

**THE EFFECTS OF SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES IN ADDRESSING FOOD
INSECURITY IN THE MUTALE MUNICIPALITY OF VHEMBE DISTRICT, LIMPOPO
PROVINCE IN SOUTH AFRICA**

BY

DAITAI ELLIA

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SUPERVISOR: DR R TSHIFHUMULO

CO-SUPERVISOR: DR MH MUKWEVHO

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Declaration

I, **Ellia Daitai**, declare that this dissertation is my original work and has not been submitted for any degree at any other university or institution. The dissertation does not contain other person's writing unless specifically acknowledged and referenced accordingly.

Signed: Date:

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Dedication

The study is dedicated to the whole Daitai family.

Abstract

This study focused on the effects of the school feeding programmes in addressing food insecurity in Mutale Municipality of Vhembe District, Limpopo Province. The study placed school feeding programmes within the wider context of social assistance and a component for securing food for the wellbeing of Mutale rural inhabitants. The major problem identified in this study was the inadequacy of governmental interventions, specifically the social assistance component, to eliminate food insecurity in rural areas. This failure motivated the researcher to venture into an investigation of the school feeding programme and its impact, as a social intervention, in addressing food insecurity among rural citizenry. The study openly delineated various factors contributing to the ruthless chronic food insecurity which has ravaged many families in rural areas. On the theoretical framework, the research incorporated the Capability Theory and the Entitlement approach as the foundational basis of the study. The qualitative approach was used to ensure an in-depth understanding of the contribution of school feeding programmes as a right based in-kind social safety net implemented by the government in addressing the discourse of food insecurity on a rural setting. Respondents of the study included the supervisor at circuit level, the school principal, educators, food handlers, smallholder farmers, learners and their parents. The researcher utilised Quota sampling in the selection of respondents. The researcher gathered data through the use of interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis. The findings of this study were analysed by organizing the data and presenting it in a descriptive manner. Literature revealed that the provision of feeding schemes at schools have the capability to stimulate an enabling environment which can empower rural families with adequate resources essential for eliminating food insecurity. However, this study found out that the feeding scheme marginally created employment, reduced poverty and hunger and increased health and nutrition education among the community members. The programme achieved minimal results as it confronted implementation constraints which ruined its capacity to exterminate rural food insecurity.

Key words: food insecurity, food security, hunger, poverty, social assistance,

List of Acronyms

ACFS	African Children's Feeding Scheme
ACHPR	African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights
ACHPR	African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
AHDR	Africa Human Development Report
AU	African Union
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CAFDA	Cape Flats Distress Association
CASNY	Children's Aid Society of New York
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DFID	Department for International Development
DOA	Department of Agriculture
EPSNP	Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Programme
FANTA	Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance
FAO	Food Agricultural Organisation
GADRA	Grahamstown Areas Distress Relief Association
HGSFP	Homegrown School Feeding Programme
HIICR	Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research

HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HLEF	High Level Expert Forum
HLPE	High Level Panel of Experts
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IISD	International Institute for Sustainable Development
INP	Integrated Nutrition Programme
INS	Integrated Nutrition Strategy
IPCC	International Panel on Climate Change
IPS	Inter Press Service
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MFII	Multidimensional Food Insecurity Index
NAMC	National Agricultural Marketing Council
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NFSC	Nepal Food Security Cluster
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NSNP	National School Nutrition Programme
OAU	Organization of African Unity
PNAE	Programme Nacional de Alimentacao Escolar

PSC	Public Service Commission
PSFS	Peninsula School Feeding School
PSNP	Primary School Nutrition Programme
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SFGP	School Food Gardens Programme
SFP	School Feeding Programme
SGB	School Governing Body
SHAWCO	Students Health and Welfare Centres Organization
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
STATS-SA	Statistics South Africa
UDEHM	Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNFP	United Nations Food Programme
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNHR	United Nations Human Rights
UNHTF	United Nations Hunger Task Force
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

UNWFC	United Nations World Food Conference
WFP	World Food Programme
WFS	World Food Summit
WHO	World Health Organization
WRR	World Risk Report

List of Tables

Table 2.1: A comparison of chronic and transitory food insecurity	27
Table 4.1: Biographical profile of smallholder farmers	61
Table 4.2: Biographical characteristics of parents	62
Table 4.3: Biographical profile of learners	62
Table 4.4: Biographical characteristics of food handlers	63
Table 4.5: Biographical characteristics of staff members	64
Table 4.6: Feeding scheme menus	68

List of Figures

Figure 4.1: Food storage and the type of security at the door	71
Figure 4.2: Tshiwangamatembele kitchen	72
Figure 4.3: Non preferable food; Milk and soya	80
Figure 4.4: Local small farms	85
Figure 4.5: Food given to learners	90

Table of Contents

Declaration	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Dedication	iii
Abstract	iv
List of Acronyms	v
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY	1
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Problem statement	4
1.4 Research objectives	6
1.5 Research questions	6
1.6 Delimitation of the study	6
1.7 Definition of terms	7
1.8 Summary	8
1.9 Research framework	8
CHAPTER 2	10
LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	10
2.0 Introduction	10
2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	10
2.1.1 Capability Approach	10
2.1.2 Entitlement Approach	14
2.2 THE RIGHT TO FOOD	17

2.2.1 The right to food in international human rights law	17
2.2.2 The right to food in African regional human rights law	18
2.2.3 The right to food in the South African Constitution	19
2.2.4 What does the right to food mean?	20
2.3 FOOD (IN) SECURITY	21
2.3.1 Availability dimension	22
2.3.2 Accessibility dimension	23
2.3.3 Utilisation dimension	24
2.3.4 Stability dimension	25
2.4.1 Chronic food insecurity	28
2.4.2 Transitory food insecurity	29
2.5 CAUSES OF FOOD INSECURITY	29
2.5.1 Insufficient Production	30
2.5.2 Lack of food entitlement	31
2.5.3 Shortage of buying power	31
2.5.4 Political instability / refugees	32
2.5.5 Price hikes.....	32
2.5.6 Inadequate safety nets	33
2.5.7 Adverse climatic conditions	34
2.5.8 Natural and human induced disasters	34
2.5.9 Population growth	35
2.5.10 Lack of empowerment of the food-insecure population	35
2.6 SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES	35
2.6.1 Historical background of feeding schemes in the world	36
2.6.2 The historical background of feeding scheme in South Africa.....	37

2.7 THE STATE OF FEEDING SCHEME IN SOUTH AFRICA.....	41
2.7.1 Food procurement.....	41
2.7.3 Decentralized procurement	42
2.7.5 Food preparation.....	43
2.8 POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF FEEDING PROGRAMMES IN ADDRESSING FOOD INSECURITY.....	44
2.8.1 Improvement of markets accessibility	44
2.8.2 Boosting domestic food production	45
2.8.3 Alleviation of unemployment	47
2.8.4 Poverty reduction	47
2.8.5 Development initiatives	47
2.8.6 Health and nutrition	48
2.8.7 Reduction of hunger	49
2.9 CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES	50
2.9.1 Delivery problems	50
2.9.2 Menu compliance	51
2.9.3 Lack of sufficient staff.....	51
2.10 Summary	51
CHAPTER 3	53
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	53
3.0 Introduction.....	53
3.2 Location of the study.....	54
3.3 Population.....	54
3.4 Sampling.....	55
3.5 Data collection	56

3.6 Ethical considerations	57
3.6.1 Voluntary participation.....	57
3.6.2 Privacy	57
3.6.3 The right to withdraw at any time	58
3.6.4 No harm to participants	58
3.6.5 Deception	58
3.6.6 Confidentiality.....	58
3.7 Data analysis	58
3.8 Summary	59
CHAPTER 4	60
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS.....	60
4.0 Introduction.....	60
4.1.1 Smallholder farmers	61
4.1.2 Parents.....	62
4.1.3 Learners.....	62
4.1.4 Voluntary Food Handlers.....	63
4.1.5 Staff members.....	64
4.2 THE CURRENT STATE OF TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE SCHOOL FEEDING SCHEME	64
4.2.1The inauguration of the feeding programme	64
4.2.2 Stakeholders and their responsibilities.....	65
4.2.2.1The supervisor at the circuit level.....	65
4.2.2.2 Principal	66
4.2.2.3 Educators	66
4.2.4 Food procurement.....	69

4.2.5 Storage.....	70
4.2.6 Preparation.....	71
4.2.7 Garden	73
4.2.8 Wood supplier	73
4.3 POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE FEEDING SCHEME IN ADDRESSING RURAL FOOD INSECURITY	74
4.3.1 Employment	74
4.3.2 Poverty reduction	77
4.3.3 Hunger alleviation	79
4.3.4 Nutrition and health skills	81
4.3.5 Access to markets.....	82
4.3.6 Enhance food production	84
4.4 CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME	86
4.4.1 Collaboration with development partners.	87
4.4.2 Link with local farmers.....	87
4.4.3 Local food preferences.....	88
4.4.4 Late payments of food handlers	88
4.4.5 Amount of food.....	89
4.4.6 Inadequate workers.....	90
4.4.7 Delivery problems	91
4.4.8 Implementation failure	92
4.5 Summary	92
CHAPTER 5	93
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	93
5.0 Introduction	93

5.2 Conclusion	95
5.3 Recommendations.....	97
5.3.1 Future Research	97
5.3.2 Community	98
5.3.3 Policy markers.....	98
REFERENCES.....	100
APPENDICES	113
Appendix 1: Informed Consent	113
Appendix 2: A letter requesting permission from the department of education.....	115
Appendix 3: A letter of approval from the Department of Education	117
Appendix 4: A letter of approval from Tshilamba Circuit	118
Appendix 5: A letter of approval from the School Principal	119
Appendix 6: An illustration of human freedom	120
Appendix 7: An interview schedule for the supervisor at circuit level.....	121
Appendix 8: An interview schedule for the principal.....	123
Appendix 9: An interview schedule for educators	125
Appendix 10: An interview schedule for learners	127
Appendix 11: An interview schedule for parents	129
Appendix 12: An interview schedule for small holder farmers	131

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

The provision of food is enshrined as a basic human right by global institutions. The right to food is recognised in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights as part of the right to an adequate standard of living. Article 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) states that:

Everyone has a right to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of himself and his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care, and necessary social services and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age, or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control (UNICEF, 2008: 4).

The right to food is also clearly laid out in the 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) recognises proper living standards as a crucial right to be accorded to humanity. These living standards include sufficient food and immunity from hunger (FAO, 2011: 9). Proper living conditions, as a right, is also captured by the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) as a crucial element for the development of children. This convention focuses on both food and nutrition.

Furthermore, the right to food has been documented in numerous international agreements. At the World Food Summit organized by Food Agricultural Organisation (FAO), in 1996, nations agreed to give considerations to undernourished people. They also called for the clarification of the right to food and the obligations attached to it, as stipulated under international human rights. In response, the Committee on Economic, and Social Rights (1999) issued its general comment, which defines the right to food. Its definition entitles each man, regardless of age and gender, in isolation or together with community members, gaining access, through physical and economic means, to enough food or resources.

According to the United Nations Millennium Declaration, adopted by the General Assembly in 2000, States commit to halving the proportion of people suffering from hunger and poverty by 2015. In 2004, FAO adopted the Voluntary Guidelines to support the progressive realization of the right to adequate food in the context of national food security, providing practical guidance to States in their implementation of the right to adequate food (FAO, 2006).

The right to food is also enshrined in the national constitutions. Section 27(1) (b) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa states that, everyone has a right to have access to sufficient food and water. This obligation is extended in section 27(2), which states that the state must take reasonable legislative measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realization of each of these rights (Constitution of South Africa, 1996).

Ultimately, accomplishing the demands of the right to food basically generates a two-fold obligation for states. It means a direct commitment to the facilitation and the provision of food. Facilitation involves engagement to proactive procedures, which opens accessibility to adequate food and strengthens the individual's capability to escape shortage of food. Provision directly entails providing food and complementary resources when it is not feasible for people to access adequate food at all times (Koch, 2011).

The Plan of Action produced by FAO and the World Health Organization (WHO) in relation to the right to food, emphasized a multi-faceted tactic to improve access that included increasing the availability of food at affordable prices, extending social safety nets, and implementing pro-poor development policies (FAO, 1996). The Plan of Action also stressed the development of early famine warning systems and the creation of emergency food reserves and distribution plans. The plan included broad commitments, surrounding efforts to address factors encumbering the realisation of the right to food, as well as efforts to directly increase food availability, access, and utilisation at the individual, household, national, regional and global levels (United Nations, 2008).

South Africa, as a nation, has a moral obligation to protect its citizens through the implementation of food security measures compatible with human rights demands. In the

first decade after independence, in 1994, the Constitutional Right to Food was recognized, and the government was mandated to take action to ensure the veneration, fortification and gratification of the right to food (FAO, 2011).

School feeding programmes were advocated by the World Food Programme (WFP) to governments, donors and other stakeholders as an effective hunger solution to help meet governments' priorities in reducing hunger and poverty, and improving nutrition and education. Research shows that, in 2009, almost 60 million children went to school hungry every day in developing countries and approximately 40 percent of them were in Africa (United Nations Food Programme, 2010). In this regard, school feeding programmes emerged as a common social safety net response to the crisis of food insecurity which is a sufficient condition to the realization of the right to food especially in poor countries. In 2008, 20 governments looked to school feeding programmes as a safety net response to protect the poorest (World Bank, 2001). Therefore, school feeding programmes provide an important opportunity to assist poor families and feed hungry children.

In Ghana, the school feeding programme was implemented with an objection of reducing poverty, maintaining food security, plummeting hunger and malnutrition as well as increasing food production at household level (Shaibu and Al-hassan, 2014). In Brazil the feeding scheme is incorporated as one of the pillars of Zero Hunger Strategy targeting the 2030 sustainable development goals (Sidaner et al, 2013). Apart from all these objectives the SFPs is also designed to create wealth for rural inhabitants (Martens, 2007).

The Primary School Feeding Programme was introduced in 1994 as one of the Presidential human rights-based lead projects under the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). It was initiated as an integral component of the Department of Basic Education (DBE), specifically to serve meals to schools located in communities with low socio-economic status nationwide in South Africa. According to the Kwazulu Natal Department of Education (2011) the programme was incepted as a safety net for assuaging poverty. Poverty, under nutrition, and household food insecurity

problems are co-related and their casualties intersect. According to the World Bank (2015) social safety nets pose significant constructive bearings on food security as well as fulfilling the right to food to individuals. They are also influential in promoting the capability of households to generate income that can lead to positive effects in attaining food security. Food insecurity, especially in rural areas, leaves the inhabitants vulnerable to poverty since food and nutrition security is a key element of poverty as well as a cause (Government Gazette, 2014: 6).

South Africa is considered to be a food secure nation. However, many households remain food insecure, especially in rural areas (De Cook et al, 2013: 269). At national level, the country is able to produce sufficient food, but distribution inequalities threaten household food security. In addition, lack of economic opportunities, climate change, rising input costs, as well as entitlement failure, pose a threat to domestic food production, which ultimately leads to household food insecurity (Government Gazette, 2014: 12). It is from this view that the school feeding programme emerged as a strategy for creating a demand for local agriculture products (Masset and Gelli, 2013).

Regardless of governmental and non-governmental efforts in implementing programs as a way of eliminating food insecurity, social safety nets seemed to be inadequate. According to Inter Press Service (2015) 55% of poor people in developing countries still encounter inadequate fortification from chronic hunger and socio economic shocks. Currently, existing social welfare instruments are insufficient to close the poverty gap which is always associated with food insecurity (World Bank, 2015). This poverty and food insecurity gap continue to exist in the Mutale rural areas irrespective of social assistance offered in the area.

1.1 Problem statement

The problem that this study has identified is the inadequacy of social assistance interventions, both cash and in-kind assistance component, to effectively get rid of food insecurity in the rural areas of Mutale Municipality in Limpopo Province. This is despite the long period that a number of programmes have been in place as implemented by the government to attain food security sustainability.

Since 1994, the South African government has attempted to develop a comprehensive approach to social problems, such as hunger, food insecurity and poverty, using a range of instruments and paired programmes. The South African government has made provisions for in-kind transfers, which are mainly in the form of food parcels to individuals, households or communities who seem to be poor and vulnerable to food insecurity. School feeding programmes are the predominant type of in-kind social safety nets in South Africa, and these provide on-site meals to children in schools. Fighting food insecurity has been and will be a theme undertaken by the government and non-governmental organisations. However, despite all these efforts, Mutale inhabitants continue to have food insecurity.

The Limpopo Province experienced 11.5% overall poverty headcount while Vhembe District where Mutale is located had 28.8% overall poverty headcount (STATS- SA, 2016). Statistics at provincial level showed Limpopo Province to be the second province experiencing hunger, with 63.3%, below the Eastern Cape (66.7%) (Government Gazette, 2014: 9). In Mutale Municipality, 41.7% are severely food insecure and only 13.3 are food secured (De cook et al, 2013).

Fighting food insecurity has been and will be a theme undertaken by the government and non-governmental organisations. However, despite all these efforts, Mutale inhabitants continue to have food insecurity. Therefore, this ruthless food insecurity which has ravaged the Mutale citizens constrained the researcher in investigating the contribution of the feeding scheme as a social safety net in addressing food insecurity.

1.2 Significance of the study

This study contributed to the rural food security discussion provided by school feeding programmes in the rural area of Mutale Municipality. In this regard, the study contributed to the evolving dialogue on food security in South Africa by cross-examining the nexus between rural food insecurity and the school feeding programmes. Finally, the study came up with recommendations that serve as a stepping stone to the development of food insecurity policies for rural settings. Previous studies have mainly focused on the effects of nutrition on educational achievement, however this study investigated the contribution

of school feeding scheme in addressing food insecurity. An understanding of the shortcomings and achievements of school feeding programmes in addressing the food challenges assisted in finding measures that can be applied to the feeding scheme to alleviate food insecurity.

1.3 Research aim

The study aimed at investigating the role of the school feeding programme as a social safety net in addressing food insecurity in rural areas of Mutale Municipality. This aim was achieved through a thorough investigation of the objectives outlined below.

1.4 Research objectives

1.4.1 To investigate the current state of the school feeding programme in Mutale Municipality of Vhembe District, Limpopo Province.

1.4.2 To determine the contribution of the school feeding programme in addressing food insecurity in the rural areas of Mutale Municipality.

1.4.3 To identify challenges related to the feeding programme in the rural areas of Mutale Municipality in Limpopo Province.

1.5 Research questions

1.5.1 What is the current state of the school feeding programme in Mutale Municipality, Limpopo Province?

1.5.2 What is the contribution of school feeding programme in addressing rural food insecurity in Mutale Municipality?

1.5.3 What are the challenges related to the school feeding programmes in Mutale Municipality?

1.6 Delimitation of the study

The study limited itself to the effects of the school feeding programme in addressing food insecurity in the rural area of the Mutale Municipality in Vhembe District, Limpopo

Province. The study was confined to rural schools which offer feeding programmes. Schools which do not offer feeding programmes to their learners were out of the parameters of this study

1.7 Definition of terms

1.7.1 Poverty

Poverty has been defined by the United Nations (2010) as the lack of income and capable productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods.

1.7.2 Food insecurity

This is a scenario when all people, always, do not have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 2001).

1.7.3 Hunger

Hunger is conceptualised as a disconcerted or excruciating sensation incurred as a result of recurrent and involuntary lack of access to food (Cook and Frank, 2008:1). It is the extreme end of food insecurity, therefore cannot be used synonymously with food insecurity (Battersby, 2012).

1.7.4 Social assistance

It is demarcated as predictable direct transfers to individuals or households, both in-kind and cash, to protect and prevent individuals and households from being affected by shocks inflicted by food insecurity and to support the accumulation of human, productive and financial assets (UNICEF, 2012).

1.7.5 Food security

It is a condition which exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for a healthy and active life (FAO, 2001).

1.8 Summary

The above chapter gave an insight into the background of every individual's right to food, first as articulated by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, world leaders as covenanted on international summits, African covenants, as well as national view captured by the constitution. The chapter also presented the problem statement, research objectives, research question, delimitation and definition of terms. The problem identified by the study was the inadequacy of social assistance in an attempt to alleviate food insecurity. The study therefore focused on investigating the role played by feeding schemes as a governmental programme in addressing rural food insecurity.

1.9 Research framework

Chapter 1: Introduction and Background

In this chapter, the researcher gave an introduction and background of the study. The chapter also divulged problem statement, research objectives as well as the research questions answered as a way of achieving the objectives. Lastly, the researcher defined some critical concepts frequently used by the researcher.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The chapter provided a theoretical review giving special attention to the evolution and underlying causes of food insecurity. It also encapsulated the right to food and its demarcation as identified by the UDHR, international covenants and national constitutions. This section also accorded courtesy to existing definitions of food (in) security, duration, and causes. It finally explicated feeding scheme as a programme addressing food insecurity from a rights based approach.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This section presented a detailed account of the research methodology undertaken by the researcher. It provided all methods and techniques used in data collection. The section also elaborated necessary research ethics considered and steps in analysis data. In brief, the chapter expounded the research process and techniques employed.

Chapter 4: Data Presentation and Analysis

The chapter focused on research findings discussing major issues emanating from the field. It recapped the study objectives evaluating and addressing them in relation to the findings of the study. It gave a detailed current state of the feeding programme at the study area. The contribution of the programme in alleviating rural food insecurity was also discussed. Finally, the section considered challenges encountered throughout the implementation process.

Chapter 5: Recommendations and Conclusion

The researcher concluded with an overview of the whole study particularly the methods used and results obtained. It also elaborated recommendations directed to researchers, communities, and policy makers on how to effectively bolster the capability of rural individuals for securing food. The section also sealed the document by a firm conclusion on the extent to which school feeding schemes addressed food insecurity in rural areas.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.0 Introduction

In this chapter, efforts were applied to review theoretical approaches applicable to the problem delineated by the study. The chapter provided pertinent social science theoretical approaches which are the capability and entitlement approaches. These theoretical frameworks delivered an appropriate conceptual background of the drivers of food insecurity which are used as a foundation in developing robust strategies refuting the impact of food insecurity. This section also delineated the constituents of the right to food and the demand it exerted to the world in general and nations in particular. It also expounded the concept of food (in) security as a pro-component of the right to food considering accessibility, availability, and utilization, and stability dimensions. Finally, the chapter analysed feeding programmes approved by world leaders as a tool for combating food insecurity, thereby fulfilling the individual right to food.

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 Capability Approach

This theoretical framework was advanced by an economist, Amartya Sen, as a tool for promoting human wellbeing and development. The approach was also pioneered as a resilient critique of existing traditions in welfare economics (Clark, 2005). The capability approach has been applied in numerous fields, most prominently in the field of development, welfare economics, social policy and political philosophy. It can be used to evaluate a wide variety of aspects such as food insecurity, inequality, as well as poverty (Robeyns, 2003).

The fundamental philosophy of the capability approach is that the appropriate space in which to conceptualize and measure wellbeing is not in terms of primary goods or in utilities, whether in the form of happiness or preferences but rather in terms of a person's

capabilities, that is, in the real freedoms that they have reason to value (Hicks, 1999). It is an evaluative approach which proposes the assessment of any social arrangements according to the extent of freedom people have to achieve functionings they value. Therefore Sen (1993) argued that the emphasis of any social evaluations and policy design should rest upon what people are able to do and be, on the quality of their life, and on removing obstacles in their lives so that they have more freedom to live the kind of life which they value.

The capability approach to a person's advantage is concerned with evaluating it in terms of his or her actual ability to achieve various valuable functioning's as a part of living. The corresponding approach to social advantage, takes the set of individual capabilities as constituting an indispensable and central part of the relevant informational base of such evaluation (Sen 1993: 30).

The capability approach specifically concentrates on freedoms to achieve in general and the capabilities to function in particular (Sen 1995). According to Sen (1993) the primary concepts of the capability approach are functioning and freedom. Sen's concept of functioning refers to the various things a person may succeed in doing or being, in accordance to his primary objective. In other words, functioning means an achievement that a person manages to attain. It reflects, as it were, a part of the state of that person (Sen, 1985, 10).

Sen (1985) viewed functioning as outcomes that an individual can achieve such as being healthy, participating in social activities, ability to have associations without restrictions, political affiliations and also access to basic human needs like food, clothing and shelter. However, Sen (1995) identified diverse kinds of functioning which vary from rudimentary to complex. From this perspective, some functionings are precisely elementary such as good health, educational attainment, and being adequately nourished while other functionings are more complex such as achieving happiness.

Therefore Sen (1987), stressed on achievements that people value and have reason to value. Sen (1995) suggested that living standards encompass all valued functionings. In this case, functionings incorporate a multi-dimensional view of life which includes survival, health, work, education, relationships, empowerment, self-expression and culture (Alkire, 2005) However, Sen (1987: 30) highlighted a vital phrase in defining functionings which is 'value and have reason to value'. Therefore, any achievement is considered as functioning to a particular individual only if that activity is valuable to that particular individual.

The concept "reason to value" opened a channel for the introduction of value judgment explicit to the capability approach (Alkire, 2005). The arising question will be the proper process, or the group with the valid authority to decide what people have reason to value. Sen (1999) recognized human heterogeneity and dismissed viewing a single process as relevant in judging reason of value in all context. Public opinion praised Sen for paying attention to group discrepancies, accepting human agency and acknowledging the possibility of different values held by people in different cultures and societies (Clark, 2005:5). Therefore, the reason to value depends on the agency of people acting in those contexts.

Apart from functionings, capabilities are another fundamental aspect of the capability approach. Capability reflects an individual's freedom to lead one type of life or to choose from possible livings (Sen, 1992: 40). In another view, capabilities are the practical freedoms a person enjoys to lead the kind of life he or she has reason to value (Sen, 1999: 87). Thus, while rarely drawn as a clear distinction, a person may be possessing a range of capabilities or opportunities which when combined comprise their overall capability (Gasper, 1997). According to Robeyns (2005), the distinction between functioning and capability is thus between achievements and freedoms or valuable options from which one can choose. Sen (2005) therefore views development as a process of expanding the real freedoms that people enjoy.

Drawing on the notion of positive freedom, the concern is not merely with formal or legal freedoms but rests on the stress on real or substantive freedom of people to live a life they value. Thus, Sen (1999) argues that development requires the removal of major

sources which encumbers freedom such as poverty, poor economic opportunities, inequality which leads to systematic social deprivation, and neglect of public facilities (Sen, 1999: 75).

The capability approach to well-being and development thus evaluates policies according to their impact on people's capabilities. It asks whether people are being healthy, and whether the resources necessary for this capability, such as clean water, access to medical doctors, protection from infections and diseases, and basic knowledge on health issues, are present. It asks whether people are well-nourished, and whether the conditions for this capability, such as sufficient food supplies and food entitlements, are met (Robeyns, 2003: 7).

The capability approach does not consider the functionings that a person has achieved as the ultimate normative measure. In principle, it is more concerned with people's real freedoms, that is, with their capability to function, and not with their achieved functionings levels (Robeyns, 2003). Hence, the major goal in food security debate is to make it possible to have the capability to avoid undernourishment and escape deprivations associated with hunger (Dreze and Sen, 1989: 13).

It has also been argued that governments in Sub-Saharan Africa will be comfortable with broad definitions that emphasize the expansion of real freedoms. Neumayer (2012) asserts that building Sub Saharan Africa's resilience to food system requires addressing the key drivers of instability, managing the risks associated with the many threats and enhancing human capabilities. It is argued in this report that a more ambitious social assistance agenda must include mechanisms for ending poverty and enabling sustained expansion of human capabilities. Social assistance programmes like feeding schemes, public works, education assistance and many other programmes enhance some of the human capabilities like the availability of food to those who do not have it, fighting illiteracy by paying tuition fees for those who are of school going age but do not have the money and also by helping people to have the much-needed money to cater for their daily needs (Neumayer, 2012).

2.1.2 Entitlement Approach

Entitlement approach emerged into the debate surrounding hunger and famine in the beginning of 1980s challenging food availability approach embedded in Malthus' thought. In the early 1980s Amartya Sen pioneered the entitlement approach drifting the attention of humanity from national food availability pointing to the access that people should food (Burchi and De Muro, 2012). Sen's ideology was to divulge few paradoxes that he detected after a scrutiny of famine in the 20th century. Sen perceived that famines have been occurring in regions or countries which had food surpluses elsewhere and also in countries that continued to export food (Sarracino, 2010: 19).

According to Sen (1987) the actual concern in hunger studies is not principally the overall availability of food in the nation, but its acquirement by individuals and families. Previous inquiry generally indicates that South Africa is secure in food at the national level, but hunger remains a persistent obstacle at local and individual level (Altman *et al.*, 2009: 345-361). In South Africa, families are toiling and languishing in hunger while the country is renowned to be one of the most stable in food production in Africa. Considering this fact, Sen (1987) pointed out that if a person lacks the means to acquire food, the presence of food in the market is not much of a consolation.

Food insecurity affects people who are incapable of accessing adequate food maybe due to certain unbearable reasons like poverty irrespective of the availability of food. Hence, families can become preys of hunger even in circumstances where food supplies are adequate and markets are flooding with adequate products and functioning well (Devereux, 2001: 2). Thus, entitlement approach practically shifts the diagnosis of hunger away from the Malthusian logic which draws attention to food supplies negating the accessibility concept.

According to Sen (1981: 434) the entitlement approach concentrates on each person's entitlements to commodity bundles with enough food, and views starvation as resulting from a failure to be entitled to any bundle with enough food. Sen (1984: 497) defined entitlement as the set of alternative commodity bundles that a person can command in a society using the totality of rights and opportunities that an individual is accorded. This

framework indicates that people who are affected by hunger are not entitled to any food bundle; rather they are entitled to starve (Edkins, 1996: 550). Sen (1987) argued that an in depth understanding of hunger could only be reached after looking at people's entitlement. The entitlement of a person stands for the set of different alternative commodity bundles that the person can acquire through the use of the various legal channels of acquirement open to someone in his position (Sen, 1987: 10). A person's entitlement set is the full range of goods and services that he or she can acquire by converting his or her endowments through exchange entitlement mappings (Devereux, 2001: 246).

Osmani (1995) identified two elements which determine one's entitlement. The personal endowments as one of the entitlement determinants, which are resources legally owned by an individual such as house, livestock and land. There is also a set of commodities the person can have access to through trade and production, that is, in Sen's terminology the "exchange entitlement mapping" (Sen, 1981). Based on this framework, starvation or hunger is experienced when the entitlement system in operation fails to give adequate means of securing enough food. Families fall into the starvation trap due to entitlement sets which do not include any commodity bundle with adequate amounts of food.

As suggested by Sen (1987: 10) an individual is also susceptible to hunger if some changes are experienced either in his endowment or in his exchange entitlement mapping that will rob him of commodity bundle with adequate food. Detrimental changes in endowment which can open a channel for starvation involve land annexation due to war or loss of livestock due to the outbreak of diseases. Reduction of wages, skyrocketing of food prices, retrenchment at work, inflation that can affect an individual's products are some of the injurious changes in exchange entitlement mapping which increase starvation vulnerability (Burchi and De Muro, 2012: 12).

According to Sen (1987) the acknowledgement of hunger as entitlement failure points immediately to two aspects of the action needed to combat hunger and famine. Sen further points out the significance of a well-functioning economic system which directly offer a regular means of income and survival to people. Apart from a strong economic

system, there is also a need for security in providing economic support to those vulnerable to hunger when they fail to get that support from the regular economic system itself. Nevertheless, Sen proposed that more value should be attached to functioning economic mechanisms that provide means and entitlements to the people. Even though economic system is important, but public security measures has to be given attention since are useful in safeguarding entitlements to those who happen to remain vulnerable to fluctuation and instability in earning an income (Sen, 1987: 22).

However, no matter how efficient the economic system might be, inadequacy of entitlements on a regular basis is particularly hard to avoid in the poorer developing countries. This is where social assistance, in a different role, becomes relevant. Supplementary public support as a means of providing regular nourishment, to counter endemic hunger and deprivation, is needed in most developing countries. This is no less crucial a challenge for social assistance planning than the task of entitlement guarantees to eliminate famines (Sen, 1987: 22).

One of the main advantages of this approach is its focus on markets and institutions. According to Sarracino (2010: 24) Sen recognizes the limits of market economy especially in less developed countries and, consequently, asks for the intervention of institutions to prevent famine, by adopting structural policies and reforms like agricultural reform, promoting democracy, improving early warning systems, and adopting public food stocks. Short term intervention schemes such as high labour intensive public work programmes, money transfers and food aid are also crucial in curbing hunger.

Entitlements can also be reinforced by the state in times of economic crisis or social distress. Much then depends on the nature of the entitlements system in force in a society. According to Sen (1983: 755) the failure to see the importance of entitlements has been responsible for millions of people dying in famines. Chronic food insecurity which seems to be experienced in Vhembe District can be explained in the way the entitlement system in operation fails to give adequate means of securing enough food. This view is also backed by the capability approach since it identifies social constraints that influence and restrict the achievement of food security. Viewing hunger as entitlement failure points to

possible remedies, as well as helping one to understand the forces that generate hunger and sustain it. The study, therefore, will incorporate the capability and the entitlement approaches since both can identify the root causes and a direct solution of food insecurity.

2.2 THE RIGHT TO FOOD

All human beings, regardless of their race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status have the right to adequate food and the right to be free from hunger. The right to food has been captured by global institutions, discussed at world and regional conferences, enacted within national constitutions, and seemed to be a theme of every nation to deliver the full realisation to their citizens.

2.2.1 The right to food in international human rights law

The right to food was first captured in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights as part of the right to an adequate standard of living. This declaration incorporates anyone by the virtue of being born into the family of humanity (De Schutter, 2014). Article 25 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) accorded everyone a right to a standard of living adequate for the health and wellbeing of himself and his family (UNICEF, 2008:4).

The United Nations subsequently held the World Food Conference in 1974 where the Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition (UDEHM) was adopted. The climax of the conference necessitated freedom from hunger and malnutrition to be considered as immutable rights conferred to humanity. According to McLaren et al (2015: 10), the immutability of the right to be free from hunger and malnutrition had to apply to everyone regardless of nationality, race and gender. This freedom was bestowed as a way of creating a favourable atmosphere where human physical and mental faculties could be developed and sustained.

However, the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights was espoused by the United Nations General Assembly in 1966 as the first legal mandatory

instrument on the right to food discourse (De Schutter, 2014). Article 2 of the covenant captured the agreement undertaken by each state pertaining to the realisation of the right to food. Article 11 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) recognizes proper living standards as a crucial right to be bestowed to humanity. FAO, (2011: 9) incorporated sufficient food and immunity from hunger in the broader bracket of these proper living standards.

General Comment No. 12 of the CESCR stipulated a threefold obligation to each state party. States are obligated to respect, protect and fulfill the requirements of the right to food. In this case the commitment to respect requires states to refrain from activities which close the individual freedom to food accessibility. Protection entails vibrant measures undertaken by the states to ensure that all human actions do not deprive each other's accessibility to sufficient food (McLaren et al, 2015). In 2001, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights branded Nigeria for failing to meet its commitment in respecting and protecting the right to food of the Ogoni tribe. The Ogoni tribe was deprived of its right to food by the activities of oil companies and Nigerian security forces which contaminated and devastated their major food sources respectively. The Commission summoned the Nigerian government to retreat from attacking the Ogoni people and orders were given to investigate and prosecute those responsible for the attack as well as to render compensation to victims (United Nations Human Rights, 2010).

South Africa ratified CESCR in 2015, forming part of 163 nations committed to the realization of the rights as stipulated in the covenant (McLaren et al, 2015: 11). The ratification of this covenant by the Republic of South Africa explicitly means that the nation has a mandate to act in conformity to the main objectives and dictates of the ICESCR. It also enrolled the government to a condition where it directly aligned its action to avoid the infringement of the covenant (Petherbridge, 2012). This agreement influenced many states to capture the individual right to food in their constitution (McLaren et al, 2015: 11).

2.2.2 The right to food in African regional human rights law

In respect of international laws on human rights, African leaders also adopted several African instruments for the protection of human rights. The Organization of African Unity

(OAU) currently known as the African Union (AU) adopted the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR), in 1981 as a regional mechanism for governing the protection and promotion of human rights. This African Charter dragged the African continent into a new epoch of human rights recognition of which South Africa became a part of it in 1996 (ACHPR, 2016).

The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC), was adopted in 1990 and ratified by South Africa in 2000 (McLaren et al, 2015: 11). This charter sets an obligation for states to fight against malnutrition. It brought nations to take proactive programmes meant for assisting and supporting child caregivers with regard to nutrition, health, education, clothing and housing.

African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights culminated in the commitments by African states to fight social problems which hinder the full realization of human rights. In June 2014, the heads of states held a summit in Equatorial Guinea aiming at strengthening 2025 agricultural goals. The states committed themselves to terminating hunger and halving poverty levels by 2025. States agreed to undertaking proactive responses which bring a strong impact to food and nutrition security to improve child nutritional status. They noted school feeding programmes as one of the mechanisms for nutritional improvement using food items obtained from the local farming communities (McLaren et al, 2015).

2.2.3 The right to food in the South African Constitution

The 1996 South African Constitution which marked the total independence of the Republic from colonial regime endorsed three provisions in which the right to food was established. The right to food is captured on Section 27 and Section 28 of the Bill of Rights. Section 27 specifies the right to sufficient food and water accessibility to be accorded to everyone. The second part of this section outlined the obligation of the states which is a direct influence of the ICESCR. The state is responsible for a holistic undertaking within its capacity to turn these rights into a progressive practical realisation. Section 28 awards every child a right to basic nutrition. Parallel to General Comment No. 12 of ICESCR, Section 7 of the South African constitution charges the state to respect,

promote and fulfil all the rights as stipulated by the Bill of Rights (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

2.2.4 What does the right to food mean?

The above international and national legislative frameworks clearly show a direct commitment and a certain magnitude of considerations placed upon the recognition of freedom from hunger. States diagnosed this freedom as an unconditional and an indispensable benchmark to be accorded to every individual irrespective of gender. At this juncture, it is crucial to comprehend the connotation of the right to food.

According to FAO, (2006) the right to food does not necessarily mean that people must be given free parcels of food. Based on this argument, the majority of people have misinterpreted the right to food and placed the load of food delivery upon the shoulders of the government. De Schutter (2014) expounded the right to food primarily in terms of the potentials that individuals possess to feed themselves in dignity. This ability can be attained either through food purchase or production. Therefore, individuals require favourable conditions which strengthen their physical and economic capability to access available food. The availability of land, seeds, water, money, and other resources, are necessary conditions to be met for physical and economic access to food. According to Sen (1981) the right to food is both a freedom and an entitlement.

Many people are victims of hunger because they are not entitled to adequate food that meets dietary needs (Devereux, 2001). Therefore, for an individual to fully enjoy the right to food the government is entrusted by their citizens to create an enabling environment in which individuals can attain their valuable functioning's without obstacles. In addition, the states are also mandated to directly provide food parcels which meet dietary needs, if people are unable in their own capacity to produce adequate food for themselves.

An attempt to fulfil the right to food involves a proactive engagement in activities which directly increase individual capability to be physically and economically self-reliant. FAO (2006) identified the establishment of an enabling platform where everyone can have full access to available food as a crucial step to the realisation of the right to food. Hence,

governments are primarily mandated, within their available resources, to strengthen access to and use of resources that enable citizens to feed themselves. In addition, states are secondarily obligated to directly offer food provision to individuals who, due to some facts beyond their perimeter, are incapable of accessing available food (Koch, 2011).

In conclusion, there has been a general misconception of labelling the right to food to mean the same as food security. A closer scrutiny of these two concepts unveiled the dissimilarity between the two expressions. Food security is a precondition for the full enjoyment of the right to food (De Schutter, 2014).

2.3 FOOD (IN) SECURITY

The term “food security” seems to be a comprehensive term in which several scholars, organisations, and conferences athwart the globe has conceptualised in various ways. Du Toit (2011) proffers a basic definition of food security as the aptitude of individuals to accrue necessary and sufficient food daily. The ability to acquire sufficient food is essentially determined by various factors surrounding the individuals.

The 1974 World Food Summit defined food security as the accessibility, always, of enough food resources of basic food stuffs to withstand the steady development of food consumption and to balance fluctuations in production and prices (UN, 1975). According to World Food Programme, food security is a condition that is incurred when all people attain freedom from hunger at all times (WFP, 2009: 170). In this case food security is attained when individuals possess the propensity or capability to be free from hunger.

Anderson (1990) viewed food security at national level as a state in which a nation can manufacture, import, retain and sustain food needed to support its population with minimum per capita nutritional standards. In 1996 during the World Food Summit FAO proposed specific conditions to be encountered for the existence of food security. It suggested that food security exists when all people, always, have physical, and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 1996).

A closer scrutiny of the given definition reveals availability and accessibility as key elements of food security. According to the diagnosis done by African nations during the workshop held in Zambia, food security at household level would only be attained when the conditions involving availability and accessibility are met (Republic of Zambia, 1992: 15).

In harmony with the definition stipulated by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, of which this study is based upon, food security is a multidimensional concept which incorporates four aspects: availability, accessibility, utilisation and stability (Battersby, 2012).

2.3.1 Availability dimension

Food availability is the basic element of food security. It denotes sufficient quantities of appropriate, essential food from domestic production, commercial imports, or donors consistently available to individuals (FANTA, 2011: 1). The WFP (2009: 170) concurred with the above clarification as it identified availability in terms of food amount present in a given area acquired through all forms of domestic production, imports, and food assistance.

Food availability predominantly depends upon the overall performance of the agricultural sector and is also augmented by the country's ability to import, store, process and distribute food. The agricultural sector is supplemented by food import options and food consumption patterns which prescribe the production and distribution of certain food products (Government Gazette, 2014:14).

Food security and food availability have been used interchangeably (Shaw and John, 2007: 4). The conviction that food security rests upon the availability of food commodities normally results in the belief that increasing food production would increase food security. Given this scenario, one can attribute the availability of food to be the most protuberant factor in food security dialogue. However, the provision of enough food to a given population is a necessary, but not sufficient condition to certify that people have adequate admittance to food (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013: 18). Therefore food security cannot be

determined solely by the availability of food in a given area. Factually, there is no single dimension that can assure food security on its own (Stats-SA, 2012).

Based on the preceding account, South Africa is largely deemed a food secure nation producing enough staple foods and possessing the capacity to import adequate food for its population (FAO, 2008). The Government Gazette (2014: 14) also acknowledged a state of food sufficiency in terms of availability as measured against demand and supply indicators. Even though South Africa is producing enough food for the nation and having the economic prowess to augment its domestic production through imports, many households are direct victims of chronic food insecurity (De Cook, 2013).

In the last four years, between 2012 and 2014, the overall food availability in Sub-Saharan Africa has been amplified by nearly 12 percent. This increase has been encountered mainly in nations like Ethiopia, Mozambique, and South Africa, which have nearly achieved the first Millennium Development Goal (FAO, 2015: 2-4). Despite an upsurge in the availability of food in Sub-Saharan Africa, the region is still experiencing a terrible undernourishment condition. Between the year 2014 and 2016, one in every four people is estimated to be chronically food unsecured (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2015). Therefore, it is plausible to conclude that availability and food security are two phrases which cannot be used interchangeably since countries which witnessed production improvements are still experiencing the global effects of hunger.

The debate on hunger has been heavily affected by food availability approach advocated by Malthus' thought thereby negating other facets of food security. Only at the beginning of 1980s did Amartya Sen's entitlement approach contribute to challenge this perspective and shift the focus from national food availability to people's access to food.

2.3.2 Accessibility dimension

The accessibility dimension incorporates two pillars which are economic and physical access. Economic access is determined by disposable income, the prices of food, as well as the provision and access to food assistance. On another spectrum, physical access is measured in terms of the infrastructure quality which necessitates proper and convenient

functioning of markets at a specified area (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013). The quality of communication, roads and food storage are important in the accessibility debate since they provide a required nexus between the supply and demand of food.

Poor infrastructure as a physical dimension plays a pivotal role in food accessibility debate since it hampers distributional access especially in nations which have adequate food. The greatest food security challenges remain effective in sub-Saharan Africa, which has witnessed slow progress in improving access dimension due to sluggish income growth, high poverty rates and unemployment (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2014). Almost 20 percent of South African households are victims of chronic food insecurity because of unemployment and poverty (Government Gazette, 2014).

In turn, food prices are one of the major hindrances to poor households, who spend disproportionate amounts of their income to have access to adequate food. According to the Quarterly Food Price Monitoring report produced by the National Agricultural Marketing Council (NAMC), there is a strong food price disparity between rural and urban areas in which a basket of basic products in rural areas requires more money than in urban areas (Government Gazette, 2014). Therefore, the economic access dimension has more detrimental effects on rural areas than in urban areas.

Considering the views promulgated by Sen (1989), for a household to have access to food they should have adequate entitlements to a food bundle that is adequate for the household. Food insecurity in South Africa is not viewed as a failure to produce enough food nationally, but rather as a failure of livelihoods to provide adequate cash to purchase food at the household level (Manyamba, Hendricks, Chilonda, and Musaba, 2012).

2.3.3 Utilisation dimension

The availability and accessibility to food on their own are insufficient in explaining food security without considering the safety and nutrition content of the food at hand. The dimension of utilization contemplates an individual's health condition in connection with a diversified diet, clean and hygienic preparation of the food, and the existence of clean drinking water, healthcare and sanitation (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013). According to the

definition of food security agreed upon at the World Food Summit, utilization encompasses safe and nutritious food which meets the dietary needs of humanity (FAO, 1996).

In detail, food utilization is wrapped in two discrete scopes. The first is divulged in terms of anthropometric measures such as underweight in children which capture the level of undernutrition that is widely evident for children under the age of five. Much of the reduction in the prevalence of underweight in children under the age of five can be attributed to improvements in Asian countries. The second dimension determined by input reflects food quality and preparations, health and hygiene conditions. Outcome indicators of food utilization convey the impact of inadequate food intake and poor health (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013). Food utilisation as a pillar of food insecurity primarily considers how effectively available and accessible food can be fully utilized for the benefit of humanity. Households can have access to nutritious food but can suffer malnutrition due to cultural and religious beliefs.

2.3.4 Stability dimension

Unpredictable events like inflation, armed conflicts or disasters always threatens individual's prowess to access available nutritious food (FAO, IFAD, WFP 2013). The outbreak of earthquakes in Haiti terribly disturbed the system of entitlement that was in operation. It left people without being entitled to food bundles. The outbreak of Ebola in West Africa caused deleterious effects on individual livelihoods (WHO, 2014). All these natural and human induced disasters affect the stability of the physical and economic access to available nutritious food. Extreme natural events, like drought or floods and the impact of climate change, can massively disturb the entire chain of food supply (World Risk Report, 2015). Any disturbance from production throughout processing till preparation and consumption of food automatically invades the stability dimension.

In relation to FAO's (1996) definition of food security, food stability is accentuated by the phrase "all people, at all times" and is a key to achieve household food security. This dimension emphasizes the importance of reducing the risk of adverse effects on all these other three dimensions: food availability, access as well as utilization. To be food secure,

a population, household or individual must be guaranteed of availability of food, of access to adequate food and of its proper utilization at all times in a stable way. The stability dimension deals with the fact that people's food security situation may change over the time (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013).

Thus, food security is the result of interaction between various factors, ranging from production and warehousing through access to clean water, to social and political dimensions such as the right to food, healthcare, power and property relations, as well as access to resources (FAO, 2008).

2.4 Food Insecurity

Food insecurity has emerged as one of the most fundamental aspects that thwart development in Africa in the 21st Century. It is not only a disconcerting concern for African countries, but it has also become a global crisis, which poses serious impediments to viable development. According to Sen (1981), food insecurity occurs when the sum of all food that individuals, households or groups acquire from production, labour, trade and transfers is inadequate to meet their minimum consumption needs. According to the World Bank (1986) food insecurity, is defined as the lack of access to enough food to sustain life. It is a situation that exists when people lack secure access to sufficient amounts of safe and nutritious food for normal growth and development and an active and healthy life (World Risk Report, 2015). FAO (2004) argues that food security incorporates four intersected scopes, namely, availability of food, access to food, utilization of food, and stability of available food at a household levels. Therefore, food insecurity occurs when one or more of these facets are weakened, as no single dimension assures food insecurity on its own (Stats-SA, 2012).



About one in eight people in the world are likely to have suffered from chronic hunger, and not having enough food for an active and healthy life (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013: 2). Latest estimates indicate that the trend in global hunger reduction continues as nations commit themselves towards 2030 zero hunger strategy under the sustainable development goals. About 805 million people were estimated to be chronically undernourished from 2012 to 2014. The commitment towards 2015 millennium

development goal target necessitated a reduction in food insecurity among world populace. The latest available estimates indicate that about 795 million people in the world, which reflects an average of one in nine people, were undernourished from 2014 to 2016 (FAO, 2015). Despite all the achievements, the world is still under the turmoil of hunger, about one in every nine people in the world still has insufficient food for an active and healthy life. The clear majority of these undernourished people live in developing countries, where an estimated 791 million people were chronically hungry between 2012 and 2014. (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2014).

2.4 Duration of food insecurity

Severity and duration of food insecurity are confusing aspects in the study of food insecurity. Devereux (2006) delineated that the duration aspect of food insecurity explicitly entails the time which lapses while people are experiencing food insecurity. A closer scrutiny of food insecurity paved a way for the deduction of two flanks, namely, transitory food insecurity and chronic food insecurity (FAO, 2008).

Table 2.1: A comparison of chronic and transitory food insecurity

	CHRONIC FOOD INSECURITY 	TRANSITORY FOOD INSECURITY 
Is...	Long-term or persistent.	Short-term and temporary.
Occurs when...	People are unable to meet their minimum food requirements over a sustained period of time.	There is a sudden drop in the ability to produce or access enough food to maintain a good nutritional status.
Results from...	Extended periods of poverty, lack of assets and inadequate access to productive or financial resources.	Short-term shocks and fluctuations in food availability and food access, including year-to-year variations in

		domestic food production, food prices and household incomes.
Can be overcome with...	Typical long term development measures also used to address poverty, such as education or access to productive resources, such as credit. They may also need more direct access to food to enable them to raise their productive capacity.	Transitory food insecurity is relatively unpredictable and can emerge suddenly. This makes planning and programming more difficult and requires different capacities and types of intervention, including early warning capacity and safety net programmes

Adapted by FAO, 2008

2.4.1 Chronic food insecurity

Chronic food insecurity exists when households are unable in normal times to meet food needs because they lack sufficient income, land or productive assets, or experience high dependency ratios, chronic sickness or social barriers (WFP, 2004). This flank seemed to be generated by the lack of commodity bundle that can be manipulated to meet the availability and accessibility food demand. The basis of the entitlement approach as stipulated by Osmani, (1995) rests upon personal endowments, which are the resources a person legally owns such as livestock, land and any other property. The possession of just enough means of subsistence without personal endowments, which necessitates the production of food, can automatically lead to chronic food insecurity (Dreze and Sen, 1989: 24).

Chronic food insecurity as argued by DFID (2004) occurs when people are unable to meet their minimum food requirements over a sustained period of time. This is usually associated with slowly changing factors which increase people's exposure to shocks that dwindle their capability to access food thereby increasing their vulnerability to hunger. Chronic food insecurity as diagnosed by FAO (2005) normally emanates from structural deficiencies in the local economy and poverty as well. Food Summit (1996) concurred

with FAO by asserting that chronic hunger is a consequence of a perpetual food inadequacy for a protracted period which stems from poverty.

2.4.2 Transitory food insecurity

On the other spectrum, transitory food insecurity occurs when there is a temporary inability to meet food necessary for dietary needs. It is mostly experienced during periods of floods, civil unrest and even price shocks (DFID, 2002). Transitory food insecurity is associated with a sudden incapability experienced by individuals, in producing or purchasing enough food to meet physiological requirements for a good health (Barrett and Sahn, 2001). It is primarily caused by short term shocks and fluctuations which disturb food availability and accessibility. According to the World Bank (1986) the major source of transitory food insecurity are year to year variations in international food prices, foreign exchange earnings, domestic food production, and household incomes.

Lack of entitlement to personal endowments as indicated by the entitlement approach automatically proliferate the susceptibility to chronic food insecurity. However, an individual can still fall into a transitory hunger trap even though entitled to personal endowments mainly due to a decline in the exchange entitlement mapping, which can be a sharp reduction of the price of the commodity that the individual produces (Dreze and Sen, 1989: 24). Recent data from various surveys, although using different proxies to determine food security, indicate that chronic household food insecurity exists at significantly high levels in South Africa (Manyamba et al, 2012).

2.5 CAUSES OF FOOD INSECURITY

There is enough available food in the world to feed its hungry population. South Africa is also considered a food self-sufficient nation, meaning it has the capacity on its own to produce and import enough food for its nation. The validity of these sentiments is questionable because people are experiencing hunger which leaves the majority without an answer as to why people are victims of food insecurity.

2.5.1 Insufficient Production

According to van der Merwe (2011), many South African families have insufficient and unstable food supplies specifically at household level, principally because of their incapability to produce enough food within the family circles. Apart from depending on food from commercial producers, the development of policies which enable the production of food at household level is a necessity. Production failure proved to be the cause for little achievement on hunger reduction during the fight to attain 2015 millennium development goal target, especially in Northern Africa (FAO, 2015).

In addition, lack of natural resources, especially good-quality cropland and renewable water resources, also weakens household production capability (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013). Access to markets also elicits high production especially at local level. However, there are limited opportunities and platforms especially in Limpopo rural areas for smallholder farmers to gain access to markets and this scenario blocks their full participation in food production (Government Gazette, 2014). Small farm holders would not venture into risk taking by buying inputs for production since they possess few chances to fit into competitive market situations. Sen (2005) viewed the concept of development as a process of expanding the real freedoms that people possess in achieving their goals. Thus, Sen (1999: 75) argues that development requires the removal of major sources which hinder freedom such as poverty, poor economic opportunities as well as social deprivation.

Agriculture in the 21st century is imperilled within the horns of a dilemma. The world population is projected to increase up to 9.7 billion in 2050 (United Nations, 2015). This population upsurge requires raising overall food production by 70 percent by 2050 to suffice adequate food to everyone. More than half of global population growth between now and 2050 is expected to occur in Africa. Therefore, a double production increase is a pre-requisite especially in developing countries (UNDESAPD, 2015).

2.5.2 Lack of food entitlement

Food insecurity is a social problem that has a tight connection with limited household resources. Thus, Manyamba et al (2012) referred to hunger as a resource-constrained condition. This ideology has been supported by Sen and Dreze (1989) in their entitlement approach pointing out that without personal endowments which necessitate the production and accessibility of food, individuals are susceptible to chronic food insecurity. The South African Government Gazette (2014) also viewed food insecurity, especially in rural areas, as a key element of poverty.

Resources necessary for a household to escape hunger include income earned by household members, land, cash and in-kind assistance in the form of safety-net programmes, housing subsidies, and energy assistance. Generally, people who lack resources required on daily basis are vulnerable to food insecurity, since they are not able to purchase and produce adequate food (Manyamba et al, 2012). Smith et al, (2000) reckoned poverty as a central factor in the debate of food insecurity since it reduces access to means of production and results in lowering purchasing power on food markets.

According to De Cook et al (2013), household food insecurity challenges in Southern Africa have intensified during the past decade due to a combination of factors that include cumulative poverty level. In South Africa, as in many other developing countries, of which most people depend upon the grant offered by the government, food security is a concern. A significant number of poor households in rural areas are considered resource poor and, therefore, food insecure even though South Africa is food self-sufficient as a nation. In this case poverty continues to be the main factor paving a way to food insecurity.

2.5.3 Shortage of buying power

The world is experiencing an escalation of food prices of basic foodstuffs. This unabated skyrocketing of food prices, augmented by poverty threaten household food security by continually plummeting their buying power muscles. (Hendriks, 2005). The chief enemy that erodes households buying power as noted by DOA (2002) is limited scope of income opportunities, especially in rural areas. This situation does not affect the rural inhabitants only but its waves are also felt in urban areas. Low payments, and precarious work directly

weaken the buying power of urban citizens (Crush, Grant, and Frayne, 2007). South Africa is recognized as the economic hub of sub-Saharan Africa due to its economic strength. However, a significant percentage of its families are not entitled to cash bundles that can be used to purchase food. As echoed by Manyamba et al (2012), it is a fallacy of reality to expound hunger based on national production failure in South Africa. Any concrete argument on food insecurity causation debate should emanate from failure of livelihoods to provide adequate cash to purchase food at the household level. According to a general household survey conducted by Statistics South Africa (2014) more than half (56.1%) of families in rural areas of Limpopo province depend on grants as a source of income than their salaries.

2.5.4 Political instability / refugees

The food supply situation is particularly precarious and strained by refugees and internally displaced individuals. Generally, most refugees in many countries are not displaced from their original places by natural events but they are victims of war and political upheavals. In most instances as pointed by the World Risk Report (2015) that the right to food for refugees is highly laid upon the receiving country and sometimes other organisations such as the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and the World Food Programme (WFP) which sometimes lack adequate resources. The world is groping in an hour of armed crises in which many nations are under the effects of these disputes. (Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research, 2015). In 2014, the UNHCR had in its mandate 2.59 million refugees from Afghanistan, 1.11 million from Somalia and 3.88 million from Syria who were supposed to be fed adequately (World Risk, 2015). Therefore, political and economic refugees intensified the world food delivery chain since these organisations cater for the general world population.

2.5.5 Price hikes

There has been a general global price increase of staple food from 1990 up to date without any indication of price settlement (FAO (2012)). The majority of South Africans do not produce food for themselves but rely on markets for their dietary needs. The continuous escalation of food prices especially maize and rice which are the staple diet

of the poor South Africans, worsen the food insecurity issue as most families depend on the markets. According to the South African Department of Agriculture, the upsurge of global oil prices proved to be the underlying factor inflicting the increase of food and fuel prices at national level (HSRC, 2004).

Devereux (2015: 2) pinpointed seasonal price fluctuations to be the central element propagating food insecurity throughout rural Africa since the fluctuations reduce real incomes of market-dependent poor families. Pereira and Ruysenaar (2012: 44), concurred with Devereux as they endorsed natural disasters to be the prime cause of food insecurity in the world. Among all natural disasters, as noted by Pereira and Ruysenaar, price inflation is the most detrimental disaster since it loosens the capability of individuals to access food.

Based on this account, the global food price increases are triggered by an upswing in biofuel (Zunckel, 2009) as well as the usage of certain staple foods such as maize for fuel (Van der Merwe, 2011). Furthermore, climatic changes which directly affected agricultural production also brought fluctuations on food prices (HLPE, 2012). A report produced by FAO (2008) shows that the majority of the world population are experiencing chronic hunger as a result of increased food prices exacerbated by lower production of staple food such as cereals around the world. In Western Asia, the worsening undernourishment trend appears to be mostly related to food price inflation (FAO, IFAD, WFP, 2013).

2.5.6 Inadequate safety nets

Rural households are particularly vulnerable because of their reliance on the remittances from the urban areas. Again, these rural small farm holders are unable to feed their families from their narrow production base (DOA, 2002). Given this situation, food safety nets and food emergency management systems are not always in place to assist people who are unable to meet their food needs (Government Gazette, 2014). Entitlements to food can also be underwired by a strong application of social justice codes in the whole process of designing throughout implementation of social protection programmes. Social protection can contribute actively to food production, employment creation and market

stabilization (Devereux, 2015). The proper target of Safety nets can increase the capability of families to withstand modest food security shocks. Ethiopia's Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), stands as a typical example acknowledged as a transition tool from chronically food insecure to food sufficient (Devereux, 2015).

2.5.7 Adverse climatic conditions

Climate change is an anthropogenic factor that frequently aggravates the magnitude of natural food security risk factors (World Risk Report, 2015). The world is currently moving on a trajectory that would make the world four degrees warmer by the end of the century and this would strengthen conditions necessary for global food insecurity. (World Bank, 2012). The African continent is most likely to suffer deleterious effects because of these adverse climatic changes due to lack of fast adaptive capacity (Government Gazette, 2014).

The frequency of droughts, floods, storms and other extreme weather events would also increase significantly according to forecasts by the International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2014b) predicted regular extreme weather events that would affect agriculture production. It projected a reduction of yield by half in 2020 especially to in African countries with agriculture depending on natural rain. All these conditions increase food insecurity duration and magnitude, more especially to rural areas inhabitants as they possess a limited adaptive potential (World Risk Report, 2015).

2.5.8 Natural and human induced disasters

Disasters can have devastating short and long term impact on a country's food security. They destroy harvests, stocks, and transport routes, and therefore above all the livelihoods of those depending on agriculture (World risk report, 2015). In the light of this remark, the earthquake that shook Nepal on the 25th of April 2015 deteriorated the food security condition in all affected areas. It almost collapsed all food leaving people in a great income loss. (World Risk Report, 2015). In one of the worst affected areas, 80 per cent of the population lost their entire food stocks, and in all areas, people lacked 70 per

cent of their reserves. In addition, many farmers were devoid of valuable farming equipment and seeds (Nepal Food Security Cluster, 2015).

In this regard, the agricultural sector is one of the sectors that can be ruined by natural disasters (FAO, 2015b). Nevertheless, the occurrence of natural disasters always depends partly on the potency of the natural event itself and the livelihood of people also depend upon the reaction and assistance provision system of the affected nation.

2.5.9 Population growth

The world population is projected to increase by more than one billion people within the next 15 years, reaching 8.5 billion by 2030, and to increase further to 9.7 billion by 2050 and 11.2 billion by 2100 (STATS SA, 2014). This population increase poses a challenge in SSA region as it affects the ability of countries to assure stable supply of, and access to food (FAO, 2015). This argument only stands if there is a disproportionate percentage of hungry people between low populated nations and nations with high population. A comparative analysis of South African and Zimbabwean food insecurity level against population growth would question the impact of population as food insecurity driver.

2.5.10 Lack of empowerment of the food-insecure population

The world's wealthy people are empowered to use rockets and explore outer space, whereas millions of its poor are so powerless that they are incapable of securing themselves an adequate food to meet their dietary needs. Lack of empowerment entails failure of individuals in their own capacity to escape from hunger and poverty (Burchi, 2006:12). According to Samman and Santos (2009: 3) nearly one billion people are incapable of feeding themselves due to the fact that they sorely lack empowerment.

2.6 SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES

School feeding is a major social programme embraced by many nations as a safety net for hunger reduction among vulnerable children in response to the global demand for human rights. Nations embraced the School feeding programmes (SFPs) desiring to

reduce hunger in line with the Millennium Development Goals formulated by the United Nations (Bukari and Hajara, 2015). The United Nations Hunger Task Force identified the implementation of SPFs as a strategy to achieve the first Millennium Development Goal of reducing hunger. The idea was to amalgamate agriculture and education with the major aim of increasing local food production using local products in the SFPs (Sulemana *et al*, 2013).

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), established by the African Union (AU) cuddled the school feeding programme focusing much on the agricultural demands of the continent. One of their objectives was to stimulate local food production through an expansion of local food demand by schools (Bukari and Hajara, 2015). This was in line with Sen's ideologies which view development as an expansion of opportunities. Poor local farmers were to gain economic access through the creation of markets for their products which in turn would increase production.

2.6.1 Historical background of feeding schemes in the world

The genesis of feeding hungry children at school setup can be traced back to the 1790s when the Republic of Munich administered feeding programme as combined schemes of feeding and education. In the USA, the Children's Aid Society of New York began serving lunches to children at a vocational school as far back as 1853. In the 1860s, France also launched a school lunch programme for needy children in almost 464 areas. The Oslo breakfast which comprised of half a pint of milk, bread, cheese, half an orange and half an apple was established in Norway during the 1890s (FAO, 2005: 15). According to Gunderson (2003) the Starr Centre Association formed in Philadelphia also identified the need for subscribing penny lunches in schools during the 1890s.

The provision of food to hungry school children was first enacted under national legislation in the Netherlands specifically as a mechanism to provide school lunches in 1900 (Kearney, 2008). In 1905, England legislated the Education Provision of Meals Act specifically to secure suitable meals for school children. These initiatives marked the beginning of the new epoch in the school feeding provision arena. The enactment of food provision acts by different nations culminated in the introduction of the private charitable

organisations (Gunderson, 2003). During the early 1920s, Los Angeles also introduced a school feeding scheme, serving a snack at 10 a.m. or lunch at noon to underfed children.

In the United Kingdom and the United States, School feeding originated in the 1930s, aimed at child growth improvement (Richter, Griesel and Rose, 2000). Brazil's school feeding programme (PNAE) was established in the 1950s as a targeted food aid programme designed to fight undernutrition and low levels of education. Due to its targeted nature, it only served the neediest children in the poorest areas (FAO, 2014).

In the 1940s, the provision of food was enshrined as a basic human right by global institutions. The right to food was recognized in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights as part of the right to an adequate standard of living (UNICEF, 2008: 4). The inclusion of food provision in Article 11 of the UDHR as a human right paved a way for the protection of hungry people by their nations.

School feeding programmes were implemented in Kenya since the 1980's through foreign aid and management with little success. In 2009 the Kenyan government introduced the Homegrown School Feeding Programme (HGSFP) incorporating a direct commitment to education, agriculture, and rural development (Langinger, 2011).

2.6.2 The historical background of feeding scheme in South Africa

The instigation of School Feeding Scheme in South Africa begun in the 1930s in which three programmes were initiated that enabled food to be provided through schools. The Dried Fruit Scheme, the Citrus Fruit Scheme, and the Milk and Cheese Scheme marked the beginning of food assistance in schools (Kallaway, 1996). Historically, Swartz (2009) pointed to the introduction of feeding schemes as early as 1916 in South Africa. During this period, only neediest children were benefiting from the programme. However the programme was not in full swing because only white children benefited at the expense of black citizenry. Tomlinson (2007) also propounded that School feeding was introduced in

the early 1940s propelled by a programme supplying free milk to only white and coloured schools.

According to the Department of Basic Education (2014) the United Party officially introduced School Feeding in 1943 in accordance to international trends and it marked the introduction of a state-wide feeding scheme which provided free meal to all learners regardless of their race in primary schools (DBE, 2014). The government funded school feeding scheme was provided under the administration of the Social Welfare and it incorporated native students

The administration of the feeding scheme was transferred from Social Welfare to the Department of Education and this propagated inequality between white learners and black learners. During the apartheid era school meals were provided by private enterprises, donors and non-governmental organizations. Some of these organizations that provided meals during the apartheid era are the African Children's Feeding Scheme, Grahamstown Areas Distress Relief Association (GADRA), Cape Flats Distress Association (CAFDA), Students Health and Welfare Centres Organization (SHAWCO), Peninsula School Feeding Scheme and Operation Hunger (Kallaway, 1996).

The apartheid policies in many schools necessitated the impoverishment of black children since it eliminated food subsidies for natives. The exclusion of subsidies from blacks intensified hunger amongst the poorest South Africans. The advent of democracy in 1994 brought relief to most the black child in South Africa especially poor rural inhabitants. The first democratic government of South Africa called for the establishment of the Primary School Nutrition Programme (PSNP) in 1994 principally concerned on the elimination of the unacceptable rate of child death due to undernutrition (DBE, 2014).

Therefore the PSNP materialized as an important component of the government efforts to meet the nutritional rights of children. It is important to note that the aims of the PSNP were meant to respond to the articles in the Bill of Rights of the Constitution of South Africa, which stipulates the constitutional rights of citizens to health care, food, water and social security, and education. The South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) outlines obligations on the right to food which include the creation of an enabling

environment in which all people are able to exercise their right to food (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). The South African government is also driven by its acceptance of the demands of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the 2015 Millennium Development Goals.

The South African population has the right to have access to sufficient food, as well as basic nutrition and education for children as enshrined in its constitution. The inclusion of these rights means that the state has to esteem, shield, uphold and accomplish the rights. According to the SAHRC (2004) the state is obliged to take reasonable measures, within its capacity based on available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of each of these rights. Therefore programmes such as the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) have been designed and implemented in an attempt to fulfil these rights with policies geared towards adequate food supply and distribution.

In 1994, President Nelson Mandela introduced school feeding on a national scale as a key feature of poverty and hunger alleviation among children in South Africa (Iversen et al, 2011). The president's office administered the NSNP under the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) for a span of two years. The RDP report asserts that "the RDP must ensure that as soon as possible, and certainly within three years, every person in South Africa can get their basic nutritional requirement each day and that they no longer live in fear of going hungry" (Reconstruction and Development Report, 1994: 39). The programme was envisaged as both a health intervention and a poverty alleviation strategy and upon closure of the office, the programme became the responsibility of the Department of Health (Public Service Commission, 2008).

The Department of Health managed the PSNP from 1998 to 2004 with specific respects to the Integrated Nutrition Strategy (INS). The INS emerged through the recommendation of the National Committee on Nutrition appointed in August 1994 by the Minister of Health to develop a nutrition strategy for South Africa (Department of Health, 1998). The INS was enshrined by the Department of Health's White Paper for the transformation of the health system in South Africa and it was renamed to Integrated Nutrition Programme (INP) for South Africa. The Primary School Nutrition Programme (PSNP) therefore

became a portion of the INP multi-disciplinary national programme. (Department of Health, 1998). The vision of the INP was Optimum nutrition for all South Africans through coordinated inter-sectoral efforts to combat nutritional challenges. As such the programme had interventions targeting different groups of the community such as learners, pregnant and breastfeeding mothers and the broader community (DBE, 2014).

The objectives of the Primary School Nutrition Programme (PSNP) implemented by the Department of Health as part of the INP were to improve education by enhancing active learning capacity, school attendance and punctuality by providing an early morning snack. It also aimed at improving health through: micro-nutrient supplementation, intestinal parasite control, and also providing education on health and nutrition (DOH, 1998). As part of the integrated approach, the PSNP objectives were extended to the enhancement of broader development initiatives, especially in the area of combating poverty. The programme had principles that embodied community participation through involvement and empowerment, sustainability, linking the programme to educational activities, health initiatives and multi-sectoral collaboration (McCoy et al, 1997).

In 2004, the programme was relocated from the Department of Health to the Department of Basic Education and was renamed the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) with expanded objectives as communicated to the provinces and schools through an implementation manual (DOE, 2004a). The major changes in the NSNP included broadening of the scope and coverage, instead of being a health promotion initiative there was a more holistic view of what school feeding could achieve in line with international literature. The decision was based on the consideration that school feeding should be housed in the Department of Education given the important education outcomes of the intervention as well as the fact that it is implemented in schools, which are the functional responsibility of the Department of Education. An additional consideration was that it would facilitate the inclusion of school feeding into the broader context of education development, a pre-requisite for successful and sustainable school-based Programmes (UNICEF, 2008).

The broader vision of the NSNP was to contribute to the improvement of education by enhancing school pupils' learning capacity, school attendance and punctuality and contribute to general health by alleviating hunger while at the same time educating pupils on nutrition (Overy, 2010). The implementation of NSNP under the administration of the DOE allowed the identification of three indispensable pillars which are, the provision of meals to learners, nutrition education and sustainable food production (Department of Basic Education, 2010d).

According to McLaren et al (2015) the transfer of NSNP implementation responsibility to the DBE was due to the following expanded objectives:

- To contribute to enhanced learning capacity through school feeding programmes,
- To promote and support food production and improve food security in school communities,
- To strengthen nutrition education in schools and communities, and
- To develop partnerships to enhance the programme.

The proper design and implementation of the NSNP under the administration of the Department of Education according to the objectives stipulated above would undoubtedly produce positive results in combating hunger in rural areas.

2.7 THE STATE OF FEEDING SCHEME IN SOUTH AFRICA

The NSNP currently feeds over eight million children in over twenty thousand schools, and in 2013 had a budget of over R4.578 billion, making it a wide-reaching programme.

2.7.1 Food procurement

There are two models used in procuring food for the NSNP in South Africa: centralized and decentralized model. The centralized procurement model is currently operating in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Western Cape Provinces while

Eastern Cape, Free State, Northern Cape and North West Provinces use the decentralized approach (DBE, 2014).

2.7.2 Centralized procurement / Tender system

Provinces using the tender system appoint suppliers at a provincial level in line with relevant procurement procedures. Suppliers are awarded contracts to deliver services to a small or large cluster of schools and are paid by the provincial office (UNICEF, 2008).

The centralized procurement model entails the obtaining of the ingredients and the delivery thereof to schools based on a service level agreement between the suppliers and the provincial DBE office. A tendering process is used by the provincial office guided by the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act of 2000 (Republic of South Africa, 2000). The policy involves a point system of scoring the tenders through which historically disadvantaged people in terms of race, gender and disability are awarded extra points. Therefore, the contracted individuals are paid by the provincial office for the food they deliver to schools and funds to pay the food handlers and gas are transferred to the school account (DBE, 2014).

2.7.3 Decentralized procurement

The operation of the decentralized procurement allows the district officials to communicate the NSNP budget to the school and monitor the utilisation of the funds. Schools receive funds related to the scheme into their school account and it is the responsibility of the schools using a quotation system to identify the supplier with the food items required at a reasonable price. The nutrition coordinator and School Governing body (SGB) members identify these suppliers within their local community or within the business district. The suppliers are paid by cheque, with the school attaching proof of the quotations and the receipt to their monthly monitoring form (DBE, 2014).

The main advantages of the quotation system are that suppliers are from the local community and numerous suppliers receive economic benefit from the Programme. The success of the school feeding scheme as a mechanism for food production within the community is sorely based upon this kind of procurement system. Apart from its

advantages the quotation system is also associated with an increased risk of fraud since advances are paid out to schools. Due to fraud, some school representatives would choose not to report the operation to appointed offices. In this regard, it has been reported that the current non-compliance to reporting in the Northern Cape poses a serious risk to suspension of the Programme at certain schools (UNICEF, 2008).

2.7.4 Storage

The recommended storage is defined as storage that is well-ventilated, with shelves or desks to allow for food to be placed on an elevated plane. The evaluation of the NSNP conducted by UNICEF in 2008 found that most schools used one of the classrooms, the head of department's office, student sick rooms, or food handlers' households and very few had proper storage space. There is no specific fund that is allocated to enable schools to buy refrigerators but, in consultation with the provincial offices, funds can be sought from other school coffers to buy a refrigerator. It was found during the school visits that most schools have a fridge for keeping the fresh produce cool until they are used. There have been incidents of food being stolen from the storage facilities and equipment from the kitchens in some schools (DBE, 2014).

2.7.5 Food preparation

Food preparation is done at schools on daily basis. Meals are prepared in accordance with the provincial menus and according to the safety and hygiene guidelines. Meals are either served from large dishes allocated to each classroom, or directly from the cooking pots to a queue of learners standing outdoors. Although the learners are encouraged to sit at a table when eating, no schools have eating halls. Some learners eat on their desks in their classrooms, while others eat sitting on the ground outside. Learners were observed sitting at old desks outdoors in one school in the Eastern Cape (DBE, 2014).

Conclusively, officials from the Department of Education conducted monitoring and support visits to five districts in the Limpopo Province namely: Sekhukhune, Capricorn, Mopani, Waterberg and Vhembe. In all the 21 schools visited, the school feeding

programme was implemented with success (Parliament of the republic of South Africa, 2016).

2.8 POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF FEEDING PROGRAMMES IN ADDRESSING FOOD INSECURITY

Governments tend to enter school feeding programmes primarily for educational purposes but there are opportunities to increase additional benefits of the school feeding programmes, such as strong economic and agricultural developments, which also enhance programme sustainability. However, the resulting benefits of the programme are intrinsically linked with the programme rationale. In this case the study aimed at unveiling probable outcomes of feeding schemes in relation to food security.

In this context, schools can potentially emerge as an arena for developing initiatives linking developmental skills within the education system. The PNAE feeding programme in Brazil has been significantly tailored to be part of the comprehensive food and nutrition security approach. It practically assimilated education, agriculture, health and social protection to promote access to healthy diets at school while strengthening family farming (Sidaner, Balaban, and Burlandy, 2013).

2.8.1 Improvement of markets accessibility

The number of hungry people in the world is close to one billion, and food insecurity is increasing every day. Nowhere else is this problem more acute than in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) where small holder farmers lack modern productive techniques (FAO et al 2013). In the case where improved productivity is attained through the adoption of modern methods small holder farmers are often incapable of selling their produce in competitive and volatile markets. Efforts to enhance production are typically compromised by the lack of local markets for their products, and the absence of transport to reach distant markets with perishable goods. As school feeding programmes run for a fixed number of days a year and normally have a pre-determined food basket, they provide the opportunity to benefit smallholder farmers and producers by generating a stable,

structured, and predictable demand for their products, thereby building the market and enabling systems around it (Gelli et al, 2010).

This is the concept behind Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF), identified by the Millennium Hunger Task Force as a quick win in the fight against poverty and hunger. It is this opportunity to link education to agriculture which has put Home Grown School Feeding as a priority within many national governments and as pillar four of the African Union Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) (Drake, et al, 2012)

Many of these national programmes have depended upon food commodities which are purchased locally thereby reinvesting the resources in the local economy and strengthening the economic base. In Chile approximately all rural school feeding is dependent upon local farmers, or through specific mandates requiring a link between school food and local agriculture. This promote local farmers since they are able to sell their produce without transportation challenges.

School feeding programmes which purchase locally produced products especially by smallholder farmers add another beneficiary group. If these farmers are themselves poor and food insecure, school feeding programmes have the potential to increase their household income and reduce food insecurity (Tomlinson, 2007). The tender system used in KwaZulu-Natal and the North West differs from the other provinces as it focuses strongly on community empowerment by appointing suppliers from the local community. KwaZulu-Natal has reported on economic empowerment of local communities through several local women's groups that are contracted to provide the food (Department of Basic Education, 2011a).

2.8.2 Boosting domestic food production

Promotion and support of food production initiatives in schools are critical aspects in the implementation of the current NSNP. The initiatives can be in the form of vegetable and herb gardens, fruit orchards, and livestock production as well as food processing. According to a DBE guidelines, each school must nominate individuals who will be subjected to training specifically for sustainable food production. In connection to it, each

school is expected to initiate a food garden or food production project to implement sustainable food production skills (DBE, 2009). During the interviews at the schools visited by the DBE in 2012 no mention was made of training in food production, but some schools had well established food gardens and one school had fruit trees.

The United Nations Hunger Task Force (2005) stresses in its obligatory plans the necessity of eradicating hunger throughout the world. One of the strategies identified by the UNHTF to achieve this goal is the implementation of school feeding programmes with locally produced foods rather than imported food. Therefore, it considers integrating education and agriculture in running school feeding programmes as an effective poverty and hunger eradication instrument (WFP, 2001). There is growing excitement around the idea that school feeding programmes that use food produced and purchased locally can generate additional benefits for the children involved and for local farmers, communities and economies (WFP, 2013).

In Ivory Coast the government focuses on helping smallholder farmers residing around schools. The programme creates a platform which enables the smallholders to increase productivity as they fight progressively to meet the requirements of feeding programme. As programmes expand and become nationally-owned and part of the national policy framework, the size and stability of the demand will also increase. This increased market security also increases inputs into productivity such as better technologies and practices which will improve local agricultural production for smallholder farmer (Drake et al, 2012).

The production of food in local rural areas can only be possible through linking the food basket required for meals and local food production. However the linking is also driven by the procurement in action. The tender system in some of the South African provinces including Limpopo posed a great hindrance to local producers. NEPAD's School Feeding Programme is designed to stimulate local production through the purchase of locally produced food for schools. Local small-scale farmers will be given the opportunity, along with initial assistance, to provide schools with the necessary food products. (NEPAD, 2005).

2.8.3 Alleviation of unemployment

The proper implementation of a targeted school feeding has a broader impact on the local economy. Jobs and profits may be created not only for farmers, but for those involved in the transportation, processing, and preparation of food along the school feeding value chain. Off-farm investment may in turn further stimulate productivity and agricultural employment, producing a virtuous cycle benefitting long-term food security and improving welfare in rural households (Sumberg and Sabates Wheeler, 2011).

2.8.4 Poverty reduction

The broader benefits of school feeding programmes are recognized as a social protection intervention with favourable pro-poor outcomes (Devereux et al, 2010). A tenth of the global poorest children likely dropout of school and perpetuate inter-generational cycles of poverty within our societies. Therefore, these programmes provide an incentive for poor children, to attend school and ultimately possess some educational qualification which to some extent guarantee the employment and thus breaking the cycle of poverty. Keeping orphaned and vulnerable children in school can reduce their vulnerability, the risk of contracting HIV and provides access to education of value especially for vulnerable young girls, who could grow up to be the next generation of smallholder farmers (Pieterse and van Wyk, 2006). HIV has not led to a sizeable famine on its own, but it undoubtedly exacerbates chronic food security. In east and southern Africa one of the effects of HIV/AIDS is the increasing number of orphaned and vulnerable children and child-headed households. This has implications for food security levels of childhood malnutrition and, in turn, the types of nutritional interventions that governments should implement in response (Tomlinson, 2007). The pro-poor nature of school feeding programmes highlights their role as a social protection initiative.

2.8.5 Development initiatives

Since the nutrition programme was transferred to the Department of Education, the feeding scheme was further developed to include a school food-garden project (NSNP, 2008). This has enabled the establishment of thousands of food gardens around South

Africa. The food gardens have been developed with the support of the Department of Agriculture, local authorities and NGOs, they are used not only to produce meals for learners but also to teach them about food production and management (NSNP, 2008).

The School Food Gardens Programme is an important pillar of the NSNP. Its purpose is to develop skills in production of own food. It also serves as a resource for teaching and learning. Schools participating in NSNP are required to implement food production initiatives using the available resources. The DBE purchased and distributed 16 vegetable stunnels and other agricultural resources to support schools to sustain their vegetable gardens. A variety of vegetables such as cabbage, spinach, beetroot and onion were planted making available essential nutrients in school meals (DOE, 2014).

School-based gardening programmes can be an excellent means of introducing new ideas about gardening and a useful channel for reaching others in the community, as children tend to be more open to the adoption of new ideas than adults. The promotion of school gardens has different objectives, which include education through the impartation of knowledge and skills for better agricultural productivity and sustainable agricultural practices. Economically it lowers the costs of schooling and school feeding as well. It also improves food diversity thereby combating micronutrient deficiencies among school children.

2.8.6 Health and nutrition

Malnutrition has continued to be a public health problem mostly in developing countries where the poor socio economic condition has continued to work in synergy with malnutrition (Olusanya, 2010). Research evidence validated the idea that the school system provides a cost-effective platform for delivering simple health interventions to school children (Drake et al, 2012)

Through combining school health and nutrition interventions into a cohesive package they can be managed in a comprehensive and methodical manner that ensures even the most vulnerable children are reached. In countries, such as India the programme runs in close

convergence with national rural health and sanitation programmes, rural water supply programme, sanitation programmes and the nation-wide education for all.

Given their cross sectoral content and wide ranging impact, school feeding programmes are usually well equipped to drive and support other interventions on education, nutrition, health, hunger and sanitation (Drake et al, 2012). The DOE in Limpopo Province strengthened collaboration with the Department of Health such that preparation areas can be monitored and all role players be trained to ensure higher degree of health and safety standards. In this case, the issue allowed the training of volunteer food handlers towards monitoring their health standards that would also benefit their family and community at large. The DBE provided a guide on how to respond to emergencies in food contamination and poisoning in schools (Parliament of South Africa, 2016).

2.8.7 Reduction of hunger

Africa is home to 23 million children who are persistently hungry as they live in food insecure households (World Food Programme, 2011). For millions of children today, hunger is one of the most pervasive and damaging phenomena (Government Gazette, 2014). It has a devastating impact on the development of both individuals and nations. School feeding could be one of the key strategies in contributing to household food security, especially in low-income nations. Hence it can be instrumental in addressing short and long-term hunger.

A high percentage of South African children in rural areas depend on wild-growing foods to supplement their daily nutritional needs because of living in food insecure households. A school-based study released in 2009, revealed that 64% of school children and 40% of non-school-going children supplemented their diets with wild foods (McGarry and Shackleton, 2009). In addition to enjoying the taste of the wild foods, children cited hunger as reasons for eating them. According to Devereux (2015:1) one of the main objectives of the feeding scheme is to reduce hunger by offering adequate food to the children.

Research indicated that the provision of food stuffs at school boosted enrolment level in many countries (Acheampong, 2014). This scenario proved to be a concrete evidence

that feeding schemes address hunger problems as children are driven to attend school by the need of food. In Burkina Faso, where enrolment rates hovered around 25 percent, offering in-school meals and take home rations boosted enrolment, the same effect was seen in Uganda, where enrolment rates were already above 80 percent when the feeding programme was started (World Bank, 2012). The provision of food throughout the year at school specifically reduces chronic hunger which is experienced in Mutale Municipality.

National governments have also prioritized school feeding programmes for their social protection and social inclusion dimension. In Brazil, the school feeding programme is prioritized within the Zero Hunger Strategy to address hunger and ensure the human right to adequate food for all. In fact, today, there are at least 330 million children receiving school meals, in almost every country in the world and countries are investing approximately 30 billion dollars on school feeding every year (WFP, 2012).

The delivery of food transfers to individuals who are poor and food insecure has the potential to alleviate immediate hunger. Studies in Bangladesh and Indonesia found significant evidence that school children shared their biscuits given at school with their younger sisters or brothers at home. The provision of food take home parcels is a greater incentive to extremely poor communities (Grantham-McGregor 2005).

2.9 CHALLENGES EXPERIENCED BY THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMMES

2.9.1 Delivery problems

In the evaluation of the NSNP made by PSC in the Limpopo and Eastern Cape Provinces, there were cases of non-delivery of food, delays and poor quality food being delivered (Public Service Commission, 2008). Between October 2014 and December 2015, in Vhembe and Mopani Districts, 38 034 learners did not receive their food due to the non-delivery of food stuffs by the department suppliers. Responses from the Department of Basic Education showed that the department was not aware of non-delivery of food stuffs by suppliers during that period. In addition, the NSNP District Managers have also indicated that there were no reports of non-feeding due to non-delivery of food stuffs by suppliers during that period (Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2016).

2.9.2 Menu compliance

One of the problems associated with feeding schemes is failure of schools to comply with the prescribed menus. Research indicates that some schools in Limpopo Province were observed not serving the correct food items as per the provincially prescribed menus. Also, portion sizes weighed did not always comply with the requirements. The importance of compliance with menu items and combinations needs to be emphasized to both service providers and school nutrition coordinators, given that this can potentially impact on the planned nutrient levels intended (UNICEF, 2008).

2.9.3 Lack of sufficient staff

The lack of sufficient staff reported in the Eastern Cape, Free State and Northern Cape and Kwazulu Natal is impacting on the effective and efficient implementation of the Programme. Given the shift in vision for the Programme at national level from a temporary to a sustained long-term intervention, the appointment of permanent staff dedicated to the Programme is necessary (UNICEF, 2008).

2.10 Summary

The chapter incorporated the capability and entitlement approaches due to their engagement with the factors surrounding the problem of food insecurity. These frameworks advocated an empowering perspective which reinforces individual's capability to feed themselves in dignity. In this case, this section approached food insecurity as a product of failure of individuals to access adequate nutritious available food always. This failure has been attributed to diverse factors which weaken individuals' capability to feed themselves in dignity.

School feeding schemes are of greater importance as a developmental tool that is very effective in combating food insecurity if well implemented. They require the creation of an environment that enables the stimulation of economic opportunities for unemployed community members. This chapter also described the historical background of the school

feeding programme emphasising the food security goals wedded in the implementation of the programme at local as well as global level. It eventually provided the potential impact of school feeding schemes in creating an enabling platform in which community members can be assuaged from food insecurity.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This section describes the methods and procedures employed to collect data relevant to the study. The essence of this chapter is to outline the methodological procedures followed by the researcher in addressing the objectives of the study. Methodological procedures entail a blue-print specifying all the steps trailed by the researcher in endeavouring to accomplish the study purpose. This chapter delineates the approach undertaken by the researcher, how the study was designed, and the method of data collection as well as the instrument used to collect data. It also reveals the sampling procedure, location of the study, limitations encountered, ethics considered during interviewing respondents, method of data analysis embraced by the researcher and provides a summary of the research methodology based on the data collected.

3.1 Approach

The research is qualitative in nature. In this case the nature of a qualitative approach is a description of social action from the insider perspective. The fundamental principle of this approach as attested by Babbie and Mouton, (2001: 270) is to reach a point of an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study. The qualitative method enables the researcher to understand events, actions and processes in their natural context, provide a description and an interpretive as well as a narrative understanding of the social world (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The qualitative method was used in assessing the effects of the provision of food at rural schools in addressing food insecurity.

The researcher embraced the qualitative approach in this study since the aim was to gather an in-depth understanding of the feeding programmes under rural setting. The paradigm was helpful since the study was concerned with how the community members perceive and interpret their experience about the programme at hand. In addition, the

researcher was interested in obtaining a comprehensive understanding of the effectiveness of the provision of food in schools from the beneficiaries without tempering with the natural setting. Through qualitative methodology the researcher accrued rich and detailed information on the contribution of feeding schemes at school to food security in rural communities

3.2 Location of the study

Limpopo Province is the northernmost province, which lies within the great curve of the Limpopo River. Vhembe District is in the northern part of Limpopo Province and demarcated from international countries by the Limpopo River. Mutale Municipality, where the study is going to be conducted, is situated in the far north-eastern part of the Limpopo Province, bordering the Republic of Zimbabwe in the north and the Republic of Mozambique in the east through the Kruger National Park. However, Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School is located in Dzimauli community along Baimoro Street under Rambuda Territorial Authority.

3.3 Population

‘Population’ is a term used to describe the total group of people where information is drawn (Wiid and Diggines, 2013). The population for this study was drawn from Dzimauli community at Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School mainly because of its deep rural background since the study was only limited to rural parameters. The community also consists mostly of low and middle income recipients of which most of them are committed to farming. The researcher segmented the population of the study into various categories where a small portion of individuals were taken from these groups.

One group consisted of the surrounding small farm holders. The purpose of selecting this group was to gain an insight of their contribution to the feeding scheme and their potential in producing adequate food for the programme. Grade 12 learners also attracted the researcher due to maturity and broad knowledge since they were beneficiaries of the programme for a protracted period as compared to any other grade. For a stronger analysis the researcher included parents or guardians of the learners who participated in

the study. The principal, educators and voluntary food handlers also participated in this study. The study also included the supervisor at circuit level to gain an overall overview of the operation of the feeding scheme in Mutale Municipality.

3.4 Sampling

Sampling is the process in research of selecting observations for representatives of a population so as to give information about the population as a whole (Cogill, 2003). The study applied the non-probability sampling technique. Non-probability sampling is an umbrella-term covering all forms of sampling techniques which are not conducted in accordance to the canons of probability theory (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The research considered non probability sampling to be crucial in the selection of respondents as the study was interested in contextualizing the data.

The study employed quota sampling technique to select study respondents. Quota sampling involves dividing a population into different groups and setting measures on the number of elements to select from each category (Monette et al, 2011: 147-148). Quota sampling is like stratified sampling in that both sampling methods divide the population into groups on the basis of specified variables. It entails selecting units based on prespecified characteristics. The purpose as envisaged by Babbie (2013: 130) is to gain same distribution of characteristics, on the total sample, assumed to exist in the population. Sampling bestowed the researcher a prospect in which to find out a thorough description of the perspectives and views of the community on the potential effects of the school feeding programme on food security. The fact that quota sampling allows proportional representation in the sample of all the characteristics of the targeted population opened a way for the researcher to make use of it.

The researcher identified some categories which took part in the study, namely: principals, educators, food handlers, learners, parents, as well as local small farm holders. The researcher identified these categories to be the food processing channel depending on the procurement model in place. However, unlike stratified sampling, the final selection of the respondents in quota sampling is not bound by the probability theory,

but it is now the responsibility of the researcher to choose based on the purpose of the study (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Therefore, the researcher applied judgmental principles in selecting study respondents from the specified categories. A total number of 26 respondents was drawn from all these categories as the researcher aimed at contextualising an in-depth understanding of the effects of the school feeding scheme in addressing food insecurity in Dzimauli community. The respondents comprised of five smallholder farmers, five parents, 10 learners, two educators, two voluntary food handlers, one principal, and one supervisor as well.

3.5 Data collection

To achieve the proposed objectives, the researcher employed face-to-face interviews as a method of data collection. During data collection, interview schedules were completed for all the respondents in one-on-one interviews. An interview is a process in which a researcher and a participant engage in a conversation focused on questions related to the research study. It involves a list of questions read by the interviewer to the respondent, with the interviewer writing down the respondent's responses on the schedule. The central purpose of an interview was to gain information through extracting what is in the mind of the interviewee by reassuring the interviewee to participate (Merriam, 2009: 88-91).

Face to face interviews allowed the researcher to probe further or make some follow up questions attempting to elicit clearer and more complete responses (Monette, 2014). It also enabled the interviewer to take note of the non-verbal behaviour of the participants such that a broader view of the feeding scheme contribution to food security could be reached.

The study also examined documents related to food provision programmes and activities in other countries and in Limpopo Province as well. These documents included research conducted by others. Apart from interviews and documents, the researcher also engaged in non-participating observation to comprehend the way food is prepared, distributed and consumed.

3.6 Ethical considerations

The quest for information among researchers may lead to the violation of human rights and the invasion of participants' privacy. The philosophy of ethics emerged as a way of protecting units of analysis and governing professionalism (Bryman, 2012). The concept involves the way in which research subjects should be treated and how detrimental activities could be avoided. Knowledge concerning general agreement among researchers on what is wrong and improper in the conduct of social inquiry is indispensable in research studies (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

The researcher was granted permission by the University of Venda to conduct the study. Permission was also obtained from the Department of Education at district level, the circuit manager and the school principal. The researcher accepted to adhere to essential ethical research practices before the commencement of the study and those ethics are outlined below.

3.6.1 Voluntary participation

In this study, the researcher adequately informed all the participants about the purpose of the research before they participated. None of the respondents was forced to participate (Rubin and Babbie, 2005: 71). Lastly, interviews were conducted with participants who volunteered to participate.

3.6.2 Privacy

The interview environment was kept secluded from many people as a way of maintaining the privacy of the respondents. In cases where language was a barrier especially interviews conducted with food handlers, parents and small farm holders, the presence of the interpreter was entertained for clarity in the local language. The respondents were given an assurance that they do not have to respond to questions which they feel would affect their privacy (Engel and Schutt, 2013: 67).

3.6.3 The right to withdraw at any time

During the interview session, respondents were permitted to withdraw from the interview if they felt like doing so. The researcher also informed the respondents that they were free to withhold any information which seems sensitive to them.

3.6.4 No harm to participants

The researcher was aware that he is compelled under research professionalism to protect the respondents from harmful activities brought by research procedurals (Engel and Schutt, (2013: 62) Therefore efforts were exerted to safeguard the recipients by restricting stressful and extremely sensitive questions which can potentially cause psychological harm. The interview sessions allowed short breaks to each respondent by discussing general issues taking them away from the pressure capitulated by an interview.

3.6.5 Deception

Deceiving research subjects entails hiding the identity and purpose of the researcher, in order for subjects to act naturally (Rubin and Babbie, 2005: 73). The researcher debriefed the subjects concerning the purpose of the study before conducting interviews with them. A truthful explanation of the aim and purpose of the research was divulged to the respondents.

3.6.6 Confidentiality

Respondents were informed that the information collected would be strictly kept confidential and to be utilized for academic purposes only. The names of the respondents were not attached to any information collected, and only some few demographic characteristics were recorded.

3.7 Data analysis

Data analysis means a search for patterns in data, which is the recurrence of behaviours, objects or a body of knowledge. Once identified, a pattern is then interpreted in respect

of the terms in which it occurred (Bryman, 2012). The study deployed the narrative qualitative data analysis technique. Bryman (2012) argues that, in narrative research, the researcher assembles the data into a descriptive picture but leaves the information to speak for itself. The researcher interjected little in the form of new systematic concepts, external theories or abstract models. Narrative data are analysed or explained in the terminology and concepts of the people or the phenomenon being studied.

3.8 Summary

The above section presented the overall scope of the methodology adopted by the researcher in attaining the purpose of the study. The researcher embraced qualitative approach in investigating the food security impact brought by the implementation of feeding scheme in rural areas. Empirical data was solicited from 26 respondents' selected using quota sampling technique since the study identified different categories to be dealt with. It also described the instrument used in collecting and analysing data. The section also gave ethics considered in the study due to the researcher's quest of maintaining the integrity of the research professional and protecting participants from harmful conditions.

CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

The chapter assessed the effects of school feeding schemes in addressing rural food insecurity at community level. The researcher plunged into this assessment through an analysis of the current state of the programme. In this case, the section analysed the whole operation of the programme as a way of gaining an insight of its contribution in alleviating chronic rural food insecurity. The chapter presented employment creation, poverty reduction, hunger eradication, and impartation of nutrition and health skills as benefits amassed by the community from the provision of food at school. These contribution, to some extent reinforced the community in battling against food insecurity. It is also in this section where the researcher accentuated implementation constraints which inhibited the triumph of the programme in eliciting local food production and stimulating market demand for local products, which in turn strengthen the capability of the community in placating household food insecurity

4.1 Biographical profile of the respondents

The researcher captured some necessary characteristics of the respondents which are useful throughout the data analysis process. All these profile identities are important in recognising and explaining the effects of school feeding schemes in addressing rural food insecurity. The researcher presented the profile of smallholder farmers, parents and learners, voluntary food handlers, educators, the principal and the supervisor. The researcher labelled the research subjects with pseudo names even though they would not be captured within the context.

4.1.1 Smallholder farmers

Table 4.1: Biographical profile of smallholder farmers

Pseudo names	Group affiliation	Plants grown	Employment Status	Market
Mr Press	Tshilamba	Mangoes, oranges, litchis, Avocados spinach	Unemployed	Community, Levubu
Mr Farm	No group affiliation	Cabbages, oranges, beans, tomatoes	Employed	Community
Mr Brave	Tshilamba	mangoes, litchis oranges, cabbages, spinach, beans	Unemployed	Community
Ms Tares	No group affiliation	Cabbages, carrots, beans	Employed	Community
Mr Bake	Tshilamba	cabbages, wild vegetables, tomatoes	Unemployed	Community

Table 4.1 indicates the employment status, affiliation with farming organised groups, current plants grown and established markets of local farmers in Tshiwangamatembele. The table shows that 60% (3/5) of the local farmers are unemployed and only 40% (2/5) of them are employed. Only the unemployed were affiliated to an agricultural group of farmers in which they are equipped with some farming education as a way of enhancing agricultural produce. All the farmers expressed their ability under governmental assistance to produce enough food for the feeding programme as they are already growing cabbages, tomatoes, and beans which are part of the feeding menus. Finally, these farmers are incapable of expanding their production level mainly because of

shortage of stable markets to sell their products in time. Only 20% of farmers have established a market place in Levubu where they sell only fruits and 80% (4/5) sorely depend on the community for markets.

4.1.2 Parents

Table 4.2: Biographical characteristics of parents

Pseudo names	Employment status	Number of learners	Ways of acquiring food
Mrs Well	Employed	2	Purchasing and farming
Mrs Glare	Employed	1	Purchasing and farming
Mrs Warm	Unemployed	1	Buying and farming
Mrs Bless	Unemployed	1	Purchasing and farming
Mrs Light	Unemployed	2	Buying and farming

Table 4.2 identifies 60% (3/5) of interviewed women are not employed hence the chance of being part of the feeding scheme as food handlers is hailed. The table also cited that 100% of these families obtain most of their daily foodstuff through purchasing and a small amount from farming. The table also indicates that 60% of the respondents had only one learner attending at Tshiwangamatembele while 40% (2/5) of respondents had two learners who were benefiting from the feeding programme

4.1.3 Learners

Table 4.3: Biographical profile of learners

Pseudo names	Sex	Grade	Status of guardian	Provision of breakfast at home in the morning
Gross	Male	12	Employed	Eats breakfast everyday

Pliant	Male	12	Unemployed	Everyday
Slack	Male	12	Unemployed	not everyday
Peter	Male	12	Unemployed	Everyday
Phumodzo	Male	12	Unemployed	Everyday
Virtue	Female	12	Unemployed	not everyday
Praise	Female	12	Employed	Everyday
Glamour	Female	12	Unemployed	Everyday
Femous	Female	12	Employed	not everyday
Jubilee	Female	12	unemployed	Everyday

Table 4.3 displays the characteristic profile of the learners who participated in the study. The researcher interviewed 50% (5/10) male and 50% female respondents. The researcher intentionally included only Grade 12 in the study because of the protracted period they had spent at school under the provision of feeding programme. This prolonged period accorded them a wealthier understanding of the benefits and changes associated with the programme than any other grades. The table also captures 30% (3/10) of respondents whose guardians are employed while 70% (7/10) had unemployed guardians. In addition, 30% of respondents indicated that they sometimes come to school without eating food in the morning whereas 70% ate food every day before coming to school.

4.1.4 Voluntary Food Handlers

Table 4.4: Biographical characteristics of food handlers

Pseudo names	Number of learners	sex	Training status	Other sources of income
Waldro	2	female	Received training	None
Queen	2	female	Received training	None

Table 4.4 displays the characteristics of the food handlers who participated in the study. According to the school feeding scheme guide created by the DOE, only women qualify

to hold the position of food handlers. The table shows that both have two learners who are currently attending at the school. The table also indicates that both had no other sources of income, rather they depended upon remunerations from their work for their livelihoods. Finally, both received training as a way of orienting them of their expectations in the day to day running of the programme.

4.1.5 Staff members

Table 4.5: Biographical characteristics of staff members

Position	Sex	Duration at work
Supervisor	Female	More than 5 years
Principal	Female	Less than 5 years
Coordinator (educator	Female	More than 5 years
Vice coordinator (educator)	Male	More than 5 years

Table 4.5 displays the period that the supervisor, principal and the educators spend serving the needs of the school feeding scheme and their sex as well. The female supervisor at the circuit level offered her service to the schools in the implementation of the programme for more than five years. This shows her knowledge of the programme in terms of the purpose of the study. The principal also served in the programme for less than five years and both educators have been involved in the running of the programme for more than five years.

4.2 THE CURRENT STATE OF TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE SCHOOL FEEDING SCHEME

4.2.1 The inauguration of the feeding programme

The independence of the Republic of South Africa marked the universal inception of the SFP under the RDP as the nation aimed at maximizing development activities from a rights based approach. During this period the programme only targeted the most vulnerable learners especially at primary school level. However, strong consideration of

human rights as captured by the constitution compelled the school feeding programme to stretch its horizons to include secondary schools under its wings. Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School became a centre for the provision of food in 2010 through the approval of the provincial Department of Education. It was introduced as a mechanism of maintaining the same learning condition from primary school throughout secondary school. *“It was hard for newly enrolled learners at secondary schools”,* attested the supervisor, *“who were part of the feeding scheme at primary level to study through the day without food... the desire to maintain same learning condition from primary level throughout secondary level facilitated the introduction of the feeding programme at secondary schools of which Tshiwangamatembele is one of the secondary schools”*. Currently the school enrolls 283 learners of which all of them are beneficiaries of the feeding programme.

4.2.2 Stakeholders and their responsibilities

The successful operation of the school feeding programme at Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School is a result of the proficient collaboration and harmonized efforts by diverse participants. Learners are benefiting from the programme through the instrumentality of the supervisor at circuit level, the school principal, food suppliers, educators, voluntary food handlers, and wood providers. The amalgamation of mental and physical prowess of all these participants transformed the overall objective of the NSNP from paper to its practical zenith in the rural areas of Mutale Municipality. These role players upheld their positions in executing their duties as endorsed by the operational code produced by the Department of Education.

4.2.2.1 The supervisor at the circuit level

The overall operation of the school feeding schemes around Tshilamba Circuit in Mutale Municipality is being monitored by the circuit supervisor. The supervisor started working in 2008 and indicated her inclusive responsibility of leading all role players in accordance to the programme principles. As she elaborated *“my responsibility as a supervisor is to work in direct unison with different role players making sure that all responsible individuals are complying with the programme rules... suppliers are to deliver adequate products,*

preparations of food is also to be done according to health principles". Currently 38 schools both primary and secondary schools are under her supervision of which Tshiwangamatembele is one of them. All the reports from these schools are channelled to the supervisor through school coordinators telephonically as well as documented reports. The supervisor indicated *"each school should continually give the updates of all the operation of the program through the telephone and a composed record"*. In this case the supervisor is entitled to align the daily operation of the school feeding programme with its stated objectives

4.2.2.2 Principal

The school principal has an overall managerial duty of the programme at the school level. The principal has a general oversight for the smooth running of the programme in accordance to the NSNP guidelines. She argued *"as far as the feeding programme, I am responsible for all the administration with the assistance of the educators such that learners would continue receiving food here at school"*. Due to the decentralised nature of the programme at school level, the principal is also responsible for nominating the NSNP school coordinator among the educators. Therefore, the principal is relieved from the pressure of supervising the day today activities of the programme such as receiving and recording stock, keeping updated record of all invoices and meals served since it is transferred to the coordinator.

4.2.2.3 Educators

There are two educators connected to the feeding programme, the coordinator and her assistant. These educators coordinate the day to day running of the programme at school level. They are primarily elected to monitor the overall operation of the feeding scheme. As coordinators, they receive products from the suppliers according to the contract covenanted between the provincial Department of Education and the supplier. During the verification process, educators specified their role in aligning the number of products received against the delivery note. Both pointed out the verification of food from the supplier as their main responsibility though they execute various work. *"Upon delivery"* highlighted the coordinator, *"the expiry dates of all products must be cross-checked and*

according to the programme policy, we do not accept any expired food items or food which expires within 3 months from the day of delivery”.

The coordinator pointed out her obligation to convey monthly operational reports to the circuit office. According to the NSNP guidelines, the school coordinator is required to report all problems pertaining to the programme to the supervisor at circuit level either telephonically or by completing a complaint form. The coordinator argued *"as the coordinator here at school, I am committed to constantly give reports of the program operation to the supervisor unfailingly"*. In addition, to the above discourses, the coordinator alluded that they always attend meetings and workshops with different officials and other school coordinators discussing programme related issues as she mentioned *"I sometimes attend meetings and workshops discussing issues pertaining to the programme, specifically to keep us abreast of developments of the programme and empowering us as coordinators with necessary skills to strengthen the results of the programme"*.

4.2.2.4 Volunteer Food Handlers

According to a report by the DOE (2014) community involvement is a priority of the feeding programme. Studies in Brazil and Ghana showed submerging the community members into the day to day manoeuvre of school feeding scheme to be a developmental initiative that empowers socio economically vulnerable local communities. The school appoints two food handlers at a time on a one year contract receiving a monthly payment.

According to an updated NSNP guide for secondary schools produced by the Department of Education, not all people are qualified to be food handlers but unemployed women from the local community possessing good hygienic qualities and also with children at the school are to be nominated for the posts. Presently, there are two women appointed as food handlers and both have two learners attending at the study area. The school appointed only two women as the department stipulated the allocation of 200 learners to each food handler and the school enrolled 283 learners.

All food handlers mentioned packing food upon delivery, cleaning, preparing and serving food as their absolute responsibility in the process of meeting the objectives of the

programme. The food handlers confirmed that they are responsible for packing products from the supplier in the designated store room. One of the food handlers proclaimed “*we pack food in the store room upon arrival and make sure that our store room is also clean. We also clean our kitchen and all cooking utensils every day after serving food to the learners*”. The operation of the programme especially the processing of food at school is expected to be done under high degree of hygiene. Therefore, the circuit office provided a platform where food handlers received necessary training empowering them to create hygienic conditions at their work place

4.2.3 Feeding menus

Food is served in accordance with food menus drafted at the provincial level. The supervisor confirmed that the distribution of food from Monday to Friday is being done according to the laid menus structured by the Limpopo Provincial Department of Education. According to the coordinator at school level, learners receive food during all school days from the beginning to the ending of the year. The school is not entitled to provide food during the holidays and weekends. The programme coordinator at school level deduced a weekly simplified menus timetable from the menu delivered to the school by the provincial authority.

Table 4.6: Feeding scheme menus

Days	Menus		
Monday	Pap	Milk	Fruit
Tuesday	Beans	Samp	Cabbage
Wednesday	Rice	Pilchards Stew	Butternut

Thursday	Pap	Soya Mince	Cabbage
Friday	Beans	Samp	Butternut

Table 4.6 presents the type of food to be served to the learners each day. However learners showed their dissatisfaction with Monday and Thursday menu mentioning that the Department of Education completely negated their local food preference. One of the learners asserted “*they give us milk which is not suitable for use together with pap*”. On this point, 20% of learners indicated their laxity to queue for food every Monday due to the type of food allocated for the day. All educators and food handlers argued in unison that the contents of menus is partly against the local food preference. All learners interviewed indicated Wednesday as a day that they receive their most favourite food.

4.2.4 Food procurement

The centralized procurement model is currently under operation at Tshiwangamatembe. The model entails the delivery of food products to schools by the supplier based on a service level agreement between the supplier and the provincial DBE. A tendering process is used by the provincial office guided by the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act of 2000 (Republic of South Africa, 2000).

The supervisor mentioned that the tender has been accorded to a supplier who resides in Nzhelele and this supplier is responsible for delivering adequate food for the programme. According to the educators, it is not in their capacity to choose the suppliers they want, rather the Provincial authorities always appoint suppliers who dispense all the food stuffs to the school. The assistant coordinator insisted “*It is not our duty to appoint suppliers but we only receive food from them*”. Suppliers are awarded contracts to deliver services to a small or large cluster of schools and are paid by the provincial office (UNICEF, 2008). The principal concurred with the educators that they only receive in the

school account a small amount as remunerations for food handlers and the supply of wood as stipulated by the Department of Education.

However, this method of food procurement at Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School seemed to hinder the success of the programme. According to the supervisor, the tender system is too expensive and the suppliers are failing to comply with the programme rules. She exclaimed *“I witnessed a dismal failure of supplies in delivering proper and adequate food each time since the commencement of the programme. Though these suppliers are failing to deliver, their services are also too expensive”*. This problem, as noted by the supervisor, initiated the provincial office to administer a pilot study inspecting the applicability of the decentralized model in Tshilamba Circuit. The pilot study has been in place for almost four years and the department is still evaluating its effectiveness.

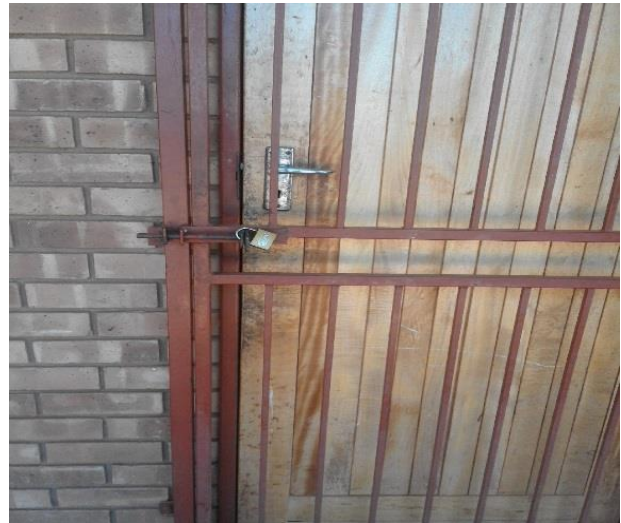
4.2.5 Storage

The recommended storage as conferred by the Department of Education is defined as storage that is well-ventilated, with shelves or desks to allow for food to be placed on an elevated plane (DOB, 2014). The recommendation is a result of the health objectives rooted in the NSNP. The store room at Tshiwangamatembele as witnessed by the researcher surpassed the expected storage recommended by the Department of Education. It does not have shelves but food is placed on uplifted and cloth covered tables to maintain the temperatures required to prolong the duration of perishable products such as cabbages since the school does not have a refrigerator.

Evidence from this research concurred with a report produced by UNICEF in 2008 that most schools in Limpopo Province used one of the classrooms, the head of department's office, student sick rooms, or food handlers' households as store rooms. According to this report, few schools had a proper storage building specifically constructed for the programme. According to the coordinator, *“The school did not receive any funds for storage facilities and we are not able to raise money for the construction of a storeroom, but the hygienic demands of the programme compelled the school to utilise one of the classroom as a store room”*.

In addition, the Department of Education recorded voluminous incidents where intruders stole from the store room in some school (DBE, 2014). Evidence from this research signifies better security measures at the study area. *“Since the feeding programme was launched at this school”,* argued the coordinator, *“We never encountered any incident where we lost our food or utensils due to theft”*. This might be because of the security in place at the school as they always lock the store room. Pictures below show the classroom used for storing food and the security in place at the door.

Fig 4.1: Food storage and the type of security at the door



4.2.6 Preparation

According to the updated NSNP implementation guidelines the school is obliged to select a proper place for all food preparation. The selected preparation and serving place should be adequately ventilated as specified by the programme. The researcher acknowledged the availability of the kitchen ventilated on top and on the sides with corrugated iron sheets constructed explicitly for the programme. The principal noted *“the school managed to construct this kitchen with great consideration of the programme demands”*.

In 2015, the Limpopo Department of Education received complaints of 1 600 learners who, as certified by medical authority fell sick due to consumption of contaminated food.

The Department of Health visited all affected areas assessing the situation and ordered an immediate termination of the feeding programme (Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2016). On this note, the coordinator agreed with the principal that the school has never confronted a scenario of sickness prompted by food contamination. The coordinator exclaimed *“As a way of guaranteeing hygienic conditions, the school established the kitchen far away from harmful potentials which can contaminate the food”*.

Meals are prepared in accordance with the given provincial menus and the safety and hygiene guidelines. The hygienic nature of the programme demanded training of food handlers equipping them with necessary skills required throughout their daily duties. All the food handlers appreciated the training arranged for them as they recognize the importance of the knowledge transferred to them on daily basis. One of the food handlers proclaimed *“the training we received equipped us to make all the preparations according to the programme necessities”*. After cooking, learners make a queue under the supervision of educators to be served from large dishes allocated to the whole school. Learners are given only 30 minutes for eating around the school compound since the school do not have feeding hall. The food handlers argued the necessity of complying with feeding time in a normal day. However, they also indicated the change of feeding time especially during examination days.

Fig 4.2: Tshiwangamatembele kitchen



4.2.7 Garden

School gardens are one of the school feeding scheme pillars in South Africa. They are centred mainly upon the impartation of food production skills to learners and supplementing the feeding scheme with fresh products. The commencement of the feeding programme at Tshiwangamatembele also saw the introduction of the gardening system specifically for producing food to enhance the programme. However this garden never considered the food production skills aimed by the programme as learners did not participate in any gardening activity since its inception. The school employed a gardener to run the production.

Products produced from the garden were used to feed learners while the appointed supplier paid the school. The coordinator pointed out that funds from the garden were used to pay people who supply fire wood for cooking. The operation of the garden depreciated when the supplier failed to pay the school in time and currently the garden is inactive. Given this backdrop, results of the feeding scheme can be hindered by the way the school administers the programme. This study also revealed that the results of the programme sorely depend upon the proper implementation of the programme itself. Evidently, some schools created a partnership with non-governmental organisations and the Department of Agriculture to enhance production skills that would benefit the whole community in the long run.

4.2.8 Wood supplier

The provincial office allocates funds for the procurement of necessary equipment and utensils utilised by the programme. One of the monthly prescribed items is gas for the stove. However, the school is located in the rural area where firewood can be sourced easily hence they do not have stove rather they use fire. Therefore, the funds are channelled to the supply of fire wood. Only one man from the local community has been part of the programme since its inception. However, the programme is not self-sufficient as the school receives inadequate funds for fire wood supply payments. The coordinator argued that *“It is very unfortunate that we always receive insufficient funds for fire wood*

and sometimes the school has to pump out from its coffers to cater for the supply of wood”.

In a nutshell, it is clear from the current operational state that Tshiwangamatembele School has worked in unison with the Department of Education in the implementation process towards meeting the objectives of the programme. However, as the study aimed at evaluating the effects of the programme in addressing food insecurity, the following segment unveiled whether the programme satiated the food security needs of the community.

4.3 POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION OF TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE FEEDING SCHEME IN ADDRESSING RURAL FOOD INSECURITY.

The school feeding scheme is a well-established and funded programme introduced by the government specifically to assuage the predicament of hunger among vulnerable children in South Africa. The school emerged as a catchment area for the government to address the plight of hunger to victims of household food insecurity. The provision of food at schools, even though it focused much on education, elicited many developmental strands in local communities. The programme strategically materialized as a safety net which capacitated family food security prowess by promoting a favourable environment to escape hunger and all its attributes (Sidaner et al, 2013). Inferring from this study, the feeding scheme at Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School created employment to poor local community members, reduced poverty, alleviated hunger, and enhanced nutrition and health education. However, due to operational constraints, it dismally failed to stimulate an enabling platform for local food production and securing market to local farmers.

4.3.1 Employment

The accessibility dimension of food security is largely influenced by individual's disposable income. Thus, literature postulated by Manyamba et al (2012) expagorated unemployment as a foundational aspect on the food insecurity discourse in African rural areas. Therefore, an effective war against food insecurity begins with a direct confrontation against unemployment since it separates individuals from bundles that

have enough food (Sen, 1983). The upshots of this research tallied with views speculated by Sumberg and Sabates Wheeler (2011) on the unwavering capability of the feeding programme in employment creation. The principal confirmed “*the programme currently employed three local individuals comprising of two women working as food handlers and one man delivering firewood to the school*”. The fact that food handlers are contracted for one year means that almost every local mother has a chance to be employed in the operation of the feeding scheme. The Government Gazette (2014) reported that almost 20 percent of South African households are subjected to chronic food insecurity because of unemployment. The supervisor argued “*this programme created employment especially for the uneducated mothers who could spend the rest of their lives without being employed somewhere else*” Thus feeding schemes emerged as a safety net for food insecurity among poor rural population of Dzimauli community as they provided the general populace with cash to purchase food at the household level.

The food handlers appraised the contribution of the monthly amount transferred to them through the programme indicating the improvements on their household daily food consumption. As attested by one of the food handlers “*I am benefiting from this programme because at the end of every month, I receive a certain amount of money that I always channel to the daily food needs of my family*”. It is clear from this view that the operation of the feeding scheme accorded many local mothers real freedom as it unlocked entitlement to bundles with food.

The study reaffirms the idea pointed by Darko (2014: 39) that school feeding assists the creation of job opportunities for semiskilled workers. The programme witnessed a profound impact on employment creation in areas where it had been practiced for many years. The coordinator alluded “there is a total number of 14 local mothers who have so far been on a payroll “*since the inception of the programme at our school*”, the coordinator attested, “*a total number of 14 women have so far benefited from the programme as food handlers*”. Interviews with local parents revealed that most of the women in the community are not employed and many depend upon social grants. This is the point echoed by the STATS-SA (2014) that almost half of the families in the rural areas of Limpopo depend on social grants for their livelihood. Hence the money obtained from the

feeding programme is therefore momentous in alleviating the tide of food insecurity in their households. Among the five parents interviewed, all of them get most of their daily foodstuffs through purchasing and little vegetables from their gardens. Therefore, the feeding programme promotes functioning economic mechanisms that provide means to local community members for gaining purchasing power necessary for survival.

South Africa is undergoing price hiking of basic foodstuffs used on daily basis. The sky rocketing of daily foodstuffs crippled the economic muscles of some rural families and finally subject them to chronic food insecurity. Devereux (2015: 2) validated this assertion by locating seasonal price fluctuations at the central point in propagating food insecurity.. Therefore, the feeding scheme relieved many families in Dzimauli community from food insecurity by promoting employment which eventually uplifted their economic muscles to fight against the escalation of basic foodstuffs. *“The feeding programme”*, proclaimed one of the food handlers, *“gave us an opportunity to be employed and enabled us to get money, it is now possible for us as women to cater for our family needs without depending on someone but resting on our pockets”*. Consequently, it cannot be disputed that the programme created a favourable condition platform for families to feed themselves in dignity by strengthening their economic aptitude.

At this juncture, one could question the magnitude at which the honorary payment given to the workers under the programme can equip them to escape food insecurity. Currently, the price of food stuffs are unabatedly escalating due to a volatile economy. Therefore, the amount allocated to the food handlers and wood supplier seemed to be very little, thereby leaving them at the edge of the system. At this point, it is clear as noted by Sen (1987) that families fall into hunger trap due to failure of the entitlement system in operation to give adequate means of securing food. However, the inadequacy of the payment does not dismiss the importance of the amount of money conveyed to the local community as remittances. One of the food handler broadcasted *“Despite of the payment which is little, my family has benefited much from that amount as I use the cash precisely that it can bring better results in my family”*. This gap will be supplemented by the grant system since almost half of the families in Limpopo are grant holders (South African statistics, 2014).

4.3.2 Poverty reduction

It is an assumption that poor children are likely to drop out of school due to hunger without a single qualification and ultimately likely to be unemployed. This perpetuates intergenerational cycles of poverty within poor families in our societies (Devereux et al, 2010). There are some postulations that feeding schemes act as incentives to children who come to school and therefore are mechanisms pulling poor learners who might drop out of school due to social problems such as hunger to educational institutions. Based on these presumptions, the supervisor corresponded with the view that feeding programmes provide an incentive for poor children, to attend school and ultimately possess some educational qualification which to some extent endowed them with employment opportunities and thus breaking the cycle of poverty. The supervisor argued *“the contribution of the programme in attracting learners to school is beyond controversy, I have been checking reports from different schools and noted that the programme draws many learners who could have been street kids and now some of them have gained education that can help them in this competitive world”*.

A study conducted by De Cook et al (2013) in the rural areas of Limpopo Province identified intensified household food insecurity challenges during the past years due to cumulative poverty. Therefore, a comprehensive strategy in addressing household food insecurity shelters issues associated with poverty. Literature identified education as a driving force for economic development through the creation of a dynamic and competent workforce in the global economy. All parents interviewed praised the effectiveness of the feeding scheme in providing a platform where their learners are taught with great alertness in class. *“We appreciate the government for giving our children food at school because it is giving them energy to concentrate and work hard in their classes”* argued one of the guardians.

All learners also advocated the continuation of feeding scheme welcoming the impact it has on their ability to be attentive in class. One learner insisted *“the food that I receive here at school allows me to pay much attention in class, surely without energy transferred by the food it is very difficult to concentrate in class and finally I will not pass my matric*

examination". All of them pointed the necessity of energy in their studies. Therefore, the provision of food at Tshiwangamatembe Secondary School met the demands of learners as it provided food necessary for their energy needs in studying. The establishment of a favourable podium to learners automatically induces better outcome in their studies.

The principal also applauded the programme for its educational implications as she identified improvements in learners' pass rate due to the introduction of feeding scheme. At this juncture, it is imperative to acknowledge the contribution of other factors to educational improvements as well. The principal also pointed teachers' experience, technological advancement, and a changing learning environment brought by new buildings as some of the factors paved a way for educational improvements. The principal argued "*The provision of food slightly elevated the performance of our learners and we cannot negate the importance of some of the advancement we made at the school specifically to improve their performance*". The findings of this study is supported by the research conducted by Acheampong (2014) in KZN, results indicated a steady rise in educational achievement succeeding the inception of feeding programme. Results from studies conducted in Ghana indicated a certain degree of learners' physical and mental brightness in class incited by the provision of meals at school (Atta and Manu, 2015). Therefore, it is a plausible conclusion based on this research that the feeding scheme presented an enabling environment for the mental development of children.

This has been also supported by Devereux et al (2010) that feeding scheme prepares an environment where individuals can achieve a good educational qualification. Better qualifications likely entitle an individual to be competent in the economic system thereby exterminating poverty among community members. Generally, the availability of favourable learning environments elicits better educational results hence feeding schemes added value in the promotion of a better learning platform. Even though the study does not have empirical evidence but respondents and other studies agreed that the feeding scheme contributed to educational success which enable individual to gain access to competitive economy.

4.3.3 Hunger alleviation

Consistent with the views postulated by Devereux (2015) and McLaren et al (2015) the study acknowledged reducing hunger as the central objective of the feeding scheme achieved by offering adequate nutritional food to children. Inferring from the above statement, the school feeding scheme addressed the accessibility domain of the food security especially among learners. The learners were asked whether the feeding scheme should be terminated and all of them (100%) voted against the proposition implying the impact of the provision upon their wellbeing. Some learners (40%) indicated that they sometimes eat their first meal at school and partake their last meal in the evening at home. *“Sometimes I come to school in the morning without eating anything at home and the food that we get at school will be my breakfast and lunch at the same time”* said one of the learners. Therefore, the impact of the programme in addressing hunger among school learners cannot be underestimated.

Grantham-McGregor (2005) hailed the idea of food take home parcels as a greater incentive to extremely poor rural communities. Deducing from this view, the feeding programme at the study area provided take home parcels especially at the end of the month depending on the availability of surplus. The coordinator argued *“we normally give soya mince and 1 litre of milk to all learners that they can take those parcels to their domiciles. The amount given to each learner depends on the quantity of food available at that moment”*. All parent respondents acknowledged and cherished the contribution of the programme as it delivered parcels which allowed the expansion of the household food basket thereby protecting the low income rural families from becoming victims of price hikes.

However, the conveyance of small quantity of food to learners currently impedes the alleviation of hunger as the main objective of the school feeding scheme. The principal, educators, food handlers, and all learners argued in unison that the governmental budget needs to be revisited such that food quantity can be increased. The coordinator said, *“There should be strong efforts applied by the government on the amount of food to be given to each learner. We are experiencing a gradual decrease of the quantity of supplies*

year after year and currently it gives me a mental headache calculating the quantity to be served per day such that the food might be enough for the whole month”.

In addition, the study revealed that learners do not fully partake some products which are delivered by the supplier which ultimately places the programme at stake as a vehicle of hunger extenuation. Learners do not prefer consuming fresh milk and soya due to local food culture. One learner argued *“I do not prefer eating pap with fresh milk and soya so I sometimes choose not to queue for the food the day they offer such foodstuff”*. The coordinator supported these ideas as she exclaimed *“the surplus that we get at the end of the month do not mean that the suppliers deliver more than the food required, it is because most of the learners does not prefer these foodstuffs especially milk so at the end we give them as take home products”*. Nevertheless, the provision of food at Tshiwangamatembe Secondary School boosted consumption level of learners as they eat food both at school and at home.

Fig 4.3: Non-preferable food, Milk and soya



4.3.4 Nutrition and health skills

The feeding programme is mandated to consider strengthening nutrition education for the school communities in its operation (McLaren et al, 2015). The evolution of the feeding scheme was an attempt to meet the comprehensive nutritious needs of the beneficiaries. There is a general consensus among researchers on feeding schemes in South Africa that its food addressed the nutritious demands of children. The food offered by the programme progressively improved the nutrition of learners through the consumption of fruits, fish and vegetables. The coordinator indicated *“This programme is benefiting our learners here at school in terms of nutrition as they are receiving some nutritious food which they may not normally get at home”*. Fruits like oranges, apples and bananas which are offered provide nutrients to curb malnutrition.

The provision of nutritious food conscientized both learners and food handlers to the utilization dimension of food security. The study found that both learner and educator respondents believed that the school feeding programme improved their nutrition knowledge. All food handlers appreciated nutritional knowledge imparted to them through the preparation of food at school. As one of the food handler applauded *“From the menu which guides us in preparing food for the learners, I now understand the importance of including different kind of food in our daily meals even at home”*. This entails that the programme has transferred nutritional values to the larger part of the community since 14 women has already served as food handlers at Tshiwangamatembele secondary school. Indirectly learners are being cognizant of nutritional values through the diversified food provided to them. The study therefore concurred with the ideas heralded by Drake et al (2012) that the school feeding programmes provides a conducive platform for delivering health and nutritional intervention to children and the community.

Literature on nutrition by David et al (2008) also noted the direct provision of nutritional knowledge at schools as an effective investment in food security attainment. At a broad extent, the training of every food handler and experience accrued through the contracted period automatically equips the community with nutrition and health standards. One of the food handlers commended *“I was trained at Tshilamba Circuit before I started this*

work, and they provided knowledge pertaining to the running of the programme in terms of hygiene, cooking and distribution of food... much attention was given to hygiene of which I always apply those practices even at home". In this case, the experience encountered by food handlers throughout their contracts empowered them with skills for monitoring their health standards that would benefit their family and community at large.

However, there is no clear avenue which channel the learners to a direct transfer of skills based on nutrition as captured in the national report by UNICEF (2008) after an evaluation of the programme. Findings showed the integration of nutritional education into the curricula activities as part of life skill at schools

4.3.5 Access to markets

The provision of food at school in every community provides an enabling environment where local farmers can establish their markets (Gelli *et al*, 2010). It is a mechanism which promotes the development and vast expansion of local farmers. The researcher interviewed surrounding local smallholder farmers soliciting the extent to which feeding scheme created a conducive environment for their productive growth. All farmers who participated in the research indicated their exclusion in the food chain, thereby leaving a gap between the local farmers and the operation of the feeding scheme. The research revealed the absence of a link between the scheme and local farmers, leaving them without access to market. One farmer articulated *"this feeding programme does not cater for us as farmers in this community but we always see trucks coming to deliver the food and they are even delivering some of the products that we produce around here"*.

The programme failed to create an enabling environment for markets to local farmers due to a gap which separated the local farmers and the feeding programme. The researcher identified the food procurement model in operation at the study area as an impediment which excludes the involvement of local farmers into the programme. The tender system adapted by Limpopo Province in delivering food to schools has compromised the objective of creating markets for local farmers. The centralized model welcomed the use of middlemen who buy products away from the community thereby negating the needs of local farmers. The coordinator argued that the programme

espoused the tender system since its introduction in 2010 and never empowered the local farmers in terms of markets provision from its inception. *“Since the beginning of the feeding programme at our school”, the coordinator articulated, “we never engaged with local farmers but only the middlemen who just bring their products”.* This idea was corroborated by the unpublished study conducted by Zwane in 2014 at Jozin Local Municipality which also proved that the implementation modalities based on centralized contracts failed to offer markets to local farmers.

Even though the implementation of the programme does not accommodate small farm holder, but it has the opportunity of creating freedom that the farmers can have access to sell their produce to the school thereby combating the plight of food insecurity at the local level. This is the view supported by the supervisor mentioning the possibility of changing the current operation in terms of the food procurement model to accommodate local family farming. The supervisor enunciated *“we are currently running a project of evaluating the effective of including local farmers in the programme since the existing food model is hampering the purpose of the school feeding scheme in terms of promoting local small holder farmers”.* Deducing from this study, incorporating local farmers into the food supply chain is the absolute strategy which provides ready markets for locally produced foodstuffs. The accessibility of markets to poor local farmers would improve their income level and ultimately reduce local food insecurity. According to Manyamba et al (2012) individuals in rural areas are victims of food insecurity due to shortage of purchasing power which is weakened by limited scope of income opportunities. Therefore, a change in food procurement model is a foundational step towards the improvement of wealth to the local community since it provides stabilized markets.

According to Sen (1993) Neumayer (2012) the major agenda of any assistance programme such as a feeding scheme must include mechanisms for enabling sustained expansion of human capabilities through removing obstacles in their lives so that they have more freedom to achieve their goals. In this case the tender system blocked the opportunity in which local community can improve their amount of money to cater for their daily needs by creating market opportunity. Cabbages, beans, rice, onions, tomatoes, pumpkins are products which the local farmers can provide to schools.

4.3.6 Enhance food production

According to WFP (2013) there is growing excitement around the idea that school feeding programmes that use food produced and purchased locally, have the potential of boosting food production within the community. In the light of ideologies proposed by Devereux (2015), one of the objectives of school feeding programmes as a food security instrument is the promotion of local food production. Feeding schemes are used as instruments in strengthening local family farming in many countries through purchasing local small farm holders products. Currently there exist no nexus between the operation of the Tshiwangamatembele feeding scheme and local food production. The supervisor commended, *“the programme is not supporting local farming since the middleman are purchasing their products from outside the community”*. According to this study the feeding scheme does not promote a viable environment that enables the production of food at local level. According to van der Merwe (2011), many South African families have insufficient food supplies principally because of their incapability to produce enough food within the family circles. Thus Sen (1998) advocated for the development of policies around the feeding scheme which enables the production of food at household level.

The findings concurred with the Government Gazette (2014), which highlighted that limited opportunities for smallholder farmers to gain access to markets blocked their full participation in food production hence the availability dimension of food security at household level remained unaddressed. Therefore, combating food insecurity around Dzimauli rural community through feeding schemes should involve swelling family food productive level by purchasing their produce. Purchasing rural family products allows them to buy more farming inputs that would enable production expansion. These views can be validated by considering the assertion of another farmer *“I wish to produce a lot of products until my land is finished, but the major problem is the lack of stable market where I deliver my products at a uniform rate... I am not courageous enough to take a risk by purchasing more specialised inputs since I am not sure whether the profits will cover all input expenses”*.

It is clear from the findings that the food procurement model adopted by the Limpopo Province is not conducive for boosting the local food production. The circuit coordinator

posited that it is only a small number of individuals who supply food to the schools as stipulated under the provincial tender contracts. The researcher conducted some interviews with the local farmer checking their production ability, whether they possess the capacity to produce products enough for the operation of the programme throughout the year. One farmer argued, *“I can supply any kind of product required by the schools throughout the year but currently there is no reason to fully participate in farming since we lack reliable market opportunities”*. Among five local farmers interviewed, three of them have enough land and are connected to farming groups where they meet four times a year for educational purposes at Tshilamba Circuit. One farmer mentioned *“It is possible to raise our production level especially of food required, to meet the demand of the school feeding scheme around this community using our groups”*. Currently local farmers can produce good products as shown below.

Fig 4.4: local small farms



Case studies in other nations proved the sustainability of local food production enhanced by linking local farming and feeding schemes. In Ivory Coast the government focuses on helping smallholder farmers residing around schools. The programme creates a platform which enables the smallholders to increase productivity as they fight progressively to meet the requirements of feeding programme (Drake *et al*, 2012). Sidaner *et al*, (2013) argue that Brazilian zero hunger strategy promoted the infusion of local family farming into the school feeding scheme where local farmers supply food to schools which

ultimately dwindles the number of families affected with hunger. The success of NEPAD's School Feeding Programme in stimulating local production through the purchase of locally produced food for schools is one of the case which prove the viability of feeding scheme (NEPAD, 2005). Finally, the establishment of HGSFP in Ghana with a link to local groups of farmers (FBOs) is one of the evidence signifying the profound effects of feeding schemes to food production.

One of the leading NSNP objectives is to promote and support food production and improve food security in school communities through the establishment of gardening system (McLaren et al, 2015). The supervisor mentioned the responsibility of the school to establish its garden as a vehicle to food production. The supervisor mentioned that *"it is the responsibility of each school to establish the garden where production skills are imparted to learners for the promotion of local food production"*. The researcher noted the barren garden at the school. The primary factor that worsens the inactivity of the garden as revealed by the assistant coordinator is the results emanating from the products. The garden flourished during the first years after the provision of feeding scheme and depreciated as the programme progressed as she explicated, *"We used to produce good cabbages, carrots, onions and tomatoes supplementing the programme at this school while we got some remuneration from the suppliers, but they later failed to pay us and our garden started to go down"*.

In conclusion, the school feeding scheme addressed some issues which cover multidimensional food insecurity such as poverty, hunger, unemployment, lack of education, and nutritional and health values to the community. However, the implementation strategies largely blocked the programme's impact on the production of food as well as the creation of market to local farmers.

4.4 CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME

As a right based approach, the feeding scheme managed to address some of the issues encompassing the plight of food insecurity in the rural community of Mutale Municipality. Notwithstanding the above progressive influences, the programme also suffered some

setbacks which negatively impacted the community at large. Lack of collaboration with partners, lack of link with local farmers, failure of the programme to link meals with local food preferences are some of the challenges identified by this research.

4.4.1 Collaboration with development partners.

The study identified a big gap in the operation of the feeding scheme. Collaboration with other developmental partners is lacking since the inception of the programme at Tshiwangamatembele. One fundamental aspect that enhances the feeding programme as proposed by the DOE (2014) is its capability to collaborate with different developmental stakeholders such as the health sector and non-governmental organisations. According to the report shared by the principal, the feeding scheme is operating in isolation of other developmental partners at the school level. *“As the school”, argued the principal, “we are not working with any organisation in the day to day running of the programme”.* The health sector is only contributing through training the food handlers on hygienic principles. Therefore, this gap reduced the potential impact of the feeding scheme in addressing food insecurity at a rural level. The success of the PNAE feeding scheme in Brazil has been attributed to the support given by the national constitution, national policies, non-governmental organisations and the contribution of the Food Procurement Programme (FPG) provided by the Ministry of Agriculture through training of local farmers (Espejo et al, 2009).

4.4.2 Link with local farmers

The integration of local farmers into the feeding programme is the most crucial achievement for the effective outcome especially in the food production circles. The greatest aspect that thwarted the promotion of food production at local level at the study area is the failure of the feeding scheme to link its operation with local producers. The procurement model mentioned by the coordinator does not incorporate local producers rather, suppliers are delivering products from an unknown source by the school. All the local farmers interviewed showed their capability as a group to supply the required cereals to the school throughout the year. One farmer exclaimed *“I am producing different*

crops at a small scale due to shortage of stable market where my crops can be bought quickly. Perishable products rot quickly, so I need a stable market to produce more”.

This is the concept behind Home Grown School Feeding (HGSF), operated in Ghana, which facilitated the formation of active groups (FBOs) of women producing products for the school at local level. This is the point advanced by the UNHTF (2005) that the use of locally produced food in the implementation of the feeding scheme create a favourable platform for a quick win in combating poverty and hunger. It is clear that the feeding schemes provide an opportunity to prioritise agricultural objectives which are major instruments to zero hunger strategy.

4.4.3 Local food preferences

The coordinator mentioned the allocation of food to each school by the provincial office without an understanding of the local food preferences as one of the problems that hinders the feeding scheme target of hunger reduction. She attested *“the ignorance of local food preferences by the Department of Education when drafting daily menus thwarted the objectives of the programme since learners always refuse to eat some of the food provided”*. All learners argued in unison against the provision of milk and soya as part of their meals. One of the learners complained *“we are not used to eat soya and even milk together with pap... this kind of meal sometimes force us to abscond from the food”*. Upon interviewing learners, they indicated the unpleasant taste produced by soya and milk offered since they do not usually partake it at their homes. Food handlers always witness a lower number of learners when they offer milk and soya. The study noted the inclusion of food culture in the programme as a factor of utmost importance. Consequently, the coordinator argued in parallel with Sidaner et al (2013) that the provincial office must respect local culture, food habits, and nutritional requirements when drafting daily menus for each school.

4.4.4 Late payments of food handlers

This study revealed late payment haunting the programme since its inception. According to the operation of the programme in Limpopo, the Provincial office pay the food handlers

through the school account. The school is then mandated to settle the food handler's payments. All food handlers argued concurrently with the coordinator that their date of payment is unpredictable due to the instability of their funds. The coordinator's assistant confirmed late payments as a crucial grievance to be attended to immediately because food handlers depend upon this amount for their welfare. The assistance argued *"we used to compensate or sometimes console the food handlers with the remaining food especially at the end of the month, but now it is difficult to give them food since the food is not enough also for the learners"*. This aspect is a matter of concern since it increases food handlers' susceptibility to food insecurity.

4.4.5 Amount of food

The quantity of the food given to learners was also of utmost importance on this research. The coordinator pointed the reduction of the amount of food they receive as a problem which needs special attention by the provincial office. She stated *"I witnessed the decline of the quantity of food each year since the beginning of this programme. Currently the students are not getting enough food to maintain them through the day"*. The coordinator indicated the complexity associated with little food as she has to calculate the daily amount to be cooked such that the food can be sufficient for the whole month. Among the parents interviewed, 100% of them indicated that their children are now complaining about the quantity of the food given to them.

The learners also argued parallel to the views of the coordinator that the programme is continually reducing the amount of food year after year. All the learners pleaded for the increase of the quantity arguing that the current amount does not satisfy them. One learner stated *"the amount of food that we get now is completely different from the amount that we received when they introduce the programme at this school"*. Apart from that, the food handlers also recognized the necessity of increasing the quantity of the food being served to the learners. Based on the information from the study area, it is a plausible assertion that the feeding scheme has reduced the amount of food and this reduction is not only affecting the learners but the coordinator and the food handlers also. The coordinator have to calculate the amount of every product in order to have a daily

meal for the whole month, cooks also are also mandated to apportion food to all 283 learners per day regardless of how small the food is.

Fig 4.5: Food given to learners



4.4.6 Inadequate workers

The researcher identified shortage of workers as a challenge that requires attention. The operation of the feeding scheme comprised of different strenuous activities from offloading food throughout the whole process up to serving the food. The coordinator pointed the calculations associated with the programme as the main issue that needs intervention since the programme is reducing the amount of food. She has to attend to the educational needs of the learners and the needs of the programme concurrently. *“I think the demand of the daily operation of the feeding programme can be properly addressed if the department can employ an individual responsible only for the programme at school level. It is hard for me to respond to both educational and programme needs concurrently”*. This scenario requires the provincial office to deploy an individual responsible for all calculations and reports that the educators can focus much on classes. Shortage of staff has also been reported in Free State, Eastern Cape and Kwazulu Natal as negatively impacting the upshots of the programme (UNICEF, 2008).

4.4.7 Delivery problems

Poor delivery proved to be an outstanding issue surrounding the feeding programme which deprive learners' access to the provision of food at schools. The government embarked on feeding schemes as a way of addressing the right to food for most vulnerable people. The enjoyment of the learners' right to food is being disrupted by the suppliers who fail to deliver enough food always. Many schools have reported the unreliability of suppliers in conveying food to its destination. Tshiwangamatembebe Secondary School is also a direct victim of delivery failures by its suppliers. The programme coordinator stated *"we always have confrontations with suppliers in terms of inadequate food delivery, delivery failures and the delivery of expired products are major problems surrounding this programme"*. The principal also admitted food shortages especially during the beginning and end of term due to delivery failures. The food handlers also complained about food supply shortages, as indicated by one of them, *"sometimes we do not prepare food because the suppliers always fail to give us food in time and as a result learners will not eat"*. Given this information, problems associated with delivery seemed to be a disrupting disadvantage of the tender system as it produces a deleterious effect upon the operation of the programme.

The supervisor stressed the non-compliance of suppliers in delivering products as a major setback which disturbed the smooth running of the programme. *"All suppliers that we dealt with under this tender system,"* commented the supervisor, *"have witnessed a failure in delivering adequate food in time. Due to this issue, the department responded by administering a pilot study designed to assess the effectiveness of decentralized food procurement model which has been going on for almost four years among most schools around Tshilamba Circuit"*. This research affirms a report compiled by the Parliament of the Republic of South Africa (2016) that almost 38 034 learners failed to receive food in 2014 because of non-delivery in Limpopo Province.

4.4.8 Implementation failure

In any given programme, reliable results stem from effective implementation. Proper implementation is enriched by effective monitoring and evaluation technics. The success of the Brazil feeding scheme (PNAE) as proclaimed by Sidaner et al, (2013) largely rested upon the establishment of proper mechanisms which monitor the quality of operation and control the use of resources in compliance with the rules established by law.

According to the school coordinator, there is no proper evaluation and monitoring of the programme. She indicated *“Representatives from the circuit and provincial office normally visit our school sometimes once a year to evaluate the operation of the programme, but since the beginning of this year nothing has been done as a mechanism for evaluating the success of the programme”*. Even though workshops and meetings are attended and a complaint form is provided but it is not enough for turning the objectives of the programme into practice. Against this backdrop, lack of effective monitoring and evaluation brooded an environment for the hatching of all the fore mentioned challenges. Therefore, the programme needs proper monitoring techniques for it to reach its potential.

4.5 Summary

The above chapter unravelled the current operation of the feeding scheme at Tshiwangamatembe Secondary School with the central objective of identifying the propensity of the programme in confronting the chronic food insecurity engulfed the community. The chapter noted that the current operational state of the programme unbolted an entrance for the employment of local community members specifically as cooks and firewood suppliers. This greatly boosted the economic conditions of local citizenry. It also improved food consumption of learners as well as relieving the community from poverty. However, the programme confronted a notable failure in exterminating food insecurity mainly because of implementation constraints. The researcher concluded the chapter with a promulgation of challenges experienced by the programme that largely inhibited its success in eradicating rural food insecurity.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The study sought to determine the effects of the school feeding programme in ensuring household food security in the rural community of Mutale Municipality. In this case the obtained results are an appropriate foundation in formulating recommendations pliant for a rural setting on how the programme can be effectively supported to alleviate food insecurity. This section accentuated an overview of the whole study considering specific steps undertaken and an overall summary of the research findings as well. It also highlighted some recommendations which can fuel the improvement of the programme if attended to. The researcher finally concluded on how the feeding programme addressed the concept of food insecurity based on the information provided by the respondents at Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School.

5.1 An overview of research findings

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the effects of the school feeding scheme in addressing food insecurity in the rural areas. The researcher delved into this purpose by analysing the current state of the school feeding scheme at the study area, whether the programme opened an entrance for attaining food security. Currently the programme made some narrow efforts to incorporate ideologies suitable for food security. However the overall operation of the feeding scheme at Tshiwangamatembele Secondary School limitedly provided a platform which erodes all impediments for the community members to escape food insecurity

The programme however managed to fulfil its objectives of providing food to a specific targeted people. This food provision stimulated better food security results even though at a minimum magnitude. The feeding school opens the accessibility domain of the food security to learners and the community at large. Meals served at school and take home milk parcels somewhat raised the family food basket and ultimately reduced the susceptibility of almost the whole community to hunger.

In addition, several studies have established the significance of education, as school supplementary feeding programmes managed to bring children back into school by pulling them out of hunger. Other researchers also identified an upsurge in enrolment level augmented by the provision of food at school. Linked to educational achievements, the programme improved the academic performance of the learners even though the researcher acknowledged other contributory factors. Generally, hunger increase constraints in the development of mental faculties of children hence the provision of food at school promoted freedom for children to achieve their educational goals. This educational achievement eventually uplifted their chances of being absorbed into a competitive economy.

The impact of the programme is not only felt by learners but also by their parents and broader communities. The subjection of voluntary food handlers to training before their engagement in the programme and the experience gained during the full contract benefited the whole society. The knowledge and experience gained while working in the kitchen improved the health and safety of the community in general. Additionally, unemployment robs individuals of adequate financial resources necessary for purchasing foodstuffs and largely subjects the general poor rural populace to food insecurity. Feeding schemes entitled some community members to food bundles through the creation of employment as food handlers and wood supplier.

Nonetheless, the goal of increasing food production at household level and providing ready market for local foodstuffs thereby creating wealth for poor households was defeated by the way the programme is operated. The centralized food procurement model which involves the tendering system significantly swallowed the capacity of the feeding scheme in addressing food security since it excluded the involvement of local farmers into the programme. Therefore, the programme failed to create an enabling environment for poor local farmers. Reinforcing local food production as one of the major food security goal linked to the feeding scheme was defeated by the food procurement model.

Despite the reimbursements stimulated by the feeding scheme, the programme still suffers some setbacks which need proper intervention to enhance food security in the

rural areas. Currently the meals served at the study area are established and scheduled by the Department of Education at the provincial level without considering local food preferences. The study identified the allocation of food served at school by the provincial office without an understanding of the local food preferences as one of the problems that hinders the feeding scheme target of hunger reduction.

Failure to collaborate the programme with other sectors such as the Department of Agriculture, the health sector and non-governmental programmes reduced the impact of the feeding scheme in promoting food security. Apart from that, lack of link with local producers is one of the setbacks which reduced the effectiveness of the programme. Finally, poor delivery and the reduction of food amount yearly also proved to be an outstanding issue surrounding the feeding programme which deprives learners' accessibility to food bundles.

5.2 Conclusion

Feeding hungry children at school is one of the foundations for comprehensive and even-handed programme that can facilitate sustainable development in our rural communities. As indicated in this research, feeding schemes address not only the symptoms associated with hunger, but also some of the underlying discourses which hinder freedom of the right to food. School feeding schemes can have a transformative role and contribute to long term inclusive and equitable growth while simultaneously enhancing resistance against natural and human induced disasters as well as socio economic crisis.

School feeding schemes can play a pivotal role in freeing people from food insecurity, they can address various forms of susceptibility at community levels stretching from lack of education, shortage of food, unemployment, poverty, lack of food production, and many more. Feeding schemes also promote opportunities for individuals and societies to overcome constraints of their full participation in the productive system in a rapidly changing socio-economic context.

The main problem that this research identified is the inadequacy of social safety nets programmes implemented by the government and voluntary organizations to alleviate

food insecurity in rural areas. The government in its capacity is failing to offer a satisfactory and holistic approach to solve this problem of the inadequacy of safety nets. The government had several social safety nets which are designed to deal with problems of vulnerability to food insecurity. However, the main objectives of this study were to venture into an understanding of the current state of the feeding schemes as a governmental safety net and to determine the role played by the programme in addressing food insecurity at a rural setting.

Inferring from this study, the researcher concludes that the school feeding scheme slightly changed the susceptibility situation of Dzimauli community. The programme achieved minimal results as it confronted implementation constraints which ruined its capability to empower individuals with skills and the creation of an enabling environment necessary for food security. Deducing from the study, the researcher corresponded with views chronicled by Sen (1999) that an effectual food insecurity combat calls for efforts exerted towards the eradication of major sources that impede freedom such as poor economic opportunities which brood family susceptibility to food insecurity.

Positive results are most likely to be obtained if different stakeholders such as the Department of Agriculture and NGOs, collaborate with the Department of Education in the implementation process. It is clear from the study that the department of education at provincial level is increasingly expected to take a leading role in developing effective school feeding schemes for its citizens, in a way that attracts the participation of other stakeholders. Therefore, it is imperative that the state and its voluntary stakeholders work together to carry out a comprehensive review of the school feeding and come up with a more integrated and inclusive feeding schemes that meet the food security needs of the community.

5.3 Recommendations

The government need to rebuild a strong and reliable school feeding scheme which positively improve the welfare of its citizens especially in rural areas. As the food crises in rural areas is continuing, it is essential that systematic planning for feeding schemes be fully implemented by the state together with the civil society. The study posed some recommendations directly to future researchers, the community and the government to strengthen the programme.

5.3.1 Future Research

Monitoring and evaluation of the programme seemed to be of non-importance. Further studies therefore are being recommended evaluating monitoring mechanism in place. This will necessitate each office, where the feeding scheme is housed, to take responsibility for the accomplishment of the programme goals. Cases in Brazil, Ghana and other places ascertained the empowering capability of the programme through the creation of a conducive environment for community members to escape hunger. Therefore, a study targeted on monitoring and evaluation techniques will guarantee proper results.

Numerous studies highlighted late deliveries and poor quality of food by the allocated suppliers. In conformity with various studies, the researcher identified problems associated with delivery as of utmost importance since it weakened the progression of the programme. Therefore, there is a need for researchers to explore the capability of suppliers in delivering the right quality and quantities of food at all times. It will also encompass the number of schools to which each supplier can consistently distribute food according to the proposed contract.

The study also recommends further studies on the sustainability and applicability of the decentralized food procurement model in rural areas. The model as attested by the Brazilian feeding scheme, promotes local food production and the creation of markets for smallholder farmers thereby entitling families to food bundles. Considerations are to be

accorded to the local farming system exploring its ability to consistently produce all required products throughout the year.

5.3.2 Community

The programme does possess the potential to erode the upheavals associated with food shortage in our community. However, the cooperation of the community is the groundwork underpinning the effectiveness of any developmental initiatives. The implementation of the feeding scheme is directed to citizens of the society, hence a comprehensive effort has to be exerted within the society. Establishment of local farmers' cooperation is a profound step before the inclusion of locally produced food in the programme. The establishment of farming groups in the community would allow stakeholders in the programme to work hand in hand with local farmers to ensure the production of enough foodstuffs. This will create a truly enabling environment for the development of a sustainable school feeding that would promote food security in our community. Sulemana *et al*, (2013) supported this idea indicating that the establishment of structured groups may draw the attention of donors to support them in terms of credit facilities and incentives to increase food production.

5.3.3 Policy markers

The study advocated for the amalgamation of different stakeholders in the implementation of the programme as a way of yielding expanded upshots. The transformation of governmental resources channelled towards the programme practicality requires a strong partnership between governmental and non-governmental organisations.

The absorption of nutritional education into the school curriculum irrespective of the setting of the school is a necessity for reaching the benefit intended by the programme. The impartation of nutritional education to learners will lead to the empowerment of the whole community with nutritional values.

The study also recommends rigorous efforts by the provincial office to encompass local communities in supplying food at the schools by substituting the centralized system with a decentralized food procurement model. This replacement is significantly a local

economic initiative which will enhance the capability of local citizens to escape food insecurity. The researcher, however, speculated pressure associated with this food procurement shift therefore to be exercised with great caution to yield better results. The current food procurement system completely excluded the participation of local farmers in the food chain. The introduction of a decentralized system will expand freedom especially to local farmers hence a profound step in developing rural communities (Sen, 1999).

The modification of the feeding basket especially in rural schools is necessary to meet the local food preferences. Therefore, this study recommends the drafting of school meals in accordance to the local food culture. It is the responsibility of the provincial authority to design meals considering the dietary needs of the local community.

Various reports identified food shortages at schools due to non-delivery by the suppliers. It is therefore of great importance to recommend that suppliers should be capacitated by the provincial Departments of Education to carry out their tasks effectively and efficiently in accordance with the stipulation of their contracts.

The role of the state is particularly important in this regard as the state must ensure existence of adequate institutional and regulatory frameworks as well as ensure that people are aware of their rights and entitlements in this field. There is also need to provide a coherent policy and programme framework for linking social protection to the broader economic development programmes, including social and poverty assessment of all programmes. Finally, it is important that the Department of Education can establish a tight mechanism for monitoring the operation of the whole programme especially at school level. Hence the department is recommended to develop an effective monitoring system for proper results.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Informed Consent



School of Human and Social Sciences

Department of African Studies-Sociology section

Dear participant

My name is Daitai Ellia, a research student at the University of Venda who is currently registered for a Master's degree in Sociology in the Department of African Studies, under the School of Human and Social Sciences. I am conducting a research on investigating the effects of school feeding programmes in addressing food insecurity in the rural areas of Mutale municipality, Limpopo province in South Africa. I am requesting for your participation in this study. Any information you provide will be very helpful to the study and will be treated as confidential. Please note that your participation in this study is strictly voluntary, which therefore implies that you can choose to pull out for any reason personal to you.

RESEARCH INFORMATION

Principal researcher: Daitai Ellia

Mobile no: 0783756977

Email: elijadaitai@gmail.com/elijadat@yahoo.com.

Supervisor: Dr Tshifhumulo

Mobile no: 0845895987

Email: Rendani.Tshifhumulo2@univen.ac.za

Co-supervisor: Dr MH Mukwevho

Mobile no: 0839667905

Email: Harry.mukwevho@univen.ac.za

Signature of Researcher _____ Date_____

I..... have read and understood the contents of this invitation to participate in this study. I hereby confirm my voluntary consent to participate in the study.

Respondent signature _____ Date_____

Appendix 2: A letter requesting permission from the department of education

University of Venda
Box X5050
Thohoyandou

The Manager
Department of Education
Thohoyandou
0950

17 August 2016

Dear Sir

Request for approval to conduct a research at Tshiwangamatembele secondary school

I, Ellia Daitai, am doing Master of Arts in Sociology at the University of Venda under the Department of African studies. I am currently pursuing a research entitled “The effects of school feeding scheme in addressing food security in the rural areas of Mutale municipality”. The objectives of the study are as follow:

- ❖ To investigate the current state of the school feeding programme in the rural areas of Mutale Municipality
- ❖ To determine the contribution of the school feeding programme addressing food insecurity in the rural areas
- ❖ To identify gaps and the challenges related to feeding programme in the rural areas.

I therefore extend my humble request for approval to conduct a research study at Tshiwangamatembele of which necessary ethical considerations will be respected for the safety of participants.


A positive response is always appreciated

Yours faithfully

E Daitai

0783756977

Appendix 3: A letter of approval from the Department of Education

**LIMPOPO**
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION
VHEMBE DISTRICT
CONFIDENTIALITY

REF: 14/7/R
ENG: MAGUGUMELA J
TEL: 015 962 1029

E.DAITAI
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
PRIVATE BAG X5050
THOHOYANDOU
0950

01 AUGUST 2016

**REQUEST FOR APPROVAL TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH:
TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE SECONDARY SCHOOL**

1. The above matter refers.
2. You are hereby informed that your request for permission to conduct research titled, **"The effects of school feeding scheme in addressing food security in the rural areas of Mutale municipality has been granted"**.
3. We appreciate your commitment to ensure confidentiality, anonymity and voluntary participation by research subjects.
4. Kindly inform Circuit Manager and Principals of selected Schools prior to commencing your data collection.
5. Ensure that your research activities do not disturb teaching and learning in the schools.
6. Wishing you the best in your study.


DISTRICT DIRECTOR


15/08/2016
DATE

REQUEST FOR APPROVAL TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH:TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE SECONDARY SCHOOL.[Type text] Page 1

Thohoyandou Government Building, Old Parliament, Block D, Private Bag X2250, SIBASA, 0970
Tel: (015) 962 1313 or (015) 962 1331, Fax: (015) 962 6030 or (015) 962 2288

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!

Appendix 4: A letter of approval from Tshilamba Circuit



LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA


DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION
TSHILAMBA CIRCUIT

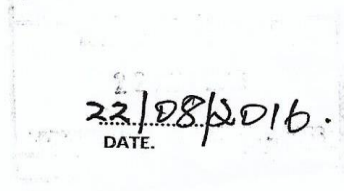
Ref: 14/7/R
Enq: Mamphodo S

E.DAITAI
UNIVERSITY OF VENDA
PRIVATE BAG X 5050
THOHOYANDOU
0950

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE SECONDARY SCHOOL UNDER TSHILAMBA CIRCUIT: YOURSELF.

1. The above matter bears reference.
2. Your application for permission to conduct research at Tshiwangamatembele sec school under Tshilamba circuit on the topic **"THE EFFECTS OF SCHOOL FEEDING SCHEME IN ADDRESSING FOOD SECURITY IN THE RURAL AREAS OF MUTALE MUNICIPALITY"** has been approved.
3. You are kindly requested to observe the following conditions:
 - 3.1 Inform the principal of affected School prior to your visits.
 - 3.2 Ensure that your interactions with participating principal, teachers and learners do not disrupt teaching and learning activities.
4. Wishing you the best in your academic endeavours.


.....
CIRCUIT MANAGER: TSHILAMBA .


22/08/2016.
DATE.

Tshilamba, Private Bag X1195, MUTALE, 0956
Tel: (015) 9670086 Fax: (015) 9670086

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!

Appendix 5: A letter of approval from the School Principal

EMIS : 929311410 Enq : Tshimawu N.S Cell : 082 221 9557 079 999 1559		TSHIWANGAMATEMBELE SEC P.O. Box 813 DZIMAUU 0975 BAIMORO VILLAGE 25 AUGUST 2016
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E.Daitai
University Of Venda
Private Bag X5050
Thohoyandou 0950

APPROVAL FOR THE APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH.

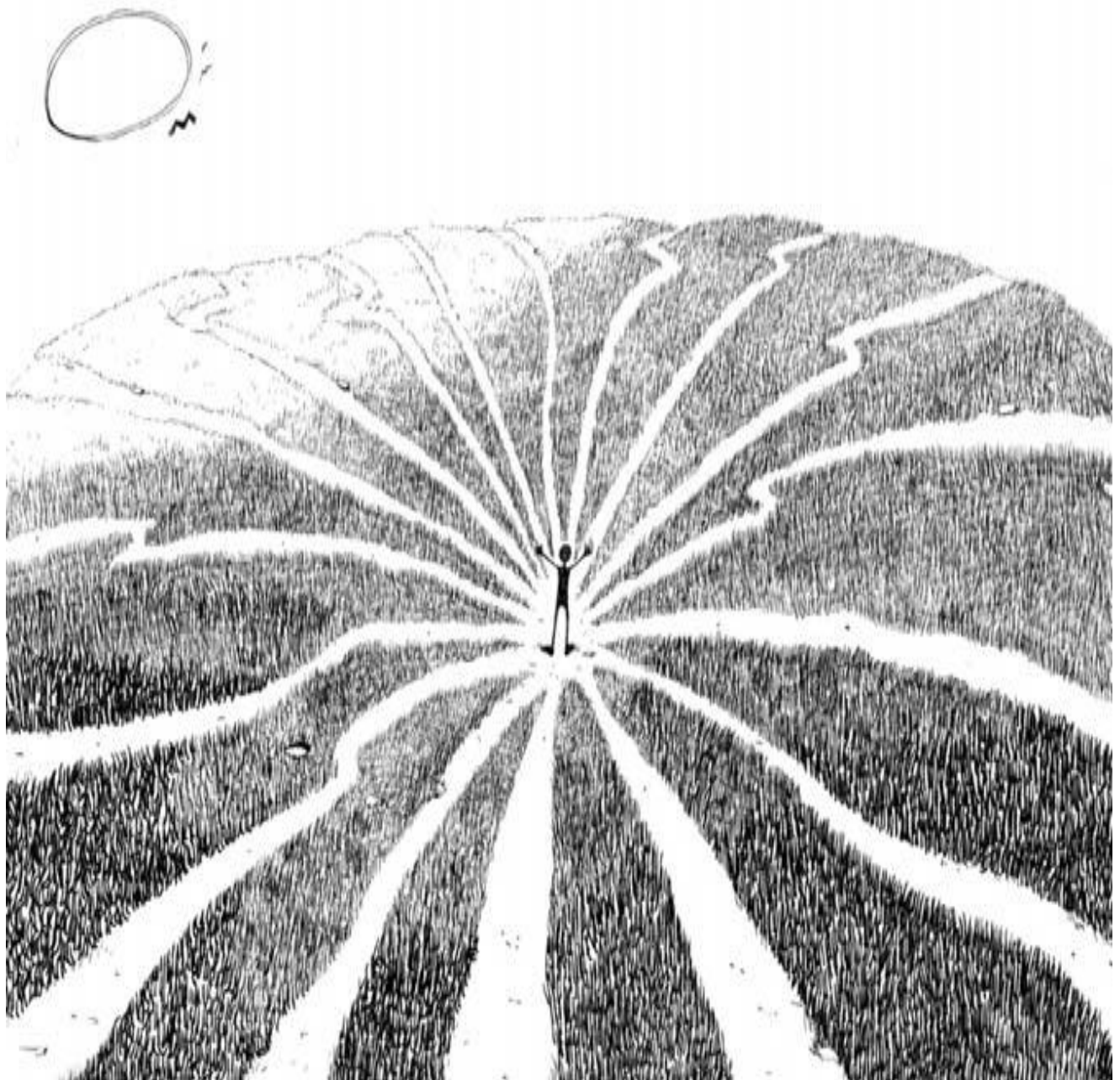
1. The above matter bears reference.
2. Your application for permission to conduct research at our school with the grade 12 learners has been approved.
3. Wishing you the best in your research.


PRINCIPAL


DATE



Appendix 6: An illustration of human freedom



Appendix 7: An interview schedule for the supervisor at circuit level

SUPERVISOR

Sex -----

1. How long have you been a supervisor -----
2. What is your responsibility in relation to feeding programme -----

3. What motivated the introduction of feeding programme in secondary school -----

4. What exactly is the overall purpose of providing food at schools -----

5. Generally, are you implementing this programme the same way in all schools that you supervise -----

6. How often do you monitor the program implementation at school level -----

7. In your opinion as a supervisor, does the program increase:
 - 7a. school enrolment-----

 - 7b. educational performance -----

8. Is it mandatory for each school to have a school garden, what is the purpose of it

9. Does the programme of benefit to the learners? -----

10. Do the community members participate in the programme?

11. What are the challenges associated with the feeding program -----

12. How do you think these challenges can be addressed -----

Appendix 8: An interview schedule for the principal

PRINCIPAL

1. How long have you been working as a principal -----

2. How long has the feeding programme been operational? -----

3. How many people have benefited from the program this year -----

4. As a principal what is your role in the programme -----

5. What are other workers and their responsibility -----

6. Apart from that, any collaborators linked to the program -----

7. What kind of procurement model in operation -----

8. How many suppliers are delivering food stuffs to your school -----

9. Have you experienced any problems with your suppliers -----

10. Do you have a garden in support of the program? -----
11. What are the objectives of the garden -----

12. What are the developmental objectives of the programme? -----

13. Are the community members involved in the program -----

14. Is this program also of benefit to the surrounding smallholder farmers? -----

15. Did you received any complaints from anyone concerning the feeding program ---

16. In your own opinion, do you think there are areas which need to be amended for
the improvement of the program -----

Appendix 9: An interview schedule for educators

EDUCATORS

Sex -----

1. How long have you been here as an educator -----
2. What is your role in the operation of feeding program -----

3. Did you receive any training from any organisation in connection with the program?

4. Are there some skills linked to the feeding scheme which you teach the learners -

5. Do you have a school garden linked to this program -----

6. What are the main purposes of the garden -----

7. Which products are you producing in your garden?

8. Currently are there some challenges that needs special attention

9. What would you say are the long term developmental benefits of the programme?

10. Recommendations.....

.....

.....

Appendix 10: An interview schedule for learners

LEARNERS

Sex -----

Grade -----

1. Do you come to school every day -----
2. Are your parents or guardian employed? -----
3. Do you always eat breakfast at home before coming to school -----
4. Do you eat the food offered at your school? -----

-----When is food served during the day? -----
5. Is the food enough for everyone? -----

6. Are you getting any parcel of food to take it home -----

7. Which kind of food do you like most on the programmes? -----

8. Which event or activity connected to the feeding program do you like most -----

9. As learners, do you play a role in any activity pertaining to the feeding program ---

10. Do you think the programme should be stopped -----

11. Do you have a school garden -----

12. What activities do you participate in the school garden -----

13. Are these activities beneficial to your life, even after you leave the school -----

14. Did you gain any skill as a result of the feeding program -----

15. Overall, what did you think are the developmental benefits which you acquired
from the school feeding programme since you came to this school -----

16. In your own opinion, are there some challenges which need to be addressed in
this program -----

Appendix 11: An interview schedule for parents

PARENTS

Sex -----

1. Employment status -----

2. How many children do you have -----

3. How many have attended at Tshiwangamatembele sec school -----

4. Where do you get most of your food stuff -----

5. Do they eat breakfast every day before leaving for school -----

6. Does your children eat food as soon as they come back from school?

7. Does your children sometimes come home with food parcel from school -----

8. As a parent, is there any development that the feeding scheme has made to your children?

9. Does the school feeding programme affected your household food consumption levels?

10. As a member of the community, do you benefited from the provision of food at school

11. In your opinion do you think the feeding program is beneficial to your children?

12. Is there anything that you think must be done to improve the program

Appendix 12: An interview schedule for small holder farmers

FARMERS

Sex -----

1. When did you settle in the area? -----
2. When did you engage yourself in farming -----

3. What motivate your to practice farming-----

4. What kind of plants do you produce -----

5. Do you produce these plants throughout the year -----

6. Are you getting any governmental and non-governmental assistance in the farming system -----

7. Do you have any farming group that you are part of -----

8. In your capacity as a farmer, getting external assistance, are you able to produce enough food to supply the school feeding scheme throughout the year -----

9. What are some of the problems which you are encountering in farming? -----

10. Do you have access to markets where you can sell your products without encountering problems?

11. Do you intend to expand your farming by increasing the production system?

12. In your opinion, do you think the school feeding scheme can be a favourable way
for the expansion of your farming -----

13. What are some of the benefits which you as a farmer are you getting from the
feeding program -----

14. What can you recommend for the improvement of the feeding scheme -----

