

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE



Faculty of EMS

Institute for Social Development

Redistributing farmland to the landless in Fezile Dabi District Municipality: A synthesis of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

A mini-thesis submitted at the Institute for Social Development, Faculty of EMS, and University of the Western Cape in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a Master in Development Studies Degree.

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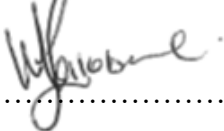
2020

DECLARATION

I, **LEBOHANG KEDIBONE MAKOBANE**, the undersigned, declare that *Redistributing farmland to the landless in Fezile Dabi District Municipality: A synthesis of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework* has not been submitted before for any degree, or examination in any University, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and duly acknowledged through referencing.



Lebohang Kedibone Makobane

Signature.....

October, 2020

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Indeed to God be the Glory!

DEDICATION

To the brave women who raised me, all three of you; Masenuku Makobane (maternal grandmother), Ntsioowa Makobane (mother) and Dimakatso Majoro (aunt), you are every reason I dare to dream big. Your work in me over the years has fuelled who I have become.

“I am because you are”



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ABSTRACT

When looking at South African land policy, one would agree there is a clear commitment to ensuring land ownership for the previously disadvantaged. South Africa's 1996 Constitution is widely regarded as among the most progressive in the world in terms of its emphasis on human, social and economic rights. Despite this, many South Africans desiring land ownership and access through land redistribution instruments, generally struggle to do so. This study is a mixed-method study, through its survey and interviews, calls into question the criteria used for land redistribution in South Africa. Furthermore, it makes a case why landlessness should be prioritised in the allocation criteria. Because of its interest in livelihoods and capital asset framework of the poor, the study's basic points have caused us to explain the meaning of landlessness using the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. However, the study believes the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is not adequate to conceptualise landlessness; therefore, it comes up with a new conceptual framework to landlessness that is rooted in the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. The study uses Fezile Dabi District Municipality as a case study and, as a result, this process has now created an opportunity for the study to identify the broad typologies of landlessness which exist within the municipality. The thesis believes that considered holistically, the social and economic (tangible and intangible) assets of the rural poor will ensure that the land redistribution leg of South African land reform will achieve its main objective which is poverty alleviation.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

The Natives Land Act of 1913 deprived 90% of blacks of their land, leaving them with 7% of barren land which was later increased to 13% (Cousins, 2007). Today this history still has an impact on land ownership trends of the black majority of South Africa. It is important to realise that colonialism, apartheid, racial oppression and exploitation all had an economic motive, and this was brought about by the strong foundation of land ownership under all the mentioned systems of oppression. Land ownership has always been recognised as a primary source of wealth and power, it is the basis of economic activities. However, because the history of dispossession in South Africa is a long and complex one; the consensus is that land redistribution must redress centuries of dispossession for those who were previously disadvantaged in terms of farmland. Large scale redistribution should be able to immensely contribute to the transformation of the economy and the reduction of poverty (Ntsebeza and Hall, 2007). Furthermore, the process of land redistribution should always be substantiated with a support programme, especially for smallholder farmers. According to Greenberg (2013:19), this type of support is always caught between “welfarist and corporatist dynamics” while Vink & Kirsten (2003) found too much support as creating a dependency syndrome in farmers. Evidence from other parts of the world has shown that agricultural growth that fosters improvements in productivity on small farms has proven to be highly effective in reducing poverty and hunger and raising rural living standards (Rosegrant and Hazell, 2000).

The two main rural constituencies included by the strong and well-known Freedom Charter statement that says “The Land Shall Be Shared Amongst Those Who Work it” (Congress of the People, 1955) are rural residents and farm workers. With the number of people still landless, it is safe to question whether the current land reform policy does prioritise the landless or not. Landless people compete for land with privileged and resource-rich whom the land reform process favours (Kepe and Hall, 2016). Black people are mostly referred to when talking of the beneficiaries of land reform, even though Section 25 of the Constitution does not necessarily say blacks should be prioritised, but previously disadvantaged citizens. The detail on the characteristics of prioritised beneficiaries of land redistribution was left to policymakers (Sihlobo and Kirsten, 2018). Therefore, problematising the roll-out of land redistribution in

South Africa, specifically the criteria used to select who benefits from it, is a valid argument as it begs to understand an important part of land redistribution, namely, who gets the land.

The results of land reform have been said to be marginal in South Africa (Greenberg, 2004). For instance, one of the reasons for this is that land transfer and agricultural support are still being rolled out to new emerging black farmers under the same terms as it was to white farmers. It is important for agriculture to be able to reorganise the rural economy and give more access to land for landless people. Secure access to land has proven to produce positive outcomes for development indicators, such as poverty reduction and improved nutrition, to mention but a few (Tapscott, 2012). Production in rural areas is conducted by farming households. The belief is that production plays an important role in rural livelihood strategies (Matshe, 2009). The South African Constitution charges the government of the day with the responsibility of implementing land reform. It does not request the government to do so, nor does it merely allow it: it says very explicitly that the government has to implement land reform, and that it has to be done in the form of restitution, redistribution and tenure reform (Vink and Kirsten, 2003). However, deracialising land redistribution is not enough (Greenberg, 2004), because under the current regime black smallholder farmers are still being found without land to farm on and those that have land are operating with little to no agricultural support from the government which has made their farming businesses stagnant. On the other side, landless farm workers and labour tenants are continuously exposed to evictions on farmland that they work. Therefore, while markets and private sectors remain important, they operate in the context of land reform policy framework and programmes championed by a democratically elected government. The regimes of land reform differ and so do the strategies which fall underneath them that are used to decide who becomes a beneficiary (asset-based, market-based or income-based approach). Many governments dealing with land reform have limited resources and capacities. On paper, there are brilliant efforts for land reform to benefit the economically disadvantaged, but the different approaches that governments choose to use, to mitigate the inequalities, have many limitations and weaknesses. This thesis, therefore, attempts to make a case for landlessness to be prioritised as a criterion in land allocation, most especially under an asset-based framework to land redistribution.

1.1.1 Problem Statement

In South Africa the first democratic government opted for a market approach to land reform called the Willing Buyer, Willing Seller, characterised by government purchasing available

land on the market and, therefore, redistributing it to those who need land. Reports written about the Land Audit of 2013 acknowledged that the Willing Buyer, Willing Seller policy has failed to resolve the land deprivation of many South Africans. One such report by Pienaar et al (2013) points out that the then Deputy Minister of Agriculture said that failure of the South African land reform is a consequence of the land ownership targets we are chasing; instead, food security and productive land use should be prioritised. Section 25 of the Constitution obliges the state to take rational steps to create conditions that enable citizens to access land, however, who gets the land is a decision to be taken by policy (Hall, 2009).

Kepe and Hall (2016) report that the pace of land redistribution has taken a downward trend and has been at its highest in 2007-8 and at its lowest between 2015-16. According to Hart et al (2016), land reform beneficiaries vary by gender, age, social class and livelihood assets they have. It is widely acknowledged that policies that facilitate access to land can reduce poverty and income inequality (Hall, 2007). However, the fact that land reform policy has no detailed information about the socio-economic characteristic of land redistribution beneficiaries is a policy weakness that is leading South African land reform astray (Lahiff, 2008). The White Paper of 1997 says the poor are to be provided with land, the poor from this is prioritised as the marginalised and women (Kepe and Hall, 2016). The process of land redistribution requires clear criteria and principles to be put and understood from the onset to avoid opaque guidance of how redistribution is to be achieved.

The land ownership gap between the different race groups remains wide (Smith, 1992). The post-apartheid government sits with a task on how to lessen this, especially through the redistribution of economic resources such as land. There is need for clear and concise policy initiatives that address who receives land and make sure the poor and landless predominate among the beneficiaries of land reform. The state needs to actively identify the need and match it with capital assets held this can translate into successful land reform plans (Hall, 2009).

1.1.2 Research Objectives

- To assess the typologies of landlessness that exist in Fezile Dabi District.
- To determine livelihood strategies, assets and outcomes pursued by the landless.
- To provide an overview of who has been benefiting from land redistribution.
- To determine what selection criteria were followed to qualify people for land redistribution.

1.1.3 Grand Research Question

How, if at all has landlessness been used as a criterion in land redistribution policy?

1.1.4 Sub-questions

- What kind of landlessness is found in Fezile Dabi District?
- What is the livelihood profile of the landless?
- Who are the present beneficiaries of land redistribution?
- How are they identified for the land redistribution programmes?

1.1.5 Hypothesis

The hypothesis to be tested by this study theorizes the relationship between landless people and the capital assets in their lives.

The hypothesis to be tested is the following:

H1: There are low numbers of those who are landless amongst the beneficiaries of land reform in Fezile Dabi District.

H2: Redistributing land to the landless leads them to pursue sustainable livelihoods.

1.2 Research Rationale

1.2.1 Aim

The key aim of this study includes determining how landlessness has been used as a criterion to qualify people as beneficiaries of land redistribution. Furthermore, to determine how South African land redistribution can benefit from pursuing an asset-based framework.

1.3 Significance of the study

- a) It helps clarify the meaning of landlessness and gives landless people typologies. The meaning of landlessness gets confused (Singh, 1983) and is normally different in every

context. This study will help define the typologies of landless people that are found in South Africa and investigate their livelihood perspectives.

- b) Closes the gap on the policy. There is a great need for progressive and concise directives that inform policy on land redistribution to improve the pace and quality of land reform. Huge amounts of literature and policy reviews confirm the policy gap that exists in the criteria used in the process of redistributing land. It is important to know to whom the land goes to and how it is being used, this can only act as an advantage to restructure the agriculture and the rural sector of the country.

1.4 Background of Landlessness in Context in Fezile Dabi

1.4.1 Locating land hunger in Fezile Dabi District Municipality

The demand for land before and post-1994 was demonstrated through slogans such as “Land for the landless” (Ferrer, 1954: 37). This was a slogan chanted by politicians and communities in as far as the Philippines, which too many illustrated land hunger from those who cannot access land. According to Bradstock (2005), access to land fosters a new socio-economic environment by giving people an asset (land) to create income and improve their wellbeing. The economically disadvantaged (rural and urban poor, the landless and economically deprived) have long been subjected to bias and prejudice whether it was because of their identity or race. This, therefore, makes it hard for them to afford their livelihood needs (Bhatta, 2010). Access to land is very important to these people; moreover, it offers an opportunity for them to access financial markets and therefore investment (Bhatta, 2010).

The Fezile Dabi District Municipality is situated within the demarcation area of the Free State Province, formerly known as the Northern Free State District Municipality. The District Municipality covers an area of 20,668km², which makes up 27% of the Free State Province as a whole. Gauteng & North West provinces are located just north of the Fezile Dabi District Municipality and share borders with this district, making the District’s locality highly favourable in terms of economic opportunities with the biggest sector in this area being mining, agriculture and therefore linkages to economic hubs of the country.

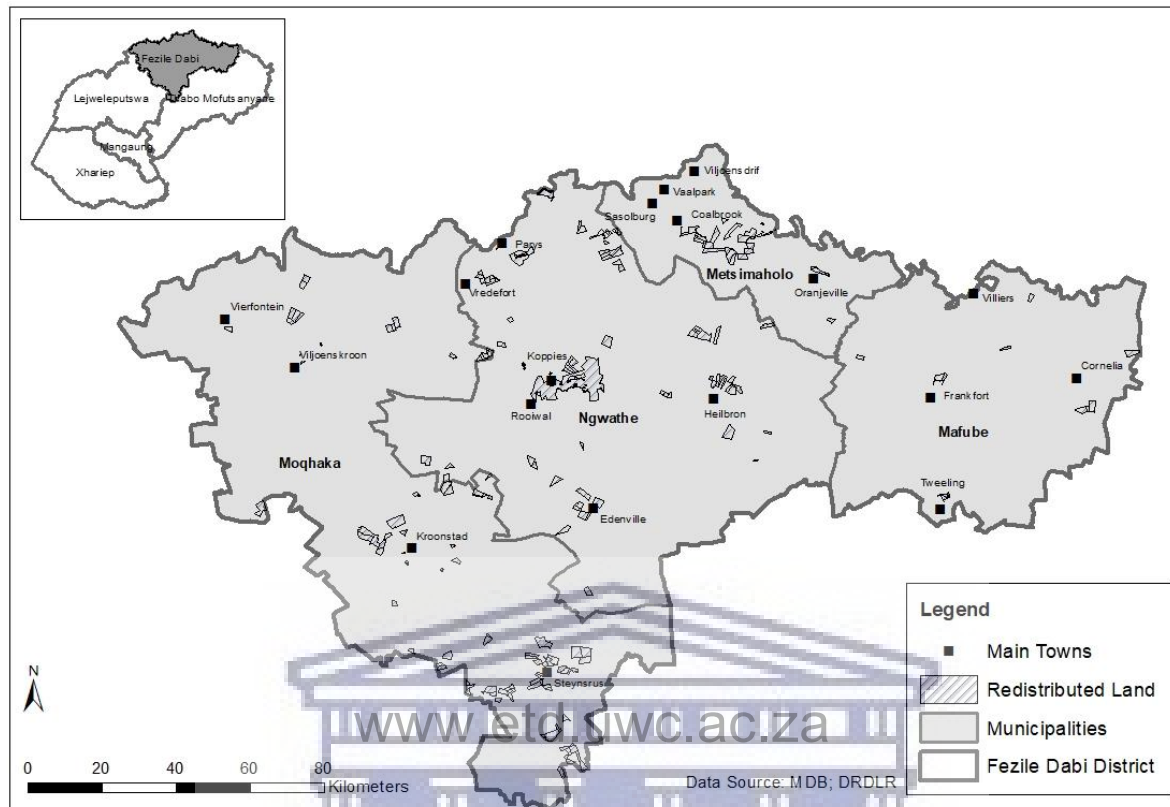


Figure: 1.5.1. Redistributed Land in Fezile Dabi District Municipality

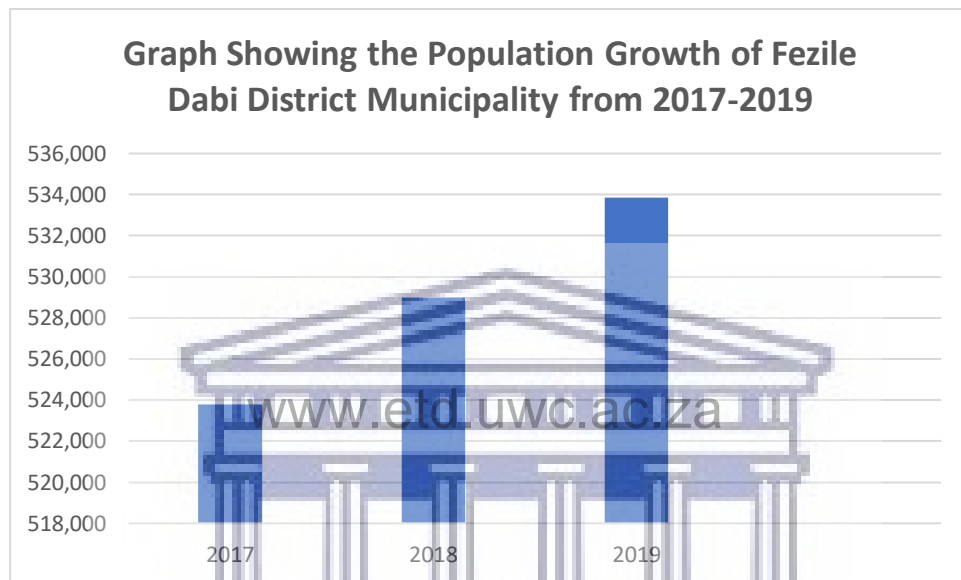
Source: Author's own compilation from a GIS system

The above figure gives an illustration of redistributed land across Fezile Dabi District Municipality. According to the Fezile Dabi Rural Development Plan (2017), most of the land in Fezile Dabi is privately owned. When looking at the map a big portion of redistributed land lies in areas around Ngwathe Local Municipality and Mochaka Local Municipality. There is less redistributed land in Mafube Local Municipality. Fezile Dabi RDP (2017) divides the district municipality into two parts which is the western and eastern region. The Western region of the district consists of Mochaka and Ngwathe Local Municipality regions while the Eastern region includes Metsimaholo and Mafube Local Municipality. With regards to land suitability in the western region: a total of 69% is agricultural land, 73% is arable land, 27% of grazing land, and 12% is wildlife land. On land suitability in the Eastern region hand: 31% is agricultural land, 27% is arable land, 73% is grazing land, and 98% is wildlife land.

Consolidating the information from Fezile Dabi Rural Development Plan and the map above can lead to three preliminary findings. Firstly when comparing the two regions of Fezile Dabi the rate of urbanisation in the district is high as more people are moving to the Western region. Secondly, because of high population densities and data illustrated by the map, most

beneficiaries of land reform may exist in the Western region than the Eastern part of the district. Lastly, the near absence of land redistribution in the Eastern region of the province can be a sign of where the most land hunger in the district may come from.

Graph 1.5.1. Population Growth of Fezile Dabi District Municipality from 2017-2019



Source: Author’s own compilation with data from the Community Services Survey 2016

The population of Fezile Dabi District Municipality in 2019 is recorded to be approximately 533,859 as compared to 523,789 in 2017 and 528,992 in 2018. This population includes both the rural and urban population in the district. When looking at population growth between the year 2018 and 2017, there has been an upward trend in growth as the population numbers were just over 520,000 and now nearing 540,000, 2 years later. According to the Stats SA (2011) Population Census, the population in Fezile Dabi grows at a rate of 0,31% annually

Table 1.5.1. Farming units and owner numbers for Fezile Dabi District

No. of Farming Units	No. of owners,	Size (ha)
14,730	4771	2,129,227.95

Data from the Community Services Survey 2016

There are 14,730 farming units in Fezile Dabi District. According to DAFF (2008:7), viable farming units may be defined as “an area where sustainable agriculture is practised, that is

economically viable and generates sufficient revenue from its agricultural production operations to cover: (a) all variable and fixed costs of production; (b) all appropriate family living expenses; and (c) capital replacement costs". Furthermore, owners represent companies, private individuals, municipalities and government departments that own the land. Therefore, the table above shows that in Fezile Dabi District there are 14,730 farming units owned by 4,771 owners. If one compares the population statistics of Fezile Dabi alongside the data in Table 1 above, it is clear that the number of farm owners in Fezile Dabi District is far below even 5% of the total population.

Table 1.5.2. Food security and extent of rurality

Urban		Lack Food		Adequate Food		HH Agric		Non Agric HH	
N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
162,651.	94.3	37,356.7	21.7	134,594.	78.2	22,590.1	13.1	149,779.	86.8
7	6	7	3	7	7	3	1	4	9

Data from the Community Services Survey 2016

Secure access to land influences development indicators positively most especially in poverty alleviation. Today's rural areas have changed and offered different business opportunities, not only in agriculture but also in service sectors such as retail, mass and small-scale tourism. The revenue generated from this serves as household income and therefore ploughs back into many critical areas of the livelihoods of household members. Looking at the Table 1.5.2 above one can deduce that Fezile Dabi is largely urbanised. This is clear from the high proportion (94,36) of its population that lives in urban areas. Furthermore, the table shows that a 78.27% of Fezile Dabi have access to adequate food even though only 13.11% of its people live in an agricultural household as compared to 86.89% that live in non-agricultural households. Therefore, the fact that a lot of people in Fezile Dabi are not necessarily inclined to farming lifestyles does not affect their access to food.

1.4.2 Appraisal of Key Municipal Documents

There is consensus that land redistribution can enhance economic development in rural South Africa in general and also improve the livelihoods of its beneficiaries, and in Fezile Dabi District is not any different. Given the important role that municipalities play as the interface

between the people and development, it is important that municipalities also drive the land redistribution agenda in respective areas. The appraisal of the key municipal documents was done to check the orientation of the district municipality in working with the landless. It appears that landlessness is largely poorly defined, not mentioned frequently enough, and the importance of giving land to the landless is not visibly emphasized in the municipal documents reviewed. The more common word in the reports is land. The word is mentioned in objectives and goals for municipal projects that are related to land use and the restitution program. The documents generally show evidence of rural development understanding and prioritization in terms of resource allocation. There is, however, lack of entrenchment of land allocation specifically for farming in municipal processes as well as clear guidelines on how and who gets selected for land redistribution projects.

The two documents reviewed are, namely, the Rural Development Plan 2017 (RDP) and the Integrated Development Plan 2017-2018 (IDP). Finding these documents was not difficult as they are all available online on the Fezile Dabi website. Keywords such as land reform, land redistribution, landless and beneficiaries were used in assessing all three documents that were sourced. A caution was applied in the usage of the word agriculture; the researcher was only interested in agriculture concerning the land redistribution leg of land reform, that could in any way speak to the way beneficiaries are chosen and their livelihoods.

When assessing the two documents, the keyword agriculture was used more frequently in this municipality as compared to the other keywords used. Land reform was used once, landless was used once and land reform beneficiaries was used twice. The preliminary finding from analysing these documents rapidly is that the municipality is not oriented towards prioritising the landless in the land redistribution process. There is, therefore, lack of evidence of resource allocation for land reform and also lack of prioritisation. The municipality does not clearly define who its landless people are and why they have to be prioritised as beneficiaries of land redistribution.

In the IDP there is evidence of people who benefit from agriculture-based projects. This is documented under Chapter 6: Sector Departments Projects & Programmes. These included construction of broiler houses plans to build abattoirs and issuing equipment; the numbers of beneficiaries are also highlighted in each of the four local municipalities in Fezile Dabi District. However, there is a lack of clarity in regards to whether these beneficiaries are specifically on land redistribution farms or not. As well in chapter 6, there's evidence of land restitution

projects that are planned or running, the information included provides their costs and the budget specifics.

1.5 Chapter Outline

This research report consists of six chapters. The first chapter is the introductory chapter, built up of a case on why this study is being done, it defines and elaborates on the need to conceptualise the place of landlessness in South African land reform, including the background review of the study area in terms of land redistribution. It includes information from preliminary analysis done on land hunger, food security and finally checks key Fezile Dabi District municipal documents for landlessness prioritisation and orientation. The chapter also includes the grand research question, the sub-questions, objectives and rationale of the study. Chapter two is the literature review, where the concept of landlessness is explained as according to theory and empirical studies are reviewed and an extensive analysis of criteria used in land redistribution programmes in South Africa. Chapter three introduces and synthesizes the sustainable livelihoods framework and its tenets. Furthermore, it introduces a new conceptual framework to landlessness and its elements. In Chapter four, the research methods and methodology used by the study are explained as well as the overarching methods in sustainable livelihoods studies. Chapter five which is the presentation of findings is divided into three sections namely the farmers' section, the farm workers section and the qualitative findings. It gathers data that the study was able to find from different participants. The last chapter of the thesis is Chapter 6 which discusses all findings according to the research objectives set out in the beginning. The chapter also brings in policy recommendations and opportunities for further studies.

CHAPTER TWO

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review will draw on the issue of criteria used in land reform and its implications on livelihoods throughout different policy contexts of the new South Africa. It will also investigate from experiences of other countries around the world especially those in Asia, Latin America and Africa.

2.1 Introduction and Contextualization

Inequality of land ownership in South Africa is a direct consequence of colonial laws, the laws that were used to carry out this land expropriation acts were ones such as the Native Land Act of 1936 and the Native Trust and Land Act of 1936 (Kloppers and Pienaar, 2014). It is such laws that have had an impact on the status of land ownership in the lives of many South Africans. Landlessness has always been acknowledged as a threat to the activity of black South Africans in the economy of their country. When looking at the history of dispossession, even though the story has always been told with violent undertones to it; dispossession happened because it made economic sense to the oppressors (Walker, 2005). Usage of the black man as labourers on land that had been taken was the only way land could be commodified. It is for this reason that the land redistribution discourse is based on identity, social justice and rights. Not only this but also keeping in mind that land holds great cultural, religious and legal significance. Therefore, with the history South Africa has with land policy there's need for a land reform programme that pays attention to the process, proper beneficiary identification and institutional development (Walker, 2005).

Bundy (2013), points out that the Land Act of 1936 should stop being treated as a departure point as there's enough evidence that the history of dispossession was a process and unfolded long before 1936. If we follow Bundy's argument, then it could lead us to the conclusion that the criteria used for redistribution of land are quite flawed. If the Constitution of South Africa only accounts for those who have suffered dispossession after 19 June 1913, then what about those who suffered as a matter of discriminatory laws before the afore-mentioned time and are still disadvantaged.

Access to land in developing countries varies and mostly depends on customary law for access and tenure arrangements. Most of the rural farmers in Africa are also subsistence farmers who don't own land and therefore cannot use these holdings as collateral. In South Africa the

agrarian situation is very extreme; mediation between the landed and what we have come to know as the landless is mostly done through a constituted government. One has to acknowledge the racial undertones when we talk of the landed and the landless in South Africa. The former would be mostly those of European descent while the latter are African (black) people. The post-apartheid government has always taken a rights-based approach to regulating access to resources like land which black South Africans had no access to before 1994. Therefore, it is these rights and policy that have allowed the previously disadvantaged potential to own, rent or reside on land which they had no access to in the olden days.

Today, even after years of many land reform policies that have tried to address the injustices of the past, the rural poor are still prone to being victims of land dispossession and relatively little land has been redistributed back to them. The most marginalised in terms of land being small scale farmers, farm workers, labour tenants, women and youth (Weidman, 2006). Recently the expropriation bill that has been passed in parliament has attracted high levels of commentary from different levels of the political sphere of South Africa. David Mabuza has passionately acclaimed that land must be returned to those who are landless (Herman, 2018), the Democratic Alliance has condemned land expropriation, warning people of elite capture, as well as people remaining permanent tenants and the Economic Freedom Fighters, have brought forth the fact that implementation and process of expropriation should be treated as urgent. There is a need to properly characterise who exactly we refer to when we talk of the landless. When looking at media reports most top officials have acknowledged that the primary beneficiaries of the land that will be expropriated without compensation should be landless. Those who are for land expropriation put an argument forward that those who are dispossessed under colonial rule should have a right to reclaim the land that is rightfully theirs now. The opponents find this first and foremost a big threat to local food security. Other anti-land expropriation groups have raised concerns about how the status quo will remain after land expropriation: the rich will get richer and this will not empower those who are without land in any way. Empowering those who are landless and the land poor includes supplying the poorest section of rural population with productive land and encouraging them to use it for agricultural purposes, expanding smallholder farmers and providing labour tenants on farms with land rights further making sure that these rights are complied with so that their livelihoods and wellbeing can be improved.

In the National Development Plan of South Africa, one can sense the prioritisation of rural poor and their development in the policy. The issue of agricultural reform is found in Chapter 6 of

the National Development Plan: 2030 titled an Integrated and Inclusive Rural Economy. If one looks at the principles of the proposed model of land reform, one can simply highlight the criteria the National Development Plan believes in.

It talks of (1) beneficiaries that will not distort land markets or jeopardise the agribusiness sector in any way, this could easily mean those who can farm; (2) new black farmers that should be mentored by white commercial farmers; and (3) industry bodies and individuals that can develop skills of working the land through learnerships and apprenticeships, the people in question in this part could be the youth (NPC, 2012).

In trying to investigate the plight of those we call landless, it is important to understand the technicalities that underlie their reality. It is also important to understand clearly, what characterises their existence. This helps to give who we call the landless more character and therefore try to differentiate between those who are landless, the near landless and their livelihood outcomes.

2.1.1 Landlessness and the South African Landless

For this study, landlessness is a concept that exists when people living in the rural areas have no ownership or control over any land, examples of those who are landless include nomads, labourers and agricultural workers (Byrant, 1998). The definition of landlessness from Greenberg (2004) says that farm workers suffered the impact of agricultural restructuring during the shift from labour intensive to capital intensive agriculture. However, not only farm workers and their dependents can be regarded as landless. The landless should include also those who live in rentals, informal settlements and those who live in communal areas owned and controlled by the government or traditional authorities. The right to gain access to land lies on the idea that there are those amongst us who need land and these are those with insecure tenure for the land they are working or living on. Most of these people make a livelihood by selling some goods and services. A study done in Bangladesh found that the main source of income for landless people was firstly from the services sector and secondly agriculture (Rahman and Manprasert, 2006). This then means people are working the land they do not own and this affects their livelihoods negatively. The near landless on the other hand are those who have tenure to land through customary laws, but find that the land is of inadequate size or poor quality for the practice of subsistence farming so most don't make much out of the land they hold.

Landlessness, according to Singh (1983), is described by the inability to own or operate any land. Therefore, it can be described through the distinction of two categories:

- absence of property rights (title deed)
- absence of use rights of a designated piece of land (insecure tenure rights)

This study will therefore adopt this standard definition of landlessness and use it in its operationalisation. According to Bhatta (2010) redistribution of land therefore oversees the redistribution of operational holdings and its transfer from a holder to smallholder or landless individual. On the other hand, tenure reform deals with the improvement in the control and use rights over a portion of land for individuals and this should also improve their security of tenure. Both access to property rights and use rights of a piece of land gives beneficiaries a chance to produce for their livelihoods in a certain way and affects the incentives to have collateral for the attainment of credit and many other investments. Lipton's (2009) argument on the implications of not having property rights or use rights is that land reform's biggest challenge is to reduce inequality and poverty. When there is unequal ownership of the property it denies equal opportunity to those who are landless or near landless, hence the importance of making sure these are the groups that benefit from land reform. The impact of land reform in the lives of beneficiaries should be seen in "improved food security, more income, increased well-being and improved sustainability" (Kepe and Hall, 2016:213). Statutory and customary laws (Toulmin, 2008) govern land rights in South Africa, just like in many other developing countries. The above-mentioned law regimes transfer different bundles of rights to individuals and they operate differently. In Statutory Law, validation of property rights relies on legal persecution (Joireman, 2008) and it is more formal. It is these characteristics discussed above, that still allow the discrimination of certain categories of society such as women and children, concerning land (Joireman, 2008). Under customary dealings the land rights are allocated by a traditional leader to a household head, most of the time a male. This, therefore, makes women's land rights secondary and very dependent on their relationship with a male family member. This brings into light the relationship between the social and legal factors of land, which is such that people's relationship could be based on land but how much it is beneficial to them rests upon the legal recognition around that land (Clark and Luwaya, 2017). It is in the very

essence of this that people who occupy certain land but still be regarded as landless or even near landless.

In terms of property rights, Section 25 of the Constitution explicitly states that no one should be deprived of property. This instruction of the Constitution agrees with many other international laws, even those under the United Nations that says that equal property rights should be ensured by all governments. Section 25(7) of the Constitution says that all those who have lost property after 1913 due to colonial laws are entitled to restitution. When it comes to using rights land reform programmes have spawned a very small percentage of beneficiaries even outside commercial agriculture. Jara and Hall (2009) mention that, interestingly enough, these beneficiaries are not the landless or small-scale farmers. The landless are rather found alongside the beneficiaries of agricultural land reform programmes in desperate need of diversifying their livelihood strategies. They are the newly displaced from production or farm employment, they are now identified as the new urban poor as a result of rural-urban migration. The legal insecurity of tenure is quite a common problem faced by those living in the homelands of South Africa (Clark and Luwaya, 2017). These are families that have inhabited lands for a long time but are found to hold very weak land rights over this land they have occupied this, therefore, makes them prone to exploitation and dispossession (Clark and Luwaya, 2017). When it is said that the majority of South Africans are landless, it is to echo their poor socio-economic conditions also the fact that they continue to live that belongs to another person other than themselves and their insecure tenure rights, therefore, opens them to the threat from private landowners or the government (Greenberg, 2004).

In theory, the contrast of a person that is no longer landless, that has acquired land through land redistribution is a land reform beneficiary. A beneficiary according to DLA (1997), is a historically disadvantaged South Africa citizen who: a) who is legally competent to contract, b) who has successfully claimed land that was taken away or has been selected after meeting criteria set for a land redistribution programme, and c) whose name is on a farm beneficiary list at the time of land handover by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

2.2 Criteria used for Land Reform in Developing Countries

The primary reason for land reform laws in developing countries is that it is intended to decrease poverty levels by giving land rights to the poor. One could easily ask themselves but how can this be done if the efforts to disband assets inequalities in developing countries are so vague, such as the criteria used in choosing farmland reform beneficiaries in South Africa.

According to Lipton (2009), land reform can decrease poverty if its criteria are deeply rooted in prioritising marginal groups such as women, rural people, the most remote, those from scheduled tribes and the nutritionally deprived.

Customary law is prevalent in the developing world it is greatly practised in rural Africa, Latin America and Asia (FAO, 2002). It is not legally strong it is informal and is controlled by the local authority, religious values and social norms. In Latin America, the designation of land reform beneficiaries as households led to a cultural model approach where male households could easily inherit the land (FAO, 2002). The types of policies only got land given to women in seldom cases where the government would identify the woman as a beneficiary through specific government goals or programmes. Many countries prioritise women as beneficiaries of land reform but still have women as the least beneficiaries in their land reform programmes (Kleinbooi et al, 2010). Women's land rights are mostly threatened under customary systems, where deep cultural mindsets still perpetuate female landlessness. This then calls for stricter gender-neutral land laws that seek to reduce female poverty (Lipton, 2009). This argument of local taking advantage of the customary law system is also shown in the empirical evidence presented by Bruck and Schindler (2009) in rural Mozambique, where households with close relations to customary leaders have better access to land than others. Their access to land put them at a better level in terms of their food security and overall household income, female-headed households were found to be more constrained in terms of access to land. In Brazil, the importance of tenure reform gained traction because situations where tenants had a plot allocated to them on the landlord's farm, and tenants were subjected to large scale evictions were starting to get very common (Deininger, 1998). This was as a result of the threat of land reform felt by landowners, who would then resort to highly mechanised self-cultivation. This case of Brazil denotes an example of land reform that redistributes land to beneficiaries but despite that their tenure remains insecure. These are labourers who at most, even when they own part of the land cannot contribute to entrepreneurial decisions about the land. This highlights the need to take agricultural land reform beyond just the mere transfer of land but a solidified post-settlement support feature. According to Hall (2007), post-settlement support is still as important as transferring land to those who need it, it impacts on the livelihood of potential beneficiaries and offers an opportunity for them to have maximised livelihood outcomes. According to Deininger (1998), equipping beneficiaries of land redistribution with sufficient training and technical skills opens the possibility for high levels of productivity and growth.

Market-led agrarian reform proves to remain extremely stagnant in redistributing land to adequate numbers of beneficiaries as compared to conventional reform approaches in developing countries (Lahiff et al., 2007). This has been proven by studies done in South Africa, Brazil, Guatemala and the Philippines. According to Lahiff et al (2007), South Africa only transferred 4% in 10 years, Guatemala 4% in 8 years and in Brazil, a success of 10 times the number of people has benefited in expropriation type of reform. Deininger (1998) reports that in Colombia where incentives from the government to develop big agricultural enterprises were on offer, a pre-requisite was, however, for the beneficiaries to have a substantial amount of income from full-time agriculture (that equal to a minimum of 15-hectare farm). This requirement automatically puts the poor out of the pool of potential beneficiaries of this certain scheme. Such schemes have more potential of elevating the agricultural bourgeoisie more than the average rural proletariat. It, therefore, makes sense for the landless to generally resist such approaches which already gives a high degree of discretion to existing landowners, placing transfer of land to the poor on a very slow pace (Lahiff et al., 2007).

Agrarian reform even if genuine in its intentions, it is prone to incompetence and corruption from officials. Some land reforms have succeeded in impoverishing the poor and benefiting politicians. All this alluded to above is what unfolded in Zimbabwe's 2003-2008 land policies (Lipton, 2009). Contrary to popular belief in China where the pressure to have larger farms resulted in the dispossession of smaller farmers for industrial purposes, distribution of land became even more equal between 1988-1995 (Lipton, 2009). In Uganda and Namibia land is continuously being received by those who are far from poor, because they were favoured the loan and grant system (Lipton, 2009). A study by May and Roberts (2000) has shown that land reform beneficiaries were on average better off than the rural population, but failed to demonstrate whether or not this was because of improved access to land or entire land reform programmes they benefitted from. Empirical evidence pointed out that 38% of the sample of land reform beneficiaries derived income from the sale of own agricultural production and livestock.

2.3 The Impact of Access to Land on Livelihoods

From 1994 when South Africa walked into democracy, the government of South Africa had high profiled plans in land reform and fulfilling the demands for broader socio-economic redistribution across the country (Hall, 2007). This section explores the literature on agricultural land reform and its implications on livelihoods.

Generally, access to land is the primary prerequisite for improving the economic conditions of the rural poor. Secondary to this are factors such as “land quality, access to technology and strong local agricultural markets” (Bryant, 1998:182). Livelihoods in the rural areas, in many places and for many households continue to depend on small-holder agricultural production even though rural livelihoods and occupations are increasingly being diversified (Rigg, 2006). Apartheid evictions, although sometimes not forceful, came from white powerful farmers whose only motive was economic rationality (James, 2011). Indeed, thinking of land reform as only a technical and economic issue is wrong because it is also very much a political problem with socio-economic connotations. Therefore, a socio-economic profile of those who hold no land is highly instrumental in achieving the goal of improving the economic conditions of rural people. A land reform that is negligent can destroy the “agricultural ladder” (Lipton, 2009:18), where the growth of skills and capital can lead to rural people owning more farms in the future. Within the South African context, there is little agreement on core indicators of success in land reform projects. Most attention to date has been on the number of hectares transferred, and the number of beneficiaries. Little attention is paid to the livelihood benefits generated, whether in qualitative or quantitative terms (Hall, 2007). Therefore, according to Hall (2007), studies that are done on livelihoods of land redistribution beneficiaries concentrate on the following:

- Increased income.
- Increased well-being: (improved access to clean drinking water and sanitation, housing and access to fuel for cooking).
- Reduced vulnerability: access to social infrastructures like schools and clinics, increased mobility and food security.
- More sustainable use of natural resources,

Murray (1997), observed in the Free State that those who are best placed to participate in the land reform programme, were those who were literate, had adequate resources to pursue their applications, had access to telephone, transport and had a social and political network. The key findings in Quality of Life surveys by May and Roberts (2000), suggest contrary evidence with that of Murray. It found that beneficiaries of land redistribution had the worse access to infrastructure than non-beneficiaries which, taken together, “allows us to reject the hypothesis that program benefits are appropriated by non-poor or non-eligible beneficiaries” (May and Roberts, 2000:12). Almost 75% of beneficiaries fell below the poverty line and levels of participation by female-headed households were high (31% nationally).

In South Africa, about 43% of the population is said to be suffering from food poverty (Valente, 2009). A South African study by Valente (2009) found that land reform participants are still more likely to report difficulties in satisfying their food needs than those who are not participants of land reform. Through the Quality of Life survey, food security was identified as a major determinant of wellbeing for people who are affected by land reform (May and Roberts, 2000). This then makes food security an important indicator of improved livelihoods (Valente, 2009). There is therefore a need for more pro-poor and viable policy options that can practically enhance land-based livelihoods of rural people (Kepe and Cousins, 2002). Hall (2007), in a study looking at beneficiaries of land reform in different districts of the Free State, Eastern Cape and Western Cape, says that the strong pattern that emerged was that; the beneficiaries settle on land and produce staple crops, vegetables and extend their livestock for food consumption. This reflects the priorities of the beneficiaries or the kind of constraints they operated under.

Increased access to land and other natural resources by the rural poor through redistribution is needed it has the potential to contribute to a significant improvement of livelihoods of poor people and poverty reduction (Kepe and Cousins, 2002). Lack of clarity regarding who redistribution is benefiting is also a major obstacle to development.

2.4 The Context of Government Programmes for Land Reform in South Africa

To give substance to the aspirations, methods of work and sensible principles to initiatives of redressing past injustices such as land dispossession, several policies emerged. It is therefore important to analyse these pieces of legislation that South Africa has used to redress the inequality of land distribution (Buys, 2012). This is very critical to the context of landlessness as a criterion to receiving agricultural land. Because in light of promoting agricultural growth and sustainability, there are specific criteria that should be pursued to transform the South African agricultural sector and put productive land to good use (Sihlobo and Kirsten, 2018)

In 1994 the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) by the government and in-line with that they also adopted the White Paper on South African Land Policy which is used to inform the process of land reform and how it is to unfold (Buys, 2012). It came organised under three components, all with different aims and purposes: these are land restitution, land redistribution, and land tenure reform. These are the three main focus areas the South African Rural Land Reform Policy of 1997 is based on. Hall (2009:5-6) explains these as:

Restitution “provided for those who had been dispossessed of their rights to land to lodge claims either for the restoration of that land or for financial compensation”. The government implemented the law in 1994 even though they only prioritised it from the year 2003 and received an increasing budget for it together with political support. Most of the claims settled with cash compensation were urban claims more than rural ones. Only a limited number of these claims involved land being returned to people who settle on it and improve their lives. Even though high amounts of costs are involved the government does not seem to be treating restitution as a huge public investment.

Redistribution “was a provision to foster improved livelihoods and quality of life for previously disadvantaged individuals and communities through their acquiring commercial farmland”. In 2001 the Department of Land Affairs introduced the LRAD to stimulate the development of black farmers in commercial farming (Jacobs et al 2003). The policy, therefore, has two parts. One is the transfer of agricultural land to groups or individuals and the second is the commonage-based projects where people could have access to municipal land for agricultural purposes such as grazing.

Tenure reform is “seen as necessary to address what was reputedly the main problem facing the people in the former Bantustans which is insecure land rights”. The policy aimed at transferring the rights to land to those who have limited rights to the land they own, previously disadvantaged groups and labour tenants. In tenure reform, policies such as the Labour Tenants Act ensure labour tenants secure tenure and protect them from illegal evictions and abuse. In South Africa, land distribution is highly inequitable most especially across racial lines. It is therefore common knowledge that white people hold more agricultural land more than black people, causing the white commercial sector to generate the most export revenue in agriculture (Sihlobo and Kirsten, 2018). As a result of this, the government has adopted efforts in policy and trade to reconcile equally in as far as land is concerned for inclusive economic development. The following presentation will therefore look at specific policy approaches that have been used in redress efforts by the South African government.

2.5 Comparative analysis of criteria used in Land and Agrarian Reform Development (LRAD), Settlement/ Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) and Pro-Active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS)

Through looking into different policies, the main aim carried through this review will be to interrogate if the beneficiary criteria being used by LRAD, SLAG and PLAS ensures equitable

access and tenure security to both the landless and near landless. It is widely acknowledged that policies that facilitate access to land can reduce poverty and income inequality. Internationally, studies have demonstrated that the impact of land redistribution on incomes, quality of life and livelihoods may take some years (Hall, 2007). The approach is then to investigate the nature of the criteria in three of these policy frameworks and how they have affected the beneficiaries' livelihoods so that the empirical study can recommend solutions to address these at the end.

In terms of the White Paper on South African Land Policy, the SLAG was made for households with monthly incomes below R1,500, this came in a manner of a grant enabling them to buy land settle on it (Kepe and Hall, 2016). Through this approach, by 1999, only less than 1% of commercial agricultural land had been given to black farmers. The common problem in as far as criteria is concerned included the formation of artificial groups, where members of a group would not entirely be poor people. This would lead to conflict stemming from power differences and general group dynamics.

In 2001 the LRAD was introduced all in the name of creating a new class of black commercial farmers (Kepe and Hall, 2016; Karriem and Hoskins, 2016). As a result, phrases such as “productivity measured in terms of market participation” (Walker, 2016:19); became a norm and government was willing to invest in aspirant farmers. While SLAG was based on elevating poor people who lived under the poverty line, according to Walker (2016) LRAD was more biased towards those who were able to afford additional funding on their own therefore the poor did not benefit out of it as a programme. This has therefore made LRAD prone to elite capture. It is therefore important for targeted financial assistance and skills training to explicitly target the poor so that the positive impact of the programme still work towards poverty alleviation not just graduating farmers into commercial farming.

The Proactive Land Acquisition Grant initially came in to complement LRAD and later replacing it in 2011 (Kepe and Hall, 2016). The land is acquired by the state in PLAS and leased to beneficiaries (Binswanger-Mkhize, 2014). According to Kepe and Hall (2016), clarity on who is eligible to receive land under PLAS is very vague; however, what is clear is the prioritisation of those who own resources to continue commercial farming operations. This eligibility highlights the fact that PLAS as an approach is not pro-poor and is not invested in improving the wellbeing of those who live under poverty. Binswanger-Mkhize (2014) reports that prioritisation of those who own resources under PLAS might be owing to two reasons (1) poor beneficiaries of land reform are only interested in accessing land and not full ownership

necessarily; (2) better-resourced beneficiaries will improve their farms continuously, to finally be granted a longer lease and therefore full ownership.

Chapter Summary

The literature review focused on locating landlessness into the context of South Africa post-1994, taking into consideration the priorities of key policy documents such as Chapter 6 of the National Development Plan. Key definitions that the thesis will be using in its operationalisation were also discussed. Attention was paid to criteria used in land reform in developing countries generally, after that narrowing the review down to major policy used in South African land redistribution such as LRAD, SLAG and PLAS. The review of these showed both the strengths and weaknesses of these programs and why there's a need for better frameworks that will ensure equitable access to land for the landless.



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CHAPTER THREE

3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The study uses the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, it was chosen because its elements can help analyse the impact of land redistribution on the livelihoods of those who have benefited from different land redistribution programmes. Through the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) it is possible to evaluate if indeed the South African land redistribution can achieve its primary goal of poverty alleviation. It allows us to pin-point parts of livelihoods of the landless that may need careful attention, for instance, whether the problem is their dire vulnerability to shocks or perhaps institutionalisation (policy and laws). To discern the complex and varied processes through which livelihoods are constructed, it would be insufficient to only analyse the different aspects in the SLF such as capabilities and different types of assets (Krantz, 2001); rather, the framework is even more impactful when one includes the institutional processes and organizational structures that join the different aspects together (Scoones, 1998).

The SLF allows for application at different scales ranging from the individual and household to groups, regions and nations. Livelihoods are fully dependent on their ability to maintain their capabilities and assets (Scoones, 1998). For instance, those who live in rural areas focus on land-based livelihood strategies involving livestock and crop production. Khan et al (1987) provide evidence that indeed the rural poor include the landless and near landless. In the context of this thesis, the landless are farm workers who hold the skill of being able to work the land and are wage labourers. And on the other hand, the near landless are smallholder farmers with physical capital such as livestock and run quite viable farming businesses but have no title deeds or sufficient land to farm on. According to Cernea (1985), when the poor are not prioritised in poverty alleviation projects, development incompatibilities are likely to occur. This calls for a reflection on how much sustainable livelihoods is necessary to attain sustainable development. Furthermore, it also brings to the fore the fact that there need to interrogate how much of land reform is reform when evictions continue to take place and the ranks of landlessness increase (Attfield et al, 2004). It is, therefore, important to determine which parts of land redistribution enhance tenure security and reduce landlessness among the poor, evaluate

what criteria are used to determine who receives land or how receiving land improves livelihoods.

3.2 Traces of Landlessness in Development Theory

A very traditional and common feature of the rural poor is that they are landless, highly dependent on wage income, and are agricultural tenants and small owner cultivators. Therefore, people in rural areas are entitled to jobs and wages concerning agricultural land, because in some countries the non-agricultural sectors fail to absorb the continuously increasing labour force (Khan et al, 1987). A study done in the Philippines shows that poverty for self-employed landless farmers is to some degree as severe as it is in households headed by farm wage earners; the indicator used is the average income shortfall (Balisacan, 1993). According to Khan et al (1987), the 1950s and 60s saw a huge boost in industry investment instead of agriculture this was a wrong logic because a successful agricultural sector complements industry. For instance, a high production supply of food and raw materials and low costs makes the process of industrialisation easy.

Landlessness had also worsened since the earlier years by the capitalist mode of production Shrestha (2019) says capitalism broke down feudalism. At least in feudal systems landlords allowed their serf to possess farmland for themselves on an agreement that they will pay in hours of unpaid work or in-kind through crops they produce every year, therefore, surplus appropriation by the ruling class was openly discussed (Slaughter, 1985). On the other hand, capitalist systems could never exist if it had not reduced the labour force to something even lower which is wage workers (Slaughter, 1985). Capitalism posits large scale farming as more efficient, basically promoting capital accumulation and placing high returns in the hands of a small number of rich farmers and the rest left to fend through earning low wages. Furthermore, its impacts extend to the markets, the rapid growth of commercial markets prohibits economic security in the livelihoods of a peasant, but they rebel (Jenkins, 1982). The legacy of the landless also worsened when conservatives such as Margaret Thatcher influenced that land reform is removed from the international agenda, which led to the neglecting of property rights, especially for the rural poor (Bryant, 1998). Gradually, when this changed, the IMF and World Bank introduced structural adjustment programmes in the 1980s, advocating for free trade and invitation of low-income countries to embrace liberalization (Mazibuko, 2013). Some indication of economic growth took place as a result of this, but these weren't filtering down to the rural poor (Mazibuko, 2013). According to Lipton and Ahmed (1997), some adjustment measures have had a negative impact on access to assets, farming inputs and they also change

institutional arrangements. To be more specific, the impacts of structural adjustment programmes also relate to the pricing and distribution of fertilisers (Lipton and Ahmed, 1997) which badly impacted already struggling rural farming households.

Owing to capitalism, the land is transformed into an alienating commodity; it is purchased at the market as it is no longer just a social right and the commons now have landowners (Jenkins, 1982). Dalton (2012) says the only way out of this monopoly owning land has been turned into is constitutional reform, which should be entrenched in property rights and socio-economic rights. Provided that there's no singular way of looking at the phenomenon of landlessness because of its multi-dimensional nature, Jenkins (1982) divides popular narratives about it into structural theory and historical theory. The structural theory says the struggles of the landless are firmly embedded within the class system where there are visible conflict of interest, very minimal competition and weak patronage ties, the most rebellious of landless being smallholder tenants and sharecroppers (Jenkins, 1982). On the other hand, historical theory identifies the rebellious landless as middle peasants whose economic insecurity is caused by commercialization, are fighting for collective land rights and being able to secure some land for subsistence farming. Both theories acknowledge how alienating de-institutionalisation worsens the livelihoods of landless farmers; it limits their activity in the markets and therefore undermines their ability to graduate from rural poverty. The most striking similarity between the two is that it recognises the agency of the landless peasants which they exercise through self-organisation no matter the weak patronage ties that they are presumptuously expected to have.

In response to the down-time on landlessness studies and experiences, overall experiences of their livelihoods, Cornell University in the 1970s started researching documents the existence of the landless in the developing world, specifically in Latin America and Asia (Bryant, 1998). This provided growth in empirical studies and literature about the landless not just theorisations of their livelihoods but also their reaction to the struggles they face. Lessons from the Landless Rural Worker's Movement of Brazil rose in this era, especially how they challenged those structures of power that only benefits the affluent in society (Robles, 2000; Karriem, 2005; Karriem, 2009a, 2009b). The Neo-Marxist school of thought was then seen as a useful theoretical tool to analyse landlessness because it provided broad historical view on capitalism, therefore the theory has been beneficial in understanding contemporary peasant movements (Robles, 2000).

3.3 The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework and its Tenets

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required to make a living and cope with shocks and stresses (Chamber and Conway, 1992). The United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID) also largely uses similar keywords in their attempt to define exactly what the sustainable livelihood is, “a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living” (DFID, 1999). According to Krantz (2001:11), it enables one to identify interventions that are “strategically important”. What sets this approach apart is the emphasis of the word sustainability. De Haan and Zoomers (2005:31) define sustainability through the elements of “long term flexibility and ecological soundness”. It is the assets (natural, physical, human, financial and social capital) that people possess which enable them to participate in activities that will assist them to generate income for their survival (Ellis, 2000). It’s also important to make sure they are well preserved and conserved. Households of the rural poor and more especially the landless have very varied livelihood profiles, which are often not easily and neatly defined. They use a cocktail of these different types of assets to conjure a livelihood that is equivalent to a sustainable one. Their livelihoods of the landless are ruled by the dominant capitalist economy, but they also assume a survival mechanism that relies on multiple income sources to make a living.

Land-based livelihood strategies are more important than they are usually recognised, especially for subsistence purposes and mostly as part of the rural safety net. According to Dovie (2001 in Shackelton et al, 2001), after looking at all income and direct-use values that were assessed (incomes and remittances, cropping, livestock and natural resources) found that land-based activities account for 57.5 % of the total annual value in a household. In rural areas, the entitlement to wages and jobs rests upon whether one has access to agricultural land or not, most especially when non-agricultural sectors struggle to absorb a big proportion of the labour force. Therefore, land redistribution should work towards empowerment of the different groups of landless people, most importantly smallholders and farm workers offering them sufficient support to ensure they are productive. It will benefit the landless, additionally giving the land to smallholders could become a major injection into South African economic growth. Most especially, smallholders, who have the skills and farming ability to build a sustainable farming business. The framework is relevant in the analysis of livelihoods of the poor whether in rural or urban settings; its many elements create an opportunity to check on whether livelihoods are secure or insecure. Chambers (1988) says that livelihood security means a livelihood where

one has secure ownership and access to resources (assets), that can generate income, and has savings to use in times of shock. For example, food security serves as an objective of livelihood security (Maxwell and Smith, 1995) as well as wellbeing.

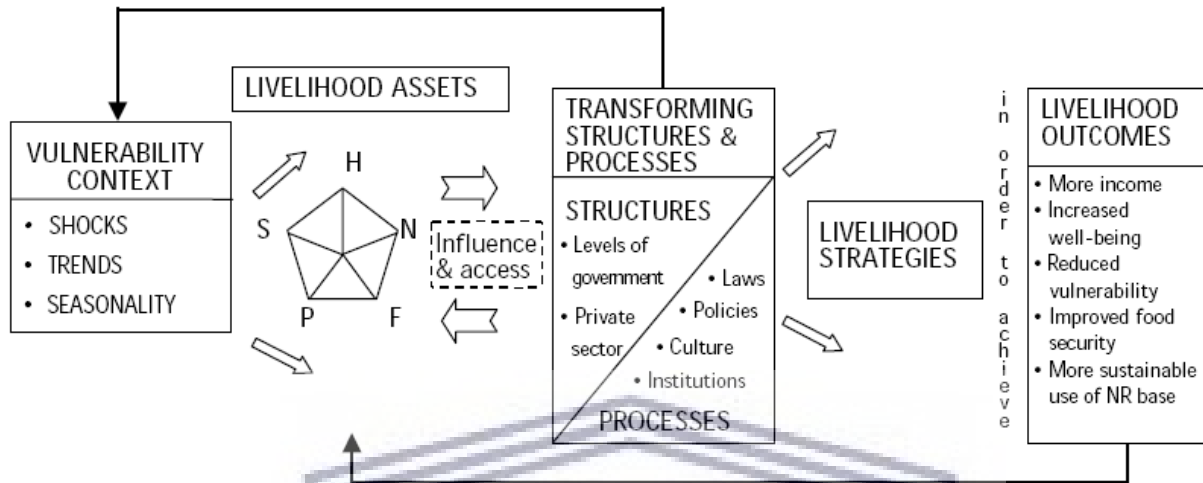


Figure 3.2.1: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

Source: DFID (1999)

Figure 3.2.1 above is an illustration of The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, its different elements and their interrelatedness. These are namely 1. vulnerability context, 2. various assets people are assumed to have, 3. transforming structures and processes, 4. then the different livelihood outcomes that are a result of 5. the livelihood strategies people engage in (DFID 2000). According to Scoones (1998), there's a need to discuss in-depth the five elements mentioned above to properly understand the SLF.

Serrat (2017:23) defines vulnerability as “characterised as insecurity in the well-being of individuals, households, and communities in the face of changes in their external environment”. Through the movement of people in and out poverty, it is possible to measure and study the process of change which they go through. Krantz (2001), on the other hand, looks at vulnerability in terms of the physical environment and explains it as a period when people face environmental factors that could be harmful to them and their physical environments, thus threatening their livelihoods and sustainability. Their state of vulnerability is further dissipated by inadequate capacities and capabilities to respond to these factors (DFID, 1999). There are three aspects of the vulnerability context that have a direct impact on people's lives and options available to them, namely; shocks, trends and seasonality (FAO, 2000). The SLF initiates from the proposition that people's livelihood strategies need tangible/intangible assets to survive and

achieve the pre-determined goals they are meant to become (Scoones, 1998). Another way of looking at assets in their different forms is that there are factors that can constrain or enhance livelihood opportunities (Serrat, 2017).

The SLF identifies five types of assets (capitals) that can be used to evaluate livelihood outcomes: human, social, natural, physical and financial capitals. Human capital is an attribute within human beings that help one to become productive and therefore increase the quality of life. Examples of this are skills, knowledge, ability to work and good health. The availability of these enables people to pursue different livelihood strategies to achieve their life goals. Social capital refers to social resources that can be used by people to achieve sustainable livelihood outcomes. These could be institutions that exist within the society like families, communities and cooperatives, also networks, norms and linkages whether – formal or informal – which people can use to achieve their desired livelihood outcomes. Natural capital is the ecological resources and processes that help enhance livelihood outcomes. For instance, soil and land to farm on represent natural capital. This also includes air and biodiversity as well as water and trees. Physical capital represents physical assets, infrastructure and goods that improve people's functioning. Examples are roads, affordable transport, access to information, shelter, water supply, machinery and tools for agricultural societies. Finally, financial capital allows for trading, ownership and exchange of other forms of capital mentioned above. It is characterised by the regular flow of money which could be in the form of credit or savings.

In light of the two sections that have been discussed above (vulnerability context and capital assets); it is important to note that livelihood strategies and outcomes are not just dependent on these two elements, they are also transformed by the environment of structures and processes around them (Serrat, 2017). Structures, according to Scoones (1998), can be formal or informal, have different kinds of power relations at play within them and the ability to be reshaped over time, and hence are not fixed. Serrat (2017:5) explains structures as “public or private sector organizations that set and implement policy and legislation, deliver services; and purchase, trade, and perform all manner of other functions that affect livelihoods”. They are mainstream makers of rules and regulations that set rules on the behaviour of people, which have an impact on their livelihoods (FAO, 2000). On the other hand, “processes embrace the laws, regulations, policies, operational arrangement, societal norms and practices that in turn determine how structures operate” (Serrat, 2017:5). They are a stimulant for people to make better choices for their lives and they enable the transformation of one capital into another through markets. According to Serrat (2017), poor and vulnerable people are sometimes faced with processes

which systematically restrict their lives; hence the government needs to adopt pro-poor policies which can be filtered down to legislation. Structures and processes have an immense impact on livelihoods, most especially in terms of their influence in decision-making processes and access to resources. However, it is important to note that the same structures and processes can restrict people's choice when it comes to choosing livelihood strategies. Regulations also influence how certain livelihood strategies are viewed and how much people are attracted to them mostly based on the monetary rate of returns and benefits they bring into their lives and households (DFID, 1999).

Livelihood strategies are a variety of activities people do to achieve the livelihood goals they pursue (DFID, 1999). The livelihood strategies people achieve depend on the coping mechanisms individuals adapt; they also differ from one person to the next hence multiple livelihood strategies can exist within one household. It is critical to take note that livelihood strategies can be analysed at different scales: individual, household, village, regional and national level. Furthermore, livelihood strategies are not fixed, they react to threats and adapt; people's capabilities also change their livelihood strategies and increase the opportunities they are exposed to (DFID 1999). The three broad clusters of livelihood strategies are agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification, and migration. The three options can simply be used to define the livelihood strategies pursued by rural people who live in agricultural settings. Intensification accounts for those who gain a livelihood through increased labour or capital investment. Extensification is explained by gaining a livelihood by maximising the amount of land one cultivates. Lastly, diversification is characterised by a livelihood financed through a mixture of off-farm activities. Many people in diversification also often migrate from the farm to seek a livelihood somewhere sometimes permanently or temporarily. Livelihood strategies do not exist without different types of capital. For instance, for agricultural intensification to be successful one may use natural capital (land), social capital (networks on land) and economic capital (credit). Different capitals, therefore, are resources that determine one's livelihood strategies (Scoones, 1998).

DFID (1999:4) explains Livelihood outcomes as "the achievements or outputs of livelihood strategies, such as more income, increased well-being, reduce vulnerability, improved food security and a more sustainable use of natural resources". To clarify, livelihood outcomes are the results that come out after livelihood strategies are pursued. It is important to consider why a particular group chooses certain livelihood outcomes and what they are trying to achieve. For example, rural people's livelihood outcomes can be reduced vulnerability, more income, and

improved food security (DFID, 1999). Serrat (2017:24) adds to this list of rural people's livelihoods things like; "more sustainable use of the natural resource base and recovered human dignity" and says at times these may conflict. Looking at livelihood outcomes gives a chance to be able to dissect which strategies reward which outcomes and how. One also gets to see every active stakeholder in carrying out a strategy and therefore the output. Outcomes are directly affected by different types of assets, which can produce new and better strategies and increased outcomes. During the analysis of outcomes, it is essential to identify those assets that have a better chance of improving an individual's outcomes.

3.4 Conceptual Synthesis: Sustainable Livelihoods Framework and Landlessness

The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework helps consider phenomenon and recognise the patterns that exist within it. For instance, the framework recognises the fact that people have capabilities, different assets, and take part in various activities to earn a living (Mazibuko, 2013). For the landlessness, in particular, there is a need for a theoretical enquiry that will put issues of landlessness and near landlessness in political economy debates (Shrestha, 2019). This is because, even though issues of landlessness have been highlighted as important developmental issues, there are still very few empirical studies that offer a clear-cut theoretical framework to scan it (Shrestha, 2019). Compiling a conceptual framework that looks through landlessness within the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework provides an opportunity to look at landlessness with physical, social and institutional availability of land. Simply put, the political economy of landlessness is a lens to people and land relations, and everything in between them.

Landlessness in agrarian society is a matter of land scarcity which can be explained in two ways, namely, relative and absolute scarcity according to Shrestha (2019). Firstly, relative scarcity happens when one group of society has monopolised ownership of land and absolute scarcity occurs when there's just not enough land naturally. For example, in South Africa, a phenomenon of relative land scarcity has played out where farmland remains in the hands of the white minority as opposed to the black majority. Shrestha (2019:np) calls this phenomenon social monopolising of land where "a privileged minority, invariably under the tutelage of the state controls large amounts of land whereas the majority has little or none". Chambers (1999) identifies keywords such as wellbeing, livelihood security, capability, equality and sustainability to be very critical in development thinking. Some of these can directly or indirectly be linked to the stance taken by classical theory such as Marxism on landlessness. The Marxist perspective on landlessness takes the same route taken by capitalist development, it says that land is treated as a commodity and, when combined, results in very large estates

(Slaughter, 1985). According to Slaughter (1985), smallholding is a phase in agriculture that happens when a smallholder transitions into bigger and a capitalist mode of production. There are different patterns within smallholding, some offering full ownership and some lease-ship. The Capabilities Theory argues that ownership of resources such as land gives access to certain socio-economic opportunities (Sen, 1981). Furthermore, according to Sen (1981), it is more than just the physical availability of land that improves people’s livelihoods, full entitlement/ownership of it matters.

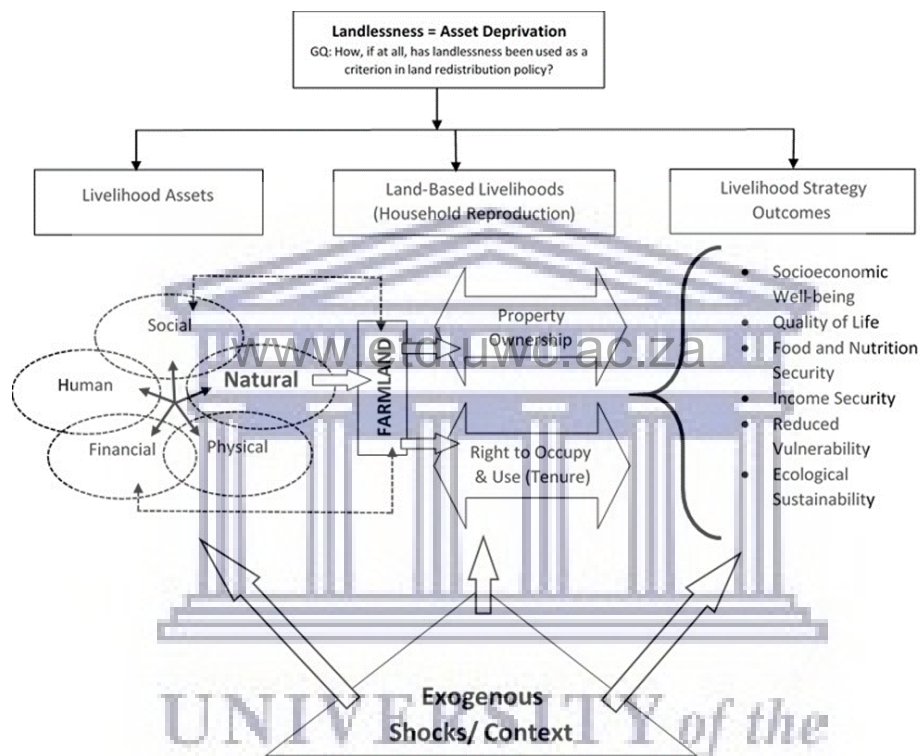


Figure: 3.4.1 Conceptual Framework to Landlessness

Source: Author’s own compilation

Figure 3.4.1 above shows conceptualisation of landlessness borrowing from the tenets of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. It has been developed that the Marxist and the Capabilities perspectives give a sound theoretical basis for analysing landlessness, we can marry contributions from the two and have a conceptual framework to analyse landlessness. When landless people have access to assets, they can use them to lead land-based livelihoods which can improve their livelihood outcomes. This process considers also the vulnerabilities land-based livelihoods encounter as well as the structures, processes and institutions that determine the relationship of landless people with the land, these determine whether they can hold land or not. The implications of these show in the characteristics of livelihood strategies they pursue, differing, for example, from one tenure arrangement to the other. It is important

that a framework understanding poverty in terms of assets also incorporates an analysis of the economic, social and political relationships. Generally, the landless are characterised by a low level of livelihood assets (Ellis & Freeman, 2004). Groups of landless use different types of capitals that they have access to and control over to create livelihoods for themselves.

The production plays a very big role in land-based rural livelihood strategies (Matshe, 2009); however, smallholder production needs a variety of capital stock for farming households to achieve their livelihood outcomes. Natural capital such as land and water are of ultimate importance for landless people. According to Deere, et al. (2012), one of the main means of generating income is through ownership of physical assets. A study in a Cape West Coast region – where 80% of the sample was made up of farm workers and small resource-poor farmers – reveals that the livelihoods status of households and their ability to withstand shocks that affect their wellbeing is dictated by their control over assets (Jacobs & Makaudze, 2012). Looking at assets held by the rural household can help detect the extent of their vulnerability to poverty (Deere, et al., 2012). Also taking into consideration their expenditure and consumption, households of the landless rely heavily on farm wages and social grants (Jacobs and Makaudze, 2012). Therefore, it makes sense that criteria for who qualifies for land redistribution goes a level deeper and embraces an asset-based approach. Evidence provided by Lipton (1985) points out that even though the poor may have primary education that is generally low, they often have physical assets such as small-stock and sometimes milk cattle, the only other asset they lack is land. More evidence from Jacobs and Makaudze (2012) shows that even though agricultural households are heavily dependent on social grants and wages, even without land a big proportion of them still practice farming. It is evident that with the little assets they hold, households of the landless are still able to withstand shocks and maintain their livelihoods, and still run viable enough small farming businesses. This, therefore, makes for a strong case to provide them with the land. Furthermore, for landless farmers to develop competitive small farming business, they need to be beneficiaries of a land redistribution programme that offers sufficient agricultural support until the farmer can stand on their own. Absence of full ownership of the farms (title deeds) they occupy also negatively impacts their ability to have collateral when applying for credit, thus making their chances of accessing financial support even less. According to Bryant (1998:187), their inaccessibility to get collateral mostly affects “the ability to obtain the technical inputs they need to increase productivity”. This may be an illustration of how non-access to one form of capital can affect the ability to get the next. Social capital such as district farmer associations and auction

networks help farmers to socialize with those from the area in the same type of business as them. Being part of these networks makes it easy for landless farmers to have the ability to buy and sell at provincial livestock auctions in absence of other forms of markets, hence helping them earn some type of financial capital. Moreover, belonging to these networks also allows for the exchange of ideas and advice from other like-minded landless smallholders, which adds to their human capital. In building an argument to show why peasants rebel, Jenkins (1982) says that being a landowner sure does leave one's privileges intact. The privileges that come with being a landowner include the ability to rationalize with the courts, participate in the market economy and be guarded by administrative bureaucracy (Jenkins, 1982). This is very telling of how institutionalization seems to be an obstacle to the upward mobility of landless farmers, them being out of the system means they cannot enjoy the same benefits as the landed. When it comes farm workers, in their poorest and under-privileged form, they are hardly ever able to part-take in social groups such as unions, youth organizations and the likes such the ones their urban counterparts are in (James, 2002). These types of groups serve as an important element of support and power in dealing with issues faced at work or at home, absence of these on farms makes farm workers very socially under-resourced (James, 2002). Their main connection to society is derived from the work that they do, much of it fully dependent of the farmer (employer) according to Hall and Williams (2001), especially for work and a place to live. Despite the passing of the Extension of Security of Tenure Act of 1997, farm workers have weak tenure rights and therefore experience widespread evictions.

Exogenous shocks in this framework represent external risks that stand to affect the landless, these risks are multi-dimensional and not equally distributed amongst the rural population (Lazarke-Hoyle, 2017). Most of the worlds hungry live in rural areas and depend on the consumption and sale of natural products for both their income and food. 50% of the worlds hungry are smallholder farmers, 20% are landless rural, 20% are pastoralists, fishers and forest-dependent and 20% are the urban poor (FAO, 2017). Lack of land ownership rights for the poor is a big vulnerability driver because it limits their access to financial opportunities. Also, a big proportion of the rural population are wage workers in the agricultural sector, living arrangements such as labour tenancy open them up to insecure terms of tenure and endlessly farm evictions. Moreover, according to Lazarke-Hoyle (2017), lack of collective bargaining (freedom to exercise the right of association) makes the rural landless susceptible to less decent work, low wages and long working hours. Agricultural work has proven to be highly seasonal. A study by Rudra and Biswas (1973) shows that seasonality of the main crop being farmed

highly determines the seasonal pattern of labour too. The near landless, on other hand, who own assets such as livestock stand a chance of experiencing stock theft because their livestock grazes in outbound places with not enough security because they do not have enough land.

None of the forms of capital can single-handedly provide sufficient livelihood outcomes to the landless rural people. They are all required together with supportive policies, institutions and processes so that they can be subsequently transformed into sustainable livelihoods (Mubangizi, 2003). Sustainable Livelihoods Framework scholars such as Chambers and Conway (1992) and Scoones (1998) have revealed that indeed livelihood strategies of the rural poor are mixed; this includes things such as farm labour (seasonal and non-seasonal), migration labour that results in remitting and many other types on non-farm labour. Furthermore, the fate of the livelihoods they choose for themselves is shaped and regulated by institutions and structures. In a study showing that the landless rural dwellers pursue varied livelihood options, Nepali and Pyakuryal (2011) find that 66.66% of the sample collected in rural India reported farming as their main livelihood activity. Furthermore, they enhance their farm wage and food supply with what they make from sharecropping, land mortgage and other non-farm activities such as carpentry, road construction and owning small shops (Nepali and Pyakuryal 2011). In a South African study, Jacobs and Makaudze (2012) found that in the Cape West Coast region, 60% of the sampled households said that they earn wages as a primary source of income, 12% stated their income normally comes from irregular, mostly non-agricultural jobs. Farming for business might not play a significant role in this story, but it had proven that it is however important for their food security (Jacobs and Mkaudze, 2012).

In agrarian societies, “land is central to income and livelihoods (Pykuryal and Upreti, 2011: 126). When people have low income, they are normally dependent on wages and have a lack of livelihood opportunities (Pykuryal and Upreti, 2011). Landless people’s lack of income prevents them from taking part in political and social processes. Landlessness, therefore, generates both economic and social deprivation. The conceptual framework on landlessness constructed by the study suggests that there is inequality in the ownership of most assets within farming communities. This, therefore, calls for a need to refine our knowledge of the differences in asset ownership amongst those who hold title deeds and those who don’t. This also creates a platform to learn about those who are trapped in poverty and why. According to Deere et al (2012), asset-based frameworks improve knowledge of poverty traps, mobility and larger structural poverty. Evidence in Deere et al (2012) points to fact that more than income, asset measurements constitute stock and from this one stands a better chance of learning about

how the poor manage their vulnerability. Learning about assets of the landless will also show those who have the potential of upward mobility too especially if we identify assets that are important in farm-based livelihoods.

Chapter Summary

This chapter showed that upward mobility of the landless people cannot happen without consideration of assets they have access to that they can use to graduate out of poverty, which is the main objective of the South African land reform programme. Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is not to be used as a checkbox; it is more useful when the context of the case study is applied to elements of the framework that should move beyond simple participatory paradigms. Moreover, in the context of this, the conceptual framework introduced by the chapter would be very beneficial to adopt in the process of land redistribution especially when working with landless people.



CHAPTER FOUR

4 METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides detail on how the study was designed and conducted. It will give a detailed overview of the study area also explaining and justifying the research approach and tools chosen. This will be followed by a discussion on how the adopted mixed methods approach was able to address the relevant questions and objectives of the study.

4.1 Research Design

This research will adopt a mixed study approach (both qualitative and quantitative methods). According to de Vos et al (2011) even though qualitative and quantitative approaches differ, they are not mutually exclusive, researchers often mix elements from both approaches for one study. According to Bryman (2006), multi-strategy research as mixed methods are sometimes called, provide researchers with an abundance of data that creates an opportunity to give them findings they had not intended to get. Salelowski (2000:1) says “researchers increasingly have used mixed-method techniques to expand the scope of and deepen their insights from, their studies”. Furthermore, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in a study creates a sturdy analysis this is because such an approach allows for the strengths of each method to come into play (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2010). Mixed method studies allow for a combination of methods and procedures so that the researcher can end up with a more complete picture of the problem being researched (de Vos et al, 2011). The usage of mixed methods in this study allows for engagements on landlessness with implementers of land redistribution. Furthermore, it creates a platform to interrogate livelihood profiles of the rural landless.

Mixed methods can be operationalised at three different levels namely at sampling level, data collection and data analysis (Salelowski, 2000). This study has therefore used mixed methodologies at all three. Regardless of the research design one chooses for their study, the researcher is to always strive to collect quantitative and qualitative data using research instruments such as questionnaires, observations, documents or even secondary data (Bhattacharjee, 2012). However, researchers that use mixed methods often have important decisions to make that are twofold; firstly it's the time at which one each method is to be mixed and then secondly is the importance given to each of the used methods (Creswell 2007). The design of this mixed-method study is sequential. The qualitative interviews with government officials have taken place before the quantitative survey with smallholder farmers and farm

workers. This pattern is sufficed because the researcher depended on government officials to point her to smallholders and farm workers to include in her survey. De Vos et al (2011) define a sequential design as one where the qualitative and quantitative components of the research are implemented one after the other, to signify the latter phase being dependent on the former.

4.2 Study Area

This research study was conducted in the Fezile Dabi District Municipality, Free State Province. The Free State province is situated between two important rivers in South Africa, namely, the Orange and Vaal Rivers. However, the Vaal River mostly acts as an important domestic, industrial and agricultural water source for people of Fezile Dabi District because it is an administrative body of this district municipality and province (Sebeho, 2015).

Fezile Dabi District Municipality being chosen as a study area in this research is owing to reasons that the district is found in a province within which agriculture has always been a huge sector of its economic climate, contributing 14% to the total agricultural sector of South Africa; hence the term the breadbasket of the country (Palmer and Ainslie, 2015). When Bureau for Food and Agricultural Policy (2013) analysed the land audit it found that although the slow pace of land reform in South Africa is widely acknowledged, it proved to be even slower in the Free State. Fezile Dabi district is known for producing mainly maize, red meat, sorghum, sunflower and dairy, but the area is generally not as widely researched as other districts such as Thabo Mofutsanyane District in land reform subject matters. Therefore, this empirical research will help in terms of providing evidence for massive underdevelopment and the slow pace of land reform in the Free State. It closes a gap which exists on whether those who have benefited from land reform are what the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa regards as landless. This will help understand how land redistribution beneficiaries are qualified and if they are indeed selected in a standardized way.

Furthermore, it is important to note that Fezile Dabi District Municipality was chosen as a study area because of its proximity to the researcher. The researcher's home is based in this part of the province therefore costs related to the research have been put to a minimum because of this fact.

4.3 Sampling Methods

When choosing a sample; one needs to be cognizant of factors such as time and money but equally put in an effort to deliver better quality research study (de Vos et al, 2011). According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:175) sampling is “the use of a subset or sample of the population

in such a way that their description accurately portrays the parameters of the total population from which the elements were selected”. de Vos et al (2011) explains sampling as taking a portion or a smaller number of units of a population as representative or having characteristics of that total population.

4.3.1 Qualitative Sampling

For the qualitative component, the study had used purposive sampling. Purposive sampling is strong because it enables the researcher to interview those he/she believes will give them the exact type of information they are looking for. The sample chosen normally has characteristics and certain attributes that will serve in the best interest of the study (Neuman, 2014). Ten government officials were chosen to take part in key informant interviews for the study.

Table 4.3.1: Key Informant Interview Sampling

Target Sample	Key Informant Interviews	Government Department
1.	Project Officer: Farmer Support	DAFF
2.	Agricultural Advisor (Metsimaholo Local Municipality)	DAFF
3.	Agricultural Extension Officer (Mafube Local Municipality)	DAFF
4.	Senior Project Officer (Land Transfer)	DRDLR
5.	Project Officer (Land Tenure)	DRDLR
6.	District Agricultural Advisor (Food Security)	DAFF
7.	Agricultural Extension Officer (Moqhaka Local Municipality)	DAFF
8.	Municipal Manager (Ngwathe Local Municipality)	DAFF
9.	Chief Director (Farmer Support)	DAFF
10.	Deputy Director (Extension Services)	DAFF

Researcher’s own compilation

The target sample was ten, the researcher got to interview eight officials. The two interviews that could not be done were one with the Chief Director and Deputy Director. Even though

appointments were secured for interviews, the directors had a big departmental meeting to attend in Bloemfontein hence the interviews could not be done. Efforts to try and secure telephonic interviews with these two officials also proved to be a futile exercise.

4.3.2 Quantitative Sampling

Henry (1990:17) defined non-probability sampling as, “a collection of sampling approaches that have the distinguishing characteristic that subjective judgements play a role in the selection on the sample”, examples of non-probability, sampling quota, snowball, purposive and convenience sampling. The quantitative part of this study used purposive sampling, which according to Neuman (2014) is used to choose cases that will be informative to the study. In this case, smallholder farmers and farm workers within Fezile Dabi District Municipality were chosen. The study acknowledges that in the definition of landless it utilizes and identify landless people in twofold: 1. the absence of property rights (title deed); and 2. absence of use rights of a designated piece of land (insecure tenure rights). Those who fall under these two categories are those who are “supposedly” beneficiaries of land redistribution, these are smallholder farmers and farm workers. By collecting data from these two groups the study can determine if landlessness has been used as a criterion to qualify people as beneficiaries of land redistribution and how this contributed to the livelihood perspectives of those who have benefited from it.

A study done by Sebeho (2015) confirmed 995 active farmers in Fezile Dabi District Municipality this number includes both smallholders and commercial farmers. For this study, the researcher decided to go with the assumption that 499 of these are smallholders while 494 are commercial. The final decision was therefore to sample 100 of the assumed 499 smallholders and 100 farm workers.

Table 4.3.2: Survey Sampling

SAMPLE	SMALLHOLDERS\ EMERGING FARMERS	FARM WORKERS	TOTAL
Target Sample	100	100	200
Realised Sample	89	76	165

Researcher’s own compilation

The unit of analysis for the study is individual, therefore there were 165 participants collected from in the survey.

4.4 Data Collection Methods

Qualitative Interviews

The study has used a qualitative research approach to have a clear overview of the extent to which landless people benefiting from the land redistribution programmes and to determine what criteria were followed to qualify them. Qualitative research is a process which relies on interpretive data, where themes and the coherent pattern is used to understand social issues (Neuman, 2014). According to de Vos et al (2011), a qualitative researcher is more concerned with understanding and subjective from an insider. The qualitative element of the study comprises of open-ended questions in the form of in-depth qualitative key informant interviews with government officials from the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries and also officials from the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. For analysis, categories were easy to identify as the questions on the questionnaire were categorically ordered.

Creswell et al (2006) have engaged the critique that qualitative research is always treated as secondary in mixed-method studies, they argue bringing qualitative and quantitative information together enhances and extends logic in the social world. Bringing in the qualitative data collection method in this study was highly necessary as it serves a certain purpose and puts information on what could have been two research projects together to understand each figment of the research. Braun and Clark (2013) have observed that qualitative data research creates data that may be narrow, but it is also rich. They are also of the view that qualitative data does not just seek to follow set patterns but can also accommodate individual stories and perspectives. The researcher has interviewed key informants who are involved in the implementation of the land redistribution process at different stages and different departments. Key informants ranged from those who choose beneficiaries in land redistribution projects, extension officers who work closely with smallholder farmers, to officials who work in agricultural support programmes and lastly those concerned with tenure rights of farm workers.

4.4.1 Surveys

Quantitative research approaches were used to understand who the landless are, the present land redistribution beneficiaries as well as livelihood strategies they are involved in. Quantitative research refers to a research process that relies on mostly positivist approach, using variables, measurement and statistical relationships to find out phenomena (Neuman,

2014). One of the main critiques of using only quantitative methods is the fact that statistics alone cannot explain the existence of a phenomenon. According to de Vos et al (2011:144), quantitative approaches “include experiments, surveys and content analysis”. This study has used a survey with close-ended questions to collect information from smallholder farmers and farm workers.

Using a qualitative method alongside a quantitative one allows for a robust analysis (Ivankova et al 2006). However, the issue of priority of data collection and analysis in mixed-method studies is very crucial. It refers to which approach (or both) a researcher gives more weight to through the process of data collection and analysis (Ivankova et al 2006). In this study, more priority was placed on the quantitative method even though it came in the second phase of the research sequence. This decision was influenced by the fact that the main aim of the study which is to determine how landlessness has been used as a criterion to qualify people as beneficiaries of land redistribution; furthermore, how being beneficiaries affects their livelihood outcomes. In the first phase of qualitative data collection included interviews with varied government officials to find out the criteria used to qualify beneficiaries of land redistribution. The researcher felt the information was somewhat limited, it wouldn't be enough to prove who the beneficiaries of land redistribution truly are and if they are indeed those who need land and are working it. Additionally, to enhance depth in quantitative data collection the survey questionnaire was redesigned to help collect the exact information the study needed to understand the concept of landlessness. However, making sure the instrument is relevant and still falls within the scope of the research objectives.

4.5 Methodology

4.5.1 Methodologies in Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

The analytical basis of the study is that of a livelihoods framework, the study then went on to construct a conceptual framework of landlessness based on the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. The concepts in the conceptual framework match the major themes which helped formulate the questions in the research instruments. The case study situation: Fezile Dabi District Municipality will help understand livelihood perspectives of the landless and their potential in becoming beneficiaries of land redistribution. Case studies can help detect what happens, how things occur and the consequences thereafter (Patton, 2002). A brief analysis of the methodologies that underpin Sustainable Livelihood Frameworks allows for comparative analysis between the popular methodologies as far as Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is

concerned. Sustainable Livelihoods Framework is taken by social organisations such as UNDP, CARE, IFAD and DA. All these organisations use Sustainable Livelihoods Framework as an analytical tool for eradication of poverty furthermore Twigg (2007) says that all these institutions modify how they use the tool especially for programming of whatever actions they have planned. This study used the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework as used by the Department of International Development (DFID).

According to Bryant (1998), accessing land is an important pre-requisite that can improve the economic conditions of poor people living in rural areas. Even though poor households' income source mainly relies heavily on social grants and wages, there are other aspects of the activities they engage in that makes their livelihood strategies quite diverse (Jacobs and Makaudze, 2012). A quick scan into methodologies of studies that look at the living conditions of the rural poor and varieties of livelihoods in a region reveals that more participatory methods inject meaningful findings and should therefore be pursued (Jacobs and Makaudze, 2012).

This research study taps into the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework and uses its effective tenets into the methodology to conceptualise landlessness. This approach has a strong character in that it uncovers the multiple assets that are used by landless people. Relevant elements of sustainable livelihoods were considered in the creation of data collections instruments. Both the field survey and qualitative instrument were conducted by formulating a questionnaire to collect information under six thematic aspects such as criteria used in land redistribution, living standards profile, farm worker livelihoods, support to smallholders, land ownership and need patterns. Furthermore, measurable instruments created for the study help to gather the available data and analyse it further for results. Most landless studies use methodologies that look at assets/lack thereof to describe why the landless pursue their livelihoods the way they do. To measure landlessness among the agricultural communities that data was collected from, the main indicator used was the availability of title deed for the land held. Participation in farming was determined by whether one farms for wages or not. The research has therefore followed criteria for determining the socio-economic condition of the landless that is as follows:

- Farm workers who do not own any farm portion of the land they work
- Emerging farmers who may be beneficiaries of a land redistribution programme but have no title deed of the land they use

According to FAO (2002), in studies where the poor are asked to define their poverty, they normally base their socio-economic status on assets they own, however, it's been said that some

of these are normally intangible and therefore very difficult to quantify. However, Moser (1998) insists that indeed recognition of the assets people own is a lens into seeing how they use those assets to create different livelihood strategies this also enables one to be aware of the complexities they face. The conceptual framework built by the study introduces an asset-based framework to landlessness using or borrowing tenets from the sustainable livelihoods framework. This justifies the emphasis on access to assets in the methodology pursued and in an analysis of the data collected. The total proportion of different assets one has access to matters equally to the number of assets they own, this affects poverty alleviation in their lives (Bebbington, 1999).

4.6 Research Ethics

Babbie (2001) says that a very critical characteristic every researcher should have is to be aware of what scientific research identifies as the proper or improved way of doing research. Social research brings the researcher in contact with living subjects who stand a risk of being affected by the study in one way or another it is the responsibility of the researcher to make sure these interactions are positive. The researcher did not coerce or bribe respondents into participating in the study. Each interview started with the researcher explaining the purpose of the study and reading of the consent form, which most of the time had to be explained in Sesotho because most of the participants from the study area are Sesotho speaking. Everyone who participated in the study had to sign a consent form before proceeding, their participation was voluntary.

de Vos et al (2011) says that anonymity and confidentiality should never be confused with each other, the researcher needs to be sensitive to both. Confidentiality ensures that only the researcher and/or research team are the only ones that know the identity of the participants, while anonymity means no one should ever be able to identify the participants after the study (Babbie, 2001). The study has explicitly adhered to both elements most especially officials who participated in the qualitative interviews. This helps decrease the chances of any participants being victimized for taking part in the study.

Farm work is synonymous with low wages; therefore, farm workers and farm dwellers are constantly prone to farm evictions by their employers whenever they try to exercise their human rights. The researcher realises that participation of farm workers in this study could've potentially harmed their relationship with their employers. The researcher, therefore, made sure to interview farm workers away from their place of work. No part of this study stood a chance

to harm the business of farmers in any way, therefore the researcher had to make sure farmers also don't feel threatened.

The study adhered to ethical codes, visible on the University of the Western's Cape Ethics Declaration Form and consent form. The Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development went through the full proposal of study, approved it and gave the researcher ethical codes to abide by and these were also strictly and fully adhered to. The Department asked that the researcher submits a summary of the findings and recommendations to them at the end of the study.

4.7 Data Capturing & Analysis

The data capturing process started immediately after the quantitative data collection stage was completed. For qualitative interviews, the researcher hired a transcriber to transcribe all the eight interviews completed. This activity was finished over a month. The capturing of the quantitative surveys was done by the researcher herself. Capturing of 165 questionnaires was done using the SPSS Statistics Data Editor. The researcher had no prior training of SPSS, hence the slow pace in capturing questionnaires. The first step of capturing included the researcher being cautious of the unique number each of the 165 questionnaires collected had been called with.

Table 4.7.1: Deriving Questionnaire Numbers for the Survey

Unique Municipal Number	Local Municipalities
11	Mafube
12	Ngwathe
13	Moqhaka
14	Metsimaholo
Farm Involvement Codes	
01 Farm worker	02 Smallholder farmer

Source: Author's own compilation

Each questionnaire number is an eight-digit number made up of the unique municipal number, a farm involvement code and their interview number that starts at 1001. For example, the first

farm worker to be interviewed in Moqhaka Local Municipality would be 13011001, the second one 13011002, and so on.

Most of the questions were captured as numeric and the rest as string variables; numeric variable is easy to read on STATA (Neuman, 2014). There were questions given on a list for a participant to choose from, during the capturing the researcher could only capture the information by breaking it into different variables. The process of data capturing also included different stages of tedious data cleaning, this was done to ensure that the data is clean and ready for analysis.

The data analysis process enables a researcher to extract useful information from the data collected that will help address and understand the phenomenon being researched. Using STATA/SE 15.0 for analysis of quantitative data. The study used different statistical methods such as descriptive statistical methods, inferential statistics, correlations and chi-squares to get an informative analysis and arrive at conclusions adequate to answer the research questions. Through descriptive statistics, the researcher can see basic characteristics of the dataset they are dealing with such as the mean, standard deviation and percentiles. Chi-square (χ^2) statistic is used to investigate whether distributions of categorical variables differ from one another (Agresti, 2002). Furthermore, when testing hypothesis, the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$), then it means there is an association between the variables being tested, hence the null hypothesis cannot be accepted. If the significant value is more than 0.05 then the variables under consideration are not associated with each other and therefore not statistically significant (Agresti, 2002).

Beyond the transcription of qualitative data, the researcher went through transcripts to identify key codes in them. According to de Vos et al (2011), coding helps to identify themes, recurring patterns and ideas, it helps a researcher identify that which links people and their settings. The data was then organized into themes. Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that themes come in two different types. One being the semantic themes which are easily identifiable in the data, the researcher normally just has to focus on the surface meaning of what is being said and two being the theme with data that is hidden or underlying, unravelling it is a skill and it requires close interpretation. The researcher has also exercised co-coding, bypassing on the study transcripts to another peer researcher, to try to see what themes they can identify and if they are similar to what the study research has. This helps check the reliability of the coding process (Balmforth, 2009).

4.8 Field Experiences

As reiterated before, the first stage of data collection was the collection of qualitative data in a form of semi-structured interviews with government officials in Fezile Dabi District Municipality. The researcher did not struggle to get the key informants as prior interviews were set with them eight out of ten qualitative interviews were done, each taking as long as 25-40 minutes. The questions in the instrument were adequately answered by the officials; the 8th interview was used to close the gaps that were identified in the other interviews that were done. The researcher was able to do this interview during the period when she was doing the survey.

The second wave of data collection was quantitative data collection. The researcher had one research assistant who volunteered to help in this process. The research assistant got a week's training by the researcher that focused on giving information about this certain study and what it's about, secondly familiarising them with the research instrument and doing mock interviews with one another. Going into the field, the researcher did three interviews with the assistant to give them some sort of in-situation training so that they could be ready to start conducting interviews on their own. The survey questionnaire comprised mainly of close-ended questions, completing it with a participant took approximately 18 minutes for farm-workers and 30 for smallholder farmers. For quality control purposes, at the end of each day, the researcher went through each survey questionnaire to make sure all the information was adequately collected.

165 survey participants were reached by the researcher, 76 of them farm workers and 89 of them smallholder farmers. The distribution of both smallholder farmers and farm workers interviewed is different across the 4 local municipalities in Fezile Dabi District. This is owed to different reasons such as the researcher arriving on certain farms during work time (between 8am-5am) and the researcher not getting the expected number of farm workers on weekends despite the fact that prior appointments had been made.

4.9 Limitations to the Study

As it was alluded to earlier, the study drew its sample from a dissertation on smallholder farmers and commercial farmers of Fezile Dabi District Municipality by Sebeho (2015). This was due to failure to obtain a database of smallholder farmers from the Free State Provincial Department of Agriculture, which would've provided more accurate numbers. The study has been approved by the National Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural

Development and granted permission to obtain any necessary information from the provincial government however this didn't prove easy.

The researcher had no grant or sponsorship for this study; therefore, resource and financial constraints also affected the ability of the researcher to reach the total target sample. This could've been avoided by the implementation of a pilot study beforehand, but the researcher had no resources to carry out this even though she knows how important piloting a study is. The researcher had to resort to commuting from her hometown to all other areas in Fezile Dabi daily during data collection. On several occasions, the researcher had to find accommodation from acquaintances in the district she would find herself in.

Furthermore, the available time to survey the researcher and farm workers was in the week, mostly during working hours. There was constant scheduling and rescheduling of appointments because the researcher always had to be sensitive to not cause conflict between farm workers and their employer. Interviewing them after work and on weekends seemed to be the only solution, on weekends some of the farm workers were still not available as they would go run errands at a near town. Therefore, such time constraints put the study under a lot of pressure.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the techniques and methodological design of the study. It accounted for all the choices the study made in the case study approach used. Both the qualitative and quantitative tools used in the study were pursued to fully capture elements that would make it possible to operationalise the perspective of landlessness in the farming community for the dissertation. The elements such as livelihood strategies pursued by the landless, institutionalization in land redistribution process, living conditions and income expenditure as well as landholding and need that exists. Mixed methods utilized sequentially (qualitative and quantitative techniques) complemented each other and made it possible to adequately capture data that is normally complex in livelihood studies. All the research activities involved in throughout the fieldwork exercise made sure accurate data that will feed into the objectives of this study is captured.

CHAPTER FIVE

5 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The Grand Research Question of the study asks how if at all has landlessness been used as a criterion in land redistribution policy, the secondary sub-questions get into the nitty-gritty of who the landless people are, their livelihood profiles and generally how people get qualified for land redistribution. It would not be beneficial for the study to analyse farming households as one, therefore there is a pressing need to divide the farmers into categories which allows contrast between the landless and the landed, the institutional deprivation which affects their landholding status and the assets they hold despite the socio-economic context they exist in. It is critical to give a full and comprehensive profile of the rural poor that comes strongly in this study, which is a fact that landlessness is a very common feature in the lives of rural poor even under different types of tenure systems.

This section aims to map the demographic and socio-economic differences between farmers with title deeds, landless farmers and farm workers, taking into consideration the definition of landlessness the whole study is working with. The final part of the section studies the data coming from qualitative interviews in comparison with that offered by the survey. Furthermore, some of the main categories which were carefully tracked are the overarching type of farming pursued by those with title deeds and those without land, as well as their reasons for farming, the source of their financial assets and their household expenditure. In the core of the data lies enough evidence, for example, showing that farmers without land are only institutionally deprived but have viable farm-based businesses, pursue blended livelihoods using the few assets they possess effectively and landless people are involved in peak farming activities. Additionally, trends on inequality and institutionalisation of land redistribution hinge on their income and other assets.

A major limitation of this study is a once-off nature. Doing livelihoods study overtime provides a chance to see how the subjects react to shocks and interference. This would allow learning about the extent of sustainability of the livelihoods of those who are landless, looking through their resilience. Also, because of the nature of the study, the survey did not delve deeper into questions on other things that could affect the livelihoods of landless farm workers such as low wages and possible evictions. However, questions ranging from asking about a written

employment contract, wages and extent ownership will help one detect the security and threat their tenure rights might be exposed to this in relation to their landlessness.

5.2 Farmers

The number of farmers according to two different categories i.e. landless farmers and farmers with title deeds are shown in Table 5.1.1 together the two categories add up to a sample of 89 household heads collected from. The results in the table show that landless farmers in each of the 4 local municipalities account for between 18% and 21%, then farmers with title deeds between 5% and 7% of the total sample. The proportions of the sample collected from; in every municipality are not different from each other in big margins, this is a desirable outcome as it has helped to reduce bias towards other local municipalities more than others.

Table 5.1.1: Farmer Municipal Demographic

Category	Landless Farmers		Farmers with Title Deeds		Total Area	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Mafube	16	17.98	5	5.62	21	23.60
Metsimaholo	14	15.73	5	5.62	19	21.35
Moqhaka	19	21.35	6	6.74	25	28.09
Ngwathe	19	21.35	5	5.52	24	26.97

When disaggregated by gender in Table 5.1.2, approximately 85% of the household heads in the farmer's category are male and 14% female. Looking at landless farmers alone, males make-up 90% of that sample while females account for the other 10%. In those who have title deeds 71% are males and 29% are females. There are more male household heads than females in either of the farming categories. In both categories more farmers are married than those that are single; over 65% of landless farmers are married and over 70% of titled farmers are married. The lower part of the table shows the average age of households and the number of dependents, for landless farmers the average age of household head is 55 years with two dependents in the household. In the farmers with title deeds category, the average household head averages at 60 years of age with two dependents in the household.

Table 5.1.2: DEMOGRAPHICS FOR FARM WORKERS

Demographic Profiles of Farm workers		Landless Farmers (N=68)		Farmers with Title Deeds (N=21)	
		N	%	N	%
Gender	Male	61	89.71	15	71.43
	Female	7	10.29	6	28.57
Marital Status					
Marital Status	Single	23	33.82	6	28.57
	Married	45	66.18	15	71.43
Age of HH and Number of Dependents					
Age of HH and Number of Dependents	Variables	Avg.	Median	Avg.	Median
	Age Household-Head	55	60	60	58
	Dependents	2	3	2	3

Rural livelihoods depend on varied livelihood strategies to develop buffers against shocks that may develop. Table 5.1.3 shows that there are different types of smallholder farmers in Fezile Dabi District Municipality, landless farmers and farmers with title deeds, a critical difference lies in the sources of financial capital that contribute to their livelihoods. The livelihoods of landless farmers look quite blended in that there is a 26% of landless farmers who earn salaries in other jobs out of the agricultural sector, 98% of them also get income from the farm produce they sell and 22% make a livelihood from other non-specified income. When looking at farmers with title deeds, all of them are strictly farmers the results point out that 100% of this category do not earn a salary. Further-more a substantial proportion; 62% of this category of farmers also are not social grant beneficiaries, all of them are dependent fully on the income they make from selling their farm produce and only 33% of them make income from elsewhere. Looking at the sample wholly, approximately 99% of the farmers in the sample make money from selling their farm produce, only 1% does not. Evidence in the table 5.1.3 point out that

livelihoods of landless farmers in Fezile Dabi District are more varied than those of farmers with title deeds, that is more of those without land pursue many other livelihood strategies than those with title deeds.

Table 5.1.3: Farm Involvement & Sources Of Income (Per Annum)

Income Type	Landless Farmers		Farmers with Title Deeds		Total Area	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
No salary	50	73.53	21	100.00	71	79.78
Salary	18	26.47	0	0.00	18	20.22
Social Grant						
No social grant	37	54.41	13	61.90	50	56.78
Social grant	31	45.59	8	38.10	39	43.82
Selling Farm Produce						
No sale of farm produce	1	1.47	0	0.00	1	1.12
Sale of farm produce	67	98.53	21	100.00	88	98.88
Other income source						
No other income	53	77.94	14	66.67	67	75.28
Other Income	15	22.06	7	33.33	22	24.72

Even though Table 5.1.3 above shows us the extent of variation in the livelihoods of farmers in different categories, table 5.1.4 below shows the summary means of what each category earns from what financial capital source. According to the evidence presented in the table, landless farmers make an average of R32,070 from salaries per year and farmers with title

deeds make nothing. There is only a small difference between the average amounts farmers make from social grants per year, R8,774 for landless farmers and R8,137 for those with title deeds. Farmers with title deeds make more income on average per year from selling their farm produce; R32,429 as compared to R25,146 earned by landless farmers. Other income sources account for the least averages in the livelihoods of both farmer categories; R3,585 for landless farmers while farmers with title deeds earn only R3,667 per year.

Table 5.1.4: Summary Means of Financial Assets In Rands (Per Annum)

Categories	Landless Farmers	Farmers with Title Deeds
Salary/Wage Value (R)	32 070	0
Social Grants Value (R)	8 774	8 137
Farm Produce Value (R)	25 146	32 429
Other Income(R)	3 585	3 667

Results in Table 5.1.5 show summary statistics about the main expenditure. The results, therefore, show that average food expenditure for landless farmers is R1,060 and R931 for farmers with title deeds. After food, a big percentage of expenditure for farmers without land goes to transport which averages at R724 per month and R663 per month for farmers with title deeds. Water and electricity average higher for farmers with title deeds (R537) than it does for landless farmers (R449). Average expenditures on schoolbooks and uniform for both farmer groups are very low because the instrument asked the participants expenditures based on the past month. Data collection was done in October towards the end of the year, its, therefore, expected that most of the farmers won't be spending on schoolbooks and uniform for their dependents.

Table 5.1.5: Expenditure n Farmer Households In Rands (Per Month)

Household Expenditure Category	Landless Farmers (N=68)		Farmers with Title Deeds (N=21)	
	Average (R)	Median (R)	Average (R)	Median (R)
Food	1060	1000	931	900

Clothing	61.47	0	41.19	0
Housing	116.2	0	0	0
Water & Electricity	449	400	536.7	500
Transport	724.4	600	663.3	600
School-Fees	293.2	0	121.4	0
School Books & Uniform	48.53	0	0	0
Entertainment	86.03	0	114.3	0
Total Household Spending	2 839	2 485	2 408	2 500
Food Spending Share (%)	41.16	41.24	40.36	61.73

About 86% of farmers with title deeds practice farming as their primary source of earning a living as compared to 66% of farmers without land. 29% of farmers without land say that they are practising farming as an extra source of income, information on table 5.1.6 shows us farmers in this category have the most blended livelihoods, their primary source of income could be jobs or other sources of income. 10% of farmers with title deeds farm primarily for food security purposes.

Table 5.1.6: Main Reasons for Farming

Category	Landless Farmers		Farmers with Title Deeds	
	N	%	N	%
Engaged in farming as source of household food security	3	4.41	2	9.52
Engaged in farming at the main source of income	45	66.18	18	85.71

Engaged in farming as an extra source of income	20	29.41	1	4.76
Total	68	100.00	21	100.00

Even though most of the farmers do not primarily farm for household food security reasons, the most expenditure in the farmers' income goes to food. Table 5.1.7 below shows the summary statistics of food expenditures in the farmers' households, on average farmers with title deeds spend R931 per month and farmers without land spend R1,060 on average. At the most farmers, those with title deeds spend R1,500 and those without title deeds spends R3000 on food monthly. The major disparity in terms of food expenditures between farmers with title deeds and those who don't own land is that farmers without land spend way more on food even though only 4% primarily farm for food security reasons.

Table 5.1.7: Food Expenditure Per Month (In Rands)

Category	Landless Farmers	Farmers with Title Deeds
N	68	21
Mean	1060	931
Minimum	500	500
Maximum	3000	1500

Results in Table 5.1.8 show that livestock farming is the top type of farming practised in Fezile Dabi District Municipality. Evidence in the table points out that 82% of farmers without land practise livestock farming and 43% of those with title deeds practise livestock farming too. However, there's a substantial difference between farmers who practise crop farming. 38% of farmers with title deeds are crop farmers and only 12% of farmers without land practise farmers. Close to 20% of farmers with title deeds practise mixed farming. According to information in this table, being a farmer without land limits the choice in the type of farming one can go into, most farmers without land pursue livestock farming more than any other type of farming.

Table 5.1.8: Type of Farming for Different Farmer Categories

Category	Landless Farmers		Farmers with Title Deeds	
	N	%	N	%
Crop Farming	8	11.76	8	38.10
Livestock Farming	56	82.35	9	42.86
Mixed Farming	4	5.88	4	19.05
Total	68	100.00	21	100.00

Table 5.1.9 shows the extent of farm ownership for farmers with land and those without. Owns land represents 21 farmers who have title deeds of farms they occupy. Rented land consists of 34 farmers who are farming on the land given to them on a lease basis, most of them being on long term lease contracts. The other 34 farmers are those who farm on municipal land i.e. the commons in the outskirts of the towns around Fezile Dabi District Municipality. Farmers with title deeds make-up the least proportion of farmers in Fezile Dabi District Municipality, as compared to those who farm on rented land and state land. No cases of sharecropping were found and recorded for this assignment in Fezile Dabi District Municipality.

Table 5.1.9: Extent of Ownership for Farmers

Category	Landless Farmers	Farmers with Title Deeds
Owns the land	0	21
Rents land	34	0
State land	34	0
Sharecropping	0	0
Total	68	21

While table 5.1.9 shows the extent of farm ownership of farmers in the total sample, the table below; table 5.1.10 breaks-down the summary statistics of land sizes held by different types of farmers. On average, farmers who farm on state land farm on 95ha of land, this might be owing to the big parcels of land municipal commonages are made up of, however, there's normally a high number of other farmers farming on the same land, they are therefore over-populated and over-farmed. The highest size of state land recorded is 1000 ha. No farmers with title deeds own below 10 ha of land, the minimum size of land for farmers renting land is 1 ha.

Table 5.1.10: Means for Extent of Farm Ownership

	Own-land	Rent-land	State-land
N	21	34	34
Mean	54.1ha	56.9ha	95.3ha
Minimum	10 ha	1 ha	22 ha
Maximum	325 ha	400 ha	1000 ha

5.3 Farm workers

The demographic profile of landless farm workers with Fezile Dabi District Municipality is shown in Table 5.2.1 below. As explained in Chapter 3, a quantitative survey was used to collect data from participants there were 76 farm workers in the total sample. Amongst farm workers 73.91% of those with no formal working contracts are male and amongst those with formal work contracts, 83% were male. Therefore, household heads in Fezile Dabi District Municipality whether in the category of farmers with formal work contracts or those without are predominantly male, the representation of females is less than 30% in both. Disaggregating this data by marital status provides evidence that 56% of those without work contracts are married and 62% of those with formal work contracts. Most farm workers live with their respective families in their labourer quarters whether married or single. The average age of the household head is 47 years for both farm worker categories (with/without formal work contract). The median which describes data, better than the average for age of household head, is also 47 years.

Table 5.2.1: Demographics for Farm Workers

Demographic Profiles of Farm workers		No Formal Work Contract (N=23)		Formal Work Contract (N=53)	
		N	%	N	%
Gender	Male	17	73.91	44	83.02
	Female	6	26.09	9	16.98
Marital Status	Single	9	39.13	20	37.74
	Married	13	56.52	33	62.26
Age of HH and Number of Dependents	Variables	Avg.	Median	Avg.	Median
	Age				
	Household-Head	47	47	47	46
	Dependents	2	2	2	2

Table 5.2.2 shows different types of financial capital that landless farm workers have at their disposal. All farm workers self-declared that they were actively earning a wage at the time of data collection. The second financial source for farm workers according to this table is social grants, 65% in those with no formal work contracts and 66% of those with formal work contracts are recipients of one of the different social grants offered by the government of South Africa. Despite actively working in the farming sector, 91% of those with no contracts do not make any income from farming outputs and also 96% of those who are employed under formal contracts do not sell any farming outputs. 8% of non-formal contract workers earn income from the sale of farm inputs and close to 4% of those with formal contracts.

Table 5.2.2: Income Sources in Farm Workers Households

Income Sources of Farm workers		No Formal Work Contract (N=23)		Formal Work Contract (N=53)	
		N	%	N	%
Salary/Wage	YES	23	100.00	53	100.00
Social Grants	YES	15	65.22	35	66.04
	NO	8	34.78	18	33.96
Sell Farm Outputs	YES	2	8.70	2	3.77
	NO	21	91.30	51	96.23

The lack of financial capital is a cause and effect of extreme poverty. Below is a Table 5.2.3 showing summary statistics of amounts of farm worker households depend on per annum. On average those with formal contracts earn R27,713 per annum and those without earn on average; R21,413 per annum. The median on social grants is R5,160 for workers without formal work contracts and 10,320 for those who have contracts. The least income on average in made from selling farm outputs. All in all, on average farm worker household (no formal work contract) with all the relevant financial resources pooled together makes approximately R30,386.26 and households with formal farm worker contracts make R36,663 averagely all income sources considered.

Table 5.2.3: Mean & Median of Income In Farm Workers Households Per Annum (In Rands)

Income Amounts of Farm workers	No Formal Work Contract (N=23)		Formal Work Contract (N=53)	
	Average	Median	Average	Median
Salary/Wage	21 431.48	2 1600	27 713.21	26 400
Social Grants	8 650.44	5 160	8 827.92	10 320

Sell Farm Outputs	304.35	0	122.64	0
Household Income (Pooled Sources)	30 386.26	28 320	36 663.77	3 3120

Table 5.2.4: shows summary statistics of the various food expenditures in the households per month such as food, clothing, rent, water & electricity, transportation, school fees, books and entertainment. Farm workers without formal work contracts spend averagely R700 on food and another major expenditure is the rent which averages approximately R170 per month. For farm workers with formal work contracts on average R794 out of their R1,355 household spending gets spent on food. Food spending alone makes up an average of 65.38% of the household spending for farm workers with formal work contracts and 60.41% for farm workers without formal work contracts.

Table 5.2.4: Expenditure in Farm Worker Households Per Month (In Rands)

Household Expenditure Category	No Formal Work Contract (N=23)		Formal Work Contract (N=53)	
	Average (R)	Median (R)	Average (R)	Median (R)
Food	701.30	600	794	800
Clothing	89.13	0	52.83	0
Housing	169.60	0	172.10	200
Water & Electricity	50	0	143.30	150
Transport	95.65	80	113.80	100
School-Fees	21.74	0	15.85	0
School Books & Uniform	34.78	0	42.26	0
Entertainment	9.56	0	20.75	0
Total Household Spending	1172	1020	1355	1210
Food Spending Share (%)	65.38	65.75	60.41	62.5

When looking at employment conditions Table 5.2.5 shows that even those who work without formal work contracts work for +40 hours per week. Only 26% of farm workers without formal work contracts spend less than 40 hours at work weekly. All farm workers with formal working contracts work between 40-45 hours a week as expected. The lower part of Table 5.2.5 show statistics in terms of annual leave, 100% of farm workers under formal work contracts are eligible to annual leave and 87% of those with no formal work contracts. Only 13% of farm workers without formal work contracts have said they are not eligible for annual leave at the farms they work on.

Table 5.2.5: Employment Conditions of Farm Workers

	No Formal Work Contract (N=23)		Formal Work Contract (N=53)		
Working Hours	40-45hrs p/wk	17	73.91	53	100.00
	<40hrs	6	26.09	0	0.00
Annual Leave	Yes	20	86.96	53	100.00
	No	3	13.04	0	0.00

In Table 5.2.6 there are higher proportions of farm workers whose jobs are related to crop farming, more than livestock farming or mixed farming. For farm workers without formal work contracts crop farming accounts for 43.48%, livestock 30.43% and mixed farming 26.09%. 37.74% of farm workers with formal work contracts do crop farming, 37.74% livestock and 24% mixed farming. Only 8.70% of farm workers with no formal work contracts can use a portion of the farm they live on for their own farming purposes as compared to 13.21% of those working under formal work contracts. Considering all this only 3.77% own those farm portions they use. For farm workers with formal work contracts, all those with permission for farm use (8.70%) have said that they own these farm portions they use. High proportions of farm workers in either of the two categories have agreed that they have prospects of owning a farm one day, 86.96% in those with no formal work contracts and 84.91% of those with formal work contracts.

Table 5.2.6: Land Access and Use (Own Account)

Main Type of Farming/Agricultural Activity	No Formal Work Contract (N=23)		Formal Work Contract (N=53)	
	N	%	N	%
Crop Farming	10	43.48	20	37.74
Livestock	7	30.43	20	37.74
Mixed Farming	6	26.09	13	24.53
	2	8.70	7	13.21
Permission to Use Farm Portion	21	91.30	46	86.79
Own Farm Portion	2	8.70	2	3.77
	21	91.30	51	96.23
Prospects for Farm Ownership	20	86.96	45	84.91
	3	13.04	8	15.09

Table 5.2.7 shows land need & demand statistics amongst farm-workers under different working contracts. The data shows that for those who currently have no formal working contracts 43,48% have expressed a need for land to practice livestock farming, as compared to 39,13% for crop farming and 8,70% for mixed farming. For those with formal contracts 39,62% said they need land for crop farming, 28,30% for livestock farming and 11,32% for mixed farming. When it comes to the preferred land holding for those with no formal working contracts 55,56% of those who want land for crop farming said they would not mind occupying the land under a lease agreement, 60% of those who want land for livestock farming would prefer to have title deeds and also 100% of those who want mixed farming showed a preference of title deeds. For farm workers working under formal work contracts, 52,38% of those who would need land for crop farming would not mind holding the land under lease agreements. 73,33 of farm workers who need land for livestock farming would prefer a title deed of the land and 83,33 of those who want to practise mixed farming also showed a preference for a title deed. Farm workers that have no formal contracts have shown their land size need on average

to be as follows: crop farming 1,24ha and livestock farming 4,95ha. Furthermore, farm workers with formal work contracts have said on average they need 13,2ha for crop farming and 16.64 for ha for livestock farming.

Table 5.2.7: Farm Needs

Need More Farmland		No Formal Work Contract (N=21)		Formal Work Contract (N=42)	
		N	%	N	%
Crops		9	39.13	21	39.62
Livestock Grazing		10	43.48	15	28.30
Mixed Farming		2	8.70	6	11.32
Type of Land Holding for Needed Farm Land					
		N	%	N	%
Cropland	Private Title Deed	4	44.44	9	42.86
	Rent/Lease	5	55.56	11	52.38
Livestock Grazing	Private Title Deed	6	60.00	11	73.33
	Rent/Lease	4	40.00	4	26.67
Mixed Farmers	Private Title Deed	2	100.00	5	83.33
	Rent/Lease	0	0	1	16.67
Size of Farmland Needs					
		Formal Work Contract (N=21)		Formal Work Contract (N=42)	
		Avg. (Ha)	Median (Ha)	Avg (Ha)	Median (Ha)
Crops		1.24	1	13.2	2
Livestock Grazing		4.95	1	16.64	1

5.4 Qualitative Findings

The table below shows themes and subthemes that emerged from the qualitative interviews. After the table, the researcher discusses the important themes which solidly contribute to answering the research questions in more details. The relevant research objective to be addressed by the qualitative data is also outlined.

Table: 5.3.1 Themes Identified

THEMES	SUB-THEMES	SMALLER THEMES
1. Land Transfer	Criteria	Identification of beneficiaries For land redistribution Gender disparities between beneficiaries
2. Agricultural Support	Smallholder support	Type of support to smallholders Criteria to provide support Issues that cause smallholders to stop farming Prevalence of support for smallholder farmers from both the private sector & government
	Livelihood components of farm workers	Usage of land Tenure security Livelihood strategies pursued by farm workers

5.4.1 Identification of beneficiaries for land redistribution

The focus of redistribution of land is to acquire land for certain categories of people through buying the land from the open market. In this process, the government assists in the purchase

of this land, as a result of the development of land policy over the years even after purchase the government remains the owner (Kepe and Hall, 2016). The 1997 White Paper recognizes the poor as the main beneficiaries of land redistribution. In trying to answer the question on the criteria followed to give landless beneficiaries land participant 4 started by explaining that the Beneficiary Selection Committee are the main people who sit and match farm properties to the appropriate beneficiary. Participant 4's response also highlighted fact that the Beneficiary Selection Committee does consider assets that applicants have when applying.

“Yes there is a committee that is called Beneficiary Selection Committee. We don't choose, farming is a business so whoever wants to farm they approach the department and then we as a department we buy land and after buying land we advertise it. After advertising it, the people apply based on what they see. We measure the farm to what the person has. If the farm needs someone with 20 cattle and someone with 20 cattle applies, the DBSC, the beneficiary sits to match, and check if they have 20 and this farm needs 20 people it means that this person is not going to graduate. We check it's better to give someone with five and check within two to three years to see are we developing them or are we going to make them stagnant and make them remain in one place. So those are the things we check, they apply and we match them to the farm.”...Participant 4

Farming is approached from a business point of view by government, land is bought and advertised then matched with the kind of assets one has for instance livestock. Land is distributed in a way that will influence upward mobility in the growth of a landless farmer and not make them stagnant.

“You know what we do, we oversee farming we as the Free State Department of Agricultural and Rural Development on the other hand the rural development and land reform are the one who buys land so as soon as after they bought the land they identify the beneficiaries they give the land to beneficiary whoever is”...Participant 1

The Free State Department of Rural Development & Land Reform are the ones who buy land and the Department of Agriculture oversees farming once the land has been transferred. DRDLR also identifies who the beneficiaries of this land will be. The process of matching a farmer to a farm includes interviews between DRDLR & the potential farmer to screen what farming skills/experience they have, farming assets held by them & the availability of a market for whatever their products may be.

5.4.2 Gender disparities between beneficiaries

One of the main constitutional imperatives of the South African government for redistributing land is the intention to redistribute farmland to women, the youth and people with disabilities (Pienaar, 2015). There is a substantial gender bias in the agricultural sector in terms of access to and control over land and other productive resources, women also have limited access to technologies and services that could alleviate their work burdens (FAO, 2011). In South Africa, women constitute more than half of the population and the majority are located in rural areas, where they intensively engage in food production (Mgwali, 2013). The analysis of the National Labour Force and the General Household Surveys indicates that household-level food production, is mainly undertaken by women and it is their responsibility (Aliber and Hart, 2009; Hart, Chandia and Jacobs, 2018). Participants were asked about the gender imbalance amongst beneficiaries of land redistribution. Many of their answers alluded to the fact that there are generally more men involved in farming than women. Their responses also, however, recognized the effort taken by the land policy in prioritizing marginalized groups such as women and youth in land redistribution. Here are the views of Participants 4, 2, and 1, respectively:

“Yes I think right now government is promoting youth, promoting women a lot these days. As I said people come and apply so most of the applications that come are mostly males. Yes women are still coming but for now they are still in their shells they prefer to be female farmer what do you call small farmers in schools, in their gardens, for them it’s still small-small, that’s my take” ...Participant 4

“Basically, in basically in in in in Sasolburg we 9 smallholders, 2 females and the rest are males... some cannot qualify they cannot manage because of maybe I can say the knowledge because they’ve been interviewed... the knowledge in farming they don’t understand other agricultural systems” ...Participant 2

“Well unfortunately on my area which is Edenville it is only mostly men, you get men you get a farm neh, it’s a farm, it’s a family farm, there’s a husband and there’s a wife and the kids but the wife is not necessarily involved in the farming she’s just staying at home and doing the house things and the husband is busy with farming. So, for women, there’s other one that have... that has ... that they have leased from municipalities it

only has 2 women, but they are part of it so they make decisions and they work with them however they are working, they are part of decision-making”...Participant 1

The government promotes the inclusion of youth and women in farming, but most applications for emerging landless farmers are from males. Women’s participation in farming is prevalent at a very small scale such as food gardens whether at home or in schools. For instance in Sasolburg area of the district out of 9 known smallholders, only 2 are women, this could be owing to reasons such as their lack of knowledge of agricultural systems or just women simply not having broken out of their shells when it comes to farming. Furthermore, even though most land redistribution beneficiaries may be men, in reality, the farms operate as family businesses and therefore women (especially farmers’ wives) are involved in the larger business decision making.

5.4.3 Landholding Status after receiving land

There's a series of amendments that redistribution policy has undergone since 1994, one of them being the pro-active involvement of the state in the purchase of land. It is no longer as passive as before, beyond purchasing land for beneficiaries the state remains the owner of the land (Kepe and Hall, 2016). This current leasehold model brought the principle that beneficiaries of land redistribution will receive a lease that is 30 years long before the state could look at options of transferring full ownership to them (Kepe and Hall, 2016). The following statements as said by Participants 4 and 1, respectively, further provide proof that indeed the state no longer gives title deeds to beneficiaries immediately after transferring land:

“There is a lease agreement they sign for a certain period of time. In the beginning there is cadetship for a year. It’s basically screening to see if this person is capable, whatever they said in the interview, is it a true reflection when they look at the practical. And then from there they get a five year lease contract and after five years they get a 30 year lease. I would basically say that would cover the tenure rights”...Participant 4

Yaa the lease of 30 years, we support that. We are less concerned about the title deeds because we know that our people are selling, that is practical , I know it from Thabo Mufutsanyana I know it. Participant 1

Beneficiaries are given lease agreements of up to 30 years instead of title deeds that would transfer full ownership of the farm. However, before this, the beneficiary is taken through a 1-year cadetship to properly screen if they are fit enough to run the farm and given a shorter lease

of 5 years. The tenure security of the beneficiaries therefore falls within this scope. Participant 3 has mentioned that there are many reasons the Department had pursued the 30-year leasehold rule. An example was made of a trend amongst beneficiaries that would re-sell their farms after they are given title deeds. In literature, those who are against the concept of titling have mentioned things such as loss of tribal identity as a valid reason to promote long term leasehold in land redistribution. If a beneficiary is given a title deed immediately after the land has been transferred to them they may sell it to outsiders, therefore, allowing those outside their tribe to access tribal land. Another argument frequently raised against titling is that after giving a title-deed to beneficiaries the land fully belongs to them and they are therefore responsible for taxes and rates of that land, this could put beneficiaries under pressure and push them into re-selling the land they were given.

5.4.4 Smallholder support

Smallholder farmers in South Africa face a variety of challenges that affect their ability to grow in the farming sector. Generally, the main constraints faced by smallholder farmers are lack of access to land, poor physical and institutional infrastructure (DAFF, 2012). As a result, in land redistribution, post-transfer support problems rank high as one of the failures of the South African Land Reform Programme next to the slow pace of the programmes (Kepe and Hall, 2016). Post transfer support that is offered to landless farmers generally includes extension services, infrastructural support, aid in terms of access to markets, ability to have access to credit facilities and various agricultural production inputs (DAFF, 2012). In trying to ascertain the extent of support given to landless farmers the interview guide included questions on farmer support from both the public and private sector. The responses from participant 8, 3 and 6 were as follows:

“There is a farm situated about 6km from from Heilbron, it’s just that I can’t I can’t now recall the name off hand but we are now having to take water, to deliver water to”...Participant 8

We normally support them, in the past we used to give them finance, but now it’s different. We normally identify their needs and then we support them, we can pant you, we can buy a cattle, whatever that you need or infrastructure...Participant 3

Not everyone but we can check and say this he can’t even pay the lease, he can’t even pay but what if we assist this person so that he can be able to farm” ...Participant 6

According to the responses above the Department of Agriculture oversees the Agricultural Support land redistribution beneficiaries in Fezile Dabi District Municipalities. The Department however no longer gives farmer support in the form of money instead the needs of farmers are identified and support that addresses the need offered. This can be in the form of cattle, livestock, infrastructure, machinery, tractors, paying for their lease and other farm outputs, that will assist the farmer in the process of farming. In Ngwathe Municipality the municipality helps provide landless smallholder farmers with water because they have no access to water on their farms because of the water scarcity crisis that has affected that part of the province. Some of the problems faced by farmers mentioned here are a clear indication on how the lack of farmer support can impede the farmer's growth and make them unable to contribute to food security. Lack of water is very detrimental to farm life and business. Without agricultural support services, smallholder agriculture growth cannot take place (DAFF, 2012)

Land policy always emphasises the importance of farmer support for emerging farmers to be able to thrive in the farming sector like their commercial counterparts. Civil society groups just like government are pro-support provision for smallholders and its very common to find agricultural companies that do some type of work with local farmers even in small towns. Empirical research from Okunlola et al (2016) shows independent service providers act as mediators in agricultural value chains, they can link smallholder producers with powerful market players in their region. Furthermore, in many regions in South Africa, the private sector also offers extension services similar to those offered by the public sector (Okunlola et al, 2016). In trying to investigate the involvement of private sector in helping smallholders, participants added that private companies in have in the past came up with interventions to help smallholder farmers with things such as helping farmers with feeds for their livestock. However, farmers have been hesitant to continue with this intervention following complains of livestock that goes missing after this intervention was adopted, farmers would also be told that their cattle have died & therefore never get them back. Moreover, the private sector only takes part in agricultural support interventions that have been initiated by the government, where they are invited as partners and will get some monetary benefit. Other interventions to support smallholder farmers from the private sector include doing soil sampling for farmers and farm mapping. It is suggested that the government needs to build stronger relationships with stakeholders in the private sector to ensure their interventions are not as minimal as they presently are. The following quotation by quotation 6 provides proof of sentiments captured:

“Private sector does not help anyone, ok in most cases, there are programs that they are doing but it’s always mostly been better that there is someone from government that knows these things so that they can tell our people this is where you going wrong, this is where you going right because this thing of saying people must bring their cattle and they are going to feed them and then the people never got their cattle back and they say their cattle died, do you understand stuff like that. And in most cases we hire these white companies to come and do work for us as government. So in most cases if they don’t receive funding from government to do stuff for people, I haven’t seen initiative from the private sector, that’s what I have observed. If the government doesn’t give them R10000 and say go and do this for 50 people I have never seen them taking the initiative, that’s what I have seen.” ...Participant 6

Participants also highlighted the issue of unequal distribution of support services, where people from one side of the province have access to more support than the others. The participant believes this is a major problem facing both the departmental and farmers in this district. The quotation below alludes to a situation where The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform had chosen 2 farmers on the Recapitalisation Programme where they were offered farming inputs such as fertilizer, seeds and mechanization such as tractors. Sometimes there can be an unequal distribution of agricultural support in the province, where a large amount of support can be going to farmers in other districts instead of the others. This is the type of problem Fezile Dabi District Municipality is facing at present. Participant 7 describes the unequal distribution of agricultural support:

“You know what happened, the Department of Rural Development has this thing called Recapitalization, so these 2 farmers were a part of that Recapitalization. So, the Department of Land Reform they came they checked then they offered them some money so on that package of money there were different kind of items, the money is for tractor, the money is for what, the money is for fertilizing seeds, the money is for what and what and what. That’s why they ended up having those mechanizations.” ...Participant 7

5.4.5 Tenure Security

Farm workers are among the poorest groups of people in South Africa, the truth in this is normally seen when looking at the status of many of their developmental indicators such as income, food security and educational levels (Lyne and Graham 2001). Furthermore, a

common characteristic of farm workers which also continuously threatens their livelihoods is their weak tenure rights. According to Hall et al (2001) deregulation in agriculture is as a result of economic pressure, it creates job losses and worsens poverty, in this process tenure security of farm workers also gets compromised. In the interviews, it was revealed that Fezile Dabi is also a hotspot for farm evictions which proves the above finding from Hall et al (2001) about weak tenure security of farm workers right. The following participants had this to say about the tenure security of farm workers:

They are only having a residential right, nothing else...Project Officer: Land Tenure & Administration...Participant 5

"It happens very often... it happens very often because I remember there is this urh organization that we used to, fortunately I used to work at the multi-purpose community centre, so I interact with other urh government institutions and other government officials, and they would be able to come, and there are so many issues of farm evictions here because most of them they are not they are not actually farm, farm, they are not tenants there, they are they are farm, farm workers. There is a farm here urhm it's about, it's about urh 10 to 12, 10 around 10, approximately 10km from here, they produce, it's a diary kind of farm so there are houses that people are renting out there you know a number of houses, some of them are coming from the township, but in most cases they are farm workers more than farm... so (not audible) this thing ya farm evictions is very, it's quite prevalent in this area."...Participant 8

a lot of eviction within the districts but normally our hotspot in is Kroonstad, area of Kroonstad...Participants 5

Different participants have confirmed the presence of farm evictions experienced by farm workers. Most of these are labour tenants that are working on the farms they live on, they are offered a place to stay as required by the Extension of Security and Tenure Act (ESTA). Civil society groups in the region and government normally intervene during farm evictions. Support from government or civil society organizations to farm workers is very important as farm workers have very little information about their tenure rights and where they can get help in times of crisis. It takes extensive support from important role players for landless farm workers' tenure rights to materialize (Hall et al 2001). Furthermore, utterances captured in the interviews also highlight the absence of cooperation between the farmer and landless farm workers when they have been granted a portion of land for their food security. Participant 6

made an example of landless farm workers who were granted a portion of land and incentives to do first planting on the piece of land by the farmer. Usage of this land failed to progress because farm workers failed to manage the profits they made from their first production well. This, therefore, affected the farm workers' abilities to keep using the piece of land they were given productively.

They can even register Communal Property Association as land holding if there are many households if they are five households so that we can support through communal associations. Or whatever legal entity that can assist them” ...Participant 5

“I once received one case from Frankfort and Heilbron, you know what happened to the farm, the farm owner said to me, in the past I used to plant vegetables, now I am busy with the livestock , I have said to the farm workers, the occupiers you can use this space for your own benefit , for the first time I will plant with my money, I will buy the fertilizer , there is water, you have the market because I already have the market, yours is to plant .You know what they did, farm workers, akere they were assisted by the farm owner first time, yes things were ok, second round , now they have chowed all the money , they don't have the money to plant. You see we do have a challenge, now that land is lying fallow. They were given to use this land, I am no longer interested, I am busy with another enterprise can you please use this one but they have failed, they have failed to use it”...Participant 5

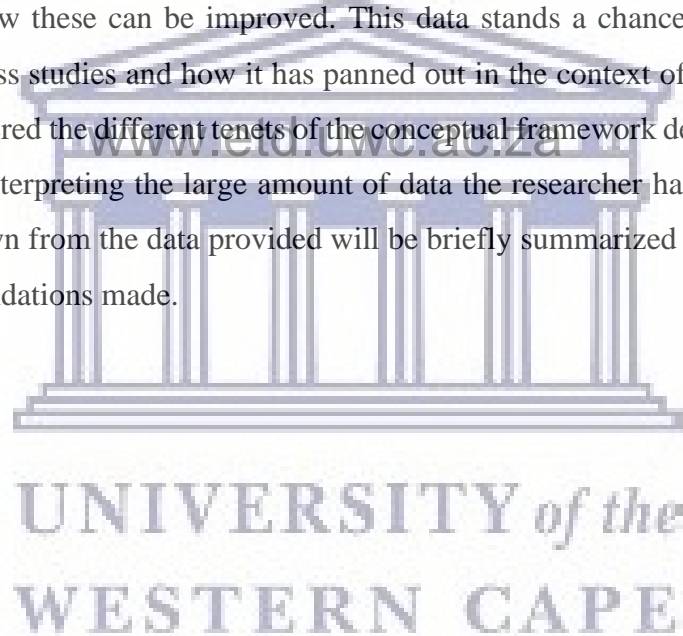
A secure place to live, earning a living through local rural resources and access to productive land and other natural resources are some of the elements essential to rural livelihoods (Adams et al 1999). In looking at how the insecure tenure rights affect the livelihoods of farm workers and which assets they hold the interviews revealed that most landless farm workers are dependent on social grants and they also earn way below the minimum wage. Devereux and Solomon (2011) say as a result of this farm workers are described as the invisible class as a matter of their wealth deprivation and extent of disempowerment and how isolated they are. Empirical data from Devereux and Solomon (2011) showed that more than half of the total household income comes from social grants in farm worker households. This is consistent with the finding on this dissertation that many landless farm workers are highly dependent on social grants. The following quotations as said by participants 8 and 5 alluded to this:

“Also, they are in what you call it the urhm social welfare, that I'm certain that I'm quite certain about it the alternative means of means of, of income yah” ...Participant 8

“They normally have livestock, cattle, some they do have chickens, some they do have pigs”... Participant 5

Chapter Summary

Chapter 5 is structured in a way that all tabulations and methods of analysis used could easily be answering the different research questions that were set out in the beginning of the dissertation. Data presented from the survey is from the two main groups of landless which are emerging farmers and farm workers, whereas data from the qualitative interviews projects opinions of public service officials on public policy and how it affects the livelihoods of the landless. The qualitative data also provides insight into the implementing processes of land redistribution and how these can be improved. This data stands a chance to contribute rich information to landless studies and how it has panned out in the context of South Africa. The data provided considered the different tenets of the conceptual framework derived, which made it less complicated interpreting the large amount of data the researcher had to sieve through. The conclusions drawn from the data provided will be briefly summarized in the final chapter and policy recommendations made.



CHAPTER SIX

6 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS & RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Summary

Below is the summary of results found by the study according to all the objectives set out at the beginning of the study:

- To assess the typologies of landlessness that exist in Fezile Dabi District

The data from the research has revealed that there is not just one type of landlessness that exists within Fezile Dabi District Municipality. Different types of landlessness exist in the agricultural community here, proving that the landless are not so much of a homogenous collective as we would like to think. The data shows that some of them have formal jobs while others don't, also a big proportion of them are beneficiaries of social security programmes from the government as a result of extremely low wages they earn. The biggest take-home from the data, however, is also a fact that even those who are beneficiaries of land redistribution remain landless despite vast agricultural resources such as livestock that they hold under their names. Therefore their participation in land redistribution does not directly equate to land ownership and this is because of the lease based system used by the state which also has advantages and disadvantages. Below is a table showing the overarching types/trends of landlessness in Fezile Dabi District as provided by the data.

Table 6.1.1 Landlessness Typologies

Landless Cluster	Financial Assets	Land Rights	Security of Tenure
Farm worker 1	Farm-wage Child/Disability/Old Age grant	No rights at all	Prone to evictions
Farm worker 2	Farm-wage Child/Disability/Old age grant	Use rights only	Long term farm labourer: minimal to medium exposure to evictions currently

Emerging farmer 1	Salary Sale of farm produce Other income	Farming on communal	Formal/informal agreement for occupation of statesland
Emerging Farmer 2	Sale of farm produce Old Age/Disability grant	Farming on smaller farms individually Farming on smaller farms as part of a project	Lease of farmland from the government

Source: Author's own compilation

- To determine livelihood strategies, assets and outcomes pursued by the landless.

From the beginning, the dissertation worked with the definition that landlessness is defined by the total absence of property rights (title deed) and use rights. Landless emerging farmers on lease contracts have use rights to properties they occupy, and many farm workers find themselves without both use rights and property rights. Therefore, data presented proves that both emerging farmers on lease contracts and farm workers are landless in one way or the other. The study reveals that over a quarter of emerging landless farmers are informal jobs, earn a living from the sale of their farm produce and are dependent on other types of income including social grants. This, therefore, means their livelihoods are quite blended and diversified. Ellis (2000) draws a scenario on the economic motivation of diversification, which says that if an individual's marginal labour return in farming is below what they would make in off-farm wage rate or self-employment, then the household member should be switched to non-farm activities. The results in the data presented show that what landless farmers make from their formal jobs, social grants, other incomes streams combined is above their returns from the sale of farm produce, therefore their diversification in livelihoods is justified and makes perfect economic sense. Multiple/varied financial assets of landless emerging farmers give their asset portfolio more weight.

According to Scoones (1998) when assessing livelihoods, poverty levels serve as a very good criterion. The data reveals that financial capitals that landless farm workers are mostly dependent on are low wages and social security grants most notably child grants and old age grants. Average estimations in the study show that they earn way below the South African minimum wage. When using the food poverty line which equals to R561 per person per month according to Stats SA (2019), on average farm worker households spend R760 on food per month. This is a sign of very high poverty levels in landless farm workers as the average money

spent on food gets shared amongst 3-4 people in a single household. There is an institutional dimension of livelihoods, it includes tenure systems which govern access to land for farming especially for marginalized groups such as farm workers (Ellis, 2000). The data presented by the research shows that all landless farm workers in the study are not part of Equity Schemes and therefore have no current benefits to the Extension of the Security of Tenure Act, one of them being secure rights of tenure. Only a few are using farm portions at the farms they live on for food security purposes, however, they do not own the portions or even understand fully the terms under which they are allowed to use those farm portions.

- To provide an overview of who has been benefiting from land redistribution:

The results from this study show that all beneficiaries of land redistribution reached by the survey are those who identify as black by race. In South Africa, a policy that bolsters land redistribution attempt to undo damages of the 1913 Natives Land Act which took land from African sharecroppers and generally restricted black farmland ownership.

In this data landless emerging farmers make up the biggest group of those who are benefitting from land redistribution, they farm on varied farmlands such as communal, state-lands and smaller farms on a lease basis from the government. In terms of age, the average landless emerging farmer is 55 years of age and farmers with title deeds are 59 years of age. Furthermore, laws and policies that govern women's land rights are adequate, this from looking at the gender equality element on the following; ANC Land Policy, RDP, the Communal Property Associations Act and the 2011 Green Paper on Land Reform. Theoretically, this points out that clear commitment to ensuring equality on land ownership between men and women is largely visible in South African Land Policy. Although when aggregated by gender the results of this study show that there are more males than females in those who benefit from different land redistribution programmes. There are more males than female farmers with title deeds and more males are landless emerging farmers, but this attributes to the low number of females in both categories. Gibson (2010) in addressing attitudes held by South Africans towards land redistribution, his study reveals that black South Africans find the three most pressing issues in their lives as the following: joblessness, the HIV/AIDS epidemic and crime. However, results in this study show that almost 83% of those who are not yet beneficiaries of land redistribution are interested in different types of farming and have expressed the utmost land need. Only certain aspects of institutionalisation are keeping them away from being beneficiaries, this might include the criteria used by different land redistribution programs.

In summary, those who have been benefiting from land redistribution are black men more than women, despite one of the main constitutional imperatives of the South African government being the intention to redistribute farmland to women, the youth and people with disabilities (Pienaar, 2015). A big percentage of them come into the program landless and remain theoretically landless even after land redistribution. Landless farm workers are the least beneficiaries of land redistribution programmes, the data has shown that most of them do not hold any use of rights or ownership to farmland even though they are interested in farming.

To determine what selection criteria were followed to qualify people for land redistribution the data direct to us that identifying land redistribution beneficiaries is the full responsibility of the government structures. The duty falls on the Beneficiary Selection Committee within the Department of Agriculture, Land Reform and Rural Development (DALRRD). There is no information from the interviews that points to landlessness being a pre-requisite or key criterion in land redistribution. In the interviews, merit focus was given to other factors such as skills, agricultural assets for instance livestock and availability of markets for whatever crop the applicant will be producing. The reasoning that the implementing department is interested in seeing proof of cultivating and management skills in applicants came across as very dominant. Moreover, generally, redistribution policy has always been criticized for the own contribution element which the implementing department uses as an indicator of commitment (Kepe and Hall, 2016). Analysis of the qualitative interviews for this study confirms that indeed having own resources does put one at a better chance of being considered for land redistribution, resources whether in the form of skills or farming assets. This, therefore, means that land redistribution policy in its current form is quite hostile for those who don't have these resources. The livelihood status of landless households whether farm workers or emerging farmers and their ability to withstand poverty are dictated by their access to and control over assets. The only assets owned by the landless are livestock, social capital and financial capital from different sources including social grants. Therefore, land redistribution when targeting landless people should interrogate all types of assets people have and how these can contribute to their livelihoods especially as emerging farmers.

6.2 Policy Recommendations

6.2.1 Acknowledge the existence of different types of landlessness

In South Africa, the main targeted groups for land redistribution in policy are the landless, farm workers, women and the rural poor. Data from this study has provided four broad options of landlessness that exist in Fezile Dabi District. All the four identified typologies make use of different types of capital assets to make a living. Rural areas are generally known for being poor but there are varying lengths of poverty amongst dwellers which is also the case with landlessness. Importantly, varying degrees of landlessness call for varying interventions for targeted groups in the land redistribution programs. Moreover, land redistribution policy meant to transform the lives of the landless should be able to create practical linkages between structures/institutions and micro-level livelihoods of beneficiaries as the conceptual framework used for the study illustrates.

6.2.2 Develop an asset-based framework to land redistribution

The process of qualifying people for land redistribution should take into consideration the contextual economic, political and social elements which determine their ability to pursue certain livelihood strategies they need. Capital assets are multi-dimensional and serve different purposes in different households. Therefore choosing beneficiaries on the only basis that they can form viable farming businesses does not seem adequate, it ignores the interplay of different kinds of capitals in rural person's livelihood. An asset-based framework can give a better understanding of livelihood strategies and outcomes the poor can achieve, as well as effects of trends and shocks they could face.

6.2.3 Prioritise the rural landless in land redistribution programme

Due to low-income levels as indicated by the findings of this thesis, deliberate efforts need to be made by the government to provide especially landless farm workers and emerging farmers with land to farm on. Challenges are persistent despite laws such as the Extension of Security of Tenure Act 62 of 1997 that provides farm workers with their right to occupy and use land. Problems which include lack of sufficient agricultural support to emerging farmers that prevents them from graduating into successful smallholder farmers should be addressed. This can be done through the development of pro-landless policy at higher levels of governance.

6.2.4 Promote livelihood diversification in emerging farmers

One of land redistribution's main objectives is to nurture improved livelihoods and quality of life for previously disadvantaged individuals through acquiring land which can also be used for commercial farming. Data provided by the study has shown how heterogeneous emerging farmers are, they consist of titled farmers and landless farmers. The landless farmers have more diversified livelihoods than titled farmers which boosts their overall income. They pursue different types of livelihood strategies that run concurrently with farming and from this, they can have competitive income annually. The livelihood activities they are involved in have positive outcomes that they stand to achieve such as reduced vulnerability, food security and more income.

6.3 Further Study

A single study on landlessness as a criterion in land redistribution can never unpack all the important elements of landlessness as a concept. There's need to do more research that can influence policy and solve problems related to landlessness on a structural level. The study is a major contribution as Fezile Dabi is an under-researched area in agrarian studies as compared to other districts in the Free State Province. Different studies can fill up the gaps of this one (due to scope limitations), which will make the conceptualisation of an asset-based framework to landlessness come full circle. Firstly, there's a need for a study that will break down the broad landless typologies identified in this study, to narrow down the differentiation so that they can be clearly defined. There's also an opportunity for studies on landlessness and its impact on overall wellbeing, another area that needs attention is one to determine if economic policy is pro-landless. This can inform us on whether there's a need for policy amendments so that policy used is beneficial to landless people.

6.4 Conclusion

Despite the many policy imperatives South African land reform has recruited to speed up land redistribution, landlessness within the previously disadvantaged members of society persists. This thesis has illustrated that landlessness is rife even amongst those who are righteously the beneficiaries of land redistribution according to the constitution. Furthermore, it has been a reminder of the theoretical meaning of landlessness in contrast with what it is taken to be in practice. In terms of livelihoods, the thesis showed proof of blended livelihood strategies

pursued by landless people and the result of their livelihood outcomes. It has highlighted the strengths of an asset-based framework to landlessness which will fill the gaps of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework such as over-concentration of only the micro-level, avoiding higher policy development. In the constitution, Sections 25(5), 25(6), 25(7), 25(8) and 25(9) address issues of equitable access to land, the redistribution part of it especially for those who had limited access to it as a result of discriminatory laws. Consequently, the High-Level Panel suggests that for equitable access to happen there's need for a framework that will take into consideration people's land needs (Kepe and Hall, 2016). This henceforth calls for a more intensified policy focus on giving land to the landless because this research has proven extensive need for land amongst landless people and how the different capital assets, they have access to allows them of better outcomes in farming. Through an asset-based criterion to land redistribution, as well as land policy that is coupled with an efficient agricultural support programme landless people can secure household food security, use small land sizes efficiently and maximize their yields on small land portions.



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ANNEXURE A - PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH LETTER AND PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



rural development
& land reform

Department:
Rural Development and Land Reform
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR-GENERAL

Private Bag X833, Pretoria, 0001; 184 Jeff Masemola Street, Pretoria; Tel: 012 312 8911;
Email: DGOffice@drdlr.gov.za

Ms LK Makobane
03 Marion Crescent
Ravensmead
CAPE TOWN
0800

Dear Ms Makobane

www.etd.uwc.ac.za

APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

Thank you for your application providing details of your research in relation to your mini-dissertation.

The Department has no objection to your request to conduct research; however, the following must be adhered to:

- The final copy of your research report must be submitted to the Department prior to your final submission to the Institution of study.
- Files and records may not be removed from the Department's archives.
- Photocopies of official records may not be made for public purposes.
- Names of individuals from official records may not be published.
- Access to the records must be arranged in collaboration with the Head of Office, or in the case of National Office, with the Directorate: Information and Innovation Management Services.
- The Department reserves the right to restrict access to files of a sensitive nature.
- Access to classified information will not be granted if you have not been security cleared.
- Supply annual proof of registration from your University to the Department.

The Department will not be responsible for your travelling and accommodation expenses during this time of conducting the research.

Departement van Landelike Ontwikkeling en Grondverreëring - Umnyango Wenzokuthululwa Kwezizwe ZaseMkhaya Nenzingulo Kwezomlaba - Muzano wa Mvelo-dzo sa Mahayisi na Mbuyedzedzo ya Mavu - Ndzawulo ya Nkhuvukho wa Matlholotho na Anlwano wa Misasa - Lefapha la Thabolo la Magae le Ndzawulo ya Matatsho - Lefapha la Thabolo la Dikala la Maba - Igqirya ya Thabolo ya Onagumagae le Peleanyoliso ya Naga - ISebe loPhuhliso leamaPlandi noNyerezo nemihlabe - Umnyango wokuThuthukisa iNtando zamaKhaya noKujalelwa kekhama - Likho Lotokuthululwa KwezizweTasemaphandleni nenzingulo Kwezomlaba

APPROVAL TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

You will need to sign the attached letter of indemnity before conducting research in the Department.

Your co-operation to meticulously adhere to the aforementioned will be highly appreciated.

Kind regards



MS R SADIKI

ACTING DIRECTOR-GENERAL: RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

DATE: 2019.08.17



**UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE**



rural development & land reform

Department:
Rural Development and Land Reform
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

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INDEMNIFICATION BY MS LK MAKOBANE TO THE GOVERNMENT OF SOUTH AFRICA THROUGH ITS DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

Whereas I, the undersigned, requested permission to conduct research in the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (the Department);

I understand and agree that the Department has granted permission that I may conduct research subject to the under-mentioned conditions:

I may not disclose to any unauthorised person confidential or secret information of whatever nature, which comes to my knowledge as a result of my research, either by word of mouth, telephonically, by means of an interview or by means of me receiving or reading notes, documents or letters, without prior written permission of the Acting Deputy Director-General: Corporate Support Services ((A)DDG: CSS), or an official duly authorised by him or her.

If I am in any doubt as to whether I may use or refer to information gathered in the Department during my research I shall first obtain the written permission of the (A)DDG: CSS.

I agree to assume all risks relating to me conducting research in the Department and I indemnify the Department against the following:

- a) Claims arising from my death or any personal injury I may suffer while on the Department's premises or while in any way busy with the research referred to herein.
- b) Claims for the loss of any personal property I may suffer while on the Department's premises or while in any way busy with the training referred to herein.

Departamenti van Landelike Ontwikkeling en Grondbesonning - Umrhango Wezokuthukisa Kwezindawo Zesemakhasi Nezinguqulo Kwezomhlaba - Muzhho wa Mveliziso ye Mahayimi na Mbuyelwazi ye Majoli - Ndabawo ye Nhlaliso wa Mathosikaya na Antwazo wa Mzava - Lafapha le Thabolo ye Mqasa le Nhlaliso ye Mafaliso - Lafapha le Thabolo ye Dikho be Mafise - Kgoro ye Thabolo ye Dinagangiso le Paqanyoliso ye Naga - ISebe loPhuhliso lwamaPhazili noBuyeko lwamHlaba - Umrhango wokuThukisa iNdlawo yamaKhasi okubuyelwa Kwehlathe - I-Gko Lokuthukisa Kwezindawo Zesemaphandeni Nalinguqulo Kuzomhlaba

INDEMNIFICATION BY MS LK MAKOBANE TO THE GOVERNMENT OF SOUTH AFRICA THROUGH ITS DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REFORM

Initials: _____ Witnesses: 1. _____ 2. _____

- c) Claims by any third party (including, but not limited to, employees or contractors of the Department and members of the public) as a result of any act or omission on my part while on the Department's premises or while in any way busy with the research referred to herein.
- d) Claims by any third party (including, but not limited to, employees or contractors of the Department and members of the public) as a result of the publication by me of any information I obtained from the Department.

I understand and accept that the Department may at any time withdraw the permission to me to conduct research in the Department, without the giving of reasons.

When on the Department's premises I must have in my possession a copy of the letter giving me permission to conduct research in the Department, and I must produce it to any employee of the Department requesting the letter.

SIGNED AT _____ THE _____ DAY OF _____ 2019

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 SIGNATURE
 WESTERN CAPE

WITNESSES:

1. _____

2. _____



Departement van Landelike Ontwikkeling en Grondverremling - Umhlango Wsezakutubukaka Kwesizakho Zesemakhiya Ndzoguzuko Kwesomhata - Munento wa Mvelakazi ye Mahayeni ne MfeyoDzalo ye Mazi - Ntsakulo ye Ntswakiso wa Mathekaya ne Anbiso wa Misa - Lefapha le Tshabaliso ye Maga le Nohwaliso ye Mafaishe - Lefapha le Tshabaliso ye Dibaka ne Mahle - Kipro ye Tshabaliso ye Dinagamaga le Tsakanyolewa ye Naga - Isele ePhuntso leamaPhandle neGujenezi leemhata - Umhlango wokuTshutukisa iNtsho zomakhiya nakuSujelwa kweNaha - Likho Latokutubukaka KwesizakhoTsemaphandleni ndzoguzuko kutemhata

ANNEXURE B – LETTER OF CONSENT: TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW



Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa

Telephone: (021) 959 3858/6 Fax: (021) 959 3865

E-mail: pkippie@uwc.ac.za



LETTER OF CONSENT: TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW

|

I hereby agree that, I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, and received satisfactory answers to my questions, and any additional details I wanted.

I agree to take part in this research.

I understand that my participation in this study is voluntary. I am free not to participate and have the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without having to explain myself.

I agree not to divulge any information that was discussed in the interview.

I am aware that the information I provide in this survey might result in research which may be published, but my name will not be used.

I understand that my identity will be kept anonymous.

I understand that my signature on this form indicates that I understand the information on the information sheet regarding the structure of the questions.

I have read the information regarding this research study on criteria used in land redistribution.

I agree to answer the questions to the best of my ability.

I understand that if I don't want my name to be used that this will be ensured by the researcher.

I may also refuse to answer any questions that I don't want to answer.

By signing this letter, I give free and informed consent to participate in this research study.

CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Participant signature..... Date.....

CONSENT FOR TAPE RECORDING

I hereby agree to the tape-recording of my interview in the study.

Participant signature..... Date.....

Interviewer name..... Signature.....

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This research is being conducted by **Lebohang Makobane**, a student at the University of the Western Cape. Her contact details are as follows:

Cell: +21 76 181 8323

Email: 2761945@myuwc.ac.za

If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact **Dr. Abdulrazack Karriem** The Institute for Social Development (ISD), University of the Western Cape. His contact details are as follows:

Tel: +27 (021) 959 3858

Email: akarriem@uwc.ac.za



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ANNEXURE C– LETTER OF CONSENT: TO PARTICIPATE IN SURVEY



Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa

Telephone: (021) 959 3858/6 Fax: (021) 959 3865

E-mail: pkippie@uwc.ac.za



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LETTER OF CONSENT: TO PARTICIPATE IN A SURVEY

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I may also refuse to answer any questions that I don't want to answer.

By signing this letter, I give free and informed consent to participate in this research study.

CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Participant signature.....

Date.....

Interviewer name.....

Signature.....

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A group of people
is better than a crowd.
An action is better than a plan.
An action is better than a plan.

This research is being conducted by **Lebohang Makobane**, a student at the University of the Western Cape. Her contact details are as follows:

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ANNEXURE D – QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENT FOR THE STUDY



Qualitative instrument for the study: REDISTRIBUTING FARMLAND TO THE LANDLESS IN FEZILE DABI DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY: A SYNTHESIS OF THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS FRAMEWORK

Key Informant Interview – Government Officials

<i>Name of interviewer</i>		<i>Date of interview</i>	
<i>Local Municipality</i>		<i>Title/function</i>	

QUESTIONS

Background

1. Briefly describe your position, primary responsibilities and key activities in the Department? How long have you been working in it?
2. How are your responsibilities related to land redistribution?
3. What programmes are you working in? Their operationalization? Land Transfer Programmes/ Agricultural Development and Support Programmes?
4. How long have you been working in the Department? (probe)

Criteria

5. Do you have any programme that works with landless people (probe), What & how many are they?
6. In your view, how did the people targeted by the program become landless?



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7. What is their tenure/ownership position currently? What land rights do they hold?
8. What is the gender representation of targeted beneficiaries? Has this changed over the years? How?
9. What is the gender representation of the actual beneficiaries? Has this changed over the years? How?
10. Have people made headway in these programmes? Why do you say so? (probe on determinants of success). Do you have somewhat have not made headway? Why have they failed?
11. According to you, do you think the district has adequate numbers of land reform beneficiaries, given the total number of people who usually apply? Has the number of beneficiaries changed over the years (increase/decrease)? What could be the cause of increase or decrease?
12. Can you further explain the character of beneficiaries (probe on ownership position of beneficiaries). Are they smallholders or farmworkers? What assets do they have?
13. In your view, does policy favour landless people? Why do you say so?
14. In your view, should landless people make up largest population of beneficiaries of land redistribution? Why?
15. Is that the situation in Fezile Dabi District Municipality? Why?
16. What changes and/or improvements would you wish to see in the beneficiating process of land reform in Fezile Dabi District?

Support to smallholders

17. What specific programmes are there that focus on support offered to landless smallholder farmers?
18. What kind of support is offered to these landless smallholder farmers?
19. Do these programmes prioritize their needs over those of smallholder farmers with land? If not why? If yes how do you choose who benefits?



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20. How long is the support offered to these landless smallholder farmers?
21. What role is played by private business sector in the region to support landless smallholder farmers? How do they help?
22. To what extent do institutionalized agencies do business with landless smallholder farmers?
23. What are the common challenges that contribute to landless smallholder farmers stopping to farm?
24. Who is most likely to stop? (Probe between male and female participants/those with/without assets, those with/without support and any specific Locality)
25. In your knowledge, how many smallholders were landless and now have land?

Farm workers

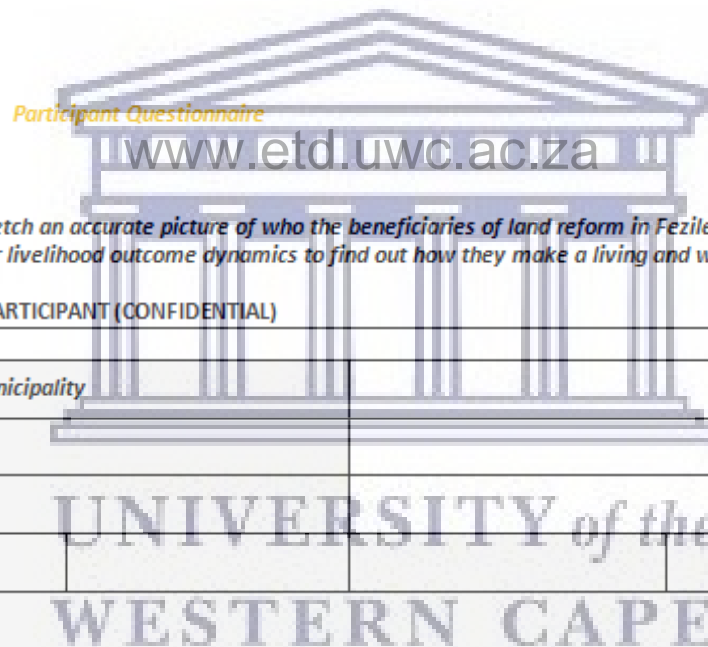
26. How do you describe the condition of farm workers in Fezile Dabi District?
27. What is their main livelihood strategy?
28. How are they using the land?
29. In your opinion what are the contributing factors to these main livelihood strategies? (Enablers and hindrances)
30. Are the farmworkers tenure secure? How many? Are you willing to share any documents that prove this with us?
31. How do you make sure those who are not are tenure secure?
32. Do you think this process has been adequate? If not, what could be done to improve this?
33. Overall, what do you identify as successes and challenges of land redistribution in Fezile Dabi District Municipality?

THANK YOU.

ANNEXURE E – QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE STUDY



Quantitative questionnaire for the study: REDISTRIBUTING FARMLAND TO THE LANDLESS IN FEZILE DABI DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY: A SYNTHESIS OF THE SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS FRAMEWORK



This study aims to sketch an accurate picture of who the beneficiaries of land reform in Fezile Dabi District have been. We also aim to probe their livelihood outcome dynamics to find out how they make a living and what assets they hold.

A. DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPANT (CONFIDENTIAL)

i. Name of Local Municipality	
ii. Contact number	
iii. Race	
iv. Gender	
Number of dependents	
v. Age	
vi. Marital status	

B. KEY QUESTIONS

B.1 In the last year (2018/19), how much income did you earn from any of the following sources?

Income Sources	Primary Involvement (source)			Total Income (self reported)
	YES	NO	N/A	
1. Salary/wages				



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2. Pension(old age/child support)	YES	NO	N/A	
3. Sale of farm Produce (crops/livestock)	YES	NO	N/A	
4. Sale of Land	YES	NO	N/A	
5. Other Sources	YES	NO	N/A	

B.2 In the last month (September/October), how much money did you spend on each of the following items?

Expenditure Category	Monthly Spent			Monetary Value/ Amount (self-reported)
1. Food	YES	NO	N/A	
2. Clothing	YES	NO	N/A	
3. Housing (rental)	YES	NO	N/A	
4. Water & electricity (household)	YES	NO	N/A	
5. Transportation	YES	NO	N/A	
6. School fees (registration)	YES	NO	N/A	
7. School books uniforms	YES	NO	N/A	
8. Entertainment	YES	NO	N/A	

B.3 Are you engaged in any crop or livestock farming?

1 Crop farming	YES	NO	N/A
2 Livestock farming	YES	NO	N/A
3 Mixed (crop & livestock)	YES	NO	N/A
4 Not applicable	YES	NO	N/A

B.4 What is the main reason for your engagement in farming?

- 1=As a main source of food for the household
- 2=As the main source of income/earning a living
- 3=As an extra source of income
- 4=As an extra source of food for the household
- 5=As a leisure activity or hobby e.g. gardening

B.5 Do you own the land on which you farm on?

Farmland ownership	YES	NO	N/A
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B.6 Do you work for wages on any farm?



Farm-work wage	YES	NO	N/A
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SECTION C: FARM-WORKERS

IF FARM WORKER ANSWER SECTION C				
C.1 Do you have a written employment contract with basic conditions of employment benefits (UIF, pension or medical aid)?	Yes	No		
C.2 How many hours per week do you work on the farm?	40-45 hours	38 hours & less		
C.3 Do you work on the farm throughout the year except annual leave and public holidays	Yes	No		
C.4. Do you have any prospects of owning a farm/a portion of a farm	Yes	No		
C.5 Do you own a portion of the farm you work on at the moment	Yes	No		
C.6 Do you occupy and use it with the owner's consent?	Yes	No		
C.7 What is the size of the portion you own	1 ha >	YES	NO	N/A
	2 ha >	YES	NO	N/A
	0,45 ha >	YES	NO	N/A



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	0,45 ha<	YES	NO	N/A
C.8 What do you use it for?	Add to household income	YES	NO	N/A
	Food security purposes	YES	NO	N/A
	Other	YES	NO	N/A
C.9 On what basis do you have access to this land?	Own the land	YES	NO	N/A
	Rents the land	YES	NO	N/A
	Sharecropping	YES	NO	N/A
	Do not know	YES	NO	N/A
C.10 Have you been involved in an...?	PROGRAM	C.10.1 Month/year joined	C.10.2 Main benefit from involvement?	
	Farm Equity Scheme			
	Agri- Village			
C.11 How much additional farmland if any, do you need, for?		C.11.1 Size needed (hectares)	C.11.2 Preferred land holding/tenure arrangement	
	Crops farming			
	Livestock farming			



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IF SMALLHOLDER FARMER ANSWER SECTION D

D.1 On what basis do you have access to the land on which you farm?

D.1.5 EXTENT OF OWNERSHIP				D.1.6 SIZE
D 1.1 Own the land	YES	NO	N/A	
D 1.2 Rents the land	YES	NO	N/A	
D 1.3 Sharecropping	YES	NO	N/A	
D 1.4 State-land	YES	NO	N/A	

D.2 Do you have a title deed or this farm? YES NO

D.3 If yes, how long have you had the title deed for the farm?

D.4 What kind of support have you received from government to assist with your farming activities?

D4.6				D4.7 MONETARY VALUE
D 4.1	YES	NO	N/A	
D 4.2	YES	NO	N/A	
D 4.3	YES	NO	N/A	
D 4.4	YES	NO	N/A	
D 4.5	YES	NO	N/A	

D.5 What kind of support have you received from the private sector in relation to this farm?

D 5.5 SUPPORT				D 5.6 MONETARY VALUE
D 5.1	YES	NO	N/A	



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	FINANCIAL							
	D 5.2 AGRICULTURAL EXTENSION VISITS	YES	NO	N/A				
	D 5.3 FERTILISER	YES	NO	N/A				
	D 5.4 EQUIPMENT	YES	NO	N/A				
D.6 How many people do you employ on this farm?	D.6.1 Permanent		D.6.2 Casual/Temporary					
D.7 How much of the land is operational (ha) [used for crop/livestock farming]?	D.7.1 Operational (used)			D.7.2 Non operational				
D.8 Have you received any to buy or invest in farmland?				D.8.4 Month/year land grant received	D.8.5 Financial/Monetary value of land grant value	D.8.6 Farmland size purchased with grant	D.8.7 Farmland size currently used	
	D	YES	NO	N/A				
	8.1							
	D	YES	NO	N/A				
	8.2							
	D	YES	NO	N/A				
	8.3							
D.9 How much additional farmland, if any, do you need and for what?				D.9.3 Size needed (hectares)	D.9.4 Preferred landholding/tenure arrangement			



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	D9.1 Crops Framing	YES	NO	N/A			
	D9.2 Livestock Farming	YES	NO	N/A			

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND PARTICIPATION

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