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Full Thesis

The role of civil society organisations in exercising the right to food in the Western Cape Province

By

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Master of Public Administration in the School of
Government, Faculty of Economic Management Sciences,
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DECLARATION

I, Rhondeline Marais, hereby declare that, The role of civil society in exercising the right to food in the Western Cape Province, is my work and all the sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Rhondeline Marais   *8 August 2022*

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Rhondeline Marais   Date

ABSTRACT

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This study was about the role of civil society organisations in promoting the right to have access to food for households and communities living in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. The aim was to understand how CSOs in the province interacted with the right to food and whether there were barriers to their potential in realising the right to food for households and communities. The study had three objectives. Firstly, to understand how civil society organisations framed the issue of food insecurity in the province. Secondly, investigate whether these organisations promoted the right to food for communities and households in the province and, if they did not do this, why did they not. Lastly, to propose recommendations on how civil society organisations could overcome the barriers to realise the right to food for poor and marginalised people in the province.

The study was situated within a qualitative research paradigm because it provided a lens to understand and analyse the participants' behaviour from their natural contexts and situations. It assisted the researcher in discussing and interpreting the data collected in a meaningful and sensitive manner. A Grounded Theory research design was used for the study. Grounded Theory is one of four research designs associated with qualitative research approaches (Creswell, 1994, 2014). The second genre of Grounded Theory, symbolic interactionism, was used in this study because the researcher examined the subjective meaning civil society organisations placed on mobilising for the right to food or not based on what they believed to be true and important.

The theoretical framework consisted of elements of three theories. These were Hudson and Lowe's (2009) Agenda Setting Theory, Gaventa's (2006) Power Theory, and Bateson's (1972) Framing Theory. The Agenda Setting Theory focuses on how people think about issues and what they decide to be important enough to concentrate on (Hudson & Lowe, 2009). The Power Theory has to do with who holds power and what type of power it is, visible, invisible or hidden (Gaventa, 2006). The Framing Theory relates to collective framing characterised by three independent processes: diagnostic, prognostic and motivational framing processes (Bateson, 1972; Ardevol-Abreu, 2015).

The research participants consisted of three civil society organisation groups. The first participant group was selected based on their involvement in the DST/NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security. The remaining two participant groups were chosen from a list of other civil society organisations that the first participant group identified. The data collection instruments entailed a net-mapping workshop and online interviews because of Covid-19 and the national lockdown that prevented face-to-face interviews.

The results were discussed and interpreted based on the theoretical framework's three theories. Two findings were most important. The first was that the civil society organisations did not mobilise or advocate for the right to food for poor and marginalised households and communities residing in the province. Finding number two was that Covid-19 and the national lockdown brought the food insecurity of thousands of South Africans to the fore. It opened the eyes and minds of the civil society organisations to such an extent that they indicated that food security would be on top of their agendas and that they should unite and have a shared vision to influence the government to make food security in South Africa a key priority. Based on the findings, recommendations were proposed for civil society organisations, households and communities, local government, funders, and the private sector.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Finally, I would like to acknowledge young single mothers who feel that they are not allowed to pursue their dreams. To inspire you, I did this.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

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AEC	Anti-Eviction Campaign
AbM	Abahlali baseMjondolo
ANC	African National Congress
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CFS	Committee on World Food Security
ECOSOC	General Assembly, Economic and Social Council
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organisation
FIFA	Federation International Football Association
GT	Grounded Theory
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFSS	Integrated Food Security Strategy
IPC	Integrated Food Security Phase Classification
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
NAD	Native Affairs Department
NPO	Non-Profit Organisations
NGO	Non-Government Organisations
NFNSP	National Food and Nutrition Security Policy
NDC	Non-Communicable Diseases
OWG	Open Working Group
PUCL	People's Union for Civil Liberties
SA	South Africa
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human rights
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

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CHAPTER ONE

THESIS INTRODUCTION

1.1   BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Action Against Hunger (2021) states that Asia has the highest number of people (418 million) who experience Hunger, with Africa in second place. They further explain that Sub-Saharan Africa is the region with the largest number of people living in extreme poverty, with 413 million people living on less than $1.90 per day, and 264.2 million undernourished people (Action Against Hunger, 2021).

The above statistics could be one of the reasons why South Africa enshrined the right to food in its constitution (Republic of South Africa, Constitution, Section 27(1) (b)). Therefore, achieving food security has been prioritised in many policy documents, such as the National Development Plan, the Integrated Food Security Strategy of South Africa, and the 2014 National Policy for Food and Nutrition. An inference can be made that South Africa's approach to realising the right to food is linked to poverty alleviation programmes and the empowerment of disadvantaged people. It thus provides recourse if a person's right to food is violated, as ensured by the Bill of Rights. In addition, the South African Constitution mandates that the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) monitors the right to food as it is regarded as one of the most fundamental rights of people. One cannot learn or fully function without having access to nutritional food (World Food Programme, 2020; World Health Statistics Report, 2021).

Hence, one can argue that the right to food is an essential human right and should be challenged if this right has been violated. However, despite the efforts put in place by the democratic government, many households and individuals are food insecure even though South Africa is regarded as food secure on a national level (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Accordingly, food insecurity is a social justice issue that should be high on the government's agenda. If it is not a priority, civil society organisations and social movements should collectively pressurise the state to make it a priority, given South Africa's apartheid history where the majority of the Black population was disadvantaged and marginalised.

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Glaser (2007) explains that South Africa has seen a shift from civil society and social movement engagement, focusing on achieving a democratic country, to organisations and collectively rallying around the cause of attaining and enjoying equal human rights. There has also been an increase in community-led protests for the right to clean water, sanitation services and housing between 2005 and 2018 (Alexander, Runciman, Ngwane, Moloto, Mokgele & Van Staden, 2018). What is absent to date is actions and mobilisation for the right to access food for South Africa's poverty-stricken and unemployed households and communities. Alexander et al. (2018) state that civil society organisations have placed little to no social pressure on the South African government for the right to food, nor have they defended it in court.

Based on the context described above, this study investigated how civil society organisations (CSOs) in the Western Cape Province of South Africa interacted with the right to food. For example, if they were prepared to mobilise and advocate for the right to food on behalf of the communities and households they were working with, and if not, identify the barriers that prevented them from doing so. Thus, this study was about CSOs' role as active agents for the province's food insecurity households and communities.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Similar to many other countries globally, South Africa is a member of the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Accordingly, it has committed itself to many commissions that seek to realise the right to food (Nevondwe & Odeku, 2014). However, while South Africa has established various policy documents that aspire to advance food security, these policies have been regarded as inadequate partly due to incoherent relationships between the government and the different role players (Drimie, 2015).

The first problem in South Africa is that it is regarded as food secure on a national level. South Africa is able to produce sufficient food and has the capacity to import food to meet the primary nutritional requirement of its population (FAO, 2008). A second problem is the distribution of wealth, which, because of apartheid, is still in the hands of the 15% White minority. The majority of Black South Africans who have no access to wealth are not able to access food because they cannot afford it. A third and last challenge is that many civil society organisations in South Africa work within the food space. Still, upon closer scrutiny, only a

handful focus specifically on providing food aid, but none on mobilising for the right to food. Table 5.2 in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.2, indicates that 92 CSOs were identified working in the food space. Of the 92 organisations, 32 were involved in food production, four on food aid, and two more focused on food aid and production. None of these organisations was identified as mobilising around food insecurity. While there are efforts of CSOs producing and providing food to the vulnerable, organisations are not challenging the status quo through protesting and litigating for the right to food.

Civil society organisations (CSOs) should be 'the voice of the marginalised and powerless' (Andrée, Clark, Levkoe & Lowitt, 2019; Cox, 1999; Duncan & Barling, 2012). Duncan and Barling (2012) advocate that CSOs have the collective power to shape governments' agendas and influence policymakers and public opinion globally. Hence, the gap and problem this study identified are that the CSOs operating within the food space in South Africa, specifically in the Western Cape Province, are not concerned with the high statistics of food insecurity and the Hunger that thousands of households and communities experience. Producing more food does not change the current situation in the Western Cape because South Africa is already producing enough food. In addition, while providing food to the vulnerable is a noble endeavour, the sustainability is questionable: can CSOs provide food to every food-insecure household, and if so, is it sustainable?

Moreover, instead of focusing on what has already been done, one would expect CSOs to be the mouthpiece for the poverty-stricken communities they are working with and actively engage and mobilise for the right to food. They should have, collectively, pressured the government to make food security a priority on its agenda, but they did not. It was only because of Covid-19 and the national lockdown that the CSOs started to take note of the seriousness of food insecurity in the country. Therefore, the researcher wanted to investigate why the CSOs were not living up to their mandate before the pandemic to change the status quo.

1.3   AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Given the context described above, the study aimed to understand how CSOs in the Western Cape Province interact with the right to food and whether there were barriers to their potential in realising the right to food for communities living in the province.

Three objectives guided the study, namely, to:

- Understand how civil society organisations frame the issue of food insecurity in the Western Cape Province;

- Investigate whether these organisations promote the right to food for communities and households in the Western Cape Province and if they do not do this, why do they not;

- Propose recommendations on how civil society organisations could overcome the barriers to realise the right to food for the people in the province.

On the premise of the theoretical framework used in this study, the researcher argues that the right to food for households and poverty-stricken communities should be a priority for the CSOs operating in the food landscape so that they would mobilise and advocate for this right at governmental level.
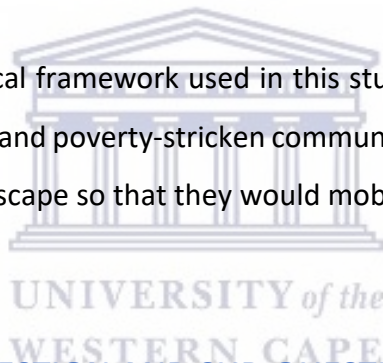
1.4   MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION AND SUB-QUESTIONS

Based on the above aim and objectives, the study intended to find answers to the following research question:

> *Were civil society organisations in the Western Cape Province promoting the right to food, and if not, what could be done so that the right to food can become a priority in the province?*

Three sub-questions guided the research process. These were:

1. Which Civil Society Organisations were active in the food security landscape in the Western Cape province?

2. Were these organisations promoting the right to food in the province? If they are not doing this, why are they not?

3. What suggestions can be made on how civil societies could work together to influence the government to prioritise food security?

1.5   FOCUS OF THE STUDY

This study focused on food insecurity and the role CSOs should play in realising the right to food for poor households and communities in the Western Cape Province in South Africa. South Africa is part of Sub-Saharan Africa. Although it is regarded as food secure nationally, food insecurity is a reality for millions of African and Coloured households and communities. In addition, the unemployment rate is already very high in South Africa, and the global pandemic and subsequent national lockdowns have increased the unemployment rate further (Statistics South Africa, 2020). For example, the Institute for Economic Justice (2020) reported that the expanded unemployment rate for the second quarter of 2020 was 43.2%. The NIDS-CRAM survey estimated that between February and April 2020, close to 3 million jobs were lost.

When the researcher started with the study in 2019, a survey of the literature regarding the role and involvement of CSOs within the food space in South Africa, and particularly in the Western Cape Province, showed that many organisations were working within the distribution of food and within awareness-raising of food, land and environmental issues. However, the researcher could not identify any organisation directly promoting and mobilising the right to food. This was problematic on at least two accounts.

Firstly, given South Africa's apartheid past, the democratic government inherited a country that was and is described by the World Bank as the most unequal society in the world (World Bank Group, 2018). Thus, an expectation was that the democratic government would do everything in its power to create employment, distribute wealth creation and concretely invest in its households and communities. However, instead of this expectation, there was an investment on paper through the many policy documents that signalled the new government's willingness to bring about change. Real change to date did not happen (Drimie, 2015; Nevondwe & Odeku, 2014; Spaull, 2021).

Secondly, CSOs and social movements actively mobilised and advocated for human rights during apartheid. Their collective actions in the form of protests and taking to the streets placed pressure on the apartheid government, which assisted in bringing about positive change. Hence, another expectation would be to continue to mobilise and advocate for

households and community members' right to food. However, this is not happening, which raises the question of why not? Given the statistics provided in Section 1.1, why are these CSOs not using their collective bargaining power to influence the democratic governments' agenda so that the right to food would become a top priority?

These were the issues about which this study was concerned. The researcher used elements from three discrete theories to unpack and discuss these issues. These were Hudson and Lowe's (2009) Agenda Setting Theory, Gaventa's (2006) Power Theory, and Bateson's (1972) Framing Theory. The Agenda Setting Theory is founded on how people think about issues and what they decide to be important enough to focus on (Hudson & Lowe, 2009). The Power Theory has to do with who holds power and what type of power it is (visible, invisible, or hidden). Implied in power is the notion that whoever has power would drive a process, decision or action (Gaventa, 2006; Green, 2019). Lastly, the Framing Theory focuses on collective framing characterised by three independent processes: diagnostic, prognostic and motivational framing processes (Bateson, 1972; Ardevol-Abreu, 2015). These theories and their application are further discussed in Section 3. 6.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was situated within a qualitative research paradigm because the researcher wanted to understand why the CSOs did not live up to their mandate to act as a catalyst for South African households and communities. Babbie and Mouton (2007) explain that a qualitative research paradigm provides a lens to describe and analyse human behaviour in their 'natural settings'. They further state that an essential characteristic of qualitative research is its attempt to view the world through the eyes of the participants themselves (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Yin (2015) and Stake (2010) share the same views about qualitative research. Since this study was concerned with the framing and understanding of how CSOs view the right to food and what they were attempting to do or not to fight for this right, this main feature of qualitative research allowed the researcher to understand and gain insights from the CSO representatives in their natural settings.

In addition, Creswell (2014) explains that a qualitative research approach uses the researcher as the main instrument, allowing the researcher to use different data collection techniques,

complex and analytical reasoning that are both inductive and deductive, and the researcher's reflexivity. This author also states that qualitative research endeavours to give a holistic justification of the research process followed (Creswell, 2014). The researcher has attempted to do so in this thesis. The qualitative research paradigm is further discussed in Section 4. 3.

1.6.1   Research Design

A Grounded Theory research design was used for the study. Grounded Theory is one of four research designs associated with qualitative research approaches (Creswell, 1994, 2014). Grounded Theory was first acknowledged by Glaser and Strauss (Goulding, 2005) and can be recognised in different genres: traditional or classic, symbolic interactionism and constructivist. Tie, Birks and Francis (2019) explain that a Grounded Theory is a method that the researcher uses to create a theory of a process, action or interaction rooted in the participants' perceptions in a study. These authors further explain that a Grounded Theory research design provides a platform for researchers interested in investigating underlying meaning-making and social processes (Tie et al., 2019). It assisted the researcher in constructing an understanding of what the CSOs communicated and shared with her. More specifically, the second genre of Grounded Theory (Symbolic interactionism) was applied in this study because the researcher attempted to analyse the meaning and value that the CSOs placed on what they regarded as important to their organisations and the communities they served. The research design is further discussed in Section 4. 4.

1.6.2   Research site and participants

The 'research site' of the study was the DST/NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security, jointly hosted by the University of the Western Cape and the University of Pretoria (DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security, 2014). The centre consists of CSOs that form a community of practice within the food landscape in South Africa. Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2013, p.1) define a community of practice as "a group of people who share a common interest or concern and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis". Similarly, Cambridge, Kaplan and Suter (2005) state that communities of practices provide a platform for people to network, engage and share knowledge and experiences. A community of practice can also empower purposeful action around a specific topic or issue (Wenger et al., 2013). The research participants were selected based on their

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involvement in the centre and other CSOs whom they knew and collaborated with, making their selection a convenient sampling method (Patton, 2015; Silverman, 2016). The research site and participants are further described in Section 4.5.2.

1.6.3   Data collection instruments

The data for this study were gathered through two main methods; a net-mapping workshop and in-depth interviews. The net-mapping workshop took place in one of the townships on the Cape Flats in February 2020. The process of the net-mapping workshop is explained in Section 4.5.3.1. The second instrument was in-depth interviews with the remaining two participant groups: senior members of two NPOs, four NGOs, and six advocacy groups. The interview process is explained in Section 4.5.3.2.

1.6.4   Data Analysis

The data collected from the research participants were grouped into three data sets. Data set 1 consisted of the first participant group that attended the net-mapping workshop. Data set 2 comprised the interview responses from the second participant group (two NGOs and four NPOs). The interview responses of the third and last participant group, the six advocacy groups, formed data set 3. The data analysis process is explained in Section 4.5.4.

1.7   KEY CONCEPTS USED

The below key concepts are explained for clarity and guidance. These are the understandings and meanings used throughout the chapters in this thesis.

Advocacy groups

According to Giorno (2019), **advocacy groups** can also be called interest groups, special interest groups or pressure groups focusing on influencing public opinion and policy necessary to developing political and social systems.

Agenda setting

Puentes-Markides (2007, p. 2) defines **agenda setting** as "a political process, conflictive and competitive contingent on competing entries on policy agenda, ability to influence groups to

action, positions and views of key policymakers, preferences of interest groups and preferences of decision-makers".

Civil society organisations

Civil society organisations take the form of formal and informal associations and can also be religious organisations and social groups. According to Andree et al. (2019), civil society organisations are formed to fight and work for what they believe to be the collective interest of society.

Community

The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines people living in the same area sharing similar interests as a **community**.

Community of practice

Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2013) define **communities of practice** as groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly.

Disadvantaged

The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines **disadvantaged** as lacking basic resources or conditions such as standard housing, medical and educational facilities and civil rights believed to be necessary for an equal position (Merriam-Webster, n.d).

Food access

Food access implies that individuals can adequately **access** resources to acquire appropriate and sufficient **food** for a nutritious diet (World Food Summit, 2006).

Food aid

Food aid is defined as all food-supported interventions aimed at improving the food security of poor people in the short and long term, whether funded via international, national, public or private sources (Von Braun, 2003).

Food distribution

Food distribution is the process where people are supplied with food. The Food and Agriculture Organisation considers food distribution a subgroup of the food system (Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, 2016).

Food insecurity

The United States Department of Agriculture defines **food insecurity** as limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways (United States Department of Agriculture Food and Nutrition Service, 2013).

Food security

Food security is when all people, at all times, have physical, social, and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food that meets their food preferences and dietary needs for active and healthy lives (World Food Summit, 1996).

Food space

There is no official definition for the concept of **food space**. However, in the context of this study, the concept is used as an umbrella term to encapsulate all the focus areas within food security. These focus areas include production, health, advocacy, farming, distribution, academia, awareness, food aid and social agriculture. The concept is also used interchangeably with the phrase **food landscape**.

Framing

Framing is the interpretation of ideas, issues and stereotypes that people depend on to make sense of and understand certain events, which is the social construction of a social phenomenon (Goffman, 1974).

Government

Government is the political system in which a country is administered and regulated (Brogan, 2020). In his lecture, *Politics as a Vocation,* Max Weber defined the **state** as a society governed under a system with control over power (Munro, 2013). The concepts of **government** and **state** are used interchangeably in this thesis.

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Households

According to Haviland (2003), the concept of **households** is when one or more people occupy a dwelling. It can be a single family or more groups. It can further be identified by people sharing meals in this dwelling.

Non-Governmental Organisation

A **non-governmental organisation** is usually an organisation independent from the government, although the government can at times fund it. They are not-for-profit organisations that engage in issues for public benefit. Non-governmental organisations can also be used synonymously with civil society organisations (Leverty, 2008; Willets, 2012).

Non-Profit Organisation

The Western Cape Government (n.d) defines a **non-profit organisation** as a trust, company or other association of persons formed to assist the need of the disadvantaged.

Nutritional food

Nutritional food is defined as food that provides beneficial nutrients (protein, vitamins, minerals, essential amino acids, essential fatty acids, dietary fibre) and minimises potentially harmful elements (e.g. anti-nutrients, quantities of sodium, saturated fats, sugars) (Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition, 2017).

Poverty

The most comprehensive definition of the concept of **poverty** recognises that to be poverty-stricken is to be overwhelmed by need and unable to meet and satisfy basic needs (Compassion International, 2021).

Power

According to Max Weber (1978), **power** is the ability of one or more individuals within a social relationship to enact their will regardless of any resistance.

Social grants

A **social grant** refers to grants paid by the South African Social Security Agency. These include disability grants, grants for older persons and war veterans, foster child grants, care dependency grants, child support grants and a grant-in-aid (Department of Social Development, n.d).

Social movements

Social movements are when individuals come together to organise and campaign to support a social goal that is not defined by rules and procedures but rather shares a common outlook on society (Turner, Killian, Lewis & Smelser, 2019). These authors further add that the formation of these groups is primarily spontaneous (Turner et al., 2019).

The right to food

According to Maxwell and Smith (1992), **the right to food** can be defined as everyone having the right of access to food and for the state to enable people to get food for themselves. Furthermore, this right entails the state as the sole bearer of the right to ensure adequate resources to obtain food. The South African Constitution, Section 27(2), states that the government must take reasonable steps within its available resources to realise the right to food over time. The South African Human Rights Commission explains that the right to food requires that food be available, accessible and adequate for everyone at all times without discrimination.

Unemployment

Unemployment refers to when people are not employed; it is also a primary measure of the economy's health (Hayes, 2021).

Unhealthy food

Any food that is not conducive to maintaining health, including fats, particularly of animal origin, and fast foods low in fibre and vitamins, are considered unhealthy (McGraw-Hill Concise Dictionary of Modern Medicine, 2002).

1.8   THESIS STRUCTURE

This thesis consists of seven chapters. A brief description of each chapter is provided below.

Chapter One provided contextual background to the study. It stated the aim and objectives, defined the problem and outlined the research questions. It explained the focus of the study and briefly described the research methodology followed in the study.

Chapter Two reviewed literature about food security globally, regionally, and in South Africa.

Chapter Three contextualised civil society organisations and provided a detailed discussion of the study's theoretical framework.

Chapter Four is the research methodology chapter. The research methodology process is described, explained and justified based on existing research methodology experts, procedures and practices.

Chapter Five presented the results of the data analysis process.

Chapter Six presented the discussion and interpretation of the results per sub-research question. Finally, the chapter is concluded with a synthesis of the main issues identified.

Chapter Seven, the final chapter of this thesis, presented the findings and related the findings to the literature reviewed in Chapters Two and Three and the theoretical framework. It explained the contribution to new knowledge that the study made, proposed recommendations for the relevant role-players, noted the study's limitations, and made suggestions for future research. The researcher concluded the thesis with a personal reflection of what the study meant to her.

CHAPTER TWO
FOOD SECURITY GLOBALLY, REGIONALLY AND IN SOUTH AFRICA

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study, as described in Section 1.3, is to investigate how civil society organisations (CSOs) in the Western Cape Province interact with the right to food and the factors influencing their potential role in realising the right to food for marginalised households and communities living in the province. As such, this chapter reviews the literature pertaining to food security and the right to food. The chapter starts with how food security is defined and understood globally, followed by a discussion on food security within a global context. Thereafter, food security on the African continent is described, followed by food security in South Africa and the Western Cape Province. A summary of what was discussed concludes the chapter.

2.2   DEFINING FOOD SECURITY

Food security is a young concept developed in the 1970s, which evolved with "approximately 200 definitions and 450 indicators of food security" (Mechlem, 2004, p. 633). At the World Food Conference in 1974, food security was defined as the "availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic foodstuffs … to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption … and to offset fluctuations in production and prices" (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 1974). Maxwell (1996) and Mechlem (2004) state that this definition is based on the premise that the population was growing and the production of foodstuffs needed to be increased to ensure the availability and stability of world food supplies. In addition, drought across grain-producing countries that resulted in rising world food prices led to the belief that the world was experiencing food shortages. In return, this led to the international community proposing and establishing the World Food Council, the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) Committee on World Food Security, and the International Fund for Agricultural Development (World Food Conference, 1974; Mechlem, 2004).

Furthermore, the 'Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition' was adopted due to the perception that global food shortage was a problem. The declaration states that "every man, women and child have the inalienable right to be free from hunger and malnutrition" (Mechlem, 2004, p. 634). Thus, it can be deduced that foodstuffs should be available to every man, woman and child and that there should not be a reason for people to be hungry or suffer from malnutrition.

However, in 1981, Amartya Sen asserted that food security is based on people's ability to access food (Sen, 1981). Sen argued that despite national food security, individuals can still suffer from food insecurity and be malnourished (Sen, 1981). Similarly, Mechlem (2004) explains that poverty and a lack of access could be identified as causes of food insecurity in a stable international food-market environment. This view led to the expansion of the meaning of food security to include "security of access to supplies on the part of all those who need them" (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 1983). Not only did the meaning of food security deepen, but an interest in the relationship between people's coping strategies, their priorities when making choices as to how to spend overall insufficient resources, and the relationship between national, household and individual food security were also highlighted (Mechlem, 2004; Sen, 1981).
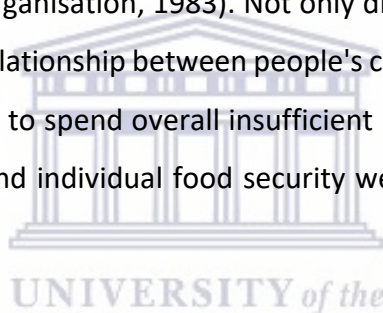
In 2014, the Sustainable Development Goals Fund was created that further highlighted the joint action needed to ensure food security. Stakeholders such as United Nations agencies, national governments, academia, civil society and the private sector were identified as key agents in ensuring the success of food security (Sustainable Development Goals Fund, 2014). The concept of food security was further expanded when health and nutrition research acknowledged that "a reciprocal and synergetic link exists between food intake and nutritional well-being" (De Rose, Messer & Millman, 1998; Mechlem, 2004; Nwosu, Kollamparambil & Oyenbubi, 2021). According to Mechlem (2004) and De Rose et al. (1998), malnutrition leads to people's vulnerability to diseases. As such, the quality of foodstuffs is important. Accordingly, researchers looked into the intergenerational effects of malnutrition. They found that it impacts the mental functions of people, which was why health as a factor was included in defining food security globally (De Rose et al., 1998; Mechlem, 2004; Nwosu et al., 2021).

At the World Food Summit in Rome in 1996, a declaration and definition of food security was adopted, which stated: "Food security, at the individual, household, national, regional and global levels is achieved when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life" (Mechlen, 2004, p. 633). The Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) (2003) added to this definition by saying that food also needs to be culturally appropriate. In doing so, food security has become more encompassing and multidimensional. Lastly, the perception of food security has moved from being viewed from a quantity perspective to a quality perspective, and the meaning of food security has crossed into non-food factors such as adequate care, health and hygiene practices (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 2003; Mechlem, 2004; Nwosu et al., 2021).

2.3   A GLOBAL CONTEXT OF FOOD SECURITY

Having defined food security in the previous section, this section discusses food security within a global context. The Plan of Action adopted at the World Food Summit (2002) contained specific commitments and objectives regarding food security. Objective 7.4 of this plan is to "clarify the content of the right to adequate food … as a means of achieving food security for all" (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 1996). Hence, the right to food is included in many binding and non-binding legal instruments and documents. For example, article 25, Paragraph 1 of the Universal Declaration of Human rights (UDHR) states that "everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family, including food, clothing, and housing" (International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966). Other documents where the right to food is included are the World Declaration on Nutrition adopted at the International Conference on Nutrition in 1992, the 1996 Rome Declaration on World Food Security and Plan of Action, and the Declaration of the World Food Summit in 2002.

Moreover, the right to food has been recognised in numerous resolutions and declarations of the General Assembly, Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), and the Commission on Human Rights. The mechanism that deals most widely with food rights is the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), which states that "States . . . recognise the right of everyone to an adequate standard of living . . . including adequate food' (International

Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966, p.4). The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) describes the core content of the right to food through three A's: accessibility, availability and adequacy. *Accessibility* refers to the guaranteed economic and physical access to food. *Availability* refers to food "available from natural resources either through the production of food, by cultivating land or animal husbandry, or through other means of obtaining food, such as fishing, hunting or gathering". *Adequacy* refers to "food that satisfies dietary needs, considering the individual's age, living conditions, health, occupation and sex" (International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966). This means that children's food, for example, should contain the nutrients necessary for their physical and mental development. If not, it is inadequate.

Every state that forms part of the ICESCR is obligated to "undertake steps… to achieve progressively the full realisation of the rights recognised in the present Covenant" (Article 12, Paragraph 1, International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966; Bilchitz, 2003). Hence, states need to fulfil three obligations. The first obligation is to respect; secondly, to protect; and lastly, to fulfil the right to adequate food (Rose, Angliss, Lindberg & Caraher, 2016). These authors explain that *the duty to respect the right to food* speaks to states ensuring that they do not do anything that would essentially inhibit citizens from accessing food. *The duty to protect the right to food* means that "states must take measures to prevent third parties, which can include private businesses, from doing anything that would deprive individuals from accessing affordable, adequate and appropriate food on an ongoing basis". *The final duty, which is to fulfil the right to food* "requires states to establish political, economic and social systems that provide access to the guaranteed rights for all members of society" (Rose et al., 2016, p.2).

Mechlem (2004) argues that achieving the three obligations requires states to develop comprehensive national right-to-food strategies, develop policies, revoke legislation that inhibits the realisation of the right, and endorse new laws. This author further explains that states should use all the necessary avenues to ensure the right to food. If people are prevented from accessing food in any way, it constitutes a "violation" (Mechlem, 2004). According to Rose et al. (2016), important steps were established by the United Nations Special Rapporteur to implement the right to food fully. These steps are:

- Incorporating the right to food in national constitutions;

- Passing enabling domestic legislation: a "national Right to Food framework law';

- Developing participatory national strategies based upon the right to food, such as national agriculture, food security and nutrition strategies;

- Designing and resourcing appropriate institutions and implementing actions of a participatory nature;

- Monitoring the implementation of the national strategy;

- Enforcing the right to food through judicial means where necessary (Rose et al., 2016, p. 2).

Therefore, states must ensure that food security policies and programmes reflect the right to food.

Moreover, the issue of food insecurity differs across the world. It is not the same from country to country or region to region. According to the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) (2008), Asia and Africa hold more than 90% of the world's food-insecure people; China and India can account for 42% and Sub-Saharan Africa for a quarter of the world's food-insecure people. The FAO estimated that during 1998-2000, approximately 840 million people were undernourished globally (FAO, 2001). This number changed when the FAO reported in 2012 that between 2010 and 2012, the number of hungry and malnourished people increased to 870 million people worldwide, which was unacceptably high (Food and Agricultural Organisation, 2012).

In 1996, member states of the World Food Summit committed themselves to reduce food-insecure people by 2015 (Food and Agricultural Organization, 1996). Subsequently, these states resolved a plan of action at the World Food Summit to realise the Millennium Development Goals. This plan of action encompassed commitments and objectives to understand better the food and nutrition problem and aid member states in achieving their goals in food security. The number one goal of the Millennium Development Goals "became that of halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger and malnutrition by the year 2015" (Millennium Development Goals, n.d).

When the number of hungry people had risen to over one billion, a renewed political interest in food security was ignited globally (Duncan & Barling, 2012). This was met with increased international meetings, programmes' development, and the restructuring of old ones. However, the significance of this renewed interest in global food security governance was the objective to broaden and strengthen the involvement of civil society organisations in international food security decision-making processes (Duncan & Barling, 2012, p. 144).

In 2000, the United Nations gathered leaders of 189 countries to establish the Millennium Declaration (Sustainable Development Goals, n.d.). This declaration identified eight goals that sought to reduce poverty and hunger, gender inequality and child mortality by 2015. During the period leading up to 2015, much progress has been made in achieving the eight goals. However, the progress made did not focus on long term sustainability and therefore a new interest was focused on creating more sustainable goals. In 2014, the United Nations General Assembly Open Working Group (OWG) established the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to enhance the global development agenda (United Nations General Assembly Open Working Group, 2014). The period for achieving these goals was set from 2015 to 2030. The seventeen Sustainable Development Goals are listed in Table 2.1 below.
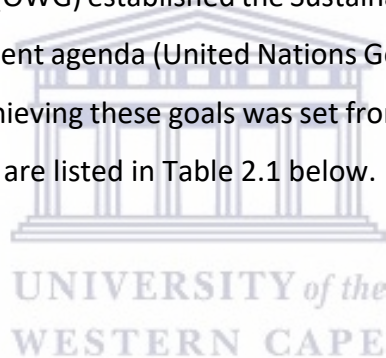
Table 2.1: Seventeen Sustainable Development Goals

Goal	Description
One	End poverty in all its forms everywhere
Two	End hunger, achieve food security and improve nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture
Three	Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages
Four	Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all
Five	Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
Six	Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
Seven	Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy for all
Eight	Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and quality work for all
Nine	Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialisation, and foster innovation
Ten	Reduce inequality within and among countries
Eleven	Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable
Twelve	Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
Thirteen	Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts
Fourteen	Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas, and marine resources for sustainable development
Fifteen	Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, halt and reverse land degradation, and halt biodiversity loss
Sixteen	Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels
Seventeen	Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development

Source: United Nations General Assembly Open Working Group, 2014

To ensure the realisation of the SDGs, the Sustainable Development Goals Fund was created. This fund prioritises the engagement and participation of different stakeholders to ensure the goals are achieved (United Nations General Assembly Open Working Group, 2014). Thus, an inference can be made that the work group acknowledged at the time that it would take more than governments to create societies that enjoy equal opportunities and freedoms.

The Committee on World Food Security (CFS), a forum within the United Nations System, is one such organisation transformed to include greater civil society participation. The vision of the CFS is that it:

> Constitutes the foremost inclusive international and intergovernmental platform for a broad range of committed stakeholders to work together in a coordinated manner and support country-led processes towards eliminating hunger and ensuring food security and nutrition for all human beings. CFS strives for a world free from hunger where countries implement the voluntary guidelines for the progressive realisation of the

right to adequate food in the context of national food security (Committee on World Food Security, 2017, p. 1).

The CFS seeks to ensure that different stakeholders can work collaboratively by providing guidelines that will assist them in creating a world free from hunger (Committee on World Food Security, 2017). In addition, the committee uses three functions: policy convergence, lessons and good practice sharing, and tracks progress to safeguard progress in their work (Committee on World Food Security, 2017). Also, they seek to provide guidance on key issues to develop a platform for participatory policy-making and global consensus to establish policy coherence and unity across the different sectors (Committee on World Food Security, 2017). Together with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the CFS strives to "eradicate extreme poverty, eradicate hunger, eliminate all forms of malnutrition and increase smallholder farmer productivity and incomes" (Committee on World Food Security, 2017, p.6). The CFS's objective is to address food insecurity and nutrition to strengthen countries' cross-sectional policies and change rural-urban dynamics.

2.4   FOOD SECURITY/INSECURITY ON THE AFRICAN CONTINENT

As noted in Section 2.3 above, Asia and Africa hold more than 90% of the world's food-insecure people. The Food Insecurity and Hunger in Africa Organisation (2021) states that more than 100 million people in Africa are experiencing severe food insecurity. The Food and Agriculture Organisation, the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), the World Food Programme (WFP) and the World Health Organisation (WHO) (2017) reported that Africa has the highest number of undernourished people globally. UNICEF (2015) highlights three categories of underlying causes of malnutrition on the African continent, (i) household food insecurity, (ii) inadequate care and feeding practices, and (iii) an unhealthy household environment and lack of health services. Table 2.2 below illustrates the countries in Africa experiencing acute levels of food insecurity.

Table 2.2: African countries facing acute food insecurity

Country	Population facing acute food insecurity (Millions)
DRC	21.8
Mali	6.8
Chad	5.9
Ethiopia	12.9
Sudan	9.6
Cameroon	4.9
Zimbabwe	6.0
Burkina Faso	3.4
Niger	2.7
Burundi	1.4
Uganda	2.6
Sierra Leone	1.3
Mozambique	2.6
Somalia	2.7
CAR	2.4

Source: Africa Center for Strategic Studies, 2021

Table 2.2 shows that the Democratic Republic of Congo experiences the highest level of food insecurity, with Ethiopia in second place, followed by Sudan, Mali, Chad, and Zimbabwe. Cameroon, Burkina Faso, Niger, Burundi, Uganda, Sierra Leone, Mozambique, Somalia and CAR are below five million. Even though some countries' numbers are below five million, these totals are still among the world's highest.

Moreover, the Africa Center for Strategic Studies (2021) states that there are four main reasons why people on the African content are food-insecure. They explain that conflict is the main reason why countries in Central Africa experience food insecurity (e.g. Democratic Republic of The Congo). Climate events (flooding and locusts) are the cause in East African countries (e.g. Sudan). Political crises and purchasing power in Southern African countries (e.g. Zimbabwe), and conflict and displacement in West African countries (e.g. Burkina Faso, Niger and Mali). They further state that the severe food insecurity in Africa escalated to over 60 per cent in 2020 due to Covid-19 and national lockdowns and that this situation could

worsen as the impact of COVID-19 intensify the conflict and political mismanagement (Africa Center for Strategic Studies, 2021).

As stated in the previous section, the SDGs aimed to end poverty and hunger worldwide by 2030, seven years from 2021. Therefore, the conflict, political crises and displacement in the countries listed in Table 2.2 will have to stop within seven years, and all people will have to be free from poverty. However, Begashaw (2019) asserts that little progress has been made in Africa to achieve the SDGs. It is doubtful that these countries will realise the objective of ending poverty and food insecurity by 2030. This author suggests that poverty and conflict, political governance and financing of the SDGs are among the main contributing factors why achieving the goals by 2030 will not be met (Begashaw, 2019).

2.5 FOOD SECURITY IN SOUTH AFRICA

In 1926, the colonial South African government established the Native Affairs Department (NAD), which played an oversight role in African reserves and intervened in issues such as hunger and famine (Koch, 2011; Herbst, 1930). The NAD provided relief through international and domestic trade mechanisms to supply food for vulnerable areas. Koch (2011, p. 1) explains that for some, the "development of the NAD was the colonial state's attempt to interconnect free-market principles with the aims of providing relief to and uplifting black people". In contrast, Wylie (2001) argues that the relief provided by the NAD was proved both corrupt and, at most times, reluctant to deliver sufficient food relief.

When the National Party rose to power in 1945, apartheid was adopted, and the paternalist food-relief mechanisms were abandoned (Koch, 2011; Wylie, 2001). The state aimed at eliminating state relief programmes to cut government support for the Black population, such as the school feeding programmes. As more segregation happened in SA, all subsequent cuts in food relief occurred (Koch, 2011; Wylie, 2001). As commonly known, the apartheids' laws and regulations resulted in the Black population being denied and excluded from social, economic and political participation and advancement.

However, in 1994, with the arrival of democracy, South Africa saw a significant shift in the political and economic policy spaces. Politically, policies were redesigned to redress past

injustices, and economic policies were designed around job creation, service delivery, and enhancing the economy's productive capacity (Labadarios, 2009). The democratic government committed itself to progressively realise the right to adequate food, as enshrined in Article 12, Paragraph 1 and Article 11 of the ICESCR (International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1966; Nevondwe & Odeku, 2014).

The Reconstruction and Development Programme was the first post-1994 document that called for action to identify food security as a basic human need (ANC, 1994). Subsequently, the South African food security programmes exclusively focused on subsistence and smallholder agriculture (Hendricks, 2013). This was evident in the Agricultural Policy Discussion Document (Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs, 1998: section 1.3), which states:

> While there is adequate food at the national level, some 30 to 50 per cent of the population has insufficient food or is exposed to an imbalanced diet due to low incomes. Emphasis will therefore be placed on food security at the household level. Programmes will be examined in terms of their direct and indirect contribution to household food security through their impact on rural incomes and the distribution of those incomes. Increasing the production of small-scale farmers will improve food availability and nutritional content, and hence food security generally among the poor.

According to Hendricks (2013), agricultural interventions only impact food security where production goes beyond subsistence farming and generates household income. This implies that unless subsistence farming can provide an income for families, they will not be free from food insecurity.

A critical development was the adoption of the 1996 constitution. It is regarded as the most liberal constitution as it aims to ensure physical well-being and health in SA (Greer-Love, 2003). The constitution also aimed at influencing food insecurity in the country, so a comprehensive food-security strategy was developed (Koch, 2011). This strategy used a developmental approach to food security and focused mainly on households (Koch, 2011). Four pillars underpinned the strategy:

1. Production and trading aim to ensure that vulnerable groups such as female-headed households, small-scale farmers, emerging farmers and commercial farmers have access to productive resources to produce food.

2. Job opportunities enable young and food-insecure poor households to have an income to increase food-related purchasing power.

3. Nutrition and food safety that seeks to empower the poor to make appropriate decisions around nutritious and safe food; and

4. Safety nets and food emergencies so that the state provides relief measures on a sustained basis (Koch, 2012, p.4).

Currently, South Africa has a multiplicity of policies attempting to address the issue of food insecurity. The National Food and Nutrition Security Policy 2014 (NFNSP) was introduced to replace the IFSS to oversee food insecurity because of a lack of access rather than availability. However, it fails to bring forth ideas on job creation. According to Hendricks (2013), the policy maintains a rural bias, whereby land reform and agriculture are prioritised, and factors that affect urban informal food insecurity is undermined. On the other hand, the NFNSP recognises the need for a framework on the right to food and a National Food and Nutrition Advisory Committee.
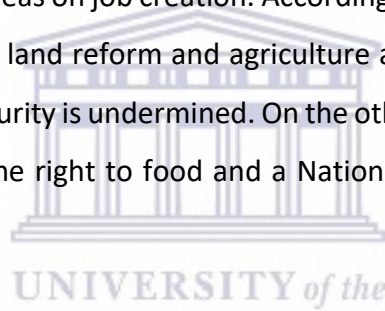
Furthermore, Boatemaa, Badasu and de Graft-Aikins (2018) argue that post-1994 food security policies and initiatives are scattered across different departments. These departments included the Department of Health, the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, the Department of Trade and Industry, the National Planning Commission, the Economic Development Department, the National Treasury, and the Department of Social Development. Table 2.3 below provides insight into the most current policies, their objectives and their relation to international frameworks.

Table 2.3: Recent policies, objectives, and relation to international frameworks

Department	Year	Policies	Objectives	International Frameworks
Department of Health	2013	Roadmap for Nutrition in South Africa	Optimal nutrition for all South Africans	Millennium Development Goals
	2015	Strategy for the Prevention and Control of Obesity in South Africa	Prevention of NCDs and promotion of health and well-being	2011 Brazzaville Declaration on Non-communicable Disease Prevention and Control in the WHO African Region, Political Declaration of the high-level meeting of the General Assembly on the Prevention and Control on Non-communicable Disease
Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	2014	National Policy on Food and Nutrition Security	To ensure food security at the national and household levels	2012 Report by the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Right to Food
	2015	DAFF Strategic Plan	Outlines programmes and activities for agriculture, fisheries and forestry for the period	
Department of Trade and Industry	2016	Industrial Policy Action 2015	To improve production, employment and economic development in c	
National Planning Commission	2012	National Development Plan Vision 2030	Reduce food insecurity and address malnutrition	
Economic Development Department	2011	New Growth Path	Promote economic development and job creation	
National Treasury	2016	Taxation of Sugar-sweetened Beverages	A tax rate of 2.29 cents was imposed on sugar-sweetened beverages per gram of sugar. To help reduce the intake of excessive sugar	
Department of Social Development	2013	Social Relief of Distress Grants	Provides immediate response to a crisis where citizens are without the means to provide the basic necessities for themselves	

Source: Boatemaa et al., 2018, p. 269

Boatemaa et al. (2018) state that the policies and initiatives undertaken in South Africa are based on three different frameworks: production of food, utilisation, and access to food, but these policy initiatives are insufficient and contradictory. These authors explain that not all

government policies and programmes were successful in their pursuit of the realisation of the right to food. Programmes with clear objectives within a single department and directly affected by food security tend to do well and succeed. Hence, for a policy or programme to be achievable, it must be comprehensive, coherent and coordinated. It should have appropriate financial and human resources; be balanced, flexible, and make relevant provisions for short, medium and long-term needs; be reasonably conceived and implemented; and be transparent to the public (Boatemaa et al., 2018).

2.5.1 The right to food in South Africa

Statistics South Africa (2019) explains that food security comprises four dimensions: food availability, food accessibility, food utilisation, and stability. *Food availability* refers to the physical existence of food at national and household levels. It relates to food production, supply and distribution. *Food accessibility is* ensured when all households have enough resources to obtain food in sufficient quantities, good quality and diversity for a nutritious diet. *Food utilisation* refers to the digestion of the food consumed, which is influenced by health status, water and sanitation conditions, and the microbiological and chemical safety of the food. However, this dimension also includes nutritional knowledge, food habits, child-feeding practices, and the social role of food in the family and the community. *Food stability* is achieved when the food supply at national and household levels remains constant during the year and in the long term (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

The above explanation of the concept 'food security' correlates with the definitions and discussion in Section 2.1 and the fact that it has become more encompassing and multidimensional (Mechlem, 2004). Statistics South Africa (2019) further states that South Africa is food secure on a national level, meaning that there is sufficient food to cater to all South African citizens nationally. In this regard, Koch (2011, p.4) states that SA is a "net exporter of agricultural commodities and has a high per capita income, even for an emerging economy". This author also notes that SA is not bound to any tight foreign-exchange constraints and has a constitution that promotes the right to adequate nutritional food. It is thus unlikely for SA to feature in any international dialogue on food insecurity (Koch, 2011). Given SA's national status on food security, one would think that all South Africans enjoy the availability and accessibility of nutritional food at all times. However, this is not the case. A

survey conducted in 2005 reflected that even though the South African economy was growing positively at a national level, "one out of two households were experiencing hunger, one out of three were at risk of hunger, and only one out of the five appeared to be food secure" (Chopra, Whitten & Drimie, 2009).

In addition, Koch (2011, p. 3) reported that "25% of children under the age of 6 are reckoned to have had their development stunted by Malnutrition", while Battersby (2011) argues that food insecurity can be found in urban households and is linked to the lack of access to food rather than the availability of food.

A study conducted in 2012 (seven years after the 2005 survey) reported that 54% of the South African population were food insecure; 28% of the South African population were at risk of hunger; obesity among women was 39% and 11% among men, and diabetes in the adult population was 10% (Shisana, Labadarios, Rehle, Simbayi, Zuma, Dhansay, Reddy, Parker, Hoosain, Naidoo, Hongoro, Mchiza, Steyn, Dwane, Makoae, Maluleke, Ramlagana, Zungu, Evan, Jacobs, Faber & the SANHANES-T Team, 2014; Thow, Greenberg, Hara, Friel & Sanders, 2018). Shisana et al. (2014) further state that household food insecurity and undernutrition and their links to Diet-related Non-Communicable Diseases (NDC's) are serious concerns in South Africa.

Given the statistics above, Nevondwe and Odeku (2014) argue that thousands of people do not have access to food, sufficient quantities of food or quality food. These authors explain that people in South Africa are deprived of the fundamental right to access food because of factors such as unemployment, no opportunities or land to farm and produce food, severe weather conditions and climate change (Nevondwe & Odeku, 2014). In addition, as noted under Section 2.5 above, due to colonialism and apartheid, the country's education, economic, social, and political structures are still experiencing and showing gross inequalities at household and community levels.

Because of apartheid, the democratic government enshrined the right to food in the South African Constitution. Section 27(1)(b) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa states that "everyone has the right to have access to sufficient food and water". This obligation is

extended in Section 27(2), in which "the state must provide reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of each of these rights". According to Section 35(2)(e) of the Constitution, prisoners and detainees also have a right to sufficient food, while Section 28(1)(c) states that every child has the right to "basic nutrition, shelter, basic health care service and social services". Every right in the South African Constitution is equal and dependent on each other. For example, it would be challenging to learn at school and get an education without food. Nevondwe and Odeku (2014) concur with this statement in that they acknowledge that the realisation of all other rights depends on the right to food.

South Africa has also signed many international agreements, such as the ICESCR, which means that South Africa respects, protects, and fulfils the right to food. To purchase food, a person must have access to an income, and the government must ensure access to social security for those people and families that do not have an income. This also means that the South African government must provide an enabling environment to produce or procure adequate food for themselves and their families.

Additionally, Heyns and Brand (1998) state that South Africa has a "number of flagships feeding or support programmes including the Primary School Feeding Scheme and the Infant and Young Child Feeding Scheme". Kende (2003) asserts that other programmes, such as the Community Based Nutrition Project and the Broadening of Access to Agricultural Thrust, have also been established to provide opportunities for people to create their own food security.

Moreover, the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) is an independent body constituted to monitor, protect, promote and fulfil the attainment of human rights in South Africa (South African Human Rights Commission Right to Food Fact Sheet, 2019). South Africa has one of the highest rates of poverty and inequality on the African continent (World Bank Group, 2018). Therefore, it is of concern to the SAHRC when fundamental rights such as the right to have access to food are not realised. The SAHRC can assist with access to food by using its powers to engage with local, provincial and national government departments. Whenever an individual or group cannot enjoy the right to sufficient food, the state must fulfil the right. The SAHRC assists people in engaging the government to realise this right. The SAHRC must

also increase awareness of the right to access food and stimulate reforms in all sectors, including those involved in food production. They also assist with people's complaints and concerns (South African Human Rights Commission Right to Food Fact Sheet, 2019). According to Nevondwe and Odeku (2014), the SAHRC has not yet received complaints about violating the right to food.

The Integrated Food Security Strategy of South Africa (IFSS) was established to integrate all the documents and policies on food security (Drimie & Ruysenaar, 2010, p. 317). The strategy's primary purpose is to provide a holistic response to hunger and malnutrition in South Africa. Drimie and Ruysenaar (2010) argue that even though the right to adequate food for all South Africans has been embedded on many levels, the objective of achieving it has not yet been realised. Hence the question, why has it not been realised? In their analyses of the IFSS, these authors advocate that the IFSS had limited success because there was and is limited stakeholder dialogue between civil society and the government. They conclude that the government did not make any real attempt to harness the expertise and advice of different role players in South Africa (Drimie & Ruysenaar 2010, p.332).

Despite everything done since 1994 to advance food security in South Africa, more than half of the South African population do not have sufficient or the right food to eat (Bailey, 2011; Nevondwe & Odeku, 2014; Statistics South Africa, 2019). Thus, the question: why have CSOs not taken the right to have access to food as seriously as the right to housing, water, and other service deliveries for which they mobilised and advocated? The answer to this question is under investigation in this study.

2.5.2 Food insecurity in the City of Cape Town

According to the 2011 census, approximately 3 740 025 people live in Cape Town. Of these, 23.8% are unemployed, and 37.5% of households live under the poverty line (Statistics South Africa, 2011). A survey conducted by Jane Battersby in 2011 showed similar results – high levels of food insecurity in Cape Town (Battersby, 2011). This author argues that Cape Town has enough food to ensure that no one is food insecure. She suggests that the problem is not supply but access and that sufficient food does not mean that households and community members living on the Cape Flats are food secure (Battersby, 2014, p. 20).

Hanisch, Malvido, Mewes, Reigl, Hansmann and Paganini (2021) released a survey conducted between September and November 2020 on the state of food insecurity in Cape Town, focusing on areas such as Khayelitsha, Mitchells Plain and Gugulethu. Their research used the Food Insecurity Experience Scale developed by the FAO to measure food security in Cape Town. The survey indicated that:

- 34,1% of households were food secure;

- 11,9% were mildly food insecure;

- 23,4% were moderately food insecure;

- 30,6% of households were severely food insecure;

- Gugulethu had the most food-insecure households with 62 %; and

- In Khayelitsha, 58% of households were severely food insecure (Hanisch et al., 2021).

Hanisch et al. (2021) state that even though South Africa is not food insecure, people still struggle with hunger, especially in historically marginalised communities. According to the FAO (2014), the rural populations are hardest hit by food insecurity and poverty. The FAO asserts that the first step towards leveraging resources and solving food security problems involves coordination between the private and public sectors and consumers. Hence, they argue for a 'multisectoral approach' to food security (FAO, 2014).

Kenneth George and Others versus the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (South Africa) is a case in point. This case involved a marine resources law that introduced a quota system for fishing on the West Coast. As a result, several communities lost access to the sea and their means of survival (Tura, 2018). In addition, their nutritional condition worsened as they encountered food insecurity and poverty. Some NGOs assisted the communities in bringing a class action against the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism before the High Court (Cape of Good Hope Provincial Division, 2005). After extensive negotiations, the fishing communities and the government reached a settlement allowing traditional fishermen to fish and sell their products.

Moreover, the High Court gave an order entailing the assignment of permits to fishermen and the introduction of a new legislative and policy framework that would accommodate

traditional fishers more effectively (Tura, 2018). The court specified that the framework should consider international and national legal obligations and policy directives to accommodate the socio-economic rights of the fishers to ensure reasonable access to marine resources (Tura, 2018, p. 22). A commercial fishermen's association later opposed an agreement between the South African government and small-scale fishermen that discharged the latter from legislation outlawing some fishing practices and fishing of certain species such as lobsters. Nevertheless, the agreement was upheld by the Western Cape High Court. The judge endorsed the claim that the fishers relied on the resources from the sea and should be allowed to use traditional fishing methods to feed their families (Tura, 2018).

The case above demonstrates that a clear and sufficient legal framework at the domestic level, widening of standing rules, active participation of NGOs in the protection and promotion of human rights and availability of remedies in a domestic legal system enhance the justiciability of the right to food (Tura, 2018). Tura (2018) suggests that governments should strengthen their legal frameworks on the right to food with clearly defined guidelines and empower courts to resolve economic and social rights cases. To ensure accountability for violating the right to food, governments should also allow the initiation of public interest processes by any person, including civil society, thereby easing the requirement of legal standing. Moreover, governments should renew their political commitment to adopt and implement policies that ensure the progressive realisation of the right to food (Tura, 2018). The researcher agrees with the views of this author.

2.6   CONCLUDING SUMMARY

This chapter contextualised food security on a global, regional and national level. Literature about food security in a global context was first reviewed, followed by literature and food insecurity statistics in Africa. The last part of the chapter focused on food security in South Africa and the Western Cape Province.

I now move to Chapter Three, where literature about civil society organisations and social movements is discussed, as well as the theoretical framework used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE
CIVIL SOCIETY, SOCIAL MOVEMENTS AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter contextualised food security globally, regionally and in South Africa. This chapter contextualise civil society organisations and social movements and provides a detailed discussion of the theoretical underpinnings of the study. The discussion starts with definitions of civil society and social movements. Thereafter, civil society and social movements are discussed globally and in South Africa. The role of civil society organisations during the Covid-19 pandemic is also discussed. This is followed by a detailed discussion of the theoretical framework used in this study. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of what was discussed.

3.2   DEFINING THE CONCEPTS 'CIVIL SOCIETY' AND 'SOCIAL MOVEMENT'

The concept 'civil society' is defined and discussed first, and then the concept 'social movement'.

3.2.1   Defining and understanding the concept of 'civil society'

Civil society can be defined from both a "bottom-up" and a "top-down" approach (Hearn, 2001). From a "bottom-up" approach ", civil society is the realm in which those who are disadvantaged by the globalisation of the world economy can mount their protests and seek alternatives…" (Cox, 1999: 10-11). In a "top-down" approach, governments and corporate interests could influence civil society's attempts to stabilise the social and political status quo (Cox, 1999). Thus, this author acknowledges the influential nature of civil society in that it can be both an agent for change and a catalyst for political stabilisation (Cox, 1999).

Andrée, Clark, Levkoe and Lowitt (2019) assert that civil society exists above the individual and below the state. Murphy (1994) adds to this by defining civil society as the individual's vehicle to become the masses. Civil society organisations take the form of formal and informal associations and can also be religious organisations and social groups. According to Andree et

al. (2019), civil society organisations are formed to fight and work for what they believe to be the collective interest of society. Duncan and Barling (2012) state that civil society organisations (CSOs) are an umbrella term for both social movements and non-governmental organisations.

Kahn (2015) and Pabari, Amisi, David-Gnahoui, Bedu-Addo & Goldman (2020) explain that civil society organisations are valuable in the present by providing immediate relief and the future whereby longer-term transformative change can happen. This change may result from civil society defending collective interests and increasing accountability, providing cohesive opportunities for participation, persuading decision-making, engaging in service delivery, and challenging biasness (Kahn, 2015). Pabari et al. (2020) argue that CSOs can contribute to realising the United Nation's sustainable development agenda and goals. Hence, an assumption can be made that CSOs can play an essential role in positively changing disadvantaged and marginalised groups' circumstances in societies. Such groups can drive and direct their own change by working collaboratively with CSOs representing their interests.

However, the activities of civil society organisations are not left without limitations. Kahn (2015) identifies institutional factors, the level of organisation of state institutions and multiple other parts of governance as restrictions that could obstruct civil society engagement. For this reason, this author highlights the significance of connecting various state institutions and civil society organisations to promote champions of change (Kahn, 2015). If this happens, CSOs can then fight for the needs and interests of the collective.

Moreover, the United Nations have always promoted civil society participation in their processes and dialogues (Duncan & Barling, 2012), which illustrates the emerging collective power of civil society to shape the agenda and influence policymakers and public opinion on a global scale. The World Food Summit Action Plan expressed the need for governments to collaborate with all civil society actors to advance food security on national levels (Duncan & Barling, 2012). One can argue that a constant agenda is set on a global level by the United Nations for governments to engage in food security with the assistance of CSOs.

CSOs working in India, Nepal, Brazil and Malaysia have taken exemplary steps in enforcing the right to food. In most cases, these organisations sought to adopt a sufficient legal framework, establish infrastructure storage facilities, and introduce effective food distribution schemes (Tura, 2018). In South Africa, it was found that a clear and sufficient legal framework at the domestic level, widening of standing rules, active participation of NGOs in the protection and promotion of human rights, and availability of remedies in a domestic legal system enhance the justiciability of the right to food (Tura, 2018). This author argues that governments should renew their political commitment to adopt and implement policies that ensure the progressive realisation of the right to food (Tura, 2018).

3.2.2   Defining and understanding the concept of 'social movement'

Social movements are different from other organisations. According to Diani (1992), the concept 'social movement' represents a distinct and social process in nature. In addition, social movements consist of systems that enable actors to engage in collective action. Diani (1992, p. 90) describes three characteristics of social movements. They (i) "are involved in conflictual relations with clearly identified opponents"; (ii) "are linked by dense informal networks"; and (iii) "they share a distinct collective identity". When engaging in conflictual collective action, social movements pose a challenge to politics or culture with the intent of advancing or opposing social change (Portia & Diani, 2006). Touraine (1981) explains that conflict could mean an oppositional relationship between actors who seek control (power) over the same issue – political, economic, or cultural power, that, in the end, makes negative claims about each other that could damage the interests of the other actors. The above statement could imply that social movements that engage in conflictual collective action do not necessarily seek social justice but can be movements that seek power. Gamson (1992) deepens this understanding of social movements (engaging in conflictual collective action). He asserts that addressing collective concerns or expressing support for moral values is not an automatic trait of social movement action; they must first identify with the problem before they act (Gamson, 1992).

The second characteristic of social movements is that dense informal networks link them. This characteristic sets social movements apart from other collective action activities organised within specific organisations and individuals (Portia & Diani, 2006). These authors explain that

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social movements have common interests and goals. Secondly, both the individual and the group share resources sustainably. Thirdly and more importantly, the individual and the group maintain their independence and autonomy while exchanging resources. They further highlight that all decisions made by social movements to engage in initiatives are pre-determined through negotiations among individuals and groups. No single person or group has the authority to represent a movement as a whole (Portia & Diani, 2006).

The final characteristic of social movements, as defined by Portia and Diani (2006), is that they have a collective identity in common. These authors highlight that social movements do not randomly engage in activities (Portia & Diani, 2006, p. 95). Consequently, social movement processes are in place when a collective identity has been established (Portia & Diani, 2006). According to Pizzorno (1966), this happens when individuals and organisations can strongly associate themselves with a shared vision. Touraine (1981) adds to this by saying that collective identity does not only stem from shared goals but also allows people and organisations to look at themselves as inseparably linked to other performers (Portia & Diani, 2006, p. 96). More important to highlight from Touraine (1981) is that individuals do not necessarily see themselves as identical to others but rather compatible.

Furthermore, according to Chester and Welsh (2011), Bhonagiri (2016) and Horn (2013), social movements can be divided into old and new social movements. Old social movements can be identified by mobilising for substantial resources and political power, whereas new social movements can be identified by advocating for developing issues such as identity, cultural and symbolic matters (Bhonagiri, 2016). Chester and Welsh (2011, p. 2) state that old social movements focus on inclusion and rights within the framework of governments and societal relations. This imply that old social movements focused more on the relationship between the state and society and how that is organised. On the other hand, Horn (2013, p. 21) states that new social movements focused more on shared identity and belonging.

Lastly, Bhonagiri (2016) explains that social movements can go through different phases. Their focus changes over time; they engage in various strategies, and not protesting is not the only way of collective action or mobilisation. Batliwala (2012) and Snow (2013) assert that social movements are change-oriented and demonstrate a degree of continuity over time.

Therefore, one can infer from the above definitions that social movements are fluid, and that identity is integral in their processes.

3.3 THE ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY AND SOCIAL MOVEMENTS GLOBALLY IN FOOD SECURITY

As discussed in the previous section, civil society organisations (CSOs) and social movements can influence and shape policymakers and public opinion agendas on a global scale (Pabari et al., 2020). According to Pattberg (2006), the food security conversation globally is more of a political discussion than anything else. Cerny (2010) takes this debate a little further by adding that the politics attached to food security and the constrain put on institutions have enabled institutions and actors to behave in a certain way. For civil society movements, such restricted global governance processes and institutions are complicated as there are underlying tensions in the involvement of social movements in the global food security and nutrition space (David & Barling, 2012). McMichael (2000) asserts that upholding neoliberal hegemony values has been a motivating factor in world food security policies. For example, negotiations around food security policies have moved towards being more focused on individual and household livelihoods throughout the 1980s after shifting from global cooperation and increased production in the 1970s (Sen, 1981; Maxwell, 1996; Mechlem, 2004; Shaw, 2007). Duncan and Barling (2012) suggest that the creation of the Committee on World Food Security (CFS) encouraged the United Nations (UN) to promote CSOs' participation in processes of dialogue and mobilisation and led to a multitude of summits and conferences. Many viewed this process as an illustration of the collective power of civil society to shape the agenda and influence policymakers and public opinion on a global scale. Next, food security in India, Nepal and Malaysia is discussed to illustrate how South African CSOs can learn from them.

3.3.1 India

The case of India in achieving food security can be seen as an important lesson for South Africa (SA). Similar to SA, India is not subjected to a shortage of food. However, the distribution thereof to the poor and the enforcement of policies and legislation could be the leading causes of malnutrition in India. India has taken exemplary steps in enforcing the right to food in general. Its parliament adopted the Food Security Act in 2013, and the Indian Supreme Court has executed the constitutional right to food as a part of the right to life since 2001

(Tura, 2018). The People's Union for Civil Liberties (PUCL), a prominent human rights organisation in India, instituted a public interest petition before the Supreme Court in 2001 alleging that the government failed to provide essential foodstuff to the people. The PUCL requested the court to order the government to enforce food distribution schemes, policies and legislation. The court recognised that plenty of food was available, but the distribution to the very poor was scarce and non-existent. Additionally, the court found that the cause of malnutrition was not because of a lack of resources but failure to apply legislation and policies in force. The court issued numerous interim orders demanding the government use existing policies, schemes and legislation (Tura, 2018).

3.3.2   Nepal

The case of CSOs in Nepal is also very relevant to South Africa. Similar to Nepal, SA's constitution also enshrines the right to food. In Nepal, based on its constitution, the state and the courts were forced to acknowledge this right and the state's obligations to realise it. The oath taken by these states at the Rome Declaration made a vow to realise the progressive right to food by any measures possible, including ensuring good infrastructure.

In a case regarding the violation of the right to food, the Government of Nepal was brought before the Supreme Court in 2008 by Prakash Mani Sharma and others, on behalf of the Forum for Protection of Public Interest, to bring the government to book for food shortages, inefficient food distribution and rotten food being provided to people (Tura, 2018). This group argued that people were exposed to hunger and diseases because of this. They further demanded that the Nepal Government adopt a sufficient legal framework, establish infrastructure storage facilities and introduce an adequate food distribution scheme (Tura, 2018, p. 20). The court held the government liable for not ensuring a system that provided good infrastructure, systems and institutions to ensure good food to communities and ordered them to do so (Tura, 2018).

Moreover, the court passed the final judgment in 2010 and reiterated that the right to food, health… and social security are all basic human rights and that the state is obliged to realise them (Tura, 2018, p. 20). It is important to note that Article 36 of the Constitution of Nepal (as amended in 2015) explicitly recognises the right to food and food sovereignty (Tura, 2018).

This implies that if a right is recognised in a country's constitution, the state is obliged to ensure people have access to this right and enjoy the right. Thus, it can be inferred that a state should take progressive measures to ensure food security for its citizens.

3.3.3   Malaysia

In 2002, a case concerning the link between land and indigenous people's means of livelihood was brought before the Malaysian Court of Appeal (Tura, 2018). In Kerajaan Negeri Johor versus Adong bin Kuwau, members of the Orang Asli indigenous community in Malaysia invoked a violation of their right to life following the Malaysian government's decision to build a dam on their ancestral land (Tura, 2018, p. 20). Their claim was based on provisions of the constitution, particularly the right to life, domestic legislation (i.e., the Aboriginal Peoples Act), and common law (Tura, 2018, p. 20). The Malaysian Court of Appeal ruled in favour of the claimants. The court found that the communities in Malaysia were dependent on the animals and the forest and that depriving people of their ability to access food may lead to death (Tura, 2018).

The three cases above are examples of how governments were brought to book in their responsibility to ensure people's right to adequate food. However, more importantly, these cases demonstrated the collective power of CSOs and SMEs in bringing about change. CSOs in South Africa can learn from these cases to ensure the right to adequate food for every citizen in the country.

3.4   THE ROLE OF CIVIL SOCIETY AND SOCIAL MOVEMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Civil society in South Africa has its roots planted by anti-apartheid intellectuals and activists. A part of this implantation was the notion that civil society would aid in having a democratic and participatory South Africa that was characterised by the spirit of solidarity (Glaser, 1997; Chiumbu, 2012). Having said this, one must consider that it was not just about civil society in general, but having an autonomous body critical to the successful enhancement of democracy in developing countries. This meant establishing organisations and movements independent from the state or political parties and not subject to the state's influence, but that could engage freely on behalf of the people in pursuit of common social goals. Independence was,

thus, an essential aspect of the establishment of civil society and social movements in South Africa.

Militant and powerful community-based movements were trendy in the 1970s and 1980s, protesting for a free and fair country. These movements often used various tactics to overthrow the apartheid government. (Sinwell, 2011). Communities and organisations worldwide were forming and participating in the collective interest of ensuring a free and fair democratic South Africa. Groups of all ages, races, and cultures were coming together to fight for this cause, from taking it to the street, approaching state institutions, to using the media to gain the rest of the world (Chiumbu, 2012; Sinwell, 2011).

In the 1990s, South Africa saw a rise in social movements concerned with social and economic justice issues. They were viewed as continuing the social forces that fought against apartheid (Buhlungu, 2006). In the late 1990s and early 2000s, social movements such as the Landless People's Movement, Treatment Action Campaign, the Anti-Privatisation Forum, Concerned Citizens Forum, and the Western Cape Anti-Eviction Campaign arose in South Africa (Chiumbu, 2012). According to Habib (2005), social movements, which are informal community-based networks, are mobilising to respond to the democratic government's failure to address unemployment and economic inequalities. Examples are the Treatment Action Campaign, which challenged the AIDS policy, the Soweto Electricity Crisis Committee, and the Concerned Citizens Group, which organised against electricity cut-offs in Soweto and rates evictions and water terminations in Chatsworth (Habib, 2005).

In this regard, Alexander, Runciman, Ngwane, Moloto, Mokgele and Van Staden (2018) report that protests in South Africa have increased from about 500 per year to about 1400 per year from 2005 to 2013. These were community, civic, and service delivery protests (Chiumbu, 2012; Alexander et al., 2018). From the above discussion, one can infer that people's rights have become an essential indicator for civil society and social movements to act and engage in. However, it is also clear that protests and mobilisation are skewed towards service delivery. Not enough attention has been given to the dilemma of food insecurity and the right to food.

However, Chiumbu (2012) suggests that social movements in South Africa are not unified, which weakens their collective power and influence. Similarly, Sinwell (2010) states that social movement struggles are localised, fragmented and often divided. For instance, service delivery protests that have taken place over the past five years in several locations across South Africa are geographically contained and not united into a national movement. Hence, the fragmented nature of social movements in South Africa limits the capacity of these movements to create coherent strategies and impactful change.

3.5 CIVIL SOCIETY AND SOCIAL MOVEMENTS IN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE

Despite the fragmented nature of social movements in SA, Habib (2005) and Alexander et al. (2018) argue that CSOs in the Western Cape Province have made a difference in their focus areas of work due to their level of unity and mobilisation. One civil society organisation and two social movements in the Western Cape Province, namely the Treatment Action Campaign (TAC) civil society organisation, the Western Cape Anti-Eviction Campaign (AEC), and Abahlali base Mjondolo are discussed below. This is done to illustrate their successes achieved in the province.

3.5.1 The Treatment Action Campaign

In December 1998, the Treatment Action Campaign (TAC) was established when they campaigned for access to AIDS treatment (McGeal, 2008). The TAC is regarded as the most prominent and influential CSOs actively engaged in AIDS issues in the developing world (Power, 2003). The year 2002 constituted one of the most critical years for the TAC when it achieved its most noteworthy successes against the Constitutional Court. As a result, the TAC forced the SA government to provide antiretroviral drugs to prevent the transmission of HIV from mothers to their babies during birth (The Treatment Action Campaign, n.d.). Subsequently, the TAC became highly influential in ensuring the government's ability to provide AIDS treatment programmes. It is noteworthy to mention that this has since become the most extensive AIDS treatment programme globally. The TAC has been praised by many across the globe as the number one activist group at the forefront of aids activism (Power, 2003). In 2007, parliament adopted a National Strategic Plan on HIV, STIs and Tuberculosis

2007-2011. Currently, the TAC has over 8000 members, a network of 182 branches, and provincial offices in seven provinces in SA (The Treatment Action Campaign, n.d.).

3.5.2 The Western Cape Anti-Eviction Campaign

The Western Cape Anti-Eviction Campaign (AEC) was established in 2000 (Oldfield & Stokke, 2004, p.13). They aim to fight evictions, water cut-offs and poor health services in Cape Town and is an umbrella organisation for over ten community organisations, namely:

- Blikkiesdorp Informal Committee (Delft)
- The Crossroad Anti-Eviction Campaign (Nyanga)
- The Delft Integrated Network (Delft)
- The Eastridge Anti-Eviction Campaign (Mitchell's Plain)
- The Gugulethu Anti-Eviction Campaign (Gugulethu)
- Hanover Park Anti-Eviction Campaign (Hanover Park)
- The Mandela Park Backyard Dwellers (Khayelitsha)
- Newfields Village Community Representative Committee (Hanover Park)
- Nyanga East Anti-Eviction Campaign (Nyanga)
- The Symphony Way Anti-Eviction Campaign (Delft)
- The Woodridge Anti-Eviction Campaign (Mitchell's Plain)
- Zille-Raine Heights (Parkwood) (Legassick, 2003).

They are also affiliated with the following movements:

- Abahlali baseMjondolo of the Western Cape
- Sikhula Sonke Women Farmworkers Union
- Joe Slovo Liberative Residents (Langa)
- QQ Section Informal Settlement (Khayelitsha)
- Hangberg Solution Seekers Association (Hout Bay)
- KTC Concerned Residents Movement (Nyanga)
- Mitchell's Plain Concerned Hawkers and Traders Association (Mitchell's Plain)
- Gugulethu Informal Traders (Gugulethu)
- Gatesville Informal Traders Association (Athlone) committees (Western Cape Anti-Eviction Campaign, 2010).

The AEC is strongly affiliated with the Landless People's Movement, the Rural Network and Abahlali baseMjondolo. These groups form the Poor People's Alliance (Spannos, 2009). The AEC regard themselves as the persons of poor communities who mobilise against oppressive conditions. The AEC is known for mobilising against the xenophobic attacks in 2008 and opposing the FIFA 2010 World Cup-related evictions (Spannos, 2009). Because of their campaigns, the AEC ensured that no evictions occurred for six months. They are also known for campaigning under the slogan "No land! No House! No Vote!" (Ceasefire, 2009). The Western Cape AEC has influenced many other civil society organisations, such as the Chicago AEC, which also used the slogan "No House, No Vote" (Kampf-Lassin, 2012). Successful campaigns led by the AEC include resisting forced removals from the Symphony Way Pavement Dwellers to Blikkiesdorp, boycotting elections in 2009 and the N2 Gateway housing project (Spannos, 2009). Currently, the AEC is engaging in collective action against evictions, water and electricity cut-offs. They employ different engagement strategies such as direct action, legal challenges, mass mobilisation, popular education, and democratising communities (Spannos, 2009).

3.5.3 Abahlali baseMjondolo

Abahlali baseMjondolo (AbM) was established in 2005 as a movement for the poor, primarily consisting of shack dwellers (Erasmus, 2021). This organisation is known for mobilising against evictions and public housing and is the largest shack dwellers organisation in South Africa. In addition, they were founded on the principle of equality. Their ultimate aim is to improve the poor's living conditions and initiate democracy from below (Buccus, 2010). In addition, they oppose party politics and generally boycott elections. The movement has over 10 000 members and more than 30 000 active supporters in over 40 affiliated settlements (Abahlali baseMjondolo, 2021). The AbM is a highly organised organisation that bases its meetings on thoughtful, democratic, and consensus principles. They have managed to stop evictions, forced removals, enable service delivery in informal settlements in the Cape Town and Durban region, and won the right to build new shacks. The campaign uses big-scale mobilisations and direct actions as a way of protesting. Since the inception of AbM, the number of evictions has decreased (Buccus, 2010).

Vale (2012) asserts that the Treatment Action Campaign and Abahlali baseMjondolo are the most impactful civil society organisations in South Africa because of the change they continue to make on behalf of poor and marginalised communities. In addition, through their mobilisation, these organisations have grown and have become examples for CSOs worldwide. CSOs in the food space can learn from what these organisations have achieved and advocated. The role of CSOs during the Covid-19 pandemic is discussed next.

3.6   THE ROLE OF CSOs DURING THE COVID-10 PANDEMIC

The Covid-19 pandemic became a reality for South Africa at the beginning of 2020. Its rapid spread resulted in a national lockdown enforced in March 2020, which continued for the rest of the 2020 calendar year. The lockdown regulations have impacted South Africa on many different levels with devasted effects on its citizens. Many businesses could not function, which resulted in thousands of people losing their jobs. In addition, the informal food sector was closed, and people's movement to acquire food was restricted, which worsened the hunger crisis (Hanisch, Malvido, Mewes, Reigl, Hanssman & Paganini, 2021).

As the statistics and discussion in Sections 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5 showed, hunger is most prevalent in Asia, with Africa in second place. Covid-19 and the global lockdowns have increased the number of people who experience hunger. The Sustainability Development Goals Report (2021) noted that an additional 119 – 124 million people worldwide became part of the extreme poverty bracket due to the lockdowns.

In South Africa, the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (IPC) identified acute levels of food insecurity due to the prolonged lockdown in its November 2020 to March 2021 report. Table 3.1 below shows the number of people in the different provinces who experienced acute food insecurity during January 2021 – March 2021.

Table 3.1: Acute food insecurity in South Africa, January to March 2021

Province	Number of people
Eastern Cape	1,344,950
Free State	577,624
Gauteng	2,661,608
KwaZulu-Natal	2,782,143
Limpopo	1,173,391
Mpumalanga	720,274
North West	1,031,756
Northern Cape	200,450
Western Cape	1,303,753

Source: South Africa Acute Food Insecurity Nov 2020 – March 2021 Report

Table 3.1 shows that KwaZulu-Natal has the highest level of acute food insecurity in South Africa, with Gauteng not far behind. The Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Limpopo and North West followed. Mpumalanga is the second-lowest, with the Northern Cape Province having the lowest level of acute food insecurity.

Thus, Covid-19 and the national lockdown brought the food insecurity challenge of millions of South Africans to the fore, despite South Africa being regarded as food secure on a national level. It also demonstrated the gap within the government's capacity to ensure people are food secure. In this regard, Battersby (2021) explains that the government's policies are more programme centred and fail to address systemic issues within the food space, which ultimately leads to a failure to ensure and protect the right to food for the vulnerable. Consequently, Covid-19 brought no change to the government actions other than a social grant of R350 for a few months. While people could not access nutritional food, the government closed local shops. This led to many food riots in communities around their crisis - unemployed, housebound and without food (Pikoli, 2021).

Civil society organisations, however, responded with utmost passion. Many networks and organisations were established to assist the government in ensuring food parcels were delivered to the people. The CAN, an umbrella organisation comprising more than 250 civil society organisations, and the Food Relief Co-ordination Forum were established. Tswanya (2020) states that a hunger tragedy was stopped due to CSOs and social movements uniting and distributing food parcels to those in need. This author explains that civil society and the

Centre for the Study of Governance Innovation in the Western Cape Province provided food to more than 41 000 people daily and distributed close to 80 000 food parcels. At the same time, community kitchens also assisted households with vouchers (Tswanya, 2020).

Accordingly, Hanisch et al. (2021) argue that the development of collaborative governance institutions is pivotal in dealing with challenges, as was the case with the national lockdown and the provision of food aid. These authors suggest that basic infrastructure and communities should be at the forefront of these structures. However, Tshwanya (2020) cautions that the challenge is to sustain the efforts into long-term recovery policies and plans. This author suggests that the dynamics of the networks formed should be maintained to advocate for food security and diverse food systems as part of the Western Cape's recovery plan and the recovery plan nationally.

Civil society, activists, and communities have shown unity and collective action power by standing and working together during the national lockdown. Sadly, it took a pandemic to bring food insecurity in South Africa to centre stage. Before Covid-19, the CSOs did not take food insecurity to heart, nor did they focus primarily on this matter as part of their agendas and objectives (referred to Chapter Six). Therefore, the researcher argues that CSOs should continue to work collectively to challenge and influence the government to achieve food security for the poor and marginalised citizens of South Africa. The theoretical framework used in the study is discussed next.

3.7   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The principles of three theories are combined and used as the study's theoretical framework. These theories are Hudson and Lowe's (2009) Agenda Setting Theory, Gaventa's (2006) Power Theory, and Bateson's (1972) Framing Theory. Each Theory is discussed below.

3.7.1   Agenda Setting Theory

The Agenda Setting Theory is the first of the three theories that form part of this study's theoretical underpinnings. Agenda setting is an early stage in the policy cycle concerned with decision-making (Hudson & Lowe, 2009). According to Lonja (2013), setting an agenda is a powerful process because whoever is responsible for developing an agenda for policy

formulation commands much power, which can positively or negatively impact people's lives. Stoker (1998) explains that agenda setting includes establishing a mutual understanding and embeddedness where organisations develop a shared vision and collective capacity to advance a self-working network. Agenda setting, however, can be traced as far back as 1922, when Walter Lippman expressed his concern about the vital role that mass media can have in influencing the setting of a particular image on the public's mind (Lippman, 1922).

According to Ardevol-Abreu (2015), agenda setting emphasises the amount of attention given to an event or situation. The effects of agenda setting are therefore determined by repetition and accessibility. Scheufele (2000) argues that greater salience depends on the attention given to a topic. Agenda setting thus attempts to create and transfer salient issues into the public domain to enable the public to discuss, deliberate or debate these issues while neglecting other issues. Agenda setting ultimately assumes that if people are exposed to the same content, the content will become normalised and acceptable (Scheufele, 2000).

In addition, agenda setting goes back to cognitive processing, which claims that one develops a memory trace or activation tags (Scheufele, 2000). Subsequently, concepts become more accessible in people's memory. This also means that these traces or markers influence later information processing. Priming is important to agenda setting - the priming of a concept enables the activation tags to spread. This also means that the greater the priming of an idea or issue, the greater the influence of the activation tags (Scheufele, 2000). It implies that when a new issue is raised, it has to connect with the memory trace and find an intersection. It also means that people judge issues based on information readily available. Agenda setting is hence regarded as a framework that can be utilised to understand what people think of, which derives from cognitive processing and priming (Scheufele, 2000).

Lastly, Puentes-Markides (2007, p. 2) defines agenda setting as "a political process, conflictive and competitive contingent on competing entries on policy agenda, ability to influence groups to action, positions and views of key policymakers, preferences of interest groups and preferences of decision-makers". Thus, the Agenda Setting Theory is a unified theory because the study is about CSOs and whether they could influence the government's agenda to make

food security a priority in South Africa. Therefore, it assisted the researcher in the analysis process and the discussion of the results in Chapter Six.

3.7.2   Power Theory

The Power Theory is the second theory that forms part of the theoretical underpinnings of this study. According to Weber (1978, p. 53), power is "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite the resistances". This implies that a relationship is already in place and that it is highly likely that one person will have control over the other person. Weber (1978) contributes to the conversation of power by confirming that power relationships are important and can be embodied in many different forms. The type of power depends on the connection (Weber, 1978).

Gaventa (2006, p. 28) explains that the Power Theory developed through an exploration of how powerful actors control an agenda and the ability of less powerful actors to build their awareness and action for change. Thus, the Power Theory is a framework that outlines situations, actors, relationships and forces and provides alternatives for movements, mobilisation and change (Gaventa, 2006).

Gaventa (2006) further explains three dimensions of this theory, namely forms, spaces, and levels. The forms dimension refers to the three ways power can be exercised: visible, hidden and invisible. Political bodies, governments, and social movements use the visible form of power for collective action. This form of power assumes that decision-making arenas are open to all. Observing how participants win and lose within these arenas can establish who has power. However, this form of power cannot identify whose voices are not represented (Gaventa, 2006).

Green (2019) adds that visible power is also when it is clear who holds power. Thus, there is no doubt that funders are providing the financial resources, and the government, for example, as they have regulating power, e.g. the Department of Trade and Industry, which oversees farming. Hence, visible power highlights the apparent political power, including the rules, structures, key players, and decision-making bodies. This power level seeks to influence and change the people, the process and the policy-making institutions – sometimes for the

betterment of the citizens, but other times to control and limit citizens' rights and concerns (The International Peacebuilding Advisory Team, 2015).

On the other hand, hidden power demonstrates how certain actors are kept from getting to the decision-making table and ways in which specific issues are kept off the agenda (Gaventa, 2006). Hidden power can employ framing as one tool to undervalue matters, thus preventing them from getting attention. In addition, organisations use hidden power to maintain their power by creating barriers to participation and by excluding key issues from their employees or the public. It creates an environment where there is little room for alternatives and where rules are unfair against specific issues (Gaventa, 2006). One way to challenge this form of power is to use research and the media to contest how issues are framed.

Invisible power refers to how awareness of people's rights and interests is hidden through adopting values and forms of behaviour by vulnerable groups (Gaventa, 2006). As a result, people can see various forms of power over them as natural and unquestioned. Invisible power also becomes normal to people and will lead to people not knowing that they are entitled to certain rights and have the right to speak up or even voice their concerns (Gaventa, 2006). This implies that invisible power limits people's psychological and ideological thinking. More importantly, this form of power can keep critical issues from the agenda and the consciousness of people (Gaventa, 2006). By controlling how people think about issues, one can control and shape people's beliefs and their "acceptance of the status-quo" (Gaventa, 2006, p. 29).

It is important to note that, according to the International Peacebuilding Advisory Team (2015), power is both an enabling factor and hindrance to change and that, if one is interested in changing an issue, one would be attentive to the dynamics of power. The team acknowledges that the study of power plays an integral part in understanding the political economy, the strategies used for change, and the confidence levels to enable change. They argue that power is key to reducing social ills such as inequality, poverty, and tyranny. Power is critical to advancing democracy, participation, and transparency and enabling open and responsible governance. The disproportions between stakeholders, authority, wealth, social

status, gender, age, knowledge about an issue, and self-confidence are due to power dynamics and the environment (International Peacebuilding Advisory Team, 2015).

Accordingly, the Power Theory is an essential framework for understanding the power dynamic within groups, organisations and people. The three types of power (visible, invisible and hidden) assisted the researcher in understanding the power dynamics in the behaviours and actions of the CSOs that participated in this study. That is why it is included as part of the study's theoretical underpinnings.

3.7.3   Framing Theory

The Framing Theory is the third and final Theory used as part of the study's theoretical framework. The theoretical foundations of framing are situated in interpretive sociology, which considers the way people interpret their reality, everyday life situations, and their definitions thereof (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015). Goffman (1974) developed the concept and theories of framing in sociology. He referred to a frame as a social framework and a mental plan that allows users to organise their experiences. The initial meaning of framing developed from the individual to the collective and from the psychological to the sociological domain. This was because of Goffman's belief that "frames are instruments of society that allow people to maintain a shared interpretation of reality" (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015). In addition, it is established that one can distinguish between generic and specific frames, where specific frames apply to a particular topic or event. In contrast, generic frames apply to different circumstances and have greater flexibility (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015). According to Snow, Rochford, Worder & Benford (1986), frames can be viewed as systems that allow people to locate, observe, recognise and label occurrences within their living space and the world.

In the mid-1980s, researchers in the social sciences turned their focus off the Framing Theory towards mobilising ideas and values. Using frames in the study of social movements, however, has its roots in the work of Goffman (1974). According to Entman (1993), framing is important to social movements, mobilisations and identity creations. Also, framing processes regard social movements as necessary in producing meaning to interpret situations deliberately and the environment to advance support and mobilisation (Entman, 1993). Entman (1993) argues that campaigns that engage in constructing a particular frame will consciously build a point of

view that promotes others to interpret the fact of a given situation following their interpretation of it. By forming a certain frame, this author explains that social movement organisations select some aspects of reality and make them more salient than others.

Snow and Benford (2000) advocate that collective action frames are action-oriented sets of beliefs and connotations that motivate and legitimise the activities and actions of a social movement organisation. These authors explain that collective action frames can be identified by three independent processes: diagnostic, prognostic and motivational framing processes. Diagnostic framing is when a problem is identified. This frame recognises that a specific condition is unacceptable. Instead of blaming an individual, the situation or condition is seen as a structural failure that needs political or economic change. Prognostic framing offers a solution as this frame is about mobilising action among participants. The final frame is motivational framing, which explains why movements should engage in collective action against a particular issue. This framing, therefore, refers to the motivation for acting against a specific situation or condition (Snow & Benford, 2000).

Snow and Benford (1988) suggest collective action frames can be identified in terms of the degree of resonance. Resonance refers to the degree of effectiveness of frames. However, this degree can be subjected to two sets of related factors: credibility and salience. Primary in salience is how important are the beliefs, values and ideas associated with movement to the lives of the targets of mobilisations (Snow & Benford, 2000). Therefore, it can be inferred that the closer the beliefs and values of social movements, the greater the chances of collective action and mobilisation.

Moreover, Thow et al. (2018) established three critical frames within the food and nutrition policy sphere in a study conducted on policy coherence for food security and nutrition in South Africa. The first frame was the Economic Growth Coalition, the second the Food Security and Agriculture Production Coalition, and the last, the Health Coalition frame (Thow et al., 2018). The Economic Growth Coalition focuses on how economic growth and employment impact food security and nutrition outcomes. These authors suggest that industry is important in realising the food policy objectives. The government and industry should work together to achieve food security and nutrition policy goals. The coalition frames the food and nutrition

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problem as a priority. The Food Security and Agriculture Production Coalition frames food insecurity as a big concern. They suggest that little consideration was given to nutrition and insufficient support for local production. This frame underscores the importance of local markets in strengthening food security. The Health Coalition claims that food supply policy is important in creating healthy food environments and that the coexistence of multiple forms of malnutrition is the main nutritional problem. However, the challenge is that the food system is difficult to change (Thow et al., 2018).

Thus, food security can be framed differently, as shown in the discussions above. Still, none of these ways speaks to what is required for change and impact to realise the right to have access to food for poor and marginalised households and communities. Nonetheless, framing food security, especially the diagnostic, prognostic and motivational framing process stages, is important to this study. Therefore, these three types of framing were used to ascertain how the CSOs framed the food security/insecurity problem and how they dealt with it. Figure 3.1 below provides a visual representation of the theories' elements, how they were applied to the data analysis process, and the discussion and interpretation of the results in Chapter Six.

Agenda Setting Theory
The amount of attention given to an event of sitution

- Three aspects:
- Mutual understanding
- Attention given
- Influence

Power Theory
Outlines situations, actors, relationships and forces

- Three types:
- Visible
- Invisible
- Hidden

Framing Theory
To locate, observe, recognise and label situations/events

- Framing processes:
- Diagnostic
- Prognostic
- Motivational
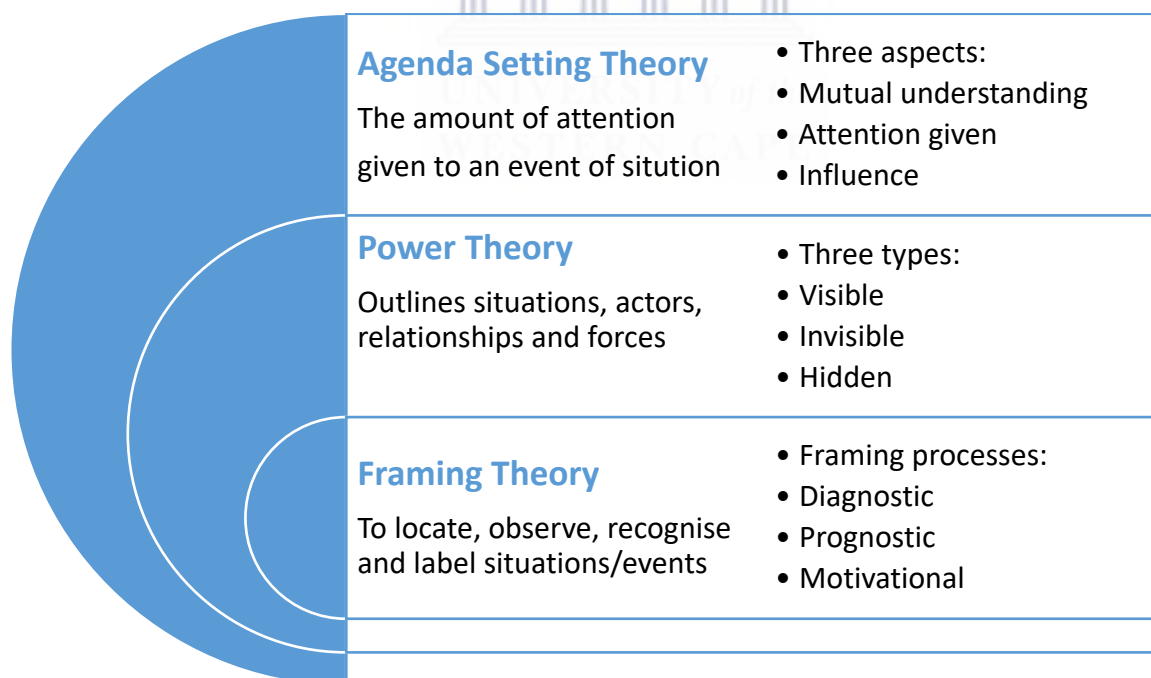
 Figure 3.1: Visual representation of the elements of the three theories

3.8   CONCLUDING SUMMARY

This chapter discussed literature about civil society organisations (CSOs) and social movements and their role in society, both globally and in South Africa. This was done to unpack how CSOs have mobilised around the right to food and provide information on successful CSOs in the Western Cape Province. A discussion on Covid-19, the impact of the national lockdown in South Africa, and how CSOs and other organisations worked together to provide food aid to households and communities was also presented. Finally, the chapter concluded with a detailed discussion of the three theories used as the study's theoretical framework.

The next chapter, Chapter Four, presents the methodological processes followed in this study.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed civil society organisations and the theoretical framework used in the study. This chapter presents a detailed account of the research process followed. The study's aim, objective, main research question and sub-questions are restated. This is followed by a discussion of the qualitative research paradigm within which the study is positioned. Thereafter, an explanation and justification for a Grounded Theory research design are given, and the chapter concludes with a detailed account of the research process followed, and a concluding summary.

4.2   AIM, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As stated in Section 1.3, the study aimed to understand how civil society organisations in the Western Cape Province interacted with the right to food and whether there were barriers to their potential in realising the right to food for communities in the province.

Three objectives were identified, namely, to:

- Understand how civil society organisations frame the issue of food insecurity in the Western Cape Province;

- Investigate whether these organisations promote the right to have access to food for communities in the Western Cape Province and if they did not, why did they not;

- Propose recommendations on how civil society organisations could overcome the barriers to realise the right to food for the communities in the province.

On the premise of the theoretical framework used in this study, the researcher argues that if food security and nutrition are framed in a manner that reflects the beliefs and values of CSOs, more consideration from these organisations will be given to this problem. As a result, it will become a priority on their agenda. Based on the above argument, this study aimed to find answers to the following research question:

> *Were civil society organisations in the Western Cape Province promoting the right to food, and if not, what could be done so that the right to food can become a priority in the province?*

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Three sub-research questions guided the data collected and the discussions. These were:

4. Which Civil Society Organisations were active in the food security landscape in the Western Cape province?

5. Were these organisations promoting the right to food in the province? If they are not doing this, why are they not?

6. What suggestions can be made on how civil societies could work together to influence the government to prioritise food security?

The study's aims, objectives, and research questions were qualitative; hence, the study is situated within a qualitative research paradigm.

4.3   SITUATING THE STUDY IN A QUALITATIVE RESEARCH PARADIGM

The study is located within a qualitative research paradigm. Babbie (2016, 2020) states that providing meaning to the definition of qualitative research is very technical and that there is not only one definition to explain this approach. The qualitative research paradigm can be defined as an exploratory process where meaning is given to a particular social phenomenon using multiple techniques such as contrasting, comparing and replicating (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Auricombe & Mouton, 2007). According to Creswell (2014), this approach requires the researcher to enter the field of study to understand the participants' perceptions and meanings. Babbie and Mouton (2007, p. 270) explain that a qualitative research paradigm provides a lens to describe and analyse human behaviour from their contexts and situations, referred to as the participants' "natural setting". They further state that an important characteristic of qualitative research is its attempt to view the world through the eyes of the participants themselves (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Yin (2014) and Stake (2008) are also of the view that qualitative research aims to build and understand social phenomena in their natural settings.

Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2011, p. 9) explain it aptly, "Qualitative research allows a researcher to examine in detail the experiences of people within their natural setting and to identify how their experiences and behaviour are shaped by the social, economic, cultural and physical context that they live in". The above characteristic of qualitative research allowed the researcher to understand and gain insights from the research participants in their natural settings.

In addition, Creswell (2013) explains that a qualitative research approach uses the researcher as the main instrument and allows the researcher to use different data collection techniques, complex and analytical reasoning that are both inductive and deductive, and the researcher's reflexivity. This author also states that qualitative research endeavours to give a holistic justification of the research process followed (Creswell, 2013). This qualitative research quality is another reason the study is situated within a qualitative research paradigm. It assisted the researcher in investigating and examining the views, perceptions and actions of the three participant groups holistically.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2007, 2009), qualitative research embodies a naturalistic approach as a phenomenon is observed and understood in its natural setting. People interact with their surroundings and give meaning based on their backgrounds, culture and traditions. Hence, the environment or context within which qualitative researchers conduct their research is important as it helps researchers interpret what they find (Babbie & Mouton, 2007, 2009; Creswell, 2014). Qualitative researchers look for the involvement of their participants in data collection and seek to build rapport and credibility with the individuals in the study (Creswell, 2014). In addition, the data collection methods were based on open-ended observations, interviews and documents; however, over time, various techniques have been added, such as materials, sounds, emails and scrapbooks (Atieno, 2009, Creswell, 2014). This study used two data collection techniques (a net-mapping workshop and in-depth interviews) to collect the data.

Kim, Sefcik and Bradway (2017) state that the qualitative researcher uses complex reasoning that is multi-faceted, iterative, and simultaneous. These authors explain that although the reasoning is mainly inductive, both inductive and deductive processes are employed. The thinking process is also iterative, cycling back and forth between the data collected and analysis to problem reformulation and back. Added to this are the simultaneous collection, analysis and writing of data (Kim et al., 2017).

Babbie and Mouton (2007), Creswell (2013, 2014) and Yin (2014) advocate that qualitative research is fundamentally interpretive. This includes developing a description of an individual

or setting, analysing data for themes or categories, and finally, making an interpretation or drawing conclusions about its meaning personally and theoretically, stating the lessons learned and offering further questions to be asked (Babbie & Mouton, 2007; Creswell, 2013, 2014; Yin, 2014). For this study, the first participant group were involved in a net-mapping process in which they mapped out the different CSOs involved in the food space, the focus areas, and the linkages among the organisations. Afterwards, this group reflected on the net-mapping process and shared their views and impressions. The remaining two participant groups were interviewed. All the qualitative responses were analysed through content analysis, using a three-stage open-coding process.

Lastly, qualitative research can use four design strategies: the phenomenological method, grounded theory, case study, and ethnographic design (Creswell, 2014). The phenomenological research design is concerned with the researcher highlighting human experiences about a specific phenomenon, as described by the participants in a study. Grounded Theory is where the researcher aims to establish a view of a process, action or interaction embedded in the participants' perceptions in the study. In this design, many multiple stages are employed during the data collection process and emphasis is laid on constant comparisons of data and theoretical sampling (Saunders, Sim, Kingstone, Baker, Waterfield, Bartlam, Burroughs & Jinks, 2018). A case study design allows the researcher to explore an event, situation or activity in-depth (Stake, 2008). In this instant, the researcher is limited by the time in which detailed information is collected using various data collection tools (Stake, 2008). An ethnographic design is used when researchers aim to study a cultural group in their natural setting over a prolonged period. This is done through observational data (Creswell, 2014). A Grounded Theory design was used for this study.

4.3.1 Critique of qualitative research

While qualitative research has many strengths and benefits, it is important to note some critiques against this approach. One critique is that qualitative research is described as a complete and detailed data analysis. Thus, little to no emphasis is put on frequencies to the linguistic features identified in the data (Rahman, 2017). Babbie and Mouton (2007) view a detailed data analysis as a strength rather than a weakness. Such an analysis allows

researchers to accurately perceive how the participants experience their worlds, allowing for common themes. The researcher supports Babbie and Mouton's stance.

According to Rahman (2017), another weakness is qualitative studies' representativeness, replicability, reliability and reactivity. It is regarded as a weakness because the sample size is often small, so the findings cannot be generalised, as is the case with quantitative approaches. Coupled with this critique is that people react differently in different settings, which means that the findings will not apply to a broader audience. A counter-argument for smaller sample sizes is that it allows researchers to create a deeper level of understanding of the participants and their surroundings (Atieno, 2009; Creswell, 2013, 2014). In addition, the purpose of qualitative research is not to generalise the findings but rather to understand and examine a specific situation and context in detail to find a solution to the problem (if it was a problem) or to improve or change a particular context (Babbie & Mouton, 2007; Stake, 2010).

Lastly, the role and influence of the researcher in qualitative studies have also been challenged (Atieno, 2009; Babbie & Mouton, 2007). It is noted that the perceptions and background of the researcher can play an important role in a qualitative study as they can direct how research questions are constructed. This challenges the objectiveness of the study in the entire process (Atieno, 2009; Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Babbie and Mouton (2007), Creswell (2013; 2014) and Stake (2010), among others, state that it is crucial to understand the difference between qualitative and quantitative approaches and the fact that objectivity can be achieved in different ways. Qualitative researchers want to understand a situation 'within a specific context'. Hence, it is not about the researchers' objectivity but the trustworthiness of the participants and that which they share with the researchers (Babbie & Mouton, 2007; Creswell, 2013, 2014; Stake, 2010). The researcher agrees with these counter-arguments.

4.4   A GROUNDED THEORY RESEARCH DESIGN

As discussed in Section 4.3 above, a Grounded Theory (GT) research design is one of four designs associated with qualitative research. Glaser and Strauss (Goulding, 2005) first acknowledged Grounded Theory. They collaborated on a study to understand how the terminally ill made meaning of their health status (Goulding, 2005). It included examining the

patients' reaction to the fact that they were terminally ill and the reaction of the staff that cared for these patients. Key to this study was Glaser and Strauss enquiring about the use of a scientific method of verification, which led to the constant comparative approach and generating a theory (Tie, Birks, & Francis, 2019). This way of research is described as an authentic way of organising and analysing qualitative data. Subsequently, in 1967, Glaser and Strauss published *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research,* which provided the basis on how theory can be created from data inductively (Tie et al., 2019). Following the discovery of this data collection research tool, Glaser and Strauss wrote independently and from different perspectives about Grounded Theory methods.

Over time, the Grounded Theory has seen various philosophical viewpoints rise, leading to different methodologies (Goulding, 2005). These include Birks and Mills's contemporary perspective of Grounded Theory, which focuses on the beginner researcher by providing an objective approach to Grounded Theory (Remenyi, 2018). Grounded Theory can be recognised in different genres: traditional or classic, symbolic interactionism and constructivist. Conventional or Classic Grounded Theory, associated with Glaser, generates a conceptual theory that interprets a behaviour pattern. The second genre, symbolic interactionism, stems from work associated with Strauss, Corbin and Clarke. This genre looks at the subjective meaning people attach to specific processes of social interaction based on what people believe. Constructivist Grounded Theory, the third genre developed by Charmaz, has its roots in symbolic interactionism. This genre focuses on how people create meaning concerning the area of inquiry (Tie et al., 2019).

Although many commonalities exist amongst these genres, there are differences such as the philosophical views of the researcher, the type of literature used, and the coding, analysing and theory development approach (Tie et al., 2019). Thus, from the definition of Grounded Theory as defined by Glaser and Strauss, many other versions of Grounded Theory have emerged, such as:

Glaser and Holton (2004, p. 1) define Grounded Theory as "a set of integrated conceptual hypotheses systematically generated to produce an inductive theory about a substantive area".

Strauss and Corbin (2008, p. 12) define Grounded Theory as a "theory that was derived from data, systematically gathered and analysed through the research process. The researcher begins with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data".

Charmaz (2006, p. 187) defines Grounded Theory as "a method of conducting qualitative research that focuses on creating conceptual frameworks or theories through building inductive analysis from the data".

Birks and Mills (2015) refer to Grounded Theory as a process by which theory is generated from data analysis. These authors argue that an idea is not discovered; instead, it is constructed by researchers who view the world through their particular lenses.

From the above definitions, an inference can be made that Grounded Theory is a method that the researcher uses to create a theory, or a process, action or interaction rooted in the participants' perceptions in a study. It includes several phases of data collection and two essential characteristics, a constant comparison of data and theoretical sampling of different groups.

Tie et al. (2019) advocate that Grounded Theory research design focuses on giving meaning to the underlying social processes of a group. For this reason, the researcher used a Grounded Theory Design for this study. Furthermore, the aim and objectives of the study were restated under Section 4.2 above. Hence, a Grounded Theory Design assisted the researcher in assigning meaning to the phenomenon under investigation. More specifically, the second genre of Grounded Theory (Symbolic Interactionism) was applied in this study because the researcher examined the subjective meaning civil society organisations placed on mobilising for the right to food based on what they believed was true and important. Thus, this study's aim fits a Grounded Theory 's explorative nature. Finally, a Grounded Theory design was suitable for this study because it examined the behaviour of CSOs, which had an interactional element.

4.4.1   Challenges associated with a Grounded Theory research design

Two forms of critiques against a Grounded Theory research design are countered. First, according to Bryant and Charmaz (2007), a Grounded Theory design does not consider the researcher's views, which could hinder the researcher's interpretation. However, Simmons (2006) argues that because the researcher does not have preconceived ideas of the outcomes of a study, the value of Grounded Theory is that it prevents the researcher from making assumptions and puts the researcher in an unbiased state of mind. This can also lead to more in-depth answers to research questions.

The second critique is that large amounts of data can be collected, leading to difficulty in managing the data (Timonen, Foley, & Conlon, 2018). While Timonen et al. view this as a challenge, Charmaz (2006, p. 14) argues that rich data will make the world appear 'anew'. This author advocates that the amount of data collected in Grounded Theory will provide the researcher with tangible and solid information that will lead to a detailed study of an issue (Charmaz, 2006). The researcher agrees with this author as the data collected from the research participants provided rich data.

4.5 RESEARCH PROCESS FOLLOWED

The research proposal of this study was submitted to the relevant committees at the University in accordance with the requirements for a master's degree before the selection of the research participants, and the data collection process could commence (refer to Addendum 1). The research site, participants, the data collection methods, and the data analysis process are discussed below.

4.5.1. The Research Site

As indicated in Section 1.6.2, the study's 'research site' was the DST/NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security, jointly hosted by the University of the Western Cape and the University of Pretoria (DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security, 2014).

The DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security was launched in 2014. One of the senior researchers established a community of practice in 2017 (DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security, 2014). The community of practice consisted of member organisations from

academia, the Western Cape local government, and 92 organisations operating in the food space, both nationally and within specific provinces in South Africa.

Due to the participation of different CSOs in this study, another research site was identified, which had to be neutral for everyone. This was the research site where the net-mapping workshop took place on February 5, 2020, a venue in one of the townships on the Cape Flats. Subsequently, the Covid 19 pandemic broke out, and a national lockdown was declared on March 26, 2020. This meant that no other face-to-face data could be collected. Hence, a third site needed to be identified, an online one. The interviews with the remaining two participant groups occurred online via Zoom and Google Meets platforms.

4.5.2 Research participants

The study had three different research participant groups. The first group was selected from members and civil society organisations already participating in the community of practice established under the DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security.

An invitation to participate in the net-mapping workshop was sent to organisations belonging to the community of practice via email, together with an information sheet and a consent form (refer to Addenda 2 and 3). The workshop aimed to establish which civil society organisations were active in the food security landscape and which organisations or bodies impacted the CSOs. In addition, it was also important to establish linkages among CSOs and other organisations in the food space and to ascertain who had the most influence/power.

Representatives from 11 of the 92 organisations attended the net-mapping workshop and agreed to participate in the study. This participant group's selection was a convenient sampling method due to their accessibility and proximity (Patton, 2015; Silverman, 2016). Silverman (2016) explains that a convenient sampling method is a non-probability sampling technique where subjects are selected because of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher.

The participants compiled a list of civil society organisations already participating in the food space and civil society organisations that should be part of the food space at the net-mapping

workshop. A Google worksheet was created where organisations could add organisations to the list. The second and third participant groups were selected from this list (a copy of the list is attached as Addendum 4). The second group consisted of senior members of two NGOs and four NPOs. Participant group number three included six advocacy groups. Their selection was a purposive sampling method because they met the criteria: they should have been operating in the food space and preferably in the Western Cape Province. The selected participants were consistent with the aim and objectives of the study and provided answers to the research questions during the data collection process. Patton (2015) and Silverman (2016) explain that a purposive sampling selection method is suitable for qualitative studies because the aim is to obtain a detailed understanding of the phenomena in question. These authors further point out that purposive sampling must be consistent with the aim and objectives of the study and should enable the researcher to find answers to the research questions (Patton, 2015; Silverman, 2015).

4.5.3 Data Collection Instruments

The data for this study were gathered through two main methods: a net-mapping workshop and in-depth interviews. The process of the net-mapping workshop is explained in Section 4.5.3.1 below. The second instrument was in-depth interviews with the remaining two participant groups: senior members of two NPOs, four NGOs, and six advocacy groups. Babbie and Mouton (2004) highlight that using multiple data collection instruments is expected. It allows for an in-depth description of the study and could add to the reliability of the findings presented. The empirical data collection was conducted in five phases, illustrated in Figure 4.1 below.

Phase 1
•Identification and selection of civil society organisations for net-mapping workshop

Phase 2
•Net-mapping workshop took place in a venue in one of the townships on the Cape Flats on February 5, 2020.

Phase 3
•Identification and selection of other CSOs working in the food space (Google worksheet)

Phase 4
•Conducted online interviews with two NGOs and four NPOs as identified in phase 3. The interviews took place in October 2020.

Phase 5
•Conducted online interviews with the six advocacy groups as identified in phase 3. The interviews took place in November 2020.

Figure 4.1: The empirical data collection phases

The two data collection techniques are explained below.

4.5.3.1 Net-mapping workshop

Eva Schiffer created net-mapping in 2007 to understand and visualise social relations between different stakeholders. It also assists people in understanding which actors are involved in a given network, how they are linked, how influential they are and what their goals are (Schiffer & Waale, 2008). Net-mapping can be beneficial for actors in any social platform as it enables members of groups to dialogue and learn from each other (Schiffer, 2007). This author asserts that net-mapping can improve and better coordinate multi-stakeholder governance and help understand and strategically improve networks. This can be significant in a group setting such as CSOs and how they operate. For example, one can determine the influence other actors have on achieving CSOs' goals and whether these actors support CSOs or whether they are holding the CSOs back in achieving their goals. In addition, Schiffer (2007) explains that by using one's influence, net-mapping could strengthen or weaken certain links, convince actors to support you or even change your goals.

Net-mapping combines two existing methods: social network analysis and the power mapping tool (Schiffer, 2007). First, a participatory approach is employed whereby the interviewee and interviewer map out the actors they believe to be part of a given network and then categorise the different linkages between them. After that, influence towers are added to the net map. This enables the interviewer to identify a three-dimensional power and influence relationship between the different actors (Schiffer, 2007). Thus, net-mapping is a tool that identifies the influence, governance situation, and qualitative and quantitative data about the perceived power and influence among different actors (Schiffer & Waale, 2008).

How to Net-Map

Before one can net-map, it is essential to know which questions should be asked, such as who is actively involved in food security and who can influence the success of projects? The defined links such as giving money, giving support, the flow of information and giving a command, and the goals of each actor are also important issues that need to be decided on beforehand. In addition, the actors are selected based on their involvement in the given network or platform, such as food security. One should thus ask: who is involved in the food security arena? Each actor's name should be written on the cards and placed on an empty net-map sheet. Links will then be drawn among the different actors. This can be done by going through each link individually. Finally, arrows are drawn among the actor cards based on the participants' directions (Schiffer, 2007; Schiffer & Waale, 2008).

An influence tower demonstrates how strongly one actor can influence another actor. However, before this can be done, the facilitator and participants of the net-mapping exercise must agree on a definition of influence. Further, the participants must understand that it is about the influence on the actors, not on the rest of the world. Once this is established, participants can start allocating influence towers to the actors. The higher the influence, the higher the tower. Before this can be placed on the net map, participants should be allowed to verbalise and change the towers. A final step in the net-mapping process is identifying the actors' goals. This establishes which directions the organisations are moving and who can influence their directions (Schiffer, 2007; Schiffer & Waale, 2008).

The participants actively participated in the net-mapping workshops through physically drawing or mapping out responses to the following clusters of questions:

1. *Which Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) were active in the food space*? (What did they do? What was their aim? With whom do they work?)

2. *How were these CSOs linked to each other*? (e.g. through funding, information sharing, joint action). Were there any factors that prevented or encouraged linkages? (e.g. competition and conflict)

3. *Which external organisations influence CSOs and are influenced by them?* (e.g. state, academia, funders, and private sector)?

4. Which organisations (including CSOs) are the most influential, and why?

The first set of questions started with participants identifying the organisation they represented and their people (what their constituencies were and whose interests they were serving). They then identified other active CSOs in the food space with which their organisations worked. Lastly, they identified all the CSOs they knew in the food space. The organisations were then clustered on the map according to categories devised by the participants.

The second set of questions asked the participants to highlight links and collaboration between their organisations and other organisations on the map. This was done by connecting the organisations through different coloured lines. The green line indicated that they were linked by joint action, the blue line indicated information sharing, and the red line showed competition and conflict between the organisations.

The third question asked the participants to identify external organisations that influence what they do and what other CSOs do. The government, media, political organisations, development organisations, private sector, and funders were indicated on the map. A black line was drawn to illustrate funding flows between organisations.

For the last question, the participants had to identify which organisations had the most influence. Participants placed a red, green, or blue star on each organisation. The red star indicated influence through funds, the green star indicated regulation influence, and the blue star displayed influence through knowledge. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 in Chapter Five visually illustrate the net-mapping process.

4.5.3.2 In-depth interviews

According to Gill, Stewart, Treasure and Chadwick (2008), the purpose of an interview is to explore individuals' views, experiences, beliefs, and motivations on specific matters. More significantly, an in-depth interview is a tool that enables participants to elaborate extensively about their experiences to provide a clear picture of events taking place in their lives (Creswell, 2013; 2014). In addition, quoting directly from participants encapsulates "the language and meaning expressed by participants". It is also argued that interviews are not rigid and allow for probing and flexibility. According to Spradley (2003), there are three key elements for the interview method to be successful. Firstly, an interview should have an explicit purpose. This is when the researcher and the participant are both aware of the purpose of the discussion (Kim, Sefcik & Bradway, 2017; Spradley, 2003). Secondly, an interview requires ethnographic explanations whereby the participant is encouraged to use informal language when explaining a concept. This provides clarity and understanding to the researcher (Kim, Sefcik & Bradway, 2017; Spradley, 2003). Lastly, an interview should include ethnographic questions (Jackson & Verberg, 2007). Ethnographic questions are divided into three types of questions which are descriptive, structural and contrast questions:

- Descriptive questions – ask participants to describe their experiences (For example, their ideas, circumstances, viewpoints and dilemmas.)

- Structural questions – ask participants how they organise their world (For example, activities)

- Contrast questions – ask participants what is meant by specific terminology (Jackson & Verberg, 2007)

This method was important for this study because the researcher wanted to gain insight into the organisations' objectives and whether or not the organisations perceived food security/insecurity as a priority to influence policy around the food system in the Western Cape Province and South Africa.

In March 2020, the world was hit by Covid-19, leading to national lockdowns. The University of the Western Cape also stated that no face-to-face research should be conducted. Subsequently, all the interviews had to be done online. Online interviews were arranged but

could not occur due to IT-related challenges. These challenges were addressed, and the interview process started in October 2020 and ended at the end of November 2020.

An emailed invitation was sent to the identified participants in which they were informed about the study and invited to participate. The participants responded to the invitation and consented to be part of the study. Online meeting dates and times were arranged with each participant. The interviews lasted 45 minutes to an hour. Zoom and Google Hangouts were the preferred choices of online media to use. Consent was also asked to record the interviews, which were transcribed afterwards. The same questions were asked in each interview (a copy of the questions is attached as Addendum 6).

4.5.4 Data Analysis Process

The data collected from the three participant groups were grouped into three sets. Each data set consists of both quantitative and qualitative data. Data set 1 consisted of the data gathered from the first participant group attending the net-mapping workshop. Data set 2 comprised the data collected from the interview responses from the second participant group (the two NGOs and four NPOs). The interview responses of the third and last participant group, the six advocacy groups, formed data set 3. The quantitative responses were analysed by noting the participants' biographical information, including the year they were established, their focus areas, and in which areas they were active. This information was summarised in table format using Microsoft Word Table software. The tables are presented in Chapter 5, Section 5.1, 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4.

The first qualitative data set was the responses from the net-mapping workshop, where participants were asked to reflect on the map reported in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.3. Participants were also asked to reflect on a way forward, and these responses are recorded in Chapter 5, Section 5.2.4 (refer to Addenda 7, 8 and 9). The second set of qualitative data were the responses from the semi-structured interviews of the second participant group, the NPO and NGO groups, and the third set of qualitative data were the responses from the semi-structured interviews of the third participant group, the six advocacy groups. The interviews were recorded, and the answers were transcribed.

The data were analysed through content analysis, using a three-stage open coding process. Creswell (2013, 2014) suggests that an open coding process forms part of qualitative analysis and is effective because it assists in pattern matching. Also, Henning, Van Rensburg, and Smit (2004) explain that the open coding process allows concurrent activities that categorise the data into themes and sub-themes. The transcriptions were used as open coding stage 1, containing all participants' responses. In open coding stage two, the responses from the transcriptions were sorted and grouped onto a new Word document. In open coding stage three, the responses were categorised into the themes and sub-themes (again on a separate Word document) based on the theoretical framework's three theories (refer to Addendum 10, second participant group, and Addendum 11, third participant group).

Using the theoretical framework's three theories to analyse the qualitative data placed the analysis of the data within a deductive approach (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). However, the net-mapping process and the reflections thereafter (from participant group 1) were inductively done (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Henning et al., 2004).

4.6   CONCLUDING SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research process that was followed in this study. A detailed description and justification of actions taken and decisions made were provided based on social science scholars and theorists' perspectives and sound research practices. This chapter was challenging. It required in-depth reading, reflection, and a careful selection of relevant research methodology sources best suited for this study. However, the process was also enlightening and enriching because reading, thinking and reflecting on the content of the theories and practices provided insight into and appreciation of qualitative research.

Chapter Five, where the results from the data analysed are presented, is next.

CHAPTER FIVE
RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

A detailed account of the research process followed in this study was provided in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the results from the data collected are presented. As explained in Section 4.5.4, three data sets emerged from the data collection process. Data set 1, the results of participant group 1, is given first. After that, data set 2, the results of participant group 2, followed by data set 3 collected from participant group 3. The chapter concludes with a summary of what was presented.

5.2 RESULTS OF DATA SET 1: PARTICIPANT GROUP ONE

The biographical information from the eleven CSOs represented at the net-mapping workshop is presented first in Table 5.1. After that, the results that emerged from the actual net-mapping process are presented. Lastly, the participants' responses after the net-mapping process are considered.

5.2.1   Biographical information of the eleven civil society organisations

Table 5.1 below presents information about the type of organisation, the location/ demographic area that the organisation serves, and the year the organisation was established.

Table 5.1: Biographical details of eleven civil society organisations

Organisation	Organisation Type	Location/area	Year established	Focus area
Organisation 1	NGO	National	1979	Resource Support/ Social Justice
Organisation 2	NPO	National	2014	Urban Farming
Organisation 3	NPO	Cape Town	2003	Farming and Infrastructure Support
Organisation 4	NPO	Western Cape	1991	Farming/Production
Organisation 5	NPO	Khayelitsha	2013	Farming/Production/ Food Aid
Organisation 6	NPO	National	2006	Social Farming
Organisation 7	NPO	Cape Flats	1982	Farming Infrastructure Support
Organisation 8	NPO	National	2015	Environmental Justice
Organisation 9	Advocacy	National	2016	Health Activists
Organisation 10	Advocacy	National	2005	Environmental
Organisation 11	Advocacy	National	2003	Health Activists

Table 5.1 indicates that representatives of one NGO (7,69%), three advocacy groups (30,77%), and seven NPOs (61,54%) attended the net-mapping workshop. Seven of these organisations (61%) operated nationally, and the remaining four (39%) within the Western Cape Province.

5.2.2   Results from the net-mapping process

As described in Section 4.5.3.1, the participants actively participated in the net-mapping workshop by physically drawing or mapping out responses to four questions. The first question was, *which CSOs were active/involved in the food space*? Eight categories were identified from the responses, reflected in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: CSOs active in the food space

Categories identified:	Number of organisations
1. Production (agriculture & farming)	32 organisations
2. Policy and advocacy	15 organisations
3. Health and nutrition	15 organisations
4. Academia	10 organisations
5. Social justice	9 organisations
6. Environment	5 organisations
7. Food Aid	4 organisations
8. Miscellaneous (food aid and production)	2 organisations

Table 5.2 shows that eight categories were identified that comprised 92 CSOs. These 92 comprised: 32 (35%) organisations involved in the production of food (agriculture and farming); 15 (16%) were advocacy groups; 15 (16%) formed part of health; 10 (11%) formed part of academia; 9 (10%) focused on social justice issues; 5 (5%) focused on the environment; 4 (4%) focused on food aid, and the last two organisations focused on food aid and production.

After the workshop, a Google shared sheet was created with the above information. The purpose of the Google shared sheet was to identify possible CSOs advocating for the right to food in the Western Cape Province. The sheet was sent to all the participants and their networks to add further details of other CSOs that existed and were involved in the food space in the Western Cape Province.

The second question asked was *how were these CSOs linked to each other?* (e.g. through funding, information sharing and joint action). The CSOs, indicated by a different colour node on the map, were connected in two ways by the participants. Firstly, through joint action, which represented a green edge, and secondly, through information sharing, a blue edge. Each node was connected with either a blue or green edge with another node (organisation). Thus, for every connection or network, one edge (blue or green) was drawn between the nodes in the different groups. Figure 5.1 below illustrates the linkages among the 92 organisations.
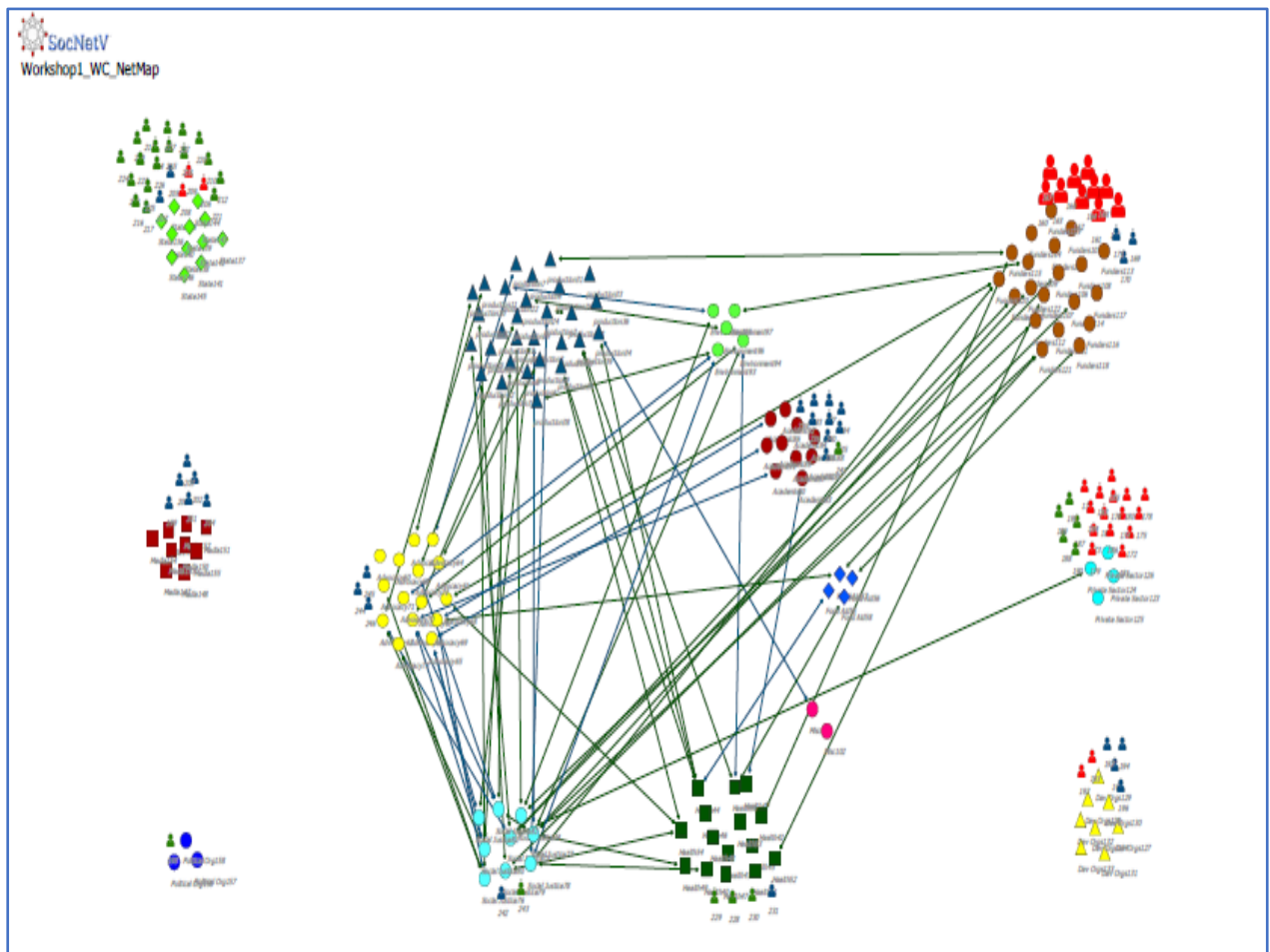
Figure 5.1: Linkages among the 92 organisations

Table 5.3: Key to Figure 5.1

CSOs active in the food space							
Production	Environmental	Academia	Food Aid	Miscellaneous	Health	Social Justice	Advocacy

Figure 5.1 illustrates the linkages among the eight categories of CSOs. The linkages were vertically, diagonally, and horizontally with one another, either through information sharing or joint action.

Question three asked the participants to identify other external organisations that were also part of their network, which could influence what they do, or do not do (e.g. state, academia, funders, and private sector). The participants identified six groups: funders, the private sector,

developmental organisations, the media, political organisations, and the government. Table 5.4 below gives a visual representation of the external organisations.

Table 5.4: External organisations that were part of the network

External organisations that were part of the network					
Funders	Private Sector	Development Organisations	Political Organisations	Media	The government

The fourth and last question asked the participants to indicate which of the external organisations were most influential on their organisations. They identified three groups: funders as the most influential, regulatory organisations, and the knowledge/ educational sector. The funders included private organisations, developmental organisations, and the government. Regulatory organisations comprised the private sector, health sector, social justice system, political organisations, academia and the government. The knowledge/educational sector consisted of the funders, developmental organisations, the media, academia, health sector, social justice systems, advocacy groups and the government. Table 5.5 below provides a visual representation of the influence.

Table 5.5: Most influential organisations

Most influential organisations		
Funding organisations	Regulatory	Knowledge sector

Finally, Figure 5.2 below visually represents the completed net-mapping process.

Figure 5.2: A visual representation of the completed net-mapping process

5.2.3 Responses of participants after the net-mapping process

The eleven organisations' representatives were asked to reflect on the net-mapping process and the emerging patterns. Five themes with sub-themes were identified from the reflections. These are summarised below.

Theme 1: The main focus was on food production

The net-mapping process showed that the main focus of organisations that were part of the community of practice was on food production (32 organisations), followed by 15 organisations that were involved in policy and advocacy, and 15 in health and nutrition, with

only five organisations focusing on food aid, which was to provide food to struggling communities (refer to Table 5.2 above).

Theme 2: Who were the funders?

The participants identified only a few funders in South Africa. Most of the funds came from international funders. They also noted that little funding came from the government, which was identified as a gap.

Theme 3: The importance of ethics

The participants identified ethics as an important element in social agriculture as it has to do with how the organisations operate in the food space and what they were promoting. Two sub-themes emerged.

Sub-theme 1: Profit-making and sustainability

The participants noted that the objective of a business is to make a profit to sustain itself financially. Hence, companies will look after their own best interests and not necessarily what is best for the CSOs that they support financially.

Sub-theme 2: Social justice

The representatives questioned the programmes that focused on the social dimension because they believed that the businesses had their agendas and benefitted most, implying that the communities were not benefiting and remained without access to food.

Theme 4: Who holds power?

The private sector, through cooperative investments, was identified as holding power, even over the government, as the (private sector) provided more funds and created jobs. Three sub-themes were identified.

Sub-theme 1: The private sector is the most influential

The representatives responded that the private sector shapes the food system, productivity, and food intake. For example, XXX produces chicken, so it will be chicken that they donate to the communities, which means that the communities would eat chicken.

Sub-theme 2: Funders benefit most

Because funders hold power and dictate what the CSOs should focus on, the representatives felt that funders would not be motivated to do something about the food insecurity problem.

Sub-theme 3: Regulatory power

The City of Cape Town and the Department of Trade and Industry were identified as having regulatory power because they regulate trade but not access to food.

Theme 5: CSOs position/place within the power system

The net-mapping process showed that the CSOs were in the middle, which meant they were powerless. They saw their role as "cleaning up the consequences" of the system that benefited and supported those who held power. They realised that they had their battles to fight, and hence, there was no unity among them and no clear structure to mobilise concerted action, which was why they did not/or could not influence the political will to bring about change.

5.2.4   Suggestions made on the way forward

The representatives were asked to make suggestions on moving the process forward to focus on access to food for struggling households and communities. Three themes were identified from their suggestions. These were:

Theme 1: It is a complex problem

They acknowledged that they faced a complex problem and needed to ascertain who/what holds power in the other metros and if best practices could be shared and replicated in other metros to have coherent regulated food systems.

Theme 2: Have clear objectives and an understanding of the issues

They suggested that all CSOs clearly understand what they wanted to contribute and the objective (agenda) they hoped to achieve to make a difference and bring about change.

Theme 3: Have a shared vision and united voice

They proposed that the CSOs should use their expertise and decide on a shared vision with a united voice and that communication of the shared vision should be clear, concise and easy to understand to be effective.

5.3 RESULTS FROM DATA SET 2: PARTICIPANT GROUP TWO

As explained in Section 4.5.2, senior members of two NGOs and four NPOs formed the second participant group. Their biographical information is presented first, followed by their qualitative responses.

Table 5.6: Biographical information of the two NGOs and four NPOs

Organisation	Type	Location	Established	Focus Area
Organisation 1	NGO	National	1968	Environmental equity
Organisation 2	NGO	Western Cape	2014	Urban agriculture, resilient building, Awareness building
Organisation 3	NPO	Boland Area	1983	Capacity, movement and resilient building
Organisation 4	NPO	Houtbay	2004	Sustainable living awareness, farmer support
Organisation 5	NPO	Cape Flats	1982	Farmer support
Organisation 6	NPO	Cape Town City	2014	Farmer support

Table 5.6 reflects that one NGO operated nationally, and the remaining five organisations operated within the Western Cape Province. The table also reflects when the organisations were established and their focus areas.

Qualitative Responses

As indicated in Section 4.5.4, the responses of the NPO/NGO participants were categorised into three themes and six sub-themes derived from the theoretical framework's three theories. The results from each theme and sub-themes are summarised below.

Theme 1: Agenda Setting

Two sub-themes were identified under this theme, namely (i) emphasis placed on food security/insecurity and (ii) how organisations influenced the government's agenda regarding food security/ insecurity.

Sub-theme 1: Emphasis placed on food security/insecurity

This part of the interview focused on understanding whether food security/insecurity formed part of the organisations' objectives and agendas.

- Three organisations indicated that food security/insecurity was not part of their objectives. However, they said they were closely connected to other food-focused organisations and could assist these organisations if necessary. They also indicated that they were unsure if focusing on food insecurity would become part of their objectives after Covid-19.

- Three of the organisations indicated that farmer support did fall within their line of objectives and could impact food security/insecurity.

- Most organisations indicated that food security/insecurity became a significant part of their operations during the Covid-19 pandemic and national lockdown.

Sub-theme 2: How organisations influence the government's agenda

The participants were asked whether their organisations protested and, if so, why. All six representatives said they have not engaged in protest action to date.

- Organisation 1 said they engaged in commentaries by writing in the media, but that was the extent of their involvement.

- Organisation 3 said they have tried to approach government departments but have not received a response.

- Organisation 5 said that they frequently were in dialogue with various government departments regarding food security/insecurity as part of their work.

- The remaining three organisations said that engaging with the government around the issue of food security/insecurity was not a priority.

Theme 2: Power

The responses were grouped under three sub-themes, (i) visible power, (ii) invisible power and (iii) hidden power (refer to Section 3.6).

<u>Sub-theme 1: Visible power</u>

The participants were asked how their objectives were set and who/what informs their objectives.

- Two of the organisations indicated that decision-making about their objectives was unrestricted and that they were guided by the issues brought to them by the communities.

- One organisation alluded to funders advising them about the direction they needed to take regarding their objectives.

- One organisation said their objectives were set nationally and then provincially when meetings were held with senior organisation members.

<u>Sub-theme 2: Invisible power</u>

The participants were asked whether they influenced their objectives' design and if communities could influence their objectives.

- All six participants indicated that their objectives were set either on a national basis or by the need of their communities.

- Four organisations also said their objectives were straightforward (implying that they set the objectives themselves).

<u>Sub-theme 3: Hidden power</u>

A probing question was asked to ascertain why food security/insecurity was not part of their objectives.

- Three organisations said that mobilising around food insecurity was not a priority, but their work involved supporting farmers and engaging in dialogue around the issue of food.

- The remaining three other organisations said they did not focus on food and did not know why they did not do this.

Theme 3: Framing

The participants' responses were divided into the three sub-themes, (i) diagnostic framing, (ii) prognostic framing, and (iii) motivational framing (refer to Section 3.6.3).

Sub-theme 1: Diagnostic Framing

In this part of the interview, the participants were asked how they viewed the issue of food security/insecurity.

- All six organisations indicated that food insecurity was a big concern in the communities, especially since Covid-19 and the national lockdown in 2020.
- One organisation added that the right to food was underplayed in the constitution and that it was a fundamental right that the government did not recognise. It became more evident during the Covid-19 pandemic and the lockdown regulations.

Sub-theme 2: Prognostic Framing

Participants were asked what they thought could be done to address the issue of food insecurity.

- Three organisations indicated that CSOs needed to come together and create one shared vision around the issue of food insecurity. They highlighted that it was one of their main concerns.
- One organisation indicated that, for as long as their networks were involved in the food space, they would continue to be a support structure in information sharing and conducting research.
- One organisation said that the government needed to be more involved and supportive. They should make more land available so people can grow food, and the City of Cape Town should play a more decisive role in the location of fresh food markets, food providers, and food processes.
- One organisation said that more pressure needs to be placed on the government to change the food system.

Sub-theme 3: Motivational Framing

The participants were asked if they would add food security/insecurity to their objectives and mobilise and advocate the right to have access to food moving forward.

- Two organisations said that it was not what their focus was but that they would support their networks.
- Three organisations indicated that they did not engage in protest action but would support them in other ways.

- One organisation said that if the support were provided, they would engage in protest action to fight for the right to food.

5.4   RESULTS FROM DATA SET 3: PARTICIPANT GROUP THREE

Senior members of six advocacy groups formed the third participant group. Their biographical information is presented first, followed by their qualitative responses.

Table 5.7: Biographical information of six advocacy organisations

Organisation	Type	Location	Established	Focus Area
Organisation 1	Advocacy	National	2000	Health and community health worker advocacy
Organisation 2	Advocacy	National	2010	Access to information
Organisation 3	Advocacy	National	1955	Social grants
Organisation 4	Advocacy	National	2008	Education
Organisation 5	Advocacy	National	2016	Health advocacy
Organisation 6	Advocacy	National	1986	Housing and land rights

Table 5.7 shows when the advocacy organisations were established, their focus areas, and that all of them operated on a national level (thus, in all nine provinces).

Qualitative responses

The same process was followed as with participant group 2. Similarly, the purpose of the interviews was also to gain insight into the organisations' objectives and how they related to food security/insecurity; whether the organisations were actively involved in influencing policy and the food system; and to better understand how these organisations perceived the issue of food in/security. The theoretical framework's three focus areas were also used to analyse their responses.

Theme 1: Agenda Setting

Similar to the previous participant group, this theme also has two sub-themes, namely (i) emphasis placed on food security/insecurity and (ii) how organisations influence the government's agenda regarding food security/ insecurity.

Sub-theme 1: Emphasis placed on food security/insecurity

The interviewees were asked whether food security/insecurity formed part of their objectives and agendas.

- Two organisations said it was not part of their objectives and never featured on their agenda.

- Four organisations indicated that, before Covid-19, food security/insecurity did not directly form part of their objectives and would not typically feature on their agenda. However, due to Covid-19, they could see how food security/insecurity could relate to their objectives.

Sub-theme 2: How organisations influenced the government's agenda

The next question was whether organisations engaged in protest action and, if yes, why.

- One organisation indicated that they have engaged in protest action around the issue of food security/insecurity and have litigated the matter during Covid-19.

- One organisation indicated that they have not mobilised around the issue of food insecurity directly; however, because health is their primary focus, they have mobilised around health-related issues, which link indirectly to food insecurity.

- Three organisations said that protesting and influencing is not what their focus and objectives were. They explained that their influence was through their relationship with the government through the committees in which they were engaged. It was not part of how they operated, and they assumed other organisations were better equipped to do so.

- One organisation indicated that they influenced and acted through their research, writing articles and commentaries, ultimately impacting policymakers.

- One organisation indicated that it was not part of their objectives, and in the past, they never even thought about food insecurity. In addition, the organisation stated that it never came up as a priority in the communities in which they worked. However, during

Covid-19, it became clear that food insecurity is a significant concern for many households and communities in South Africa.

- One organisation said that their work was to share information. If some communities and organisations indicated food security as an issue and approached their organisation, they would share information on how to go about the situation and link them with others.

Theme 2: Power

The responses were grouped into the three sub-themes of power, namely (i) visible power, (ii) invisible power and (iii) hidden power.

Sub-theme 1: Visible power

Question 3 asked how the organisations set their objectives and who/what informed them.

- One organisation explained that its objectives were double-sided and that its approach was both top-down and bottom-up. Decisions on how and what the organisation focuses on yearly were open to everyone who belonged to the organisation. Still, the senior members made the ultimate decision based on all ideas presented.
- Three organisations indicated that their objectives were apparent (implying that they set the objectives themselves) and that taking on other roles would be problematic to the organisation even if they can relate to the issue of food security/insecurity on an individual level.
- One of the three organisations indicated that their funders influenced their objectives and agenda.
- One organisation indicated that they do surveys in the communities. However, the surveys provide a list of issues, and the communities decide which issues are most urgent.

Sub-theme 2: Invisible power

The participants were asked who influenced the design of their organisations' objectives and whether other people could influence their objectives.

- One organisation indicated that even though they could relate to food insecurity as a concern in their objectives, they did not think they would impactfully be involved.

- Two of the organisations said that they were designed for a specific purpose, and to shift their focus onto something else would not be helpful for the success of their organisations.

- Three organisations said they were very flexible in the type issues they chose to be involved with. They will support and amend their immediate objectives if it forms part of their networks' objectives.

Sub-theme 3: Hidden power

Question 5 asked the participants why food security/insecurity has never been part of their objectives.

- Two organisations indicated that food security/insecurity did not feature previously (before Covid-19) in their operations. They explained that they have never given the option for people to indicate that they were experiencing food insecurity in their surveys, on which their objectives depended.

- Three organisations said they worked with organisations before that focused on food security/insecurity.

- One organisation indicated that the issue of food was not part of their mandate.

Theme 3: Framing

Similar to the previous theme, this theme also has three sub-themes, namely (i) diagnostic framing, (ii) prognostic framing, and (iii) motivational framing (refer to Section 3.6).

Sub-theme 1: Diagnostic Framing

The next question was about how these organisations viewed the issues of food security/insecurity and whom they thought should advocate for it.

- Four of the six organisations indicated that food insecurity only got their attention during the Covid-19 pandemic and was not a concern. Three said that the issue of food affected their communities during Covid-19 and that it was becoming personal.

- The other two organisations indicated that even though food security/insecurity was not part of their main objectives, they have always collaborated with organisations in the food space.

- Four also stated that food security/insecurity should be advocated by organisations whose main objectives were food.

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- Two organisations further indicated that different organisations should advocate collaboratively as everyone has different skills and sources that could be used.

<u>Sub-theme 2: Prognostic Framing</u>

This section focused on what organisations thought should be done to address the problem and the government's role in realising the right to food.

1. All the participants indicated that food insecurity should be addressed through collective action and civil society organisations coming together as one united voice.

2. Two participants also highlighted that more significant pressure was needed among CSOs to bring change to the food system and policies. They indicated that CSOs needed a stronger political will to effect change in the system. In addition, the government needs to be more active and open to engaging with CSOs because the responsibility ultimately lies with the government to change the food security/insecurity dilemma.

<u>Sub-theme 3: Motivational Framing</u>

Lastly, the interviewees were asked whether food security/insecurity would form part of their objectives moving forward (after Covid-19).

- Three organisations said that they did not have the capacity and skill to make a real change or influence the system.

- One organisation indicated that even though they could do something, their organisation would instead choose not to take on food security/insecurity as an objective.

- Two organisations indicated that they would continue collaborating with other organisations working in the food space.

- All six organisations indicated that their objectives would remain the same.

5.5   COVID-RELATED RESPONSES

Responses about the impact of Covid-19 and the national lockdown and its consequences also emerged from the interviews. Three themes were identified.

Theme 1: The lockdown brought food insecurity to the fore

The participants indicated they did not realise the magnitude of hunger among households and communities before Covid-19 and the lockdown. It opened their eyes and minds.

Theme 2: The CSOs, other organisations and the government worked together

As a result of the severity of hunger during the lockdown, the CSOs and other organisations that emerged worked collectively to provide food aid to households and communities. The CSOs also worked collectively with the government to assist the communities. They realised they would have to help the government as it could not support all the households and communities on its own.

Theme 3: Concerns about why so many people were food insecure

The participants raised concerns about the scale of hunger that the households and communities experienced. They identified systemic issues created by the apartheids' regime, and that food insecurity is multi-dimensional and interrelated with poverty, housing, land, water and sanitation, and education. They were also concerned that the government's support during the lockdown was insufficient and that the food aid could not be sustained indefinitely.

5.6   CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the results as analysed based on the three theories of the theoretical framework. Both quantitative and qualitative data emerged from the three participant groups. The quantitative results were presented in tables and figures, while the qualitative results were presented under themes and sub-themes identified in open-coding stage 3 of the analysis process. The analysis process was very challenging and intimidating at first. Working through the information, discussions and responses from all the participants was demanding as rich data were collected. Hence, one needed to reflect on the study's aim, objectives, and research questions to analyse the data objectively, but meaningfully. This process resulted in multiple drafts of this chapter. The above format and structure were arrived at with the assistance of the main supervisor. The results presented in this chapter needed to be clear, coherent and understandable for readers of this thesis.

Chapter Six, in which the results are discussed and interpreted, is presented next.

CHAPTER SIX
DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS
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6.1   INTRODUCTION

The results from the data collected were presented in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the results are discussed and interpreted per sub-research question and according to the key elements of the study's theoretical framework as discussed in Section 3.6. The chapter concludes with a synthesis of the discussions and interpretations. It should be noted that the researcher commenced with this study in 2019, and the empirical data were collected at the beginning of 2020, just before the Covid-19 pandemic and during the pandemic. Thus, the participants' frame of mind was on the lockdown and its impact on food security.

6.2   SUB-QUESTION 1: WHICH CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS WERE ACTIVE IN THE FOOD SECURITY LANDSCAPE IN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE?

As reflected in Table 5.1, the representatives who attended the net-mapping workshops were from one NGO, seven NPOs and three advocacy groups, totalling eleven organisations. These organisations were part of the community of practice formed under the DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security (refer to Section 4.5.2). Table 5.1 shows seven of these organisations operated nationally and four in the Western Cape Province. Accordingly, seven of these organisations assisted people in South Africa's nine provinces. This implies that they had sufficient resources to help the communities, whether with food aid, empowerment, resilience building, agricultural and farming support, or environmental education and awareness. However, the negative part could be that they would not assist every community in South Africa, which could mean that communities who need assistance might be overlooked. The four organisations that worked in the Western Cape Province would have been better positioned to assist more communities because their focus was only on one province.

More importantly, Table 5.2 reflects the focus areas of the 92 CSOs identified by the participants who attended the net-mapping workshop (refer to Section 5.2.2). The table shows that 32 of the organisations (35%) were involved in the production of food (agriculture

and farming); 15 (16%) were policy and advocacy groups; 15 (16%) formed part of health and nutrition; 10 (11%) formed part of academia; 9 (10%) focused on social justice issues; 5 (5%) on the environment; 4 (4%) focused on food aid; and the last 2 (2%) had more than one focus area. These statistics show that 96% of the CSOs identified by the participants were not directly involved in food aid and would, therefore, not necessarily advocate and mobilise for the right to access food. In addition, most organisations (35%) focused on food production, which means that their concerns were on how food was produced and whether or not sufficient food was produced. It is generally known that agriculture focuses on farming, which could produce fruit and vegetables, livestock such as cows, sheep, goats, pork and poultry, and other farming activities, such as honey, tea/coffee and grapes for the wine industry. Hence, these CSOs would most probably have been focusing on working conditions, living wages, housing and living conditions of farmworkers, land and access to farming land, and the climate and environmental conditions within agriculture and farming.

The remaining CSOs' focuses varied from focusing on health and nutrition, academia, policy and advocacy issues, social justice issues and the environment. Only four organisations (4%) focused on food aid, which had to do with providing food in the form of soup kitchens and providing meals and food parcels to communities. Thus, an inference can be made that all the organisations that form part of the community of practice under the DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security were not directly involved in promoting and advocating for the right to food for the poor and struggling communities nationwide before the Covid-19 pandemic. It is acknowledged that they were involved in the food space; however, their involvement was indirect with issues surrounding food and other broader societal issues that, in the end, had very little to do with promoting the right to food for all.

The biographical information of the remaining two participant groups showed a similar pattern. The focus area for four of the six CSOs (66%) that formed the second participant group was agriculture and farming, with one (16%) organisation focusing on environmental issues and the other one (16%) on capacity, movement and resilient building (refer to Table 5.6). One of the organisations operated nationally, and the remaining five operated within the Western Cape Province.

The last participant group, the six advocacy groups, all operated nationally, and their focus areas varied as well. Two of the organisations (33%) focused on health-related advocacy, one (16%) on access to information, one (16%) on social grants, one (16%) on education, and one (16%) on housing and land rights (refer to Table 5.7). As explained in Section 4.5.2, the second and third participant groups were selected from the Google shared sheet sent to the community of practice group to add further CSOs, which they knew and thought were also operating within the food space.

Moreover, when the researcher started selecting the research participants, Google searches were done to find CSOs working in the food space in the Western Cape Province. The aim was to find organisations involved in promoting the right to food, thus advocating and mobilising for the right on behalf of struggling and poor communities. However, the researcher could not find any such organisations. Based on the advice from one of the supervisors, the researcher focused on the community of practice organisations under the DST-NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security, as explained in Section 4.5.1. Consequently, the above biographical information of all three participant groups reflects this reality - many CSOs are focusing and working within the food space. However, none of them focuses specifically on promoting and mobilising the right to have access to food, not in the Western Cape Province and not nationally.

A possible reason CSOs do not mobilise and advocate for the right to food could be (as identified already in chapters one and two) that South Africa is considered food secure on a national level (Altman et al., 2009; Statistics South Africa, 2019). However, 6.8 million people experienced hunger, and 10.4 million had inadequate access to food in 2017 (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Because of Covid-19 and the subsequent lockdown, many organisations that participated in this study (and others) began to realise the seriousness of food insecurity in South Africa. Some indicated that they could prioritise the right to food, discussed under Section 6.3.4.

6.3 SUB-QUESTION TWO: WERE THESE ORGANISATIONS PROMOTING THE RIGHT TO FOOD IN THE PROVINCE? IF THEY WERE NOT DOING THIS, WHY WERE THEY NOT?

As indicated in the previous section, the CSO participants did not promote the right to food in the province or nationally, even though they functioned within the food space. The researcher wanted to understand why food insecurity was not perceived as a problem that needed attention before Covid-19. As such, the discussion is divided into four sections. The first section focuses on responses to the organisations' objectives and focus areas. The second section discusses which external organisations influenced the CSOs' decisions and actions (i.e. power relations). The third section discusses the responses that indicated there was no shared vision and no unity among the CSO to mobilise and advocate for the right to access food. The last section focuses on Covid-19 and the lockdown that changed the CSOs' perceptions of the importance of food security in the Western Cape Province and nationally.

6.3.1 CSOs' objectives and focus areas

As stated in Section 3.6.1, Hudson and Lowe (2019) assert that agenda setting has to do with decisions about which issues are important and should be placed on an organisation's agenda, government or political party. Thus, agenda setting directs attention to organisations' objectives and focus areas. Two main trends can be identified from the participants' responses regarding their objectives and focus areas. The first trend is that mobilising and advocating for the right to access food did not form part of their objectives. The second trend is that their objectives were decided upon by the communities that they work with or by themselves, as to what they perceived their organisation's purpose was.

6.3.1.1 Mobilising for the right to have access to food did not form part of the CSOs objectives
The research participants were asked what their objectives and focus areas were. Their responses were (quoted verbatim):

> The overall objective is to ensure that humans live in harmony with nature; that's, sort of, the big line of focus. A cross-cutting objective is how we produce food, so it is our food production impact on water resources, how we produce has a climate impact so it's very much how we influence the agricultural value chain and to the just transition work, that speaks to the equity component of our work. It's very much how we support

interventions or the food system to be more responsive so that we ensure equitable access to food, access to nutritional food so it's very much an equitable component, you know, it talks to food nutrition, it talks to urban food systems, you know, where people access food, how they access food and then there's sort of a very dedicated component working with retailers around their practice and how their practice can support these objectives that have both an equity component but also a climate component. (Organisation 1, NGO, first participant group)

Our main objectives is to get the community of [name omitted] to live sustainably with the view of ensuring that there is limited waste that is discarded in the streets, food growing (disturbance on the line), and bio-diversity. And then there's awareness around all those things, establishing and managing their own food gardens in the school or the community. (Organisation 1, NGO, second participant group)

The organisation's main focus is about building people's organisation. Or contributing towards building people's organisation, facilitating self organisation, etc. We promote the idea of access to land, access land with water, because you can't only have land and you don't have water. We want to work with people to have the skills. We try to build seed sovereignty. We try to re-introduce ways in which people had cooked and had food and shared food long ago. So, different forms of working with food and around food and so on. (Organisation no 3, NGO, first participant group)

The organisation's objectives is to teach people in the townships, in the Cape Flats. We're focussing mostly on the Cape Flats townships, how to grow their own vegetables organically. So, training is our first pillar. Second pillar is access to resources, and that is mainly done through our two garden centres. Then we've also got various vendors that help with distribution, and with the re-sale of seedlings, seeds, manure.' The third point that we got as a pillar is infrastructure support and the last one is creating market access. (Organisation no 5, NPO, second participant group)

The responses show that the organisations' objectives and focus areas reflected the purpose of the organisations, that is, why they were established. The first and second responses came from environmental organisations concerned with the environment and how people (communities) can live in harmony with nature. Thus, living responsibly and taking care of the environment. A closer examination of all four responses shows why these organisations were part of the community of practice and operating within the food space. Although their objectives were different, there is one main similarity. These organisations attempted to raise

awareness, build capacity and educate (skilled) the communities about the production of food, how they access and work with food, and how to become self-sustained (grow and maintain their own food gardens).

In addition, the fourth organisation's objectives show that it went one step further than the other three organisations in that they also provided infrastructure support and created marketing access. As discussed in Section 3.2.1, CSOs play an essential role in not only providing immediate relief or assistance to communities, but they can play a transformative role in effecting change, defending collective interests, increasing accountability, promoting participation, and influencing decision-making (Duncan & Barling, 2012; Kahn, 2015; United Nations Sustainable Development Summit, 2015). Accordingly, the responses above demonstrate that the organisations were assisting and developing the communities, teaching them to be responsible and accountable, and look after the environment. However, the responses reflect that the agendas set by the organisations through their objectives and focus areas were not designed to mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food.

In order to prove the above statement, participants were asked if they would consider mobilising and advocating for the right to have access to food in the interviews. The responses were:

> *I'm more of a quiet, kind of, persuader and do what works and share, kind of, that* [unclear] *and using that as my persuasive tools than mobilising, you know, the masses and getting into that kind of activist space. So, I'm sympathetic, it's just not where my strengths are, or our organisation's skilled to do. We're not a pressure group, none of those kind of* things (Organisation 2, NPO, second participant group)

> *But we don't have a national footprint, we're not activists, we're not a lobbying entity, so it's really just staying in the information flow where we can, more than running campaigns or doing anything more formal. It really is more about the networking, and being able to pass on information and connect different nodes than anything else.* (Organisation 2, NPO, second participant group) Check to find a different NPO

> *There is a body of organisations out there that seem to be wanting to campaign on the nutrition programme, but they're not really* campaigners (Organisation 10, Advocacy, first participant group)

> *The people and the organisations that are working around the urban [unclear] should be the ones that are advocating for food security. I'm not sure why we haven't, and I'm*

sure… I don't want to lie; I've never even heard… I've heard of the nutrition advocacies, I've heard of various other advocacies, and the right to those things, but I'm not sure if it's ignorance on my side, but in my view, people who are working in the space of food growing, should be the ones (Organisation 4, NGO, second participant group)

The responses imply that these CSOs viewed themselves in a certain way, and if something did not fit into their profile, they would not engage. The first response also reflects that the organisation regarded itself as 'a silent persuader', which means that it would not engage in protest action even though it has been proven effective in influencing governments' agendas. These responses show that the organisations limited themselves, thereby underestimating their power to protest and mobilise for the right to have access to food (Cerny, 2010; Duncan & Barling, 2012; Pabari et al., 2020).

Moreover, the latter two responses indicate that these two organisations believed that other people and organisations should advocate for the right to have access to food. Hence, they were shifting the responsibility to somewhere else. Therefore, an inference can be made that these two organisations were comfortable with what they were doing and felt that mobilising was out of their reach. One can also deduce that these organisations knew that they had different objectives, focus areas and strengths. Hence, they would, instead, leave certain activities, such as campaigning, to organisations who are profiled, by themselves and others, to engage in protesting action. It could also mean that they took cognisance they had funders to report to, which they should not 'upset' or oppose. Their funders could have been the government, or the private sector, which, in the end, prevented them from mobilising around the issue of food security. This point is further discussed in Section 6.3.2.

Notwithstanding, Organisation 2 (second participant group), explained that they were involved in lobbying through the different forms of social media to create awareness and improve people's understanding of the food system. The interviewee explained:

> *Generally, also, through the networks, trying to identify and amplify voices that are often either unheard or under-heard to diversify the nature of the conversation. Those kinds of things are also important to us, but through the resources, we have to do, sort of, public communications are quite limited. We do work through our Facebook presence, which is quite substantial, that reaches, kind of, primarily affluent residents of Cape Town and others. And we have a mailing list and those kinds of things, but that is part of the, kind of, changing perceptions and trying to create space for systemic*

change by changing people's awareness and understanding of the food system. And we also play a role in engaging with policymakers and other decision-makers from time to time in certain entities, largely because of the network that we happen to have, and people we happen to know. We've been invited to a number of different forums where we can share experiential perspectives that we have working on the ground with a diversity of projects in different communities. And that's seen as valuable input to them.

This response shows that the organisation was creating awareness, improving people's understanding and attempting to change people's perceptions about the food system through social media communications and collaborations. It reflects that the organisation engaged with policymakers, which could have been governmental departments, and other decision-makers such as independent and educational organisations and researchers, through their networks. They were also invited to different platforms to share their experiences and perspectives from working with the communities. This response demonstrates that the organisation was proactive and attempted to empower the broader society and influence decision-making to a certain extent. Thus, the organisation was living up to what a civil society organisation was intended to do – to promote accountability, increase participation and work for what they believe would benefit the communities whom they were working with (Andrée et al., 2019; Jezard, 2018; Pabari et al., 2020).

6.3.1.2 <u>Objectives were decided on by the communities and the organisations</u>

The second trend identified from the responses reflects how the organisations set their objectives. Responses were:

We set our agenda with the people. So, the people we work with, the constituency we work with, the landless people, the rural poor, the farm workers, the fisher people, these are the people who help us to set the agenda. It's based on people's needs and what we think we must do to change the system. Bring about systematic change (Organisation 5, NGO, second participant group)

From the very beginning we wanted to support local small scale farmers, organic where possible. From the beginning we'd set up a partnership with this organisation…they're a community-owned vegetable supplier, which is amazing (Organisation 6, NPO, second participant group)

We've got food gardens that we've been working with, you know, around communities in Cape Town so how do we then equip those people with the relevant information for them to be able to challenge the government. And our role is to be in solidarity with them. Whatever they decide after they've got that information, that this is actually what is supposed to happen (Organisation 3, second participant group)

Our primary work is working through food and food gardening, or urban agriculture to build resilience in communities. So, that work is primarily supporting existing food gardens in a range of communities and the kind of support we provide is very much context-dependent. So, where there are communities where we feel we have resources or relationships or other ways of engaging in a sustained way, then we will, kind of, work with one or more projects in that area, and provide a wide range of support (Organisation 2, NPO, second participant group)

The literature discussed in Sections 3.2 and 3.3 demonstrates that CSOs are seen as community spokespersons and have the power to advocate and negotiate on their behalf (Andrée et al., 2019; Jezard, 2018; Pabari et al., 2020). However, the quotes above show that the organisations' objectives and focus areas were based on the needs of the communities. This implies that the organisations' focus was supporting and empowering the communities, not influencing the government. First, they share information with the communities on what they can do, and then they support the communities in what they want to do with the information received. It also implies that should communities decide not to mobilise and pressure the government to act, the CSOs will not do so either. Therefore, issues will not be addressed because not all communities have the political will and confidence to influence the government's agenda.

The first response also reflects that the organisation is working and assisting four different sectors: landless people, the rural poor, farmworkers, and fishing communities. Hence, they do not focus on one issue or challenge but on multiple topics that differ in scope and breadth. Their statement of 'what we *think we must do to change the system. Bring about systematic change*' implies that the organisation most probably would assist the landless people with finding a place to live; would provide training and possible job opportunities for the poor and show them how to grow their vegetable gardens; would assist the farmworkers so that they could receive the minimum wage or have conducive working and housing condition; and helping the fishing communities to obtain permits and fishing rights, for example. Hence, one

can infer that when the organisation is speaking about 'systematic change', these would be the issues that the organisation would attempt to address, which do not necessarily revolve around the right to have access to food.

Overall, these responses indicate that the organisations did not mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food. They did not use their influence as civil society organisations to organise mass action, protest action or demonstrations to draw the government's attention to hunger and food insecurity (Cooper, 2018; Jezard, 2018; Pabari et al., 2020). An argument can be made that these organisations have failed the communities because they were contented with what they thought was important for the communities.

6.3.2 External organisations that influence the CSOs (power relations)

Power relations are key determiners to influence somebody's agenda, objectives, or behaviours. As per the theoretical framework, the discussion of the responses of the research participants in this section is based on the three elements of the Power Theory: visible power, invisible power, and hidden power.

The net-mapping exercise showed that the first participant group identified six categories of external organisations that were part of their networks (refer to Table 5.5). Four were private sector organisations, eight were development organisations, three were political organisations, nine were media institutions, and twelve were state organisations. The results showed that the funders engaged in joint action with organisations focused on production, the environment, advocacy, health, food aid and social justice. This indicates that funding organisations work closely with the organisations that they funded. Therefore, it can be inferred that funding organisations would influence civil society organisations' objectives and actions. It can be one of the main reasons why the CSOs that participated in this study did not mobilise and advocate for the issue of food insecurity because of the influence of their funders (Green, 2019; Kahn, 2015).

Interestingly, the participants indicated that the private sector engaged in joint action with organisations that focused on social justice issues. This is an interesting observation because the private sector is based on profit, while social justice organisations are based on ensuring

fairness and equality. Accordingly, an inference can be made that the private sector collaborates with these organisations to advance their interests and not necessarily ensure justice and equality for the communities. Organisation 4, from the first participant group, explained:

> *The diagram* [net-mapping exercise] *shows that a high concentration of funding is coming from corporate investments like seeds for gardening and like* [name omitted] *providing food at schools. This makes the work a little bit more difficult because it looks like the funding is shaping the food system work that we are doing but also their food production and intake.*

This response indicates that the private organisations influenced the production of food in general and the type of food that will be produced and eaten. It also shows that the organisations' objectives focused on the type of food the funders/sponsors produced and distributed instead of the communities' needs. The influence that these organisations had on the CSOs is a form of visible power as they control the production of the specific food and the consumption of the food produced. For example, if it is one or two types of vegetable seeds or meat, that will be what the communities will receive.

A further issue that Organisation 2, also from the first participant group, added was that the power should lie with the government's entities. Still, the government entities do not act because the private sector has the funds and thus, holds power. This organisation stated:

> *Power and knowledge is sitting with the state entities and a lot of funds sitting with the private sector. And while the state sits with the knowledge of what needs to be done and how it needs to be done they are very influenced by the private sector. So they kind of lose their power in some regards.*

As the above response implied, the government is cognisant of the fact that the private sector assists with job creation and unemployment reduction. It is also a form of visible power as the government will not jeopardise its relationship with the private sector. It then becomes a social justice issue because the government that was elected and placed in power to protect and provide for the citizens is not fulfilling their role and responsibility to the ordinary citizens of South Africa. Similarly, by being influenced by their funders, the CSOs were also not living up to their part as custodians for social justice and equity for all (Cooper, 2018, Jezard, 2018).

Organisation 10, the first participant group, further said:

> *I think this picture* [the fact that the power rests with the private sector] *is giving us the reason why there has not been any protests on food. So, the people who are holding power are also giving us funds. They seem to be providing some solutions but they also shape the system so without changing the system the problems will stay.*

The response shows that this organisation is trying to justify why the CSOs were not mobilising and advocating for the right to have access to food. Without funding, they will not be able to work within the communities; thus, it is a complicated situation. Hence, it can be inferred that, because the CSOs knew they needed the funding, they did not mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food on behalf of the communities they served. The funders' influence over the CSOs is a form of visible power that prevented them from engaging and pressuring the government to make the right to have access to food a priority on its agenda.

Furthermore, the participants also explained who had regulatory power, another form of visible power. Responses were:

> *The regulation power lay with the City of Cape Town* (Organisation 4, first participant group)

> *I was very interested in the regulation of the Department of Trade and Industry. Who worked with them. They are only interested in regulating trade, they are not regulating access to food. I find it, the department that are not easy to work with and I am reflecting on the work that I do and we have a huge task to do because the people who are influencing and creating the systems seem to be also part of the solution and are very powerful and influential, and they are giants, and they are with* us (Organisation 7, first participant group)
>
> *And what I am also seeing is that the power lies on the side. There is no power in the middle which means that we have no power, no money, and we cannot regulate. So what does it mean for us when the regulatory power lies within the Western Cape Department, the Trade and Industry and so forth* (Organisation 7, first participant group)

> *For me, in terms of social agriculture, the ethics are fundamental, and how you operate in that space and what are you promoting, we need to, of course, making business out of it, and farmers need to sustain themselves financially. Although I think there is*

something that has got to do with social justice and trying to fix the system first of all in that dimension. Now, it would be interesting to understand the Department of Trade and Industry, and we did some policy analysis and their programmes and how much is their social dimension and see who is driving the process and what is their agenda (Organisation 9, first participant group)

These responses show that it was not only the funders who had power but also the provincial and local government (the Dept of Trade and Industry and the City of Cape Town). The second response indicates that the Dept of Trade and Industry is only interested in its regulating function, which is an essential function. However, it is not interested in regulating who has access to food and who does not. An inference can be made that this organisation wanted the department to regulate who has access to food and who does not and do something about it as they are part of the government and have the power to act.

The latter part of the second response is powerful, "... *we have a huge task to do because the people who are influencing and creating the systems seem to be also part of the solution and are very powerful and influential, and they are giants, and they are with* us". The representative of this organisation realised that the Dept of Trade and Industry has the power to create/shape the food system. They have regulating power, which means they control what food is produced, where it goes to and for who, and what the prices should be. Thus, the department can drive the process and ensure that the citizens have access to food, but they are not. The statement also implies that both the citizens and the CSOs were at the mercy of the department, hence the statement "they are giants, and they are with us". It implies that the CSOs felt powerless because the power resorted to the department, which was the provincial government. The CSOs had no choice; they had to work with the department and accept what they wanted/suggested, as the department also funded their projects (Green, 2019; International Peacebuilding Advisory Team, 2015). It is a form of visible power as it speaks to what the International Peacebuilding Advisory Team (2015) explains as visible and definable aspects of political power through regulatory rules and procedures of decision-making. Accordingly, the reference from the organisation, "they are giants". The organisation's representative acknowledged that the power rested with the Department of Trade and Industry.

Two organisations identified a third form of visible power: the apartheid regime that marginalised and disadvantaged most Black South African population. They explained:

You know, a lot of the problem comes from just the <u>extreme inequality in our society</u>. You know, if there weren't such a disparity of wealth and poverty, then, you know, there might be a problematic system that is based on, kind of, a neo-liberal order and profiteering, but at least people could afford to buy food. It is tragic that we produce enough food but that we still face this challenge. And I mean, it speaks to so many things. It speaks to the spatial inequality, it speaks to the high unemployment, ja, it speaks to high-level unemployment, spatial inequality, people sitting on the periphery. It's difficult for them to access the kind of food that they need. <u>It speaks to our food system where cheap and nasty is more affordable often than healthy and nutritious food.</u> It speaks to the fact that a lot of our food are desirable commodities being exported. I mean, I think it's... ja, <u>it's a confluence of many factors</u> (Organisation 3, Advocacy, third participant group).

So, the research showed that these farmworkers actually said that they went hungry in the Winter months. Now imagine you're working on a farm. You would expect that if you work on a farm, you would have food because farms produce food. But that brings into question the nature of agriculture and what is grown on the farms. And if you're only growing cash crops, if you're only growing tobacco, or you're only growing grapes for wine, or you're only growing wheat<u>, and there's no section of the farm for growing vegetables and growing other food</u>, then you can imagine the kind of agriculture that we have in this country. That must also be challenged. <u>Why do we have cheap food imported into this country</u>? Dumped on us. We must say no to food dumping. So, there's a lot of things we ought to be doing around policy. <u>The issue of food is multi-dimensional</u> (Organisation 2, NGO, second participant group)

The two responses draw attention to the consequences of apartheid, which are still felt today, twenty-five years after South Africa became a democratic country (Statistics South Africa, 2019). The responses indicate that, although South Africa is regarded as food secure on a national level, households, and in the second response, farmworkers, are food insecure because they do not have access to food. This means they do not have money to buy food due to being unemployed (first response) and a farmworker on a farm that is not producing food (second response). According to Businesstech (2021), the minimum wage for farmworkers was R18.00 per hour in 2018 and increased to R18.68c in March 2020. However, this was the 'suggested minimum wage' for farmworkers, which means that farmworkers

could earn less than that depending on the farmer and the overall income per season (Devereux, Hall & Solomon, 2019)**.** In addition, there are also seasonal workers, meaning there will be periods within a year where some farmworkers will not have work and, therefore, be unemployed (Devereux et al., 2019). These authors explained that one in four South Africans suffers from hunger mainly caused by poverty, unemployment, and high living costs, especially high food prices. It is not then not surprising that farmworkers are also part of the 6.8 million people who experienced hunger in 2017 (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

Both responses also indicated that, due to unemployment and hunger, people opted for cheaper and unhealthy food because it is more affordable than healthy and nutritious food, which is more expensive and out of their reach. The second response questioned this issue – the government allows cheap food to be imported. Much has been written about this issue, referred to as 'dumping' (Greenberg, Hara & Thow, 2017; Lovell, 2015). Therefore, it can be inferred that this organisation 'blamed' the government for allowing dumping to occur instead of addressing the problem of food insecurity for millions of households in South Africa.

A third element that both responses are also directing attention to is that the food issue is 'a confluence of many factors' (first response) and 'multi-dimensional' (second response). This multi-dimensional aspect of food security/insecurity in South Africa returns to what happened during apartheid in South Africa. The Black population, who were in the majority (90%), were driven into poverty, low-paying jobs and illiteracy, while the minority, the White population (10%) had all the privileges and prosperity assigned to them (Blakemore, 2021; Goodman, 2017; University of Washington, 2019). Because of what happened during apartheid, South Africa is regarded as one of the most unequal societies globally (University of Washington, 2019; World Bank Group, 2018). Thus, food security is linked to access to land, resources, education, and equal opportunities, all of which the Black South African population was deprived of. The argument is that apartheid was a direct form of visible power, which the apartheid regime used and practised without shame or consciousness. It is further argued that the democratic government did very little to change the status quo, given that government officials know how deep-routed the consequences of apartheid were and still are. The right to have access to food is a constitutional right, as already stated, and it should be one of the highest priorities of the democratic government; sadly, it is not.

The last group identified as having the power was the knowledge/educational sector, which consisted of funders, developmental organisations, the media, academia, the health sector, social justice systems, advocacy groups, and the government (refer to Table 5.5). One can see the dilemma as the funders and the government are part of this group. This means, as explained in the preceding paragraphs, that not only did they hold visible power, but they also assumed invisible and hidden power. They assumed invisible and hidden power because they could decide what knowledge and information should be communicated and shared with the CSOs and the communities and when such information should be transmitted. As Gaventa (2006) explains, invisible power is when the person or institution who holds power hides specific information such as one's rights from you and only focuses on the information they think you need to know. As is the case with political parties that will concentrate and speak to issues they know people want to hear, for example, providing more housing and jobs. The knowledge sector will use information to empower and educate the masses on what they have already decided the groups should know and be informed. Hence, invisible power becomes normal because people believe what the so-called knowledge sector communicates. As Gaventa (2006), Green (2019) and the International Peacebuilding Advisory Team (2015) state, by controlling the kind of information that you think people should know and be informed about, one can control and shape people's beliefs and their "acceptance of the status-quo".

Moreover, the funders and the government use the media to help spread the message to a broader audience. With technological advances, using social media such as WhatsApp, Facebook and Twitter, it has become easier to communicate specific information and create awareness around predetermined issues (Oosthuizen, 2020). Therefore, in the end, the funders and the government had all the power – visible, invisible and hidden. Two organisations explained:

> *The CSOs in the middle of the map* [referring to the net-mapping exercise] *are left cleaning up the consequences of the system that is benefitting and supporting those who are sitting with the power (state and private sector). There are structural elements that externalise the negative consequence of the legal activities in pursuit of profit. Those who are benefitting from the system are least motivated to change it. The more CSOs clean up the mess, the less pressure there is to change the system (*Organisation 2, first participant group)

> *And what I am also seeing is that the power lies on the side. There is no power in the middle which means that we have no power, no money, and we cannot regulate. So what does it mean for us when the regulatory power lies within the Western Cape Department, the Trade and Industry and so forth* (Organisation 9, first participant group)

Both these responses indicate that, after the net-mapping exercise, they could see they had no power as civil society organisations. Their role became one of 'cleaning up the mess' rather than a mouthpiece for social justice collective action. The first response also indicates that the funders and the government benefit most, not wanting or being motivated to change the system. Moreover, because the CSOs are in the middle, their mediation role in speaking and acting on behalf of the marginalised communities has been changed to being a servant who is 'cleaning up' and who needs to do 'damage control'. They use the funds from the funders and the government to assist the communities with seedlings and practices to start their own vegetable gardens and maintain them; to provide training and equip people with knowledge and skills to make a living. As explained in the previous section, the one organisation focuses on assisting and empowering *"the landless people, the rural poor, the farm workers, the fisher people"*. Consequently, because the CSOs are in this 'powerless' situation, they would not mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food even if they wanted to.

Furthermore, the other organisations that are also part of the knowledge sector, namely health, education and the media, also hold invisible and hidden power. All three of these institutions have resources to conduct research and usually work with the government and the private sector (Cox, 1999; Kahn, 2015). Similar to the funders and the government, these institutions can influence what type of information should be shared and communicated and when and how it should be done. As was seen from the start of Covid-19 and throughout the lockdown periods, the government worked closely with the health and education sector through research and collaboration with other countries to inform and update the citizens via the media (television, newspapers, Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and SMS) (Department of Health, 2020; Ministry Health Republic of South Africa, 2021).

However, collaboration and sharing of knowledge and information also occurred among the 92 organisations identified during the net-mapping exercise (refer to Section 5.2). The

representatives who attended the net-mapping workshop physically drew the links and collaboration that was taking place within the food space (refer to Figure 5.1). Figure 5.1 illustrates that the linkages and cooperation took place vertically, horizontally and diagonally. It was identified that organisations focused on production worked jointly with the environment, health, social justice and advocacy organisations, and vice. Similarly, academic organisations shared information with health, advocacy and food aid groups, while health organisations worked jointly with social justice, advocacy, production, academia and food aid. They also shared information with food aid, the environment, and academia. Social justice organisations shared information and worked jointly with advocacy, production, environment and health organisations. Lastly, organisations focused on advocacy worked jointly and shared information with production, environment, food aid, health, social justice and academic institutions.

The above linkages and collaborations indicated that all these organisations were intertwined. They shared knowledge and information and worked jointly on different projects within the communities, both on a provincial and national level in South Africa. The fact that they worked jointly and shared information indicates an equal power distribution (Gaventa, 2006; Pabari et al., 2020). However, it could also be a form of invisible and hidden power because health organisations, academic institutions, and the government could be more knowledgeable and informed than many CSOs. In addition, they have the resources (both human and financial) to research issues of importance, such as the Covid-19 pandemic and finding a vaccine (South African Government, 2021; South African Medical Research Council, 2021).

Similarly, an environmental organisation would also have more resources to conduct research. It could work jointly with governmental departments such as the Departments of Health and Science and Technology (World Wide Fund for Nature South Africa, 2021). Hence, what is shared and collaborated with CSOs can be controlled and manipulated to the advantage of the health organisation, the government or the environmental organisation, thereby limiting the CSOs in what they can or cannot do, which are examples of invisible and hidden power (Gaventa, 2006, Green, 2019; International Peacebuilding Advisory Team, 2015).

6.3.3 No shared vision and no unity among the CSOs

The participants were asked if they had a shared vision as CSOs in the Western Cape Province. This question was asked to ascertain if there were other reasons why they did not mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food. Responses were:

> *I am not sure, maybe there is a common vision, but everybody is trying to do their own thing and that they are very fragmented. Everybody is also sort of trying to find their niche way, also just that they can stay in the play, and actually do what they do best or focus on that* (Organisation, 1, first participant group)

> *And I think we've been a bit fragmented in how we've taken a right and mobilised around a particular right. But we've got to see what are the social determinants of poor health? What are the social determinants of the state of the disintegration of our society? If you look at just the general, the levels of unemployment, the growing levels of inequality, all of these things are just intertwined in this country, and it shows you how difficult it is to separate these rights. And therefore, we need to begin to talk about how the rights underpin each other and how the rights are… And there shouldn't be a hierarchy of rights because these ones should all be interlinked* (Organisation 5, first participant group)

> *There are many social movements with scattered focus, and the reason CSOs' voices haven't been heard and we haven't been successful in creating the change we are looking to create in the sphere is because many of us are shouting different things; we need to have some form of commonality so that when we speak, it is with a united thunder voice that says one thing. Otherwise, if we are still scattered and doing different things, there is no common message, and it gets lost. Hence it is hard to penetrate, and it's hard to influence; hence it's hard to campaign because there is too many of us saying too many different things* (Organisation 7, first participant group)

The first response states that organisations were trying to find their own 'niche area' and 'stay in the play'. This means that they were trying to survive, admitting the pressure and influence of the funders on the one hand and the government and other external organisations on the other. This response and the first part of the third response ego what the other organisations also indicated, that there was no clear vision and that everyone was doing their 'own thing' and 'different things.

The second response points to the more systemic issues discussed in the middle part of the previous section. This response speaks about the state of disintegration, the high levels of unemployment and the growing inequality that surfaced because of Covid-19 and the subsequent lockdown. More importantly, it speaks about different rights, not only one, and how these rights reinforce each other, making them interdependent and interrelated. For example, food insecurity is directly linked to poverty; poverty is linked to unemployment; unemployment is linked to not having access to land and a decent place to live and the opportunity for quality education. Also, as discussed in Section 2.5, food security comprises four dimensions: food availability, food accessibility, food utilisation, and food stability. Food availability refers to the physical existence of food at household levels. Food accessibility is ensured when all households have enough resources to obtain food in sufficient quantities, good quality and diversity for a nutritious diet. Food utilisation refers to the digestion of the food consumed, which influences health and overall well-being. Finally, food stability is achieved when the food supply at national and household levels remains constant during the year and in the long run (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

These four dimensions of food security directly correspond to what this organisation is saying about the different rights and interdependency. People need stable employment to earn an income and buy healthy and nutritious food. They need money to buy a decent house with water and proper sanitation, and they need to be able to feed, clothe and educate their families on an ongoing basis. Unemployed and poor people cannot afford the basics; they would opt for cheaper and unhealthy food options, which can cause serious illnesses such as non-communicable diseases, obesity and diabetes (Muzigabe et al., 2015; Shisana et al., 2015; Thow et al., 2018).

The third response includes a warning: if the CSOs do not start to speak from one voice with a strong message, they will not have an impact on effecting change. Thus, as discussed in the previous section, they will continue to be in the middle and controlled by their funders, the government, and the knowledge sector. Consequently, this organisation appeals to the other CSOs to unite to regain their power and fulfil their assigned role. That is, to provide relief and assistance to communities, defend their interests, offer solidarity mechanisms, and influence

decision-making that will benefit the communities (Andrée et al., 2019; Green, 2019; Kahn, 2015).

These responses speak to the three elements of the third theory, the Framing Theory (refer to Section 3.6). The first element, diagnostic framing, involves identifying a problem or issue. The responses illustrate that the organisations knew there was a problem and that it was with themselves and how they manage and steer their respective organisations. They also knew their actions and decisions were limited and controlled by their funders, the government and the knowledge sector.

Prognostic framing follows diagnostic framing in that, once a problem is identified**,** organisations can determine solutions on how the issue should be addressed (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015). The responses of the last two organisations were proactive in that they provided not only reasons for not mobilising but also concrete solutions to move the process forward. They called on the organisations to unite and recognise that food security is interlinked to other rights and conditions. There was a need to begin to work together as a united force, given the constraints under which they were operating.

The last element, motivational framing, is also present in the second and third responses (Snow & Benford, 2000). The fact that the representatives of the two organisations provided solutions to their challenges indicate that they committed themselves to being part of a united force that can drive the process. Providing solutions demonstrates that they were motivated to overcome the challenges and, in so doing, break the power cycle that the external organisations had over them. They recognised that they would not achieve success individually but only through a united and robust body of civil society organisations because organised collective action has the power to influence decision-making to bring about change (Andree et al., 2019; Green, 2019).

6.3.4 Covid-19 and how it changed the CSOs' perceptions of the importance of food security

As stated in the introduction, the data collection process started just before Covid-19 in February 2020, and it continued during the pandemic and the national lockdown in South

Africa. Accordingly, the organisation's mindset in this study was on Covid-19, the lockdown, and the impact both had on households and communities. Some organisations expressed the view that Covid-19 was a wake-up call because it brought the problem of food insecurity that households experienced nationally, particularly in the Western Cape Province, to the fore. The question that was asked to the participants was if Covid-19 changed their view of food security/insecurity and whether they will make food security part of their organisation's objectives moving forward. Their responses are divided into two parts. The first part discusses responses that indicated what happened during Covid-19, and the lockdown was a wake-up call. The second part discusses responses focusing on partnership formation and how the CSOs and their linkages came together to assist hunger-stricken households and communities during the pandemic.

6.3.4.1 <u>Covid-19 and the lockdown was a wake-up call to food insecurity in the country</u>

Covid-19 and the prolonged lockdown in 2020 placed the issue of food insecurity that thousands of households experienced in South Africa at centre stage. It served as an urgent reminder of a problem that should have been addressed a long time ago by the democratic government, but was not. Because of the enormous need for food and assistance from the government during the lockdown, most of the organisations that participated in this study indicated in their interviews that they would consider making the right to have access to food, part of their organisations' objectives. Responses were:

> *We are not really food security people, and so... but then I realised also that we work a lot with communities, and throughout the period of the lockdown, during the pandemic, the reality on the ground is that food security is key to anyone. You know, access to food is something that is important for everyone because, in order for you to sustain yourself, to be able to wake up in the morning and go to work, you really need that basics when it comes to food security* (Organisation 1, NGO, first participant group)

> *We've not been particularly involved in the issue of food parcels, food parcels have been quite peripheral, but what the shift has been for us this year* [2020] *is recognizing the scale of hunger in the country* (Organisation 5, NPO, first participant group)

> *I think, therefore, it should become a societal issue. Nobody should go to bed hungry at night. Nobody should be without food. Because it's part of our... imagine the number*

of people that have started to beg during this period [lockdown]. *You've seen it on the streets. People are begging for food. But there's no place that they can go, there's no shelter where the State's feeding people. We should be demanding those things. It is ordinary people, communities in this network that we are talking about the right to food. You'll hear individuals are organising to feed others. Of course, that's noble, but it's not sustainable* (Organisation 2, NGO, second participant group)

It was probably one of the most urgent situations [lockdown] *that we had ever found ourselves in. We didn't know, firstly, how long, you know, schools would be closed for, as like, schools would only be open for Grade 7 and 12. We basically didn't know how long that situation would be, when learners were still out of school, you know? And it was, like, almost a moral duty. Like, there was no other outcome but a positive outcome to make sure that learners are fed* (Organisation 4, second participant group)

Ideally one, if the FISCUS were not so constrained, I would have said that the importance of school feeding schemes, for example, has been made very clear and explicit under Covid, but now we know that the Education Department's budget has been radically slashed, so ideally with something which would have been a key initiative to take post-Covid would have been, we've now seen and realised how important these schemes are (Organisation 4, second participant group)

The Covid-19 pandemic was a global phenomenon that resulted in prolonged lockdown for countries around the globe. Covid-19's impact has been described as a crisis of historic proportions (The World Health Statistics Report, 2021) and has 'deepened global inequities' (Valodia, 2021). *This author states that poor communities "have stomached the brunt of national lockdown, which would slow the recovery process".* According to the John Hopkins University (2021), statistics and research data about the Covid-19 pandemic and its impact globally show that "246 million people worldwide were infected with the virus, and 4.99 million deaths were reported as of 27 October 2021". In South Africa, the number stood at "2,921 million infected people, with 89,104 confirmed deaths as of 28 October 2021" (National Institute for Communicable Diseases, 2021).

As the responses above reflect, Covid-19 and the lockdown periods have brought food insecurity and 'the scale of hunger' in the country to light despite South Africa being regarded as food secure on a national level. What was clear to everyone, nationally, regionally and

globally, was that Covid-19 elevated the inequalities within societies (National Institute for Communicable Diseases, 2021; The World Health Statistics Report, 2021, Valodia, 2021).

In addition, the prolonged lockdown did further damage. It increased the already high unemployment rate in the country as many workers were laid off, and SMMEs had to close their businesses because they could not sustain themselves without regular income. The Institute for Economic Justice (2020) reported that the expanded unemployment rate for the second quarter of 2020 was 43.2%. During this period, the unemployment for women was 45,7%, and for men, 38,9%, which means that more women were unemployed than men. They reported that non-essential services were forced to close temporarily, while workers were requested to take leave and, in some instances, unpaid leave (Institute for Economic Justice, 2020). The NIDS-CRAM survey estimated that between February and April 2020, close to 3 million jobs were lost (Institute for Economic Justice, 2020). Similarly, Statistics South Africa (2020) noted that 2,2 million people in South Africa lost their jobs in the second quarter of 2020. It was also pointed out that, although there was a slight increase in job creation in the 4th quarter of the year, hunger persisted, and child hunger increased (Spaull, 2021).

These statistics illustrate the severity of the consequences of the lockdown and why hunger in households escalated to the extent that it did. The CSOs were at the forefront of noticing and working with communities that required food aid, as well as other organisations that required food aid, as discussed in Section 3.6. Despite the attempt by the government and businesses for an emergency fund that was set up and an R350 per month social grant for most affected people, hunger continued to persist for thousands of households and communities across South Africa. To this end, the third response draws attention that it became a societal challenge, showing that South African society stepped up and assisted with food parcels. As was mentioned by this organisation, providing food parcels is not sustainable. It will not address the root course of the problem, which is the existing inequalities between countries and communities (The World Health Statistics Report, 2021; World Food Programme, 2020). The World Food Programme (2020) and the World Health Statistics Report (2021) explain that globally, people continue to face many interdepended pressures on their health and overall well-being. They state that these challenges are rooted in social, political,

economic and gender inequalities and other determinants of health. South Africa's apartheid past is a good example of the social, political, economic and gender disparities.

Moreover, the National Institute for Communicable Diseases (2021) discusses the health-related issues and illnesses that can occur when people experience long periods of hunger or eat cheap food because they are poor. For this reason, the latter two responses speak to children experiencing hunger and the fact that public schools were closed for a long time. Researchers, organisations and academics made an urgent call to reopen the public schools as the school feeding schemes were vital in the prevention of child hunger and malnutrition (Kritzinger, 2020; Tebeje, Bikes, Abebe, & Yesuf, 2017; Van der Berg, 2020; World Food Programme, 2020). Quintile 1-3 schools are classified as schools (both public primary and high schools) that are situated in poor communities, specifically in townships and rural areas (Department of Basic Education, 2017). These schools have feeding schemes that provide the learners with one nutritional meal daily, often the only balanced meal the children receive (Dass & Ringquest, 2016; Department of Basic Education, 2017). Consequently, the schools were closed with the national lockdown, and the children stayed at home.

The last response highlights the school feeding schemes' pertinent role before Covid-19. It expresses a concern that the Education Department's budget cuts could negatively impact the existence of the feeding schemes at South Africa's public schools. Hence, the role that CSOs play in assisting and empowering struggling communities with vegetable gardens, ongoing training and skills development, and knowledge and information to become self-sustained is vital.

Similar to the discussion in the previous section, these responses also speak to the elements of the Framing Theory. The answers show that the organisations realised the food insecurity problem Covid-19 and the lockdown exacerbated, which resorts under diagnostic framing (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015; Entman, 1993). Second, Covid-19 raised awareness about the food insecurity problem in the communities where the CSOs worked and functioned. The extent of the problem and the fact that people and children needed to eat, and if they did not have food or access to food, they would starve and most probably be prone to illnesses and even death, was apparent. It also speaks to the fact that child hunger is increasing globally and that

being hungry could expose them to other societal ills such as abuse and exploitation (Compassion International, n.d.; Tebeje et al., 2017; World Food Programme, 2020). The fourth response speaks about 'a moral duty'. This implies that the organisation became motivated to solve the problem, ensuring that learners could be fed through the feeding schemes. Hence, the hope was that schools should be reopened for that purpose. Overall, the responses indicate that Covid-19 and the lockdown were watershed moments for the CSOs as they drove the food insecurity crisis in South Africa home. The responses on how the CSOs assisted the communities during the crisis are discussed next.

6.3.4.2 Partnership formation to assist hunger-stricken households and communities
The CSOs participants explained how they helped the households and communities during the pandemic and the lockdown. This they have done by working collaboratively with their partner organisations and other linkages. Responses were:

I think it was enormously effective [coming together] *people around food and the need to ensure that people have access to food. I think with these things, there's a ground spill, and then something else happens again, so it's always the issue of how you sustain it, but I think certainly… certainly, I think there were new alliances forged, and I really think that, you know, that the twinning of neighbourhoods where resources were unlocked in more affluent neighbourhoods, and redirected to poor neighbourhoods, so I think it was highly effective. The question is, how do you sustain it* (Organisation 1, NGO, second participant group)

Well, we think we are… this is why we took this initiative the other time with many other organisations to build the idea of taking forward the right to food both as a kind of class action issue, but it needs to go beyond that, obviously, it's not simply… it needs to have a groundswell, popular organisations, everybody joining. And the right to equal education should be part of that because you can't simply talk about equal education with hungry children (Organisation 3, second participant group)

Forming partnerships - I think one thing that I really think strengthened our partnership was with [name omitted]*, was this idea that* [name omitted] *knew its role very clearly and* [name omitted] *knew their role very clearly. And then we also saw where we couldn't, where we weren't as experienced, and their openness to be able to bring on another partner and kind of engage in that way was, I think, really great. And I think it was a sign of Covid as well. I think a lot of organizations, kind of, okay, I've got this,*

you've got that, let's not duplicate this work together (Organisation 6, Advocacy, first participant group)

So, we work with [name omitted]*, they're a national footprint, but they don't have a big footprint in Cape Town. So, we collaborate with them on Cape Town-based projects, but it's more so food gardening than other food... it's more on the gardening side. The other thing that we've also done recently is* [name omitted]*, which is an NGO affiliation of 33 different organisations that all support child welfare and women abuse, so it's a sort of umbrella organisation, and we've just made our training material available to them so that they... we can also support their staff, but they can actually use our training manual for training purposes. We've also trained... done intermediary training for others* (Advocacy 1, third participant group)

We'd gotten pulled into a new partnership called [name omitted]*, that we helped to establish as a trust, and it sells a... you know the restaurant at* [name omitted]. *So, the woman who has run that for the past 26 years got involved in supporting community kitchens, you know, when the restaurants were closed and so on, and so during the lockdown, she was supplying them, supporting them, helping them with all kinds of practicalities of running a kitchen* (Organisation 3, second participant group).

All the responses show that the organisations acted in the best possible way to form partners and alliances with other CSOs and organisations outside their networks. It shows that, in times of crisis, people pull together and assist each other, which is a strong characteristic of being human and having compassion for the need and challenges of others (Adelle & Haywood, 2021; Compassion International, n.d., World Food Programme, 2020). The responses also show that the assistance was practical in that it provided much-needed food aid. However, the first response also illustrates that the organisation was worried about the sustainability of the support provided. In contrast, the second response added that the right to equal education should accompany the right to have access to food. Both these remarks draw attention to the inequalities within the South African population. An inference can be made that providing food parcels and the social grant of R350 per month were short-term solutions. What is needed is a long-term sustainable plan, which should start with the government if the sustainable development goals (SDGs) are to be realised by 2030. Seven SDGs are most relevant to the food insecurity crisis: Goals 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 10. These goals are:

1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere;
2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainability;

3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages;

4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning;

5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls;

8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work for all;

10. Reduce inequality within and among countries.

As discussed under Section 6.3.2 above, these goals speak to food insecurity's multi-dimensional and interrelated aspects. They also underscore the consequences of marginalisation and discrimination against South Africa's Black population during apartheid. If poverty is ended, hunger will end. If hunger ends, people will have access to healthy and nutritious food, ensuring they can be healthy and enjoy overall well-being. When people have equal opportunities for quality education, they will become educated and skilled, strengthening their chances of finding suitable employment, which will help them be productive citizens that contribute to the country's economic growth and prosperity. More women will also find work, which will reduce gender inequality and empower more women and girls. If these elements are in place, inequality within and among countries will be eradicated, which is the sustainable development goal's objective (United Nations Member States, 2015).

In addition, these responses, similar to the previous section, exhibit motivational and prognostic framing (Snow & Benford, 2000). The CSOs did not only identify the problem, but they found a solution through collaboration and working with other organisations to overcome the problem. They also suggested how to move the process forward and what they thought should be done to mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food. By working collaboratively and extending their linkages and partnerships, the CSOs also lived up to their mandate, as Hearn (2001), Kahn (2015) and Andrée et al. (2019) (among others) advocate. Their role is to provide immediate relief to disadvantaged communities and be change agents that can affect long-term transformation where required. Hence, forming partnerships and working collaboratively during the Covid-19 pandemic gave the CSOs collective power, which they used to feed, support and enable the communities (Absolom, 2021; Gaventa, 2006; Green, 2019). Ideally, they should use this opportunity as a collective to

mobilise and advocate for the right to have food access as there is strength and power in collective action (Duncan & Barling, 2012; The Implementation World Food Summit Action Plan, 2015). Their suggestions on what they can do and what the government can do are discussed below under the third and last sub-question.

6.4 SUB-QUESTION 3: WHAT SUGGESTIONS CAN BE MADE ON HOW CIVIL SOCIETIES COULD WORK TOGETHER TO INFLUENCE THE GOVERNMENT TO MAKE FOOD SECURITY A PRIORITY?

The participants were asked if they could suggest what should be done to influence the Government's agenda to make food security a priority in South Africa. They suggested what they could do and what the government should do.

6.4.1 Suggestions on what the CSOs could do to make food security a priority

The responses are divided into two parts. The first part of the responses directs attention to how the CSOs should orient themselves and come together as one. These responses were:

We need to mainstream food, we have to imagine that food is so important you cannot be hosting meetings or talking about housing and land without having a base that we are not worried about day-to-day access to food (Organisation 4, NPO, first participant group)

We've definitely paid more attention to how the programme functions. We paid attention to how much money is allocated, whether learners are getting enough food at school, you know, sufficient portions. We've paid attention to the long term, you know. Should we be thinking about community food gardens? But it's made us also think more deeply, or deliberately about: okay guys, as part of our organising, having their own projects within their own schools and outside in the broader national campaigns, should we be advocators for them to start food gardens at their school in cases where there aren't any? (Organisation 4, Advocacy, third participant group)

I think what Covid made very clear to us [name omitted] *that we thought that we worked very closely, or we thought that we had many more projects that sort of engaged with communities. Covid-19 actually made it very clear to us that our community engagement was very limited, so I think it was a very interesting learning curve. So, you know, we talked in general about projects and when we, as part of the Covid task team, said, well, let's capture where we do work with communities and how*

we can use those engagements to support whatever hardships those communities might be facing as a result of Covid. It became clear that we had an inflated idea of what we were doing, so I think that was a key learning. And I think that as a result of that, in the development of our outcomes, we've made sure that community engagement and that capacity building in communities are much stronger target to some of our outcomes, and we've made it much more explicit as a key thing that we should engage with within the South African context. (Organisation 3, second participant group)

We need more clear messaging and coherence (Organisation 9, Advocacy, first participant group)

There needs to be pressure. However, we need to understand what we are contributing to, what we need to achieve; otherwise, we will go back to our own thing because we know we can make a difference here. We need to choose the battle that we fight, a campaign or marketing effort with a certain ethical frame under it (Organisation 2, NPO, first participant group).

For me, it seems like we are covering the wound with a plaster [providing food aid], *and we are not really fixing the problem at all, and I think going forward, we need to fix this by coming together with our own expertise and finding out what the common vision that we need to focus on and find the most united voice. It needs to be clear, concise and easy to understand. We need to be organised in that sense for us to be more effective* (Organisation 6, NPO, first participant group)

The first response suggests that the issue of food insecurity should be the top priority for everyone. It indicates that food insecurity is not widely known and acknowledged and should be expanded across the different areas civil society organisations were functioning within. The response further states that the issue of food insecurity cuts across all sectors and cannot be ignored by people or organisations working on housing or land, for example. It can be inferred that the response indicates that food security should be the first issue that organisations think and talk about and mobilise and advocate for because, if one does not have food to eat, one cannot do all the other things. All the other things will not matter. This organisation advocated that having food to eat is most critical for a human being's survival than having access to a house or land. These sentiments are similar to what the World Food Programme (2020) and the World Health Statistics Report (2021) explain about having food to eat for day-to-day survival.

The second and third responses illustrate what the organisations had done during the lockdown and how their thinking and awareness about food insecurity have changed. The second response indicates that this organisation 'deepened' their thinking about the food provided at the school level to learners; whether it was sufficient and sustainable in the long run. The third response shows that the organisation admitted they had an 'inflated idea' of what they were doing. Hence, they decided to sharpen/strengthen their community engagement and capacity building in communities and made it more explicit as a key objective. The lockdown made them realise that food insecurity is a national challenge, so much so that they were thinking of advocating for food gardens for schools that did not have any (second response), and what they were doing before Covid-19 seemed insignificant (third response).

The remaining three responses suggest how the CSOs can work together by deciding on a collective vision, being united and organised, and combining their strengths and skills. As was discussed in Section 6.3.3, the organisations reported that there was no shared vision and that everyone was focusing on their own objectives and 'things'. The responses above show that the organisations reflected on the identified problem and suggested how to overcome the problem to collectively mobilise and advocating for the right to have access to food. An inference can be made that Covid-19 and the lockdown have opened their eyes and their minds about how great the need was for food security for lower-income and poverty-stricken households and communities in the Western Cape Province and nationally (Absolom, 2021; Kritzinger, 2020; Van der Berg & Patel, 2021; Willis, Patel & Van der Berg, 2020**).**

The responses in the second part direct attention to the citizens' rights as described in South Africa's constitution and the broader systemic issues of why so many households and communities were food insecure. These were:

> *Well, I think we're going to have to challenge the government because the*
> *custodian of rights would be the State and the State's Constitution, isn't it? Because*
> *the right to food is not in our Constitution, but the right to food for children is linked*
> *into the Constitution. So, who has to promote that, right? Not individuals. Our role*
> *as citizens must be to ensure that those rights enshrined in our Constitution are not*

violated. And at the moment, those rights are violated, hence this dichotomy, or this dialectic between organising people to know their rights, to understand their rights, to claim their rights and to protect their rights. These things must go together, so it's the role of the State (Organisation 3, second participant group)

So, as I've tried to say, the right to food should become a Constitutional right. Should be enshrined in the Constitution, and there should be ways and means of building the safety nets that create food security at household level because there is food security at country level. We cannot say there isn't food. When the supermarkets are full, when the farmers are exporting. And we need to begin also to say that there's so much of organising of food around… if you look, you just drive through the wine districts, they're just vineyard after vineyard after vineyard after vineyard. Ons kan nie wyn eet nie. Some of that must be changed also, to begin to say, we need to grow more food. We need to begin to say, what is it that this country requires to ensure that there's food security? And build the resilience. Build the community resilience. Build the strategies at Provincial level at District level, to ensure that this happens. But at the moment, it's not on the agenda. We give people money, small grants, to go and buy food in the supermarket at exorbitant prices. There isn't even price control over food. (Organisation 3, second participant group)

So, I think… one of the things that you'll hear a lot around the… not even right to food, but… but I think it is the right to food, is that the lack of land, or space to grow food. So that's one thing. They're pushing or advocating around more available spaces to be made, I mean, open spaces to be made available for food. So, if there could be a way to push in that regard, so that there is enough land to grow food. That's what I think would make it possible for food growing or food security problem to be resolved. So, the second thing is the issue of water, because land and water, in food security, they go together. So, those two things. Ja, water and water storage, in a sense. (Organisation 1, NGO, second participant group)

I think the civil society organisations, if anything we have learned throughout the pandemic, that our role is beyond just giving people information, is beyond just

ensuring people have the right to communicate, its beyond just ensuring people have the right to protest or you know our role to countering repression, but there are issues that go deeper and those issues that contribute to poverty are some of the aspects that contribute to the current state of our country where people result to go to the streets and fight and burn stuff, protesting. At the end of the day, you find out, those people who are poor, under-privileged and may not have adequate access to, you know, food or food security, for instance (Organisation 2, Advocacy, third participant group)

The first two responses are from the same organisation. They are profound and summarise what some of the other organisations were also saying – that the right to food should be a constitutional right for all in South Africa. In fact, it is a constitutional right as described in Section 27(1) (b). Section 27(1) states that "Everyone has the right to have access to (a) health care services, including reproductive health care; (b) sufficient food and water; and (c) social security, including, if they are unable to support themselves and their dependents, appropriate social assistance." (Republic of South Africa, Constitution, Section 27(1) (a) (b) (c)). The first response also indicates that the government violated the communities' constitutional rights because food security was not a priority before Covid-19 and the national lockdown. It further states that the role of citizens, and CSOs in particular, is to ensure that communities' rights are not violated. This means that this organisation is calling for collective action against the government. Thus, the government did not do what the constitution required them to do, as stated under Section 7(2), which is to "respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights in the Bill of Rights" (Republic of South Africa, Constitution, Section 7(2)).

The second response is more robust in that the organisation is not only referring to the right to have access to food as a constitutional right, but also that "there should be ways and means of building the safety nets that create food security at the household level because there is food security at country level." With this statement, the organisation again calls for collective action to establish food security (Adelle & Haywood, 2021; Altman et al., 2009; Statistics South Africa, 2019). The organisation continues to say that the South African supermarkets are full, that produce is being exported, and that there are hectors and hectors of vineyards for the production of wine, all of which pointed to the fact that the country has sufficient food. Why, then, are there households and community members who do not have food to eat?

The organisation provided one solution, which was to "build the community resilience. Build the strategies at provincial level, at district level", to ensure that households and community members become food secure, which was not the case as food security was not high on the government's agenda before Covid-19.

The last part of the second response directs attention to a further problem: the government provided the people with a small grant of R350 per month to buy food at the supermarkets at inflated prices where there was no price control over food. What can be inferred from this remark is that the small grant did not help much because the food bought was overpriced, which means that the amount was too small to make a significant difference. One can argue that the amount was 'too little, too late'. As stated by the Integrated Food Security Phase Classification (2021), there was an increase of about 30% or more for certain products within the basic food basket, which had a significant impact on food access in South Africa as the majority of households and individuals obtain most of their food through purchase. Similarly, Willis, Patel and Van der Berg (2020) explain in their study that 47% of the adults they interviewed reported that their home ran out of money to buy food in April 2020. Between May and June, 21% said that someone in their household went hungry, while 15% reported that a child went hungry in the same period (Willis et al., 2020). Therefore, the organisation implied that the government should control and regulate food prices so that retail stores cannot inflate essential everyday food items.

The latter two responses draw attention to systemic issues discussed in Section 6.3.2. These are land and water availability, directly linked to the growing of food (third response) and deeper underlying issues that contribute to poverty, which drive people to protest and unrest action (last response). The third response suggests that there should be 'a push' for more available land to grow food to provide for struggling households and communities. The first part of the last response acknowledges that the pandemic has taught CSOs a fundamental lesson. Their role as custodians of the marginalised and disadvantaged is much more than providing information, training, food aid, and knowledge about rights or protection again oppression. Their role, as stated by Andrée et al. (2020), Cooper (2018), Jezard (2018) and Pabari et al. (2020), is to influence and shape policy-makers agendas and public opinion on a global scale. An inference can be made that this organisation realised that what they and other CSOs were doing prior to Covid-10 and the lockdown was 'scratching the surface' or as

two organisations from the first participant group observed after the net-mapping exercise, the CSOs were 'cleaning up the mess' (Organisation 2), and 'covering up the wound with a plaster (Organisation 6).

It can also be inferred that this organisation realised that the CSOs should concentrate on the 'deeper issues of poverty' since more than 49.2% of the population over 18 falls below the upper-bound poverty line (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Another 1 million people were in extreme poverty due to Covid-19 and the national lockdown (Mahler, Lakner, Aguilar & Wu, 2020). A final inference can be made that the response of this organisation, together with the other three responses, suggests that CSOs should rise to the challenge of mobilising and advocating for all the rights of households and community members stated in the South African constitution. Thus, the focus and objectives of the CSOs should no longer be on what the individual organisations focused on before Covid-19, but instead should change to working collectively to influence and pressure the government to adhere to what the constitution is instructing them to do under Section 7(2), which is to "respect, protect, promote and fulfil the rights in the Bill of Rights" for the South African population (Republic of South Africa, Constitution, Section 7(2)).

These responses direct attention to the three theories of the theoretical framework. By mainstreaming food and making it the top priority (first response), the organisation emphasises the attention that food security should receive, which the agenda setting theory advocates (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015). Similarly, as suggested in the other three responses, having a shared vision, a united front, and collective capacity is what the agenda setting theory promotes. Such action could positively impact policy around the right to have access to food (Lonja, 2013; Stoker, 1998).

In addition, working collaboratively towards one goal and objective and raising the challenge of being the custodians for lower-income and poor households and communities in South Africa, the CSOs empower themselves to speak and stand up for the right to have access to food for these groups. Consequently, they are taking back their power as Andree et al. (2019), Cooper (2018) and Green (2019) explain – CSOs' purpose is to fight and work for what they believe to be the collective interest of society, which in this instant, is having access to food.

As Kahn (2015) and Pabari et al. (2020) advocate, collaborative action assigns visible power to themselves. These authors explain that CSOs are valuable not only in the present by providing short-term relief but for the future. Longer-term transformative change can happen as they defend collective interests and provide solidarity strategies and tools to place the issue of food insecurity high on the government's agenda of priority matters. In so doing, these organisations follow collective action framing because they suggest "action-oriented sets of beliefs and meanings" (Snow & Benford, 2000).

As discussed in Section 3.6.3, collective action framing includes diagnostic, prognostic and motivational framing processes. The organisations participating in this study were part of a community of practice within the food landscape (refer to Section 6.2). However, the majority (96%) were not directly involved in food aid or mobilising for the right to access food (refer to Section 6.3.1). Only when the Covid-19 pandemic occurred and the subsequent lockdown was announced and enforced did the organisations identify food insecurity as a severe problem in South Africa, which is diagnostic framing. As Snow and Benford (2000) described, diagnostic framing recognises that a specific condition is unacceptable. In this instance, households and communities go hungry, and instead of blaming an individual, the situation is perceived as a structural failure that needs political or economic change. By offering solutions to overcome the problem, the organisations moved to prognostic framing: They suggested how they could join forces to use their collective power to mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food on behalf of the communities in which they are involved. The scale and degree of hunger that the organisations have observed, as expressed by one organisation, "*people are begging for food*", provided the rationale and justification for wanting to be part of collective action to put pressure on the South African government to make the right to have access to food a priority, which resorts under motivational framing (Cooper, 2018; Pabari et al., 2020; Snow & Benford, 2000).

Finally, by standing up and using the rights of the citizens described in the South African constitution as their departure, the CSOs that participated in this study were signalling that 'enough is enough'. They were prepared to mobilise and advocate for the right to access food, given that sufficient food is produced at a national level and that the constitution requires the government to uphold the citizens' rights. Doing so collectively will help them regain their

power and influence the government's decision-making to benefit the marginalised and disadvantaged communities (Gaventa, 2006; International Peacebuilding Advisory Team, 2015; Pabari et al., 2020).

6.4.2   Suggestions on what the government could do to make food security a priority

The CSOs suggested what the government could do to prioritise food security. Their responses were:

> *Government has a responsibility to provide for people in the country in various ways, to provide for their rights enshrined in the constitution. So, therefore when it is not providing that, it is failing in its mandate* (Organisation 5, NPO, first participant group)

> *It can only be to hold the government to account for its responsibilities to vulnerable citizens to develop greater levels of resilience and look at long-term sustainability, the government has no money, and we have got to pull resources at local community levels* (Organisation 10, Advocacy, first participant group)

> *I think that we have been going and knocking on their doors* [the government] *and asking them to come, you know, and assist… You're talking about government department? The constant talking to them and getting them to support the initiatives that are happening on the ground level* (Organisation 3, NGO, second participant group)

> *I almost think it has to come from the government side, because I think NGOs are very good at partnering, and I think many companies are very good at partnering, but it's almost like the government need to make that a priority or make it known that that is their intention that almost accepting that they can't do everything, and maybe like no, it's almost it's not admitting you're not admitting failure, you just admitting that you can't do everything. So I think it's kind of continuing along that train of making themselves a bit far vulnerable and actually saying, you know, we can't do everything and we and even initiating, you know actually reaching out to organizations and reaching out to companies, so not taking the passive role, but being an active actively trying to partner* (Organisation 3, Advocacy, third participant group)

I think it's probably a ragbag of actors, I mean, I think the City would play a much more active role because, of course, vulnerable, hungry people impact on the overall resilience of a city and its been identified by the city as a major issue and I think also in the Western Cape on the whole. I just think cities have limited mandates that they can redirect towards food security. I mean, of course, they've got a mandate to promote social and economic development, and of course, food access would be a component of that. So, I think, ideally, I think one would like them to play more of a role in the sense of where they situate fresh food markets, where they allow, how they allow, where they allow supermarkets to open up so there's a lot of things they can do already, which they don't (Organisation 1, NGO, second participant group)

The above responses indicate that the South African government should act according to their mandate to be the country's highest decision-making body. The government should execute its constitutional responsibility of protecting and promoting all the citizens' rights as contained in Chapter 2, Bill of Rights (Republic of South Africa, Constitution, Chapter 2, Bill of Rights). The first response states that the government did not adhere to its responsibility, as noted in the previous section. The second response is directing attention to the sustainability of resources for the long-term and the fact that the government would not be able to do it on its own and that 'we,' referring to the CSOs, will have to assist the government in fulfilling its obligations towards the citizens. This statement shows that the organisation realised that a large portion of the population, 49.2% according to Statistics South Africa (2019), plus the 1 million that can be added due to Covid-19 and the national lockdown (Mahler et al., 2020), are food insecure. They acknowledge that it will be a mammoth task for the government if they want to do it alone, which will be impossible as the scars of apartheid and its consequences are multidimensional and far-reaching (University of Washington, 2019; World Bank Group, 2018).

The third response suggests that the CSOs should constantly ask the government to assist them with the work that they are doing within the communities. This is a practical suggestion for the government to realise its constitutional responsibility toward poor households and communities in South Africa. The fourth response also points out that the government cannot do it independently and that they should work collaboratively with the CSOs. It further

explains that the government is vulnerable and should acknowledge that because it is okay. They will not be regarded as failures if they admit their vulnerability and ask the CSOs for help. In fact, according to this organisation, reaching out and asking for assistance will be regarded as being proactive because, by not doing so, it could be perceived as being passive.

The last response focuses specifically on the City of Cape Town and what they are doing in the Western Cape Province. The first part of the response acknowledges that "vulnerable, hungry people" impacted the overall resilience of a city and that the city has identified it as "a major issue". It will influence the resources available for the Western Cape Province because the City of Cape Town is limited in its mandate and will not be able to provide for all in the province adequately. The organisation suggests what the City of Cape could do within its limited mandate. It suggests that the City can play a more decisive role in the location of fresh food markets, whom they allow being food providers, and how it should be done. The organisation criticises the City for not using its power to make these suggestions possible. The organisation is also saying that it will not require more financial resources from the City. It involves strategic planning, organising and regulating the what, who and where food space in the Western Cape Province.

These responses and suggestions reflect that the government has the power, as discussed in Section 6.3.2. Still, moving forward, they should use their power ethically and productively to positively impact the right to have access to food. The discussion in Section 6.3.2 alluded to the fact that the Department of Trade and Industry was using its power to control and limit the CSOs, which could be considered unethical. The responses also illustrate that the City of Cape Town was attempting to assist and provide for the needs of the vulnerable households and communities within a limited capacity. However, they could not provide alone for the needs of the lower-income and low-income families and communities because the demand outweighed the supply. Hence, the government should reach out to the CSOs and other organisations (both nationally and internationally, public and private) that can partner with them, resulting in collective and enabling power towards eradicating hunger in South Africa.

Overall, the suggestions made by the CSOs that participated in this study speak to all three theories of the theoretical framework. Firstly, the recommendations made that the right to

food should be a constitutional right (which it is). The government should adhere to its constitutional responsibility to uphold that proper direct attention to the agenda-setting theory. These suggestions imply that the government should place the right to have access to food on top of its agenda. It should be the first and most important priority moving forward (Hudson & Lowe, 2009; Lonja, 2013).

Secondly, as already discussed, making decisions about which issues should be prioritised and working together to realise and execute the decisions is a form of collective visible power. If done correctly, there will be equal power distributions and no room for invisible and hidden power (Gaventa, 2006; Green, 2019; International Peacebuilding Advisory Team, 2015). The sharing of equal power will mean that the CSOs will be free to do what they think is best without being mindful of what their funders and the government want them to do or not to do.

Lastly, working together to make the right to have access to food a priority, and collaboratively executing this right, correspond with the Framing Theory. As a result of Covid-19 and the subsequent lockdown, the CSOs realised and appreciated the scale of food insecurity within households and communities despite South Africa being regarded as food secure. Thus, they identified the problem (diagnostic framing), acted on the problem by offering solutions (prognostic framing) and, moving forward, want to resolve the problem collectively. The suggestions made in this section illustrate their willingness to act and be part of the solution (motivational framing) (Ardevol-Abreu, 2015; Snow & Benford, 2000).

6.5   SYNTHESIS OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The data analysis in the preceding sections has shown the emerging issues resulting from how civil society organisations in the Western Cape Province interacted with the right to food and the barriers they faced. It further indicates that the participant groups suggested what could be done to make the right to have access to food a top priority on the government's agenda.

As such, based on the discussions and interpretations, **a first observation** is that there were many CSOs (more than 92) that were focusing on and working within the food space, but none

of them explicitly focused on the promotion and mobilisation for the right have access to food before Covid-19.

Observation two is that mobilising for the right to access food did not form part of the CSOs' focus areas and objectives, which resorts under the Agenda Setting Theory.

Observation three is that one organisation was involved in lobbying through the different forms of social media to create awareness and improve people's understanding of the food system.

Observation four relates to the Power Theory (visible, invisible or hidden). Five groups were identified as having power, namely, the private sector and the government, the City of Cape Town and the Department of Trade and Industry, the apartheid regime, the knowledge/educational sector, and the CSOs joining forces and working collaboratively.

Observation five concerns why the CSOs did not mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food, which references the Framing Theory of the theoretical framework.

Observation six has to do with Covid-19 and the national lockdown and how it changed the CSOs' perceptions of the importance of food security.

Observation seven relates to what the CSOs have done to assist the communities during Covid-19 and the lockdown. All the responses show that the organisations acted in the best possible way to form partners and alliances with other CSOs and organisations outside their networks.

Observation eight relates to the suggestions the CSOs made on what should be done to influence the government's plan to make food security a top priority in South Africa. They suggested what they could do and what the government could do.

The **last observation** has to do with the four concerns that the CSOs expressed, given the severity of households and communities' food insecurity during the national lockdowns.

In conclusion, the results of the data collected from the three data sets were discussed and interpreted based on the study's theoretical framework in this chapter. After that, a synthesis of the discussions and interpretations of the results were presented. This chapter was challenging and rewarding as the researcher had to apply her analytical and critical thinking skills to discuss and interpret the results logically, coherently, and meaningfully. Working through multiple drafts and receiving feedback from her supervisors assisted her in remaining neutral and objective.

Chapter Seven, the final chapter of this thesis, is presented next.

CHAPTER SEVEN
FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION
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7.1   INTRODUCTION

The final chapter of this study begins with a list of findings identified from the previous chapter's observations. These findings are then related to the literature reviewed and the theoretical framework to establish if the aim and objectives of the study were met. After that, the study's contribution to the body of knowledge is noted, and recommendations are proposed for civil society organisations, households and communities, the local government, funders, and the private sector on what could be done to make food security a priority. Finally, the chapter concludes by noting the study's limitations, proposing suggestions for possible future research, and a personal reflection of what the study meant to the researcher.

7.2   FINDINGS

The study's findings are listed below based on the observations made at the end of the previous chapter.

Finding One

The food space in the Western Cape consisted of more than 92 CSOs that were part of the DST/NRF Centre of Excellence in Food Security. The roles of these organisations ranged from producing food, food governance awareness and distributing food. However, none of these organisations was established to mobilise around the issue of food insecurity, not in the Western Cape Province, or nationally. They did not protest to influence the government's agenda to make food security a priority before Covid-19.

Finding Two

Mobilising for the right to access food was not part of the CSOs' focus areas and objectives. The discussions and interpretations showed that the organisations did not view their role as mobilising or advocating for the right to have access to food. Their opinion was that they

added value to the food insecurity issue through awareness, community training, and empowerment of households and communities.

Finding Three

The research participants identified three reasons why they did not mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food. The first reason was that the CSOs did not have power; they were 'in the middle' and ruled by their funders, the Department of Trade and Industry and the knowledge sector. The second reason was that there was no shared vision and no unity among the CSOs. A third reason identified was the systemic issues such as the consequences of apartheid, the state of disintegration, the high levels of unemployment and the growing inequality levels in the country, which were brought to the fore by Covid-19 and the lockdown.

Finding Four

Five groups were identified as having assumed power over the CSOs. The first group that assumed visible power over the CSOs comprised funders that included private and public organisations. The second group included the City of Cape Town and the Department of Trade and Industry, which assumed regulating and visible power. Group three was the Apartheid regime that assumed visible power, while the fourth group was the knowledge/educational sector also assuming visible power. It was argued that this groups not only held visible power but also had an invisible and hidden power as the work together, had more resources and could decide what to communicate and when. However, during Covid-19 and the national lockdown, the CSOs joined forces and formed group number five. They collaborated with other organisations and the government to provide food aid to thousands of households and community members who were food insecure. Doing so resulted in them having assumed collective power.

Finding Five

As a result of Covid-19 and the subsequent lockdowns, the CSO participants realised and appreciated the scale of food insecurity within households and communities even though South Africa was considered food secure on a national level. They also learned how food insecurity intertwined with their focus areas and objectives. It was argued that the responses and discussions directed attention to the three elements of the Framing Theory. The

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responses illustrated that the organisations knew there was a problem and that the problem was with themselves and how they managed and steered their respective organisations, which resorts under diagnostic framing. They also knew their actions and decisions were limited and controlled by their funders, the government and the knowledge sector.

Finding Six

The responses and discussions illustrated that Covid-19 and the lockdown brought food insecurity and 'the scale of hunger' in the country to the fore, and increased the already high unemployment rate. Statistics were discussed that reflected the severity of the consequences of the lockdown and why hunger in households escalated to the extent that it did, which became a societal challenge. Some of the organisations also expressed concerns about school-going children as the schools were closed for long periods.

The CSOs acknowledged that the pandemic had taught them a fundamental lesson: their role as custodians of the marginalised and disadvantaged was much more than what they perceived it to be. Hence, they did not only identify food insecurity as a challenge during the pandemic, but they found a solution through collaboration and working with other organisations to overcome the problem. Their actions exhibited motivational and prognostic framing, and they also took back their power as they came together as one force.

Finding Seven

The participants expressed four concerns. These were:

1. The government did not adhere to its constitutional responsibility to uphold the rights of the citizens;

2. The R350 grant provided by the government to the people was insufficient;

3. The systemic issues contributed to poverty; and

4. The government alone cannot ensure the sustainability of resources in the long run.

Finding Eight

The participants suggested what they and the government could do to prioritise food insecurity in the province and in South Africa. These were:

1. Food security should be at the top of CSOs' objectives to mobilise and advocate for;

2. CSOs should work collectively on issues and not in silos, and should collaborate with the government as well:

3. The government should uphold the right to have access to food as it is a constitutional right;

4. The government should make more land available to grow food to provide for struggling households and communities; and

5. The City of Cape Town should play a more decisive role in the location of fresh food markets, whom they allow to be food providers, and how it should be done.

These findings will now be related to the literature reviewed and the theoretical framework to ascertain if the study achieved its aim and objectives.

7.3   INTERPRETING THE FINDINGS

As stated in Section 1.3, the study investigated how civil society organisations (CSOs) in the Western Cape Province interacted with the right to food and whether there were barriers to their potential in realising the right to food for the communities in the province. The study had three objectives, which were:

1. To understand how civil society organisations frame the issue of food insecurity in the Western Cape Province;

2. To investigate whether these organisations promote the right to food for households and communities in the Western Cape Province, and if they did not do so, why did they not;

3. To propose recommendations on how civil society organisations could overcome the barriers to realise the right to food in the Western Cape Province.

The main research question was: *Were civil society organisations in the Western Cape Province promoting the right to food, and if not, what could be done so that the right to food can become a priority in the province?*

Three sub-research questions guided the data collection process and the discussions, namely:

1. Which Civil Society Organisations were active in the food security landscape in the Western Cape Province?

2. Were these organisations promoting the right to food in the province? If not, why not?

3. What suggestions can be made on how civil societies could work together to influence the government to prioritise food security?

The argument in this study was that realising the right to food should be a priority for CSOs in the Western Cape Province (and nationally) as their mandate is to act on behalf of marginalised communities. Their role is to pressure the government to uphold the citizen's constitutional rights, which in this instance, was the right to have access to food. The interpretation of the findings is made per sub research question below.

7.3.1 SUB-QUESTION 1: WHICH CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS WERE ACTIVE IN THE FOOD SECURITY LANDSCAPE IN THE WESTERN CAPE PROVINCE?

Findings one and two answer this question. The discussion under Section 6.2 reflected that more than 92 CSOs were working within the food space before the Covid-19 pandemic. The net-mapping workshop demonstrated that the food space consisted of different categories, with organisations working in production, distribution, health, awareness raising and advocacy. What is most important to take from the study is that, although the food space had many organisations, none of them actively mobilised, litigated, or protested the right to food before the Covid-19 pandemic. CSOs were not taking to the streets and activating the urgency of food insecurity. One organisation reported lobbying through social media and social networks to create awareness and improve people's understanding of the food system. However, that was not mobilising and advocating for the right to have access to food.

Participants indicated that it was not how they operated. The responses and discussions in Section 6.3.2 revealed that the organisations were established based on specific focus areas and objectives. Some objectives were jointly decided on by the communities within which the CSOs functioned. The organisations explained that their goals and objectives were fixed and did not allow food insecurity to be tabled on their agendas.

Some participants indicated that other organisations were better suited to mobilise for the right to food. Their responses also revealed that the CSOs in the food space worked in silos. Every organisation was focusing on its own objectives. Most of the CSOs did not work collectively and did not reach out to other organisations to establish the gaps in the food

space. Some participants said they did not want to step on other organisations' toes. Still, the study showed that the silos created an even more significant gap that no one wanted to pursue because it was not part of their organisation's DNA. One could conclude that the CSOs in the food space was playing it safe. One main reason was that they were aware of their funders' power over them. Another reason was that the CSOs did not consider food insecurity a big problem prior to the Covid-19 pandemic.

Before Covid-19, South Africa was regarded as food secure nationally (Statistics South Africa, 2019). However, as indicated in the discussions, Statistics South Africa (2019) revealed that 6.8 million people experienced hunger, and 10.4 million had inadequate access to food in 2017 in South Africa. They further noted that more than 49.2% of the population over 18 falls below the upper-bound poverty line (Statistics South Africa, 2019). With these statistics revealed in 2017 already, the question is – why did the CSOs who worked within the food space nationally and in the Western Cape Province, not regard food insecurity as a significant problem? Especially if one considers the role and mandate of CSOs, which, according to Andree et al. (2019), Kahn (2015) and Pabari et al. (2020), are to fight and work for what they believe to be the collective interest and benefit of society. Thus, one can conclude that the CSOs failed the South African communities because they did not mobilise and fight for the right to access food.

7.3.2 SUB-QUESTION 2: WERE THESE ORGANISATIONS PROMOTING THE RIGHT TO FOOD IN THE PROVINCE? IF THEY WERE NOT DOING THIS, WHY WERE THEY NOT?

Finding three, four and five provide answers to this sub-question. The discussion in the previous section already pointed out that the CSOs involved in the food space in the Western Cape Province did not promote the right to food. It was only because of Covid-19 and the national lockdown that they realised the seriousness of the food insecurity problem. The participants gave three reasons for not mobilising for the right to food. As noted in the previous section, the CSOs worked in silos, which meant they did not know what their fellow organisations focused on or what societal issues were regarded as most important and worth motivating.

With the start of democracy in 1994, Black South Africans saw their struggles ending; people were excited that the social ills created by the apartheid government would be corrected and that they would have the means to end many of their problems. The post-apartheid government promised people the world and committed themselves to eradicating the wrongs of the past. However, more than 25 years later, the right to food was not realised for marginalised households, communities and farmworkers (Nkrumah, 2019). The unemployment rate is still very high, communities are still impoverished, and people are still struggling.

This state of affairs leads to the second reason the CSOs did not mobilise for the right to have access to food, which is the many systemic issues resulting from apartheid. It should be noted that CSOs were always vibrant in South Africa. The CSOs and social movements' mobilisation and actions against the apartheid government aided the fight for a free and democratic South Africa. The apartheid government was pressurised with the help of CSOs to change. Unfortunately, with this change to democracy, many CSO leaders were absorbed into the political space as democratic politicians (Madlingozi, 2007). Hence, since 1994, the vibrancy of CSOs has changed. CSOs have taken on a much softer approach to government. This could be because people of their own have been absorbed in government. CSOs are not as aggressive as they were during apartheid in ensuring that the people's needs are met (Madlingozi, 2007). This is evident in the food space as the participants reported that 'other organisations' should mobilise for the right to food.

However, the participants identified the current systematic issues in South Africa as another reason. There is still a large segment of the African and Coloured populations that are poor, unskilled and unemployed, with no access to basic essentials such as proper housing/land, water and sanitation (Goodman, 2017; Patel & Graham, 2021). A representative from one organisation explained that the food insecurity challenge was much more significant than only having access to food to eat and that these issues were interrelated and interdepended. For example, the food system excludes small farmers from the market. Yes, some communities are trying to grow food and sell the food within their communities. For these communities to contribute to food security, they need more equipment, land and access to markets such as selling to supermarkets. This will create employment, giving communities enough money to

buy more nutritional food. Most importantly, it will open access for small farmers to enter a market that is currently entirely cut off for them (Von Loeper, Drimie & Blignaut, 2018).

In addition, the food insecurity challenge is exacerbated because no dedicated state entity or government department focuses on food security and food insecurity. This ultimately creates a gap because, which particular arm of government should be held accountable for ensuring the right to food? The absence of a dedicated state entity contributes to the exclusion of farmers as no one entity is concerned with the right to have access to food.

Moreover, because the third reason why the CSOs did not mobilise for the right to food has to do with who or what holds power, the government, through the Department of Trade and Industry, was identified as having assumed visible, invisible and hidden power. So did the funders and the knowledge/education sectors that were part of the organisations within the food space. After the net-mapping exercise, the representatives acknowledged that they had no power but were at these groups' mercy. The discussions and interpretations in Section 6.3.2 revealed who held power and how the CSOs were 'in the middle' and had to "clean up the mess'. As was discussed in Sections 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4, CSOs are supposed to be the mediators between the governments and marginalised groups or communities. They ought to fight and influence governments' agendas and priorities as they were established to be the spokesperson and voice of the voiceless in societies.

The study's findings have shown that they did not adhere to their calling before the Covid-19 pandemic. They succumbed to the pressures of needing funding to operate and being activists who were 'absorbed' as part of the democratic government. They contributed to the food insecurity problem because the will to take a firm approach and mobilise and pressurise the government into ensuring the right to food was lacking.

7.3.3 SUB-QUESTION 3: WHAT SUGGESTIONS CAN BE MADE ON HOW CIVIL SOCIETIES COULD WORK TOGETHER TO INFLUENCE THE GOVERNMENT TO MAKE FOOD SECURITY A PRIORITY?

Findings six, seven and eight answer this question. As discussed under Section 6.3.4.1, Covid-19 and the national lockdowns were watershed moments for the CSO representatives who

participated in this study. The lockdowns brought everything to a standstill, revealing the systemic issues and extreme poverty that were and are still prevailing in the Black South African population. It also increased the already high unemployment rate, as the Institute for Economic Justice (2020) reported: close to 3 million jobs were lost between February and April 2020.

The CSOs were forced to acknowledge and deal with the food insecurity challenge, which brought them to their 'senses' to want to speak and stand up for the poor. One organisation in South Africa made history when the right to food was litigated for the first time during the lockdown. This organisation took the government to court on the distribution of food for learners because it realised the impact that not receiving their daily meals would have on the learners. As a result, immediate action was taken, and the government needed to ensure that even at home, learners needed to have access to food (Nayak-Oliver, 2020).

As finding six reflected, the participants came together as one and collectively provided food aid to households and communities during the lockdown periods. They also suggested moving the process forward and what they should be doing to mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food, which are elements of motivational and prognostic framing (Snow & Benford, 2000). They have begun to live up to their mandate as CSOs, taking back their power and becoming change agents that want to impact long-term transformation (Absolom, 2021; Andrée et al., 2019; Green, 2019; Kahn; 2015).

Again, as a result of Covid-19, the participants expressed their concerns that the government did not adhere to its constitutional responsibility to uphold the rights of the citizens. The R350 grant the government provided to the people was insufficient. The systemic issues continued to widen the rich and poor gap. They realised that the government alone could not ensure the sustainability of resources in the long run. They needed to work with the government to assist and empower the households and communities.

Based on their concerns, they made two suggestions on what they could do and three on what the government could do (finding eight). Achieving the first two suggestions they made were relatively easy - to make food security their primary objective, mobilise and advocate for the

right to food, and work collectively with other CSOs and the government. They have worked collectively during the lockdown already; hence, they can build on the collaboration and use their collective power to influence the government's agenda so that food security for the poor will become the top priority.

The participants suggested that the government should uphold the right to have access to food as it is a constitutional right. Mobilising and advocating for the right to food would be an effective way for the CSOs to hold the government accountable in this regard. They can also follow the example of the one organisation that took the government to court. If more organisations do that, the government would be forced to act and put measures in place to give the poor access to food. The R350 grant was a start, but as the CSOs identified, it was insufficient and cannot be sustained indefinitely. A more sustainable and long-term strategy would be to educate and upskill poor people to become employable entrepreneurs. The government should also create more jobs so that more people would be earning an income to have money to buy nutritional food.

The second suggestion for the government was to make more land available to grow food to provide for struggling households and communities. The government's land reform process is underway, but it is challenging and slow because of systemic issues (Kirsten & Sihlobo, 2021). The process is complicated due to illegal land invasion and squatter camps that arose overnight (Evans, 2021). It is a catch twenty-two situation because the demand for housing (directly to do with available land) outweighs the supply. Having to provide land to grow vegetables would thus not be readily available.

The CSOs should also pressure the government to realise their last suggestion, which was that the City of Cape Town should play a more decisive role in the location of fresh food markets, whom they allow to be food providers, and how it should be done. It is a suggestion that is more readily doable than providing land to grow food. However, this could be complicated because of the corruption that is currently taking place within the government, price-fixing and ministers having a share in the food supply chain (Friedman, 2020; Magome & Meldrum, 2021). These are the issues that the CSOs as a collective should address and uncover to fight for the right to have access to food for households and community members living in the Western Cape Province and nationally.

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In conclusion, the above interpretation of the findings demonstrated that the study achieved its aim and objectives.

7.4   CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE

This study intended to contribute to the body of knowledge regarding civil society organisations' potential to realise the right to food for marginalised households and communities in Western Cape Province. When this study commenced in 2019, Covid-19 was not a reality. The intention was to investigate which organisations were active in the food space and why they were not mobilising around the issue of food insecurity. Furthermore, how did they frame food security? The data collected showed that before Covid-19, many organisations were already involved in the food space. These organisations focused on educating communities about the production of food and health, farming and agriculture, and food distribution. However, when Covid-19 happened, many more organisations arose and joined the plight against food insecurity, focusing on food relief. Sadly, only one organisation challenged the government to provide food to learners during the national lockdowns. In addition, the discussions showed that many power relations existed within the food space. Funders, the government, the private, knowledge and education sectors all exerted different types of power. Hence, the CSOs were limited by their funders and organisations' objectives.

Finally, the data collected showed that the CSOs before Covid-19 did not think food insecurity was an issue. It was only during Covid-19 that organisations realised this. However, the data further showed that most representatives and their organisations did not challenge the government even through this realisation. Therefore, the findings of this study make a modest contribution to the body of knowledge concerning civil society organisations' lack of mobilising for the right to have access to food for poor and marginalised households and communities in the Western Cape Province.

7.5   RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and interpretations, recommendations are proposed for CSOs, households and communities, the local government, funders, and the private sector.

7.5.1 Civil Society Organisations (CSOs)

Civil society organisations have always been an essential part of South African history. They will continue to be a support structure for communities and a voice for the vulnerable. However, the strength and the success of CSOs lie within their numbers and level of unity. Therefore, it is recommended that CSOs should continue working together and unite, similar to what they did during the national lockdowns. They need to unite, share resources, skills and information, and take a more rigid approach to hold the government accountable. Arranging dialogues and workshops are beneficial in that they are starting points; however, from these dialogues, CSOs need to put more pressure on the government without the fear of losing funding. This is why CSOs were started in the first place, to act without fear.

Secondly, CSOs need to collaborate with other organisations in the food space. It needs to be understood that food relief can only last so long and that sustainable ways need to be found to ensure the right to have access to food. Food insecurity cuts across all social ills, and hence, CSOs need to work outside their realm to ensure that a more incredible and prominent voice and body are created. The right to food rests with the government. CSOs should pressure the government to place the right to food and food insecurity as the top priority on its agenda to formulate sensible policies and legislation that will ensure the right to food. Having all CSOs in and outside the food space prioritising food insecurity will leave the government with no choice but to listen and act.

7.5.2 Households and communities

Before Covid-19, households and communities were not given a platform to express themselves on the issue of food insecurity. However, during Covid-19, communities took to the streets to express their anger toward the government for not ensuring their right to food. The situation was so bad that these communities had no choice but to take matters into their own hands. Thus, households and communities must take a stand in this fight and voice their concerns to the media or CSOs. It is imperative that every stakeholder involved identify their role in this matter and act on it without fear. Households and communities need to consult with CSOs in their neighbourhoods to assist them. In addition, families and communities should meet with their local government authorities to address the matter as they are the closest government to the people.

7.5.3 Local government

The local government is a crucial role player in the Western Cape Province. Their mission should be to respect, protect, and fulfil the right to food for people in the Western Cape Province. They need to be open to listening and engaging with CSOs, households, and communities on this issue and have the political will to achieve the right to food for all. They need to ensure meaningful policies are created for inclusive food systems that will empower small-scale farmers, and they need to regulate pricing to limit big corporations. In addition, the local government needs to ensure that they fully understand their role and responsibility in ensuring the right to food and appreciate how marginalised citizens are being disadvantaged in accessing food.

Yes, working groups have been created by the City of Cape Town to address food insecurity, but these working groups will have to be more inclusive, open and transparent if they want to achieve the right to food access. Therefore, the local authorities must collaborate with households, communities and CSOs. Departments within local and provincial governments need to work together to ensure that their policies are aligned and that resources can be pulled across departments. They need to address the right to food from a systemic perspective.

7.5.4 Funders

Funders play a vital role in CSO's existence. They provide CSOs with resources to fulfil their objectives, but exert power over CSOs' objectives and focus areas. Thus, funders should allow CSOs to concentrate their efforts on addressing social ills communities experience and support the CSOs to achieve that. A funder should not be a determining factor for the issues an organisation chooses to focus on. Households and communities in the Western Cape Province are not just struggling to access food; they are also dealing with many other social ills such as drug abuse and gangsterism. Hence, funders should strengthen CSOs' abilities to mobilise and advocate for the right to have access to food for all in South Africa.

7.5.5 Private Sector

The private sector should create an inclusive environment for small-scale farmers. They should not limit where they buy their produce and allow small-scale farmers to enter the

market. They should also ensure that the prices of fresh foods are affordable for the poor and that it is easily accessible to them. The private sector funds many CSOs as the study has shown. Thus, power relations exist. As such, the private sector should allow and support CSOs to use their efforts toward causes that will enable food security. They should not dictate which issues CSOs could focus upon. They should respect CSOs' choices and strengthen their abilities to fight for what is needed to empower poverty-stricken households and communities nationally.

7.6   LIMITATIONS

The limitations identified in this study relate to the research approach and methods used. One limitation was that the second and third data sets were collected during Covid-19 and the national lockdowns, which forced the researcher to use online interviews. The researcher envisaged a larger CSO participant group. Unfortunately, that could not be achieved because of moving the interviews online. Technical difficulties, time limits, load shedding and IT infrastructure were all at play, which did not allow for more participation. Had interviews been face-to-face, the data would have been much richer and more participants would have been reached and included.

Another limitation was that more organisations came on board in the food space because of the national lockdown. Thus, the researcher had to rethink her study's aims, objectives, and implications. In addition, she had to revise some of her objectives to consider the change in the landscape and the impact Covid-19 and the national lockdowns had on the CSOs that participated in the study.

However, the data collected provided rich and sufficient information, and the adjusted objectives assisted the researcher to complete the study.

7.7   POSSIBILITIES FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

One area in which future studies could be conducted is with the new organisations joining the food space during the Covid-19 pandemic. Such a study could investigate the progress of these organisations by looking at what projects they are involved in, whom they are collaborating with, and what they have achieved since joining the food space. The study's findings could

provide valuable insights into whether more organisations strengthened the fight to ensure the right to food in the Western Cape Province and nationally or not.

Another area in which future studies could be conducted is with farms to ascertain why farmworkers are food insecure. Farmworkers should have a piece of land to grow food for their families. Conducting studies on farmworkers' food insecurity would be relevant as the findings could reveal what is happening on farms. That is, whether or not the farmworkers are being treated fairly and paid according to the minimum wage rates, and why owners of farms do not enable their workers to become self-sustained and food secure.

7.8   CONCLUSION

Conducting this study has been meaningful given its nature and the fact that it directly speaks to the community I live in. Food insecurity is prevalent in most impoverished households and communities in South Africa. I have attempted to document why organisations designed to be the voice for the marginalised were not fulfilling that role.

Moreover, food insecurity is not new in the Western Cape Province or the rest of South Africa. People have been suffering from food insecurity before the birth of democracy. This is because the system has been designed to benefit those in charge and exclude the most vulnerable. However, with the advent of democracy, people believed that systems would change to ensure their rights. Unfortunately, the food system has not changed.

Civil society organisations find themselves in a position where they are influenced by funders and the fear of stepping on other people's toes. However, they should not be fearful. Instead, they should uphold their mandate to fight against the social ills in society.

This study has laid the groundwork for understanding the lack of will to mobilise around the right to food. It also attempted to uncover the power dynamics that prevented civil society organisations from realising the right to food. Therefore, further research is needed to understand these issues holistically, given the rapid changes in the knowledge market and demands for land, education, employment and access to food. There is a need for civil society

to unite and be vibrant, fearless and proactive in holding the government responsible for ensuring that the sustainable development goals be met in South Africa.

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ADDENDUM 1 – Ethical Clearance Letter

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR: RESEARCH
RESEARCH AND INNOVATION DIVISION

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535
South Africa
T: +27 21 959 4111/2948
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E: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za
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UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

20 December 2019

Ms R Marais
School of Government
Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Ethics Reference Number: HS19/10/8

Project Title: The role of civil society in exercising the right to food in
the Western Cape Province.

Approval Period: 22 November 2019 - 22 November 2020

I hereby certify that the Humanities and Social Science Research Ethics Committee of
the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the above
mentioned research project.

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted
to the Ethics Committee for approval.

Please remember to submit a progress report in good time for annual renewal.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of
the study.

Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape

NHREC REGISTRATION NUMBER - 130416-049

FROM HOPE TO ACTION THROUGH KNOWLEDGE.

Workshop:

Mapping Civil Society Organisations in the Food Governance Landscape

Wednesday 5th February, 09:00-15:00

Isivivanna Centre, 8 Mzala Street, Khayelitsha, 7784

We would like to invite you to take part in a participatory exercise to map the various Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) active in the food space in the Western Cape.

High levels of food insecurity, malnutrition and diet-related non-communicable diseases, alongside severe environmental impacts from food production, show that changes are needed in the way food is governed. CSOs could play a powerful role informing a strong and coherent social movement around food in South Africa. Such a movement is needed to push food higher up the political agenda and ultimately transform the food sector. But where do CSOs stand on this issue? Which organisations are working on food issues? How do food issues intersect with thework of CSOs with different mandates? A more consolidated picture of the many civil society groups involved in food and the food space is an essential first step in mobilising around the right to food in South Africa.

The workshop will take place in the Isivivana Centre in Khayelitsha. If you agree to participate, you will be part of a group of roughly 15 people, mainly from the Food Governance Community of Practice, who will create a physical map of the CSOs using a net-map methodology. This exercise is envisaged to be the first step in a series of engagements with CSOs and at the meeting we would also be keen to have your input into the potential direction of this process.

We hope that you will be able to join us for this workshop.

For more information and to RSVP, please contact Rhondeline Williams: 2440161@myuwc.ac.za.

Kind regards,
Rhondeline, Camilla, Flo and Bruno

SCHOOL OF GOVERNMENT

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS

RESEARCH TITLE: *The role of civil society in exercising the right to food in the Western Cape*

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Rhondeline Marais   It is in partial completion of the researcher's thesis towards the Master's Degree at the School of Government, at the University of the Western Cape.

Before you decide to participate, it is important for you to understand the purpose of the research and what it would entail. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. If you are unclear of anything, I would be happy to answer any questions you may have.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The gap and problem this study identifies is that even though an appetite exists in the civil society realm to seeking redress for violations of rights in general, insufficient support and consideration have been given by CSOs on the right to adequate and safe food. Being labelled the protesting nation of the world and with the prevalence of food insecurity in South Africa, one would expect civil society organisations to engage the state around the food security dilemma in South Africa (Alexander, 2012). The right to food has been enshrined in the South African Constitution, and South Africa has committed itself to many commissions internationally that seek to realise the right to food (Nevondwe & Odeku, 2014). While South Africa has established various policy documents that aim to advance food security, various commentators have criticised these as being inadequate partly because of disjointed relationships between the state and other key role players (Drimie 2015).

In addition, CSOs should play an important role in policy formulation through agenda setting and lobbying. However, in South Africa, there appears to be little organised civil society action directed towards realising the right to food for the citizens. This study therefore seeks to examine why CSOs are not mobilising around the issue of food security to realise the right to food for communities living on the Cape Flats.

DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AND YOUR INVOLVEMENT
We are inviting you to participate in this research project because you meet the set criterion for the population of interest and your participation will help other people. You will also be asked to answer questions. The study will be done in at the University of the Western Cape. The focus group discussion will last approximately *1 day*

CONFIDENTIALITY & ANONYMITY

Please be advised that the results of the study will neither divulge the organization's particulars nor the individual particulars, as to maintain confidentiality at all times. Any information that can connect the responses to an individual or organization will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. The researcher shall keep all records and tapes of your participation, including a signed consent form, which is required from you, should you agree to participate in this research study, locked away at all times.

*(**Example:** All the data will be kept in password protected computer files known only to the researcher. Data collection sheets and audio tapes will be kept safely in a lockable filling cabinet accessed only by the researcher. All raw data including written documents and tapes*
will be destroyed after three months of the final dissertation being marked and graded. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected.

RISKS OF THE RESEARCH?
There are no risks to participating in this research as (insert reason why there is no risk e.g. secondary data will be used).
Or
The risk/s of the study are outlined as follows:

-

BENEFITS OF THE RESEARCH
The Benefits of this research are outlined as follows:

-

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL
Your participation in this research is entirely voluntary, which means that you are free to decline from participation. It is your decision whether or not to take part. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind - and without giving a reason. You may also choose not to answer particular questions that are asked in the study. If there is anything that you would prefer not to discuss, please feel free to say so.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION
There are no costs to the participant for partaking in the study.

INFORMED CONSENT
Your signed consent to participate in this research study is required before I proceed to interview you. I have included the consent form with this information sheet so that you will be able to review the consent form and then decide whether you would like to participate in this study or not.

QUESTIONS
Should you have further questions or wish to know more, I can be contacted as follows:

Student Name : Rhondeline Marais
Student Number : 2440161
Mobile Number : 0817713529
Work Number : 0219593240
Email : 2440161@myuwc.ac.za

I am accountable to my supervisor : Prof Venicia McGhie
Department : Academic Development
Telephone : 021 959 3240

Fax   :
Email   : vfmcghie@uwc.ac.za

This research project has received ethical approval from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape,
Tel. 021 959 2988,
email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za

ADDENDUM 4 – Consent form for participants

SCHOOL OF GOVERNMENT

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

RESEARCH TITLE: *The role of civil society in exercising the right to food in the Western Cape Province*

I have read the information presented in the information letter about a study being conducted by Rhondeline Marais towards Masters (Full Thesis) Programme at the School of Government (SOG) at the University of the Western Cape.

This study has been described to me in a language that I understand and I freely and voluntary agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered.
I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time by advising the student researcher.

With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree to participate in this study.

Participant Name   : _____
Participant Signature   : _____
I give consent for recordings to be taken:

Agree	Disagree

Date   : _____
Place   : _____
Student Researcher   : Rhondeline Marais
Student Researcher Signature   : _____
Student Number   : 2440161
Mobile Number   : 0817713529
Email   : 2440161@myuwc.ac.za

I am accountable to my supervisor   : Prof Venicia McGhie
Department   : Academic Development
Telephone   : 021 959 3485
Email   : vfmcghie@uwc.ac.za

This research project has received ethical approval from the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Western Cape,
Tel. 021 959 2988,Email: research-ethics@uwc.ac.za

ADDENDUM 5 – Google Sheet

<table>
<tr><td colspan="6" style="background:yellow">Western Cape Food Action Network</td></tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>Contact Name</td>
<td>Email</td>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Locality (WC OR National)</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biodynamic Agricultural Association of SA (BDAASA)</td>
<td></td>
<td>info@bdaasa.org.za</td>
<td>PRODUCTION</td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biowatch (Agroecology production)</td>
<td>Rose Williams</td>
<td>rose@biowatch.org.za</td>
<td>PRODUCTION</td>
<td>National</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camphill Compassionate Farming</td>
<td>Leanne</td>
<td>info@camphill.org.za</td>
<td>PRODUCTION</td>
<td>Western Cape</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and Trees for Africa</td>
<td>Robyn Hill</td>
<td>robyn@trees.org.za</td>
<td>PRODUCTION</td>
<td>National (Jhb based)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FoodGov COP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PRODUCTION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden Africa</td>
<td>Georgina McAllister</td>
<td>gem@gardenafrica.org.uk</td>
<td>PRODUCTION</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>http://www.gardenafrica.org.uk/
I am near to sure they operate in S.A. but also in SSA - hence it would be National and extra-National</td>
</tr>
</table>

Goedgedacht Trust	Mikal Lambert	mikal@envirosolutioncentre.com	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
Ikhaya Garden	Xolisa Bangani	soiluture@gmail.com	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
Independant farm	Reinette Heunis	083 402 2150	**PRODUCTION**	Suurbrak	Aquaponics, producing salad heads - Mar 2020
Independant farm	Hansie	076 467 6575	**PRODUCTION**	Greyton	Spinach, eggs and animal products - Mar 2020
Khulisa Streetscapes			**PRODUCTION**		
Makhaza Wetlands and Food Growers			**PRODUCTION**		
Masifundisa Development Trust			**PRODUCTION**		
Neighborhood Farms	Justin Bonello	justin@neighbourhoodfarm.org	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
Participatory Guarentee System (WC PGS)			**PRODUCTION**		
Philippi Economic Development Initiative (PEDI)	Paul Stohrer	pstohrer@pedi.org.za	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	

Philippi Horticultural Area (PHA)	Nazeer Sonday		**PRODUCTION**		
Platform for Agrobiodiversity Research (PAR)	Paul Bordoni	paulbordons@gmail.com	**PRODUCTION**	National	PAR secretariat is based in Rome/Italy and there is no work currently underway in South Africa. I (Paul) mentioned it as I belong to it and I believe it could be a useful platform for research and networking in the space of agrobiodiversity
SASOSA			**PRODUCTION**		
Seed	Leigh Brown	leigh@seed.org.za	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	Main focus on training and upskilling individuals toward resiliency. www.seed.org.za
Soil for Life	Pat Featherstone	info@soilforlife.co.za	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
Spring Foundation	Nigel Rudling	nigel.rudling@gmail.com	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
Surplus People's Project (SPP)	Paula Cardoso	cardosopaula1@gmail.com	**PRODUCTION**		
Thrive	Zikhona Mdalase	zikhona@thrive.org.za	**PRODUCTION**	Western cape	
Ujama			**PRODUCTION**		
Urban Harvest			**PRODUCTION**		

Urban Rural			**PRODUCTION**		
VPUU	Lelethu Tshofuti	Lelethu.Tshofuti@vpuu.org.za	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
Worcester Food Gardens	Phumza Zotwana	071 679 0798	**PRODUCTION**	Western Cape	
4Roomed Ekasi			**POLICY & ADVOCACY**		
Amandla .Mobi	Koketso Moeti	kmoeti@amandla.mobi	**POLICY & ADVOCACY**	Regional	
Eategrity	Sonia Mountford	soniam@eategrity.co.za	**POLICY & ADVOCACY**	National	
HEALA	Mary Jane Matsolo	mj@heala.org	**POLICY & ADVOCACY**	National	
Inyanda			**POLICY & ADVOCACY**		
NCD Alliance	Dr Vicki Pinkney-Atkinson	vicki@sancda.org.za	**POLICY & ADVOCACY**	National	
Rural Advocay Project			**POLICY & ADVOCACY**		
Slow Food	Loubie Rusch	makingkos@gmail.com	**POLICY & ADVOCACY**		
African Centre for Cities (ACC)	Jane Battersby, gareth Haysom	jane.battersby.lennard@gmail.com/Gareth.haysom@uct.ac.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	Regional	Research and Teaching programme, focusing on unsustainable urbanisation processes, urban

					food security, urban food systems and food system planning
Community System Strengthening		info@nacosa.org.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	National	
DG Murray Trust	Anna-Marie Muller	anna-marie@dgmt.co.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	National, office based in WC	
Diabetes SA			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
Ethafeni			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
First Community Resource Centre		contact@fcrc.org.za			27216914012
Flourish Franchises	Thabang Mathibe	thabang@growgreat.co.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	WC and other provinces	
GAFA			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
Global Rise Governance Programme			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		

Grow Great Campaign	Kopano Matlwa Mabaso	kopano@growgreat.co.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	national	
Ikamva labantu			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
Mamelani Projects	Cleopatra Sawuti	cleopatra@mamelani.org.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	Western Cape	
Mothers 2 Mothers			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
Nutritions Socity of South Africa			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
People's Health Movement	Tinashe Njanji	tinashe@phm-sa.org	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	Western Cape	
Philani	Kwanie Mbewu	kwanie@philani.org.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	WC and EC	
Priceless			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
SACLA			**HEALTH & NUTRITION**		
Southern Africa food lab	Scott Drimie	scottdrimie@mweb.co.za	**HEALTH & NUTRITION**	Regional	https://www.southernafricafoodlab.org/

Sustaina bility Institute	Rirhan dzu Mariva te	rirhandzu@sustainabilityinstitu te.net	**HEALTH & NUTRITI ON**		Sustainable Food Basket (https://www.sustain abilityinstitute.net/si-news/5580-taking-a-closer-look-at-a-sustainable-food-basket / Living Soils Community Learning Farm (https://www.sustain abilityinstitute.net/si-news/5542-living-soils-community-learning-farm-launched)
TB/HIV Care			**HEALTH & NUTRITI ON**		
Widanan i			**HEALTH & NUTRITI ON**		
African Climate		africanclimatealliance@gmail.c om	**ENVIRO**	Region al	
Biowatc h	Rose William s	rose@biowatch.org.za	**ENVIRO**	Nation al	Supports a network of agroecological farmers in KZN in addition to research & advocacy
Environ mental Monitori ng Group	Apiwe Mduny elwa	apiwe@emg.org.za	**ENVIRO**	Weste rn Cape	
Greenpe ace			**ENVIRO**		
SAFCEI	Wayne du Plessis	wayne@safcei.org.za	**ENVIRO**	Region al	

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South African Urban Food and Farming Trust (SAUFFT)	Kurt Ackermann	kurt@fairfood.org.za	**ENVIRO**	Western Cape	
WFP			**ENVIRO**		
AIDC		info@aidc.org.za	**SOCIAL JUSTICE**	Cape Town	
Equal Education			**SOCIAL JUSTICE**		
Mothers Union			**?**		
MSF			**SOCIAL JUSTICE**		
Oranje Village			**?**		
Right 2 Know			**SOCIAL JUSTICE**		
Black Sash			**SOCIAL JUSTICE**		
Social Justice Coalition			**SOCIAL JUSTICE**		
Treatment Action Campaign (TAC)			**SOCIAL JUSTICE**		
WWF	Tatjana van Bormann	tvbormann@wwf.org.za	**SOCIAL JUSTICE**	National	
Impilo Yabantu (Health for the people)	Tasneem Jhetam, Amy Bosworth &	ivanpauw@gmail.com	**SOCIAL JUSTICE**	Western Cape	

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	Ivan Pauw				
Guerilla House	Imraan Samuels	info@guerillahouse.org	**SOCIAL JUSTICE**	Western Cape	www.guerillahouse.org
Food Forward	Andy du Plessis	andy@foodforwardsa.org	**FOOD AID**	National	
Red Hill Food and Literacy Project	Buyiswa Ponti	buyiswaponti@gmail.com	**FOOD AID**	Western Cape	https://redhillnpo.co.za/
SA Harvest	Andrew Wilson	andrew@saharvest.org	**FOOD AID**	National	http://www.saharvest.org/
UCOOK	Amy Murgatroyd	amy@ucook.co.za	**FOOD AID**	Cape Town & Johannesburg	Working on a Social Impact Strategy that aims to reach a targetted number of mouths fed
Yiza Ekhaya Soup Kitchen			**FOOD AID**		
Zero 2 Five Trust	Julika Falconer	julika@zero2five.org.za	**FOOD AID**	KZN	
Good Food Network	Anna Shevel	hello@goodfoodnetwork.co.za	**MARKET ACCESS**	National	www.goodfoodnetwork.co.za SA's online Good Food Ecosystem mapping - farms/ restaurants/ suppliers/ healthsrores/ service providers (comprehensive database of food system) - now providing a very affordable online platform to help these businesses

					have their own online stores to sell online.
One Love SA	Anna Shevel	love@onelovesa.com	**NATIONAL CIVIL RESPONSE**	National	Mapping and matching caregivers like NGO's, Community Groups, feeding schemes, and Fundraisers with those in need - and recruiting volunteers & donations to support care givers in their locale.
Oranjezicht Community Farm Market (OZCF Market)	Sheryl Ozinsky	market@ozcf.org.za	**MARKET ACCESS**		
Spinach King	Lufefe		**MARKET ACCESS**		
Umthunzi	Emma Hoshking	emma@umthunzifarmingcommunity.org.za	**MARKET ACCESS**		
KnowBetter Exchange	Amy Murgatroyd; Amy Bosworth	knowbetterexchange@gmail.com	**COMMUNICATION**		

ADDENDUM 6 – Interview questions for participants

1. Preliminary questions
1.1. Thanks for agreeing to take part
1.2. This interview is for a study that seeks to understand how civil society organisations (CSOs) in the Western Cape Province interact with the right to food and whether there are barriers to their potential in realising the right to food
1.3. Informed consent form
1.4. Can I record?
1.5. How would you classify your organisations? CBO, NGO, FBO, NPO etc?
1.6. How would you like to be referred to in any publications leading from this research? (representative from NGO, CBO, FBO, Government etc)
2. Objectives and role of organisation
2.1. What is your role in your organisation?
2.2. What are the main objectives of your organisations?
2.3. How do your objectives relate to food?
3. Your organisation in relation to food security and the right to food
3.1. Does your organisation mobilise/advocate/ lobby around the right to food or food security as well as carry out practical activities?
3.2. What are the largest challenges that your organisation faces in relation to these activities?
3.3. What do you lobby/ advocate for? (how do you do thins)
3.4. How does this fit with your understanding of the 'problem' in the food system?
3.5. What are the factors that prevent you as an organisation from mobilising more around the right to food or food security in the Western Cape?
4. The role of other organisations
4.1. Do you work with other organisations working in food related activities and /or lobbying?
4.2. Which other organisations do you know of who mobilises around the right to food and food security in the Western Cape?
4.3. What do you think these organisations could do more around the right to food?
4.4. Which organisations do you think should be mobilising around the food insecurity problem that aren't and why?
4.5. How could these organisations be brought on board more?
4.6. What do you think is the role of CSOs and Social Movements in ensuring the right to food in the Western Cape?
4.7. How do you think CSOs can hold private sector to account and promote changes in business practices that improve people's access to safe and nutritious food?

4.8.	Do you think that there is a common vision among civil society organisation and social movements regarding the right to food?
5. Covid related questions	
5.1.	How have the objectives and/or activities of your organisation changed in response to the Covid crisis?
5.2.	What have your main challenges been in carrying out these activities in the Covid crisis?
5.3.	How did your organisation interact with other CSO to achieve your objectives? (new or old relationships?)
5.4.	How did your organisation interact with government? (Did government representatives or regulation help or hinder your organisation's activities?) (What kind of support should the state offer?)
5.5.	How have you seen the crisis evolve? Have needs, activities and/or relationships changed, funding dried up etc)?
5.6.	What are the important learnings that have come out of your organisations work during the crisis?
5.7.	What do you think that other stakeholders/ government could do differently in future crises to support and work with CSOs?
5.8.	Has the Covid crisis changed your perspective on the long-term 'food problem' in the Western Cape? (How? What is your perspective?)
5.9.	During Covid lockdown many more CSOs have been working in the area of food. How do you think this affects the mobilisation of Civil society around the right to food?
5.10.	How do you think the new organisations can be brought on board in realising the right to food going forward?
Is there anything else you want to talk about?	
What other organisations should we interview? Can you refer some to us?	

ADDENDUM 7 – Open-coding stage 1: Verbatim responses

First participant group

The eleven organisations' members were asked to reflect on the net-mapping process as described above and the patterns that emerged. Their responses are presented below and reported verbatim.

Organisation 7 said that "Philanthropic funding is not a lot compared to the private sector, who are mostly responsible for shaping our food systems. The diagram shows that a high concentration of funding is coming from corporate investments like seeds for gardening and like KFC providing food at schools. This makes the work a little bit more difficult because it looks like the funding is shaping the food system work that we are doing but also their food production and intake."

Organisation 4 said that "the regulation power lay with the City of Cape Town. It was noted that it would be good to see if this was the case in other metros and if best practice could be shared and replicated in other metros to have coherent regulated food systems. I am sure in any other metro you are not going to see what this diagram shows us"

Organisation 7 said "I was very interested in the regulation of the Department of Trade and Industry. Who worked with them. They are only interested in regulating trade, they are not regulating access to food. I find it the department that are not easy to work with and I am reflecting on the work that I do and we have a huge task to do because the people who are influencing and creating the systems seems to be also part of the solution and are very powerful and influential, and they are giants and they are with us."

Organisation 7 further said "For me in terms of social agriculture the ethics are fundamental and how you operate in that space and what are you promoting, we need to of course making business out of it and farmers need to sustain themselves financially. Although I think there is something that has got to do with social justice and trying to fix the system first of all in that dimension. Now, it would be interesting to understand the Department of Trade and Industry and we did some policy analysis and their programmes and how much is their social dimension and see who is driving the process and what is their agenda"

Organisation 10 said "What is interesting to see is only a few funders in South Africa, I noticed that most of the funders are international but the challenges we are facing are in South Africa and I also see a huge gap of government spheres in the chart. Also, the organisations in the chart are doing similar things but using different strategies wanting to achieve the same goals."

Organisation 9 said "For me the chart is showing such a big broad base of production and I think it's good but then how is it that we don't consume what we're producing. We end up going to the Shoprite and KFC and not any healthy foods. And what I am also seeing is that the power lies on the side. There is no power in the middle which means that we have no power, no money and we cannot regulate. So what does it mean for us when the regulatory power lies within the Western Cape Department, the Trade and Industry and so forth"

Organisation 4 said "Power and knowledge is sitting with the state entities and a lot of funds sitting with the private sector. And while the state sits with the knowledge of what needs to be done and how it needs to be done they are very influenced by the private sector. So they kind of lose their power in some regards. The CSOs in the middle of the map are left cleaning up the consequences of the system that is benefitting and supporting those who are sitting with the power (state and private sector). There are structural elements that externalise the negative consequence of the legal activities in pursuit of profit. Those who are benefitting from the system are least motivated to change it. The more CSO's clean up the mess the less pressure there is to change the system."

Organisation 7 said "There are many social movements with scattered focus and the reason CSOs voices haven't been heard and we haven't been successful in creating the change we are looking to create in the sphere is because many of us are shouting different things, we need to have some form of commonality so that when we speak it is with a united thunder voice that says one thing. Otherwise, if we are still scattered and doing different things there is no common message and it gets lost. Hence it is hard to penetrate and it's hard to influence hence it's hard to campaign because there is too many of us saying too many different things"

Organisation also said, "There is also the need for a clear and compelling messaging that these different organisations can get behind and motivate for challenging the current system."

Organisation 3 said "I think this picture is giving us the reason why there has not been any protests on food. Look at the stickers in terms of where the power lies to shape the food system; it's the private sector and the state. And for me the state's role is regulatory but if we look at the private sector it's saying it is giving money, employment and it's a complicated marriage. I think the state recognises that, we are there and we are shouting different things, and in our own way we have small and bigger battles we are fighting. So, I think we haven't mobilised is because a lot that we've done is at a more organised structures, we haven't gone to the unofficial and unorganised at the household where the issue of food is. And that is why we haven't had to political consciousness to make a change. So, the people who are holding power are also giving us funds. They seem to be providing some solutions but they also shape the system so without changing the system the problems will stay"

The participants were then given an opportunity to present ideas on a way forward. These suggestions are presented below:

Organisation 9 said "For me it seems like we are covering the wound with a plaster and we are not really fixing the problem at all and I think going forward we need to fix this by coming together with our own expertise and finding out what the common vision that we need to focus on and find the most united voice. It needs to be clear, concise and easy to understand. We need to be organised in that sense for us to be more effective"

Organisation 7 added by saying "We need more clear messaging and coherence"

Organisation 4 said "There needs to be pressure. However, we need to understand what we are contributing to, what we need to achieve otherwise we will go back to our own thing because we know we can make a difference here".

Organisation 4 also said "We need to choose the battle that we fight, a campaign or marketing effort with a certain ethical frame under it"

Organisation 9 said "We need to acknowledge that it is a complex problem"

ADDENDUM 8– Open-coding stage 2: Reduction of responses

First participant group

The eleven organisations' representatives were asked to reflect on the net-mapping process as described above and the patterns that emerged. Their responses were:

Organisation 7 said that "Philanthropic funding is not a lot compared to the private sector, who are mostly responsible for shaping our food systems. The diagram shows that a high concentration of funding is coming from corporate investments like seeds for gardening and like KFC providing food at schools. This makes the work a little bit more difficult because it looks like the funding is shaping the food system work that we are doing but also their food production and intake."

Organisation 4 said that "the regulation power lay with the City of Cape Town (in the region. It could be different in other metros. I am sure in any other metro you are not going to see what this diagram shows us"

Organisation 7 said "I was very interested in the regulation of the Department of Trade and Industry. Who worked with them. They are only interested in regulating trade, they are not regulating access to food.
I find it the department that are not easy to work with and I am reflecting on the work that I do and we have a huge task to do because the people who are influencing and creating the systems seems to be also part of the solution and are very powerful and influential, **and they are giants and they are with us."**

Organisation 7 further said "For me in terms of social agriculture the ethics are fundamental and how you operate in that space and what are you promoting, we need to of course making business out of it and farmers need to sustain themselves financially. Although I think there is something that has got to do with social justice and trying to fix the system first of all in that dimension. Now, it would be interesting to understand the Department of Trade and Industry and we did some policy analysis and their programmes and how much is their social dimension and see who is driving the process and what is their agenda"

Organisation 10 said "What is interesting to see is only a few funders in South Africa, I noticed that most of the funders are international but the challenges we are facing are in South Africa and I also

see a huge gap of government spheres in the chart. Also, the organisations in the chart are doing similar things but using different strategies wanting to achieve the same goals."

Organisation 9 said "For me the chart is showing such a big broad base of production and I think it's good but then how is it that we don't consume what we're producing. We end up going to the Shoprite and KFC and not any healthy foods. And what I am also seeing is that the power lies on the side. There is no power in the middle which means that we have no power, no money and we cannot regulate. So what does it mean for us when the regulatory power lies within the Western Cape Department, the Trade and Industry and so forth"

Organisation 4 said "Power and knowledge is sitting with the state entities and a lot of funds sitting with the private sector. And while the state sits with the knowledge of what needs to be done and how it needs to be done they are very influenced by the private sector. So they kind of lose their power in some regards.

The CSOs in the middle of the map are left cleaning up the consequences of the system that is benefitting and supporting those who are sitting with the power (state and private sector). There are structural elements that externalise the negative consequence of the legal activities in pursuit of profit. Those who are benefitting from the system are least motivated to change it. The more CSO's clean up the mess the less pressure there is to change the system."

Organisation 7 said "There are many social movements with scattered focus and the reason CSOs voices haven't been heard and we haven't been successful in creating the change we are looking to create in the sphere is because many of us are shouting different things.
Organisation 3 said "I think this picture is giving us the reason why there has not been any protests on food. Look at the stickers in terms of where the power lies to shape the food system; it's the private sector and the state.

And for me the state's role is regulatory but if we look at the private sector it's saying it is giving money, employment and it's a complicated marriage.
I think the state recognises that, we are there and we are shouting different things, and in our own way we have small and bigger battles we are fighting. So, I think we haven't mobilised is because a lot that we've done is at a more organised structures, we haven't gone to the unofficial and unorganised at the household where the issue of food is. And that is why we haven't had to political consciousness to make a change. So, the people who are holding power are also giving us funds. They seem to be

providing some solutions but they also shape the system so without changing the system the problems will stay"

The participants were then given an opportunity to present ideas/suggestions on a way forward. Their responses were:

Organisation 9 said "We need to acknowledge that it is a complex problem"

Organisation 4 also said that it would be good to see who/what holds power in the other metros and if best practice could be shared and replicated in other metros to have coherent regulated food systems

Organisation 4 said "There needs to be pressure. However, we need to understand what we are contributing to, what we need to achieve otherwise we will go back to our own thing because we know we can make a difference here".

Organisation 9 said "For me it seems like we are covering the wound with a plaster and we are not really fixing the problem at all and I think going forward we need to fix this by coming together with our own expertise and finding out what the common vision that we need to focus on and find the most united voice. It needs to be clear, concise and easy to understand. We need to be organised in that sense for us to be more effective"

Organisation 7 said: "We need to have some form of commonality so that when we speak it is with a united thunder voice that says one thing, Otherwise, if we are still scattered and doing different things there is no common message and it gets lost. Hence it is hard to penetrate and it's hard to influence hence it's hard to campaign because there is too many of us saying too many different things". "There is also the need for a clear and compelling messaging that these different organisations can get behind and motivate for challenging the current system."

Organisation 4 said "We need to choose the battle that we fight, a campaign or marketing effort with a certain ethical frame under it"

ADDENDUM 9 – Open-coding stage 3: Categorisation of responses into themes and sub-themes

First participant group

The eleven organisations' representatives were asked to reflect on the net-mapping process as described above and the patterns that emerged**.** Five themes and sub-themes were identified from the responses under open-coding stage 2. There were:

Theme 1: Who holds the power

The government through the different departments and the private sector through cooperate investments holds the power, which left the CSOs with no power. The private sector is most influential, even over the government as they provide more funds and create jobs.

Sub-theme 1: The private section shapes the food system and the productive and intake of food (eg. KFC produces chicken – so communities eat chicken).

Sub-theme 2: The funders benefit most and not the communities, resulting in them not motivated to do something about the food insecurity problem.

Sub-theme 3: Regulatory power lies with the City of Cape Town, and the Department of Trade and Industry. They regulate trade, and not access to food.

Theme 2: The importance of ethics

Ethics are important, especially in social agriculture as it has to do with how the organisations operate in the food space and what they are promoting.

Sub-theme 1: Profit making and sustainability

The objective of a business is to make a profit so that businesses can sustain themselves financially.

Sub-theme 2: Social justice

Are the programmes focusing on the social dimension (are communities benefiting and having access to food)? Who is driving the process and what is their agenda?

Theme 3: Who are the funders?

There are only a few funders in South Africa. Most of the funders are international but the challenges we are facing are in South Africa. Not much of funding coming from the government, which was identified as a gap.

Theme 4: The main focus was on production

The net-mapping process showed that the main focus of the organisations identified in Table 5.2 was on production, with only four organisations focusing on food aid, which was to provide food to struggling communities.

Theme 5: CSOs position/place within the power system

They role is to clean up the consequences of the system that is benefitting and supporting those who are sitting with the power. They are not speaking from one voice but many different ones, and have their own battles to fight. There is no structured organisation to mobilise concerted action and that is the reason why they did not/or could not influence the political will to bring about change.

The participants were then given an opportunity to make suggestions on a way forward. Three themes were identified from their suggestions:

Theme 1: It is a complex problem

There was an acknowledgement that they were faced with a complex problem, and needed to ascertain who/what holds power in the other metros and if best practice could be shared and replicated in other metros to have coherent regulated food systems

Theme 2: Have clear objectives and understanding of the issues

The CSOs should have a clear understanding of what they wanted to contribute to and what the objectives (outcomes) are which they hope to achieve in order to make a difference.

Theme 3: Should have a coming vision and united voice

The CSOs should use their own expertise and decide on a common vision with a united voice. The communication of the common vision should be clear, concise and easy to understand so that it will be effective.

ADDENDUM 10 – Open-coding stage 3: Categorisation of responses into themes and sub-themes

Second participant group

It should be noted that the raw data from open coding stage 1 and 2 of this participant group are not included in this final version of the thesis based on the advice of one of the examiners who indicated that the volume of the data was too large.

The purpose of the interviews was to gain insight into the organisations' objectives and how the objectives related to how the organisations perceived food security/insecurity, and whether the organisations were actively involved in influencing policy for the food system.

The responses were categorised into the three themes and six sub-themes derived from the theoretical framework.

Theme 1: Agenda Setting

Two sub-themes were identified under this theme, namely (i) emphasis placed on food security/insecurity, and (ii) how organisations influence the government's agenda regarding food security/ insecurity.

Sub-theme 1: Emphasis placed on food security/insecurity

This part of the interview focused on understanding whether food security/insecurity forms part of the organisations' objectives and agendas.

- Three of the organisation's indicated food in/security does not form part of their objectives These organisations also said that they are closely connected to other organisations who are focused on the issue of food and could assist these organisations and they indicated that after covid whether it would be part of their objectives was still questionable.

- Three of the organisations indicated that farmers support does fall within their line of objectives and this could impact food security/insecurity.

- Most of the organisations indicated that food security/insecurity became a bigger part of their operations during the Covid-19 pandemic.

In this section, I wanted to know whether the organisations protested and why. All six of the organisations' indicated that they have not engaged in protest action to date.

- Organisation 7 said that they engaged in commentaries that they wrote in the media but that is how far they go.

- Organisation 9 said that they have tried to approach government departments but have not succeeded in getting a response from them.

- Organisation 8 said that they were frequently in dialogue with various government department as part of their work.

- The remaining three organisations said that engaging with government around the issue of food security/insecurity is not a priority for them.

Theme 2: Power

As per the theoretical framework's focus areas, the responses were grouped under three sub- themes, (i) visible power, (ii) invisible power, and (iii) hidden power (refer to Section 3.6).

Sub-theme 1: Visible power

In this part of the interview participants were asked about how their objectives were set and who/what informs their objectives.

- Two of the organisations indicated that decision making about their objectives are open and that they were guided by the issues brought to them by the communities.

- One organisation alluded to funders also advising them with regards to the direction they need to take when it comes to their objectives.

- One organisation said that their objectives are set nationally and then provincially when meetings are held with senior members of the organisation.

Sub-theme 2: Invisible power

In this part of the interview, I wanted to understand whether participants had any influence in the design of their objectives and if communities could influence their objectives.

- All six participants indicated that their objectives are set either on a national basis or by the need of their communities.

- Two organisations indicated that their objectives are driven by the communities and the needs of the communities.

- Four organisations said that their objectives are straight forward (implying that they set the objectives themselves).

Sub-theme 3: Hidden power

I wanted to know why food security/insecurity has never been part of their objectives.

- Three organisations said that mobilising around food insecurity was not a priority for them, but their work involves supporting farmers and engaging in dialogue around the issue of food.
- The remaining three other organisations said that they did not focus on food and that they did not know why not.

Theme 3: Framing

The participants' responses were divided into the three sub-themes, (i) diagnostic framing, (ii) prognostic framing, and (iii) motivational framing (refer to Section 3.6.3).

Sub-theme 1: Diagnostic Framing

In this part of the interview, the participants were asked how they viewed the issue of food security/insecurity.

- All six organisations indicated that food insecurity was a big concern in the communities.
- One organisation added that the right to food was underplayed in the constitution and that it was a very important right that was not recognised by the government. This became more evident during the Covid-19 pandemic and the lockdown regulations.

Sub-theme 2: Prognostic Framing

Participants were asked what they thought could be done to address the issue of food insecurity.

- Three organisations indicated that CSO's needed to come together and create one common vision around the issue of food insecurity. They highlighted that this was one of their main concerns.
- One organisation indicated that for as long as their networks were involved in the food space, they would continue to be a support structure in the form of information sharing and conducting research.
- One organisation said that the government needed to be more involved and provide more support.

- One organisation said that more pressure needs to be put on government to change the system.

Sub-theme 3: Motivational Framing

The participants were asked if they would add food security/insecurity to their objectives moving forward.

- Two organisations said that it was not what their focus was, but that they would support their networks.
- Three organisations indicated that they do not engaged in protest action, but would provide their support in other ways.
- One organisation said that if the support was provided, they would engage in protest action to fight for the right to food.

ADDENDUM 11 – Open-coding stage 3: Categorisation of responses into themes and sub-themes

Third participant group

Similar to participant group two, the raw data from open coding stage 1 and 2 of this participant group are not included in this final version of the thesis based on the advice of one of the examiners who indicated that the volume of the data was too large.

The same process was followed as with the NPO and NGO groups. Similarly, the purpose of the interviews was also to gain insight into the organisations objectives and how they related to food security/insecurity; whether the organisations were actively involved in influencing policy and the food system; and to better understand how these organisations perceived the issue of food in/security. The theoretical framework's three focus areas were also used to analyse their responses.

Theme 1: Agenda Setting

Similar to the previous participant group, this theme also has two sub-themes, namely (i) emphasis placed on food security/insecurity, and (ii) how organisations influence the government's agenda regarding food security/ insecurity (refer to Section 3.6).

Sub-theme 1: Emphasis placed on food security/insecurity

The interviewees were asked whether food security/insecurity forms part of their objectives and agendas.

- Two organisations said that it was not part of their objectives and that it never featured on their agenda.
- Four organisations indicated that, prior to Covid-19, food security/insecurity did not directly form part of their objectives and would not normally feature on their agenda, but due to Covid-19, they could see how food security/insecurity could relate to their objectives.

Sub-theme 2: How organisations influence the government's agenda

The next question asked was about whether organisations engaged in protest action and why.

- Two organisations indicated that they have engaged in protest action around the issue of food security/insecurity.

- Three organisations said that protesting and influencing on that level is not what their organisations are meant for, and it was not part of how they operated and that they would assume that other organisations were better equipped to do so. They explained that the way they influence was through their relationship with the government through the committees they engaged in.

- The last organisation indicated that the way they influence and act were through their research which ultimately impacted policy makers.

- Three organisations indicated that while they have engaged in protest action it was not directly about food insecurity.

- One organisation responded that they have engaged in protest action on food insecurity and even litigated the matter.

- One organisation indicated that it is not part of their objectives and in the past never even thought about food insecurity. In addition, the organisation indicated that it never came up as a priority in the communities they work in. However, during Covid-19 it became clear that food insecurity is a major concern for many communities in South Africa as a whole.

- One organisation said that it is not part of their agenda, but they engaged on a level where they write articles and commentaries online.

- One organisation said that their work is to share information and if there were communities and organisations who indicated food security as an issue and approached their organisation, they would share information with them on how to go about the situation and also linked them with other people.

Theme 2: Power

The responses were group into the three sub-themes of power, namely (i) visible power, (ii) invisible power, and (iii) hidden power (refer to Section 3.6).

Sub-theme 1: Visible power

Question number 3 asked the interviews how their organisations set their objectives, and who/what informed them.

- One organisation explained that the manner in which their objectives were decided upon were double-sided and that their approach was both a top-down and a bottom-up approach. Decisions on how and on what the organisations focuses on yearly is open to everyone who belongs to the organisation, but it is the senior members made the ultimate decision based on all ideas presented.

- Three organisations indicated that their objectives were very clear (implying that they set the objectives themselves) and that taking on other roles would be problematic to the organisation even if they can relate to the issue of food security/insecurity on an individual level.
- One of the three organisations indicated that their objectives and agenda were influenced by their funder.

Sub-theme 2: Invisible power

In this part of the interview, I wanted to understand whether the participants had any influence in the design of their organisations' objectives and whether other people could influence their objectives.

- One organisation indicated that even though they could relate to food insecurity as a concern in their objectives, they did not think that they would impactfully be involved.
- Two of the organisations said that their organisations were designed for a specific purpose and to shift their focus onto something else would not be helpful for the success of their organisations.
- Two organisations said that they were very flexible on the work they choose to be a part of. If it forms part of their networks' objectives, they would support and amend their immediate objectives.

Sub-theme 3: Hidden power

Question 5 asked the participants why food security/insecurity has never been part of their objectives.

- Three organisations indicated that food security/insecurity did not feature previously (before Covid-19) in their operations. They explained that they have never given the option for people to indicate that they were experiencing food insecurity in their surveys which their objectives depended on.
- Two organisations said that they worked with organisations before who focused on food security/insecurity.
- One organisation indicated that the issue of food is not part of their mandate.

Theme 3: Framing

Similar to the previous theme, this theme has also three sub-themes, namely (i) diagnostic framing, (ii) prognostic framing, and (iii) motivational framing (refer to Section 3.6).

Sub-theme 1: Diagnostic Framing

The next question was about how these organisations viewed the issues of food security/insecurity and who they thought were advocating for food security.

- Four of the six organisations indicated that food insecurity only got their attention during the Covid-19 pandemic and was not a concern before.
- The other two organisations indicated that even though food security/insecurity was not part of their main objectives, they have always collaborated with organisations in the food space.
- Three organisations said that they could see how the issue of food affected their communities during Covid-19 and that it is becoming personal.
- Three organisations associated with food in/security through the work they do with organisations in their networks.
- Four organisations stated that food security/insecurity was advocated by organisations whose main objectives were about food.
- Two organisations indicated that advocating should be done collaboratively by different organisations as everyone have different skills and sources to be used.

Sub-theme 2: Prognostic Framing

This section focused on what organisations thought should be done to address the problem and what the role of Government should be in realising the right to food.

3. All the participants indicated that food insecurity should be addressed through collective action and civil society organisations coming together as one big voice.
4. Two participants also highlighted that greater pressure was needed among CSO's in order to bring change to the food system and policies. They indicated that CSO's needed to have a bigger political will to effect change in the system, and that the government needed to be more active and open to engage with CSO's because the responsibility ultimately lies with government to change the food security/insecurity dilemma.

Sub-theme 3: Motivational Framing

Lastly, the interviewees were asked whether food security/insecurity would form part of their objectives moving forward.

- Three organisations said that they did not have the capacity and skill to make a real change in the system or influence the system.

- One organisation indicated that even though they had the capacity to something, their organisation would rather choose to not take on food security/insecurity as an objective.
- Two organisations indicated that they would continue to collaborate with other organisations that are working in the food space.
- All six organisations indicated that their objectives would remain the same.