

**Socio-economic analysis of land reform projects at Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province of South Africa: comparing the degree of contribution to food security**

by

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**Declaration**

I, Harry Mafora Maboia, declare that the dissertation entitled “Socio-economic analysis of land reform projects at Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province of South Africa: comparing the degree of contribution to food security” represents my work in design and execution, and that all sources used or quoted herein are acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....  
Mr. Maboia Harry Mafora

.....  
DATE

## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my parents Mr. Griffiths Madimetja and Mrs. Lebo Janneth Maboya for providing me with a home, an education and guidance throughout my life. It is indeed an honour to have parents of your calibre. This achievement is also a product of the loving support from my wife Mamodiane “Selogadi sa Mphela le Pheladi” and the understanding of my children, Ramolokwane, Moloto and Modikwe who afforded me time and space to conduct this study.

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## ABSTRACT

The study focused primarily on the socio-economic benefit(s) of land reform beneficiaries with regard to food security. The study further investigated the socio-economic impact of selected land reform projects in the Limpopo Province which is also very critical for many parts of South Africa. Apart from the traditional output based evaluation of land reform projects, the study managed to identify key significant variables that could be the focus in reforming land reform projects in the future. The study also highlights variables that could contribute positively or negatively to the attainment of socio-economic deliverables of the objectives of land reform. The conclusive data for the study was obtained from 170 beneficiaries of the land reform programme. Beneficiaries have benefited from Land Redistribution and Agricultural Development (LRAD) and Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) sub-programmes of land reform in the area of Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality within the Greater Sekhukhune District Local Municipality.

The Multinomial Logic Model (MLM) was regarded as the best model for data analysis and was used to analyse the degree of contribution of socio-economic factors to food security among beneficiaries of LRAD and SLAG. Three categories were selected to determine the level of beneficiaries satisfaction with food security, namely; 1) None; 2) Moderate and 3) High. Dependent variables selected were 1) Number of beneficiaries, 2) Gender, 3) Farm size/ha, 4) Enterprise, 5) Land reform sub programme, 6) Proximity to the project, 7) Decision, 8) Knowledge, 9) Skills, 10) Training, 11) participation in Development organisation, 12) Sustaining production, and 13) Sustaining financial obligation.

The study indicated that the participation of beneficiaries in decision making could contribute positively to the attainment of food security. A positive relationship with food security was determined and confirmed the study hypothesis. Knowledge was also found to have a significant relationship with the attainment of household food security. Knowledge was again found linked to training of beneficiaries which in general was inadequate. The study further revealed that almost all beneficiaries were failing to maintain production and financial obligations. Contrary to the hypothesis, enterprise was not found to be significant to the attainment of beneficiaries' household food security.

The study concluded that land reform is still relevant to food security in the area. It was also concluded that there is a need to develop a comprehensive agricultural development plan to advance the objective of the land reform programme.

**Key words:** Socio-economic, Land reform, food security, agriculture, household, projects, production, redistribution, Knowledge, Sekhukhune.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AALS	Affirmative Action Loan Scheme
AREIO	African Regional Economic Integration Organisation
AgriBEE	Agriculture Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
CDE	Centre for Development and Enterprise
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CASP	Comprehensive and Agricultural Support Programme
CODESA	Convention for a Democratic South Africa
DTA	Democratic Turnhalle Alliance
DoA	Department of Agriculture
DLA	Department of Land Affairs
DoRA	Division of Revenue Act
ECE	Economic Commission of Europe
ESCOMSA	Electricity Supply Commission of South Africa
EMLM	Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality
ERP	Extension Recovery Programme
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
LRAD	Land Redistribution and Agricultural Development
LRPP	Land Reform Pilot Programme
LDA	Limpopo Department of Agriculture
LPG	Limpopo Provincial Government
MALA	Ministry of Agriculture and Land Administration
MLM	Multinomial Logic Model
NUDO	National Union of Democrats
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
PLAS	Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy
PSLSD	Project for Statistic on Living Standard and Development
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SLAG	Settlement Land Acquisition Grant
SWAPO	South West African People's Organisation
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community

SADC	Southern African Development Countries
SSA	Statistics South Africa
SPSAA	Strategic Plan for South African Agriculture
IFSS	The integrated Food Security Strategy for South Africa
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
ZAR	Zuid Afrikaanse Republike



## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

*“White paper on Land Reform Policy envisaged that land will be distributed more equitably, that poverty will be eradicated and that the overall quality of the beneficiaries’ lives will improve in a sustainable way in both the medium and long term”*

H J van der Elst (2007)

#### 1.1 Background

Land is regarded as source of income, livelihood, food security, cultural identity and shelter for all citizens (FAO, 2006). According to FAO (2004), land distribution in South Africa can assist in breaking the cycle of food insecurity. There are arrays of benefits that land reform could achieve and fundamental to all is socio-economic upliftment of target groups (Rugege, 2004). The socio-economic benefit of land reform in relation to food security is the basis for the study. A study by Human Science Research Council (HSRC) reveals that food insecurity is widening at the household level compared to the national level (HSRC, 2004). Food security also takes a centre stage for discussion in the global arena. According to Drimie and Mini (2003), food security is critical to all citizens. Section 27 of the constitution of the Republic of South Africa clearly indicates that every citizen has the right to have access to sufficient food and water and that government through relevant prescripts within its means must ensure availability of enough food for all (DoA, 2002; Bonti-Ankomah, 2001). The government of the Republic of South Africa has since 1994 prioritised food security (Kepe and Tessaro, 2012; du Toit, 2011) while land reform is regarded as a means to improve livelihood (Kepe and Tessaro, 2012), reduce poverty (Elst, 2007) and promote food security (Bonti-Ankomah, 2001).

In 2004, the HSRC estimated that approximately 14 million people in South Africa were vulnerable to food insecurity. This number is 35% of the country population. On the other hand, more than 1.5 million children under the age of six (6) were recorded to have been stunted by malnutrition. It is however, regrettable that the 2011 census indicates that

41.4% of the total population is living under the poverty line (Stats SA, 2012). The vulnerable number has increased drastically as compared to the 2004 figures. Food security is therefore, related to the efficiency of the country's agricultural production. This does not exclude the performance of land reform. Agriculture and land reform are very critical in Southern African Developing Countries (SADC) to respond to challenges of food security. South Africa has recognised the role played by agriculture in providing food for its citizens (HSRC, 2004).

It is clearly assumed that land reform beneficiaries are better off than most of the former homeland landholders. HSRC provides a clear assumption that land reform beneficiaries will have secure land tenure and access to public infrastructure services than most people elsewhere. The importance of post settlement support to apprehend any form of non-production is critical to ensure a meaningful role of land reform in food production. The provision of support structures to land reform beneficiaries could positively impact on low-income household's food security. Table 1.1 indicates key analytical issues to food security in South Africa. The study deals with the impact of land reform on food security as also fundamental to HSRC analytical questions. While the study indicates that some redistribution sub-programme could significantly match the challenges of food security, variables to the contrary are discussed later.

In 1994, the government of the Republic of South Africa took initiatives to develop the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) document to drive amongst others food security priorities of the government. Several efforts followed in strengthening the government's role in ensuring food security in the country. The government took a decision to increase its spending on social grants, providing free health services for children less than six (6) years of age, pregnant and lactating women, introduced school feeding schemes and to a certain degree, dedicated support to people living with disabilities. A need for policy shift was discussed by the South African government just after 1994 to ensure integration of government policies on food security to reinforce the importance of food security across related government programmes. Food security strategies were to be implemented by taking cognisance of the following: a need to produce enough food in a more sustainable way; making food affordable to the poor; ensuring that citizens get food that is nutritious; ensuring that food reserves are available

to meet any possible shortage at all times and providing means to monitor and communicate food security status in a consistent and transparent manner.

The importance of land reform in providing food security has also been central to the discussions and is well documented in a number of scientific studies (D'Haese and Kirsten, 2003; Grigg, 1993; Boyle, 2003; Asenso-Okyere *et al.*, 1997). In an effort to ensure food security, the Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) was developed with the aim to attain universal physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to all South Africans at all times to meet dietary and food preferences for active and healthy life (DoA, 2002). In the year 2000 the Cabinet of the Republic of South Africa launched the IFSS to deal with six priority areas. It is important to mention the first three as critical to the study 1) to increase household food production and trading; 2) to improve income generation and job creation opportunities, and 3) to improve nutrition and food safety.

The goal of the IFSS was to eradicate hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 2015 in line with the following strategic objectives: improved household food production and trading; improved income generation and job creation opportunities; improved nutrition and food safety; increased safety nets and food emergency management systems; improved analysis and information management system; provision of capacity building, and the creation of a platform for open discussion with stakeholders around food security (DoA, 2002). In line with the government approach to ensure provision of resources to enable food production, the creation of job opportunities to provide secure income and provision of food security, land reform became central. The food security strategy calls for the involvement of all participants within and outside government. Several government departments were identified to ensure meaningful participation on food security provision. The participating departments include the then Department of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Public works, Health, Social development, Statistics South Africa and others (DoA, 2002). By that time, the Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs was to chair the meetings and drive the food security strategy. The coordination and integration of programmes of government were of importance to this ministry. Currently, the department is divided into two Ministries, namely; the Department of Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries and the Department of Rural Development & Land Reform. This was initiated to allow for alignment of functions and a focused development approach.

However, a proper coordination of resources and activities is still required between the two departments to ensure achievement of food security and rural development.

**Table 1.1: Key medium-term issues for food security policy in South Africa**

<b>Issue No</b>	<b>Focus</b>
1.	Should public sector policy in South Africa accommodate the dynamic of the regional food market? IF so, how might this best be done?
2.	How is HIV/AIDS impacting on food security?
3.	What is the extent of food security in South Africa? And what are the major determinants of food security for low-income households
4.	How is food security affected by institutional and infrastructural deficiencies that constrain access to no-agricultural components of income?
5.	How does land reform impact on food security?
6.	How do infrastructural and institutional supply-side constraints affect food production in low-income households?
7.	How and why has agricultural support services deteriorated?
8.	What is the appropriate role for food gardening in promoting food security?
9.	What influence does a food price fluctuation have on food security and how might their influence best be mitigated?
10.	How can the development of proactive and reactive systems to minimise and respond to food emergencies best be undertaken or assisted?
11	What are the most cost-effective ways of improving public health services and public education to reduce malnutrition?

Source: HSRC (2004)

The critical questions raised in Table 1.1 guided the study as indicated. Land reform challenges, namely; the educational systems, infrastructure support and other related support factors are also discussed in detail. In support of the questions raised in Table 1.1, Bonti-Ankomah (2001) deliberated on the importance of land reform and food security for human survival. While food security challenges affect a number of socio-economic gains, land reform could assist in responding to some of the challenges. It is expected that there should be a positive relationship between people with access to land and food security.

Ardington and Lunds (1996) are of the opinion that most people with access to land are able to produce and contribute to the overall household income by almost 20%. On the other hand, Place and Hazell (1993) found no relationship between tenure security and productive improvement in Ghana, Kenya and Rwanda. Fundamentally, productive use of land allocated through land reform programme is critical for food security more especially in the rural areas.

The development of land reform to attain food security for citizens is very important in the achievement of the six priorities. In support of the IFSS, the Department of Agriculture through the establishment of the Strategic Plan for South African Agriculture (SPSAA) prioritised the following objectives; 1) to ensure equitable access to agricultural sector, 2) to reduce poverty and inequality in land ownership and ensure global competitiveness and profitability in the agricultural sector, 3) ensure sustainability in resource management, and 5) further ensure efficiency and improved national and food household food security (FAO, 2004). In support of land reform projects, Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) was established to intervene in six priority areas called pillars, one of those being on and off farm infrastructure to assist also food Security beneficiaries. The Department of Agriculture in Limpopo province has a holistic approach towards food security intervention which includes the establishment of small-scale commercial enterprises such as poultry projects. The department has also partnered with local and international agencies to assist in delivering its mandate around food security in line with the provisions of land reform. The investment made towards land reform including support efforts, are critical to improve the socio-economic status of the beneficiaries and eventually addressing food security.

## **1.2 Problem statement**

According to Provide Projects (2009), the unemployment rate at Sekhukhune District is very high as compared to other districts within the Limpopo Province. In 2009, the same report shows that Sekhukhune District had the highest unemployment rate of 73.45% and 40.44% considering the broad and strict definition respectively. Considering the fact that Limpopo agricultural sector is regarded as the sustainable livelihood sector (Provide Projects, 2009), the agricultural land delivered through land reform is expected to

continue to ensure socio-economic benefits and guarantee livelihood to the beneficiaries. The agricultural sector is expected to enhance economic growth in Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality (EMLM). Apart from mining, agriculture is one of the driving forces of the economy of Sekhukhune District. As clearly indicated in the municipality's strategic plan, the agricultural sector needs to be protected for the economic well-being of the area.

Acknowledging the importance of the agricultural sector and the need for its protection to continue to play a meaningful role to boost the economy of the municipality, land reform impact cannot be left without scrutiny. It is very clear that land reform threatens the economic stability of the area (EMLM, 2010). The need to analyse the socio-economic benefits of land reform in the area is very critical and imperative. The observed trend of evaluating the impact of land reform from the perspective of total land distributed in relation to the number of people who have benefited provides a limitation in appreciating the value of land reform (Turner, 2001). Therefore, Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality was identified for the study since it has a number of land reform projects in the district as compared to other local municipalities. The projects are mostly located on high potential agricultural land of the municipality, giving them an equal chance of success like commercial farmers.

### **1.3 Research objectives**

The main objective of the study is to contribute to the body of knowledge with regard to the performance of land reform in South Africa, looking at food security as one of the socio-economic benefits expected in line with the objectives of land reform programmes. The specific objectives of the study are as follows:

- i) To analyse food security benefit as one of the important socio-economic benefits expected to be gained by land reform beneficiaries
- ii) To assess factors that could have contributed to the positive or negative socio-economic benefits of land reform.

## 1.4 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

- Land reform beneficiaries of the LRAD and SLAG are more likely to contribute moderately to food security;
- Land reform beneficiaries will have a better chance of having improved food security;
- The variables like number of beneficiaries in the project; farm size, decision-making, enterprise, proximity to the project, participation in development organisation, training, gender, knowledge, skills, sustaining production and ability to pay project financial obligations will be significant to food security gains in a land reform projects.

## 1.5 Significance of the study

Land reform in South Africa is expected to play a pivotal role in development (Anseeuw and Mathebula, 2008). Most of the beneficiaries of land reform had higher expectations that the programme would change their lives and livelihood in general. Reading through different land reform policies, political redress is associated with the socio-economic empowerment. The constitution of the Republic of South Africa gives high regard for land reform programme and provides political will to support the programme. This political will gives rise to a budget allocation to support the programme. The is global communities indicated overwhelming support to land reform by providing financial assistance and to a certain degree capacity to officials and beneficiaries. The reality is that government of South Africa year in and out spends money on the land reform programme for both pre and post settlement needs.

The beneficiaries of land reform should understand that land reform costs tax payer's money. Therefore, efforts should be made to ensure the use of land provided. This could be achieved through meaningful participation in the project and providing services for production outputs. The general view that government's responsibility was just the redistribution of land is contested by Elst (2007), that support is critical to achieve meaningful outcomes. The point of departure is to check whether within the notion of land

redistribution, the programme has achieved improved quality of life. The view that land reform has failed to provide meaningful contribution to the beneficiaries is not rejected but is analysed through specific variables as contained in this study. The reality is that food security could be realised as part of socio-economic benefits of land reform. The variables to be discussed are beneficiary size, land size, decision taken et cetera. These variables are discussed in detail below.

The development role of land reform provides for change in the socio-economic status of beneficiaries. The livelihood of beneficiaries is expected to change as a result of land reform contribution. There are also some research efforts conducted on challenges faced by land reform in Southern Africa which relate to land tenure system and economic effects. In 2008, Anseeuw and Mathebula carried out a similar research in Limpopo, focusing on the area of Molemole Local Municipality. The research detailed the limited impact of land reform projects on socio-economic aspects. In this study, Elias Motsoaledi was an area of focus and the study investigates the effect of land reform on agriculture as raised by the municipality. Every land distributed should count for livelihoods and economic difference to the district.

## **1.6 Outline of the study**

Chapter 1 deals with the general over view of land reform and food security. It further highlights the strategic documents that give reference to food security and land reform in South Africa, namely; the constitution of the Republic and IFSS. The chapter also provides a detail description of the importance of the study and its significance to land reform.

Chapter 2 discusses the detailed view of food security and land reform in South Africa and other countries. Different land reform programmes are discussed in relation to the study.

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology. The area under study is also discussed in details covering demographics, economic sectors, employment and unemployment status of the area, et cetera.



Chapter 4 focuses on the results in detail by providing clear perspective of variables considered in the study.

Chapter 5 provides a summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Land reform post settlement imperatives are also discussed in order to improve socio-economic benefits.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

*“Land provides a source of income, livelihood, food security, cultural identity, and shelter, as well as being a fundamental asset for the economic empowerment of the poor and a safety net in times of hardship”*

FAO (2006)

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a definition of key concepts followed by the biblical understanding of land reform. The chapter further indicates the origin and challenges of food security from a land reform perspective. An in depth discussion of South African land reform programmes is discussed. The chapter also indicates the achievement registered in South Africa with regard to land reform and also brings into surface the post settlement programmes intended to support beneficiaries of land reform. Towards the end of the chapter an international perspective of land reform programmes from countries such as Malawi, Zimbabwe, Brazil, etcetera is discussed. The reader also explores the relationship between political, social and economic challenges of food security and land reform in South Africa.

#### **2.2 Definition of concepts**

There is a wide acknowledgment that food security is defined in different ways. To have a clear understanding the study sticks to the most acceptable definitions. The IFSS, food security definition will form part of the discussion. In order to have a common understanding, it should be noted that the availability of food is not enough in reference to the acceptable definition of food security (DoA, 2002). According to FAO (2004) “food security is when all people at all times have both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life”. The definition indicates that the availability of food is not enough unless it is of a particular quality and that people have financial means to buy it.

D’Hease and Kirsten (2003) defined food security as adequate access to food at all times, throughout the year and from year to year. While a limitation is picked from this definition, the study can however, see some similarities with FAO. Access to food at all times form part of both definitions. The development of IFSS provides policy interventions in line with these two definitions and other underlying factors. A definition and understanding of concepts and factors could also direct the strategies and model of intervention.

Siamwalla and Valdes, (1980) defined food security as “the ability of countries, regions or households to meet their required levels of food consumption at all times”. In the context of these definitions, it is important to look at the strategy developed by South Africa in dealing with challenges of food security. The South African strategy on food security recognises the sustainability of access to food and the nutritious value of food to the population.

### **2.3 The Bible and land reform**

The land question is not a theory. The origin of the land question has been a debate for many centuries and has its roots in the creation of human kind. Reading from the bible, a need for land reform is related to the creator of Heaven and Earth. The Christian faith emphasises that the land question is not only for political gain but also for religious achievement. The book of Ephesians 4:6 emphasised land equality of which it states that all human beings are born equal in dignity and rights (Holy Bible, 1982). The right to land is also emphasised in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.

The Pontifical Council for Justice and Peace (1997) relates land ownership and the need to distribute land equally by quoting the ten commandments that “You shall not desire your neighbour's house, his field, or his man-servant, or his maid-servant, his ox, or his ass, or anything that is your neighbour's". The Bible condemns any means of dispossession. It further protects the right to individual land or livelihood assets as means for the people to use and enjoy. Land in God’s word is an asset to ensure life and provide food. Land provides economic freedom and it is declared as the people’s asset.

The Bible further emphasised that no one has the supreme power on the land except for the use and management, as it is provided to all. It could be argued that from a biblical context, land is not seen as an asset that could be exchanged for economic gain and it cannot be sold. This ensures that land is available to the poor for production and enjoyment purposes. The colonial history provided land as a tradable asset leaving the powerless with no means to take part in the land market. The land price is currently debated across the globe as land reform in most of the countries was structured to follow market trends. The land sales have also negatively impacted some countries that are following market-led land reform approach as they are facing budgetary constraints. Countries such as South Africa and Malawi are currently concerned about the land price as a determining factor to restore the pride of those deprived of land by the minority. The willing-seller-willing-buyer principle is currently under scrutiny since it failed to fast track the land reform in many countries. Perhaps land should just remain the property of the Creator and not individuals. The debate around land reform may not be separated from the biblical context as the Bible provides a guide to re-think the importance of land reform. The Bible put forward the guide to develop policies that are consistent with the needs of the intended beneficiaries.

Many centuries ago after the passing away of Abraham's wife, Abraham approached Efron the Hittite to sell him land to bury his wife. Efron the Hittite was willing to give land to Abraham for free but the man denied the offer and insisted on buying the land. The land sale to Abraham was a means to avoid future land ownership contestations. The first land sales today could be referred to as a good means for exchanging land but the unintended consequence is felt across the globe as few individuals can afford to buy land. The book of Genesis 23 recorded the first transaction of land purchase which today symbolises land reform in most parts of the world (Feder and Nishio, 1999).

Countries such as South Africa, Colombia and Brazil went through process of negotiated land reform. The negotiated land reform started with the development of an agreed constitution adopted by these countries to drive land reform objectives (Deninger, 1999). The same author further agrees that there are reasons and proof that suggests that land reform may provide equity and efficiency despite challenges such as the lack of necessary cash flow and information to turn the assets to productive use and to gain

access to credit. Most of the people who are recipients of land (reform programme) are poor in nature requiring a lot of assistance.

Contrary to the land ownership that seeks to promote secure land rights, Deininger (1999) suggests that targeting farmers that are already producing with no registered tenure arrangement has high chances of success, since it is assumed that certain levels of knowledge, skills and assets exist. Furthermore, in this type of land reform, no change in organisational structures and farming systems is required. Land transfers from large scale farmers to small scale farmers requires a change in the pattern of production, constructions of complementary infrastructure, sub-division of the farms and settlement of additional beneficiaries, but with well managed programmes beneficiaries could still benefit (Deininger, 1999).

There is no doubt that land reform or distribution of land is fundamentally core to the political debate in many of the countries (Van Donge, 2005). The origin of land reform is characterised by the long history of disputes over land which caused civil wars and revolutions (Deininger and Binswanger, 1999). Disputes over the means of survival to create livelihood are some of the realities of land reform. Land reform in several countries was due to the long history of colonisation and devastating battle over resources. Africa is the most affected continent due to colonisation by the western countries. Land dispossession has resulted in a number of casualties, poverty, food insecurity, a wide gap between the rich and the poor, skewed land ownership, unemployment and a generally poor economy. South Africa as part of Africa had experienced unfair treatment from colonial oppressors, which has resulted in skewed land policies, poverty and vulnerability to food insecurity more especially at the household level.

The South African land reform could be clearly related to the unfair land distribution of the past policies (Deininger, 1999). South Africa's land dispossession dates back to 1652 due to the arrival of British and European descendants in the Cape of Good Hope more than 300 years ago (Lahiff, 2000). Over the period prior to the democratic dispensation, South African land was already occupied by the white minority with the black majority owning only 13% of the land. Several laws were put to practice by the then apartheid government to legitimize land dispossession. As a result, the skewed land reform policies passed by the apartheid government could then relate to bias in favour of minorities.

The Native Land Act of 1913 had dire consequences on the land history of the country and cannot be ignored. The Act restricted most blacks farming operations, share-cropping, or cash rental by blacks outside the reserves. Based on this Native Land Act, blacks were restricted to marginal land constituting only 13% of the total area. As such, blacks were forcefully removed from what was regarded as areas reserved for whites to the home-lands. Overtime the black majority lost tracks of land to the white minority. The blacks were confined to highly populated areas with no capital to farm or access to productive land. The Bantu Authorities Act (Act 68 of 1951) further pushed black people to the suffocated land parcels as the establishment of tribal, regional and territorial authorities were passed in the year 1951 (Thwala, 2003).

At the beginning of democracy 82% of commercial land was in the hands of white minority constituting 86% of agricultural land (Thwala, 2003). According to Lahiff (1999), the land owned and controlled by the white minority constituted 68% of the potential surface area of South Africa. At that time the white population was only 10.9% of the population in South Africa, the majority being blacks. The 82% of land was only owned by 60 000 white owners (Levin and Weiner, 1991). At the same time farm workers were also faced with issues of tenure insecurity and lack of basic facilities.

The discriminatory laws pushed the black majority to areas under insecure tenure arrangements in the homelands with some becoming tenants on land owned by white commercial farmers. Land allocations were directed by communal setup mostly or often not consistent with any democratic norms or standards (Cousin, 1996; Lahiff, 2000). Most areas put aside for blacks were held in trust by the state with Traditional Authorities as overseers of land management and control. Today, some elements of these land management are still visible in most parts of South Africa.

The consequence of the wide dispossession of land has resulted in dire poverty and loss of valuable assets for economic development by the black people. The relationship between poverty and land reform has been recorded widely by different authors. Black people who used to farm in their own right were forced to work as farm labourers, in the mines and houses of the white minority (Kahn, 2007) under restricted labour laws. As a result, the farming experience of black people was lost overtime (DoA, 2002). The black

majority today provide labour at different economic sectors of the country. The situation is worsened by the fact that even those who received land through land reform are unable to work the land. Land reform could be a breakthrough in feeding millions of people across the globe. It should be noted that South Africa is not regarded as poor, but is vulnerable to poverty since the economic proceeds are not shared equally. Several land reform programmes are still relevant to South Africa as they are relevant elsewhere in the world to address socio-economic imbalances. The economic, social and other related benefits of land reform cannot be over-emphasized.

The 13 million people found in the homelands were forced under a poverty trap just after the homeland demarcations. According to Wilson and Ramphela (2003), the living condition of the blacks in areas designated for blacks were characterised by poverty, high infant mortality and lack of proper education. Bonti- Ankomah(2001)indicated that 39% of the South African population was vulnerable to food insecurity with 22% of children under the age of nine years stunted due to chronic malnutrition. Most of the rural areas lack livelihood strategies to deal with the issues of food insecurity. There is a high dependency in the rural areas on wage income while the employment level is not sufficient to sustain all rural people to deal with issues of poverty. Rural communities require land to produce food as supplement for wage income sources.

Several years of colonisation in most of the countries in Africa resulted in the need for political debate to address the question of land disparities (Van Donge, 2005; Silungwe, 2009). The historical challenge of land reform comes along way. Today most of the African countries are faced with political, social and economic challenges. This set of challenges mostly has affected land allocation, production, education, trade, health, and has widened the gap between the rich and the poor. The unfortunate part is the escalating challenge of food insecurity and malnutrition recorded across the globe. In more simple terms, land reform is important for political redress, social balance and economic reform.

The question of land reform has evoked several political debates over time. Land reform debates in some parts of the world could be regarded as gaining political support from mostly the landless people (Macmillan, 2000). Land reform has to deal with efforts to change the government structures to ensure better acceptable methods of land

ownership, control and usage (World bank, 1995). In some corners of the world land reform is related to production means by the majority of the citizens. The ability to provide land to peasants is fundamentally important (Deininger, 1999).

The evolution and discussion of land reform takes several shapes. This could be related to economic shifts since production and income generation for the people is at the centre stage. The history of land reform is also debated along the question of asset management, ownership and rights to use land. Recently, in South Africa there is a total shift to question the current land reform policies as stated above. The discussions are around the ability of land reform to transform the lives of the poor timeously and cost effectively. The question of willing-seller-willing-buyer concept is under the spotlight as many believe that derails the transformation of land reform.

Land reform is at the centre of the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO). FAO provides assistance to member states to deal with issues of land reform challenges. During the Twenty- Fourth Regional Conference for Africa (ARC/06) in 2006 member states took firm decisions to consider support to agrarian reform, land policy and administration in support of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (FAO, 2006). This firm decision also came as a result of the state of poverty in Africa and the realisation of the economic down turn.

There is also clear evidence that Africa challenges of land issues affect mostly the poor as compared to the rich (FAO, 2006). Since African land rights are mostly insecure, the smallholder farmers are often deprived from gaining access to land thereby reducing their ability to improve livelihood from land based activities. Apart from issues of landlessness there is also growing evidence that livelihood is declining due to issues of conflict, natural disasters and HIV/AIDs pandemic (FAO, 2006).

Countries require structured policies on land reform developed along the recognition of the importance of the subject. Poverty reduction also requires secure land rights and equitable redress of land. The equitable distribution of production assets such as land provides a better solution to poverty. The first MDG -1 deals with poverty eradication. The third MDG is environmental sustainability. Land allocation to the poor in whatever manner



must promote its sustainable usage hence the two MDG's, which are important when discussing land reform (FAO, 2006).

However, there are weaknesses noted by FAO in the implementation and realisation of the objective of the MDG's. The first is the weak links between the MDG's target and development of other related policies. The Poverty Reduction Strategy paper development did not take into consideration the land issues as centre of focus for any poverty policy framework. MDG's are also not prescriptive enough when dealing with poverty, sustainable livelihood, income growth, assets, security, and environmental sustainability. The gaps identified provide areas for concern and need to be closed to attain meaningful objectives. At the bottom level, there is a view that the attainability of the MDG's by the sub-Saharan African countries is a not simple considering the following challenges: conflicts over resources; governments that are not managed properly; degradation of natural resources and adverse effects of climate change.

All the above factors constrain sub-Saharan Africa to prosper the economy and move the poor out of the poverty trap. Poverty is more visible in the rural areas than in the urban set-up. The majority of rural people depend on land to attain proper livelihood. Land access is very important for rural people than most in the urban areas due to limited means of survival. Agriculture is still regarded as the main source of livelihood. The absence of land for the poor affects efforts for production. Apart from access to land, Africa is still faced with issues related to access to markets, credit and appropriate technology for effective farming operations (FAO, 2006). Market is regarded as an essential tool to stimulate production and improve income (Senyolo *et al.*, (2009).

Lack of access to credit by the land reform beneficiaries derails efforts of land reform. Agricultural production in its nature requires more financial capital (FAO, 2006; Jacobs, 2003). South African land reform programme mostly did not provide provision for production assistance, in particular the redistribution land reform programme until recently with the established recapitalization programme. Due to the fact that farmers are unable to access credit, they produce little and fail to enter the market. Most markets require volumes of produce and production should also be consistent to sustain the market. The other underlying factor is the fact that some parts of Africa still do not have tenure reform that encourages credit (FAO, 2006).

Due to other competing land needs, plot sizes are decreasing which affects meaningful production and return. Political debate on land reform at some stage was propelled by the notion of inverse farm-size in relation to productivity factor (Deininger, 2003). The total number of beneficiaries in any landholding is also regarded as a matter of concern particularly, if the land is relatively small.

There is a relationship between land reform and migration of people to cities in search for better livelihood. This is related to the failure of agricultural land to provide alternative income for the poor. The continued influx of people to the urban area is currently putting pressure to urban resources, creating a new debate on the land reform and access to land. There is currently high demand for land and other resources in the province of Gauteng as result of migration from other parts of the country including the communities from SADC countries (Stats SA, 2012). A well packaged land reform plan could stimulate rural economy and discourage migration to urban areas for job opportunities. There must be a striking balance between the resources in the rural area and job creation.

## **2.4 Origin and challenges of food security**

According to DoA (2002), the challenges of food insecurity in South Africa dated back to the era of oppression by the colonial system. The apartheid system affected the majority of the black population in many ways. Several laws were passed by the apartheid government to deprive black people of access to resource-based economic factors such as land and financial capital.

The most talked about legislation is the Land Act of 1913, which pushed the black majority out of productive land in favour of the white minority. According to Rugege (2004), the intention of the Act was to impoverish black majority. As the land was taken away from black African people, the farming systems and agricultural benefits were also eroded. The livelihood of the majority related to land production was lost. The loss of land also meant brain drain as people with years of knowledge and experience had to migrate to other areas for livelihood opportunities. As a result of land dispossession the majority of citizens were forced to work on farms or provide cheap labour in the mining sector.

The education system (Bantu Education) was also not adequate for the black African people to acquire the level of required education for meaningful economic development (Wilson and Ramphela, 1989; Rugege, 2004).

The marginalisation of women is highlighted as one of the historical landmarks of the colonial and apartheid era. Women across many countries are regarded as the highly marginalised group within society. While gender issues are not a critical focus of this study, it is important to acknowledge the importance of women within the discussion of food security and land reform. Arnon (1987) emphasised the importance of women in providing labour to agriculture while Walker (2002) indicated a need for equal access to land across all genders more especially for women. According to Arnon (1987), women provide on average of 40% labour while 70% of farming activities are also carried out by women.

It is a well-known fact that land reform can play a significant role in ensuring food security, job creation and economic stability (FAO, 2006). The same document demands countries to re-look into strategies that could improve food security. A need to reprioritise efforts to deal with food security challenges is based on the increased number of population in the world experiencing poverty. The shocking numbers of people who are undernourished even after years of declaring war against hunger cannot be ignored. The study conducted by the Committee on World Food Security indicated little or no movement on the implementation of the resolutions taken in 1996 during the World food Summit (FAO, 2006).

FAO (2006) indicated that 820 million people in the developing countries, 25 million people in the transition countries and 9 million people in the industrialised countries had been recorded as undernourished even after years of declaring war against poverty. The figure now increased to 850 million people (representing 12.5% of the population) as compared to 1996 statistics (FAO, 2012). Most of these people live in the underdeveloped countries.

According to FAO (2006), poverty is deepening in Sub-Saharan Africa. There is evidence that between 1981 and 2001 poverty levels have increased from 41% to 46%. This unfortunate increase in poverty resulted in more than 150 million people experiencing

extreme poverty. There is also proof that 313 million people in sub-Saharan Africa live on less than US\$1 per day. Rural areas of the region experience extreme poverty as compared to the urban parts of the region. Land deprivation is noted as one of the key factors facing the region that hinders the realisation of food security. Lack of sufficient land for agricultural activities in sub-Saharan Africa continues to deprive rural poor the opportunities to produce food and wealth for better life. The importance of land cannot be overemphasised in dealing with the challenge of food security in the region. Land is an asset for improved household food security.

South Africa is not immune to the challenges of food security. The South African government is expected to implement the land reform programme in order to realise a balance between political and food security improvement. According to Jacobs (2009), the challenge of food insecurity has been well researched and documented. The authors further provided literature reviews that could assist in understanding the challenge of food security in the country. Table 2.1 indicates that in 2007, 12.2% of children experienced hunger while 10.6% of adults were also experiencing the same. The percentage spending of the poor in 2005/6 was around R1 100 per household per month representing 37% of the total spending. In the period 2002 to 2007, the per capita food spending for a hungry person was R117 to R155 which is regarded as the lowest reported. The Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development (PSLSD) has revealed that 39% of the population (14.8million people) did not meet their daily energy requirement of 2000 kcal/day (PSLSD, 1994). It is also recorded that the national stunting rate of young children ranges between 23% and 27%. In short, about 1.5 million children under the age of 6 years are malnourished.

**Table 2.1 Comparison of food security measures among low-income households**

Content of food security indicator (author)	Underlying data/survey period	Food spending share (%)	Household food security status (% of households falling below food security threshold)	Lessons for food security target
Food expenditure shares (Aliber, 2009)	IES 2005/2006	Poorest 10% spend 37% of total spending on food; approx. R1 100 per household per month; restricted dietary diversity	Ranges up to lower 40% of sample	IES probably underestimates addition of own production to household food security (e.g. meat); similarly, local informal trade in locally produced agrofoods; households eat less diverse diets
Hunger Scale proxy (Aliber, 2009)	GHS 2002–2007	Per capita food spending 2006/2007 for hungry person: R117–R155	Hunger scale proxy; for 2007 children (12.2%) and adults (10.6%) experienced hunger	Profiles hungry households in terms of location, dwelling and employment; access to social grants affects movements in and out of hunger, especially for children
Household food production (Aliber, 2009)	Labour Force Survey 2000–2007	Farm as main or extra food supply	4 million people	Farm to supply main or extra source of food; own production perhaps makes up gap in meat consumption
Hunger Scale Index (Labadarios et al., 2008)	National Food Consumption Survey 2005	Food insufficiency and insecurity due to constrained resources; monthly income <R1 000 (55%); spent lowest amount of money weekly on food	51.6% experienced hunger; 33.0% at risk of hunger	Department of Health research; sampled 2 894 households drawn from 2001 Census; Hunger Scale Index comprising 8 questions probing aspects of hunger
Food spending and prices (NAMC, 2008)	Quarterly food price monitor (2008, 3rd Q)	Per capita cost of most common South African food basket in Oct/Nov 2008, R344 per month (R260 in 2007)	No explicit indicator	Focus on food Expenditure; Rural food inflation relatively higher making basic food basket more expensive; Food inflation falls disproportionately more on low-income households
Composite Food Security Indicator (Rose & Charlton, 2002)	IES 1995, Food prices, Medical Research Council Energy Index	Food-insecure (35.2%); monthly per capita food spending R61.60 (R114.00, 2007 Rand)	National (38.7%) Rural (54.0%) Urban (26.5%)	Low per capita income; low expenditure on food; poor level of dietary diversity
Energy requirement and HIV stages (micro study) (Ladzani, 2009)	North West case study 2005–2007	Low-cost basic nutritional food basket = R645.52 for household with 2 adults and 2 children	No explicit indicator	Excludes monetary value for self-provisioned fruits and vegetables (no meat) For infected persons energy intake increase for adults (20–30%) and children (50–100%) above asymptomatic persons; protein intake for adults 12–15% of total energy intake
Food spending and rural poverty (micro study) (Fraser et al., 2003)	Once-off village-level case studies in 1999 (Eastern Cape)	R476.30/ave. expenditure/month poverty-line = food spending (25%); R238.18/ave. expenditure/month poverty-line = food spending (>50%)	No explicit indicator	Purpose-built and small sample size; ultra-poor often go without food; piecework to supply children with food

Source: Jacobs, 2009

Notably, the country has a high percentage of poverty despite the constitution of the Republic of South Africa, policies and a number of legislative frameworks available to deal primarily with food security challenges. Food insecurity in South Africa defeats the objective of the country's constitution (FAO, 2004). The right to food in South Africa is enshrined in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa and is also regarded as a basic human rights matter (FAO, 2004). Quite important is to establish the benefit of land reform to the improvement of food security of the beneficiaries with the assistance of support programmes like Comprehensive Agricultural Support Program (CASP). Food security challenges could be summarised as follows:

#### **2.4.1 Economic growth**

Despite the overall increasing economic growth food insecurity is still prevalent in most parts of the globe. Globally economic growth increased by 2% (real per capita income), which is way below the population growth while the number of people living in poverty increased. During the period 1990 to 2010 an economic growth was recorded in most of the countries. The development countries such as South Africa experienced rapid growth in the economy till year 2000. In the same year, the growth for most of the developed countries took a knock. The slowdown in economic growth of the developed countries mostly affects the aid that is provided to mostly underdeveloped countries in order to deal with food security challenges. FAO (2012) provided three major steps to ensure access to adequate quantity and good quality food; there is a high need for economic growth to reach and ensure participation of the poor. The production outcome should be increased to ensure job opportunities and improved income – earning opportunities. The earnings by the poor should assist in improving quantity and quality of dietary intake and the state should use income earned through all government revenue systems to build safety nets, provide better education, infrastructure and public health systems.

Food security challenges from the economic point of view are also related to the issues of trade, inflation and the role of rural development (D'haese and Kirsten, 2003; FAO, 2012). Trade policies within the continent and outside Africa should reflect a need to improve the situation of the poor. Increases in land price and production inputs also increase a risk for economic development and growth.

### **2.4.2 Governance**

The development of policies that support balanced participation of citizens goes a long way in ensuring collective participation. Governments should provide an acceptable playing field for its citizen to participate in the decision making and to take part in the economy. FAO (2006; 2012) indicated that good governance boosts food security and improves nutrition in a more sustainable manner. The elements of good governance include but are not limited to, respect to democratic constitutions, transparency, political stability, fair participation of all citizens in the development of the country, protection of human rights, decisiveness in dealing with elements and act of corruption, and development of control system as well as implementation thereof.

### **2.4.3 Agriculture and land allocations**

Agriculture plays a significant role in the developing countries to improve food security. According to FAO (2012), agriculture accounts for not less than 30 percent of most economic activities. The significance of agriculture in the economy also depends on land availability, land use rights and opportunities. According to Anim (2008) and FAO (2006), property rights support the potential to invest and this could also mean investing for improved production. D'Haese and Kirsten (2003) scrutinised the significance of agriculture and food security in the rural development spectrum. The same authors also indicated that agricultural development has a significant relationship with economic growth. An increase in agricultural output relates well to increase in GDP and overall increase in countries economic outlook.

In order for agriculture to continue playing its role in the economy, land allocation and availability becomes critical because land is a key source of income, livelihood, food security, cultural identity, and shelter (FAO, 2006). Land therefore, becomes a major resource for development. Well acceptable land policies that promote sustainability go a long way to address food security.

### **2.4.4 Trade between and within countries**

Trade provides an element of exchange of goods and circulation of money in whatever currency. A fair playing field in trade encourages production and improves participation of

vulnerable groups in the economy. There is a high need for countries to remove trade barriers (FAO, 2006). The removal of trade barriers will boost farmer's confidence to compete in the global markets. There is an acknowledgement however, that the increase in production and global market opportunities will cause pressure on land and secure land rights.

Africa came up with a programme of action through the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) which is packaged within the initiative and vision of Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP). CAADP seeks to provide solutions to Africa's agricultural development challenges assist with poverty reduction and reduce challenges of food insecurity. NEPAD will soften the boarder policies of Africa to ensure smooth marketing of goods between all member states. In the same breath the SADC will assist to work with all member states by developing a regional land reform technical support facility. This will assist to address the issues of inequality and correct the racial disparities in land allocation. While still within Africa, the African Regional Economic Integration Organisation (AREIO) is also upfront in dealing with issues of land policies. African governments are showing political will to deal with both issues of land reform and food security in the continent.

## **2.5 Land reform and food security**

Land reform and food security provide a complex subject, primarily because land reform is a distinct programme, with other unintended consequences of affecting the commercial operations which are important in increasing production, improved job opportunities and dealing with food security (HSRC, 2004). Land reform is also regarded as one of the vehicles to deal with issues of inequalities and reduced poverty for the previously disadvantaged communities. Failure of land reform to support socio-economic growth and increased production could lead to economic decline (World Bank, 2004). There is a wide acknowledgement that measures put in place in Africa after democracy have not yielded results to correct the injustices of land allocation and land rights as anticipated. In South Africa the principle of willing-seller-willing buyer remains not progressive in delivering land in the manner expected as indicated before.



Access to land by women still reflects imbalances and this is threatening both food security and economic improvement. FAO (2006) called for a radical shift in policies in order to deal with the challenge of poverty. Policy shift referred to by FAO include equitable access to land by all including women or vulnerable groups. This is based also on the understanding that women are leaders of African development which includes agricultural performance and food security (D'Hease and Kirsten, 2003). The assertions that women are not given the recognition they deserve creates a gap in the system and should be corrected to ensure support and equal participation in the economy (Gumede and Bob, 2001). Policies across the world should improve processes to support rural development and livelihoods as well as capacity building that support the principle of self-help.

Disparity as a result of skewed land allocation due to the traditional and cultural views also worsens access to land to most of the destitute groups of society. Most of small-holder farmers in the rural areas continue to experience lack of access to land which results in few people contributing to food security and participating in economic activities. Access to credit and markets are some of the factors affecting the rural poor and suppressing meaningful contribution to poverty reduction. It is now factual that land reform benefits have improved tenure security in some areas which is essential for improved farm investment for better socio-economic potential (Roth *et al.*, 1989; Migot-Adholla, *et al.*, 1991). However, on the other side this important achievement is not providing the benefit as expected due to weak support structures.

The notion of land reform and property rights in the developing countries is very important for the development of farm productivity and efficiency (Benjamin and Brandt, 2002). Lending and support institutions all over the world extend support and lend to groups and individuals whose land ownership is secured. The risk of borrowing is regarded as minimal when land is under freehold title. Agricultural economic growth depends mostly on capital injection. The reality proven over decades is that unsecured land ownership makes it difficult for farmers to attract or get access to credit. According to Anim (2008), land as collateral can assist to improve credit worthiness while reducing the risk of borrowing from banks. It is assumed that the land reform beneficiaries have secured land rights, which could assist in credit access. The latter suggests that the previously disadvantaged could be in a better position to have improved farming units (as

compared to pre-democratic dispensation) for meaningful production takeoff to reduce the poverty trap.

There is a lot of expectation from the land reform programme. The most politically significant one is redress, social justice and reconciliation (Anseeuw and Mathebula, 2008). The change in livelihood of beneficiaries of land reform is also expected by the public and tax payers. Land reform could improve investment opportunities as the security of tenure is confirmed (Migot-Adholla *et al.*, 1991).

## **2.6 Land reform in South Africa**

Land reform in the Republic of South Africa evokes memories of pain, sufferings and hardship (CDE, 2008) caused by colonisation. The effect of land dispossession was made possible by the following past racial legislation: Black (Native) Land Act, 1913 (Act No.27 of 1913), which caused disparities of land settlement and land allocation; the “Released Areas” as defined in the Development Trust and Land Act, 1936 (Act No 18 of 1936); Bantu Authorities Act (Act 68 of 1951) which assisted the apartheid government to establish the tribal, regional and territorial authorities in 1951 (Thwala, 2003).

Since the dawn of democracy, the Republic of South Africa came with a number of land reform programme to correct injustices of the past. The implementation of land reform programme flows from protracted debates during the Convention for a Democratic South Africa (CODESA) to the finalisation of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Reading through the constitution of the Republic of South Africa, section 25 gives effect to the three programs of land reform in (Republic of South Africa Constitution, Act 108 of 1996). Section 25 of the constitution provides the following programs: redistribution: ‘the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis’. Section 25(5) deals with tenure Reform which indicates that ‘A person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws and practices is entitled, to the extent provided by the Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress’. Section 25 (6)) supports the Restitution prescripts and states that ‘A person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June

1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to restitution of that property or to equitable redress' (Section 25(7))' .Table 2.2 provides land reform policy legislations

**Table 2.2: Land Reform legislation 1993 – 2005**

<b>Legislation</b>	<b>Purpose</b>
Provision of Land and Assistance Act 126 of 1993	Empowers the Minister of Land Affairs to make available grants for land purchase and related purposes to individuals, households or municipalities.
Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994	Establishes the right of people dispossessed of property after 1913 to restitution of that land or alternative redress.
Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act 3 of 1996	Provides tenure rights to labour tenants living on private farms and enables them to apply to acquire full ownership of the land they already reside on and use.
Communal Property Association Act 28 of 1996	Enables groups of people to hold and manage their land jointly through a legal entity registered with the Department of Land Affairs.
Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act 31 of 1996	A temporary holding mechanism to protect the tenure rights of people who occupy land in the former homelands without formal documented rights, pending promulgation of an Act regulating communal land tenure rights (see Communal Land Rights Act below) – and renewed annually.
Extension of Security of Tenure Act 62 of 1997	Protects farm dwellers from arbitrary eviction and enables them to acquire long-term secure tenure rights, either on the farms where they currently reside or elsewhere.
Transformation of Certain Rural Areas Act 94 of 1998	Repeals the Rural Areas Act 9 of 1987 ('Act 9') and establishes procedures for upgrading the tenure rights of residents to commonage and residential land in the 23 former 'coloured' reserves (formerly Act 9 areas).
Restitution of Land Rights Amendment Act 48 of 2003	Empowers the Minister of Land Affairs to expropriate property without a court order, for restitution or other land reform purposes.
Communal Land Rights Act 11 of 2004	Provides for the transfer in ownership of land in the former homelands to communities residing there, or alternative redress, on the instigation of the Minister (not yet in effect).

Source: Hall (2004)

The South African history of land reform provides an in depth view of the development approaches, the slow adoption of land benefits and sometimes the continued dynamics

at project level. After the dawn of democracy, a Land Reform Pilot Programme (LRPP) was launched by DLA in 1995 to test the range of approaches to land reform (Hall, 2004). The launch followed a series of collective consultations with a number of role players. In September 1995, the Draft Land Policy Principle was in discussion, the Land Reform Green Paper was later published in the year 1996 and the White Paper on Land Policy was also adopted in 1997. The publication of the White Paper on South African Land Policy enshrined the principles of land reform by identifying seven key areas in need of redress namely, the injustices of racially based land dispossession; the inequitable distribution of land ownership; the need for security of tenure for all; the need for sustainable use of land; the need for rapid release of land for development; the need to record and register all rights in property; the need to administer public lands in an effective manner (DLA, 1997).

The success of land reform in South Africa was not only the responsibility of government. The programme received support from the World Bank, European Union, government of the United Kingdom (UK) and the Danish Agency through bilaterals. It is noted that the support was mainly on the monitoring and evaluation of activities of land reform (Hall, 2004).

### **2.6.1 Redistribution program of Land Reform**

According to Hall (2004), the redistribution programme was to address the divide between the 87% of the land, dominated by white commercial farming, and the 13% constituting the former 'homelands'. It is very clear that the redistribution programme also as advocated by the Constitution of the Republic will address the land disparities and transfer agricultural land to the potential beneficiaries. In assisting with land redistribution, a number of strategies were debated namely; 1) land taxes and land ceilings to raise the opportunity cost of owning underutilised land and bring additional land onto the market, and sub-division to create holding suited to the need of resource-poor, small-scale producers (Hall, 2004). On the other hand the World Bank promoted for a need to support the smallholder farmers with land to produce own food (Hall, 2004; Deininger, 1999).

Between the year 1995 and 1999 the pilot land redistribution programme aimed to benefit the poor households by providing state grants and start-up capital. This promoted land ownership and small-scale agriculture for subsistence purposes. At that time only people with income less than R1 500 per month were eligible to benefit.

According to the DLA (2007), the aims of its combined Land Redistribution and Tenure Reform Programme are as follows: redistribution of 30% of white-owned agricultural land by 2014 for sustainable agricultural development; provision of long-term tenure security for farm dwellers and other vulnerable groups; contribution to poverty reduction; contribution to economic growth; and promotion of social cohesion and economic inclusion. The following sub-programmes were established to advance the constitutional agenda of land reform:

#### **2.6.1.1 The Settlement and Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)**

In the early stages of land reform in South Africa after apartheid the government saw it befitting to establish a number of sub-programmes to assist with the political achievement of land reform. Guided by the Land Assistance Act of 1993, the SLAG programme as the main sub-programme was initiated. The focus was to settle people in grouping on relatively small parcels of land in urban and peri-urban areas including the rural areas (Hall, 2004; DLA, 1997). The SLAG programme encouraged procurement of land through groups to enable people to afford land purchase as one person was given R16 000. According to the Department of Agriculture, the land reform database in Limpopo province has got 69 SLAG projects, of which 5 will form part of the research.

The sub-programme provided an opportunity to individuals to access land for agricultural purposes through introduction of own contribution principle (MALA, 2001). The leading objective was to ensure that 30% of arable agricultural land in South Africa is transferred to previously disadvantaged communities by 2012. Table 2.3 indicates that by 2004 Limpopo had distributed 77 SLAG projects on 45 181 hectares.

**Table 2.3: SLAG projects data by provinces, 2004**

<b>Provinces</b>	<b>Projects</b>	<b>Hectares</b>	<b>Beneficiaries</b>
Eastern Cape	105	43 865	40 390
Free State	98	37 469	2 576
Gauteng	43	5 094	6 505
KwaZulu-Natal	89	68 293	8 974
Limpopo	77	45 181	6 714
Mpumalanga	53	58 858	6 973
Northern Cape	27	51 394	703
North West	36	30 554	18 128
Western Cape	71	17 493	4 908
<b>Total</b>	<b>599</b>	<b>358 201</b>	<b>95 871</b>

Sources: Hall (2004)

In the main SLAG seeks to provide land to the poor for settlement purposes and small-scale agriculture for income generation purposes. The implementation of SLAG was faced by a number of challenging factors such as, protracted implementation cycle; large groups impeding decision making; the lack of proper post settlement support and detailed pre and post settlement guiding document.

### **2.6.1.2 Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD)**

After the review of the first land reform policies in 2001, the sub-programme LRAD was established with the main focus of establishing the black commercial class of farmers (Hall, 2004). According to MALA (2001) and Elst (2007) LRAD was introduced to ensure that the previously disadvantaged South Africans access land for agricultural purposes. The political mandate was also to ensure that government reaches 30% land redistribution to previously disadvantaged people by 2014.

The LRAD programme was designed to ensure that all parties invest by contributing to the land purchase of which is between R5000 and R400 000 benchmark contribution. A

sliding scale system was used to match government contribution to individual own contribution. Over time the capital contribution was replaced by sweat equity to cover the poor. Lahiff (2008) indicated that by 2007 a total of 4.2 million hectares of white owned land was in the hands of previously disadvantaged communities representing only 5% of the total target. Fifty five percent (55%) of this land which came from the redistribution sub-programmes (SLAG, LRAD, commonage, farm equity scheme, state-led disposal and tenure reform) while the rest was part of the restitution programme effort.

Adams and Howell (2001) noted that the livelihood of intended beneficiaries has improved, but warns that the overall impact is small. In the same breath, Lahiff (2008) also observed that land reform projects in terms of productive land use and household livelihood has a limited impact due to the following factors; market-based land reform approach– land purchase in most cases depend first on the land owner's willingness to release the land to the market for the state to purchase. Apart from the land offer, budget is also a factor due escalating land prices making it very difficult for government to afford. Sometimes beneficiaries were encouraged to group themselves thereby, reducing profit per capita.

South Africa's land reform redistribution programme is faced by challenges relating to the following: the lack of coordinated efforts between the government state agencies, local government municipalities, provincial departments of Agriculture and Department of Land Affairs; the knowledge and skills gap of beneficiaries. There is no match between the subsistence and commercial farming; unwillingness of beneficiaries to move or reside at the purchased land is still a challenge. Most of the properties procured are far from beneficiary's area of residents.

Government has, however, taken measureable steps to correct some of the gaps identified with land reform post settlement support namely, the introduction of CASP, MAFISA, the establishment of post-settlement support units mainly for restitution projects and recently, the establishment of Recapitalization Programme managed within the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

## 2.6.2 Achievements of land redistribution

The redistribution and land tenure programme by end of September 2004 was around 1.9million hectares. Table 2.4 provides details of land redistribution until 2004.

**Table 2.4: Land redistribution and tenure reform by year 2004**

Year	No. of projects	Households	Female-headed Households	Individuals (LRAD)	Hectares
1994	5	1 004	12	0	71 655
1995	12	1 819	24	0	26 905
1996	49	6 256	189	0	72 416
1997	97	11 928	1 029	0	142 336
1998	236	14 943	2 934	0	205 044
1999	156	30 383	1 675	0	245 481
2000	236	29 699	1 941	363	222 351
2001	400	23 213	2 912	3 732	249 302
2002	742	14 132	691	10 650	299 969
2003	502	17 438	226	8 192	158 668
2004 (to Sept)	251	2 730	0	16 284	183 625
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>2 686</b>	<b>153 545</b>	<b>11 633</b>	<b>39 221</b>	<b>1 877 752</b>

Source: MALA (2004)

## 2.6.3 Failure of land reform

There is no dispute that land reform through proper packaging models and collective efforts could yield positive results. CDE (2008) clearly indicated that there should be efforts to bring both government and private sector to a collective agreement about land reform. The below are areas of agreement on land reform with private sector as alluded by CDE. Land reform should be seen as a constitutional mandate which seeks to address the injustices and imbalances of the past. Furthermore all stakeholders should



be willing sacrifice and compromise in order to support the implementation principles; all should ensure that land reform takes a centre stage on the political agenda since the cost of failing will cost more than anticipated and the transfer of land to blacks should be accelerated as it is necessary to first comply with the government statute.

The present slow pace of redistribution of land is worsening relations between organised agriculture and government, and among farmers, officials and farm workers in many districts. There is an urgent need to identify and remove redistribution blockages (CDE, 2008). The same author report that a process to combine and implement land reform based on two approaches could be necessary namely, the state and market approach. There should be an understanding that land reform is implemented to provide the required need for settlement and to address the historical impulse on land. In view of the above, land reform achievement is the responsibility of all citizens. All role players carry the same responsibilities with government to ensure effective land reform. The areas of disagreement on certain aspects of land reform ranging from the pace of restitution process to the markets driven system, should not limit efforts to implement land reform.

#### **2.6.4 Funding land reform in South Africa**

The South African government through taxes is the major funder of the land reform programmes. Despite challenges of the DLA (now Department of Rural Development and Land Reform) to spend the allocated budget accordingly, CDE Research no 16 of 2008 indicated that in 2006/7, R3.7 billion out of allocated R4.8billion (R2.27billion restitution; R907 million redistribution; 194 million survey and mapping and balance to administration) was spent on land reform purposes. The allocation in the period 2008/9 rose to R6.66 billion. Clearly tax payer's money allocated to land reform must be justified in line with the intended benefits and attainment of objectives.

#### **2.6.5 Post settlement support**

Lahiff (2007) indicated also that one of the challenges of the land reform programme is the lack of post settlement support. Post settlement support failure is also the result of the conceptualisation of some land reform projects, which makes any post support system ineffective (Lahiff, 2007). The importance of post settlement support for land reform beneficiaries is critical for any attainment of land reform goals and objectives.

According to Deininger (2003), post settlement support is a process of enhancing and broadening post settlement support services to land reform projects. There is a need to strengthen post settlement support to ensure cohesion function of government institution (Elst, 2007). On the other hand, post settlement services should not remain the responsibility of government only. Several agents and organs of government are critical in providing meaningful post settlement support. The main aim of this support is to ensure that beneficiaries are empowered to turn the land to use for poverty eradication and improvement of livelihood.

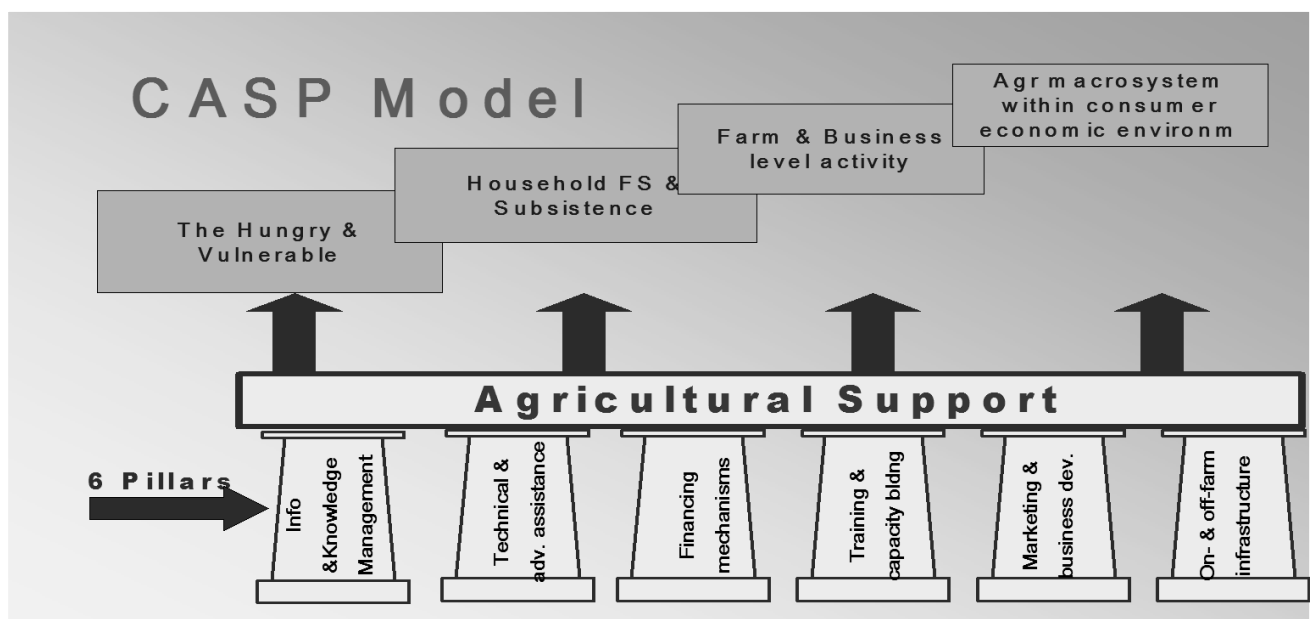
According to Elst, (2007), post-settlement support should form an integral part of the policy output in order to achieve sustainable development outcome. Post settlement support is expected to cut across all major land reform programs in South Africa namely, redistribution, land tenure and restitution. The effectiveness of post settlement support is based on the ability to attain a sustainable livelihood.

Reading through the DLA framework, it is clear that post settlement support is a shared responsibility. The service for post settlement support may involve provision of electricity for production takes-off or for broiler housing purposes, which may involve Electricity Supply Commission of South Africa (ESCOM-SA) and the local municipality. The other area for support could rest with Department of Housing, now called Human Settlement, by carrying out the responsibility of constructing low-cost housing units. The Department of Agriculture is also expected to provide extension services, provision of infrastructure for agricultural take-off and again provide assistance with regard to production inputs. It is concluded that post settlement support is a multi-dimensional issue and involves well-coordinated activities.

The lack of coordination and communication between and within government departments during pre-settlement makes it difficult for proper post settlement support. Failure of land reform post settlement will have negative effects on the success of land reform. Elst (2007) and Hall (2004) identified financial support; agricultural training support programmes; mentorship programme and environmental support structures as critical areas for any meaningful post settlement support. The following are available post settlement support programmes:

### 2.6.5.1 Comprehensive Agricultural support Programme (CASP)

In response to the challenges of post settlement support, the National Department Agriculture launched the Comprehensive Agricultural support Programme (CASP) in August 2004 (Hall, 2004). The primary aim of CASP is to make provision for agricultural support to targeted beneficiaries of the land reform and agrarian reform programme within six priority areas (CASP policy, 2004). The policy was developed as a result of Strauss Commission report, which recommended the financial “sunrise” subsidies, and the adoption of a “sunrise” package of enabling conditions for the beneficiaries of the land reform programme who require loan finance. Figure 2.1 indicates the six pillars of CASP to provide post settlement support to beneficiary of land reform.



**Figure 2.1:** CASP beneficiaries and service areas.

Source: CASP policy, (2004)

The main target beneficiaries of CASP are the recipients of land through Restitution, Redistribution and Tenure land reform programmes. CASP has further identified several government departments, agencies and other stakeholders as important for the development of effective support to land beneficiaries.

Table 2.5 indicates that the overall CASP allocation to the province by 2011/12 was standing at R4 billion with 357 000 beneficiaries assisted (Hall and Aliber, 2010).

**Table 2.5: CASP budget allocations, projects and beneficiaries, 2004/2005 to 2009/10**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Budget (R'Millions)</b>	<b>% spent</b>	<b>Projects</b>	<b>Beneficiaries</b>
2004/05	200	62	510	46 500
2005/6	250	63	1 090	53 200
2006/7	300	84	870	67 400
2007/8	451	85	786	60 300
2008/9	525	90	703	31 039
2009/10	715			35 000
2010/11	862			32 000
2011/12	979			32 000

Source: Hall and Aliber (2010)

According to Table 2.6 Limpopo Province had dispatched R654 million to farmers for post settlement reasons from CASP funding. The bulk of the budget was used for Infrastructure Development (LDA, 2012).

**Table 2.6: LDA CASP allocation and Expenditure**

<b>Year</b>	<b>CASP Allocation '000</b>	<b>Expenditure '000</b>	<b>'000% Spent</b>	<b>Number of project supported</b>	<b>Beneficiaries supported</b>
2004/5	33,428	23,065	69	2751	10020
2005/6	52,217	52,217	100	3711	12200
2006/7	50,143	47,636	95	1719	8040
2007/8	62,921	49,078	78	115	821
2008/9	95,832	95,832	100	173	1772
2009/10	108,483	103,059	95	130	1121
2010/11	144,567	144,567	100	133	1560
2011/12	154,398	139,233	90	132	1410
<b>Total</b>	<b>701,989</b>	<b>654,687</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>8864</b>	<b>36944</b>

Source: LDA (2012)

### **2.6.5.2 MAFISA**

The National Department of Agriculture in an effort to ensure financial support to land reform program, the Micro-agricultural Financial Institution of South Africa (MAFISA) was established. The credit scheme was launched in 2004 with the initial budget of R1billion (Hall, 2004). The scheme was initially managed by Land Bank and recently moved to the intermediaries' organization placed within the provinces. MAFISA was to provide production inputs (fertilizers, seeds, pesticide et cetera) to successful applicants.

### **2.6.5.3 Black Economic Empowerment (BEE)**

The land reform objective was also to be achieved through the BEE framework in South Africa. According to Hall (2004), the Agricultural Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (AgriBEE) charter was released on the 26 July 2004. The charter was flowing in line with the land redistribution target of 30% by 2014. The main focus was to ensure de-racialisation of land ownership, management and procurement in the agricultural sector. It encourages the procurement of shareholding in agricultural enterprises that were white dominated.

### **2.6.5.4 *Ilima Letsema***

*Ilima-Letsema* was introduced by the National Department of Agriculture as part of an effort to assist vulnerable South African farming communities to achieve an increased agricultural production. The budget is transferred to provinces through the Division of Revenue Act (DoRA) framework. In the Limpopo Province, the programme was introduced toward the end of 2008/9 financial year. The main goal of the programme was to reduce poverty through increased food production initiatives. The major initiative performed under this programme was the provision of production inputs. The expected outcomes are the following: reduced poverty; maximized employment opportunities to the targeted groups; and increased number of households assisted to cope with escalating food prices; and improved food production at both household and national level. Since 2008/9 financial Limpopo Department of Agriculture has received a total of R150 million and has since spent just over 90% of the allocation (LDA, 2012).

### **2.6.5.5 Extension service**

The extension and advisory service of the Department of Agriculture continues to play a critical role in land reform. Limpopo province alone has more than 700 officials that can be classified as extension workers. These workers are providing extension and advisory service to farmers including the recipients of land through government programs. In the year 2007/08 financial year, an Extension Recovery Program (ERP) was initiated with a total budget of R15 million in the province. The main of the programme was to address the challenges of skills gaps and to respond to the needs of farmers (including the beneficiaries of land reform).

According to Hall (2004) Provincial Departments of Agriculture were found to be under-capacitated and short-staffed making it difficult for them to play a meaningful role and provide support to land reform beneficiaries. The ERP was established primarily to close the gap identified by Hall covering the following pillars: Recruitment – which focuses on the shortage of staff by appointing professionals to provide services in line with the norms and standards; Information Technology – to provide adequate IT service to officials dealing with extension work. This includes the procurement of computers, printers, laptops and involvement of network service for offices; Human resource development which caters improvement of knowledge and skills of extension officials. The pillar (Human Resource) ensures that qualifications of identified extension officials are upgraded from three year to four year qualifications; Visibility – Due to the high need to ensure the visibility of extension officials within the extension service space this pillar was funded; Accountability and image - the objective is to strive for accountable sector and officials that proactively responds to the challenges of the agricultural sector.

It is noted with concern that the performance of land reform in South Africa is mostly measured by the total number of hectares either restituted or redistributed through government land reform programmes (Lahiff, 2008; Turner, 2001). On a different note, some land reform activists will also look into the policy performance of land reform and less attention is given to the socio-economic performance of the land reform programmes. Land reform in South Africa is a reality despite challenges identified by scholars, land reform activists and opposition parties (Anseeuw and Mathebula, 2008).

Prior 1994 South Africa had skewed property ownership land rights policies as indicated. The injustices on land ownership led to most of the previously disadvantaged groups or individuals without access to land. It is a known fact that only the white minority had the right to own land. The post-apartheid government provided new sets of profound land reform policies. The policies intended to provide access to land and security of tenure while redressing the injustices of the past discrimination against black groups or individuals. Central to land reform transformation in South Africa is agriculture and economic development which take priority on the government agenda. Therefore, the efforts by government should be embraced with socio-benefit to the beneficiaries.

## **2.7 Land reform from the International perspective.**

Land reform programme vary from country to country. The point of departure is to have a common understanding of the word land reform. Land is regarded as a valuable natural resource, which provides wealth and income for all (Zarin and Bujang, 1994). Land is also described as a source of income, livelihood, food security, cultural identity and shelter (FAO, 2006). Throughout history of human kind land has been part of the political debate.

According to Bhutta (2010), land reform is regarded as one of the political issues while Ntsebeza and Hall (2007) regarded land reform as a means to correct past racial exclusion and inequalities through the development of balanced policies in South Africa. Most of the country's conflicts revolve around land allocation and access. Lloyd and Danson (1999) indicate that land reform involves changing established institutional arrangements to create the conditions suitable for national, regional and local economic development. Land reform is mostly driven by politics of individual countries involving very robust and cumbersome debates across different sectors. Most countries implement land reform to address political challenges, economic redress, calming social unrest and reduce inequalities (Deininger, 1999; Van Donge, 2005; Llyod and Danson, 1999).

The primary motive of land reform throughout the world could be regarded as the same, particularly in Africa. There is also an acknowledgement that land reform is complex in

nature. Colonisation by western countries in Africa has broadened the land ownership gap, which resulted in economic distress by the poor. Zarin and Bujang (1994) believed that land reform is invariably a more or less direct publicly controlled change in the existing of land ownerships; and an attempt to a diffusion of wealth, income or productive capacity throughout the society. They also indicated that land reform seeks to address constraints as a result of the customary land tenure and replace them with private property right legislation. Land reform could also be concluded as a constitutional matter since it mostly follows the enactment of constitutional policies and guidelines principles.

Bhatta (2010) identified three types of land reform looking at the global experiences. The first type of land reform is called redistributive land reform. UN/ECE (1996) clearly indicates that redistributive land reform aims to ensure the movement of land from large land owners to the landless people or groups. In South Africa the Land Redistribution Programme is the relevant programme that is used to transfer land from commercial farmers to previously disadvantaged groups. The redistribution programme in South Africa is discussed in full in the next sections.

The other type of land reform is tenurial reform. The reform is concerned with those people with no form or little security of tenure to land. It seeks to provide some form of acceptable land security system. According to UN/ECE (1996), the tenurial reform involves a replacement of unacceptable tenure system with the most secure system that verifies security of ownership and use. In South Africa land tenure programme is one of the systems used to provide security of tenure to mostly vulnerable groups of the society for example farm tenants.

Restitution seeks to restore land rights of those mostly deprived of land due to past racially discriminatory policies and laws. The three land reform programmes are likely to be found in sub-Saharan Africa, implemented with the view of correcting land imbalances.

Apart from the land reform types across the globe, land reform is implemented by countries following different approaches. State-led approach- is one of the land reform approaches used in several countries to promote land justices. State-led approach is regarded as primary initiator and implementer of land reform (Bhatta, 2010). Ciamarra



(2003) indicated that state-led land reform consist of the central authority that disposes large landowners from the land and distribute it to selected beneficiaries. The state in this case becomes the centre of authority. The approach was seen in force in the 1950's in countries in Asia and the Middle East and again in the early 1960's around Latin America (Ciamarrs 2003; Bhatta 2010). Borrás and McKinley (2006) also indicated that the state-led approach could be regarded as one of the approaches that could fast track land reform. The limitation of state-led approach could be regarded as follows: the state may disregard or fail to acknowledge the existence of local property rights which may eventually leave important stakeholders out; the approach may give rise to acts of corruption and collapse the real need of giving all equal opportunity and limited government resources may prevail which will eventually delay any possible land restoration.

The success seen with the state-led approach is based on its ability to distribute large scale of agricultural land. Borrás and McKinley (2006) indicated the success of state-led land reform according to Table 2.7. Cuba distributed 80% of agricultural land while Costa Rica distributed just 7.1%.

**Table 2.7: Land redistribution outcomes of state-led land reform program in selected countries**

Country	Period	Redistributed Land as % of total Agricultural Land	Number of Beneficiaries as % of total Agricultural Households
Cuba	Since 1959	80	75
Bolivia	1952-77	74.5	83.4
Rep. of Korea	Since 1945	65	77
Chile	1964-73	nearly 50	20
Taiwan*	1949-53	48	48
Peru	1963-76	42.4	32
Mexico	1970 data	42.9	43.4
Philippines	1972-2005	Nearly half	two-fifths
Japan	1945 on	One-third	70
Ecoudor	1964-85	34.2	no data
El Salvador	1980 thru 1990s	20	12
Venezuela	Up to 1979	19.3	24.4
Egypt	1952-61	10	9
Brazil	1964-2005	7.6	18.5
Costa Rica	1961-79	7.1	18.5

Source: Borrás and Mckinley (2006)

The approach could accelerate land reform with an effective central government that seeks to develop a playing field for the poor. The notion that the approach could distort the land market is discarded by Borrás and McKinley (2006). Borrás and McKinley (2006) indicated that market distortion could be temporary since once the land is restored, land market is likely to return to its normality. Market-Led approach is strongly driven by market forces, which dictate the scale and the prevailing opportunities to access land. There are almost two controlling stakeholders guided by the policies of government, the seller and the buyer (Bhatta, 2010). In South Africa the market-led approach came under spotlight during the National Land Summit in 2005 (Hall, 2008). The government of South Africa during the summit acknowledged that the principle of “willing-seller-willing-buyer” slows down the progress of land reform. Apart from the buyer and the seller, government in some countries is seen providing financial aid to facilitate land procurement. In South Africa, redistribution sub-programmes namely LRAD and SLAG were at the forefront in advancing the implementation of market-led approach. Borrás and McKinley(2006) is on record arguing that market-led approach has failed to redistribute land to the poor or small-scale farmers. The economic power of the large commercial farmers and the capitalistic thinking are seen to be obstacles in ensuring equitable redistribution of land in timeous manner. Table 2.8 presents the market-led approach outcome. Between 1997 and 2005 Brazil distributed only 0.4% of its land whereas Namibia distributed not more than 6% of its land between 1990 and 2005.

Table 2.8: Land Redistribution outcomes of major Markets-Led Agrarian Reform Programmes in Several Countries

<b>Country</b>	<b>Period</b>	<b>Redistributed Land as % of total Agricultural Land</b>	<b>Number of Beneficiaries as of total agricultural households</b>
Brazil	1997-2005	0.4	1.32
Colombia	1994-2001	0.22	0.33
Guatemala	1997-2005	4.0	1.30
Philippines	2000-2005	0.01	0.03
South Africa	1994-2005	1.65	4.1
Zimbabwe	1980-1996	16.6	5.83
Namibia	1990-2005	6.0	0.16

Source: Borrás and McKinley(2006)

The last approach is called community based approach land reform model which is seen by many as the best alternative that provide the community and several stakeholders voices to implement fair land justice (Binswanger and Nguyen, 2004; Hall 2008;Bhatta 2010). There is a collective participation in the process. The model goes beyond the land reform programme and also provides a comprehensive plan of action for projects development. The following could be regarded as an incentive for using the model. It gives people the right to be treated with dignity and be valued as capable to contribute to their own development. It gives chance to people to plan, execute and maintain projects that satisfy their own needs; higher authorities including the politicians and executive officers can be held to account by the people; people are empowered to ensure that project implementation conform to the local situation; local people are also seen as implementer and accounting to the broader community; the generated income by government is shared equally to ensure economic and social benefits and all participate in the economic development equally.

Lastly, Bryden and Geisler (2007) believed that the approach focuses on community priorities. Communities are given the platform to participate in identification of land parcels that could satisfy their land need. This will motivate the community to proactively use land.

### **2.7.1 Land reform in Scotland**

The Scottish government had overtime experienced unrest on the use and management of land. Based on this discontent, a political debate was entered into primarily to ensure control over the land issues. According to the Scottish Office, (1997) as quoted by Lloyd and Danson (1999), the Scottish government took a firm decision to strengthen democratic control and accountability over the processes and institution of government and at the same time discussed the policies around the land question. MacAskill (2004) relates the land reform in Scotland as a way and means of government to restore peace in land ownership. In dealing with land reform in Scotland, a common understanding was that land reform was necessary on the ground for fairness and it could secure the public good ideology. Like other countries faced by the challenges of land reform, the Scottish government had to deal with political land issues allocation for both rural and urban

needs. The main challenge in Scotland was the lack of equitable ownership and management of land for local enterprises. This lack of management resulted in land degradation in other parts of the country. Processes to deal with land reform in Scotland are embedded in government efforts to provide clear legislative mandate to foster change. While there are clear similarities with other countries when it comes to the issue of land reform the fact remain the will to deal with the challenge. The rural constituency's area of interest will be that of agriculture while urban areas will need land for mostly settlement and development expansion.

The political will of the Scottish land reform was evident as the government took a firm decision in 1997 to form a Land Reform Policy Group with the intention of identifying and assessing land reform proposals for mostly rural areas to affirm consideration of cost, legal framework and administration implications (Lloyd and Danson, 1999). The Land Reform Policy Group within the parliamentary brief had to develop legislation that provides a fair balance between the land use and land reform. The involvement of the public sector in debating land reform was of key importance. The land reform question in Scotland could be regarded as complex also in nature due to the number of interest groups.

Below are areas of questions the group had to deal with in dealing with land reform: Land ownership – this sought to look into the rural communities ownership pattern, the effect of private estate, absentee landlords and the impact of public sector land holdings; Agriculture landlord and tenancy arrangement – apart from agriculture, the rural housing setup was on top of the agenda including access to farms, means of resolving conflicts, forestry, sporting and mineral rights; crofting – the group was to look at the issues of community land ownership; land use – this element was to provide guidance to the sustainable use of land mostly in the rural area and at the same time discourage misuse of land; law reform – this dealt with the feudal land tenure system with the view to consider land ownership; land registration – land registration was very important to provide a database for land ownership, pattern et cetera.

The endorsement of the above by the broader community of Scotland indicated a good intention to deal with the land ownership and use. Broader community participation was instrumental for the achievement of land reform shift by government. In line with the need

for land reform change the Land Reform Policy Group developed several principles to guide the actual implementation. The following are some of the principles that guided Scotland's land reform: general participation by local people, greater commitment and accountability by private land owners; information transparency; total consideration of rural communities to take decisions; allowing farming community to diversify and willingness to share resources (Lloyd and Danson, 1999).

The land reform in Scotland proved to be a process of engagement with the broader society. It is very clear that the government of Scotland is willing to provide a breakthrough into the land challenges. The current debate assists in shaping the direction of land reform and provides comfort to the investors.

### **2.7.2 Land reform in Namibia**

Namibia had years of fragmented land policy due to colonisation over some period of time. In Namibia for example 40 percent of land is commercial, surveyed and fenced and is owned by the white minority. On the other hand, 45 percent of the Namibians own about seven percent of the territory's surface in the north of the country (van Donge, 2005). In the latter part of the area, the land is not surveyed and fenced. The land in the north side is held by a number of individual with communal land ownership form. Land dispossession in Namibia was the result of German colonization around the 19<sup>th</sup> century. In the same period more land was expropriated and given to the German with Herero population deprived of land. However, other African related communities were deprived from land ownership and use. In the early 60's South Africa took over the country and continued with the type of ideological land ownership and dispossession of indigenous people. Similar to South African situation the people were confined to black areas while whites moved to what was called the white area. The work was commissioned by South Africa through Odendaal Commission around 1962 (van Donge, 2005).

Therefore, the land question in Namibia centres around the discontent of rural people as some privileged individual got richer at the expense of others and secondly, the redistribution of white-owned land to non-white population. Change in government in 1990 as South West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) took over the office gave

hope to disposed Namibians. Land reform in Namibia was characterised by ethnical groups claiming vast pieces of land. Such claims more-so by the Herero population or clan could see another form of land deprivation by other ethnical groups. A need for land and compensation by the Herero group lost power after the party representative broke away National Union of Democrats (NUDO) from Democratic Turnhalle Alliance (DTA). The government's view through SWAPO was that compensation could be considered as a result of only colonial suffering and payment should be made to the whole nation not to an individual ethnic group.

In the year 2003 government made a pronouncement to establish a Permanent Technical Team within the Ministry of Land, Resettlement and Rehabilitation to deal with land reform. The land reform shift was to ensure that blacks gain access to commercial agricultural land. Apart from land redistribution programme, the government established a Market-led voluntary land reform implemented through the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS) managed by Agribank (Namibian Parastatal). The scheme assists with the procurement of land and provides working capital at a reasonable payment rate. The Namibian government through the concept of willing-buyer-willing-seller stated that all farms put on the market would be made available to government. Once the government was unable to buy, properties could be put to the open market. It is clearly documented that land reform in Namibia was driven by the wish for black empowerment than by concerns about economic inequalities (van Donge, 2005). The efforts of land reform in Namibia are not yielding the results towards the proceeds of economic development of individuals. Pockets of achievement in terms of settling some landless can be counted. However, poverty is still rampant in some parts of the settled areas. The resettlement programme as part of the Agriculture Land Reform Act of 1995 indicates a will to procure land for the landless. This is however, moving at a snail pace and is characterised by acts of corruption and unfairness (Harring and Odendaal, 2002).

### **2.7.3 Land Reform in Malawi**

Malawi is situated on the eastern side of South Africa, bordering Mpumalanga Province. Malawi went through the process of land reform like most of the African states. Several policies were development to correct the injustices of colonisation. In 2002 a National Land Policy was adopted. Malawian land reform policy is described by Silungwe, (2009)

as human centered and pro-poor economic growth. In the deep end of colonisation Malawi experienced forms of land reform. In the 1950's land reform focused more on the customary land tenure system and by the 1990's focus was more on radical economic change.

The land reform pillars centred around the following concept "reform should center in its approach to rights in land; should foster pro-poor economic growth; should not be driven by economic prescription; and must recognise the diversity in the notions of property right" (Silungwe, 2009). Land reform guided by the constitution which supports major factors that strive for livelihood and social gain is progressive. While it is clear that land reform benefits could revive poor people living status the philosophy of development should centre also around the human approach called "human centered approach". The approach considers the views, philosophies and customary beliefs of groups of individuals. The characteristics of Malawi land reform reflected in the Presidential Commission of Inquiry on Land Reform of 1996 and the National Land Policy of 2002.

The land reform policy in Malawi is viewed by many as flawed due to the focus on the land law project principle (Silungwe, 2009). There is a need for government to close the gap between the current land philosophy and shift toward real economic change. The major challenge with Malawi land reform is the enactment of laws which are not necessarily consistent with the situation facing the majority on the ground. The majority of Malawians still cannot take part in land reform in its current form driven by willing-buyer-willing-seller principle. It was understood that between the year 1992 and 1994 the principle of land reform was based on fair redistribution model. The current form of land reform is characterised by convergence of power struggle rather than guidance in law or policy. There are some similarities between the South Africa and Malawian land reform process. The approaches to land reform could be singled out as follows: the land redistribution models are based on the willing seller/willing buyer approach; the land restitution models are based on a historicised and contextualised approach and both formal reform of land tenure promotes the reform of customary land tenure.

The analysis of the first type of land reform revealed the reality that the landless do not benefit in the manner anticipated. The documented results show that the process is protracted and most beneficiaries appear not to have means to farm the land as required.

Furthermore, there is some level of conspiracy and price manipulation which leads to lots of unproductive land put to the market. The latter practices render the land reform benefit not realised by the intended beneficiaries. The colonisation of Malawi by British settlers and the government of Mr. K. Banda pushed the economic reform of the country backwards. President Banda's land policy prevailed to be self-enriching rather than restoring the social-economic dignity of the majority. The recent land policy under Mr. B. Muluzi administration provides hope even though a lot still need to be done to ensure sustainable economic freedom from any land reform initiatives. The constitutional and financial gaps can render the efforts to just mere rhetoric statement (Silungwe, 2009)

## 2.8 Land reform and socio-economic expectations

The study has dealt with a number of issues regarding land reform in South Africa and elsewhere in the world. Land reform was indeed described as essential for the improved livelihood. On the other side land reform remains a critical programme that could assist with issues of poverty and food insecurity in the sub-Saharan Africa (FAO, 2006). The impact of land reform as part of the rural development strategy is fundamental to pro-poor population of the country (D'Haese and Kirsten, 2003). Land reform provides a systematic solution towards dealing with a number of socio-economic factors faced by millions of people in the world. Once beneficiaries start to reap the benefits of land reform is when conclusions could be made that land reform has lived to majorities expectations. Anseuw *et al.* (2008) acknowledged the importance of land reform as not just a mere rhetoric talk but a progressed notion of development. Development goes beyond the social justice and correctness of land reform parities. Development should relate to addressing the quality of life, dealing with issues of insecurity, improving beneficiaries' self-esteem and tackling overcrowding.

The socio-economic benefit is one of the important returns of land reform. Brink *et al.* (2005) are hold the view that land reform's socio-economic benefit relates to poverty reduction. Countries such as Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand are amongst others that used land reform to deal with pockets of poverty (Brink *et al.*, 2005). According to Deininger (1999), land reform incentives are beyond the just equitable redress but a programme to address productivity and improved livelihood. At the extreme an improved credit access is also part of the land reform benefit. The improvement in credit access



provides land reform beneficiaries to access required financial capital to improve infrastructure and production. Feder and Nishio (1999) related land social benefit to land registration and titling as essential to further strengthen rights of the most vulnerable to improved scope to poverty alleviation.

Matshe (2009) substantiated the importance of employment in the rural areas to reduce both poverty and food insecurity. In the rural areas programmes that deals with challenges of hunger and food production could further assist with income flow which will eventually assist to sustain jobs (Dorward and Kydd, 2004). Rural areas have in the recent years seen economic development that assists with dual creation of employment opportunities alongside agriculture, since agriculture is still very dominant in most part of sub-Saharan Africa (Matshe, 2009). Job creation in the rural economy still remains the responsibility of mostly smallholder farmers.

Production through agriculture does not only provide livelihood but also ensures social justice (D'Haese and Kirsten, 2003). Matshe (2009) further indicated that agricultural growth should induce small farms productivity in order to reduce poverty and improve the living standard of the poor. Rural areas are found in the non-active economic zones where employment opportunities are in abundance and land tilling remains the only answer to improve the source of living. Ferreira (2001) believed land reform could remain a factor for creating employment opportunities. The expected improved production as indicated above is very important for the achievement of increased jobs. The implementers of land reform should provide policies that attract investment and create opportunities for markets access.

Holden and Yohannes (2001) related land reform to an investment with an increased productivity. This link provides a contested view that productivity improvement is not an immediate outcome of land reform. There must be investment taking plan in the restored land to improve productivity which will lead to an increased income and wealth level. Vellette (2002) supported the view that land reform incentive is also related to an improved household income. The land reform process and implementation should observe activities that encourage processes of having multiplier effect on improved income of beneficiaries.

Infrastructure development plays a major role in any land development. Infrastructure development can become an impediment to the land production thereby reducing

improved production (Brink *et al.*, 2005). The absence of infrastructure (Jacobs, 2003) and access to basic services remain factors of concern for the development processes. The development of a comprehensive plan that promotes the linkages between land reform and infrastructure development is important to attain universal development. Several projects were observed to have failed because of adequate infrastructure that support production takes off. Land reform to flourish in agricultural production requires provision of infrastructure like water, irrigation system and packing facilities for efficient and effective production.

Land reform is expected to ensure capacity building of beneficiaries. Capacity building remains an important element to restore lost experience and knowledge in agriculture through colonial Acts. Development activities require knowledge and technical skills to remain relevant in an ever changing economic activity. Several interventions have been formulated through a number of programmes to provide capacity to beneficiaries of land reform. CASP policy indicates a need to bridge the skills gap through training and mentorship. Mentorship programme models are some of the systems put in place to assist beneficiaries of land reform with required skills. Mentorship programme emphasise the provision of mentorship to land reform beneficiaries so that the “latter are able to engage meaningfully and establish sustainable agricultural enterprises that are commercially viable and contribute significantly to the country’s food security and agri-business growth and job creation. The scope of application will therefore include commercially orientated Land and Agrarian Reform projects as well as covering farmers in the transition from subsistence to emerging commercial farmers.

## **2.9 Challenges of land reform**

Literature confirms existence of several land reform challenges. Prior bulleting of the challenges, it is important to indicate the underlying factors of the land reform challenges more especially in southern region of Africa. These factors cause not only economic battle but continue to derail focus into other important factors of development. The SADC and sub-Saharan Africa land reform challenges existed long before history of colonisation, which disrupted common land ownership systems and management for more than 300 years. Today, after many years of suffering, land reform in sub-Saharan Africa has to deal with land reprivatization of colonial apartheid systems, continued

unequal ownership of post-independence and insecure land rights systems affecting the majority of the poor population (Ntsebeza and Hall, 2009).

In view of the above, Africa remains a focal area for transition between the old systems of colonialism and the current introduced set of land transformation systems (Ntsebeza and Hall, 2009). Looking at the number of years of land hardship in Africa one could appreciate the view that regard land reform as a complex process. The complexity of land reform is also based on the number of expectations by both the previous oppressors and the expected beneficiaries of the current land justice. South Africa continues to derail the equitable land allocation as a result of policies that seem not to be proactive in dealing with land redress (Ntsebeza and Hall, 2009). The continued failure of land reform to provide equitable share to all has developed new land challenges as population and land use increases beyond agricultural needs. As the country's population increases and migration to inner parts of urban areas remains high the after effect is land conflict. The debate around the willing-buyer-willing-seller land reform type cannot be ignored as it refocuses the country to policy re-formulation. The demand-led or market-led land reform type produced poor results in addressing land redistribution or/and even restitution (Borras and Mckinley, 2006)

It has been indicated above that land reform challenges have now moved beyond the colonial era to post-colonial period. The pace of land reform remains an issue in part of southern Africa (Ntsebeza and Hall, 2009). Countries such as South Africa and Namibia have demonstrated little movement in redistribution of land to the landless poor. Land as indicated is a contested issue more than before. New policies need to be developed to balance the over increasing need for land and non-utilization of land by both the owners and new comers. The call to ensure that land reform responds to the needs of the most vulnerable groups of society seems not to move at the rate expected. There are still a number of women and youth without land or any form of land recognition. Farm workers also remain at the bottom of beneficiaries of land reform. Zimbabwe also remains an area of focus of failure of land reform to address the issue of veteran. Ntsebeza and Hall, (2009), highlighted that Zimbabwe has failed to live to its promise of ensuring that 20% of land reform is provided to war veterans as a promise of 1992 land reform undertaking.

Flowing from policy issue of willing-seller-willing-buyer land reform is faced with budget constraints (Ntsebeza and Hall, 2009) South Africa's target to redistribute 30% of the

white commercial land to the previously dispossessed landless people remains on paper. The markets-led policy direction adopted in the RDP in 1994 and later in the White Paper for South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997) is blamed to be the cause of land reform delay in South Africa. Many researchers are starting to question if South Africa will continue to deliver land using this policy which proves to be expensive for tax payers. The cost of implementing land reform in South Africa is also related to the pace of land reform which has declined over time.

Post settlement support as discussed proved to be the major setback for land reform (Turner, 2001; May and Robert, 2000). The post settlement support should enable beneficiaries of land reform to utilise land optimally in the manner that will reduce poverty and ensure sustainability (Elst, 2007). Further than that, post settlement support should be packaged to provide assistance from financial support to capacity building.

## **2.10 Summary**

The chapter has managed to provide an overview of land reform from the different perspectives. Several land reform policies were put to test using literature references. After long deliberations on land reform, it is clear that land reform has a role to play in asserting the socio-economic status of the beneficiaries. The evolution of land reform pursuant to a political and economic change is essential in determining the scope of land reform. There are two key features of market approaches that in essence determine the achievability of land reform objectives. Souza (2010) deliberated on the two approaches and viewed both market-based and state-led as important to land reform benefits in whatever form. The same document further indicated that land markets strong point is the ability to effectively transfer land and fight poverty than the state-controlled approach. Contrary to the latter statement is what is called the market-free scheme which is regarded as introductory to the advocator of informal transactions of land. The base of argument forwarded by Ho and Spoor (2006) of improved rural economy without any land transition are some of the basis for future debate. The achievement of land reform by attaining equitable redress and social-economic justice for poor landless people is critical for the study.

Souza (2010) brings the following assertion about land reform which is fundamental to the pursuant of the programmes and worth investigation. The future of land reform is well

documented to have links to socioeconomic status of land reform beneficiaries. These could be regarded as socio-economic benefit of land reform namely; the improved income level of beneficiaries; gained knowledge and skills over a period, which will enable them to manage the project properly and contribute to their individual life (Banya, 1989) and the ability of the project to sustain and create work opportunities (Haggblade *et al*, 1989). Concerted efforts in dealing with land reform should be taken to ensure the best outcomes and to register sustainable development systems.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the area of the study by describing the province and the municipality concerned. It provides population statistics of the province and the municipality of Elias Motsoaledi. The Sekhukhune District Municipality map is also presented indicating all the five local municipalities. Natural resources such as like soil structures and rainfall patterns of the district are also presented. The chapter also covers the model used to analyse data, specifically the Multinomial Logic Model (MLM) and further discuss data collection methods.

#### 3.2 Study area

The study area covers land reform beneficiaries in the Limpopo Province of South Africa in particular Elias Motsoaledi Municipality in Greater Sekhukhune District Municipality.

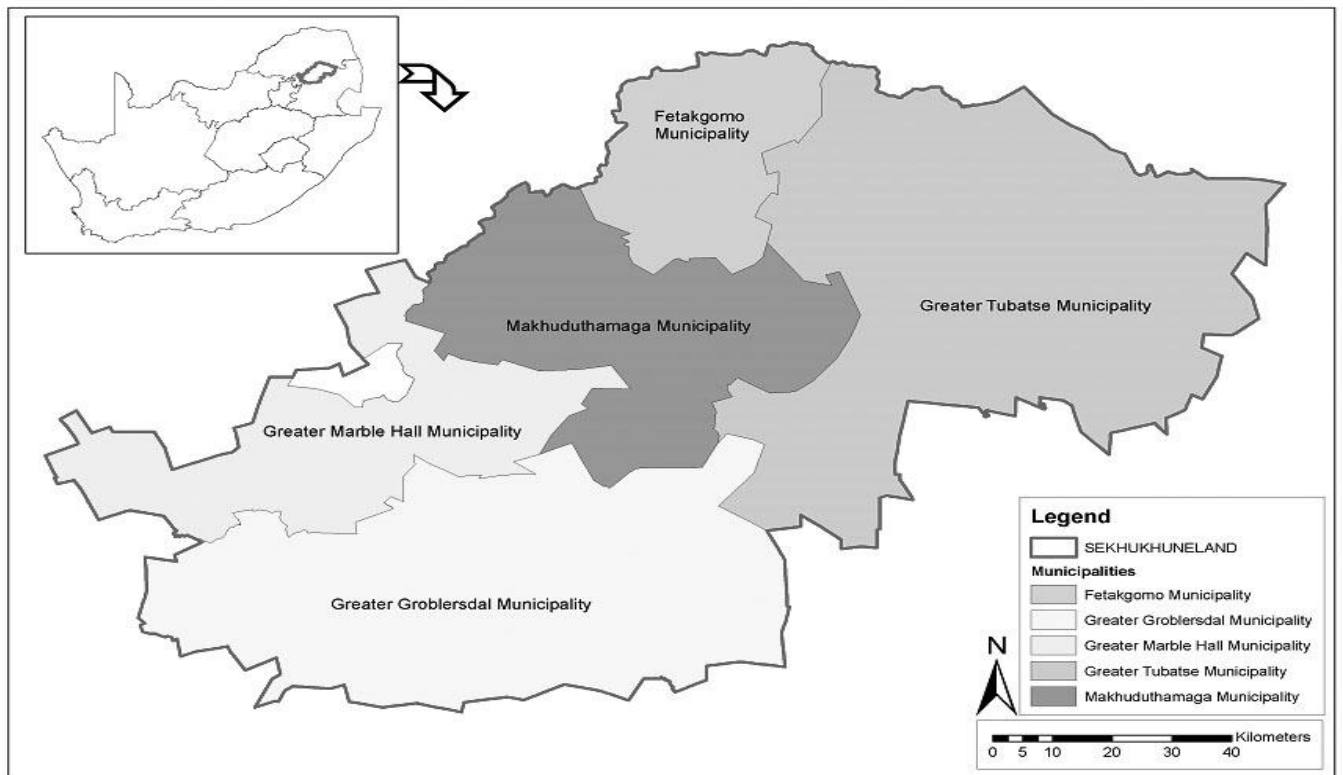
#### 3.3 Background of Limpopo Province

Limpopo covers an area of approximately 12 million hectares and has a population of approximately 5.4 million (Stats SA, 2012). About 84% of this hectare is rural. The province is regarded as the second poorest in the country with 89 percent of the population living in rural areas (Lahiff *et al.*, 2008).

It is estimated that 63% of the provincial land is white owned commercial agricultural land comprising 7.5 million hectares. The extent of the province is 123 910km<sup>2</sup>, making up 10, 2% of the country's total land (Stats SA, 1998). According to Provide Projects (2005), in 2000 the average population density was estimated at 43 persons per square kilometer.

Before the dawn of democracy the province was divided into small Bantustan regions namely, Lebowa, Gazankulu and Venda. Today the province is divided into five (5) district municipalities, namely Capricorn, Mopani, Sekhukhune, Vhembe and Waterberg.

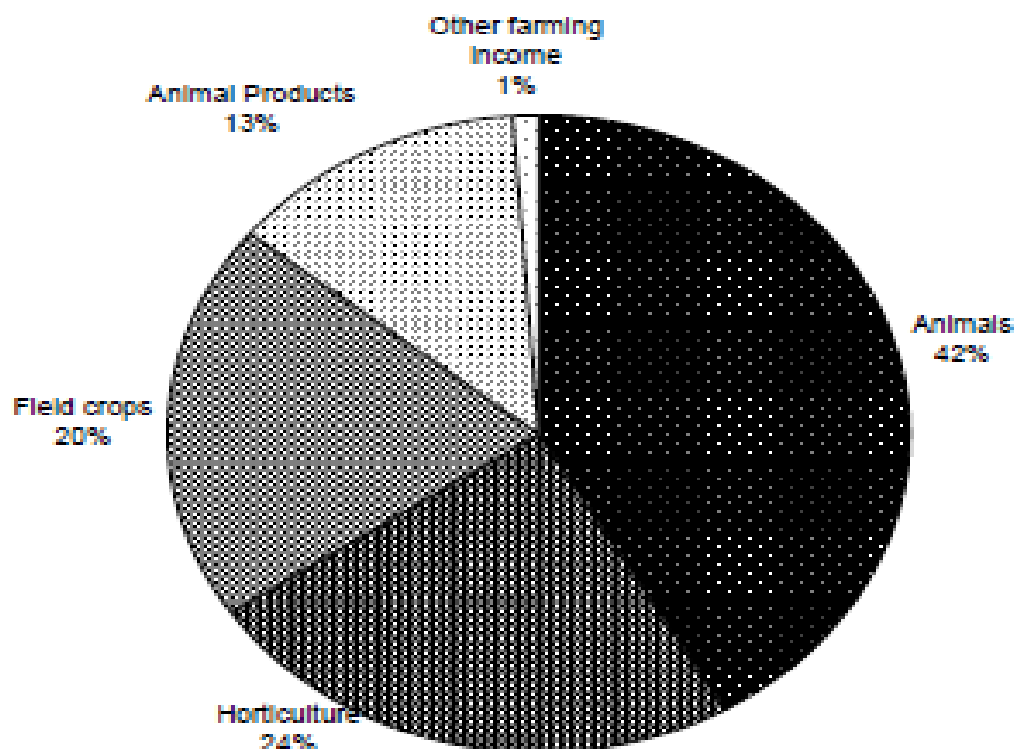
Figure 3.1 indicates the map of Sekhukhune District with Greater Groblersdal as now called Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality.



**Figure 3.1:** Sekhukhune District Municipality borders

Source: Drimie *et al.* 2009

The province of Limpopo is rural in nature and agriculture is regarded as the main pillar of the economy. Other economic pillars are mining and tourism. In 2007 the country's gross farming income (GFI) was R79.544million and of this, 55% was generated from animal and animal products (Stats SA, 2007). Horticulture and field crops followed animal production by 24% and 20% respectively.



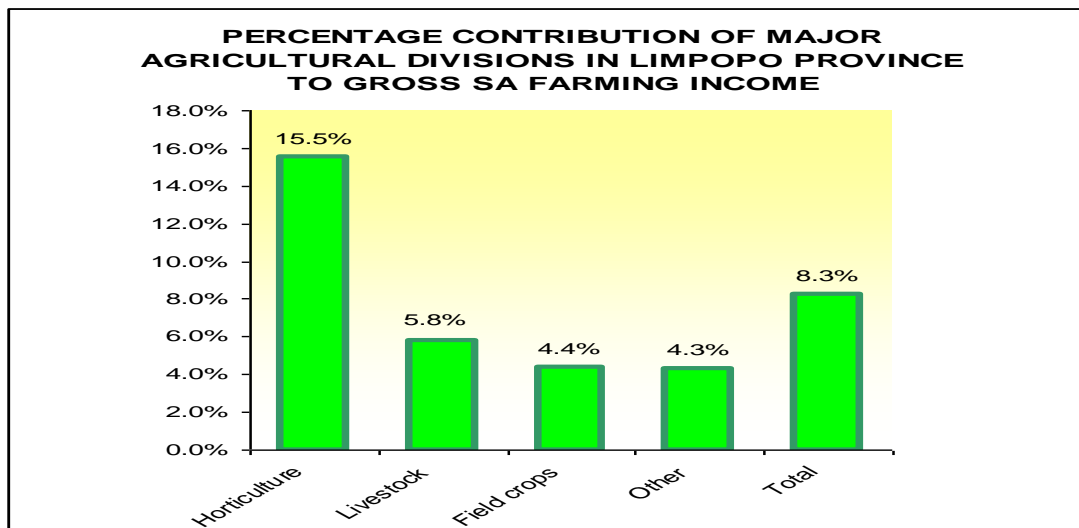
**Figure 3.2:** Percentage distribution of gross farming income by main division within Agriculture.

Source: Stats SA, 2007.

During the period under review the Western Cape was the leading province in animal and animal product sales by 16, 5% followed by the Free State at 15.4%. Western Cape again recorded the highest income from horticulture followed by Limpopo at R2 905 million, representing 15.3%. Free State was leading with regard to field crops at an income of R4 226 million or 26% (Stats SA, 2007).

In 2005 at the national level, horticulture contribution to the gross farming income was 15,5%, followed by livestock at 5.8% (Figure 3.3).





**Figure 3.3:** Percentage contribution of major agricultural divisions in Limpopo Province and contribution of Limpopo Province to national gross income, 2005

Source: LDA, 2012

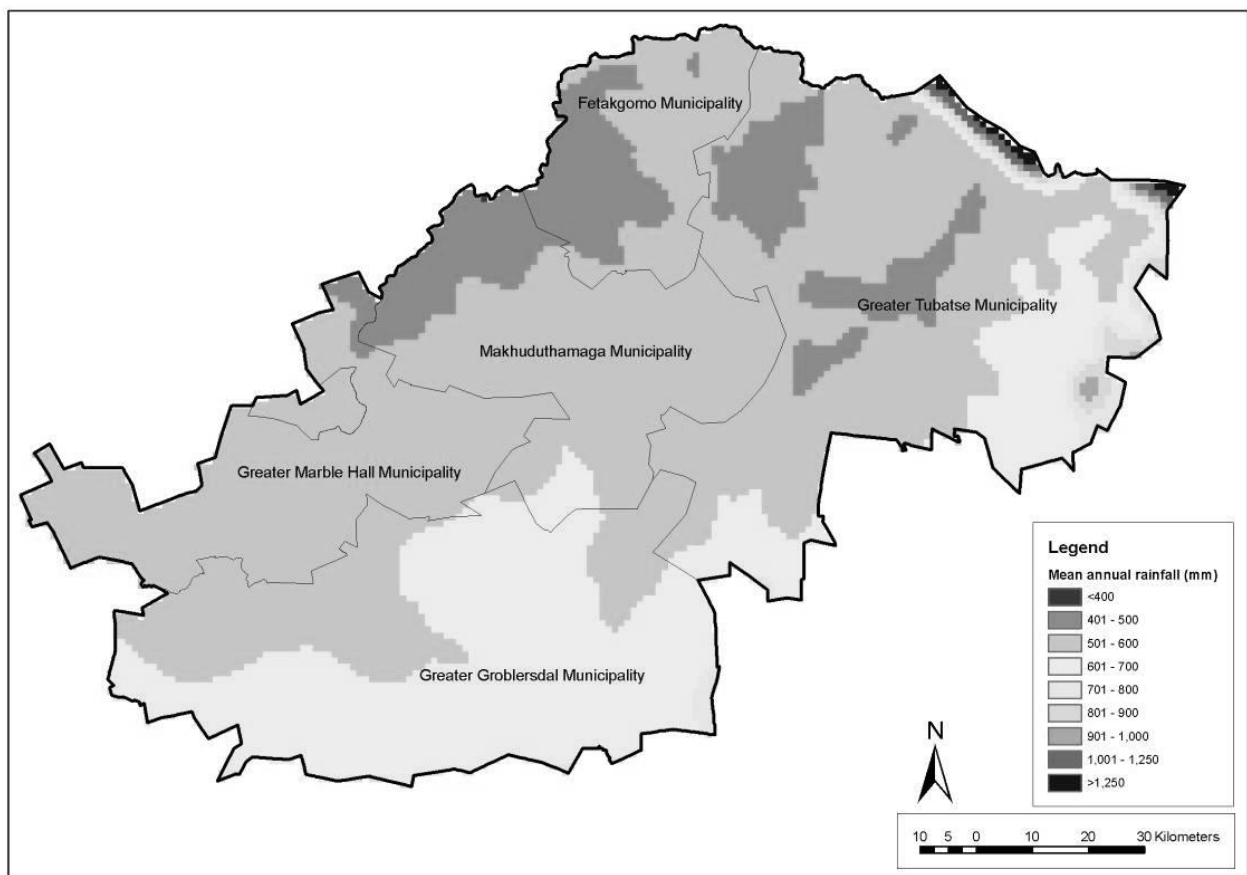
### 3.4 Sekhukhune District

The Sekhukhune District is approximately 13 264 square kilometers (Drimie *et al.*, 2009). The district municipality is mainly rural. The district used to be a cross border municipality between Limpopo and Mpumalanga. The district consists of five local municipalities, Fetakgomo, Greater Marble Hall now called Ephraim Mogale, Makhuduthamaga, Greater Tubatse and Greater Groblersdal now called Elias Motsoaledi. According to Drimie *et al.* (2009) Sekhukhune District is one of the Bantustan areas of the apartheid era. The total population of Sekhukhune is about 1 million people. This district constitutes mostly tribal communal land with 95% of the population living in rural areas. The district is currently faced with competing land-uses. A lot of prime agricultural land has already been lost to mining, business and residential development. Dry land communal farming, livestock farming, citrus and grape farming are common, the last two having been introduced largely through incorporation of the Elias Motsoaledi and Marblehall municipalities.

### 3.4.1 Climate and soil conditions

#### 3.4.1.1 Climatic conditions

Figure 3.4 indicates the district climatic attributes. The district experiences average maximum temperatures of between 21 °C and 30 °C in January, average minimum temperatures of between 2 °C and 12 °C in July and has an annual average temperatures of 14 °C and 24 °C. January is the hottest month and thus excessive heat is of concern while July is the coldest month and frost occurrence is of concern.



**Figure 3.4:** Map of Sekhukhune District showing the rainfall distribution:

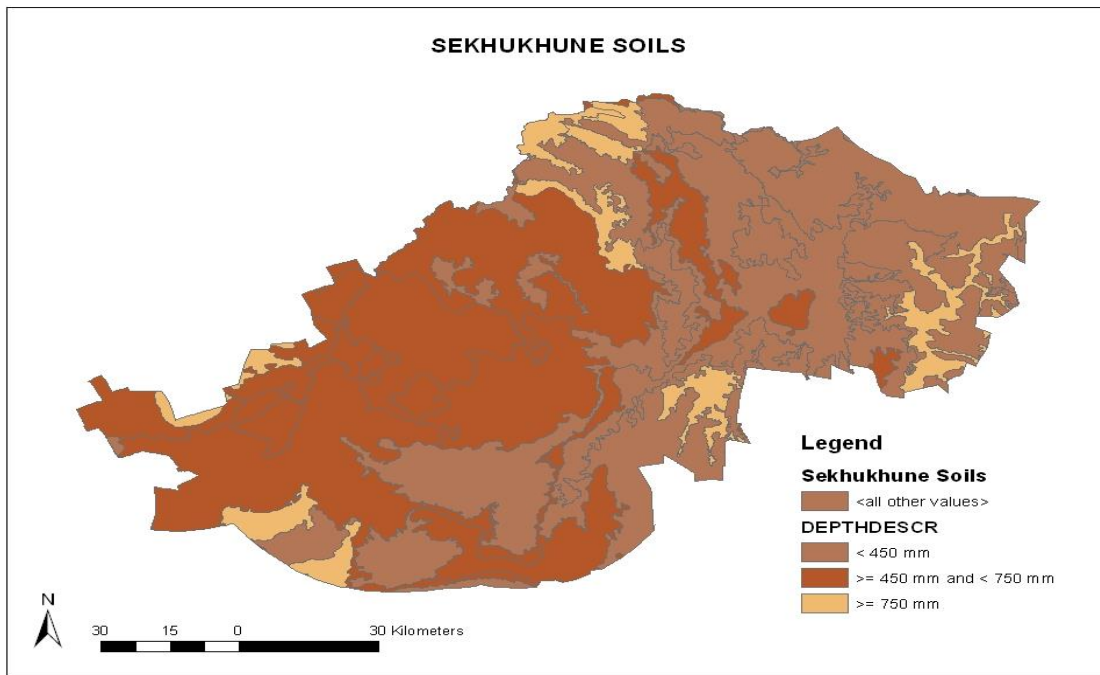
Source: Drimie *et al.* 2009

Figure 3.4 indicates the district rainfall pattern. The district receives rainfall normally in summer. The area of Elias Motsoaledi in particular receives 582mm to 692 mm of rainfall. In general the district receives 541mm to 582mm of rainfall. The area is not receiving

sufficient rainfall compared to Mopani and Vhembe districts. The rainfall is however, good for the crop production important for the district.

### 3.4.1.2 Soil conditions

Sekhukhune District is dominated by soils with depths between 450mm and 750mm, especially in the north-western part, followed by soils with depth of <450mm in the eastern part as indicated in Figure 3.5. However, patches of soils with depths of >750mm do exist across the district, which gives it the possibility of producing deep rooted crops. The district has a wide range of production suitability from crop to livestock. The area has acceptable predominantly medium to shallow depths of soils for medium to shallow rooted crops. The soil structure also remains suitable for the production of deep rooted fruit crops like deciduous fruits. Due to the medium to low rainfall, irrigation is required to boost the water content in the area.



**Figure 3.5:** Sekhukhune soil

Source: LDA, 2012

### **3.5 Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality**

The municipality is regarded as predominantly rural in nature. The high level of poverty and unemployment are challenges of the municipality (EMLM, 2010). Agriculture is one of the pillars of the economy of which horticulture and livestock dominating the sector. The total population of the municipality was estimated to be 247 488 and estimated to increase by 4.2% in the year 2010 (EMM, 2010). The Sekhukhune district unemployment rate increased to 64.6% in 2002 and decreased in the year 2005 to 45%. The EMLM LED strategy of 2007 indicated that in the inner town the unemployment rate was standing at 21.3% while some outer lying areas of Nebo and Moutse according 59% and 63 % respectively. These figures are relatively high as compared to the total provincial unemployment rate.

### **3.6 Land reform at Elias Motsoaledi**

The history of Greater Sekhukhune District Municipality in particular Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality is characterised by colonial land dispossession and land related battles between different tribes. As part of the government programme of renaming towns and cities, Greater Groblersdal was re-named Elias Motsoaledi (a prominent political leader). Therefore, for the sake of this study and in line with the current situation the area under study is referred as Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality. The area was part of the cross boarder municipality and latter incorporated into Limpopo Province for both political and administration purposes.

According to Zenker (2011), in the 19<sup>th</sup> century the area experienced an intensive land contestation among the three powerful South African kingdoms namely, the Pedi, the Swazi and the Zulu. The area also witnessed the arrival of the so called Voortrekkers around the 1840's with the view of settling and allocating farms to themselves. The Voortrekkers as part of the established Zuid Afrikaanse Republike (ZAR) had a mission to own and control the land and provide also land to their counterpart for both residential and commercial purposes. Attempts to procure land from the chiefs failed and later through the ZAR, title deeds were made in their names. Apart from the land invasion by settlers a war of Difaqane caused the wide area of Sekhukhune to suffer land related battles. As the battles strengthened in power the effect of this divided the Ndebele groups

and the Pedi kingdoms apart. The other historical claim is the fact that as land invasion took a knock to the history of the area some tribes also managed to work against the move of the whites by both denying to work the farms and even fighting them on the other hand. Around 1879 whites gained power by converging with the other local tribes like the Swazi and Ndundza to fight the Pedi kingdom. The Pedi Kingdom lost power and its sovereignty over land and the related factors of livelihood.

As the white settlers gained strength and power in the area several land were taken over to the ZAR white administration. Several farms after following series of battles including the Mapoch war were sub-divided and allocated to a number of whites who were starting to invade the area in large numbers. Over time, original farm owners were turned into farm workers. The loss of chieftaincy and tribal inheritance was experienced and many kingdoms lost their population and status. The provision for the African people to buy land was made possible after the Pretoria Convention in 1881 which restored ZAR independence from Britain on condition that transfer will be made by the Superintendent of Natives who held it in trust.

Several strategies were used by the African people to procure land as part of gaining ownership to their original land. This included the procurement of land through the Traditional Local Authorities and the missionaries. The passing of the Native Land Act by the apartheid government worsened land dispossession, which also gave rise to the establishment of the four racial settlement areas in the pre apartheid era namely, the Cape, Natal, Transvaal and Orange Free State. The Act further promoted racial land ownership and declared African reserves and white areas. African people in the white areas were turned into labourers to advance the racial policies. The introduction of the Act and past racial policies in the area of Groblersdal and the surrounding farms forced many people to be seen as labour tenants for whites. Later blacks were moved far outside the area to the African reserve areas which were transferred to the traditional leaders using the communal land tenure system (Native Administration Act, Act 38 of 1927). In 1951 the then government made it possible to establish a law whose intent and purpose was to provide authority to the African traditional leaders to have control and administrative power to communities that were proclaimed to be under their land. The Bantu Authorities Act (Act 68 of 1951) allowed the tribal leaders to run and provide

administrative leadership in relation to matters affecting communities extending to civil cases and land for use (Zenker, 2011).

Land battles continued beyond the Bantus Authorities Act in the area as much contested traditional authorities were given veto power to land control and somehow ownership. This system of ownership made some tribal communities drifting apart in contestation of land use and ownership. The further establishment of a homeland state such as Lebowa, confirmed the tribal system of authority. The area under study had two divided systems of administration, Kwandebele (dominated by IsiNdebele speaking people) and Lebowa (dominated by Sepedi speaking people). As the forceful removal of people escalated challenges of overcrowding, land access and the lack of agricultural production area were experience by black majority. Over time, the migration to urban areas of people seeking for job opportunities was the only means for survival. Land restoration through land reform covers mostly the central and the eastern part of the municipality.

### **3.7 Sample selection**

The study is based on 170 beneficiaries of redistributed projects of land reform located around the western and south-eastern parts of Groblersdal town. Projects selected received land through various sub-programmes of land reform programme namely, LRAD and SLAG. The land transaction took place between 1997 and 2010. The total number of selected projects were initially sixteen (16) but only eleven projects could be interviewed, two (02) were totally not active while the other two claimed to have merged with one project to form one business entity. All redistribution projects in the areas were considered for the study without necessarily putting any selection criteria or methodology. These projects were redistributed by both Mpumalanga and Limpopo provincial Land Reform offices (since the area was a cross boarder municipality), however, currently they are administered in Limpopo Province. During the analysis, only LRAD beneficiaries were considered due to their significance to food security as compared to SLAG projects. Permission was first requested from the Department of Agriculture in Limpopo since they were found to be at the forefront in providing post settlement support to most projects in the area. The Head of Department granted the permission. In order to ensure a good reception at the district the Head of the District was approached and also agreed to grant permission to conduct the study in the area and to allow officials to assist in the process.

### **3.8 Data collection**

Babbie (2001) provides reference to a number of data collection methods. The use of structured questionnaires is popular amongst researchers. In this study, questionnaires were developed in English and simplified as a tool to capture information (Babbie 2001; Bailey, 1987). Questionnaires were further sub-divided into a cluster of sections that sought to attain structured logical methods of obtaining answers and further to avoid possible omissions of important questions. The major areas covered by the questionnaires were as follows: project profile – covering the name of the projects to the enterprise types; social benefits – seeking to determine the social benefits that respondents might have gained as a results of the project; economic benefits – the section was to determine any economic benefit for individual beneficiaries; and a general section that looked at the overall view of the beneficiary of the project and they would continue to support the objective of the project to live to individual expectations of improved livelihood.

The major sections of the questions were closed-ended questions with reference quotes for data capturing and analysis. Through the assistance of Sekhukhune District Department of Agriculture, the Land Reform database was made available. The database had some limitations since certain information was not consistently completed. Information like the telephone numbers of some beneficiaries was missing as well as the exact number of project beneficiaries. Nevertheless the database assisted towards reaching many of the beneficiaries who were important for the study. Beneficiaries were also useful to organise other missing information, arranging for meetings and venues. The interviews was conducted by the researcher, officials of the Elias Motsoaledi Department of Agriculture and two enumerators appointed to conduct interviews in one section of the area after hours.

Almost all interviews were conducted face to face at the farms while very few were completed telephonically. Most farmers were reached telephonically. However, some were staying on the farms and were interviewed on the farms. What was observed which will be discussed under data results was that very few projects were fully operational since most beneficiaries had migrated to other places in search for employment

opportunities. Questions during the interview were translated from English to the local language mostly in order to ensure better understanding. The majority of respondents were the Sepedi speaking group with few of the Ndebele on the eastern site of Groblersdal. In this area the interviews were conducted by the enumerator who was conversant with the language (the enumerator was an IsiNdebele speaking person). The purpose of the survey was explained to the respondents and consent forms were made available and signed by many except those interviewed telephonically and those in projects with high group dynamic issues.

After the data were collected, all questionnaires were checked for possible omissions and where errors seemed to have occurred verification was made telephonically to correct and verify facts. Questionnaires were later accorded numbers 1 to 170. Data analysis was done with the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20. SPSS is a programme well renowned by prominent social science researchers as an effective tool in data analysis (Babbie, 2001).

### **3.9 Method of analysis**

Data analysis was influenced by the most significant variables that have significant contribution to the question on food security and land reform namely, 1) number of beneficiaries; 2) Land reform sub-programme; 3) farm size; 4) enterprise; 5) proximity from the project; 6) decision making; 7) knowledge; 8) skills and 9) sustaining production. These independent variables were pre-abbreviated to conform to the usability to the SPSS. The SPSS was further used to analyse the relationship of each variable to food security.

The MLM was considered the most appropriate model for data analysis. The MLM model was used to determine the impact of selected socio-economic factors towards integrated, conventional and sustainable agribusiness farming (Anim and Mandleni, 2011). The model can easily be applied to explain and forecast discrete choices also.

Since it was not possible to collect data for all farmers in the province, a simple random sampling method was used in the study. Ungrouping is a simple one step random probability sampling method based on main cluster ratios was used for determining the



sample size of the research. In research situations where there is no information available about the selected variables or the variances of a population, a simple random sampling method is used (Gul *et al.* 2003). The sampling size was determined according to the district population size (Collins 1986). A total sample of 170 beneficiaries was randomly selected from the 16 listed projects. The initial interview was the face to face method but with the challenge that most of the projects were not functional currently, beneficiaries had to be interviewed telephonically as they were working outside the province. ANOVA model was further used to determine the significant difference between variables. The model is discussed in Chapter 4.

### **3.10 Multinomial Logic Model (MLM)**

The MNL model was used to analyse the degree of contribution of socio-economic factors to food security among beneficiaries of LRAD and SLAG land reform subprogrammes. The study had three dependent variables where respondents were requested to appropriately classify their opinion about the project to household food security. The considered three categories are explained below:

- i) None: the project is unable to assist the household with food security.
- ii) Moderate: the project is moderately obtaining food security imperatives.
- iii) High: the contribution to household food security is highly noticeable and realised and therefore, the project meets the demand of household food security.

As acceptable with the probability model, the probability of membership in other categories was compared with the probability of membership in the reference category. In a more analytic way, the dependent variable was regarded as M category and M-1 calculation model was deployed relative to the reference category, the dependent variable and the instrumental variables. The initial category none (1) was indicated so as  $M=1...M$ ,

$$\ln \frac{P(Y_i = m)}{P(y_i = 1)} = \alpha_m + \sum_{k=1}^k \beta_{mk} X_{ik} = Z_{mi} \quad (1)$$

Hence, for each case, there were M-1 predicted log odds, one for each category relative to the reference category. This means for more than two groups:  $m= 2\dots m$ ,

$$P(y_i = m) = \frac{\exp(z_{mi})}{1 + \sum_{h=2}^m \exp(z_{hi})} \quad (2)$$

(Note that when  $m=1$  you get  $\ln(1) = 0 = z_{11}$ , and  $\exp(0) = 1$ )

For the reference category, high, ( $m=3$ )

$$P(y_i = 3) = \frac{1}{1 + \sum_{h=1}^m \exp(z_{hi})} \quad (3)$$

For the reference moderate  $M=2$

$$P(y_i = 2) = \frac{\exp(z_{1i})}{1 + \sum_{h=2}^m \exp(z_{hi})} \quad (4)$$

And lastly for none,  $M=1$

The variables used to predict the logit of case  $i$  ( $L_i$ ) was indicated as follows:-

$$L_i = a + \beta_1 SOCFOD + \beta_2 BEN + \beta_3 GEN + \beta_4 SIZE + \beta_5 ENT + \beta_6 LANDR + \beta_7 PRO + \beta_8 DEC + \beta_9 KNOWLEDG + \beta_{10} SKILLS + \beta_{11} TRAIN + \beta_{12} ORG + \beta_{13} MANPROD + \beta_{14} FINOLIG \quad (5)$$

The logic remains the natural log of the odd ratio. The projects beneficiaries, type of the land reform, the size of the project, type of the enterprise, the degree of involvement of beneficiaries in decision making, the knowledge and skills of beneficiaries and the ability of the project to maintain financial obligation were included as variables ( $\beta \dots \beta_{14}$ ) to test degree of contribution to food security. However, not all variables were found to have direct influence to the availability of food security for the project beneficiaries. Food security as a major socio-economic factor for this study could be classified according to three dependent variables none (*no food security*), moderate (*food security is fairly*

*available*) and high (*degree of food security availability is accepted*). None in this case is regarded as reference category. The numbers of beneficiaries within land reform projects were expected to have adverse impact to food security as part of the socio-economic benefit. Table 3.1 describes the variables of the model and the measurements. Enterprise type was also expected to play a vital role in ensuring availability of food to land reform beneficiaries. Enterprise (ENT) was classified into livestock and crop. The enterprise which is fairly common between land reform programmes was livestock followed by crop production.

Proximity to projects had an element of affecting the participation of beneficiaries and also influenced the cost of production (Anseeuw and Mathebula, 2008). The distance between the project and the residential place of the beneficiaries was included to check its influence to project member's participation. Project decision (DEC) making is very vital and crucial to beneficiaries to take an informed decision that will benefit them to attain an acceptable level of food security. The participation of all beneficiaries in taking decisions is crucial for ownership (Manenzhe, 2007). Decision making and degree of participation of each member could be easily checked in between programmes and also within projects. It is very crucial for the farmers to have certain knowledge (KNOLEDG) and skills (SKILLS) to effectively manage and run their business enterprise. The level of education and information flow to the beneficiaries could translate to good business management or decisions that could support mutual socio-benefit of beneficiaries in all the types of projects enterprises. The maintenance of production (MANPROD) is thought to be an important tool in farming setup to ensure consistency is supply of food to beneficiaries in a more sustainable manner (Kumar *et al.*, 2006). Maintenance of production is also found to have a direct influence on the ability of the projects to maintain financial obligations. Respondents with production inconsistency were also found not to maintain financial obligations.

**Table 3.1: Description and computation of variables used in the model**

Dimension/variable	Detailed description and computation
<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
Food security Gain (SOCFOOD)	Food security: ability of project to ensure food security to respondent where 1=none; 2 moderate; 3=high
<i>Independent variables:</i>	
Number of Beneficiaries (BEN)	Beneficiaries: Number of beneficiaries per projects where 1= are regarded as having economic farm unit/household; 2 = small economic farm unit/household
Land Reform Sub-program (LANDR)	Land reform sub-program funded land acquisition where 1=SLAG and 2= LRAD
Farm size/ha (SIZE)	Farm size measured in hectares where 1 = economic unit (>10ha/household) = 2 small farm unit (<10ha/household)
Enterprise (ENT)	Type of Enterprise where 1 = Livestock; 2 = Crop; Other 3
Proximity from the project (PRO)	Distance between the farm and residential place measured in km where 1 = 1 – 20km; 2 = > 21km
Gender (GEN)	Classification of gender where 1 = Male; 2 female
Decision making (DEC)	Beneficiary involvement in decision making processes where 1 = Yes; 0 Otherwise;
Knowledge gained (KNOWLDG)	Knowledge: able to gain knowledge at the project for own use where 1 = Yes; 0 Otherwise;
Skills gained (SKILLS)	Skills: gained skill for own use where 1 = Yes; 0 Otherwise;
Training received (TRAIN)	Training: training received where 1 = Yes; 0= Otherwise
Participation in development organization (ORG)	Organisation: acceptance and sharing knowledge and skills with peer groups where 1 = Yes; 0 Otherwise;
Sustaining production (MANPROD)	Project ability production consistently where 1 = Yes; 0 Otherwise
Sustaining financial obligation (FINOBLIG)	Financial obligation: ability to maintain financial requirement of the farm where 1 = Yes; 0 Otherwise;

### **3.11 Summary**

The chapter managed to describe the area under study, providing the population demographics and economic opportunities. This chapter also covered the climatic and soil conditions of the area since agriculture is regarded as the base for economic importance. The agricultural sector is important to provide both employment and deal with issues of poverty. The unemployment percentage was high in the district as compared with the provincial figures and therefore, efforts to ensure that land reform plays an importance role cannot be overemphasised. The chapter further indicated the history of land reform in the district. Land reform programmes are being implemented within a deep political history. The land reform situation in the area is not only a result of the history of the colonial struggle but could be related also to tribal battles amongst and between African tribes.

This chapter also managed to discuss the data analysis model and data collection methods. The Multinomial Logic Model was regarded as the appropriate model for the study. The model was also described to provide a clear understating of its importance to the study.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. The number of respondents per each land reform programme under investigation as well as the socio-economic determinants of the respondents are discussed. The socio-economic level includes the employment opportunities, the type of enterprises respondents practiced, the gender classification in the area. The first analysis involves the description of the variables followed by the ANOVA means discussions and the parameter estimates.

#### 4.2 Results of descriptive analysis

In getting the results 170 respondents were selected from the identified land reform projects in the area of Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality. The projects were redistributed following South Africa land reform redistribution sub programmes. The SLAG respondents represented 41.2% while 58.8 % was classified as LRAD respondents, as indicated on Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Sub program classification**

Land Reform sub-program	Frequency	Percentage
SLAG	79	46.5
LRAD	91	53.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>100</b>

##### 4.2.1 Analysis of the investigated projects

Prior to the in-depth analysis of the study using the selected model, it is of vital importance to provide a general background about the visited projects.

##### 4.2.1.1 Number of beneficiaries and land size in hectares

The total number of beneficiary varied from 01 to 351 per project. It should be noted that most of the beneficiaries were not active and some had since passed on. It was also

difficult to determine the number of active and non-active members particularly on projects with big numbers.

**Table 4.2: Indicating the number of beneficiaries and project land size**

Project name	No. of beneficiaries	Active members	Land size/ha
Thulane Dairy	6	3	171
Lesedi Trust	34 (10 deceased)	16	72
Tshehla Trust	351	***	2188
Bethel	25	6	56
Ipopeng	87(10 deceased)	57	557
Lebone Trust	35	6	90
Malete	10	1	195
Nomanziana	6	6	248
Mphela	6	1	228
Maibelo	1	1	17
Phela o Gole	9	9	60

\*\*\* Information not provided

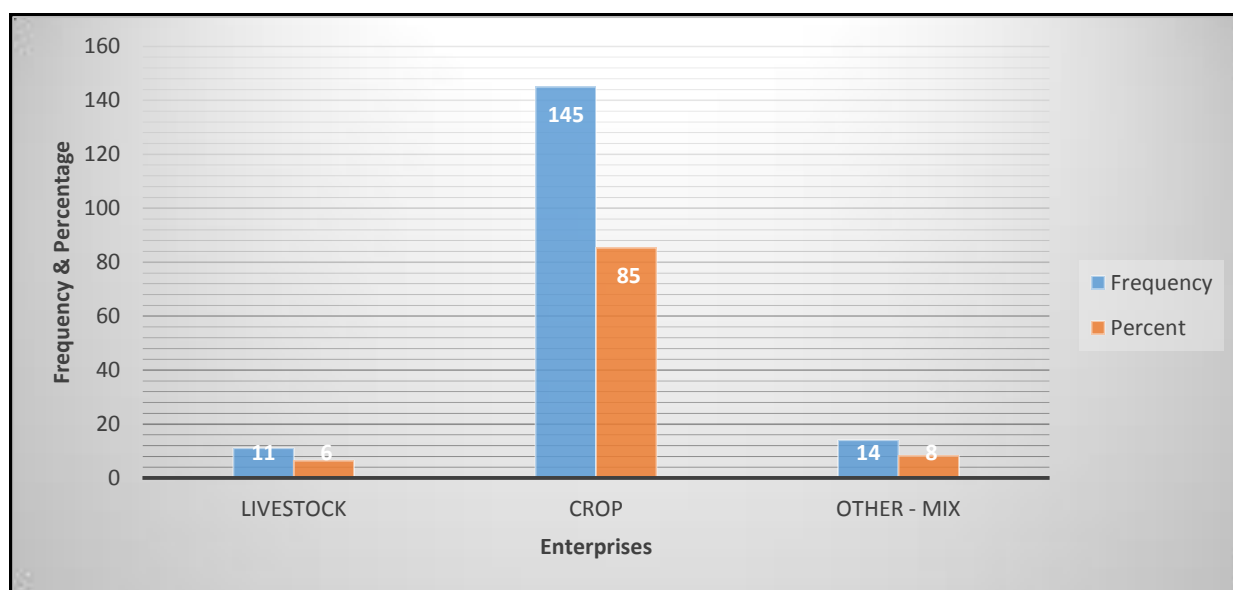
As indicated on Table 4.2 most of the project beneficiaries were no longer active due to the non-operational status of the projects and other reasons. Tshehla Trust was also experiencing major group dynamics challenges. Two groups were met during the interviews all claiming to be legitimate representatives of the project. There were however, members of the project who were residing in the farm using some pieces of land for subsistence agriculture. According to the information provided at Tshehla Trust (SLAG) project by the beneficiaries, the project had stopped operating about four years ago as a result of water shortage due to the construction of the Dehoep dam. Ipopeng had a larger number of active project members but, the project at the time of the interview was not operational. The beneficiaries however, indicated interest to start operating after some allegation of financial mismanagement.

#### 4.2.1.2 Enterprise practised

The frequencies of enterprise practised by respondents are presented on Table 4.3 and Figure 4.1. According to the results only 85% of the farmers were practicing crop production while 11% were livestock farmers (either large or small stock). The dominating stock was however, large stock at a very small scale per beneficiary. A total of 8% of the beneficiaries were doing mix farming namely, large stock and crop farming.

**Table 4.3: Enterprise**

Enterprise type	Frequency	Percent
Livestock production	11	6
Crop production	145	85
Other – mixed farming	14	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>100</b>



**Figure 4.1: Enterprise practised**

Respondents who were in livestock farming mostly had cattle and goats. There was one farmer who was practising grain crop and piggery production. Respondents on crop production plant grain crops than cash crops due to water availability and cost of production. Due to the lack of irrigation water and the size of area planted the yield was significantly low.

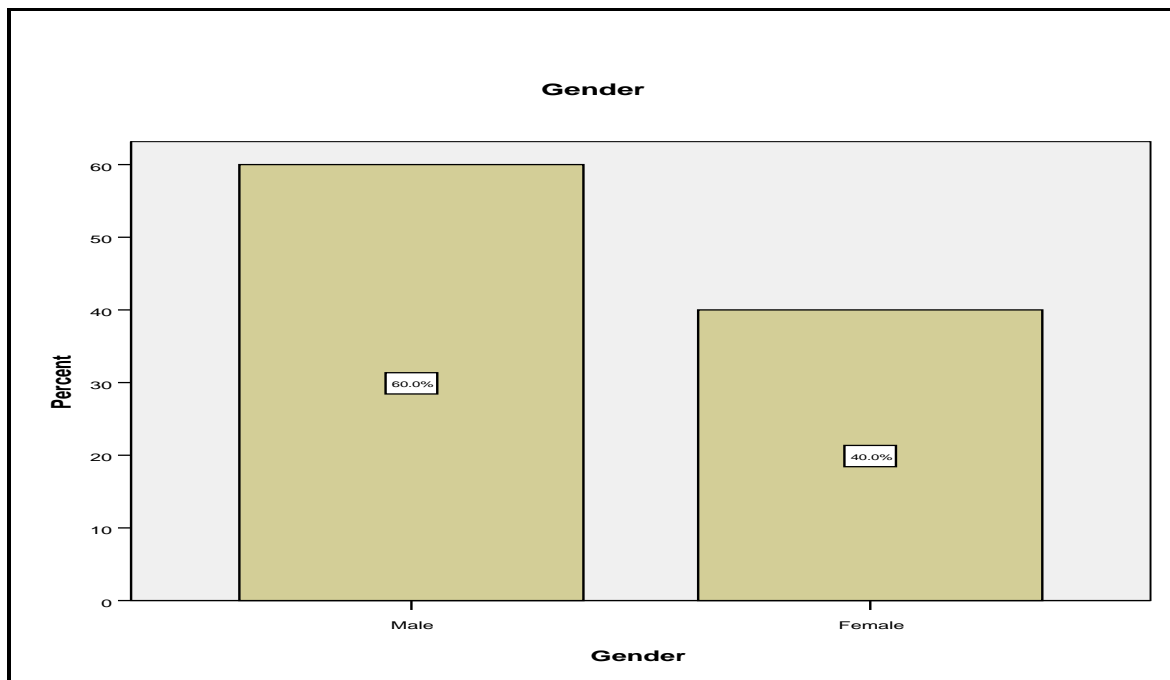


### 4.2.1.3 Gender

It was very much important to assess the gender classification in the projects. Gender was regarded as appropriate variable with regard to decision-making processes, (Mandleni, 2011) whereas other authors hold an opposite view (Bekele and Drake, 2003). One of the principles of land reform is to ensure that women also get prioritised in land reform projects. The results presented on Table 4.4 and Figure 4.2 indicate that there were 102 (60%) men and 68 (40%) females in all the 170 projects surveyed.

**Table 4.4: Gender**

Gender classification	Frequency	Percent
Male	102	60
Female	68	40
<b>Total</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>100</b>

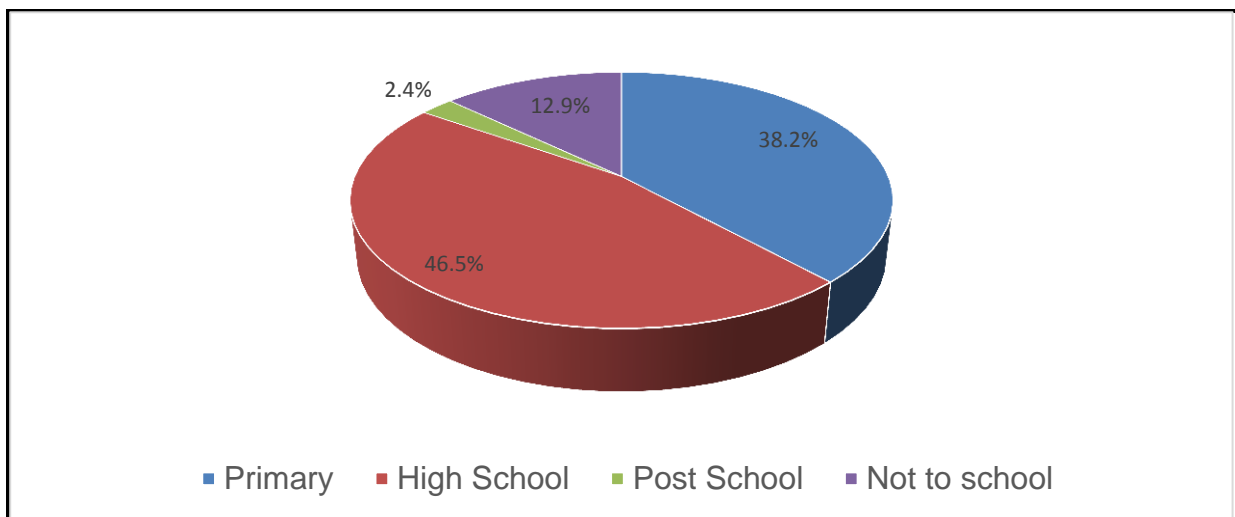


**Figure 4.2: Gender**

It was also observed during the survey that women participation was also a priority in some of the projects. Projects such as Lesedi Trust, Ipopeng Trust and Thulane Dairy were chaired by women.

#### 4.2.1.4 Educational Level

The educational level of farmers is regarded as also appropriate variable, which allows for the use, gathering and better interpretation of the information for improved profit margins (Gould *et al.*, 1989). The level of education assists respondents to take decisions that are vital for the functioning of the projects. Results of the study presented in Fig. 4.3 indicate that the percentage of the respondents with some satisfactory level of education was found to be reasonable. Respondents who had reached high school education were 46.5% whereas 12.9% had no form of education. At least 38.2% had primary schooling of between 4 – 7 years. Respondents with post school education were only 2.4%.

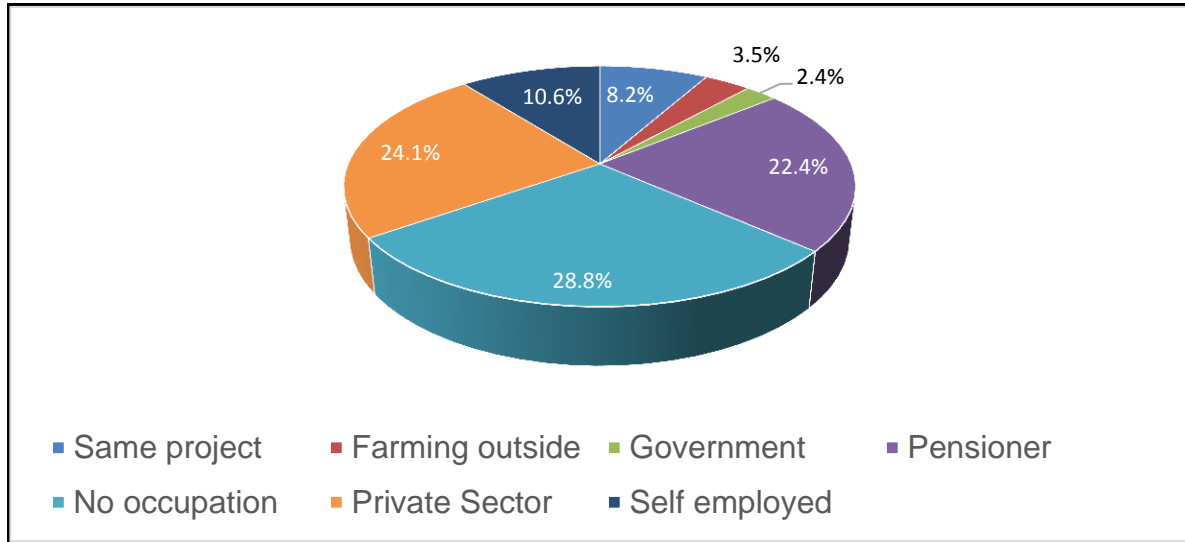


**Figure 4.3:** Educational level

#### 4.2.1.5 Employment

The study also managed to determine the employment opportunities for beneficiaries as indicated in Figure 4.4. The results indicated that the majority of beneficiaries were not working and those who were employed were those working outside the project. Only 8.2% of the beneficiaries provided labour to their own projects. In addition 3.5% were still practising farming but not within their redistributed projects. A total of 26.5% (private 24.1% and government 2.4%) were working in formal sectors. Only 10.6% said they were

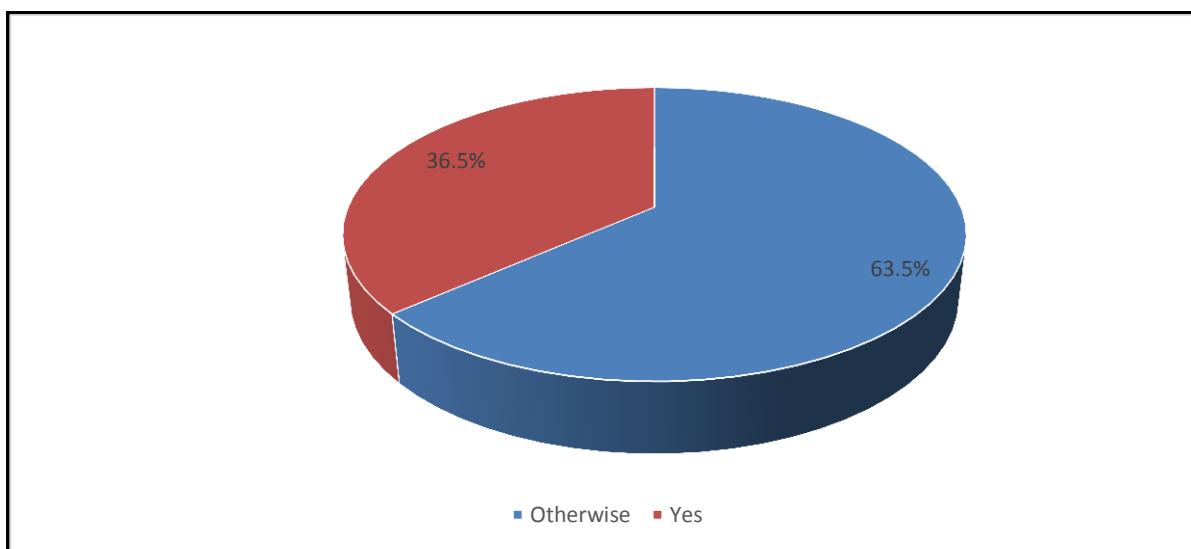
self-employed with most of them being hawkers selling vegetables and other products at social grants pay points.



**Figure 4.4:** Occupation

#### 4.2.1.6 Participation in Project decision making

Decision making is very much important in the success of land reform projects or any business. According to Figure 4.5, the majority of respondents at least participated in decision making (66.5%) while 33.5 % indicated that they did not. When a follow-up question was asked why they were not participating, the answer was that their participation was meaningless since they were never taken seriously by their project leaders.



**Figure 4.5:** Participation in decision making

**Table 4.5 Dependent variable classification**

Category	Description	Number of cases (%)	Percentage
1	None	94	55.3
2	Moderate	62	36.5
3	High	14	8.2

Total sample size = 170

Table 4.5 classifies the most important variables that provided scientific quantitative results with regard to respondents opinions about projects contribution to house food security. Only 170 respondents were interviewed for the study. Despite several other questions, respondents were asked if in their own opinion they believed that the project had assisted in ensuring household food security.

According to Table 4.5, most of the beneficiaries indicated that land reform projects in general did not contribute to household food security. This is clearly indicated by the highest number of cases in the category = 1, 94 number of cases at 55.3%. In category 2, there were 62 contributing only 36.5%. Only 8.2% of the respondents indicated high gain in household food security, the percentage which was significantly lower compared to the expectations of land reform.

**Table 4.6: Description statistics**

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Std. deviation
<b>Project profile:</b>			
Number of Beneficiaries (BEN)	1	2	0.293
Land Reform Sub-program (LANDR)	1	2	0.500
Farm size/ha (SIZE)	1	2	0.293
Enterprise (ENT)	1	3	0.604
Proximity from the project (PRO)	1	2	0.489
<b>Respondent/ interviewer Profile:</b>			
Decision making (DEC)	0	1	0.473
<b>Social benefits:</b>			
Food security Gain (SOCFOOD)	1	3	0.645
Knowledge gained (KNOWLDG)	0	1	0.501
Skills gained (SKILLS)	0	1	0.476
Participation in development organization	0	1	0.330
Training received	0	1	0.267
<b>General:</b>			
Sustaining Financial obligation	0	1	0.212
Sustaining production (MANPROD)	0	1	0.483

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N=170

Table 4.6 provides only the minimum and the maximum category for each variation. The standard deviation is satisfactorily acceptable, that is lower spread. Table 4.7 provides an analysis of the respondents using the ANOVA values. The ANOVA in this case provided mean values of category 1, 2 and 3 in comparison with each variable namely, enterprise, farm size, number of beneficiaries, proximity from the project, sustaining production, skills gained, participation in development organisation, training received, land reform sub-programme, decision making, knowledge gained, sustaining financial obligation, and gender. The significance of each variable was represented in the column marked P-value. Table 4.7 further confirms that respondents who gained food security were more

knowledgeable than those with no gain no household food security. What was interesting was that farmers with high gain on food security – category 2 showed no level of skill. This could be due to their knowledge to differentiate between skills required in agriculture and just general knowledge. Almost all respondents partook in project decision making but category=3 respondents seemed to be more involved than others (0.50). The participation in development organisation was nearly the same between category =1 (0.11) and category = 2 (0.06) and fairly high in high category (0.50).

**Table 4.7 ANOVA (mean values)**

Variables	None	Moderate	High	P-value
Enterprise (number)	2.27	2.71	1.57	0.000
Farm size/ha (hectares)	1.98	1.95	1.21	0.000
Number of beneficiaries (number)	1.98	1.95	1.21	0.000
Proximity from the project (Km)	1.51	1.19	1.43	0.000
Sustaining production (%)	0.09*	0.65*	1.00	0.000
Skills gained (%)	0.38*	0.35*	0.00***	0.018
Participation in development (%)	0.11*	0.06*	0.50*	0.000
Training received (%)	0.03*	0.05*	0.50*	0.000
Land reform sub-program (number)	1.66	1.29	1.79	0.000
Decision making (%)	0.48	0.87	1.00	0.000
Knowledge gained (%)	0.27	0.76	1.00	0.000
Sustaining financial obligation (%)	0.00***	0.02***	0.50*	0.000
Gender (%)	1.44	1.29	1.64	0.029

N=170, Wilks Lambda = 0.123; Chi-Square=161.161; \*\*P ≤0.05;\*\*\*P≤0.01

**Table 4.8: Parameter estimates for the Multinomial Logic Model**

Moderate	$\beta$	Se	Wald	P-value	Exp( $\beta$ )
Intercept	8.241	307.004	0.001	0.979	
GEN	-0.333	0.487	0.468	0.494	0.717
ENT	2.688*	1.369	3.855	0.050	14.699
SIZE	1.066	2.882	0.137	0.711	2.904
BEN	-----	-----	-----	-----	----- b
PRO	0.502	0.827	0.368	0.544	1.652
MANPROD=0 MANPROD=1	-2.623***	0.644	16.612	0.000	0.073
SKILLS=0 SKILLS=1	-0.248	0.479	0.269	0.604	0.780
ORG=0 ORG=1	0.031	1.076	0.001	0.977	1.032
TRAIN=0 TRAIN=1	1.842	1.960	0.883	0.347	6.311
LANDR=0 LANDR=1	-1.792	1.347	1.770	0.183	0.167
DEC=0 DEC=1	-1.405***	0.502	7.820	0.005	0.245
KNOWLDG=0 KNOWLDG=1	-1.275***	0.461	7.650	0.006	0.279
FINOBLIG=0 FINOBLIG=1	-15.326	306.998	0.002	0.960	2.208E-268
High	$\beta$	Se	Wald	P-value	Exp( $\beta$ )
Intercept	14.131	307.025	0.002	0.963	
BEN	-----	-----	-----	-----	0.000
SIZE	-3.818	2.320	2.709	0.100	0.022
ENT	-0.548	1.638	0.112	0.738	.0578
GEN	0.300	1.023	.086	0.770	1.350
PRO	0.522	1.439	0.131	0.717	1.685
MANPROD=0 MANPROD=1	-0.832	1.667	0.249	0.618	0.435
SKILLS=0 SKILLS=1	0.441	1.152	0.147	0.702	1.555
ORG=0 ORG=1	-0.180	1.718	0.011	0.917	0.835
TRAIN=0 TRAIN=1	-2.853	2.107	1.834	0.176	.058
LANDR=0 LANDR=1	1.412	1.709	0.682	0.409	4.103
DEC=0 DEC=1	-0.466	1.195	0.152	0.696	0.627
KNOWLDG=0 KNOWLDG=1	-0.510	1.225	0.173	0.677	0.601
FINOBLIG=0 FINOBLIG=1	-6.178	306.999	0.000	0.984	0.002

- 2 Log Likelihood = 174.045; Chi-Square = 109.133. The reference category was "None (0)", "b" = parameter is set to zero because it is redundant. \*\*P ≤0.05;\*\*\*P≤0.01

### 4.3 Results of inferential analysis

The parameter estimates are presented on Table 4.8 indicating scientific results of the multinomial logistic regression model. The Chi-Square is statistically significant at 109.133;  $p < 0.000$ . The goodness-of-fit is also scientifically acceptable at Pearson 104;  $P < 0.000$ . The key independent variables showed are all indicated in  $P$  values and Exp ( $\beta$ ) values respectively. Table 4.8 represents two parts categories as moderate (category =2) and high (category =3) since none (category = 1) is a reference category. The independent variables of each are also represented based on the  $P$  values and Exp ( $\beta$ ). Both parts share the same independent variables since all play a role in the degree of contribution to household food security. The representative equation of the two corresponding category is indicated below:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log}[P(\text{category}=3)/P(\text{category}=1)] = \\ Li = \\ \beta_2 \text{BEN} + \beta_3 \text{GEN} + \beta_4 \text{SIZE} + \beta_5 \text{ENT} + \beta_6 \text{LANDR} \\ + \beta_7 \text{PRO} + \beta_8 \text{DEC} + \beta_9 \text{KNOWLEDG} + \beta_{10} \text{SKILLS} + \beta_{11} \text{TRAIN} \\ + \beta_{12} \text{ORG} + \beta_{13} \text{MANPROD} + \beta_{14} \text{FINOLIG} \end{aligned}$$

There is a clear indication that for one unit change in the variable ( $\beta$ ), the log of ratio of the two probabilities,  $P(\text{category} = 2) / P(\text{category} = 1)$ , be decreased by -1.275 (12.75%) and the log of the ratio of the  $P(\text{category} 3) / P(\text{category} = 1)$  will also be decreased by -0.466 (46.6%). Decision is very much significant to moderate (category = 2) respondents as compared to high (category =3). The relative risk of farmers participating in decision making to attain food security was higher by 0.245 (24.5%) and 0.627 (62.7%) for category = 2 and 3 respectively. The explanation of this could be that the more the beneficiaries or respondents of land reform get involved in taking decisions and participate in those decisions the more likely they gain household food security. Knowledge had a negative influence to household food security for both category = 1 and category = 2. Therefore, it could mean that the negative sign implied that gain to food security decreases with any increase in the lack of knowledge to manage the farming operation and other related technical production related knowledge. Knowledge is however, significant within the category = 2 than in category = 3. The relative risk of attaining household food security is indicated in column Exp ( $\beta$ ) on Table 4.8. The Exp ( $\beta$ ) falling below the one (1) would indicate the opposite. Therefore, if the odds of training



increases by one unit, that of actual attainment to food security increases by more than 6 times (category = 2). Therefore, the findings of the study also support the analysis made by Mckeown (2006) regarding the importance of training, skills and education in general. Mckeown (2006) indicated that decision making is key to any development option. The ability for the community to take an informed decision is based on the education level of the individual or the group as a whole. Training and support structure that comes through extension service offered by government and others are important towards attaining production for households (Machete, 2004).

The profiling of the business enterprises was essential to see any effect to food security as an alternative means on food production. What was clear from the results was that each enterprise would contribute differently to food security. Deployment of a number of strategies to cope with production risk and improved livelihood is also essential for many farmers. While enterprise was not found to be significant for this discussion, it is still remains important for further research (Orr and Orr, 2002). Hence, diversification is regarded as the important factor that could assist beneficiaries to avert any possible risk of production and attainment of farm income (Panell and Glen, 2000). Agricultural production remains key for attainment of food security (HSRC, 2004). In order for beneficiaries of land reform projects to attain household food security, projects must be functional and produce in a more consistent manner. The study indicated a relative importance of respondent's ability to maintain production and be able to afford farm financial obligation. South Africa currently experienced a decline in its agricultural role towards improving food production of many households. This decline may not be held against land reform as some suggest but may be due to the implementation processes. The suggestion by Olubode-Awosola (2006) that the land reform policy in South Africa could revert the gains of recognisable agricultural output and eventually affect the regional and national food prospects suggest that a lot needs to be done to ensure that the country does not fall into the trap. The study suggests a number of positive strategies that will assist in improving the food production outlook of the projects, municipalities and eventually the country. The view by Meizen- Dick *et al.* (2009) is acknowledged by many authors that land reform could remain important in ensuring food security and improving the economic potential of many citizens. Bonti-Ankomah (2001) argued that access to land will assist the poor, particularly those that are not working and unable to get social grants.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

The foremost important factor that needed to be achieved in this study was to contribute to the body of knowledge with regard to the performance of land reform in South Africa, looking at food security as one of the socio-economic benefits expected in line with objectives of land reform. The study was conducted in the Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality in Sekhukhune District of Limpopo Province. It was motivated by a high number of land reform projects in the area as compared to other municipalities in the same district. Two important objectives were set for the study namely, 1) to analyze food security benefit as one of the important socio-economic benefits expected to be gained by land reform beneficiaries, and 2) to assess factors that could have contributed to the positive or negative socio-economic benefits of land reform. The study had three fundamental hypotheses namely, 1) land reform beneficiaries of the LRAD and SLAG are more likely to contribute moderately to food security, 2) land reform beneficiaries will have a better chance of having improved food security, and 3) variables such as the number of beneficiaries in the project, farm size, decision making, enterprise, proximity to the project, participation in development organisation, training, gender, knowledge, skills, sustaining production and ability to pay project financial obligation are significant to food security gain in land reform project.

In achieving the objectives of the study, several methodologies were deployed starting from literature review, development of questionnaires for empirical data collection, conducting of actual research, analysis of the data collected using the SPSS and writing of the research findings to provide the reader with clear simplistic performance of the land reform in line with the study objectives. An opportunity to understand the land reform in general was provided by discussing land reform from a global point of view and narrowing to the national and local specifics. The link between land reform and food security was established and discussed. Different definitions of land reform were discussed including the two main approaches of land reform namely, state-led and market-led approach. The statistical approach in analysing data provided an in-depth

understanding of the results in comparison with the hypotheses and objectives of the study. In dealing with the study, several challenges were highlighted at the global level including the factors that directly contributed to the failure of land reform projects to provide socio-economic benefits to land reform beneficiaries or households. As indicated in the study, the challenge of land reform requires some comprehensive approaches that could vigorously deal with the issues related to both the pre and post settlement matters. This chapter summarily deals with the main sections of the study and later provides the conclusion and recommendations.

## **5.2 Land reform and food security**

Chapter one dealt with the link between land reform and food security. The HSRC (2004) indicated the complexity of dealing with land reform and food security. Two prongs could be highlighted, the adverse effect of land reform against economic realisation and political gains. The World Bank (2004) advises on the adverse effect of not implementing land reform in a manner acceptable to achieve balanced socio-economic factors. The need to move with speed in ensuring that land reform is implemented to achieve the food security is also supported by a number of scholars. Literature review indicated that more than 850 million people live in poverty (FAO, 2012). Sub-Saharan countries have recorded 150 million people who are living below the poverty line. The South African government has put forth a number of mechanisms to achieve food security. One of the recognised mechanisms across the globe is the right to food as enshrined in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The Integrated Food Security Strategy also provided hope for millions of citizens but the implementation seems not convincing. The study reveals that most of the Sekhukhune land reform beneficiaries did not achieve one of the socio-economic benefit of land reform, which is household food security. A number of projects are not operational as testimony that land reform still has a long way to go before it is sustainable.

## **5.3 Land reform and socio – economic thinking**

As indicated in the study land reform is a process characterised by policy debates (Deininger,1999) and shifts in socio-economic realisation (FAO, 2006). The study has successfully highlighted the importance of land reform as part of development which

according to Anseeuw and Mathebula (2008) is fundamental for any socio-economic benefit. Development is associated with an improved livelihood, leveled land justice for all and other benefits such as food security. The study is also not in isolation from other efforts done by the country to provide better life for all. In previous chapters, several government initiatives were highlighted to compliment the land reform programme. The empirical research done by Souza (2010) also provided a breakthrough in understanding the relationship between the concept of socioeconomic development and land reform or land allocation. Souza (2010) believed that socio-economic impact relates well with an improved level of income of beneficiaries, improved employment opportunities, access to credit, increased agricultural outputs, and production. The success of land reform cannot be isolated from the above attributes which were also fundamental to the South African land reform programme. There is also an argumentative discussion provided in the literature, the importance of food security in the country and indeed to the beneficiaries of land reform.

Land reform as a policy and political issue was discussed to provide the reader about its origins and the need to deal with land reform in South Africa and elsewhere. There is no doubt that land reform across the globe revolve around the common ideology of ensuring land justice. The sub-Saharan countries are mostly affected by issues of land dispossession, which has increased the level of poverty and food insecurity. Land is also regarded by all land reform policy makers as an important asset to reduce poverty and ensure food security. Livelihood improvement is associated with the importance of land reform. There is no doubt that the price of not dealing with land challenges is bigger than one could imagine.

South Africa's land reform programme is following the three tier system of restitution, redistribution and land tenure. The country's market-led approach adopted as a means to fast track land reform has been blamed for slow pace of land reform delivery. The South African government should start to re-develop the policy that could accelerate land reform and ensure that land reform targets are attained. Post settlement was identified categorically as an obstacle to land reform. Programmes such as CASP developed to provide support to land reform beneficiaries need to be well coordinated and integrated to achieve better results.

It was also clear that the argument raised by many scholars with regard to the rural poor's lack of ownership to production properties for poverty alleviation remained irrelevant for the study since all beneficiaries have access to land or solid land ownership despite challenges associated with skills and knowledge. As demonstrated in the literature review that the importance of land reform to transform the lives of ordinary people is not just a rhetoric debate but a proven development breakthrough concept. A number of countries have realised socio-economic benefits for beneficiaries by successfully implementing reformed land allocation. The improved status of poverty in Benin was linked closely to the new land allocation system as part of the country's land reform strategy (Dijoux, 2002). China also could be cited as the country which has successfully demonstrated the benefit of land reform. China recorded improved farm productivity through the land allocation strategies (Li and Yao, 2002). It is very much unfortunate that this study did not provide convincing results that demonstrated beyond doubt the socio-economic benefits of the households concerned. However, land reform remains relevant to providing social justice and improving food security and reducing poverty (Barrett *et al.*, 2005).

It is a fact that land reform alone cannot resolve all unfortunate legacies of the past which relate to poverty and the lack of employment (Lahiff *et al.*, 2008). The results presented in the study correspond with the findings done in Limpopo in 2008 at Molemole area. Most of the projects are faced with a number of challenges to have any meaningful gain to household food security. The challenges vary from lack of adequate farming resources, skills, financial capital and limited extension support (Lahiff *et al.*, 2008). The other challenge is land size which is small for any realistic profit gain or access to food security that could satisfy all beneficiaries. According to Lahiff *et al.* (2008), most of land reform projects have relatively small land parcels for beneficiaries to gain a fair amount of food security and due to this, a lot of money is required to intensify production through adequate infrastructure investment and clear focused strategies. In order to achieve a fair scale of land reform success, multi-faceted approaches are required, which deal with post settlement support systems (for already redistributed land reform projects) and pre-settlement planning (that deal with planned projects).

#### **5.4 The history and land reform policies in South Africa**

In chapter 2 in the study tried to indicate mainly legislations that promoted the land disparities. One of such memorable apartheid land reform piece of legislation is the Group Areas Act which had deprived both the urban and rural people of land (Hall, 2004). The Natives Land and Trust Acts of 1913 and 1936 had forcefully pushed out black people out of productive land to destitute areas. Democracy in South Africa brought some sense of relief to the previously disadvantaged people. The study has also dealt much with the sub-programme of the land redistribution programme which are SLAG and LRAD. In chapter 2, the objectives of the two subprograms were discussed. SLAG sub-programme encouraged group land acquisition for settlement and agricultural purposes while LRAD dealt to some extent with number of beneficiaries as the amount per person was improved. LRAD focused mainly on access to land for agricultural purposes. To date, only the Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) is used by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform to purchase land and rent the land to beneficiaries. The study concentrated on five (05) SLAG projects namely, Tshehla Trust, Phela o Gole, Phela o Phedishe and Phela o Age (three claim to have merged) and Bethel and eight LRAD farms namely, Thulane Trust, Ipopeng Trust, Lesedi Trust, Maletse Piggery, Lebone Trust, Nomanziana, Mphela and Maibelo.

#### **5.5 Funding land reform in South Africa**

Chapter two further indicated that the government of South Africa is the major funder of land reform programme. According CDE (2008), in 2008/9 financial year, Rural Development and Land Reform allocation reached R6.66 billion. There is a need however, to ensure that the budget allocated is spent. In addition to the R6.66 billion, the National Department of Agriculture allocation to CASP was amounted to R4billion by 2010 (Hall and Aliber, 2010).

#### **5.6 Post settlement support**

The country has a number of post settlement support programmes. The programmes are managed by different government departments mainly the Department of Agriculture and Rural Development and Land Reform which sometimes makes co-ordination impossible.

The noticeable programmes put in place are CASP, Illima-Letsema of CASP, Black Economic Empowerment, MAFISA, Agriculture Extension Services, and most recently the Recapitalization programme under the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform.

## **5.7 Challenges of land reform**

Land reform challenges were discussed in chapter 2 of the study. The current progress of land reform is not acceptable. Many would like government to fast track the implementation of the land reform programme (CDE, 2008). Land reform from a food security point of view is facing a number of challenges. There is need for a comprehensive plan of action to ensure that beneficiaries of land reform reap the benefits of the program as expected. Co-ordination of land reform programme within and between implementing departments is also blamed for the lack of meaningful progress. Elst (2007) believe that post settlement support is also a thread towards land reform success. The challenges of land reform could be regarded as deep rooted. The challenges are political, social and economical in a number of ways. At the political level the debate around willing-seller-willing-buyer seems to have sparked tension between the government and other role players (Ntshebeza and Hall, 2009). The cost of land reform is also regarded as a major challenge towards land reform success (Ntshebeza and Hall, 2009).

## **5.8 Conclusion**

Limpopo Province is rural in nature and agriculture plays a major role in a number of districts including Sekhukhune (LPG, 2005). EMLM has ranked agriculture as one of the pillars of the economy (EMLM, 2010). The unemployment rate in the municipality has increased significantly in the past few years. The importance of agriculture in the district is noted in many of the literature reviews and therefore, a lot needs to be done to ensure that agriculture continues to provide the municipality with economic value.

There are other disturbing socio-economic factors in the municipality which also affect economic development such as the rate of literacy levels of the population. According to EMLM (2010), the municipality had a total of about 59% of the population without sound formal education. The same document indicated that only 86 156 people managed to get

to standard of primary or secondary education. The study also revealed that 12.9% of the respondents had no schooling and a less convincing figure of those had formal schooling.

It was also observed that since the procurement of farms, there has been no proper investment in infrastructure and no maintenance has taken place. Agricultural development requires a high degree of investment in infrastructure. Sekhukhune District is water stressed with limited rainfall and therefore, irrigation is very crucial. Farmers with no form of infrastructure such as irrigation systems could not be able to produce adequately. CASP programme and other post settlement support were not traced satisfactorily in most of the projects. Only four (04) projects had received infrastructure namely, Lesedi Trust (irrigation system covering 30ha), Lebone Trust (youth received 40 000 capacity environmentally controlled poultry house, which is not operational due to the lack of markets and capital investment), Malete Project (received piggery structure not fully operational due to some bio-security requirements and operational costs) and lastly, Phela O Gole (just received fencing).

The knowledge levels of farmers in agricultural production and general farm management was also not adequate to assist in substantial production returns. The study revealed that less than 20% of the farmers had received formal training in the past three years, which makes it difficult for beneficiaries to keep up with the technology and skills required. There were other farmers who belonged to some development organisations which assist with workshops and sessions. The knowledge gained was not enough to bridge the knowledge and skills gap. Another important factor noted was that farmers were willing to learn if provided with an opportunity.

## **5.9 Recommendations**

There is a need to develop a comprehensive, progressive and integrated agricultural development plan to advance the objectives of land reform programme in the district. The plan should advance the variables that have influence on the improvement of food security namely, knowledge, decision and ability to maintain production. Training plans to ensure improved skills and knowledge of beneficiaries is very critical. The ability of



beneficiaries to produce consistently will assist all to maintain better financial cash-flow and improve household buying power.

The available post settlement support mechanisms through government and other institutions, if packaged properly, could assist the beneficiaries. What should be noted is that government has already procured the properties and plans should be developed to make sure that the property becomes profitable. A participatory agricultural development plan for the area should be developed. Several role players should be encouraged to participate in the development of the plan. The role of the following pre-selected organisation is critical in the development of the plan, 1) Limpopo Department of Agriculture; 2) Limpopo Provincial Department of Rural development and Land Reform; 3) Elias Motsoaledi Municipality; 4) beneficiaries from different projects, 5) Development organisations in the area and training institutions. A proper situation analysis of the areas within and outside the projects should be developed and assessed properly by all stakeholders. The competitive and comparative advantages of the district with regard to agriculture must be assessed in detail. The competing land needs are also critical for the future development of agriculture in the area. The capacity building strategy is also critical for the effective use of the land reform projects.

While the plan will also encourage the participation of investors, an investment plan should encourage proper beneficiation of all beneficiaries and discourage any form of dependencies. All parties must be willing to contribute to the development and success of agriculture. Investors should not become the only deciding stakeholders with veto power.

Marketing is very critical for the success of agriculture in the area. A proper agricultural marketing plan will go a long way in ensuring sustainability. An assessment of market opportunities in the area and beyond the district borders is important. Infrastructural development in the form of marketing infrastructure facilities will not only link farmers to markets but stimulate production and encourages investment. The area of Elias Motsoaledi can outperform other areas if such plans could be developed.

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## **Appendix 1**

### **QUESTIONNAIRE**



**Questionnaire:**

**Socio-economic analysis of land reform projects at Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province of South Africa: comparing the degree of contribution to food security**

**Important short notes:** The intention of the questionnaire is to understand the socio-economic benefit of land reform beneficiaries in the Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality of Sekhukhune District Municipality. It should also be noted that the Questionnaire is for the fulfillment of the requirement of Master of Science in Agriculture, in the subject of Agricultural Economics at the University of South Africa Department of Agriculture and Animal Health college of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences.

NB: This information is confidential and is between the interviewer and the respondent.

Date of interviews: \_\_\_\_\_

**1. Project Profile**

Project name	No. of beneficiaries	Specialization area		Land reform	
		Enterprises	Tick (x)	Program	Tick (x)
	Land Holding	Livestock .....1		SLAG.....1	
	Tick (x)	Crop.....2		LRAD.....2	
	CPA.....1 Trust.....2	Other.....3			
Year acquired					
What is total farm size/ha?		>10ha/household.....1			
		<10ha/household.....2			

**2. Interviewer profile**

2.1 Name of interviewer	2.2 Area of resident	Tick (x)	2.3 Age Range	Tick (x)
	2.2.1: 1-20km.....1		18-35yrs .....1 36-50yrs .... 2 51-70yrs .....3 71 above ... 4	
	2.2.2: >21.....2			
	2.5 Area classification			
2.4 Gender	Urban.....1			
Male .....1	Semi-urban...2			
Female.....2	Rural.....3			
	Semi-rural....4			
	2.7 Occupation			
2.6 Highest standard passed		Tick (x)		Tick (x)
Primary school .....1	Farming (same project) .....1		2.8 Is farming your major source of income	Yes...1
High school....2	Farming (outside).... 2			No....2
Post school....3	Gvt sector.....3		2.9 If your answer is no, what is your major source of income?	
Not to school..4	Pensioner..... 4			

<b>2-6.1 Number of years in formal education</b>	No occupation.....5	
	Private sector.....7	
<b>2.10 How do you rate your the level of participation in the project decision making, using the below scale? (Tick x)</b>		
1 – Yes <input type="checkbox"/> otherwise <input type="checkbox"/>		

**3. Social benefits**

3.1 In your own opinion how do you rate the extent at which the project has assisted in ensuring food security in your household, using the below scale?

Scale	Tick (x)
None.....1	
Moderate.....2	
High.....3	

3.2 Have you in the last three years improved your house or constructed a new house as a result of the project income?

Yes...1	Otherwise...0
---------	---------------

3.3 Are you now able to afford to pay school fees for your children?

Yes....1	Otherwise...0
----------	---------------

3.5 Do you think the project has provided you with knowledge that you could apply in your own business or household?

Yes....1	Otherwise....0
----------	----------------

3.5 If the answer is yes what type of knowledge? \_\_\_\_\_

3.6 Do you think the project has provided you with any skill/s?

Yes....1	Otherwise....0
----------	----------------

3.7 If the answer is yes what type of skill/s \_\_\_\_\_

3.8 Since land acquisition have you participated in any development organization?

Yes....1	Otherwise....0
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3.9 Are you an affiliated member of any organization that assist in farming? e.g. cooperative or union.

Yes....1	Otherwise....0
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3.10 If the answer is yes which one? \_\_\_\_\_

3.11 Have you ever received training over the past two years organized through your project?

Yes....1	Otherwise....0
----------	----------------

3.12 Indicate the training course/s?

\_\_\_\_\_

3.13 Was the training accredited?

Yes....1    Otherwise....0

3.14 Could you indicate accreditation institution per training program

Name of training	Accreditation institution

**4 Economic benefits**

4.1 Financial benefit (Please indicate the type of financial benefit paid or declare to you since the project inception and the frequency)

\_\_\_\_\_

4.2 How much do you get on average per year from the project? \_\_\_\_\_

4.3 On average how much profit share do you get from the projects? \_\_\_\_\_

4.3 Could you indicate list of all assets and their value gained as a result of the project?

Type of Asset	Value	Year Acquired
1.		
2		

4.4 Have you ever approached any financial institution or bank for a loan recently?

Yes ...1    Otherwise...0

4.5 Was the loan approved?

Yes....1    Otherwise...0

4.6 If the loan was not approved what was the reasons for non-approval.

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

**5 General**

5.1 In your own opinion is the project able to maintain most of your financial obligation?

Yes....1    Otherwise...0

5.2 Is the project able to maintain production?

Yes...1    Otherwise....0

5.3 Do you have any regrets in owning or been part of the project and why?

Yes....1    Otherwise....0

Why: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

5.4 Any suggestive measures in improving the situation for better return and benefit?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for participating in the study!!!!