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1 **Advancing a holistic systems approach for sustainable cattle development programmes**
2 **in South Africa: Insights from sustainability assessments**

3

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13 **Abstract**

14 Efforts to exploit the central roles of cattle to drive agriculture and rural development in low-
15 income countries recorded limited success owing to their narrow focus on modernizing and
16 commercializing low-input cattle farming. Most programmes failed to take cognisance of the
17 heterogeneous range of complex relationships between the environmental, economic, social
18 and institutional challenges that limit low-input cattle farming. The current qualitative literature
19 review evaluates the environmental, economic and social sustainability delivery impacts of the
20 leading cattle development programmes in the low-input farming sector in South Africa using
21 a holistic systems approach. A mixed method procedure involving stratified sampling was used
22 to allocate local and international-based programmes while, purposive sampling was used to
23 select programmes with wider scale of operation. The review then draws on the crosscutting
24 key constraints emerging from the case studies to provide a better grounding for subsequent
25 sustainability sensitive recommendations. Local-based cattle development programs advanced
26 more market-led interventions while, their international-based counterparts had more
27 interventions including, soil and rangeland improvement. The narrow focus by both local and
28 international developmental programs is inadequate to address a wide array of environmental,
29 economic, social, technical and institutional challenges faced by low-input cattle producers in
30 South Africa.

31

32 **Keywords:** Cattle development programmes; low-input farmers, sustainability, holistic
33 systems approach.

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Cattle production has been identified as a core source of food, disposable income, critical socio-
36 cultural functions as well as a major capital reserve that can be used to finance other farm
37 investments in low-input farming systems (Herrero et al., 2014). In South Africa, the low-input
38 farming sector comprises of subsistence farmers on communal land and commercially-oriented
39 farmers on either communal or private land (Netshipale et al., 2017). The latter are beneficiaries
40 of the post-independence land reform programmes and are collectively referred to as emerging
41 farmers (Cousins, 2008). Commercially-oriented farmers on communal land were offered
42 small grants under Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) scheme (Netshipale et al.,
43 2017). As a result, several SLAG beneficiaries pooled their grants to purchase and share a
44 single commercial farm (Netshipale et al., 2017). Commercially-oriented farmers on private
45 land received large grants under the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development
46 (LRAD) scheme to purchase individual farms (Netshipale et al., 2017).

47

48 Constraints to low-input cattle farming restrict the benefits accruing to the whole farming
49 system. In light of this, many low-income countries, either with their own resources or with the
50 assistance of local and international funding organizations, have embarked on approaches to
51 strategically exploit the central role of cattle to influence wider agricultural and rural
52 development in low-input farming systems (Tedeschi et al., 2015). In many cases, however,
53 the cattle development interventions have prioritised economically driven benefits of cattle at
54 the expense of environmental and social principles and have not directly translated to improved
55 household food, income and social security (Tedeschi et al., 2015). As a result, low-input
56 farmers remain entangled in persistent ‘poverty traps’ (Tedeschi et al., 2015).

57

58 According to Oosting et al. (2014) the discourses proposed and implemented by most cattle
59 development programmes have not been connected to the realities of low-input cattle
60 producers. In particular, the narrow focus on commercialization of the low-input cattle farming
61 system suggests a lack of understanding of the complexities and diversity of constraints
62 surrounding these systems (Oosting et al., 2014). In this regard, Gerber et al. (2013) suggested
63 a focus that transcends just economic benefits to also consider the environmental and social
64 impacts of beef cattle farming. The economic, environmental and social components represent
65 the three dimensions of sustainability (Latruffe et al., 2016) with governance sometimes added
66 as the fourth one (Graeub et al., 2016).

67

68 Low-input cattle farming is a complex system where numerous factors and processes interact,
69 often across geographic, institutional and governance scales (Herrero et al., 2009). Such
70 complex causal structures often imply trade-offs between the positive and negative
71 consequences of fragmented actions (Herrero et al., 2009). As such, managing cattle
72 development programmes in low-input cattle farming sector requires that interlinked planning
73 and regulatory actions be tackled simultaneously and considered for their long-term impacts,
74 and preventative rather than remedial actions are required (Tendeshi et al., 2011). The
75 traditional single-faceted and fragmented approaches forego numerous synergistic benefits
76 arising from coordinated action across sustainability sectors (Dahal, 2011). As a result actions
77 often fail to have the intended effect if changes on other parts of the system are not implemented
78 at the same time (Dahal, 2011). The potential for harnessing positive synergies, may be a
79 greater motivating factor for using a holistic systems approach than the identification of
80 negative/cautionary trade-offs. Positive synergies advances the progress towards the
81 sustainability of systems including, low-input cattle farming system (Astier and García-
82 Barrios, 2012).

83

84 Sustainable cattle farming implies improving productivity through more efficient use of locally
85 available natural resources, environmental stewardship and social justice (Gayatri, 2016).
86 Integrating the concept of sustainability may, however, not be a panacea for successful delivery
87 of cattle developmental programmes but could facilitate holistic intervention strategies that
88 might result in a wide range of benefits for low-input producers (Bernués et al., 2011). A
89 systems approach is economically sustainable as it is inclusive of different types and a wider
90 range of economic values attached to goods and services provided by low-input cattle farming
91 (Searcy et al., 2014). In this context, it is recommended to analyze the sustainability of cattle
92 development programs from a holistic systems perspective. The current qualitative literature
93 review, therefore, evaluates the economic, environmental and social delivery impacts of the
94 major cattle development programmes in low-input cattle farming areas of South Africa using
95 holistic systems approach. The review then proposes a set of key agricultural sustainability
96 sensitive recommendations that can be drawn on during the designing, implementation and
97 exiting phases of cattle development programmes in low-income countries.

98

99 **2. Selection of case studies of cattle development programmes in South Africa**

100 Cattle development programs critically analysed in the current study were initially allocated to
101 the local and international strata using the stratified sampling technique. From each stratum,
102 two programs were purposively selected based on their wider implementation in various
103 communities South Africa. Ultimately, the selected cattle-based development programmes
104 were; the Nguni Cattle Programme, The National Red Meat Development Programme
105 (NRMDP), the Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research (ACIAR) programme
106 and the Heifer Project South Africa (HPSA). The two local and two international-based
107 programmes selected in the current review are by no means exhaustive of all the interventions

108 by cattle development programmes conducted in South Africa. However, their general
109 attributes summarised in Table 1 are typical of various development programmes in South
110 Africa.

111

112 **2.1 The Nguni cattle programme**

113 The Nguni cattle programme was initiated in Amathole District Municipality of Eastern Cape
114 Province (ECP) in 2004 (Mapiye et al., 2007). It was then expanded to other district
115 municipalities in Eastern Cape Province and later to six other provinces; Limpopo (2006),
116 North West (2006), Northern Cape (2006), Free State (2008), Mpumalanga (2008) and
117 KwaZulu Natal (2008; DeWaal, 2014). The objective of the programme was to establish and
118 conserve Nguni nucleus herds and/or upgrade the cattle herds to Nguni type for both
119 subsistence and commercially-oriented cattle producers (Tada et al., 2012). In each province,
120 a tripartite partnership was established among Industrial Development Cooperation (IDC),
121 Provincial Department of Agriculture and a local university. The IDC was the main contributor,
122 which provided financial assistance to acquire Nguni cattle and additional grants for support
123 services. The Provincial Department of Agriculture provided technical support staff and
124 facilitates relevant infrastructural development in beneficiary communities. The local
125 university provided research and training services on cattle farming including reproduction,
126 animal health, rangeland production, marketing and financial management.

127

128 Selection of beneficiaries was based on key pre-existing conditions including cattle farming
129 and entrepreneurship skills, ownership or proven physical access to sufficient fenced grazing
130 areas, rangeland management plan with specified stocking rates
131 and existence of a development committee (Mapiye et al., 2007). The development committee
132 was in charge of rangeland management, lobbying for government support services and

133 overseeing the redistribution of animals to subsequent beneficiaries upon repayment of loans
134 (Tada et al., 2012). In addition, a local programme manager was employed as a link person
135 between beneficiary communities and the programme partners.

136

137 Individuals or communities that met the selection criteria received an interest-free loan of
138 pregnant Nguni heifers and a bull for a period of five years (Dean, 2017). The number of heifers
139 received varied with provinces, for example 30 were given in Eastern Cape and 50 in Limpopo.
140 An attempt was made in Limpopo to replace the Nguni bulls with an Angus bulls to produce
141 F1 crosses with high nutrient utilisation efficiency, growth rates and carcass yields (Mapiye et
142 al., 2018). Formal arrangements were made with commercial feedlots to buy the F1 crosses for
143 finishing and retail supermarkets to market meat as Angus beef (Dean, 2017). However, the
144 Angus bulls failed to survive under the harsh climatic conditions and low management levels
145 of commercially-oriented cattle producers (Mapiye et al., 2018). The Angus bulls were
146 subsequently replaced by Nguni bulls and previous arrangements made with retail
147 supermarkets nullified (Mapiye et al., 2018).

148

149 Loan repayment after five years was through a similar herd or cash equivalent of the herd at
150 the set repayment date (Fakudze, 2015). The herd or its cash equivalent would be passed on to
151 other beneficiaries for horizontal expansion of the programme. According to Dean (2017) a
152 total of 3 661 head of cattle valued at about R39,7 million had been distributed to 113 farmers
153 on 96 different farms comprising of individual commercially-oriented cattle producers,
154 community trusts and co-operatives since the inception of the programme in Limpopo
155 province. The loan repayment was reported to be slow with less than 20% of the beneficiaries
156 having completely repaid after the first ten years and the majority still at various stages of
157 repayment (Mapiye et al., 2018).

158

159 **2.2 The National Red Meat Development Programme (NRMDP)**

160 The Eastern Cape Red Meat Project was initiated by ConMark Trust in 2005 to provide an
161 ordered informal marketing system for low-input producers through organised cattle auctions
162 (ConMark, 2013). The programme was then changed to the NRMDP in 2013 after the
163 Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR), in conjunction with the
164 National Agricultural Marketing Council (NAMC) and local municipalities expanded the
165 programme nationally (Nyhodo et al., 2014). The fundamental goal of the programme was to
166 develop red meat production hubs which were primarily used to connect subsistence and
167 commercially-oriented cattle producers to formal markets (NAMC, 2013). This was achieved
168 through bringing the point of cattle sales closer to farmers by establishing or renovating auction
169 pens, assisting farmers to organize auctions and buyers days and negotiating pre-slaughter sale
170 agreements between farmers and abattoirs (NAMC, 2013).

171

172 The NRMDP facilitated the construction of low-cost custom feeding centres (CFCs) in the
173 recipients' communities where cattle were managed and finished using commercial feed for 90
174 to 120 days prior to marketing (NAMC, 2013). The NAMC provided subsidised commercial
175 feed for cattle and salaries for personnel working at the centres (Myeki et al., 2014). The
176 programme was attractive to farmers as it improved cattle condition thereby enhancing local
177 markets, formal marketing opportunities and creating employment for local people (Mkhabela,
178 2013). Capacity building was achieved through undertaking guided visits to feedlots, auctions
179 and abattoirs to offer on-site training (NAMC, 2013).

180

181 The programme was designed to build cattle producers' understanding of the structure,
182 operation and requirements of formal markets (NAMC, 2013). There are currently 22 CFCs

183 across South Africa with carrying capacities of between 150 and 400 cattle. The CFCs provide
184 services to communities within an average radius of 100 km. The CFCs encounter common
185 challenges including violation of induction conditions by farmers who bring old and/or sick
186 cattle, inadequate feed, inconsistent feed deliveries, inability to supply the high volumes to
187 formal markets, insufficient breeding stock (supply base), high staff turnover and a lack of
188 production and marketing information. However, CFCs have successfully provided convenient
189 marketing places with low transaction costs and an improved bargaining power for producers
190 who, subsequently, receive high prices for their cattle than they would through formal
191 marketing channels.

192

193 **2.3 Australian Centre for International Agricultural Research (ACIAR) projects**

194 The ACIAR jointly initiated a binational project for northern South Africa and Zimbabwe in
195 the mid-1990s (MacLeod et al., 2008). South African partners included the Commonwealth
196 Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO), Limpopo Department of Agriculture
197 (LDA) and the University of Limpopo (MacLeod et al., 2008). The project explored the
198 suitability of a range of ley-legume species for improving forage availability for ruminant
199 livestock in low-input farming areas (MacLeod et al., 2008). Tropical legumes, including
200 *Chamaecrista rotundifolia* (Wynn cassia) and *Stylosanthes scabra* (shrubby stylo) were
201 identified to have considerable potential for improving forage availability in both South Africa
202 and Zimbabwe (Whitbread and Pengelly, 2004). However, the communal land tenure system
203 and limited financial resources of low-input cattle producers were the major barriers to the
204 successful adoption of the legume technologies in the sector (MacLeod et al., 2008).
205 Recommendations were then made to redirect the legume technology project to commercially-
206 oriented producers who were presumed to be more favourably endowed with land and financial
207 resources (Winter, 2011).

208

209 Phase 2 of the ACIAR project dubbed the 'Beef Profit Partnerships' (BPP) was jointly initiated
210 in 1999 by the Australia-based Cooperative Research Centre for Beef Genetic Technologies
211 and the Agricultural Research Council (ARC) in Limpopo and North West provinces of South
212 Africa (Burrow et al., 2008). The goal of the project was to improve indigenous cattle
213 genotypes to enable low-input producers to achieve continuous improvement of profitable
214 production and marketing of beef (Burrow et al., 2008). The selection criteria for recipient low-
215 input cattle producers involved producers from a previously economically disadvantaged
216 background who used indigenous breeds and/or their crosses and whose enterprises had the
217 potential to become viable businesses (Burrow et al., 2008). Selected cattle producers made a
218 commitment to measure their cattle through membership of the Beef Performance Testing
219 Scheme in South Africa. In addition, producers were expected to demonstrate interest in
220 improving profit and lifestyle by committing to meet the formal beef market specifications.
221 Recipient producers and locally-based support staff had to be willing to work in self-selected
222 local groups or networks which would hold continuous improvement meetings every 60-90
223 days for 5 years (Burrow et al., 2008). Finally, the cattle producers were required to be willing
224 partners in a marketing group, alliance or beef improvement network (Burrow et al., 2008).

225

226 The project targeted six recipient teams in each Province (i.e., Limpopo and North West), with
227 each team comprising up to 20 cattle producers but in some cases, the team represented an
228 entire community of up to 400 people. A one-day workshop was conducted to develop the
229 understanding necessary for programme activities and to give participants confidence in
230 decision making (Burrow et al., 2008). Benchmark experiments showed that growth rates, feed
231 efficiencies, incidence of diseases and meat quality of steers from low-input producers' herds
232 mimicked that of commonly used commercial breeds, albeit, lighter induction and carcass

233 weights (Burrow et al., 2008). An opportunity, therefore, exists for cattle breeds from low-
234 input producers to meet the specifications of South Africa's commercial beef markets (Clark
235 et al. 2005). Funds for this project ended in 2006 at a time when networks had been expanded
236 to 24 BPP recipient teams across five new South African provinces namely; Mpumalanga,
237 Gauteng, Eastern Cape, Free State and Kwa-Zulu Natal (Burrow et al., 2008). It was believed
238 that adequate capacity was built to enable recipient communities to continue with the
239 initiatives.

240

241 The third phase of ACIAR project was initiated in Limpopo Province in 2004 as a reappraisal
242 of the first initiative. The objective was to promote sound rangeland management practices and
243 investigate the potential of introduced forage legumes, in particular *Stylosanthes* species, as
244 fodder banks for improving feed supply and nutrition for commercially-oriented cattle
245 producers (Burrow, 2015). Selection of recipients was based on discussions with senior
246 managers, local government extension staff, municipal authorities, and the recommendations
247 of the previous ACIAR herd and market improvement project. Following this process, 300
248 commercially-oriented farmers on communal land and 72 commercially-oriented farmers on
249 private land were selected (Fisher and Hohnen, 2012).

250

251 The programme focussed narrowly on rangeland improvement opportunities as organisers
252 made critical assumptions that the recipient commercially-oriented cattle producers were
253 familiar with basic animal production and financial management systems commensurate with
254 commercial operations (Burrow, 2015). During the implementation of the programme it
255 became evident that the participating commercially-oriented cattle producers and the local
256 extension staff, had limited knowledge of rangeland management, cattle production principles
257 and practices (Burrow, 2015). Central practices of sound grazing management, such as, feed

258 budgeting were not appreciated and as a result calving rates remained low (MacLeod et al.,
259 2008). The organisers then made conscious decisions to reappraise the approach taken by the
260 programme and focus on developing capacity through a range of training courses in rangeland
261 management, cattle husbandry and financial management.

262

263 **2.4 The Heifer Project South Africa (HPSA)**

264 The HPSA was initiated in 1999 in the Eastern Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu Natal provinces
265 (HPSA, 2008). The programme was run in partnership with the DRDLR and other non-
266 governmental organizations, including, Misror, EU and Wesbank (HPSA, 2008). The
267 programme's aim was to use cattle to provide food and income, thus, alleviate hunger and
268 poverty in low-input farming areas while, preserving the environment (HPSA, 2008). This was
269 assumed to be achieved through training farmers on environmentally-friendly cattle farming
270 practices and entrepreneurship skills, creating and operating businesses corresponding to their
271 talents and skills. Beneficiaries were selected, through recommendations by the community
272 leadership, from the poorest communities and priority was given to women headed households
273 (HPSA, 2008).

274

275 Selected households were trained and provided with gifts of seeds, tree seedlings and cattle to
276 start their own small farming businesses (HPSA, 2008). Recipients were expected to share the
277 skills acquired as well as to pass on their gifts to other households in need to ensure a ripple
278 effect of benefits (HPSA, 2008). The project used community dip tanks as focal points to
279 organize farmers into cattle associations. The project also created jobs at each dip tank in the
280 form of some microbusinesses comprising block making, the production and sale of animal
281 skins and haymaking. By the year 2012, a total of 8030 households had received assistance but
282 the number of jobs or individual businesses created was not reported (HPSA, 2008). The heifer

283 project has been criticized for its claims of promoting sustainable agriculture while the training
284 offered to farmers, especially on animal health, was largely based on conventional cattle
285 farming practices (HPSA, 2008).

286

287 **3. A holistic systems approach to sustainable cattle development programmes**

288 The polarized ideological and operational priorities of various cattle development programmes
289 make it difficult to have common purpose engagement about how to effectively address
290 concerns in the low-input cattle farming system. Thus, a discussion that looks at the
291 programmes' respective impact on sustainability is helpful to bridging the ideological and
292 operational divide between the programmes. Table 2 presents a summary of impacts of the
293 major cattle development programmes in South Africa. Insights from holistic systems approach
294 to sustainability assessments can help to shift discussions towards more open dialogue about
295 context-specific cattle farming concerns (Shilomboleni, 2017). That may also provide the
296 grounding for effectively rethinking the approach to developing and managing cattle
297 development projects, and the type of policy and institutional support required.

298

299 In drawing insights from sustainability assessments a set of key indicators corresponding to
300 the four pillars of agricultural sustainability namely; economic viability, environmental
301 stewardship, social justice and governance were derived (Khwidzhili and Worth, 2017).
302 Economic viability was indicated by access to markets, income opportunities and decreasing
303 the level of risk. Environmental stewardship included, maintaining and increasing biological
304 productivity and conservation of natural resources. Social justice indicators included food
305 security and sovereignty, gender equality, capacity development and youth involvement. Given
306 that all the sustainability indicators have strong links to policy, the impact of cattle development
307 programmes would inevitably require engagement with governance mechanisms (Vanlauwe et

308 al., 2014). As such, the impact of cattle development programmes to each of the selected
309 indicators will be discussed along with the relevant governance implications. All the mentioned
310 indicators, however, do not entirely identify the main areas where important contributions
311 could be made in low-input cattle farming systems and may be contested in the broader
312 platform.

313

314 *3.1 Economic impacts of cattle development programmes*

315 The design and implementation of the development programmes seem to be based on the
316 preconception that the low-input cattle farming sector should be modernised and commoditised
317 (Faku and Hebinck, 2013). The preconception reflects a lack of understanding by programme
318 organizers on the complexity of the low-input cattle farming system which is often framed
319 around multiple production goals (Moraine et al., 2017). In this context, cattle development
320 programmes must first establish the priority goals of producers and then co-design programmes
321 with producers in line with their established goals. Overall, economic interests of low-input
322 producers are often lost in the drive by cattle development programmes to improve their
323 participation in formal beef value chains.

324

325 *3.1.2 Access to markets*

326 All the case studies of cattle development programmes mentioned in the current review
327 intended to improve formal market participation by low-input producers. The Nguni cattle and
328 ACIAR programmes successfully demonstrated that indigenous cattle breeds could be raised
329 to formal market specifications (Thompson et al., 2010). Muchenje et al. (2008) further
330 reported that the physicochemical meat quality attributes of Nguni cattle are comparable to,
331 while, fatty acid composition and organoleptic quality supersedes that of exotic commercial
332 beef breeds. These superior meat quality characteristics were recommended to be used for

333 marketing beef from Nguni cattle to health conscious consumers (DeWaal, 2014). Ironically,
334 save for the Limpopo-IDC Nguni cattle programme, which sort to market the Nguni-Angus F1
335 crossbreds as Angus beef in local retail shops, no formal arrangements were made with
336 abattoirs to purchase cattle from the low-input sector.

337

338 In cases where producer-abattoir contractual arrangements were in place, the operational levels
339 of the low-input cattle farming systems was not adequate to supply sufficient volumes of cattle
340 required by the formal market (Marandure et al., 2016). Besides, the formal beef carcass
341 classification system used in South Africa penalises the older and emaciated animals often sold
342 by low-input cattle producers and favour young well-muscled animals (Chingala et al., 2017).
343 Considering this, the top-down intervention by the Nguni cattle, NRMDP and ACIAR
344 programmes to organize farmers into marketing groups to meet the volumes and quality
345 demands of the formal market was inappropriate (Ndoro et al., 2015). Marandure et al. (2016)
346 reported that low-input cattle producers were not comfortable with forward contracts as they
347 felt indebted. Besides, the programme overlooked the ability of farmers to self-organise into
348 functional groups that can consistently match their production levels to the demand created by
349 facilitated marketing arrangements.

350

351 Low-input cattle producers faced intense competition from established commercial farmers
352 after the deregulation of the meat industry through the Marketing and Agriculture Act number
353 47 of 1996 (Meissner et al., 2013). On a global scale, van Wijk (2014) attributed the agrarian
354 crises to globalized food and agricultural systems through liberalized agricultural markets and
355 structural adjustment policies besides unfavourable climatic or economic conditions of low-
356 input farmers. FAO (2003), further indicated that subsidised imports due to trade liberalization
357 policies weakened farmers' competitiveness in their own markets, thereby, exacerbating

358 poverty in Africa. Creating more localized food systems with short and fair distribution chains
359 between producers and consumers are critical to reverse challenges associated with the
360 globalized food system in this regard (Shilomboleni, 2017). Most low-input producers prefer
361 informal cattle markets where cattle on hoof fetch higher prices than what they realize from
362 formal markets (Marandure et al., 2016). Moreover, cattle sold on the hoof provide local buyers
363 with the benefits of the fifth quarter products, including offals that are considered a delicacy
364 by most rural consumers. The fifth quarter products are regarded as an extra quarter above the
365 four quarters of the animals' dressed carcass after slaughter which contains the main cuts of
366 both prime and processing meat (Lloyd, 2013).

367

368 Efforts to systemize the informal marketing of cattle as attempted by the NRMDP could be a
369 beneficial intervention. However, Lubungu et al. (2012) asserts that marketing is not the
370 primary production goal of most low-input producers who prefer essential 'flow products'
371 provided by cattle which include, draught power, milk, manure, a live bank, medium for
372 traditional payments and assets of inheritance among others. Unlike 'end-products' such as,
373 meat and hides/skins, 'flow products' generate a regular cash income or represent consistent
374 availability of other benefits relative to the period that the animal stays on the farm (McDermott
375 et al., 2010). Thus, selling animals, especially young stock, is not desired by low-input
376 producers as it results in the loss of flow products (Herrero et al., 2010; McDermott et al.,
377 2010). The preference for flow products by low-input producers is often underestimated in
378 many cattle development programmes which are market-oriented (Wolfgang et al., 2003).

379

380 *3.2.2 Decreasing the level of risk*

381 Cattle development programmes are viewed as advancing the corporatization of Africa's
382 agriculture through implementation of a model based on high-priced input packages that carry

383 heavy economic risks for farmers (Shilomboleni, 2017). Khapayi and Celliers (2016) further
384 explained the source of heavy economic risks for farmers as the persistently upward global
385 trend of farm input costs while, farm gate prices are either constant or extremely volatile.
386 Furthermore, low-input cattle producers reside in marginal areas with poor access to
387 infrastructure, which increases the costs of transporting external inputs into and products out
388 of the system (Wolfgang et al., 2003). Instead, the single focused goal of commercialization
389 ostensibly serve the primarily interests of a few but powerful corporates and offers no valid
390 solutions for food security challenges of the low-input cattle producers (Holt-Giménez and
391 Altieri, 2013; Ainembabazi et al., 2018).

392

393 The animals given by the Nguni cattle programme and the HPSA offered a form of credit
394 facility to recipient low-input cattle producers, the majority of whom do not have collateral to
395 access loans through the formal systems (Otieno, 2012). A lack of clearly stated penalties to
396 loan defaulters might, however, discourage the low-input producers from repaying the loans
397 even if they could afford to. The loans may be considered as gifts by producers which may
398 encourage reluctance to repay for horizontal expansion to new recipients (Sirohi, 2010).
399 According to Faku and Hebinck (2013) in many African societies, including South Africa, it is
400 considered a bad cultural habit to turn down a gift of cattle. Thus, low-input producers still
401 accept cattle even if they might not prefer the breed or have the capital to repay them.
402 Nevertheless, low-input producers seem to prefer diverse cattle breeds with large adaptive and
403 production differences which compromises resilience against shocks in extreme climate, low
404 management levels or volatile markets (Theunissen et al., 2013). Theunissen et al. (2013)
405 predicts that indigenous and theirs non-descript crossbreeds will gain more importance in the
406 region as the effects of climate change become more pronounced owing to their adaptation to
407 the local environment.

408

409 *3.1.3 Income opportunities*

410 Marandure et al. (2016) reported higher cattle market offtake rates leading to increased
411 household income since the inception of the NRMDP. A final report of the BPP also revealed
412 positive economic impacts where the programme increased revenue to the recipient
413 commercially-oriented farmers by an average of R16 000 (US\$ 1 212.12) per producer per year
414 (Burrow et al., 2008). It is estimated that the BPP programme increased profits to the subset of
415 farmer teams that measured gross margins by an average of about R7 500 (US\$568.18) per
416 producer per year (Burrow et al., 2008). This income was largely generated from ‘flow
417 products’ of cattle, for example, through milk sales, draught power hire, manure for fertiliser
418 and energy (McDermott et al., 2010). However, low-input cattle producers prefer varied
419 income sources to add to the diversity of income and to improve resilience at the household
420 level (Shah et al., 2013). In this regard, only the HPSA promoted diversity of household income
421 sources by facilitating income generation from crops, handicrafts, trade, wage labour and/or
422 remittances (Shiferaw et al., 2014). Besides meeting household needs, such as paying for
423 health care and education, improved household income aid investment in other agricultural
424 enterprises and towards environmental stewardship (Shah et al., 2013).

425

426 *3.2 Environmental impacts of cattle development programmes*

427 From an environmental perspective, it is recommended that cattle development programmes
428 should prioritize sustainable use of local resources (Broom et al., 2013). The cattle
429 development programmes mentioned in the current review showed that reliance on externally
430 sourced resources often present problems. For example, the Angus bulls introduced in the
431 Limpopo-IDC Nguni programme failed to survive under commercially-oriented farmer’s

432 socio-environmental conditions and the legume species introduced by the ACIAR were
433 unsuited to the local climatic and edaphic conditions.

434

435 *3.2.1 Maintaining and increasing biological productivity*

436 *3.2.1.1 Soil productivity*

437 The foundation of environmental sustainability that is capable of supporting optimum cattle
438 productivity encompasses maintenance and improvement of soil quality (Rosa and Sobral,
439 2008). According to Rosa & Sobral (2008) environmental degradation often arise from
440 prolonged exploitation of land-use systems without consideration of soil conservation and or
441 improvement. A good soil system provides a satisfactory environment for sustainable
442 rangeland productivity, which supports optimum livestock productivity (Thorne and Tanner,
443 2002; Rosa García et al., 2012) and consequently increase farmers revenue. None of the
444 programmes reviewed in the current article had direct goals related to actively improving soil
445 productivity, although, the ACIAR legume programme may have soil improvement intention
446 through biological nitrogen fixation (Mapiye et al., 2006). This is not unusual given the fact
447 raised by Shilomboleni (2017) that low-input cattle producers shun interventions with no direct
448 income or food security benefit. Fertile soils should have a capacity to recycle vital nutrients
449 and to maintain a diversity of organisms that minimize disease and parasite outbreaks
450 (Shilomboleni, 2017). It is essential for cattle development programmes to incorporate soil
451 productivity along with other intended objectives. Continual improvements are necessary as
452 removal of cattle from the system through sales and/or mortality export nutrients from soils,
453 and these have to be replaced to avoid soil degradation (Conant et al., 2017), which in turn
454 reduces vegetation biomass and quality (Holt-Giménez and Altieri, 2013).

455

456 *3.2.1.2 Vegetation productivity*

457 The interventions of the ACIAR programme including rangeland restoration, reinforcement
458 and management as well as requirements for rangeland management plans by the Nguni cattle
459 programme had potential to improve forage biomass and quality for cattle. The cost of
460 reinforcing, restoring or establishing the necessary infrastructure for rangeland development is
461 often well beyond the limited financial resources of most low-input cattle producers (Stür et
462 al., 2013). Reluctance to invest in rangeland improvement by low-input producers could also
463 indicate a tragedy of the commons where unequal individual benefits from such public goods
464 discourages collective development interests (Hardin, 1968). A combination of poor climatic
465 and edaphic conditions coupled with heavy encroachment by bush mopane, *Vachellia* and
466 *Acacia* species also disqualified the introduction of viable populations of forage legumes on
467 most recipient farms (MacLeod et al., 2008).

468

469 Cattle producers may view rangeland improvement initiatives as straining their already
470 constrained labour, capital and other agronomic inputs resources that are often prioritized for
471 food and cash crop production (Amary, 2016). This is particularly true given the fact that
472 rangeland management plans are often linked to specified conservative stocking rates which
473 might be viewed by low-input cattle producers as potentially limiting their stock numbers
474 (Gayatri, 2016). Recent studies suggest that communal rangelands have adapted to overgrazing
475 overtime, in such cases, it is important to recalibrate their carrying capacity (Faku and Hebinck,
476 2013). The HPSA goal of enhancing rangeland management by adopting agroecology can be
477 emulated in future cattle development programmes (Holt-Giménez and Altieri, 2013).
478 According to Lovell et al. (2010), agroecology replicates the model of traditional agriculture
479 to improve the productivity of ecological landscapes, by optimizing practices, such as nutrient
480 cycling and forage diversity using low-input technologies. The principles of agroecology were
481 proven successful in meeting the food security needs of low-input farmers living in marginal

482 environments in Africa, Asia and Latin America (Holt-Giménez and Altieri, 2013). Improved
483 rangeland production consequently improve cattle productivity (Chaudhry, 2008).

484

485 *3.2.1.3 Cattle productivity*

486 The Nguni cattle programme and the HPSA provided the essential raw materials for production
487 in the form of interest-free cattle loans. All the case studies of cattle development programmes
488 mentioned perceived the low-input cattle farming system as archaic and unproductive system,
489 needing to be replaced by modern, intensive, market-oriented system (Segnon et al., 2015). For
490 example, the reliance of the NRMDP intervention on custom feeding of cattle using externally
491 sourced commercial feed and veterinary inputs. Such costs are beyond the majority of low-
492 input producers, thus are not economically sustainable. In addition, the animals that were not
493 in the CFCs were subjected to suboptimal growth largely due to inadequate nutrition and poor
494 veterinary care (Tedeschi et al., 2015). The use of diverse breeds also provides raw materials
495 to exploit heterosis and opportunities to maximize high productivity and profitability (Tada et
496 al., 2013). Generally, indigenous breeds such as, the Nguni are small framed but they are
497 adapted to local disease and parasites, have low feed requirements, are fertile and maintain high
498 productivity under extreme climatic conditions, which suit the low management levels of most
499 low-input farmers (Nyamushamba et al., 2017). Exotic breeds, on the other hand have large
500 frames but fail to thrive under low-input farmers' management due to their need of a high plain
501 of nutrition, veterinary drugs and low tolerance to heat stress.
502 Crossbreeding, is therefore, recommended to combine the hardy characteristics of indigenous
503 cattle with high growth traits of the exotic breeds.

504

505 *3.2.2 Conservation of natural resources*

506 *3.2.2.1 Conservation of indigenous forage genetic resources*

507 By encouraging good grazing management the programmes reviewed in the current study,
508 serve for the NRMDP, promoted conservation of forage genetic resources. This is essential
509 given the fact that low-input cattle producers often fail to balance ideal management of
510 resources with optimum cattle production per unit agricultural area (Goswami et al., 2017).
511 Many aspects of rangeland resources such as, quality and quantity (Metzger et al. 2005;
512 Bernués et al. 2011), species and community biodiversity (Snyman and Fouché, 1993),
513 vegetation dynamics, shrub invasion (Rosa García et al., 2012), are also modified by grazing
514 livestock (Rook & Tallowin 2003). Therefore, inventories of rangeland resources should
515 precede any extensive cattle developmental program as a matter of principle. LaCanne and
516 Lundgren, (2018) explained that most rangeland biodiversity is lost through land degradation
517 because of a combination of deforestation and overgrazing. Even the NRMDP indirectly
518 contributed to forage resource conservation by removing cattle from rangelands thereby,
519 reducing grazing pressure. However, interventions by the ACIAR programme might be viewed
520 as anti-conservation as it introduces alien species to rangelands which might lead to loss of
521 indigenous biodiversity as they become outcompeted. Questions may also be raised on the
522 approach by the HPSA that involved distributing the same seed and animal genotypes across
523 different agro-ecological areas.

524

525 *3.2.2.2 Conservation of indigenous cattle genetic resources*

526 The organizers of the ACIAR and the Nguni cattle programme presented the Nguni as an
527 environmentally friendly, sturdy and easy-to-handle breed that should be kept pure to maintain
528 its unique organic beef attributes and develop a niche market locally and internationally (Bester
529 et al., 2003). The adaptation of the Nguni breed to marginal environments characterised by
530 vegetation of low nutritive value, extreme climatic conditions, high prevalence of diseases and
531 parasites and low management regimes is indeed beneficial to low-input cattle producers (Tada

532 et al., 2013). However, most local feedlot operators dislike the Nguni breed because of its small
533 frame, low growth rates and carcass yield (Chingala et al., 2017).

534

535 Faku and Hebinck (2013) also reported that most low-input cattle producers, having been
536 accustomed to non-descript crossbreeds for over 60 years, have grown to appreciate and value
537 some of their qualities, such as, larger frame sizes and carcass yield compared to Nguni cattle
538 (Faku and Hebinck, 2013). This is confirmed by numerous studies that reported non-descript
539 crossbreeds as the most common breed kept by low-input cattle producers in South Africa
540 (Scholtz et al., 2008; Mapiye et al., 2009a; Nowers et al., 2013). Over the time the non-descript
541 crossbreeds also developed relative adaptation to the local climate, diseases and parasites,
542 marginal feed resources and management regimes of low-input cattle producers compared to
543 pure exotic breeds (Faku and Hebinck, 2013). Nonetheless, Nyamushamba et al. 2017
544 expressed the importance of conserving the indigenous cattle genetic material, including the
545 Nguni, as raw materials for crossbreeding.

546

547 *3.3 Social impacts of cattle development programmes*

548 The social values of cattle are clearly not prioritized in the market-based interventions by most
549 cattle development programmes. Social challenges that characterize low-input cattle farmers
550 including, food insecurity, gender disparity, low intergenerational succession rates and lack of
551 sustainable cattle farming knowledge among others are complex and would require a holistic
552 systems approach to understand them (Ayantunde et al., 2011). Kruska et al. (2003) mentioned
553 that improved targeting and dissemination of interventions with positive impacts on cattle
554 farming requires a thorough understanding of the overall system and the environment in which
555 the low-input farmers operate.

556

557 *3.3.1 Food security and sovereignty*

558 In general, all the cattle development programmes under review either directly or indirectly
559 sought to enhance household food security by providing animals or improving their production
560 and marketing (McDermott et al., 2010). In reality, household food insecurity remain prevalent
561 in low-input farming systems (Jacobs, 2012), indicating inadequacy of narrow market-led focus
562 of most cattle development programmes. Such interventions were dismissed by Otte et al.
563 (2005) as having failed to adequately feed the world in a sustainable manner. Save for the
564 HPSA where the poorest households were identified through recommendations from the
565 community leadership, other programmes discriminated against non-cattle owners and those
566 with small herds who are more food and income insecure.

567

568 The Nguni cattle programme and the HPSA have the potential to contribute towards food
569 sovereignty through provision of animals to farmers. Food sovereignty was defined by Holt-
570 Giménez and Altieri (2013) as right of people to healthy and culturally appropriate food
571 produced through ecologically sustainable methods, and their right to define their own food
572 and agricultural systems. The food sovereignty model endeavours to put those who produce,
573 distribute and consume food at the heart of the food system, rather than the demands of markets
574 and corporations (Holt-Giménez and Altieri, 2013). In light of this, development programmes
575 which promoted the raising of indigenous cattle breeds using local resources were implemented
576 within the prescripts of the food sovereignty model. However, none of the programmes
577 followed the other food sovereignty principle that farmers should grow food for self-
578 sufficiency purposes and be embedded in locally-based markets as opposed to national and
579 global value chains (Shilomboleni, 2017). The state should be a prime guarantor of food
580 security and sovereignty as it can enforce the legal nature of various entitlements to promote
581 the social and economic conditions necessary to secure individuals' access to food and ensure

582 fair and stable food prices (Letty and Alcock, 2013). In South Africa, the mechanisms by which
583 agricultural policies are expected to alleviate poverty and enhance food security are not
584 inherently clear (Jacobs, 2012).

585

586 *3.3.2 Gender equality*

587 Only the HPSA clearly stated the goal of providing cattle and other means of production to
588 women so as to elevate their social status (Achandi et al., 2018). According to Kristjanson et
589 al., (2010), elevated social status often translates to access or even authority over a broader
590 base of community resources. The elevated status gives women the necessary leverage to lobby
591 for support from government and other organizations in parallel with their male counterparts
592 (Njuki et al., 2011). Shah et al. (2013) expressed that women are better at allocating scarce
593 resources and sharing knowledge about production than men. Overall, resources (i.e., food and
594 income) under the control of women are more likely to be used to improve family welfare as
595 women spend up to 90% of their income on their families (Hausmann et al., 2011). Such
596 qualities are essential in improving food security and strengthening social networks that are
597 responsible for horizontal knowledge transfer within and between communities (Kristjanson et
598 al., 2010).

599

600 With the exception of HPSA, the focus of the rest of the cited development programmes on
601 cattle, is likely to discriminate against women who are often left in charge of smaller livestock
602 species such as poultry and small ruminants, while men delegate themselves to cattle and other
603 larger livestock (Njuki et al., 2011; Myeki et al., 2014). In fact, some cultures prohibit women
604 from owning cattle, limiting the potential for gender equity in low-input cattle farming systems
605 (Njuki et al., 2011). This is despite the fact that women are often left in charge of households
606 by their husbands when the latter seek off-farm employment (Meijer et al., 2015; Njuki et al.,

607 2011). Overall, HPSA involved community leadership in identifying the poorest households in
608 need of assistance, which could have significantly contributed towards reduction of societal
609 inequalities. Other development programmes were discriminating against cattle ownership and
610 this may have fuelled societal inequities.

611

612 *3.3.3 Youth involvement*

613 The focus of the HPSA on training local young people as communal animal health workers
614 created a nucleus of custodians of information within communities which is essential given the
615 inefficient extension services in low-input farming areas (Mwacharo et al., 2009).
616 Unfortunately, none of the other programmes under current review actively targeted the youths.
617 The youth have a critical role of providing progressive management strategies which are
618 essential for the sustainability of low-input cattle farming systems. Youths involvement in
619 development programmes stimulates their interests in cattle farming, helping to counter the
620 long-term challenge of lack of intergenerational succession which seriously threatens
621 sustainability of low-input cattle farming systems (Dapaah et al., 2001; Nakano et al., 2018).
622 Thus, youth involvement in cattle production is an important indicator of the continuing
623 existence of the system in future (Nqeno et al., 2011). As with women, capacity building of
624 young people essentially guarantees wider horizontal knowledge transfer as they have wider
625 communication networks.

626

627 *3.3.4 Capacity building and knowledge transfer opportunities*

628 There were clear capacity building benefits provided for low-input producers by all the cattle
629 development programmes case studies. The interactions during training presented
630 opportunities for developing functional social networks and fostering unity among low-input
631 cattle producers (Segnon et al., 2015). Nakano et al. (2018) mentioned the importance of

632 training programmes to be coordinated to ensure they communicate the same message and
633 provide win-win benefits to both low-input cattle producers and programme organisers.
634 Continuous improvement cycles instigated by the ACIAR programme is essential in building
635 know-how on consistent monitoring and adjustment strategies for their production practices.
636 The implementation of the HPSA, including its training protocol, is based on the principles of
637 agroecology and this advances the operationalization of sustainability through more rationale
638 and efficient use of local resources to improve cattle production (HPSA, 2008). The basis of
639 the HPSA training could be adopted in designing future cattle development programmes.

640

641 **4. Designing, implementing and exiting strategies for sustainable cattle development** 642 **programmes**

643 All cattle development programmes prefer their technologies to be implemented longer after
644 their active engagement with various communities. As such, it is essential for cattle
645 development programme organizers to consider a sustainability-based holistic systems
646 approach when developing their design, implementation and exit strategies. A two-phase
647 protocol is proposed for use in low-input cattle development programmes consisting of a design
648 and implementation phase with the exit phase running in parallel with the later as presented in
649 Figure 2.

650

651 **4.1 Design phase**

652 The cattle development programmes under the current review reflected limited understanding
653 of the complexity surrounding low-input farming systems. In that regard, it is crucial to conduct
654 extensive consultations with local stakeholders, including, cattle producers, community
655 leaders, local extension officers, local government officials and other researchers in the area.
656 Stakeholders' perceptions on the challenges and opportunities of the low-input cattle

657 production system provides the basic understanding of the system required for designing more
658 appropriate interventions (Kruska et al., 2003). Stakeholders should take a leading role in
659 suggesting strategies for new broad-based interventions that cover the environmental,
660 economic and social aspects of low-input cattle production as well as, a desired implementing
661 and exit strategies for the programmes (Mascarenhas et al., 2015). In the same regard,
662 stakeholders can also be requested to suggest the selection criteria for recipients as well as,
663 relevant organizations, groups or departments that can be approached for partnerships in the
664 new endeavours. This critical step is often not considered in most development programmes,
665 including those under review. The programmes fail to acknowledge that low-input cattle
666 producers have loads of inherent valuable knowledge and experiences spanning hundreds of
667 years that they can share (Kruska et al., 2003). This provides useful input towards designing of
668 relevant and sustainable interventions. In contrast, cattle development programmes draw their
669 knowledge from a mixture of scientific, idealistic and even romantic views developed within a
670 fixed time frame (Kruska et al., 2003).

671

672 We propose the selection of a committee comprised of local producers, leadership, public and
673 private enterprises that will assist with co-designing and co-administration of the actual
674 intervention strategies with the organisers. The committee will also form part of the
675 transitioning phase that will eventually assume total responsibility of activities upon exiting of
676 the programme after its implementation period (Rogers and Macías, 2004). Early consideration
677 of exit strategies is critical as some positive technological interventions are often lost after
678 respective cattle development programmes withdraw their support at the end of their
679 implementation period (Gardner et al., 2005). According to Davis and Sankar (2006) transition
680 and exit strategies are best co-developed with farmers and local stakeholders to ensure a

681 sustained source of resources, technical and managerial capacity, and sustained motivation of
682 beneficiaries and service providers after the project ends.

683

684 Coates et al. (2016) identified three approaches to exit strategies namely; phase-down, phase-
685 over and phase-out. Phase-down refers to gradual reduction of programme inputs offered to
686 recipient communities. Phase-over refers to the transfer of programme activities to another
687 entity such as a local committee, a research institution, a branch of local, regional or national
688 government, or other local or international funding organizations (Rogers and Macías, 2004).
689 This phase also includes capacity building of recipient farmers who will eventually assume
690 responsibility of activities (Coates et al., 2016). For best sustainability prospects community
691 members can be left with the responsibility of programme activities which can be regularly
692 monitored by a selected institution. Phase-out refers to abrupt removal of programme inputs or
693 activities without any arrangements for their further use. This is common in self-sustaining
694 programmes whose resources requirements change once their objectives are achieved (Gardner
695 et al., 2005). Finally, the components required as well as the contents of training material can
696 be organized in preparation for implementation of the programme.

697

698 In view of the limited coordination between different cattle development programmes (Sirohi
699 and Chauhan, 2010) which compromises continuity, the protocol proposes the establishment
700 of a management database which will inform on successes, failures and lessons learnt during
701 implementation of various programmes. The database can be maintained by local the
702 institutions involved in the project. The primary purpose of the database will be to integrate
703 activities of various cattle development interventions to encourage coherent adoption of
704 technologies. At the same time, a more coordinated delivery of interventions will address the
705 current challenges where conflicting interests of various programmes might confuse the

706 recipients (Makkar and Ankers, 2014). The management database could also save as a
707 monitoring and evaluation tool for the cattle development programmes.

708

709 **4.2 Implementation phase**

710 Implementation of programme activities should be informed by what stakeholders suggest in
711 the design phase of the proposed framework. This includes selection of recipient low-input
712 farmers using stakeholders' recommendations mentioned in the design phase. This is opposed
713 to the top-down approach of unilaterally developing a criteria for selecting recipients as
714 practiced by most cattle development programmes (Faku and Hebinck, 2013) including those
715 under the current review. Of the programmes under the current review, only the HPSA selected
716 recipients at the recommendation of local community leadership, as such, appropriate
717 beneficiaries were identified.

718

719 Another important sustainability aspect which is considered by all the cattle development
720 programmes under the current review is capacity building. The training material of the different
721 cattle development programmes can, however, be synchronized, possibly through the proposed
722 management database, to allow consistent knowledge delivery and skills development (Fraser
723 et al., 2006). Farmer training forms the second step of the implementation phase of the proposed
724 protocol (Figure 2). It is also important to emulate the continual improvement strategy of the
725 ACIAR programme where cattle producers meet once every 60 to 90 days for programme
726 introspection and effecting changes where necessary (Fisher and Hohnen, 2012). This step is
727 important to ensure that programme activities constantly align to prevailing conditions in
728 recipient communities. The process also helps to instil the skills of continually improving
729 activities to adapt to developing circumstances. Finally, preparations can be made for

730 horizontal expansion of the programme before the implementation cycle is repeated again by
731 selecting new recipients.

732

733 Overall, the concept of sustainability is often not considered during performance monitoring
734 and evaluation of cattle development programmes (Searcy et al., 2014). In fact, to the authors’
735 knowledge, there is no existing framework designed to incorporate sustainability in the
736 performance measurement of cattle development programmes in the low-input farming sector.
737 Sustainability evaluation ensures that the performance of cattle development programmes
738 essentially transcends beyond economic gains to include environmental and social benefits in
739 line with the multi-faceted challenges and pluralistic production goals of low-input farmers
740 (Olde et al., 2016). A holistic systems approach is, therefore, required to ensure that the
741 performance of cattle development programmes is evaluated in the context of sustainability to
742 address the diverse challenges and pluralistic production goals of low-input farmers (Searcy et
743 al., 2014).

744

745 **5. A holistic systems approach to sustainability evaluation of cattle development**
746 **programmes: Application potential in low-input farming areas**

747 A holistic systems approach can be used to facilitate the development of sustainability
748 evaluation and monitoring framework for cattle development programs in low input
749 farming areas (Searcy et al., 2014). The framework can help organizations involved in cattle
750 development programmes to measure progress towards their goals. In the process, the
751 organizations will develop understanding of the current situation, the key issues that should be
752 addressed, and the options available (Chakravarti, 2018). However, there are many challenges
753 associated with the design, implementation, and evolution of a robust sustainability evaluation
754 and monitoring framework (Bockstaller et al., 2015). The challenges include developing

755 linkages between the measures, integrating the measures with existing internal initiatives, and
756 accounting for non-financial issues in the system. This is worsened by the fact that performance
757 measurement system must always be context-specific (de Olde et al., 2018).

758

759 A holistic systems approach can help stakeholders to address many of the challenges inherent
760 in the design, implementation, and evolution of a sustainability evaluation and monitoring
761 framework (Searcy et al., 2014). In particular, a holistic systems approach is useful in
762 developing the process of creating a sustainability evaluation and monitoring framework (Sala
763 et al., 2015). However, a holistic system approach do not absolutely guarantee the successful
764 design, implementation, and evolution of an appropriate sustainability evaluation framework
765 in all cases but, can provide the needed direction and serve as tests of validity throughout the
766 process (Searcy et al., 2014). It can also provide insight into how organizations involved in
767 cattle development projects can develop a sustainability evaluation and monitoring framework
768 tailored to their unique needs.

769

770 **6. Conclusions**

771 Overall, the market-led interventions by both the local and international cattle development
772 programmes narrowly focused and inadequately addressed a wide array of environmental,
773 economic, social, technical and institutional challenges faced by low-input cattle producers in
774 South Africa. The current review demonstrated that a holistic systems approach provides both
775 the structure and flexibility required to guide the design, implementation, and evolution of
776 sustainable cattle development programs in the low-input farming areas in South Africa. The
777 review also indicates the usefulness of a holistic systems approach in developing the process,
778 structure and content of a sustainability evaluation and monitoring framework.

779

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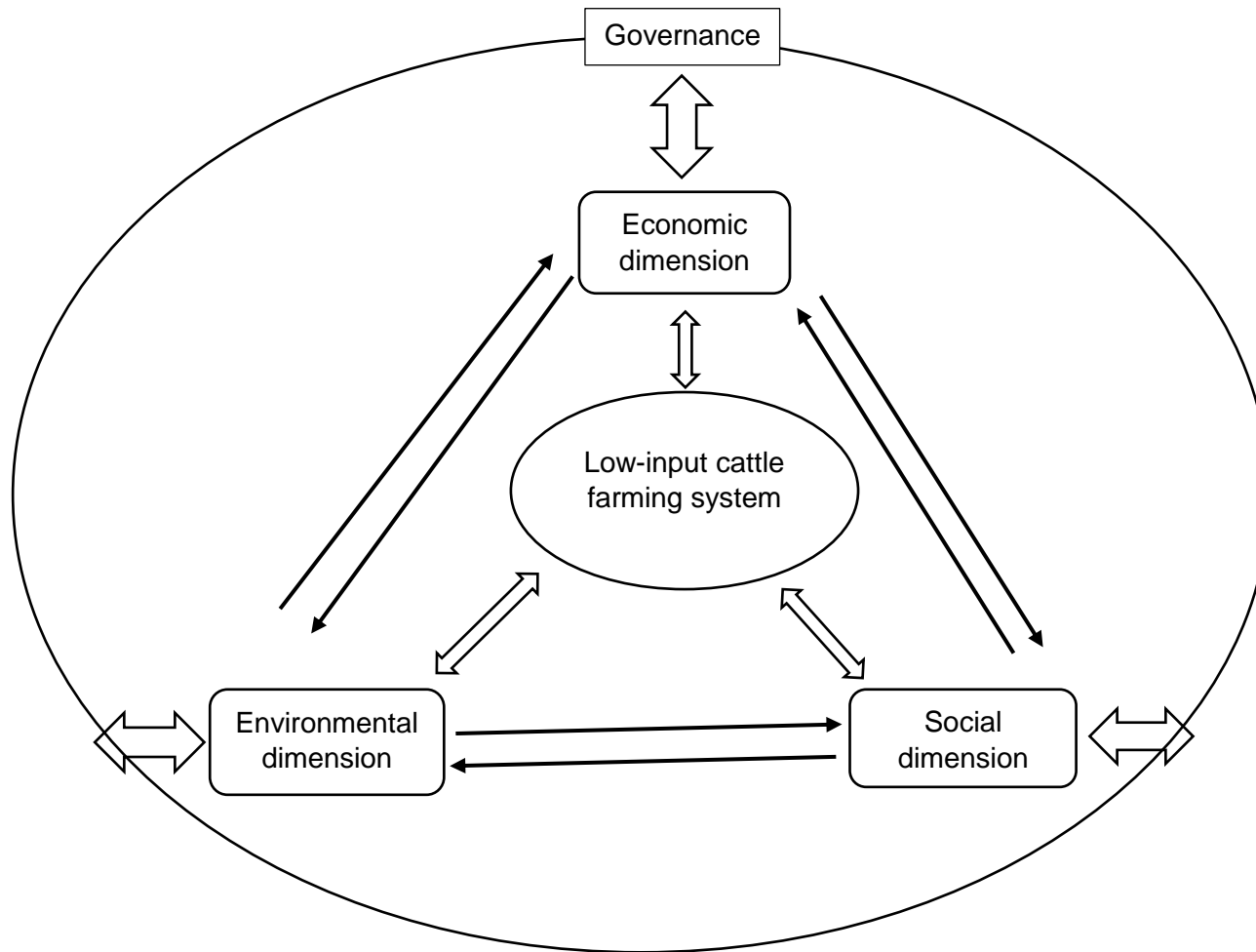
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1114 **Figure 1:** The interactions between the low-input cattle production system and the sustainability dimensions

1115 **Table 1:** Attributes of selected cattle development programmes in South Africa

	Nguni cattle programme	National Red Meat Development Programme (NRMDP)	Australian Centre for International and Agricultural Research (ACIAR) programme	Heifer project
<i>Aims</i>	To establish Nguni nucleus herds and upgrade the cattle herds to Nguni type in low-input communities	To develop red meat production hubs to improve productivity, increase income and employment for rural folk	To investigate the potential of introduced forage and ley-legume species as fodder banks for improving feed supply and animal nutrition for low-input cattle producers	To reduce hunger and poverty
<i>Partners</i>	Industrial Development Cooperation, the Department of Agriculture and a local university	National Agricultural Marketing Council, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform	Agricultural Research Council, Limpopo Department of Agriculture, Centre for Scientific and Industrial Research Organization	Heifer Project South Africa, Department of Rural Development and Land Reform, Misror, EU and Wesbank
<i>Target area</i>	National	National	Limpopo and North West provinces	Eastern Cape and KwaZulu Natal provinces
<i>Target producers</i>	Subsistence and commercially-oriented producers	Subsistence and commercially-oriented producers	Subsistence and commercially-oriented producers	Subsistence and commercially-oriented producers
<i>Approach</i>	Top-down approach	Top-down approach	Top-down approach	Community-based
<i>Number of beneficiaries</i>	233 by 2012	13 communities	Not specified	8 030 households by 2012
<i>Rangeland management plan</i>	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
<i>Cattle breeds promoted</i>	Nguni	Not specified	Indigenous breeds and their crosses	Indigenous

1117 **Table 2:** Economic, environmental and social impacts of selected cattle development programmes in South Africa

The Nguni cattle project			
	<i>Ecological</i>	<i>Economic</i>	<i>Social</i>
<i>Positive</i>	Promotes sustainability through facilitating ecologically friendly free-ranging conditions	Offers means of production through cattle loans	Offers training and skills development for capacity building
	Promotes use of adapted hardy breeds suited to low-input producers	Provides opportunities for improved household income	Strengthens social coherence and social networks through interaction of cattle producers
	Requires a rangeland management plan for effective use of natural resources	Proved market-related merits of the Nguni breed	Cattle offered elevates the social status of the programme recipients
			Engagement with local extension officers technical staff and researchers helps to motivate farmers
<i>Negative</i>	Lacks practical soil and rangeland improvement strategies	No clearly stated penalty against loan defaulters affects loan repayments	A top-down approach: lack of stakeholder consultation
	Monitoring of rangeland management not comprehensive	Market-led focus inadequate to address multiple challenges of producers	Disregards the breed preferences of cattle producers
	Promotion of a single breed is against low-input cattle producers practices of multiple breeds to improve resilience	Fuels economic inequity in communities	Exclusion of non-cattle owners aggravates societal inequity
	The Nguni x Angus Limpopo-IDC ideology could negatively affect conservation of indigenous genetic material		Requires castration of all other bulls in the community against cultural principle of some cattle producers
The National Red Meat Development Programme (NRMDP)			
<i>Positive</i>	<i>Ecological</i>	<i>Economic</i>	<i>Social</i>

	Custom feeding centres reduces grazing pressure	Improves body condition of market cattle	Job creation for locals
		Facilitates formal market access and systemize the informal market	Capacity building through training
		Improves cattle market offtake rates in low-input communities	Enhances social coherence and strengthens social networks through farmer interaction
<i>Negative</i>	Dependence on costly external inputs	Only concerned with market animals	A top-down approach: lack of stakeholder consultation
	Lacks practical soil and rangeland improvement strategies	No arrangements made with abattoirs for formal sales	Does not concur with the multifunctional roles of cattle in low-input production systems
		Exclusion of non-cattle owners aggravates economic inequity	High staff turnover which leads to a waste of resources through regular staff training
		The external inputs carry a heavy economic risk for cattle producers	Lack of proper knowledge among members on how the CFP operates
			Conflicts arising from different members opinions of how the CFCs should be operated
Australian Centre of International and Agricultural Research Project			
	<i>Ecological</i>	<i>Economic</i>	<i>Social</i>
<i>Positive</i>	Encourages rangeland management	Rangeland development translates to sustainable improvements in cattle productivity	Equips low-input producers with pasture development, cattle and financial management skills
	Improves biodiversity	A model to inform farmers' decisions about inputs and the mix of activities needed to maximise profit from commercial markets was produced	Enhances social coherence and strengthens social networks through farmer interaction
	Intends to improve animal nutrition	Used the continuous innovation and improvement strategy to manage,	

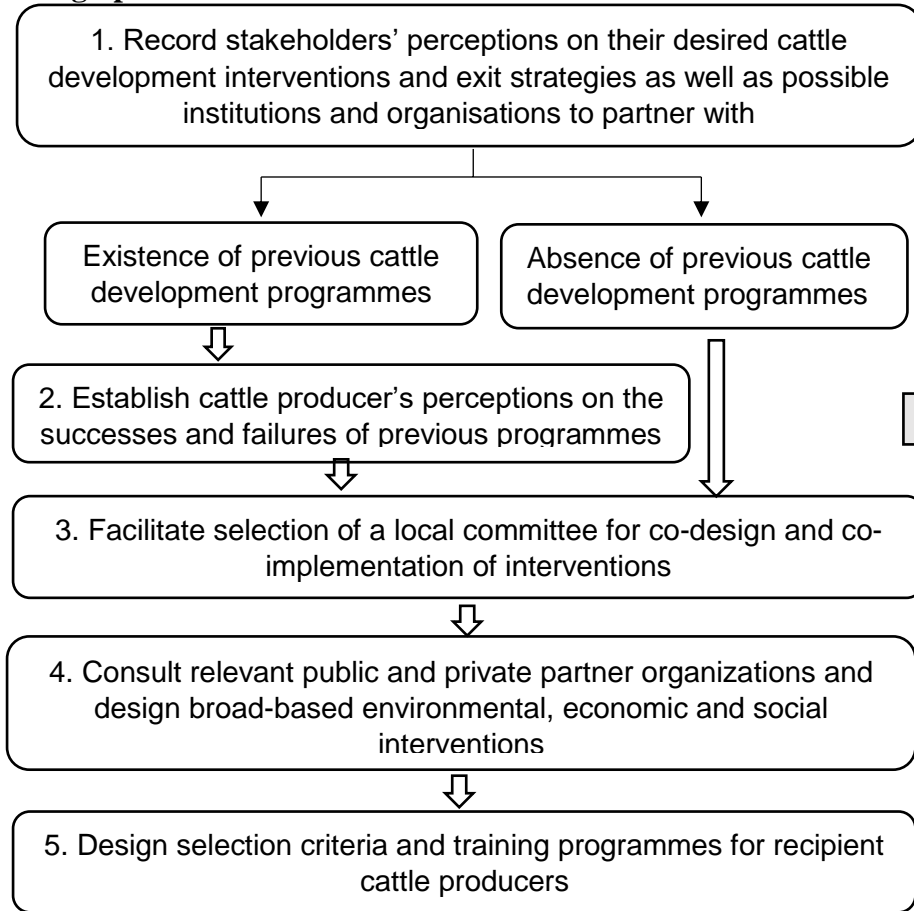
		implement and continuously exploit opportunities for positive impact in society	
<i>Negative</i>	Projects that narrowly focusses on pasture development and not cattle production were not prioritized by producers in terms of resource allocation	Puts a strain on constraining financial, labour and other material resources.	Intervention does not directly improve food and income security
	Might introduce invasive species	Poor infrastructure to support pasture development	The project was implemented on a small proportion of the population of commercially-oriented livestock producers in Limpopo province.
The Heifer project South Africa (HPSA)			
	<i>Ecological</i>	<i>Economic</i>	<i>Social</i>
<i>Positive</i>	Promotes sustainable cattle production	Facilitates market access	Facilitates establishment of effective community management institutions
	Concerned with ecological conservation strategies	Improves household income and diversity of income	Offers training and skills development for capacity building
	Uses local breeds preferred by cattle producers	Provides livestock even to non-livestock owners, thereby, fostering societal equity	Enhances social coherence and strengthens social networks through farmer interaction
	Enhances productivity by promoting agroecology		Job creation for locals
			Provides a mix of species other than cattle, thus, improves stability of the farming system
			Promotes gender equity by empowering women
			Assists producers to lobby for government support

<i>Negative</i>	Seeds and animals offered are universal		No consultations on what to help to provide beneficiaries
			Promotion through small stock might not be of prime importance to low-input cattle producers

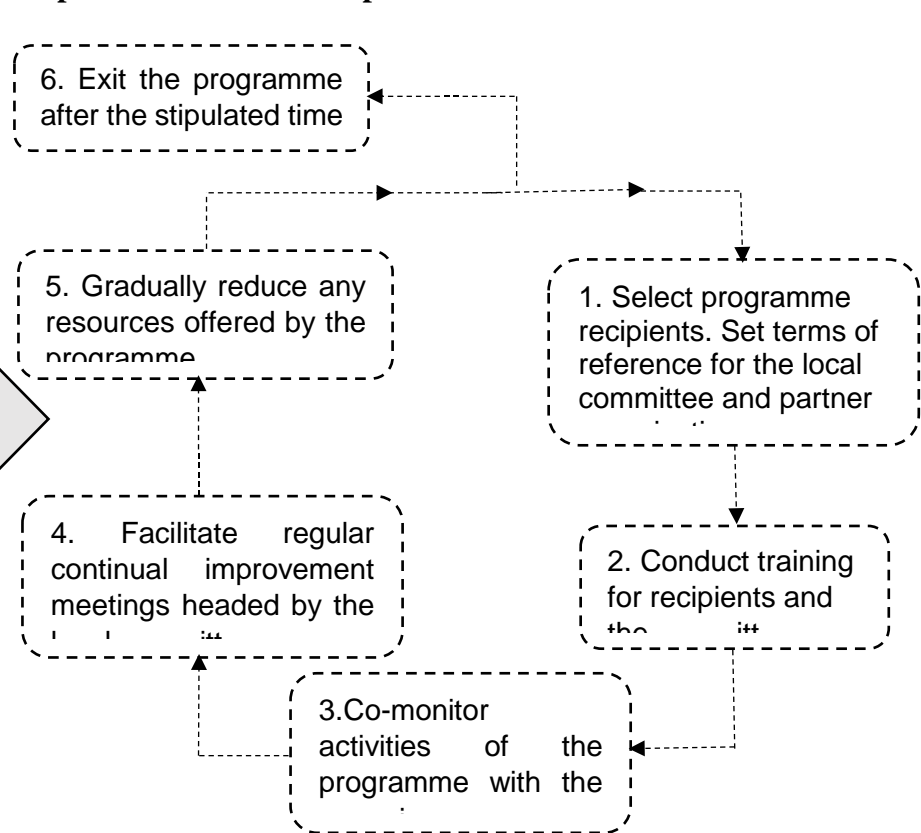
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Design phase



Implementation and exit phase



1135 **Figure 2:** Proposed protocol for designing, implementation and exiting strategies of cattle development programmes

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