study area. The majority of the communities have no access to basic services such as clean water, sanitation facilities and electricity (IDP Review 2010:29). Children walk long distances to receive their education. The geographical area is big and sparsely populated. However, the area is ideal for livestock farming, especially goat farming and cattle farming (p. 39). However, the potential for goat farming has not been well explored. Some of the challenges facing local farmers include lack of markets in which to sell their products, shortage of water and lack of access to markets (p.39).

CDPs came as a relief to most of the destitute families. CDPs are brought to the study area in order to help the needy community to fight poverty because the area is economically inactive. Women are, therefore, forced by circumstances beyond their control to work in CDPs because there are no other decent jobs that they can do to bring food to their family's table at the end of the day. Women feed their families through the meagre wages they receive from CDPs. However, some people within the demarcated area regard CDPs as a smokescreen for the failure of the ANC-led government to provide decent jobs as promised during the election campaign.

3.3 Population of the study

Welman *et al.* (2005:53) describes *population* as 'a group of potential participants to whom a researcher wants to generalize the results of the study'. Brink *et al.* (2006:131) emphasize that *population* refers to 'the entire group of persons or objects that meets the criteria that the researcher is interested in studying'. According to Welman *et al.* (2005:53), population is referred to as the 'full set of cases from which a sample is taken'. Roscoe (cited in Mouton 1996:134) maintains that population merely refers to 'a collection of objects, events, or individuals having some common characteristic that the researcher is interested in studying'.

The current study embraces all definitions that have been stated above by different researchers. The population for this study was the number of CDPs in which women participated in the Malamulele area.

The population of the study consists of 45 CDPs in the Malamulele cluster. The Malamulele cluster, as indicated above, comprises 75 villages and 16 wards. However, the number of CDPs in the cluster is not indicated in the municipality IDP review report.

3.4 Sampling method and sample size

Neuman (2006:219) points out that the primary purpose of sampling is to 'collect specific cases, events, or actions that can clarify and deepen understanding'. Brink *et al.* (2006:132) define *sampling* as 'the researcher's process of selecting the sample from a population in order to obtain information regarding a phenomenon under study'. Peil (1982:23) simplifies the matter by indicating that sampling is merely 'a selection of a part to represent the whole'. The population of this study is the number of projects in the Malamulele cluster. The projects are found in all wards. There are different types of projects such as irrigation schemes, poultry farming, sisal farming, pottery and beadwork, and micro-finance schemes. The researcher stratified CDPs according to type in order to arrive at a sample. The researcher then used stratified random sampling to select from each stratum but only from projects where women were participating. Bless *et al.* (2006:103) explain that the principle of stratified random selection is 'to divide a population into different groups, called strata, so that each element of population belongs to one and only one stratum'. The sample was stratified according to the type of projects because there were heterogeneous populations. Shipman (1997:58) indicates that 'to reduce the risk of a sample that was not representative; sampling should be done through stratification'. Brink *et al.* (2006:138) state that the advantage of using stratified sampling was that it 'ensured that every segment of the population was represented'. Shipman (1997:58) says that to ensure representation of each segment, the population should be broken down into smaller, more homogenous groups before sampling. Random sampling within each stratum reduced a fluke selection of a sample (p. 58). The researcher stratified the sample because he wanted to ensure that samples from different projects had been included in the study; in other words, he wanted to ensure that the sample contained participants from different projects. The number of projects that the researcher focused on was as follows: irrigation schemes and vegetable gardens (12), brick-forming (7), pottery and beadwork (9), poultry farming (8), sisal farming (4), and bakery co-operatives (5). The researcher ensured that all types of projects that were of interest in the study had been represented in the sample. Different projects were selected because the impact might have varied depending on the type

of project. A sample of five projects was used. The researcher stratified his sample according to projects that women and men participated in, so that the impact of CDPs could be evaluated and compared among them. Stratified random sampling was used because the researcher wanted to ensure that the different groups in the population acquired sufficient representation in the sample (Strydom 2005:200). The sample contained five projects from which 20 women and 10 men who were directly and indirectly linked with the CDPs were selected. Participants were selected from five different types of projects as follows:

Women and men who were directly involved in, or linked to, the projects referred to those that had been employed in the CDPs.

Table 3.1: Respondents directly involved in community developments projects

Type of project	Women	Men	Total
Brick forming	3	1	4
Bakery co-operatives	3	1	4
Vegetable gardening	3	1	4
Poultry farming	3	1	4
Sisal farming	3	1	4
TOTAL	15	5	20

Women and men who were indirectly involved in, or linked to, the projects were those who had not been employed but the impact of CDPs had affected them in one way or another.

Table 3.2: Respondent indirectly involved in the CDPs

Type of project	Women	Men	Total
Brick forming	1	1	2
Bakery co-operatives	1	1	2
Vegetable gardening	1	1	2
Poultry farming	1	1	2
Sisal farming	1	1	2
TOTAL	5	5	10

The rationale behind selecting more women than men was because women participated in CDPs in larger numbers than men and also the fact that the main objective of the study was to evaluate the impact that the CDPs had on women empowerment.

3.5 Research design

Welman *et al.* (2005:52) describe a *research design* as 'a plan according to which a researcher obtains research participants and collects data from them'. A research design could be viewed as a 'blueprint' of the research project for fulfilling research objectives and answering research questions that precedes the actual research project (Mouton 1996:161; Adams *et al.* 2007:81). However, Asmah-Andoh (2012:117) believes that the choice of the methodology depends on the nature and context of the research. This study had been largely qualitative because of the nature of the topic, which required a detailed understanding of the impact of the projects on the empowerment of women. In that regard the researcher sought to obtain detailed information from the women on how those projects had impacted on their lives. To a limited extent, a quantitative approach was used in the analysis of the profiles of the participants.

A survey was, therefore, used to measure qualitative indicators. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:232), surveys are 'excellent vehicles for measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population'. Although quantitative design was of critical importance because of its accurate estimate of the relationship between indicators of impact and women empowerment, it was used to a limited extent, while qualitative research design was used to a large extent because the researcher wanted to interrogate participants in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the relationships between CDPs and the empowerment of women. According to Davies (2007:10), qualitative design was chosen precisely because the researcher wanted to focus on 'the qualitative aspects of meaning, experience and understanding from the viewpoint of the respondents in the context in which the action took place'; in other words, the researcher wanted to have an in-depth understanding of the impact of CDPs on women empowerment in the context of where they lived. Neuman (2006:152) believes that qualitative research relies more on the informal wisdom that has developed from the experiences of a researcher. Rippennar-Joseph (2009:16) cautions that 'qualitative research is not merely about issues of gathering, analyzing and reporting non-numerical data but, it emphasizes careful and detailed descriptions of social practices in attempting to understand how participants experience and explain their world'. Niewenhuis (2007:78–79) sums it up by indicating that qualitative research is essential in this current study because it is carried out in a real-life situation and not in an experimental situation.

The other reason why a qualitative research design was used in this study was because the researcher realized that quantitative design did not recognize social capital such as the

benefits of networking with other people. According to Neuman (2006:153), the weakness of the quantitative research design is that it tries to eliminate the human factor from the study. However, qualitative design provided the researcher with an opportunity to obtain information about the benefits of social capital when women from different homesteads networked to share their experiences. Qualitative indicators could only be interrogated in great depth if qualitative design was used. The values that women had before and after participating in projects as compared to the norms of the society (changing values) had also been evaluated through the qualitative design. Davies (2007:10) emphasizes that a qualitative method is necessary because the 'evidence we collect to tell the story looks quite different from that of our colleagues and friends'. The aim of using that design, according to Davies (2007:10), was 'not to cast judgment but to discover what happened and what the experience meant to the project participants'. Pierce *et al.* (2008:45) indicated that the strength of the qualitative design lay in 'its unique capacity, through in-depth interviewing and observation, to learn and understand the underlying values of individuals and groups'. According to Denzin and Lincoln (cited in Davies 2007:10), qualitative research design was of critical importance in that 'it helped to study subjects in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings respondents brought to the researchers'. Pierce *et al.* (2008:45), furthermore, indicated that 'by learning the social meanings that the respondents applied to their world, researchers were able to view the world through the subject's eyes'. That design enabled the researcher to collect information that helped him to understand the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women through the respondents' experiences.

3.6 Data collection method

According to Tustin (2005:99), the data collection process is 'fieldwork that is undertaken to collect data'. Asmah-Andoh (2012:117) points out that the choice of methodology and design also explains processes for data collection and analysis in the research. Mixed methods were used to collect data in this study. According to Brown (2010:19), *mixed methods research* is

formally defined as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study and this is done because a mix of data collection tools provides a more reliable and complete picture of the phenomenon under study, as the tools balance out each other's weaknesses.

This study used mainly the qualitative research technique because the researcher wanted to gain in-depth understanding of the relationship between the CDPs and women empowerment.

For the qualitative aspects of this study, the researcher used semi-structured, face-to-face interviews to gather information on how the projects had impacted on the women in terms of a number of performance indicators of empowerment, such as decision-making, income generation, employment opportunities and networking. The quantitative aspect of the data collection method was used to a limited extent. For the quantitative aspect of the study, a questionnaire was designed and distributed to participants to complete. However, cognizant of the fact that some might not be literate; the researcher administered a questionnaire that had been translated into the local language.

Photography was also used to gather information about the type of products manufactured and nature of the development projects.

Secondary data sources were also used, for example, IDP review report of the Thulamela Local Municipality was used to gather certain statistical data relevant to the current study.

3.6.1 Primary data collection

Adams *et al.* (2007:107) explain that *primary data collection* refers to 'the gathering of own original data'. Bless *et al.* (2006:111) indicate that primary data are collected for 'the purpose of conducting a particular study'. Tustin (2005:89) indicates that primary data are collected 'specifically to address research objectives because secondary data are assessed and found to be inadequate'. For this study primary data were collected using questionnaires and interviews in order to address the research objectives; in other words, primary data were collected from the sampled population through a combination of methods that included surveys (questionnaires), discussions, observations and interviews.

3.6.2 Secondary data collection method

Secondary data are 'sources that are available because they were collected previously for another purpose rather than to address the present research problem' (Adams *et al.* 2007:107; Bless *et al.* 2006:112; Tustin 2005:89). The type of secondary data includes the results of other studies that were conducted on the impact of development projects on the empowerment of women.

3.7 Questionnaire design

According to Tustin (2005:385), a questionnaire is 'a structured sequence of questions designed to draw out facts and opinions from respondents'. Crowther and Lancaster (2009:153) also describe questionnaires as 'a series of questions designed to provide accurate information from every member of the sample'. Davies (2007:82) goes on to say that 'questionnaires are intended to facilitate communication, which, of course, is always driven by the researcher's own agenda'. The questionnaire used for the current study was designed and distributed to research participants. The primary aim of the questionnaire was to address the objectives of the survey as outlined in Chapter 1.

3.8 Questionnaires

Two sets of questionnaires were used for the collection of data from the sampled population who were directly and indirectly linked to projects in the Malamulele area. Responses were analysed and interpreted in order to attach meaning to what the respondents had indicated.

Structured questions in different forms, which included open-and close-ended questions, questions that required Yes/No answers and also questions based on different scales, were drafted for the questionnaire. According to Adams *et al.* (2007:132), *open-ended questions* are questions that respondents are asked to 'describe issues or state their views and feelings'. According to Greeff (2005:288), truly open-ended questions are included 'because they do not predetermine the answers but they allow room for the participants to respond in their own terms and experiences'. Open-ended questions were used in the current study because they gave a participant a chance to respond in detail and provided qualitative feedback. Although open-ended questions were important, they were time-consuming to analyse and for that reason they were not over-used in this study.

Yes/No questions formed part of the closed-ended questions. According to Adams *et al.* (2007:132), closed-ended questions 'restrict the choice available to the respondents but often the respondents find these easy to deal with'. On the surface, a Yes/No question seems fairly obvious, but it had not been used when an opinion about the CDPs and empowerment was needed to provide more insight. The purpose of a Yes/No question in this study was to divide the respondents into two groups; for example, the researcher wanted to separate the answers of those who had been empowered by the CDPs from those who had not. In short, the researcher used 'screening' questions to divide the results into two groups for the purpose of comparison.

Rating or Likert scales were used to measure the intensity of attitudes and had a score 'in the middle' to allow the respondent to feel 'neutral' about the impact that CDPs had on the empowerment of women. A respondent was also given an opportunity to make a number of positive or negative choices so that he or she had to choose to agree or disagree whether or not CDPs had an impact on women empowerment.

3.9 Results of personal interviews

According to Greeff (2005:293), *personal interviews* are defined as 'attempts to understand the world from the respondent's point of view, to unfold the meaning of the people's experiences and to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations'. The researcher used interviews because he wanted to hear what people were going to say about the CDPs and the empowerment of women in their communities. Personal interviews were used in this study because the researcher wanted to gain insight into how participants considered the impact that CDPs had on the empowerment of women in their own experiences. Personal interviews were crucial for this study because the researcher required in-depth information about the impact that CDPs had on women empowerment from the following groups:

- Women-headed households;
- Men-headed households; and
- Single-headed households.

Face-to-face interviews formed part of the interviewing process. This method was used in order to avoid group influence (Greeff 2005:293). According to Greeff (2005:292), face-to-face interviews are classified into unstructured and semi-structured interviews. The unstructured face-to-face interview was used to obtain in-depth information about the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women. Semi-structured interviews were used in order to gain a detailed picture of a participant's beliefs about, or perceptions of, the impact that CDPs had on women empowerment. As pointed out by Greeff (2005:296), semi-structured interviews were used to 'deal with controversial issues or those that seemed to be personal'. In this study the researcher dealt with a number of issues that were controversial such as women who were interviewed about the impact that CDPs had on their life and family, while their culture and societal norms did not allow them to act as spokespersons for their respective families or to divulge any information regarding their family settings.

The interview did not only concentrate on women but men were also interviewed in order to get qualitative feedback for the purpose of comparison. It is imperative to indicate that the

sample used in this study was divided into two groups, namely (i) those who were directly involved in, and (ii) those who were not directly linked to, CDPs. A sample of 3 women and one man from each project who were directly involved was selected from the population. The second group comprised 5 women and five men. Each respondent was sampled from women and men who were not directly involved in the CDPs. However, more women than men were interviewed because women were the main beneficiaries. It was important to interview men in order to find out if the impact that the CDPs had on women was the same as on men.

Greeff (2005:299) indicated that 'since the interview involved personal interaction, co-operation was therefore essential'. There were certain issues that societal norms did not allow men to discuss with women; hence women were shy to give information. Participants were also unwilling to share information. The researcher also asked questions that did not evoke the desired responses from participants (Greeff 2005:299). Furthermore, the responses were, at times, untruthful; for example, women did not feel comfortable talking about their family's economic status because they feared that they might be reprimanded by their husbands. Women were also too shy to give sensitive information such as their age or marital status, to a male researcher.

As pointed out by Greeff (2005:299), focus groups are group interviews. In this study, focus groups were used as a means of better understanding how people felt or thought about the impact of CDPs on women empowerment. Group interviews were used because participants had certain characteristics in common that related to what the group was doing. The group was 'focused' because members were involved in a collective activity. A group of participants involved in the different projects formed a focus group of the interviewing process. According to Greeff (2005:300), focus groups are used 'to promote self-disclosure among participants'. In this study, the researcher wanted to know what people really thought and felt about the impact of CDPs on women empowerment. The focus group was used as a supplementary source of data because it supplemented the information that was gathered through the face-to-face interview and the survey.

Two assistants were also trained to help with the collection of research data. The appointment of assistants was necessary because the study entailed working with different projects in different areas which demanded that a lot of work be done, including the translation of questions into the local language. In order to complete the research within the stipulated period, assistance was required in order to gather relevant information.

3.10 Data collection procedure

Data were drawn from an ongoing qualitative, community-based study aimed at developing a theoretical framework to describe, explain, or predict women's and men's responses to the impact that CDPs had on women empowerment. For the larger study, 20 women and ten men were sampled from several socio-economically diverse CDPs in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Local Municipality. Participants were included in the larger study if they were directly or indirectly involved in CDPs at any time in their life. The researcher requested permission to conduct an interview with both women and men who were directly or indirectly involved in CDPs, and also placed announcements throughout the communities, and networked with community leaders and residents of the area, who then promoted the study in a variety of settings, including churches and community meetings. Interested individuals were screened by using a script of questions to detect acute emotional distress that would make participation a risky exercise. Those who met inclusion criteria were scheduled for an interview. Permission was obtained and participants signed consent forms to confirm that they were not coerced into participating in the study but that they did so voluntarily. The researcher, with the help of the two assistants, conducted open-ended, face-to-face interviews and group interview that lasted for 1 to 2 hours per session. Participants were asked to describe (i) the impact of CDPs they had experienced (ii) successes and failures of the CDPs (iii) how CDPs impacted on their lives (iv) challenges they faced in CDPs. Interviews were audiotaped and transcribed. Data were collected over a period of five months from January 2012 to May 2012. Pseudonyms were used in this study to protect the identity of participants and others whom the researchers interviewed. The information supplied by the participants was translated because of the language barrier caused by the disparity between the home language of the respondents and the language in which the research was conducted, that is, English.

The purpose of this research was to generate theory on this theme by utilizing the grounded theory approach of Glaser and Strauss (cited in de Vos 2005:340). The theory focused on the impact that CDPs had on the empowerment of women. According to de Vos (2005:340), the grounded theory was relevant in this research because it enabled the researcher to generate theory on this theme through in-depth analysis of interviews conducted with participants in different projects.

Participants who were interviewed later during the data collection period were asked about constructs that emerged from previous interviews and the concurrent data analysis. This process of member checks was used to increase the credibility of the researcher's interpretation of the participants' experiences.

De Vos (2005:340) indicates that the grounded theory utilizes three methods of coding, namely, (i) open coding, (ii) axial coding and (iii) selective coding. *Open-coding* refers to 'the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing data' (p. 340). *Axial coding* refers to 'procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open-coding, by making connections between categories, utilizing a coding paradigm involving conditions, context, action or interactional strategies and consequences' (p. 340). Lastly, the grounded theory uses *selective coding* which is 'the process of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships and filling in categories that need further refinement and development'. In simpler terms, the grounded theory in this study is used to identify common socio-economic and psychosocial processes experienced by women who share a life challenge (de Vos 2005:343–344). The choice of the grounded theory for the current study was based on the researcher's belief that the ways in which CDPs impact on the empowerment of women influence the life course of many families and communities which are complex processes that change over time and are influenced by both psychological, social and economic factors.

3.11 Ethical considerations

According to Flew (cited in May 1997:54), the term *ethics* often suggests 'a set of standards by which a particular group or community decides to regulate its behaviour or to distinguish what is legitimate or acceptable in pursuit of their aims from what is not'. Researchers also need to adhere to ethical conduct when they conduct a study (Brink 2006:32). Brink (2006:32) emphasizes the importance of conducting research in an ethical manner 'because failure to do so will undermine the scientific process and may have negative consequences on the study which is being undertaken'. Protection of human rights when conducting research is of critical importance because violation of those rights may have negative consequences on both the researcher and the respondent (Brink 2006:33). Lunazzi (2011:445) argues that 'qualitative studies tend to address areas of human life that are sensitive and as a result they require care in the way they are addressed by researchers'. According to Lunazzi (2011:445), 'many of the topics studied by qualitative researchers are social or moral issues not talked about in common society'. Lunazzi argues that 'researchers need to be very careful about qualitative topics because they may be personal or family issues that are seldom shared outside the family' (p. 445).

Strydom (2005:58) identified the following ethical issues that needed to be taken care of during a research process: 'avoidance of harm to respondents, informed consent, deception of

respondents, violation of privacy, actions and competence of researchers, co-operation with contributors, release or publication of the findings and debriefing of respondents and fairness’.

3.11.1 Avoidance of harm to respondents

Strydom (2005:58) argues no harm must be inflicted on participants (respondents). Dane (1990:44) emphasizes that a researcher has ‘an ethical obligation to protect participants from possible harm’. Pierce *et al.* (2008:10) identified types of potential harm to respondents and categorized them as ‘physical, financial, social and psychological’. Strydom (2005:58) goes deeper into the matter by specifying that the harm to respondents is mainly of an emotional nature than physical, for example, respondents may divulge certain negative information about their spouses and the researcher must not disclose such information. Strydom (2005:58) argues that disclosure of such information may have a negative impact on the relationship of the partners. A researcher must therefore make a point of protecting respondents at all times. Babbie (2001:471) believes that ‘the more concrete harm that respondents may experience relates to family life, relationships or employment situation’. Respondents should be ‘thoroughly informed beforehand about the potential impact of the study so that they will be able to withdraw from participation at any time if they so wish’ (Strydom 2005:58). A researcher should identify ‘respondents that could possibly prove vulnerable during the study so that they may be removed’ (p. 58). It is very difficult to deal with a situation after harm has been inflicted on the respondent (Strydom 2005:58; Pierce *et al.* 2008:10). Strydom (2005:58) cautions that the possible harm to respondents should, however, ‘not be justified by saying that the study might benefit them in some other way at a later stage’. The current research was conducted while taking into consideration that no harm was supposed to be inflicted on the respondents.

3.11.2 Informed consent

Strydom (2005:59) stresses the importance of obtaining informed consent from participants before the study is carried out. However, it is important to remember that informed consent may have different implications in different cultural contexts (Bless *et al.* 2006:143). Potter (2006:213) emphasizes this point by indicating that no significant data should be gathered from the respondents who have not consented and been given a clear statement about why the information is going to be collected, or been told how it is going to be used. All information about the study should be given to the respondents before they take a decision as to whether or not to participate in the study (p. 213). Accurate and complete information should be provided so that respondents will fully understand the rationale behind the study (Peirce *et al.*

2008:10; Potter 2006 213; Strydom 2005:59). According to Brink (2006:39), the researcher can 'provide the information in written, verbal or in taped form'. Brink (2006:40), furthermore, suggests that in order for the respondents to have an understanding or comprehension of the information, 'it should be in the respondent's language, at his or her level of understanding and his or her vocabulary, not in technical language or professional jargon'. Brink (2006:40) continues by arguing that respondents 'should make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision about their possible participation'. Nobody must be coerced into participating in a study because participation must always be voluntary (p. 40). Brink (2006:40) further indicates that the respondent 'must feel confident that refusal to participate will not prejudice him or her in any way'. Respondents must also be aware that their participation could be terminated at any time if they so wish (p. 40). Aldridge and Levine (2001:22) are of the opinion that 'the researcher should make it easy for respondents to raise any queries they may have'. Loewenberg and Dolgoff (1988:67) believe that 'informed consent remains necessary even if respondents are not interested in the study'. However, in this study permission was also obtained from the spouses because societal norms do not allow women to take decisions without informing their spouses. The study followed the correct procedure by obtaining informed consent before data was collected.

3.11.3 Deception of respondents

The deception of respondents involves the 'misrepresentation of information' (Corey *et al.* 1993:230; Strydom 2005:60). The authors continue by arguing that this could be in the form of withholding information or offering incorrect information in order to coerce respondents into participating when they would under normal circumstances possibly have refused. Loewenberg and Dolgoff (1988:70) believe that the deliberate misrepresentation of facts 'is intended to coerce participants to believe what is not true'. Bless *et al.* (2006:144) argue that in deception, the researcher tries to hide the true nature of the study from the participants. Strydom (2005:60) is of the opinion that no form of deception should ever be inflicted on respondents.

Honesty is of critical importance when research is conducted (Brink 2006:43; Macmillan & Schumacher 1993:399; Strydom 2005:60–61). The researcher must tell the truth about the reason for conducting the study (Brink 2006:43). Macmillan and Schumacher (1993:399) strongly emphasize the fact that in conducting research, 'the researcher should be as open and honest with the respondents as possible and this involves a full disclosure of the purpose of the research'. To adhere to the accepted ethical considerations, the participants in the current study were informed that this research was only for the purpose of a Master's mini-

dissertation and no names would be disclosed. The study did not deceive respondents and it is purely for the partial fulfillment of the Master's in Development Studies degree.

3.11.4 Violation of privacy/anonymity/confidentiality

Singleton *et al.* (1988:454) indicate that the right to privacy is 'an individual's right to decide when, where, to whom, and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour will be revealed'. This principle, according to Strydom (2005:61), could be violated if enough care is not taken. A researcher must act with the necessary sensitivity where the privacy of individuals matters the most; for example, clearance must be obtained before research is conducted (p. 61). A researcher must also be able to differentiate between anonymity and confidentiality. *Anonymity* means that no one, not even the researcher, should be able to identify the respondent afterwards (p. 61). *Confidentiality*, in turn, implies that only the researcher and his or her staff should be aware of the identity of the respondents but they must also have made a commitment of confidentiality (p. 61).

Strydom (2005:61) emphasize the fact that 'all possible means of protecting the privacy of respondents should be applied'. The use of concealed media such as video cameras, one-way mirrors or microphones is not condoned without the knowledge, and preferably written consent of the respondents (p. 61). Should there be any encroachment that would slightly violate the respondents' right to privacy, it has to be negotiated and refusal of consent, however, must be accepted and respected (Peirce *et al.* 2008:10; Potter 2006:185; Strydom 2005:61). Aldridge and Levine (2001:22) caution that the assurances of confidentiality need to be as clear as possible, so that participants are not misled.

It is also imperative to train at least one female assistant who can assist with interviews because women will feel more comfortable about giving information to a fellow woman than to a man. It is also important to train a male assistant for the same reason as indicated above. Strydom (2005:61) indicates that since the interview involves personal interaction, cooperation is therefore essential. There are certain issues that societal norms do not allow men to discuss with women, because they may be too shy to give information to a male assistant and viceversa (p. 62). The current study did not divulge the names of the respondents and their information remained confidential.

3.11.5 Actions and competence of researchers

Strydom (2005:63) insists that researchers are 'ethically obliged to be skilful and knowledgeable on how to conduct research'. Research may produce invalid results if the researcher and his or her assistants are not well qualified and equipped (Sieber1982:14). Lack of supervision may also lead to invalid results (Strydom 2005:63). A researcher must study and become sensitively aware beforehand of the values, norms and climate which exist in the community (p. 63). The professional researcher must be able to respect the customs of the particular community (p. 63). It must also be mentioned that no value judgments are to be made, under any circumstances whatsoever, on the cultural aspects of communities (Brink 2006:43; Strydom 2005:64); for example, certain communities do not allow women to address them while wearing trousers. A researcher who is competent enough would be able to identify such communities beforehand and deal with such situations accordingly.

Brink (2006:43) suggests that a researcher must 'be competent, accurate and, above all, honest in everything he or she does'. A researcher must avoid the following activities:

- *Falsification or forging of information:* A researcher must not produce a report that does not reflect what he or she actually did. This study therefore avoided giving information about the impact of CDPs on women empowerment based on inaccurate information.
- *Manipulation of design and methods:* Design and the methods used were not manipulated to support the researcher's point of view.
- *Plagiarism.* This study acknowledged the sources of all the information that are the ideas of other researchers (p.43).

The study was conducted in a competent manner so as to ensure valid and reliable research.

3.11.6 Co-operation with contributors

Research projects, according to Strydom (2005:64), are 'often expensive to conduct hence sometimes a sponsor is needed'. Certain sponsors put demands on how the research should be conducted and this raises a serious ethical issue when the researcher does not disclose their name(s) (Bailey 1987:418; Strydom 2005:64). The relationship between the researcher and the sponsor can also sometimes raise a serious ethical consideration if the researcher does not disclose the real findings in compliance with the expectations of the sponsor (Bailey 1987:419; Strydom 2005:64). In the current study, this kind of ethical dilemma did not have to be addressed because no sponsor was required, hence no strings were attached. There was no obligation to release the findings in compliance with the expectations of anybody.

3.11.7 Release or publication of the findings

According to Dane (1990:53), it is essential for all research 'to publish the findings to the reading public in written form, and the researcher should compile the report as accurately and objectively as possible in order for readers to understand what the researcher has written'. If errors occur in a study, they may mislead other researchers and the general public (Dane 1990:52; Strydom 2005:65). Researchers are, therefore, 'ethically obliged to ensure that the research proceeds correctly and that no one is deceived by the findings' (Strydom 2005:65). Committing plagiarism is a serious ethical issue and it must be avoided at all costs, and incorporation of information from other researchers' work must be acknowledged otherwise it would raise the issue of serious ethical misconduct (p. 66).

This study at all times acknowledged the sources of information in order to comply with the proper procedures and conduct of research.

3.11.8 Debriefing of respondents and fairness

Strydom (2005:66) indicates that 'the easiest way to debrief participants is to discuss their feelings immediately after the session or sending them a newsletter telling them the results of the study'. It is necessary that the researcher rectifies any misconceptions that may have arisen in the minds of the participants once the project has been completed (Juddy *et al.* 1991:517; Strydom2005:67). Any misconceptions that could have been created and detected in this study would be rectified.

3.12 Challenges encountered

This study, like many other studies, was constrained by lack of funds as no funding from other sources was secured. The researcher was responsible for paying his own transport costs and stationery. The researcher, together with the two assistants, had to travel to different areas of Malamulele in order to reach places where projects were being implemented. Accessibility to other areas was also a challenge due to a lack of proper roads and the researcher had to use roads that were properly serviced. The two assistants were also paid for their efforts in assisting the researcher with logistics such as photocopying questionnaires to be used in the study.

3.13 Summary

This section summarizes the applicability and relevance of the research methods. A *methodology* is the 'plan of action that is fundamental to every purposeful human action' (Asmah-Andoh 2012:117).

A qualitative research technique was used in this study in order to gain an in-depth understanding of the relationship between the CDPs and women empowerment. The researcher used semi-structured questions, and face-to-face interviews to gather information on how the different projects impacted on women empowerment. Quantitative research was used to a limited extent to make analysis of data from the tables and graphs. Qualitative and quantitative techniques were used as complementary in order to 'yield richer, more valid and more reliable findings that could be acceptable to adherents of either method' (Mouton 2002:35).

According to Cohen *et al.* (2000:268), the interview was used as a means of gathering information that had a direct bearing on the research objectives.

Photography was also used to gather information about the type of projects and products manufactured by the different CDPs.

According to Adams *et al.* (2007:107), *primary data collection* refers to 'the gathering of original data'. Primary data were collected using questionnaires and interviews in order to address research objectives and research questions. Surveys (Questionnaires) were intended to facilitate communication between the researcher and the respondents.

Secondary data are 'sources that are available because they were collected previously for another purpose rather to address the present the present research problem' (Adams *et al.* 2007:107).

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analyses and interprets the data collected from respondents in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality about the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment. As pointed out by Tustin *et al.* (2005:102), 'the purpose of data analysis was to interpret and draw conclusions from the mass of collected data'. According to de Vos (2005:338), data analysis means 'the categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of data to obtain answers to research questions'.

The researcher, on the one hand, broke the data down and attached meaning to them from his own perspective and, on the other hand, he also put together pieces of information and again attached the meaning associated with such data. De Vos (2005:338) says that 'to interpret is to explain and to find meaning'. In the current study the researcher analysed the data collected from respondents in the Malamulele area and interpreted them in order to find meaning about the impact that CDPs had on women empowerment. It is important to indicate that the purpose of analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of the research problem can be studied and tested, and conclusions drawn (de Vos 2005:333).

4.2 Data analysis

According to Mouton (1996:161), the term *analysis* refers to 'resolution of a complex whole into its parts. Asmah-Andoh (2012:131) points out that *data analysis* refers to 'organizing collected data in a way to answer the research questions'. In the current study the data analysis stage was necessary directly to answer the objectives of the research. Kruger *et al.* (2005:218) maintain that the purpose of data analysis is to reduce data to an interpretable form in order to draw conclusions. Qualitative data analysis techniques were mainly used. Qualitative data were analysed based on the categorization of themes derived from the interviews. Emerging patterns concerning issues of impact were identified and analysed. A quantitative data analysis technique was also used, but to a limited extent. The idea for using both the qualitative and quantitative methods in this study was intended to be complementary in order to 'yield richer, more valid and more reliable findings that could be acceptable to adherents of either method' (Mouton 2002:35).

According to Neuman (2006:152), qualitative research 'often uses general ideas, themes or concepts as tools for making generalizations'. It refers to 'the non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships', whereas quantitative analysis refers to 'the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect' (p.152). Quantitative data analysis in this study was used to analyse profiles of the respondents.

Adams *et al.* (2007:156) indicate that the aims of qualitative analysis are seven fold:

- (i) Detect patterns in the data
- (ii) Identify deviants and oddities
- (iii) Compare the theory detection of conformance
- (iv) Identify groups—classification
- (v) Compare and contrast groups
- (vi) Construct a model
- (vii) Test the model for validity.

Data in this study were analysed by using the following techniques:

4.2.1 Descriptive statistics

Adams *et al.* (2007:170) explain that descriptive quantitative analysis is 'a move towards evidence based decision-making where data collected are interrogated'. According to MacMillan and Schumacher (1993:192), descriptive statistics are used to summarize data, and they are indispensable in interpreting the results of quantitative research. Adams *et al.* (2007:171) point out that descriptive statistics help to give more clarity by summarizing the data, and the summary statistics can either be represented by tabular form or graphically. However, descriptive statistics were used in this study only to a limited extent.

4.2.2 Qualitative data analysis

The purpose of conducting a qualitative study is to produce findings; in other words, data analysis was used to transform data in the tables into findings (de Vos 2005:333).

4.3 Data analysis procedure

Data were analysed by the research team using constant comparison techniques as described by Schreiber (cited in Lunazzi 2011:449). Constant comparison techniques involve 'comparing coded data with other data and with developing concepts'. The team determined the relevancy of these categories and realized that the categories were most applicable to those people who were involved in CDPs. Some of the categories that emerged from coding that were related to women empowerment are job creation, income generation, asset acquisition, and skills and knowledge acquisition.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Face-to-face interview results

The findings of the interviews revealed that the majority of the respondents agreed that CDPs play an important role in the empowerment of women. More than 90 per cent of the respondents who were directly or indirectly linked to CDPs agreed that projects increase:

- **Decision-making capacity**

The results reveal that 95 per cent of respondents agreed that CDPs increase the decision-making capacity of women both at home and in the community.

- **Self-confidence**

The findings of the study reveal that 93 per cent of respondents agreed that CDPs enhance self-confidence of women.

- **Political freedom**

The findings of the study reveal that 93 per cent of respondents agreed that women's participation in CDPs increased their political autonomy as they were able to discuss political issues freely.

- **Economic freedom**

The findings of the study showed that 98 per cent of the respondents agreed that CDPs enabled them to generate income which is a prerequisite for economic freedom.

- **Social capital**

The findings of the research revealed that 92 per cent of the respondents agreed that CDPs enabled them to network with women from other areas and, that benefitted them in many respects, such as, sharing information and experiences from their respective homes and communities.

- **Health and well-being**

The findings of the research reveal that 94 per cent of the respondents agreed that the health and well-being of women and their children improved by engaging in CDPs.

- **Job creation**

The findings of the interview revealed that more than 95 per cent of the respondents agreed that CDPs are tools through which poverty can be combated in rural areas. Respondents agreed that CDPs provide poor rural communities with job opportunities.

4.4.2 Questionnaire results

The questionnaire instruments administered to all respondents were divided into five sections, namely A,B,C,D and E. Section A provided the information concerning the profiles of the respondents, Section B provided information about the projects, section C detailed information concerning the perceptions of the respondents, section D provided information about the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment and section E provided information about the success factors or factors that contributed to the failure of CDPs. The second questionnaire administered to those who were not directly involved in the CDPs was also divided into five sections, namely A, B, C, D and E. Respondents were requested to ignore section B on the information about projects since they were not directly involved in the projects.

SECTION A: PROFILES OF RESPONDENTS

This section presents information concerning the personal information of the respondents who were directly and indirectly involved in the CDPs.

Table 4.1: Work experience of respondents

Work experience	Directly linked		Indirectly linked	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Below 1 year	4	20	0	0
From 1 to 5 years	7	35	0	0
From 6 to 10 years	5	25	0	0
From 11 to 15 years	4	20	0	0
Above 15 years	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	0	0

Table 4.1 presents information about the work experience of the respondents. Following the table respondents who were directly involved in, or linked with, the projects had different work experiences. The working experience of respondents below 1 year represents 20 per cent; those in the range from 1 to 5 years represent 35 per cent; those in the range 11 to 15 years represent 20 per cent and nobody had work experience of more than 15 years. The respondents who were indirectly involved had no work experience in the CDPs. The highest percentage of 35 per cent in the range of 1 to 5 years was an indication that most of the projects had a shorter life-span or some of them had collapsed before they reached their termination stage. Two male respondents had working experience below 1 year and the other three had working experience in the category 1-5 years. Male respondents spend less number of years than the female counterparts in the projects. In terms of development, male respondents are always searching for greener pastures and as a result they keep on changing employment. They also think that CDPs have been designed to cater for unemployed women. In terms of development strategies, development planners should consider mechanisms on how to sustain emerging projects so that they do not collapse before they reach their termination stage. In the same breath the high percentage of 35 per cent may reflect that projects could only offer employment to women for a short period. In terms of development strategies, development planners should consider projects that could offer employment to women for a longer period. The findings of the interviews were similar to those obtained through a survey.

Table 4.2: Age categories of respondents

Age category	Directly linked		Indirectly linked	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
20–29	3	15	2	20
30–39	5	25	2	20
40–49	8	40	4	40
50 and above	4	20	2	20
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Missing cases: 0

The data outlined in Table 4.2 are represented graphically in Figure 4.1 as follows:

Figure 4.1: Age categories of respondents

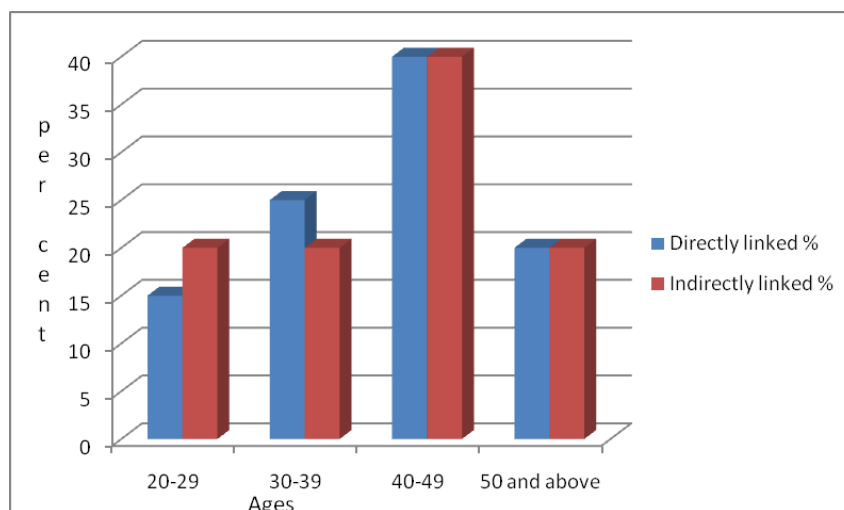


Table 4.2 presents the age categories of the respondents who benefitted directly and indirectly from the CDPs and their ages were classified into four groups. Following this table, respondents who were between 20 and 29 years represent 15 per cent and 20 per cent respectively; those between 30 and 39 years represent 25 per cent and 20 per cent respectively; those between 40 and 49 years represent 40 per cent in each group of beneficiaries, while those above 50 years represent 20 per cent in each group of sampled beneficiaries respectively. The high percentage of 40 per cent in each group of beneficiaries who benefitted directly and indirectly was attributed to the fact that they were an economically active group of respondents. The findings are compatible with the findings of Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:85) who found that women in this age category were the ones who were economically active. It was important to indicate that in terms of development strategies, development planners should include this group of respondents in future development initiatives because they are the majority. Male respondents who were in the age category

between 20 and 29 represent 0 per cent of those who were directly involved and also those who were indirectly involved in the CDPs. In terms of development, planners should include only males who are in the age category of between 40 and 49 years as they are economically active. Another important aspect that has been found following the data presented above was that poverty cuts across all age categories, since all classes were represented in the table.

Table 4.3: Marital status of respondents

Status	Directly linked		Indirectly linked	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Single	5	25	3	30
Married	5	25	2	20
Divorced	4	20	1	10
Separated	6	30	4	40
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

The data outlined in Table 4.3 is represented graphically in Figure 4.2 as follows:

Figure 4.2: Marital status of respondents

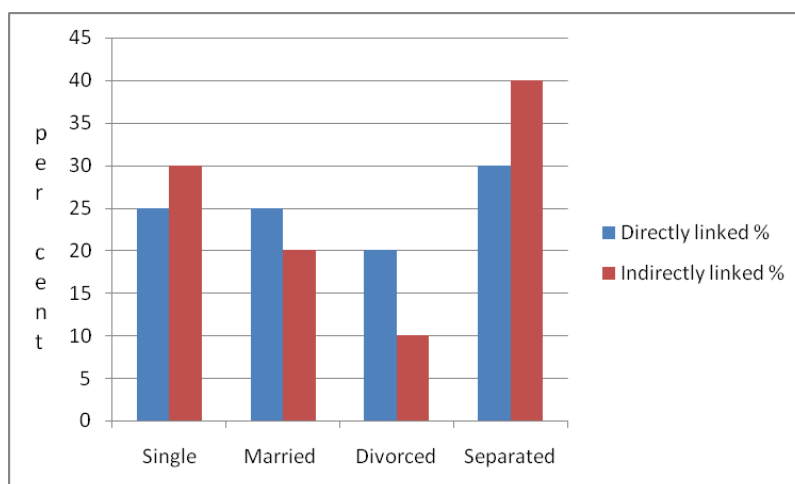


Table 4.3 presents the marital status of the respondents. Respondents who were single represent 25 per cent and 30 per cent from each group of beneficiaries who benefited directly and indirectly respectively; those who were married represent 25 per cent and 20 per cent respectively; those who were divorced represent 20 per cent and 10 per cent respectively and those who were separated represent 30 per cent and 40 per cent respectively. A high percentage of 30 per cent and 40 per cent from each group of beneficiaries sampled represent those who were separated. Respondents might have opted for separation in order to go and search for work elsewhere. Male respondents who were married represents 5 per cent and 10 per cent respectively. The data from the table also show that poverty cuts across all people in

general and women in particular in rural areas. In terms of future development initiatives, planners should include more women who are separated from their husbands since they are in the majority. It is crucial to include women who are separated from their husbands in future development initiatives because they start playing the role of family head, which means that they have to see to it that the needs of their families are catered for (Kongolo & Bamgose 2002:86).

Table 4.4: Qualifications of respondents

Qualification	Directly linked		Indirectly linked	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Below Grade 12	10	50	4	40
Grade 12	5	25	5	50
Tertiary certificate	3	15	1	10
Tertiary diploma	2	10	0	0
Undergraduate degree	0	0	0	0
Honours/BTech	0	0	0	0
Master's	0	0	0	0
PhD	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Missing cases: 0

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The data outlined in Table 4.4 is represented graphically in Figure 4.3 as follows:

Figure 4.3: Qualifications of respondents

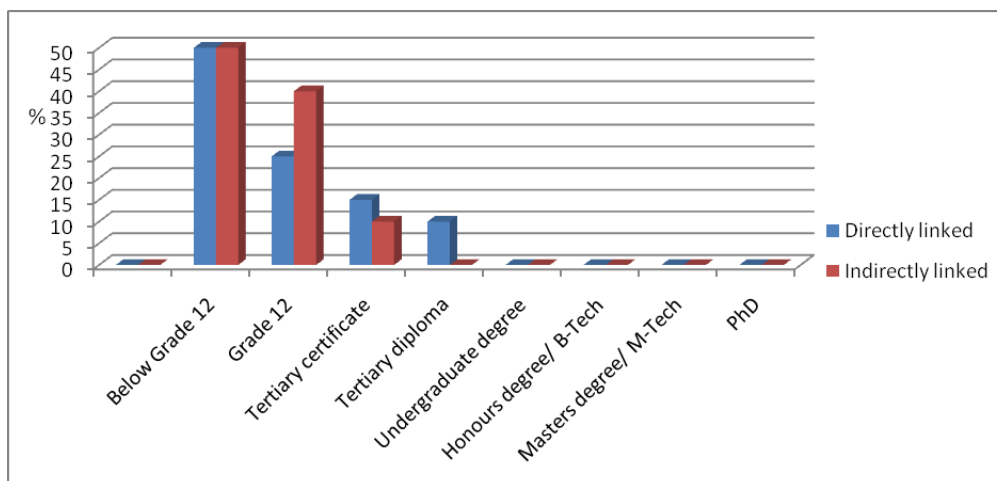


Table 4.4 presents the data on the qualification levels of the respondents. Respondents were required to disclose their qualifications which included both formal and informal education. Following this table, 50 per cent and 40 per cent of those who benefited directly and indirectly respectively had qualifications below Grade 12; those who have obtained Grade 12 represent 25 per cent and 50 per cent respectively; those who have obtained a tertiary certificate

represent 15 per cent and 10 per cent respectively. Lastly, respondents who benefitted directly while in possession of a tertiary diploma represent 10 per cent. All respondents who had tertiary qualifications were males. Women who are highly qualified prefer to seek employment elsewhere. The result revealed that nobody had a qualification that was higher than the diploma in all groups of respondents who benefitted directly and indirectly. The research findings revealed that respondents had different qualifications but those who were in the majority were those that had Grade 12 qualifications and below. The findings revealed that poverty affected mostly those that had lower qualifications. In terms of future development planning, development initiatives should cater for those who have grade 12 and lower qualifications because those who have higher qualifications may seek employment elsewhere. The results showed that the higher the qualification the lower is the dependence on the CDPs and vice versa. Gergis (1999:33) states that education and training are fundamental tools of empowerment and increase their earning power; in other words, those who were highly qualified did not depend much on the CDPs as they were able to secure decent jobs elsewhere.

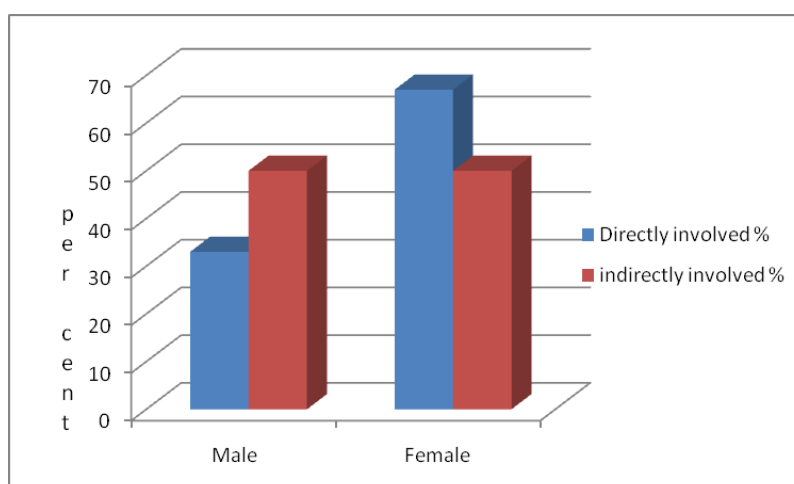
Table 4.5: Gender of respondents

Gender	Directly linked		Indirectly linked	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
M	5	33,3	5	50
F	15	66.7	5	50
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Missing cases: 0

The data outlined in Table 4.5 are represented graphically in Figure 4.4 as follows:

Figure 4.4: Gender of respondents



Respondents were required to furnish information about their gender. The findings of the research revealed that CDPs catered for all people, irrespective of their gender. Table 4.5 presents the information about the gender of the respondents. Following the table, ten respondents were males and the other 20 respondents were females. The table also shows that 66,7 per cent and 50 per cent represent females who benefitted directly and indirectly from CDPs respectively, while 33,3 per cent and 50 per cent represent males who benefitted directly and indirectly respectively from development initiatives. It is the researcher's view that Thulamela Municipality is gender-sensitive. However, many women were sampled in the study because its purpose was to find out the impact that CDPs had on women empowerment and the selection of men was for the purpose of drawing comparisons on the extent of the impact. In terms of future development planning, planners should include more women than men in development initiatives because they are in the majority in the rural areas (Kongolo & Bamgose 2002:79).

SECTION B: INFORMATION ON THE PROJECT

This section presents information concerning the projects that are implemented in the Malamulele cluster.

Table 4.6:Types of projects

Type of project	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Brick forming	4	20	2	20
Vegetable gardening	4	20	2	20
Poultry farming	4	20	2	20
Sisal farming	4	20	2	20
Bakery co-operative	4	20	2	20
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.6 presents the data on the types of projects from which the respondents benefitted directly and indirectly respectively. Following this table, an equal number of respondents were sampled from five different projects. The idea of using an equal number of respondents from each project was to arrive at a fair comparison of the impact that CDPs had on the empowerment of women at the Malamulele cluster of the Thulamela Municipality. In terms of development, development planners should introduce various projects in communities so as to cater for many rural women who are living in abject poverty.

Figure 4.5: A sisal project in Muchipisi village next to Malamulele town



Figure 4.5 is a board that has been erected at the entrance gate of the Khindlimuka sisal project at Muchipisi near Malamulele town. The sisal project is one of the projects that employ a number of women around Muchipisi village in order to combat poverty.

Figure 4.6: A woman working in a vegetable garden at Hlamalani Gardening near Hlamalani Bakery Co-Operative in Muchipisi village near Malamulele town



Figure 4.6 shows a woman working in a vegetable garden at Hlamalani Gardening near Malamulele town. Vegetable gardens are found in many villages around Malamulele which contribute to subsistence economy. The informal economy plays an important role in supplementing the formal economy.

Figure 4.7: Pottery and multi-purpose co-operative at Phugwani village near Malamulele town



Figure 4.7 illustrates a pottery and multi-purpose cooperative project at Phugwani village in the Malamulele area. The project offers employment to a number of women in the area as well as to those who live in the surrounding villages.

Figure 4.8: Clay pots manufactured at Tiakeni Pottery



Figure 4.8 illustrates some of the products such as clay pots which are manufactured at Tiakeni Pottery. These products are helping women to generate an income.

Figure 4.9:Members of the Tiakeni group working on a traditional dress known as *xibelana*.



Figure 4.9 illustrates women working at the Tiakeni Pottery and Multi-purpose Cooperative Project at Phugwani village. These women make dresses which they sell at the local markets to generate income.

Figure 4.10:Tiakeni group sewing dresses



Figure 4.10 illustrates members of the Tiakeni Pottery and Multi-purpose Cooperative sewing dresses which they sell to local markets to generate an income.

Figure 4.11: Knitted shoes and necklaces at the Tiakeni project at Phugwani village



Figure 4.11 illustrates some of the finished products such as shoes and necklaces knitted by women who participate in the Tiakeni Pottery and Multi-purpose Cooperative project. These products are sold to local markets and other people around the country, which generates an income.

Figure 4.12: *Xibelana* from the Tiakeni multi-purpose project



Figure 4.12 illustrates sets of *xibelana* dresses produced at the Tiakeni Pottery and Multi-purpose Cooperative. These traditional dresses are in high demand at the local markets. One

of the prosperous projects in the area is Tiakeni Pottery and Multi-purpose Cooperative. During the interview conducted with Asnath Mabunda, the Project Manager at the cooperative on 16 April 2012 she said:

We received funding of R750000.00 from an NGO in 2006. The money was used to buy machines, raw materials and also to pay wages for workers. The project did very well during the 2010 [Football] World Cup when tourists all over the world came to buy our products. We also received other funding to the tune of R200000.00 in 2012 and the money is going to be used to expand some of the activities of the project.

Different projects are implemented in the Malamulele area. However, the study did not cover all the projects that are being implemented in the area. Figures 4.5 to 4.12 illustrate some of the projects and activities. Women are the major beneficiaries of the CDPs. Women also take a leading role in applying for funding from different sectors. It is, therefore, not surprising to see most of the projects being run by women because they are in the forefront of making sure that projects are initiated and sustained. In terms of development, planners and government should mobilize more women to participate in projects. They should also give them more support in terms of resources and advices.

Table 4.7: Time spent on the projects

Time spent on the project	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Between 0 and 2 hours	0	0	0	0
Between 2 and 4 hours	0	0	0	0
Between 4 and 6 hours	8	40	0	0
Above 6 hours	12	60	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	0	0

Table 4.7 presents the amount of time spent by the respondents who benefited directly and indirectly from the CDPs. Following this table, nobody spent less than four hours a day in a CDP. Those who spent between four and six hours represent 40 per cent of those who were directly involved in CDPs. The high percentage of 60 per cent reveals that the majority of respondents spend more than six hours a day in a CDP, which increases the triple role played by women. In terms of development strategies, planners should revisit the amount of time spent by women in CDPs because women have to play multiple roles in society, that is, a reproductive, productive and a community management role (Moser 1993:230). Women should be given an opportunity to strike a balance between the roles they play in society.

SECTION C: PERCEPTION OF RESPONDENTS ABOUT THE IMPACT OF CDPs ON WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Tables 4.8 to 4.15 present the data analysis of the perceptions of respondents towards the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women.

Table 4.8: Satisfaction with management style

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	8	40	4	40
Agree	5	25	3	30
Don't know	5	25	1	10
Disagree	2	10	2	20
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.8 presents the perception of the respondents who benefited directly and indirectly from the CDPs about the degree of satisfaction with the management style in the projects. Following this table, the respondents who strongly agreed represent 40 per cent of each group respectively; those who agreed represent 25 per cent and 30 per cent respectively; those who did not know represent 25 per cent and 10 per cent respectively and those who disagreed represent 10 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. Those who disagreed were all male respondents and accounted for 40 per cent of both those who are directly involved and those who are not directly involved. The reason for their dissatisfaction was probably based on the low income that respondents received. There was no respondent in each group who strongly disagreed with the management style in the projects. The high percentage of 40 per cent in each group of beneficiaries indicated that projects were being run properly. Female respondent who strongly agreed accounted for 53 per cent of those who were directly involved and 60 per cent of those who were not directly involved. In terms of the development strategies, planners should set criteria that will be used to select project managers who would provide sound administration and leadership. The findings are compatible with those of Sithole (2008:77) who found that the lack of proper supervision and guidance of the project members contributed to fruitless expenditure and prohibited proper implementation of project decisions.

Table 4.9: CDPs increase decision-making capacity for women

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	9	45	4	40
Agree	7	35	3	30
Don't know	1	5	3	30
Disagree	3	15	0	0
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.9 presents the perception of the impact that the projects have on women empowerment. Following this table, the respondents who strongly agreed that the CDPs increased the decision-making capacity for women represent 45 per cent and 40 per cent respectively of the total sample; those who agreed represent 35 per cent and 30 per cent respectively; those who did not know the answer represent 5 per cent and 30 per cent respectively; and there was no respondent who neither disagreed nor strongly disagreed that CDPs indeed had an impact on the empowerment of women. Male respondents who disagreed accounted for 40 per cent of those who were directly involved and 0 per cent of those who were not directly involved. Of the male respondents 40 per cent who were directly involved in the CDPs did not believe that women have the capacity to make correct decisions, but the majority believe that CDPs increase the decision-making capacity for women. The findings of the study is supported by the study conducted by Jan and Hayat (2011:55) which found that participation in projects increase the decision-making capacity of women.

Table 4.10: CDPs increased self-confidence in women

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	8	40	4	40
Agree	5	25	3	30
Don't know	5	25	1	10
Disagree	2	10	2	20
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

The findings of the research as presented in Table 4.10 about the perception of the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment show that 40 per cent from each group of respondents who benefited directly and indirectly strongly agreed that the self-confidence of women who worked in the CDPs had increased; those who agreed represent 25 per cent and

30 per cent respectively; those who did not know represent 25 per cent and 10 per cent respectively; those who disagreed represent 10 per cent and 20 per cent respectively; and there was nobody who strongly disagreed that CDPs increased the self-confidence of women. Female respondents who strongly agreed accounted for 53 per cent of those who were directly involved in the projects and 80 per cent of those who were indirectly involved in the CDPs. In terms of development, planners should include more women in the projects so that their self-confidence could be increased as women in the rural areas are the ones who look after their families while their partners are working in urban areas. Cheston and Kuhn (2006:25) indicate that self-confidence is an important tool that women need to influence decisions that affect their life.

Table 4.11: CDPs improve the skills and education of women

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	15	75	5	50
Agree	5	25	3	30
Don't know	0	0	2	20
Disagree	0	0	0	0
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.11 presents the perception of the respondents who were directly and indirectly involved about the impact that the projects have on women empowerment. The respondents who benefited directly and indirectly from projects are shown in Table 4.11. Following this table, those who strongly agreed represent 75 per cent and 50 per cent respectively; those who agreed represent 25 per cent and 30 per cent respectively; there was nobody who benefited directly from CDPs who did not know or disagreed that CDPs increased the skills and knowledge of women; those who did not know about the impact of CDPs of those who were indirectly involved in the projects represent 20 per cent. Female respondents who strongly agreed represent 100 per cent in both categories. This means that all female respondents strongly agreed that CDPs increase skills and knowledge of women. Of the male respondents who were indirectly involved, 40 per cent indicated that they did not know whether or not CDPs improved the skills and knowledge of women. There was no single male respondent who strongly agreed in both categories. The high percentage of 75 per cent and 50 per cent respectively show that indeed projects do increase the skills and knowledge of women. In terms of development, planners should include in-service training as one of the components of future development planning. Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:86) indicate that 'education is an important tool for development, that is, skills and education are the key

elements that are needed for survival'. The findings are also in line with those of Akpotor (2009:2512) that education is a powerful tool for development. And, without doubt, it is the most fundamental prerequisite for empowering women in all areas of their lives in society. Sithole (2008:92-93) also found in her research that capacity-building addresses human dignity and strengthens the programmes. She also found out that women need to be capacitated with various skills, such as, financial management, marketing, and business skills in order to be independent (pp.92–93).

Table 4.12: CDPs motivate women to participate in economic activities

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	10	40	8	80
Agree	5	10	1	10
Don't know	3	15	1	10
Disagree	2	10	0	0
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.12 presents the data on the perceptions that respondents who are directly and indirectly involved had about the impact that CDPs have on the motivation of women for participating in economic activities. Following this table, 40 per cent who benefited directly strongly agreed and 80 per cent of those that were indirectly involved also strongly agreed; those who agreed represent 10 per cent for each group; those who did not know represent 15 per cent and 10 per cent respectively; those who disagreed among those who were directly involved represent 10 per cent and nobody disagreed from those who benefited indirectly from the CDPs. Male respondents who disagreed represent 40 per cent of those who were directly involved and 0 per cent of those who were indirectly involved in the projects. No female respondent from both categories disagreed that CDPs increased the economic freedom of women. The high percentage of 40 per cent and 80 per cent in the respective groups show that CDPs have a positive impact on the empowerment of women by increasing their economic freedom. The findings of the study are in line with those of Sathiabama (2010:1) who pointed out that 'economic empowerment by projects leads to the empowerment of women in many things such as creation of socio-economic opportunity'. In terms of development, planners should include more women in future development planning since participation in CDPs motivates them to participate in economic activities and creates an economic freedom for them.

Table 4.13: CDPs increase political participation of women

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	10	50	3	30
Agree	5	25	4	40
Don't know	3	15	2	20
Disagree	2	10	1	10
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.13 presents the data on the perceptions those respondents who were directly and indirectly involved have about the impact that CDPs have on the political participation of women. Following this table, those who strongly agreed represent 50 per cent and 30 per cent respectively; those who agreed represent 25 per cent and 40 per cent respectively; those who did not know represent 15 per cent and 20 per cent of each sampled group respectively; those who disagreed represent 10 per cent of each group; and there was nobody who strongly disagreed. Female respondents who strongly agreed that CDPs increase the political freedom of women represent 67 per cent of those who are directly involved and 60 per cent of those who are not directly involved; in other words, women strongly agree that CDPs increase their political freedom. The high average percentage of 50 per cent of those who strongly agreed from those who benefited directly and 40 per cent of those who agreed of those who indirectly benefited show that respondents agreed that CDPs increased the political participation of women. In terms of development, planners should include more women in future development planning since CDPs increase the political participation and freedom of women in society. Many programmes, according to Cheston and Kuhn (2006:25), give women the tools that they need to participate effectively in politics.

Table 4.14: CDPs increase the health and well-being for women

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	12	60	5	50
Agree	6	30	2	20
Don't know	1	5	1	10
Disagree	1	5	2	20
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.14 presents the data on the perception of the respondents who were directly and indirectly involved about the impact that CDPs have on the health and well-being of women. Following the table, those who strongly agreed represent 60 per cent and 50 per cent respectively. The number of people who agreed represents 30 per cent and 20 per cent respectively; those who did not know represent 5 per cent and 10 per cent of each group respectively; those who disagreed represent 5 per cent and 20 per cent respectively and nobody strongly disagreed that CDPs increased the health and well-being of women. Respondents who strongly agreed were women only and represent 80 per cent of those who were directly involved and 100 per cent of those who were indirectly involved in projects. Only 20 per cent of male respondents of those that were directly involved agreed that CDPs increased the health and well-being of women. The high percentage of those who strongly agreed represents 60 per cent and 50 per cent respectively. In terms of the development, planners should include more women in CDPs because projects increase the health and well-being of women. The study is compatible with the findings of the study conducted by Jan and Hayat (2011:55) which indicated that projects increase household income which leads to better healthcare for women and their children.

Table 4.15: CDPs increase the social capital of women

Perception	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Strongly agree	15	75	5	50
Agree	3	15	3	30
Don't know	2	10	1	10
Disagree	0	0	1	10
Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	20	100	20	100

Table 4.15 presents the data on the perception of the respondents who were directly and indirectly involved about the impact that CDPs have on the social capital of women. Following this table, those who strongly agreed represent 75 per cent and 50 per cent respectively. The number of respondents who agreed represents 15 per cent and 30 per cent respectively; those who did not know represent 10 per cent of each group respectively; from those who benefited directly there was nobody who disagreed, and those who disagreed from the group who indirectly benefited represent 10 per cent; and nobody strongly disagreed that CDPs increased the social capital. All female respondents (100 per cent) from both categories strongly agreed that CDPs increase the social capital for women. The high percentages of those who strongly agreed represent 75 per cent and 50 per cent respectively. In terms of the development, planners should include more women in the CDPs because projects increase

the social capital of women. The findings of the current study is compatible with those of Mansuri and RaO (2004:31) who found that better-networked communities benefitted the most from CDPs.

SECTION D: THE IMPACT OF CDPS ON WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Table 4.16: CDPs increase the income generation of women

Response	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Yes	18	90	7	70
No	2	10	3	30
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.16 presents the data on income-generation from the CDPs. Following this table, the Yes answer accounted for 90 per cent of those who were directly involved and 70 per cent of those who were indirectly involved, while the No answer accounted for 10 per cent and 30 per cent respectively. The Yes answers were mostly from the respondents who were involved in the CDPs, while the No answer was mostly from those who were not directly involved in the projects. The results of Table 4.16 demonstrate that the majority of respondents, 90 per cent and 70 per cent respectively, regarded CDPs as an important source for generating an income. Male respondents who disagreed represent 10 per cent of those who are directly linked and 30 per cent of those who were indirectly linked with the CDPs. The findings of the current study are in line with those of Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:87) who showed that rural women contributed immensely to family earnings. Development planners should, therefore, consider more women in projects as they are the ones who are in the majority in rural areas, and they also contribute immensely to the economy of the country.

Table 4.17: Women receiving income from another source besides CDPs

Response	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Yes	12	60	5	50
No	8	40	5	50
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

The data presented in Table 4.17 reflect that those who received income from other sources represent 60 per cent of those who were directly involved and 50 per cent of those who were indirectly involved. Those who did not receive additional income represent 40 per cent and 50 per cent respectively. Female respondents who received child support grants represent 80 per

cent of the total number of women from those that are directly involved and 100 per cent from those that are not directly involved. The Yes answer is mostly from women in each group because they receive government security grants in the form of child support grants. All men (100 per cent) in both categories did not receive additional income. The male respondents contributed more to the No answer because all of them did not receive child support grants. In terms of development, development planners should include more women because they currently depend on security grants which, in the view of the researcher, are meant as a short-term solution to combat the problem of poverty in the rural area. Government should rather look at new strategies to combat poverty instead of investing more resources in strategies that are meant for a short-term solution.

Table 4.18: CDPs increase job opportunities for women

Response	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Yes	16	80	7	70
No	4	20	3	30
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Table 4.18 presents data on the job opportunities created by the CDPs. Following this table, the Yes answer contributed to 80 per cent of those who were directly involved and 70 per cent of those who were indirectly involved, while the No answer contributed to 20 per cent and 30 per cent respectively. The high percentages of 80 per cent and 70 per cent respectively indicate that the majority of the respondents regard CDPs as a source of job creation in the area. The female respondents from those that were directly involved contributed 87 per cent to the Yes answer and only 13 per cent contributed to the No answer. The female respondents of those that were indirectly involved contributed 100 per cent to the Yes answer and 0 per cent to the No answer. Development planners should increase the number of projects in rural areas because the findings of the results reveal that respondents do agree that CDPs provide jobs for people in general and women in particular. The study is compatible with the findings of Gergis (1999:16) who argues that projects play a major role in creating jobs for people in general and women in particular.

Table 4.19: CDPs lead to an increase in the asset acquisition of women

Response	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Yes	18	90	8	80
No	2	10	2	20
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

The results of the findings as reflected in Table 4.19 show that 90 per cent of respondents who were directly benefiting and 80 per cent of those who were not directly benefiting from CDPs considered projects as a source of asset acquisition. The respondents who indicated a No answer accounted for 10 per cent and 20 per cent respectively. The female respondents who agreed that CDPs led to an increase in asset acquisition represent 100 per cent in both categories. The male respondents who disagreed that CDPs led to an increase in asset acquisition represent 40 per cent in both categories. The findings, therefore, reveal that respondents agreed that indeed CDPs contribute to asset acquisition. Development planners should consider investing more resources in projects in the rural areas in order to increase asset acquisition for women. Women need to acquire more assets in order for us to say that they are empowered.

SECTION E: FACTORS THAT PROMOTE OR HINDER WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

Table 4.20: Factors that hinder the empowerment of women

Factor	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Lack of government assistance	8	40	4	40
Cultural and societal norms	5	25	3	30
Lack of formal education	3	15	2	20
Decent jobs elsewhere	0	0	0	0
Discrimination	4	20	1	10
TOTAL	20	100	10	100

Respondents were asked to identify challenges that affected the success of the empowerment of women. Respondents were asked to identify factors from among the ones provided in Table 4.20 which include lack of government assistance, cultural and societal norms, lack of formal education, decent jobs elsewhere and discrimination. From the results, the findings are that lack of government assistance contributes the highest percentage of 40 per cent from each group of respondents, while working in a decent job elsewhere contributed 0 per cent. Female respondents who considered cultural and societal norms as a hindrance represent 33 per cent of those who were directly involved in the projects and 40 per cent of those who were indirectly involved in the CDPs. Cultural and societal norms also play an important role on how women respond to the challenges of the CDPs. In terms of development, government should play a more active role in assisting people in general and women in particular in the rural areas. Cultural and societal norms should also be considered when development initiatives are planned because they might contribute negatively to the success of projects. The findings of the current study showed that people in the rural areas expected that the

government should do more in terms of assisting them with resources to sustain existing projects and also in terms of getting the new ones off the ground. The government should also address challenges that affect women's participation in the CDPs. The findings of the study are compatible with those of Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:87) who showed that empowerment of women through CDPs is affected by a multiple of problems that necessitates multiple approaches as solutions.

Table 4.21: Willingness to participate in project

Response	Directly involved		Indirectly involved	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Yes	16	80	9	90
No	4	20	1	10
Total	20	100	10	100

Table 4.21 presents the data on the willingness of the respondents to participate in CDPs again should they be given a second opportunity. Following this table, the respondents who were willing to work again in the CDPs accounted for 80 per cent of those directly involved and 90 per cent of those indirectly involved. Those who were not willing to work again in the projects account for 20 per cent and 10 per cent respectively. The results show that the respondents who were not willing to work again were mostly women and men who were above 50 years of age because they were no longer economically active. However, the high percentage of 80 per cent and 90 per cent respectively indicate that the majority of people in rural areas in general and women in particular were willing to participate in CDPs. The government should, therefore, mobilize women in rural areas and also address challenges that affect their participation in the CDPs. The findings of the current study are consistent with the findings of (Kongolo & Bamgose 2002:87) who showed that the local government should address challenges that affect women's participation by removing any barriers imposed on the development of rural women, presently preventing them from taking active part in these socio-economic development initiatives.

4.5 Constraints and challenges

The study has revealed the following constraints and challenges:

- (i) Lack of skills and education
- (ii) Low income
- (iii) Unemployment rate

- (iv) Lack of sustainability of jobs
- (v) Lack of formal training of employees
- (vi) Lack of funding
- (vii) Lack of understanding of institutional structure.

4.5.1 Lack of skills and education

Some members of the community complain that they are overlooked when it comes to employment because their educational levels and skills, which they have acquired outside these projects, are not considered. Members are given equal opportunities to be appointed in these projects irrespective of their skills and educational qualifications. Employment is based on methods that are less formal, such as making a toss; in other words, members are employed on the basis of making a correct toss. It creates a problem because men and women who are more qualified to take up employment on these projects are overlooked. Lack of proper mechanisms for selecting employees compromises the proper empowerment of women through CDPs.

4.5.2 Low income

The greatest challenge South Africa is facing is the low level of income that workers receive which does not keep pace with the rate of inflation. Male members of the community complain that the wages that they receive are not adequate to support their families. It should be borne in mind that the wage that a worker receives supports a huge family which includes his or her immediate family and the extended family. Most of the male respondents seem to be dissatisfied with the low income that they get from CDPs. Low income also compromises the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women.

4.5.3 Unemployment rate

The unemployment rate in South Africa is very high and this impacts negatively on the employment of women in the rural areas who are in the majority. Members of the community complain that few jobs are created by these projects compared to the number of women who are unemployed. This creates problems between those who are fortunate enough to be employed and those who are less fortunate. Men also complain that projects are only meant to cater for women at their expense.

4.5.4 Lack of sustainability of jobs

From Table 4.1 it is clear that projects do not have a long life-span. Some of these projects collapse before they reach their termination stage and this creates problems because those who are employed in these projects join the ranks of those who are unemployed as soon as the projects collapse. The sustainability of jobs becomes questionable when projects fail to reach their termination stage. Lack of sustainability of jobs threatens the empowerment of women through CDPs.

4.5.5 Lack of formal training of employees

Most of the projects do not offer formal training to employees but, instead, on-the-job training is done. Employees are not given opportunities to be formally trained. Although on-the-job training is essential, lack of formal training that is accompanied by certification threatens the survival of human resource beyond the life-span of these projects. Development planners sometimes deliberately ignore the aspect of formal training of employees because they think employees would seek decent employment elsewhere after being trained. Lack of formal training compromises the empowerment of women through CDPs.

4.5.6 Lack of funding

Lack of funding is a serious problem with regard to the creation of CDPs in the rural areas. Most projects do not receive funding and those that are fortunate enough to be funded do not receive adequate amounts. Funding is crucial for projects to survive. Lack of funding causes projects to collapse before they reach their termination stage. Lack of funding compromises the empowerment of women because they will not be able to carry on with their normal duties in these projects.

4.5.7 Lack of understanding of institutional structure

The researcher also noted that a lack of understanding of institutional structure poses a challenge to the proper implementation of CDPs. Wrong decisions are often made for the benefit of a powerful minority group within the community. Women are usually excluded from projects where there is a lack of institutional structure among the community members. The findings are compatible with those of a study that was conducted in the Limpopo Province about the highly skewed stock ownership status and distribution of resultant benefits in a

communal grazing (Swanepoel *et al.* 2009:6). The findings of the study on livestock farming revealed that overgrazing occurred because the tribal chiefs and their close friends exploited the common grazing resources at the expense of other disadvantaged members of the community such as women, which rendered livestock improvement schemes environmentally unsustainable, while also largely inequitable and beneficial to only a small powerful minority (p.6). Lack of institutional structure makes it difficult for women to be empowered.

4.6 Way forward (Possible solutions to the challenges)

Possible solutions to the challenges listed above would appear in the same order. The following actions are necessary in order to address the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment as outlined in the research objective and questions in Chapter 1.

Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:86) indicate that 'education is an important tool for development, that is, skills and education are the key elements that are needed for survival'. Women should, therefore, be employed based on their qualifications even if they have lower qualifications. This would encourage more women to take up their education as a serious matter.

The findings of the investigation conducted by the researcher revealed that CDPs at Malamulele area are alleviating poverty because those who are employed are able to support their families despite the fact that their wages are low. However, development planners should consider the issue of payment as serious because those that are employed have families to support.

The unemployment rate can only be reduced in the rural areas if government and NGOs support the existing projects and also through the creation of new projects so that more women could get an opportunity to be employed.

It is, therefore, crucial for development planners to consider mechanisms on how to sustain emerging projects so that they do not collapse before they reach their termination stage.

Formal training should be enforced by legislation. It is also important that training should be accompanied by the awarding of certificates to those who have met the requirements so that they would be able to sustain their life beyond the life-span of projects..

Government and NGOs would have to come to the party and assist with funding to get existing projects going forward and also to get new projects off the ground.

Understanding of institutional structures and the impact on decision-making must be viewed as an important element in the design of projects (Swanepoel *et al.* 2009:6). In addition, appropriate policy frameworks are required (p.6). Supportive institutions must also be identified and asked to give their support. Relevant science is also required to ensure that projects succeed. According to Swanepoel *et al.* (2009:6), the success of individual projects and sustainable development involve a number of issues such as a clear mandates from institutions participating in the research and development; and a regular measurements of progress and impacts. Women should not be excluded from participating in the development interventions at the expense of small and powerful leaders in the community.

4.7 Validity and reliability

Bless *et al.* (2006:150) indicate that quantitative research 'focuses more on reliability, that is, consistent and stable measurement of data as well as replicability'. Reliability, according to Macmillan and Schumacher (1993:385), refers to 'the extent to which 'findings of the study are consistent and stable'. Tustin *et al.* (2005:94) simplify this explanation by indicating that reliability of data means that 'similar results should be obtained by independent but comparable measures of the same object, trait or construct'.

The present study concentrated more on qualitative research and, as far as qualitative research is concerned, validity is regarded as more important because the objective of the study must be representative of what the researcher is investigating. MacMillan and Schumacher (1993:157) define *validity* as 'the degree to which scientific explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world'. In this case, the findings of the study on the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment must be representative of the population being studied. Tustin (2005:94) elaborates on how validity is measured. Validity is measured in terms of two separate but related dimensions: internal and external validity (p. 94). Internal validity expresses the extent to which a particular research design has excluded all other possible hypothesis (Macmillan & Schumacher 1993:158; Tustin 2005:94). *External validity*, according to MacMillan and Schumacher (1993:158), refers to the generalisability of the results to other people or settings. Validity is 'a boundary maker between successful and unsuccessful research' (Tustin 2005:94).

Validity and reliability are measured by the results obtained from the particular sample of participants and apply to all subjects in the population under study (Macmillan & Schumacher 1993:158). The respondents in the current study were informed that the information they

provided was highly confidential and it was only needed for academic purposes. The respondents were informed about the aims of the investigation and interviews. The researcher has, therefore, maintained the validity and reliability of the study.

4.8 Conclusion

Rural women continued to be marginalized partly because their culture prescribed their roles as less important than the ones played by men and this created poverty (Kongolo & Bamgose 2002:81). Poverty among rural women was also socially engineered because they were made to reside in rural areas where there was an underdevelopment of structure (Joseph 2012:13).

It was, therefore, necessary to conduct an investigation into the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women. The study observed that projects were being undertaken in various communities and the majority of those who participated in these projects were women.

The study also observed that women spent long hours in the CDPs and that compromised them since they had to balance their triple role that society expected them to play. The perception of respondents about the impact of CDPs on women empowerment was investigated and the study observed that projects increased the following aspects of women; decision-making capacity, self-confidence, skills and education, economic freedom, political freedom, health and well-being, and their social capital.

The findings of the study also revealed that CDPs also played a critical role in income generation for women. The study also observed that CDPs increased job opportunities and asset acquisition for women.

The study observed that there were factors that contributed to the lack of empowerment of women through CDPs such as lack of education, and cultural and societal norms. As a result of this dilemma, Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:88) suggest that the principle that expresses "multiple problems necessitate multiple approaches" as solutions should be applied.

The study also observed the following constraints and challenges: lack of skill and education, low income, unemployment rate, lack of job security, lack of formal training of employees, lack of funding, and lack of understanding of institutional structure. The challenges raised above also contributed to how CDPs impacted on women empowerment.

4.9 Summary

This chapter presented an analysis and interpreted the data collected from respondents. The purpose of data analysis was to interpret and draw conclusions from a mass of collected data. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and qualitative data analysis. Results were obtained from face-to-face interviews and questionnaires. Questionnaire results were analysed by using tables and graphs. The results were interpreted; however, they were not exhaustive.

Challenges to the empowerment of women through CDPs were also raised in this chapter. These challenges were followed by possible solutions. A conclusion to synthesize the findings of the study was also presented in this chapter.

Validity refers to 'the degree to which scientific explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world' (MacMillan & Schumacher 1993:157). *Reliability* refers to 'the extent to which the findings of the study are consistent and stable' (Macmillan & Schumacher 1993:385). For a research to be valid and reliable, a researcher should analyse the findings and test for their validity and reliability.

The researcher, therefore, checked the validity and reliability of results by making comparisons with the findings from studies by other researchers in order to find compatibility of results. In conclusion, the results of the face-to-face interviews and that of the questionnaires are compatible with one another because in both cases there was an agreement that CDPs promoted the empowerment of women, which included an increase in the following aspects: decision-making capacity, self-confidence, job creation, social capital, health and well-being, and political and economic freedom.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development* (Republic of South Africa 1994) advocated the promotion of CDPs as a way to deal with the problem of poverty in South Africa. To ensure that poverty is eradicated even in rural areas, CDPs were also introduced in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality, Limpopo Province. The main aim of introducing these projects was to empower the disadvantaged groups, mainly women, who were in the majority in rural areas. This study set out to investigate whether the introduction of CDPs was really about the eradication of poverty or whether it was merely a smokescreen to protect the government from its failure to provide decent jobs for people in general and women in particular.

The main aim of the study was to investigate the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele cluster of the Thulamela Municipality. The main objectives of the study included the following:

- (i) To identify the types of projects which are being implemented in the area and also to examine the nature of women's participation in CDPs in the cluster
- (ii) To examine the power relations/dynamics between men and women
- (iii) To examine the amount of time respondents invest in the CDPs
- (iv) To evaluate the perception of respondents on the empowerment of women through CDPs
- (v) To assess the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women in terms of income generation, job creation and asset acquisition
- (vi) To establish factors that promote or hinder women empowerment
- (vii) To make appropriate policy and strategic recommendations as may be necessary.

The study attempted to meet all the objectives of the study, though it was not exhaustive. The study managed to assess some of the indicators of the impact of CDPs on the empowerment of women. However, only a few indicators were investigated to assess their impact on women empowerment. The power relations between men and women were also investigated, but to a limited extent, which requires further investigation. The effects of projects on women's social, political and economic position in society were investigated, but further research on these

aspects is needed in the Malamulele area in the Thulamela Municipality. Recommendations for further research have also been dealt with in this research report.

The significance of the study is to contribute to social science knowledge and the improvement of the living conditions of women in the Malamulele area in the Thulamela Municipality.

The key concepts in the study included the following: poverty, empowerment, community development, gender, development, community-based development, community-driven development, community, women's multiple roles, reproductive role, productive role, community management role, gender needs, practical and strategic gender needs, and social development.

The study reviewed literature on the background of CDPs in South Africa, the theoretical framework used that included different approaches to development of women. The approaches reviewed included the welfare, WID, the equity, the anti-poverty, the efficiency, basic needs, GAD and the empowerment. The strengths and the weaknesses of each approach were highlighted in relation to development of women in Third World countries. Evidence of the role of community development programmes in the empowerment of women in South Africa was also dealt with in the research report.

The study largely used the qualitative research design because of the nature of the topic, which required a detailed understanding of the impact of the projects on the empowerment of women. A quantitative research design was also used in the analysis of the profiles of the respondents. However, the quantitative research design was used to a limited extent. It was necessary to use both qualitative and quantitative research designs because the researcher wanted to balance out the weaknesses of each research method.

The current study used different research instruments which included surveys and interviews. Surveys in the form of questionnaires were used in this study. Interviews played an important role in the study because the researcher wanted to gain an in-depth understanding of the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment. However, the quantitative research design was used to a limited extent.

Data analysis was necessary directly to answer the research objectives. According to Neuman (2006:460), qualitative data analysis is used to analyse data by 'organizing them into categories on the basis of themes, concepts or similar features'.

The study observed that the majority of women working in the projects are those that are in the age category of between 40 and 49 years. Educational level, according to Kongolo and Bamgose (2002:86), is an important tool, and is needed to stimulate and enhance active participation of rural women in community development, but the selection criteria for people that are employed in CDPs are not based on the level of education but more on traditional methods, hence those that have lower qualifications are employed in large numbers. The analysis of gender reveals that more women work in the projects. The findings of the research also revealed that there are different types of projects around the Malamulele cluster which include vegetable gardening, brick-forming, poultry farming, sisal farming, and art and beadwork.

After critically reviewing the results the following conclusions were drawn:

- The findings of the research revealed that the majority of women in the projects spend more than six hours a day working despite the fact that they receive low wages and it also adds a burden to their workload as they are expected to perform multiple roles.
- The research revealed that CDPs increased the following aspects of women: decision-making capacity, skills and knowledge, asset acquisition, political participation, health and well-being, social capital, income, job opportunities, and self-confidence. However, the research also revealed that most women in the rural areas expected the government to do most of the things on their behalf.
- Following the findings of the research, the CDPs play a major role in transforming the rural economy because women believe that since the inception of CDPs much has changed in terms of their living conditions. CDPs in rural areas have empowered women in many aspects which they could use beyond the existence of projects for survival.

5.2 Recommendations

The current study established that different stakeholders do not share the same understanding of key concepts in development. Lack of clear understanding of key concepts made it difficult for both development practitioners and project implementers to effectively execute their mandate effectively. Communities cannot implement what they do not understand effectively and development practitioners cannot effectively monitor a programme of a project they do not clearly understand. It is, therefore, recommended that women and development practitioners

in CDPs should be equipped with skills and knowledge in order to contribute effectively to the empowerment of these women.

The current study established that there was a lack of political will to act against government officials who stalled development progress by engaging in corrupt practices. It is, therefore, recommended that government, the public sector, civil society and other stakeholders commit themselves to implementing laws, legislations and policies that are already in place, in order to regulate development processes. It is of critical importance for the government to play an active role in facilitating these processes because the market forces alone cannot resolve the problem of poverty and inequality.

The integration of women fully into the development process is critical to poverty reduction strategies. Development practitioners should consider women in planning development initiatives. Integration of women's issues to a wide range of policies and programmes is a critical strategy for poverty reduction.

Development planners and agencies should listen to local communities, especially during consultative meetings so as to encourage them to participate in the projects. Mobilization of women and men to participate fully and equally in CDPs is critical to combat poverty and achieve sustainable development. Women must not only be needed when a development initiative is implemented, but they must also be fully integrated, and allowed to participate even during the planning phase because they have peculiar abilities that are lacking in their male counterparts (Nkiko 2008:1103). The emancipation of women and the attainment of equality in the political, economic, social, cultural and civic spheres is a long and difficult process of social transformation that requires commitment from stakeholders to fundamentally challenge the way in which society is organized. It requires a paradigm shift in development thinking among actors in development. It is, therefore, recommended that decision-makers develop new ways of thinking about the emancipation of women by integrating them fully into development initiatives. Coetzee *et al.* (2001:169) maintain that women's subordination emanated, not from one source, but from many sources, such as patriarchy, customs, tradition, colonialism, racism and apartheid. Bureaucrats, therefore, need to understand this shift in development thinking in implementing policies, programmes and laws; and law-makers need to translate this thinking into laws. It is also recommended that civil society be involved in development initiatives; women and men need to educate themselves and each other about the causes of, and solutions to, gender inequality, and the problem of poverty and patriarchy. Sithole (2008:106-107) argues that women need to be empowered with information,

knowledge and education in order to be self-reliant, self-sufficient and to address the challenges of community development effectively.

Development planners and agencies must develop a better understanding of local economics. They should also familiarize themselves with the behaviour, attitudes, norms and values of the beneficiaries so as to encourage sustainable development. Women need to mobilize themselves and other actors in development to fight societal norms and prejudices, constructed in order to exclude them from full participation in social, cultural, economic and political activities. It is, therefore, necessary for the government and development practitioners, in collaboration with other stakeholders, to deal with prejudices and customary attitudes that inhibit women from full participation in development initiatives. Negative attitudes and customary beliefs that reinforce discrimination against women must be eliminated through well-thought-through and planned education and awareness campaigns. The current study, therefore, recommends that men and communities in general should be educated to change their attitudes and to recognize women as equal partners in development.

The policy on CDPs should be reviewed and structured in such a way as to encourage women's participation, as well as allowing continual updating of the database so that the information about their involvement in projects could be accessed easily.

The findings of the current study revealed that the high illiteracy levels of the people involved hinder them from implementing development programmes. It is, therefore, recommended that properly planned education and awareness campaigns should be implemented in consultation with stakeholders in order to promote women's effective participation in decision-making processes that are critical to the development of various policies that are needed to regulate development processes.

The Thulamela Local Municipality should promote the CDP concept, so as to encourage and support communities to engage themselves in projects in order to eradicate poverty and inequality, especially among rural women. The current study found that lack of adequate funding was one of the factors that hindered women empowerment. In order to deal decisively with the problem of poverty and inequality, this study, therefore, recommends that planners should consider the inclusion of wages as part of funding in any future development initiative so that projects can be sustained. The current study also recommends that the existing projects should be supported with additional funding to enable members to procure material needed to develop and take the project to a higher level. In short, the researcher agrees with the participants that the criteria for funding needs to be reviewed, and communities should

also be taken on board when planning is made so that they can voice their dissatisfaction and possible solutions.

According to the study conducted by Sithole (2008:98), people are able to participate only if they have information to enable them to be active members of CDPs and not depend on development practitioners. The author argues that training gives power to the programmes (p. 105). The current study is aware of financial constraints but recommends regular in-service training of both development practitioners and project staff to ensure that their level of understanding of development issues is conducive to effective development. It is also recommended that training should be done by using local languages in order to maximize participation of women in development initiatives.

The findings of this study show that women have a great impact in CDPs. The willingness of women to participate and contribute towards their own empowerment, and to that of others, calls for greater assistance, with resources, knowledge, skills and opportunities in order for women to emancipate themselves. The current study, therefore, recommends that women should be supported with resources in order to play their multiple roles effectively.

5.3 Summary

In this chapter the researcher concludes by indicating the aspects that were covered in the research report such as the research problem, aim of the research, objectives; significance of the study, key concepts, approaches reviewed, research methods and techniques, instruments used, presentation, data analysis and interpretation of results.

Conclusions drawn from the study are also highlighted in this chapter.

Recommendations about future development planning of CDPs were made for practitioners and planners for consideration. Recommendations are also made in order to allow other researchers to extend their investigations on the topic and to give development planners new ideas to consider for future project development planning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH PROJECT STAFF

Enq: Khosa M.R
Cell. No.:083 424 5671

P.O.Box 557
MALAMULELE
0982
15 January 2012

The Project Manager

.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH PROJECT STAFF

1. I, Khosa Mafemani Richard, an MDEV student at Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership, Student No.: 9242725, ID.No:6105255752082 hereby apply for permission to conduct interviews with some of your staff members about an investigation on the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality.
2. The interviews are for the mini-dissertation which will be submitted to the TGSL for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree.
3. I wish to state categorically that the interviews will not disrupt the smooth running of the project operations.

Your favourable consideration of my application will be highly esteemed.

Yours faithfully

.....

Khosa M.R

**APPENDIX B
REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH PARTNERS OR
SPOUSES**

Enq: Khosa M.R
Cell. No.:083 424 5671

P.O.Box 557
MALAMULELE
0982
15 January 2012

Mr/Mrs/Dr/Rev/Hon:
.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir/ Madam

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH YOUR PARTNERS OR
SPOUSES**

1. I, Khosa Mafemani Richard, an MDEV student at Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership, Student No.:9242725, ID.No:6105255752082 hereby apply for permission to conduct interviews with some of your staff members about an investigation on the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality.
2. The interviews are for the mini-dissertation which will be submitted to the TGSL for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree.
3. I wish to state categorically that the interviews will not disrupt the smooth running of the family.

Your favourable consideration of my application will be highly esteemed.

Yours faithfully

.....
Khosa M.R

APPENDIX C
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STRUCTURED QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED BY PROJECT STAFF

The investigation is about the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women.

Instructions

The questionnaire comprises 5 pages. Kindly respond to all questions by putting a tick or cross on the space provided. You are also kindly requested to give a brief motivation, reasons for your answer and/ or explanations where you have been requested to do so. Remember that there is no wrong or correct answer.

Confidentiality

The investigation is strictly for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree. All the information supplied will be treated as confidential and will not be used for any other purpose.

Yours faithfully

.....

Khosa M.R

APPENDIX D

CONSENT FORM

This is to certify that the participant has consented to be part of the research study. The investigation is strictly for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree. All the information supplied will be treated as confidential and will not be used for any other purpose.

1. This is to confirm that I,, voluntarily accepted / consented to participate in the research study.
2. I also want to categorically state that I was not coerced to participate in the study.
3. I also want to indicate that my rights to withdraw my participation if needs be at any time will be respected.

Signature:

Date:

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY PROJECT STAFF

(The questionnaire to be completed by women and men involved in the community development projects)

This questionnaire comprises 5 sections: A, B, C, D and E. The questionnaire is completed with the aim of collecting data, specifically to get the views of both women and men who are directly involved with CDPs in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela Municipality. The information /data collected will be used to compile a mini-dissertation for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree and for making recommendations for future improvement. Questionnaires will be completed in the presence of the researcher and the assistants and handed back to the researcher after completion.

SECTION A: PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

INSTRUCTION

Complete the following: Please mark with an x or tick (✓) in the box with the appropriate response. Mark one box only. In case where answers have to be supplied, do so on the space provided.

1.1 How long have you been working on the CDPs?

None	
0–1 year	
1–5 years	
5–10 years	
10–15 years	
More than years 15 years	

1.2 What is your age?

Below 20 years	
20–29 years	
30–39 years	

40–49 years	
50–59 years	
60 years and above	

1.3 What is your marital status?

Single	
Married	
Divorced	
Widow	
Separated	

1.4 What is your highest qualification?

Below Grade 12	
Grade 12	
Certificate	
Diploma	
Undergraduate Degree	
Honours/BTech	
Masters	
PhD	

1.5 Gender

Male	
Female	

SECTION B: INFORMATION ON THE PROJECT

2.1 What type of project are you involved in

Brick forming	
Vegetable gardening	
Poultry farming	
Sisal farming	
Other project	
None	

2.2 How much time do you spend on the project?

Below 2 hours a day	
Between 2 and 4 hours	
Between 4–6 hours	
Above 6 hours a day	

SECTION C: PERCEPTIONS OF PARTICIPANTS ABOUT CDPs ON WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

This section measures your perceptions towards the impact of CDPs on women empowerment. Please put an (X) or tick (✓) in the applicable box to rate your level of agreement or disagreement. Mark one box only.

No	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Don't know	Disagree	Strongly disagree
3.1	I am satisfied with the management in the present project					
3.2	Women are given an opportunity to contribute in decision-making					
3.3	I feel that projects help in developing confidence in women					
3.4	Projects help in improving skills and knowledge of women					
3.5	Projects motivate women to participate in economic activities					
3.6	Political empowerment is also increased through participation in projects					
3.7	Participation in projects increases the health and well-being of women					
3.8	Projects improve the social capital of women					

SECTION D: IMPACT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

This section measures the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment. Please put an (X) or tick (✓) in the applicable box to rate your level of agreement or disagreement. Mark one box only.

4.1 Do CDPs increase income generation of respondents for personal and household use?

Yes	
No	

4.2 Do you derive income from another source besides your participation in the CDP?

Yes	
No	

4.3 Do CDPs increase job opportunities?

Yes	
No	

4.4 Does participation in CDPs lead to an increase in asset acquisition?

Yes	
No	

SECTION E: FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE SUCCESS OR FAILURE OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

This section measures key success factors that seek to promote/hinder women empowerment. Please put an (X) or tick (✓) in the applicable box to rate your level of agreement or disagreement where applicable. Mark one box only. In case where answers have to be supplied, do so on the space provided.

5.1 Indicate the most hindering factor to participation in CDPs

Lack of information about CDPs	
Cultural and societal norms	
Decent job elsewhere	
Discrimination	
Government security grant	
Total	

5.2 If you were to be given a second chance, would you be willing to participate in CDPs again?

Yes	
No	

5.3 What are the challenges you face as community members about these projects?

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5.4 What do you want to see happening at these projects?

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YOUR CO-OPERATION IS HIGHLY APPRECIATED

APPENDIX F

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH PARTNERS OR SPOUSES OF RESPONDENTS NOT DIRECTLY LINKED TO CDPs

Enq: Khosa M.R
Cell. No.:083 424 5671

P.O.Box 557
MALAMULELE
0982
15 January 2012

Mr/Mrs/Dr/Rev/Hon:
.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH YOUR PARTNER OR SPOUSE

1. I, Khosa Mafemani Richard, the MDEV student at Turfloop Graduate School of Leadership, Student No.: 9242725, ID. No.: 6105255752082 hereby apply for permission to conduct interviews with your spouse/ partner about an investigation on the impact that community development projects have on the empowerment of women in the Malamulele area of the Thulamela municipality.
2. The interviews are for the mini-dissertation which will be submitted to the TGSL for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree.
3. I wish to state categorically clear that the interviews will not disrupt the smooth running of the family.

Your favourable consideration of my application will be highly esteemed.

Yours faithfully

.....
Khosa M.R

APPENDIX G
INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STRUCTURED QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED BY
RESPONDENTS NOT DIRECTLY LINKED TO CDPs

The investigation is about the impact that CDPs have on the empowerment of women.

Instructions

This questionnaire comprises of 5 pages. Kindly respond to all questions by putting a tick on the space provided. You are also kindly requested to give a brief motivation, reasons for your answer and/ or explanations where you have been requested to do so. Remember that there is no wrong or correct answer.

Confidentiality

The investigation is strictly for the partial fulfillment of the MDEV degree. All the information supplied will be treated as confidential and will not be used for any other purpose.

Yours faithfully

.....

Khosa M.R

APPENDIX H

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY RESPONDENTS NOT DIRECTLY INVOLVED IN CDPs

This questionnaire comprises of 5 sections: A,B,C,D and E. The questionnaire is done with the aim of collecting data, specifically to get the views of both women and men who are not directly involved with community development projects in the Malamulele Area of the Thulamela Municipality. The information/data collected will be used to compile a mini-dissertation for the partial fulfilment of the MDEV degree and for making recommendations for future improvement. Questionnaires will be completed in the presence of the researcher and the assistants and handed back to the researcher after completion.

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INSTRUCTION

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Below 20 years	
20–29 years	
30–39 Years	
40–49 Years	

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1.3 What is your marital status?

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Divorced	
Widow	
Separated	

1.4 What is your highest qualification?

Below Grade 12	
Grade 12	
Certificate	
Diploma	
Undergraduate degree	
Honours/BTech	
Masters	
PhD	

1.5 Gender

Male	
Female	

SECTION B: INFORMATION ON THE PROJECT

2.1 What type of project are you involved in

Brick forming	
Vegetable gardening	
Poultry farming	
Sisal farming	
Other project	
None	

2.2 How much time do you spend on the project?

Below 2 hours a day	
Between 2 and 4 hours	
Between 4–6 hours	
Above 6 hours a day	

SECTION C: PERCEPTIONS OF PARTICIPANTS ABOUT CDPs ON WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

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3.4	Projects help in improving skills and knowledge of women					
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3.6	Political empowerment is also increased through participation in projects					
3.7	Participation in projects increases the health and well-being of women					
3.8	Projects improve the social capital of women					

SECTION D: IMPACT OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

This section measures the impact that CDPs have on women empowerment. Please put an (X) or tick (✓) in the applicable box to rate your level of agreement or disagreement. Mark one box only.

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Yes	
No	

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Yes	
No	

4.3 Do CDPs increase job opportunities?

Yes	
No	

4.4 Does participation in CDPs lead to an increase in asset acquisition?

Yes	
No	

SECTION E: FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO THE SUCCESSOR FAILURE OF WOMEN EMPOWERMENT

This section measures key success factors that seek to promote/hinder women empowerment. Please put an (X) or tick (✓) in the applicable box to rate your level of agreement or disagreement where applicable. Mark one box only. In case where answers have to be supplied, do so on the space provided.

5.1 Indicate the most hindering factor to participation in CDPs

Lack of information about CDPs	
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