# Post-settlement land reform challenges: The case of the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration, Mpumalanga Province

# N S Masoka 23085045

Mini-dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree *Masters* in *Public Administration* at the Potchefstroom-Campus of the North-West University

Supervisor: Prof G van der Waldt

September 2014



#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I would like to convey my gratitude to the following persons who contributed towards my research:

- To Prof Gerrit van der Waldt for his professional expert advice, prompt responses and his world-class leadership throughout the study.
- To the officials and farmers of the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration, for their support and sacrifices and for providing me with the valuable information of my study.
- To Jack Chokwe for the professional editing of the dissertation.
- To my family and friends for their unwavering support throughout the study.
- To my late parents for their inspiration.
- Above all, to the Almighty God for His guidance and the strength throughout this process.

#### **KEY WORDS**

Land Reform Programme, Post-settlement, Mpumalanga Province, Pro-active land acquisition strategy, Land redistribution, restitution, Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme, Land and Agrarian Reform Programme, Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration, Nkangala District, Emalahleni, Emakhazeni, Victor Khanye, Municipalities.

#### **ABSTRACT**

As a national key priority programme, land reform acts as a driving force for rural development and building the economy of the country. In order for land reform to contribute to sustainable livelihoods for land reform beneficiaries, it must be supported by diversified programmes of pre- and post-settlement support of agrarian reform in a non-centralised and non-bureaucratic manner. Post-settlement support in the context of South African land reform refers to post-transfer support or settlement support given to land reform beneficiaries after they have received land. Support services, or complementary development support, as specified in the White Paper of the South African Land Policy of 1996, include assistance with productive and sustainable land use, agricultural extension services support, infrastructural support, access to markets and credit facilities, and agricultural production inputs.

Government's mandate is, however, not only restricted to the redistribution of land or making land more accessible. It is also responsible for empowering beneficiaries and for creating an effective support foundation to ensure that sustainable development takes place, specifically in the rural areas of the country. In practice, sustainable development entails that, for land reform to be successful, the quality of life of beneficiaries must improve substantially and the acquired land must be utilised to its full commercial potential, after resettlement on claimed land has occurred. Therefore, an effective post-settlement support strategy and model must be set in place.

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) and the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration (DARDLA) are the key departments that have been mandated to implement the Land Reform

Programme (LRP). DRDLR is responsible for facilitation of the land acquisition (presettlement support) and DARDLA for post-settlement support, ensuring that the land or farms that have been delivered or acquired by land beneficiaries are economically viable. Without post-settlement support, land reform will not yield to sustainable development and nor improve the quality of life of rural people. There is, however, little or no evidence to suggest that land reform has led to improved efficiency, improvement of livelihoods, job creation or economic growth.

Against this background, the study investigated and unlocked the key challenges related to the post-settlement support of the LRP, with emphasis on the agricultural support programmes rendered by the DARDLA in Mpumalanga Province to land reform beneficiaries. It further examined how such support impacts on the sustainability of the LRP, and made recommendations to the management of the Department on what could be done to further improve post-settlement support to land reform projects towards achieving the objective of sustainable development.

# **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS			i
KEY	KEY WORDS		
_	ABSTRACT		
_	LIST OF FIGURES		хi
		TABLES	xii
LIST	OF A	ABBREVIATIONS	xiii
		CHAPTER 1	
		ORIENTATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT	
1.1	IN	TRODUCTION	1
1.2	RE	SEARCH OBJECTIVES	6
1.3	RE	SEARCH QUESTIONS	7
1.4	CE	ENTRAL THEORETICAL ARGUMENTS	8
1.5	RE	SEARCH METHODOLOGY	9
1.5.1	Lit	erature review	10
1.5.2	Er	npirical investigation	10
1.5.2	. 1	Research design	11
1.5.2	.2	Sampling	12
1.5.2	.3	Instrumentation	12
1.5.2	.3.1	Interviews	13
1.5.2	.4	Data analysis	13
1.5.2	.5	Limitation and delimitation of the study	13
1.5.2	.6	Ethical consideration	14
1.6	SI	GNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	14
1.7	CH	HAPTER LAYOUT	15
1.8	C	DNCLUSIONS	16
		CHAPTER 2	
TH	IE C	ONTEXT AND PRINCIPLES OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAM	IME IN
		SOUTH AFRICA	
2.1	IN	TRODUCTION	17
2.2	LΑ	ND REFORM: CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXTUAL CLARIFICATION	20
2.3	TH	IE IDEOLOGICAL VANTAGE POINTS OF LAND REFORM	20

2.3.1	Political perspective of land reform	21
2.3.2	Economic perspective of land reform	23
2.2.3	Social and cultural perspective of land reform	24
2.4	CHRONICLES OF THE LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA	24
2.4.1	Land reform in the colonial era	25
2.4.2	Land reform in the 50s	28
2.4.3	Period from 1958 to 1993	30
2.4.4	Land reform in the post 1994	31
2.5	POLICY OBJECTIVES OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME	31
2.6	PILLARS OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME	32
2.6.1	Land distribution	34
2.6.1.1	Settlement Land Acquisition grant (SLAG)	35
2.6.1.2	Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development Programme	37
2.6.1.3	Pro- active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS)	39
2.6.2	Restitution	40
2.6.3	Land tenure	41
2.7	APPROACHES TO LAND REFORM	44
2.7.1	The World Bank's view of market based Land reform	45
2.8	POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT IN THE CONTEXT OF SOUTH AFRICAN LAN	ND
	REFORM	47
2.8.1	Phases of post- settlement support	55
2.8.2	The inherent shortcomings in the provision of post-settlement support under the	
	South African land reform	57
2.8.3	Post-settlement support: Functions and responsibilities	59
2.9	THE INTEGRATION BETWEEN LAND REFORM AND AGRICULTU	JRAL
D	PEVELOPMENT	60
2.9.1	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)	62
2.9.2	Land and Agrarian Reform Programme (LARP)	63
2.10	THE ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE STAKEHOLDERS IN	THE
IN	MPLEMENTATION OF LAND REFORM PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AFRICA	63
2.10.1	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform	64
2.10.2	Department of Agriculture	65
2.10.3	Land bank	66
2.10.4	The National Developing Agency (NDA)	66
2.10.5	Organised Agriculture	67
2.10.6	Non-Governmental organisations	67
2 11 0	PONCI LISIONI	68

# **CHAPTER 3**

# THE STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK PERTAINING TO LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1	INTRODUCTION	70
3.2	STATUTORY FRAMEWORK ON LAND ACQUISITION	71
3.2.1	Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996	77
3.2.2	The Natives Land Act 27 of 1913	78
3.2.3	Legislations pertaining to land distribution	78
3.2.4	Legislation pertaining to restitution	80
3.2.5	Legislation pertaining to tenure reform	83
3.3	STATUTORY FRAMEWORK ON POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT	83
3.3.1	Agricultural related legislation	86
3.4	THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK FOR LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA	86
3.4.1	The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), 1994	87
3.4.2	White Paper on South African Land Policy, 1997	89
3.4.3	Green Paper on Land Policy, 2011	91
3.4.4	Constitutional Mandates	92
3.4.4.1	Agricultural Sector Plan, 2001	95
3.4.4.2	Integrated Food Security Strategy, 2002	97
3.4.4.3	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) policy framew	vork,
	2002	98
3.4.4.4	Comprehensive Rural Development Framework, 2009	100
3.5	CONCLUSION	101

# **CHAPTER 4**

# AN ANALYSIS OF THE CURRENT LAND REFORM POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT: THE CASE OF DARDLA

4.1	INTRODUCTION	102
4.2	AN OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF LAND REFORM IN MPUMALANGA	
	PROVINCE	106
4.3	OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF DARDLA	107
4.3.1	Organisational structure of DARDLA with special reference to ti	he (Land
	Reform Directorate)	108
4.3.2	Strategic intent	109

4.3.3	Strate	gic outcome oriented goals	110
4.3.4	Legisla	ntive and other mandates	110
4.4	ANAL'	YSIS OF THE ORGANISATIONAL ENVIRONMENT	111
4.4.1	Extern	al Environmental analysis	117
4.4.2	Stakeh	older analysis	118
4.5	CRITIC	CAL ANALYSIS OF THE PROVISION OF POST-SETTLEMENT SUPP	PORT
	STRAT	TEGIES IN DARDLA	119
4.5.1	Analys	is of strategies implemented by DARDLA as post-settlement support to	land
	reform	beneficiaries	119
4.5.1.1	1 Po	st-settlement approaches and/models	119
4.5.1.1	1.1 Mu	nicipal agro-based (Local Economic Development) LED approach	122
4.5.1.1	1.2 Pro	oject based approach	125
4.5.1.1	1.3 Ag	ri-Co-operative Model	128
4.5.1.2	2 Str	ategic intervention/Agricultural development support Programmes	130
4.5.1.3	3.1	Extension and advisory services.	131
4.5.1.3	3.2	Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)	133
4.5.1.3.2.1 Implementation strategy			134
4.5.1.3	3.3	Massification of crop production (Masibuyele Emasimini) Programme	135
4.5.1.3	3.3.1	Pillars of support	136
4.5.1.3.3.2		Implementation strategy	138
4.5.1.3	3.3.3	Targeted hectares for ME for a period of 5 years	138
4.5.1.3		Livestock improvement programme (Masibuyele Esibayeni programme)	141
4.5.1.3	3.4.1	Implementation strategy	143
4.5.1.3		Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP)	144
4.5.2		rs qualifying for the post-settlement support	144
4.6	CONC	LUSION	145
		CHAPTER 5	
POS	ST-SET	TLEMENT SUPPORT PROVIDED BY DARDLA TO LAND REFOR	RM
		BENEFICIARIES: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS	
5.1	INTRO	DUCTION	146
5.2	CASE	STUDY DESIGN	147
5.2.1	Descri	ption of the case study or study area	149
5.3	RESE	ARCH METHODOLOGY	149
5.3.1	Design		150

5.3.2	Sampling	152	
5.3.3	Instrumentation	152	
5.4	EMPIRICAL FINDINGS	153	
5.4.1	Farmers perception on the status of land reform in the three municipalities	(see	
	attached Annexure A)	182	
5.4.2.	Managers' perception on post-settlement support provided to land		
	Reform farmers	188	
5.4.3.	Extension workers' perception on post-settlement support provided to land re	form	
	beneficiaries	195	
5.5	CONCLUSION	195	
	CHAPTER 6		
	RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS		
6.1	INTRODUCTION	196	
6.2	SUMMARY OF CHAPTER OUTCOMES	197	
6.2.1	Research Objectives	197	
6.2.1.1	To explore the principles of the LRP as applicable in South Africa	197	
6.2.1.2	To investigate the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LF	RP in	
	South Africa	197	
6.2.1.3	To describe and analyse how the DARDLA provides post-settlement suppo	ort to	
	land reform projects	198	
6.2.1.4	To obtain empirical evidence through the land reform focus groups regarding	g the	
	extent of post-settlement support provided by the DARDLA	198	
6.2.1.5	To make recommendations to the DARDLA for it to address the current p	post-	
	settlement challenges and identify effective post-settlement support to	land	
	reform projects	199	
6.3	MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	204	
6.4	RECOMMENDATIONS	207	
6.5	CONCLUSION	209	
RIRI IC	BIBLIOGRAPHY 228		
אושונים			

241

ANNEXURE A

# **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2.1:	Post-settlement phases	48
Figure 4.1:	DARDLA s organisational structure	107
Figure 4.2:	Agro based LED model	120
Figure 4.3:	Project stages	123
Figure 4.4:	Agri-Co-operative Model	127
Figure 5.1:	Nkangala District map	148
Figure 5.2	When the farm was acquired	153
Figure 5.3	Land acquired through land reform programme	154
Figure 5.4	Total size of land	155
Figure 5.5	Type of enterprise	156
Figure 5.6	Scale of production	157
Figure 5.7	Where produce is sold	158
Figure 5.8	Associations where farmers are affiliated	159
Figure 5.9	Feasibility study for land (farming) development	160
Figure 5.10	Business development support	161
Figure 5.11	Project planning and implementation	162
Figure 5.12	Support received from DARDLA	163
Figure 5.13	Extension back-up support received	164
Figure 5.14	Time spent by extension workers	165
Figure 5.15	Visits made by workers per month	166
Figure 5.16	Purpose of visit	167
Figure 5.17	Level of extension support	168
Figure 5.18	Commencement of ME Programme	170
Figure 5.19	Type of support	171
Figure 5.20	Type of crop commodity	172
Figure 5.21	Hectares planted	173
Figure 5.22	Where produce is sold	174
Figure 5.23	Monetary benefits	175
Figure 5.24	Effectiveness of the programme	176
Figure 5.25	Commencement of the MESP programme	178
Figure 5.26	Type of support	179
Figure 5.27	Effectiveness of the programme	180
Figure 5.28	Availability of policies	182
Figure 5.29	Effectiveness in adherence to post-settlement policies	183
Figure 5.30	Support aligned to transferred land	184

Figure 5.31	Alignment of support within the IDP of the Municipality	185
Figure 5.32	Accessibility of the programmes	186
Figure 5.33	Farmer extension ratio	189
Figure 5.34	Number of visits extension worker undertakes per month	190
Figure 5.35	Support programmes implemented	191
Figure 5.36	Effectiveness in planning and implementation of projects	192
Figure 5.37	Rate the level of back-up support provided	193
LIST OF TAI	BLES	
Table 4.1:	External environmental factors	113
Table 4.2:	Stakeholder analysis	117
Table 4.3:	ME pillars of support	135
Table 4.4:	Targeted hectares for ME for a period of 5 years	137

#### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AFASA African farmers Association of South Africa

ANC African National Congress

CASP Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme

CLARA Communal Land Rights Act

COS Council of stakeholders

CPA Communal Property Associations

CRDP Comprehensive Rural Development Programme
CRLR Commission on the Restitution of Land Rights

DAFF Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry

DARDLA Department of Agriculture, Rural development and Land Administration

DLA Department of land affairs

DM District Municipality

DMR Department of Mineral Resources

DOA Department of Agriculture

DRDLR Department of Rural Development and Land Reform

ERP Extension recovery plan

ESTA Extension security tenure act

Gear Employment and Redistribution Strategy

HOD Head of Department

IDC Independent Development CorporationIDP Integrated Development Programme

IFSS Integrated food security strategy

IMF Internal monetary fund

IPILRA Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act

LAMOSA Land access movement of South Africa
LARP Land and Agrarian Reform Programme

LED Local economic development

LIP Livestock Improvement Programme

LRP Land Reform Programme

LRAD Land Redistribution Agricultural development

LTA Labour Tenants Act

MALA Ministry of Agriculture and Land affairs

ME Masibuyele Emasimini

MEC Member of Executive Council

MESP Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme

NAFU National Agricultural Farmers Union
NDA National Department of Agriculture
NDA National Development Agency

NP National Party

PDI Historically disadvantaged individuals
PLAS Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy

PMU Project Management Unit

RDP Reconstruction and Development Programme

SAHR South African Human Research Council

SERO Social economic review outlook

SLAG Settlement and Land Acquisition grant

ZHS Zero hunger strategy

# **CHAPTER 1**

#### ORIENTATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

# 1.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1994, the Government of South Africa committed itself to the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), a policy framework designed to promote a fundamental transformation of the social, economic and moral foundations of South African society (African National Congress [ANC], 1994). The RDP identified land reform as a key component of meeting basic needs and building the economy (ANC, 1994). The RDP further regarded land reform as a central driving force of a programme of rural development, and set a target of redistributing 30% of agricultural land within five years of achieving democratic governance (ANC, 1994: 21-3).

The South African Land Reform Programme (LRP) was implemented after 1994 by Government in an attempt to redress imbalances in land ownership which had emanated from the racially biased policies of the apartheid Government prior to 1994 (Lubambo, 2011:1). She (Lubambo) argues, that the aim of the LRP was to transfer land to the historically disadvantaged black citizens, to improve livelihoods and stimulate the economy by compensating people for, and returning, land unjustly taken during the apartheid era (Lubambo, 2011:1). The LRP rests on three pillars (each has its own set of concerns and dynamics), which are entrenched in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (DLA, 1997), namely:

- Restitution, which aims to restore land or provide comparable redress for rights in land for people who were dispossessed after 19 June 1913;
- Redistribution, which responds to various needs and aspirations of people for land, in both rural and urban areas, in an equitable and affordable manner while at the same time contributing to poverty alleviation and national economic growth; and

• Tenure Reform, which aims to upgrade the different land tenure arrangements currently restricting tenure security for the previously disadvantaged, in both urban and rural areas.

According to Kahn (2007:6),the main challenge in the South African land reform context is to ensure that these three pillars are successfully achieved, which can be construed in many ways but, in terms of land and the alleviation of poverty of which land redistribution forms an aspect, successful land reform should mean better livelihoods for those who receive land. It was envisaged that all of these pillars had to be created in a manner that would promote sustainable development through joint efforts by Government, beneficiaries and stakeholders, making use of available resources (Rungasamy, 2011:2). However, Lahiff and Li (2012:1) argue that in the past sixteen years, there is little or no evidence to suggest that land reform has led to improved efficiency, improvement of livelihoods, job creation or economic growth.

Lahiff and Li, (2012:1-2) further maintained that some gains have undoubtedly been made, but these remain largely at the symbolic level and where real material advances have occurred, these can generally be attributed to the involvement of third parties, either individual mentors, agribusiness corporations, NGOs or ecotourism investors. The evidence of the past sixteen years suggests that current land acquisition policies through the market-based approach have minimal support to new farmers and are unlikely to transform the rural economy and alleviate poverty.

What seems to be missing at present is any small-farmer path to development which could allow the millions of households residing in the communal areas and on commercial farms to expand their own production and accumulate wealth and resources in an incremental manner (Lahiff, 2001:4). Furthermore, the policies that have been adopted by the state have been problematic from a number of perspectives, and have fallen far short of their delivery targets. In addition, Lahiff (2000) argues that even where land has been transferred, this would appear to have had minimal impact on the livelihoods of beneficiaries, largely due to inappropriate project design, a lack of necessary support services and shortages of working capital, leading to widespread under-utilisation of land.

Government's mandate is, however, not only restricted to the redistribution of land or making land more accessible. It is also responsible for empowering beneficiaries and for creating an effective support foundation to ensure that sustainable development takes place, especially in the rural areas of the country (Rungasamy, 2011:5). In practice, sustainable development entails that, for land reform to be successful, the quality of life of beneficiaries must improve substantially and acquired land must be utilised to its full commercial potential, after resettlement on claimed land has occurred (Rungasamy, 2011:53). Therefore, an effective post-settlement support strategy and model must be put in place.

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR), together with the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration (DARDLA), as part of the Government agencies, are the key departments that have been tasked to implement the land reform programme. DRDLR is responsible for facilitation of the land acquisition (pre-settlement support) and DARDLA for post-settlement support, ensuring that the lands or farms that have been delivered or acquired by land beneficiaries are economically viable (DLA, 1997).

In relation to the South African LRP, post-settlement support refers specifically to Government's function and responsibility in assisting beneficiaries of the programme after they have received land (Van der Elst, 2008:56). This support can be provided in the form of Agricultural extension services support, training and capacity development, financial support, infrastructural development, business and marketing as well as technology development. Van der Elst, further points out that "the assistance must be planned and provided in a sustainable way" (Van der Elst, 2008:56). Beneficiaries must therefore be empowered to utilise land to such an extent that poverty is reduced and their livelihoods become, and remain, sustainable in medium to long term period (DLA, 2007). Restoring land ownership without additional complementary support services is meaningless; therefore, there is an intricate relationship between pre- and post-settlement support as part of land reform (Rungasamy, 2011:4).

The above orientation furnishes a background to the problem statement which focuses on the post-settlement challenges of the land reform programme, with the main emphasis on the post-settlement support or after-care support/farmer support services rendered to land reform projects by DARDLA in Mpumalanga Province.

More than 60% of the land in the Province is mainly composed of farms; with an estimation of 1 088 209 hectares (ha) of commercial dry land, 110 739 ha under commercial irrigation and 99 710 ha for subsistence agriculture (DARDLA, 2010). Almost 80% of the population rely on agriculture for meeting their economic needs and food production. The growing demand for agricultural produce is an important driver of the agricultural sector in this Province. Agriculture contributes 6% to the GDP of the Province (Statistics, 2011). The main agricultural products are citrus, sugarcane, livestock, sunflower seed, soya beans, maize and a variety of vegetables (DARDLA, 2010:6).

According to the Strategic Plan (2010) of DARDLA, one of the Department's core mandates as far as post-settlement support is concerned is to create vibrant, equitable, rural communities and ensure national food security for all. DRDLD further states that the purpose of post-settlement support is to identify and implement strategic interventions in terms of land reform, to recapitalise failing projects and develop current and future projects as part of the Department's commitment to sustainable land reform. The objectives are to (DRDLD, 2011):

- increase production;
- improve food security;
- graduate small farmers into commercial farmers; and
- create employment opportunities within the agricultural sector.

DARDLA plays a key role in dealing with the existing high levels of poverty, inequality and unemployment within the Province. To deal with these mammoth challenges, the Department offers various agricultural support programmes, including Masibuyele Emasimini (food security), Masibuyele Esibayeni (livestock improvement programme),a Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme

(CASP), Land Care, Extension and Advisory Support Services, Agribusiness, and Research and Development, amongst others. Through these programmes the plight of the peasant and emerging farmers is addressed. The support rendered involves the supply of agricultural production inputs, livestock, provision of mechanisation services and other basic on-off farm infrastructure, and rendering of the extension advisory support services (DARDLA, 2010:11).

According to the DARDLA Land Reform Report (2010), since 2001,726 277 ha had been settled in Mpumalanga Province for land reform beneficiaries through various distribution interventions. The annual reports for 2009-2010 (10-12) and 2010-11 (18-19) of the Department further indicated that 392 farms were to be supported by means of infrastructure development, training and capacity development, technical advice, finance, and so forth. However, the Annual Report of the same year indicated that only 102 farms had been supported (mostly with technical advice). The evidence on the farms showed that out of the 102 supported, only 15 projects were functional. Furthermore, the Annual Report revealed an under-expenditure of 70% on conditional grants budgeted for infrastructure projects. Even though a huge part of the Department's budget is allocated for the implementation of projects there is little evidence that indicates the impact of the support provided by the Department, while most of these acquired farms remain unproductive, distressed and possess dilapidated and vandalised infrastructure.

As a result, for many years there has been poor progress in terms of producing sufficient food and, despite the efforts made in farming by land reform farmers in Mpumalanga Province, they remain poor: poverty is pervasive and largely rural. (Agri-SA, 2011) argues, "without meaningful land reform, it is unlikely that rural areas will ever be stable and peaceful. At the same time, "land reform gone wrong can lead to food shortages, a sharp rise in the price of staple foods, food riots and instability" (Agri-SA, 2011). This situation could also have a hugely detrimental impact on South Africa's economy. This demonstrates that these agricultural support programmes have not been adequate, nor tailored to the needs of the farmers nor contributing to the sustainability of land reform projects. One farmer by the name of Khosi Zwane in the *Farmers Weekly* (Van Zyl, 2011:28) was quoted as saying: "CASP is there in paper as a programme to assist the land reform farmers with

infrastructure development but we have never seen it in our farms; we have been waiting for the past 6 years and still waiting". This quote from the farmer also implies that the Department has not been successful in achieving its mandate of creating a vibrant, equitable, sustainable, rural agriculture and food security for all, due to certain challenges that are administrative, strategic and technical.

While a large number of hectares have been transferred through the land distribution and restitution process, the post-settlement support given in those acquired land remains a difficulty (Lahiff, 2007). Little or no attention is being given to ensure that there is proper support after the restoration of land to ensure sustainable development (Rungasamy, 2011:69). Manenzhe (2007:23) further argues that most black rural communities who are now land owners as a result of settled land claims or redistribution projects were in the past marginalised and excluded from the mainstream economy; therefore, they lack the skills and capacity to run big commercial farms. There is no provision of Government support programmes offered to new land owners after resettling; therefore, provision of such post-restoration support by the Government remains a critical question in South African land reform (Lahiff, 2001).

Against this background, the study intends to investigate and unlock the key challenges related to the post-settlement support of the LRP, with emphasis on the agricultural support programmes rendered by the DARDLA in Mpumalanga Province to the land reform beneficiaries/projects; to examine how such support impacts on the sustainability of the land reform programme and to make recommendations to the management of the Department on what could be considered as effective post-settlement support to land reform projects towards achieving the objective of sustainable development.

#### 1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following specific objectives have been identified:

• To explore the principles of the LRP as applicable in South Africa;

- To investigate the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LRP in South Africa;
- To describe and analyse how the DARDLA provides post-settlement support to land reform projects;
- To obtain empirical evidence through the land reform focus groups regarding the extent of post-settlement support provided by the DARDLA; and
- To make recommendations to the DARDLA for it to address the current postsettlement challenges and identify effective post-settlement support to land reform projects.

#### 1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research study attempts to achieve the above objectives through answering the following questions:

- What are the principles of the LRP as applicable in South Africa?
- What is the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LRP in South Africa?
- What kind of post-settlement support does the DARDLA provide to land reform projects and how is it coordinated, structured and processed?
- What is the empirical evidence for the post-settlement support provided by the DARDLA to the land reform beneficiaries?
- What recommendations can be made to the DARDLA for it to address the current post-settlement challenges and identify effective post-settlement support to land reform projects?

# 1.4 CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS

The LRP is one of the key Government interventions that address the past injustices of apartheid to redress racially skewed land ownership and to create wealth and opportunities for economic growth (DARDLA, 2010:1). There is an intricate relationship between redistribution of land and post-settlement support as part of land reform (Rungasamy, 2011:4). The success of the LRP is dependent on effective

and efficient systems and processes of distributing land and on the proper postsettlement support for those projects acquired through the LRP, where beneficiaries are generating income and making profits (Tilley, 2007:2).

Post-settlement support in the context of South African land reform refers to post transfer support or settlement support given to land reform beneficiaries after they have received land (Rungasamy, 2011:59). It could be provided in the form of Agricultural extension services, infrastructural support services, access to markets and financial support and training and capacity building. DLA's White Paper on South African Land Policy (DLA, 1997) distinguishes between equitable distribution of land and the provision of complementary development services. Support services, or complementary development support, as specified in the White Paper; include assistance with productive and sustainable land use, infrastructure support, farm credit, agricultural inputs, and access to markets for farm outputs (DLA, 1997:16).

Land reform might be a success if comprehensive support is given to the beneficiaries, but without post-settlement support the LRP will continue to yield poor results in sustaining the livelihood of the rural people. This will also mean the Department is failing in achieving its mandate of halving poverty by 2014 and ensuring food security. Hall (2004) states that "the South African land reform programme is not likely to meet the objectives of equity, sustainability or economic development, unless land reform beneficiaries receive substantial financial and infrastructural support from the state and/or the private and non-profit sectors". Such support to these beneficiaries could include: agricultural extension services, capital, credit services, electricity, education, employment opportunities, agricultural equipment, irrigation systems, quality and affordable healthcare, good quality land, access to functioning markets, appropriate research, training and skills development programmes, transport, appropriate technology and water (Andrew, Ainslie & Shackleton, 2003).

#### 1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, information for the study will be gathered through primary and secondary sources. The following research methods will be used for the study.

#### 1.5.1 Literature review

The review of the literature provided the background and context for the research problem. Majam and Theron (2006:19) define a literature review as a "text written by someone to consider the critical points of current knowledge, including substantive findings as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic". Literature reviews are secondary sources and, as such, do not report any new or original experimental work. "A literature review gives an overview of the field of inquiry: what has already been said on the topic, who the key writers are, what the prevailing theories and hypotheses are, what questions are being asked, and what methodologies and methods are appropriate and useful" (Dahal, 2013). Such a review covers everything relevant that is written on a topic: books, journal articles, newspaper articles, historical records, government reports, theses and dissertations (Mouton, 2006).

The success of the LRP is dependent on comprehensive post-settlement support given to land reform beneficiaries after they have acquired land. Articles, books and journals on post-settlement support have been studied to gain a better understanding of the key challenges related to post-transfer support given to land reform beneficiaries by the DARDLA, as one of the Government agencies tasked with the implementation of land reform in South Africa. The review has assisted the researcher in studying different concepts to deal better with the topic in hand and compare, summarise and synthesise the various theories related to the topic. References were also made to the national land reform policies, statutory policy framework, the national agriculture sector plan and prescripts that guide the implementation of land reform.

Additional information related to the research study was also obtained from the following databases:

- a) Catalogues of theses and dissertations of South African Universities;
- b) The catalogue of books: Ferdinand Postma Library (North-West University);
- c) Index to South African Periodicals; This had been useful to the researcher as it indexes the contents of all the updated South African journals and magazines;
- d) Other useful information related to the topic has been obtained from internet publications;
- e) the North-West University online library; and
- f) Department of Agriculture, Land Administration and Rural development (DARDLA).

# 1.5.2 Empirical investigation

# 1.5.2.1 Research design

A research design as defined by the business dictionary is a "detailed outline of how an investigation will take place" (www.businessdictionary.com/defination/research-design.html). Such a design "will typically include how data are to be collected, what instruments will be employed, how the instruments will be used and the intended means for analysing data collected" (www.businessdictionary.com/defination/research-design.html). Patten (2004:24) further describes a research design as the researcher's overall plan for answering the research questions.

The research has been conducted in terms of a qualitative design by means of a case study through face-to-face interviews (detailed study of phenomena) as a data collection method. In this case study, empirical evidences had been obtained from the land reform beneficiaries of the municipalities involved in land reform initiatives, namely Victor Khanye, Emalahleni and Emakhazeni municipalities of the Nkangala District. The aim of the study was to ascertain the nature and extent of post-settlement support employed by DARDLA, with specific emphasis on the agricultural

support programmes. The researcher selected this research design as it allowed her to engage in extensive data collection and spent more hours in the field interacting with the respondents: that is, the approach defines the role of the researcher not only as an expert but also as a learner. This methodology aims at creating social innovations by converting the informal process of inquiry and reflection into a more systematic one that lends itself to problem solving as well as possible dissemination to a larger audience. Real-life experiences were used and the respondents played an active role in the research process (Neumann, 2006).

# 1.5.2.2 Sampling

Mouton (2006:35) defines sampling as "the process of selecting units (for example, people, organisations) from a population of interest so that by studying the sample we may fairly generalize results back to the population from which they were chosen". Sampling is further described as a process of selecting observations required for a specific subset of a population in order to make inferences about the nature of the total population itself (Burger & Silima 2006). Majam and Theron (2006: 109) argue that "sampling is done because you usually cannot gather data from the entire population" and even in relatively small populations, the data may be needed urgently, and including everyone in the population in your data collection may take too long". The method saved time, money and effort when conducting research.

In this study, a non-probability sampling method has been used and the sampling was purposive (Patten, 2004:19). The study was conducted in Nkangala District of the DARDLA and focused on the main municipalities involved in land reform initiatives, namely Victor Khanye, Emalahleni and Emakhazeni municipalities. For the purpose of this study, the target group of the research as stated in the background described above comprises mainly the farmers who are the beneficiaries of the land reform programme under various land reform programmes, as well as the officials from the DARDLA employed by the Ministry operating at the managerial and front-line level of extension within the District. The population size of the study was 82 and in total a sample of 60 respondents was used. The focus on selected variety of respondents served to capture the diversity of the population under study. The study purposefully selected the respondents as follows:

• Land restitution programme:10 farmers;

• PLAS programme: 15 farmers;

• LRAD programme: 10 farmers;

• SLAG programme: 9 farmers;

• 3 project officers (extension workers);

• 2 middle managers; and

1 senior manager.

#### 1.5.2.3 Instrumentation

Data collection is simply how information is gathered. It is an important aspect of any research study and must observe the ethical principles of research. Prior (2003:49) states that various factors influence the choice of data collection method depending on the questions the researcher wants to investigate, the resources available, and the timelines. Inaccurate data collection can affect the results of a study and ultimately lead to invalid results. The study was qualitative in nature and therefore adopted a more interactive approach, making use of interviews, literature and various Government documents.

#### 1.5.2.3.1 Interviews

Face-to-face interviews using semi-structured questionnaires were used as a data collection method in this study. The interview is probably the most widely employed method in qualitative research. This is where researchers identify some empirical issues related to the topic in their respective fields. According to Mouton (2006), "the researcher has a list of questions or fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply". Questions that were not included in the guide were asked to stimulate further discussions on the topic.

All questions were asked and similar wording was used from interviewee to interviewee. These interviews were conducted with both the farmers and the officials from the DARDLA. For the sake of progress and to maximise the validity of the

information, these groups were interviewed separately as they usually blame each other for the challenges of the post-settlement support in land reform projects. In this context, validity refers to information which is true and accurate.

The advantage of this research method was that the researcher was able to exercise maximum control over the respondent's frame of reference when responding to questions and was able to pose follow-up questions to obtain more information on certain issues (Patten, 2004). The instrument has, however, no flexibility, requires that questions be asked with exactly the same wording and in the same sequence for all the respondents (Mouton, 2006). It also requires extensive time and skill to develop.

## 1.5.2.4 Data analysis

As defined by Neuman (2006), data analysis involves examining, sorting, categorising, evaluating, comparing, synthesising and contemplating the coded data as well as reviewing the raw and recorded data. Since the study was qualitative in nature, data collected during interviews was interpreted through an empirical analysis to enable researcher to draw a conclusion of the study. An empirical analysis was used to interpret the collected data.

## 1.5.2.5 Limitations and delimitations of the study

The following constituted limitations of the study:

The study was limited to one district and findings therefore cannot be generalised.

#### 1.5.2.6 Ethical considerations

The following ethical issues were considered:

 In the case of interviews, both the researcher and the participants were required to sign a letter of consent for purposes of assuring confidentiality in order to protect the participants' right to privacy and guarantee their anonymity. Confidentiality and anonymity are also aspects that must never be sacrificed (Morgan, 1997: online). Although information received from participants in the interviews conducted could not be kept confidential as it was used in the analyses and recommendations, the names of the participants were not quoted. Information from the interviews was only used for the purpose for which the research is being undertaken. Disclosure of confidential information by any person/researcher without permission from the owner of such information is punishable by law.

• The researcher avoided information that violated the participants' right of privacy or that exposed them to retribution or punishment. Participants were required to sign a letter of consent and were informed of the objectives of the study and will not be misled about the nature of the research. The research strategy and methods of the study to the respondents were clearly explained in order to ensure that assumptions about the research were understood (Webb & Auriacombe, 2006). The participants were also assured that they may withdraw from the study without any negative repercussions.

#### 1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The intention of this study was to contribute to the current debate around the state's role in fast-tracking land redistribution, post-settlement support and efficient land use. It is hoped that findings from this study will contribute to informing policy makers and managers of the DARDLA, and also empower them to develop a coherent strategy or model for such support.

# 1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The mini-dissertation comprises the following chapters:

Chapter one introduces the context for the study. This includes the orientation and problem statement, that is, the background to and the evolving of the LRP in South Africa, its current status within the Province, the key challenges of the programme,

discussion of the main objectives of the research study, as well as data collection strategies, procedures and analysis.

In chapter two the origin, nature and principles of the LRP in South Africa are explored. This provides a general theoretical framework for exploration as far as the problem statement and case study are concerned.

In chapter three the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LRP in South Africa This chapter includes a discussion on the prescripts, acts, policies and policy guidelines pertaining to the LRP. This chapter thus serves as a second leg in data triangulation.

The purpose of chapter four is to analyse the current land reform post-settlement support with specific reference to the case of the DARDLA. The chapter also includes an analysis of the current post-settlement support strategies employed by the Department to assist the land reform beneficiaries. This information serves as a third leg in data triangulation.

Empirical findings pertaining to post-settlement land reform challenges in the DARDLA will be analysed in chapter five. This chapter discusses the findings based on the empirical investigations into the land reform farmers' focus groups (units of analysis) as well as into the officials of the DARDLA as case study.

In chapter six, the researcher concludes the study and makes recommendations to the DARDLA to address the current post-settlement challenges as well as to identify what can be considered as an effective post-settlement support to the land reform projects.

#### 1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter serves as a general orientation to the study. The main objectives of the research study, data collection strategies, procedures and analysis as well as the chapter layout were also discussed. The next chapter will provide a theoretical overview on the principles and contextual background of land reform in South Africa.

Included in the chapter, will be the definition and importance of land form and the relationship between land distribution and post-settlement support as part of land reform is also discussed. The chapter is narrowed down on the inherent shortcomings of post-settlement and identifies measures to make post-settlement support arrangements more effective.

# **CHAPTER 2**

# THE CONTEXT AND PRINCIPLES OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AFRICA

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1994, the new government of South Africa embarked on a process of rebuilding the country post-apartheid. Land reform was seen as a key national programme for reconstruction and development in South Africa, especially in a country that was facing triple challenges of poverty, employment and equality. As a contextual background, this chapter briefly describes the essence of the land reform programme. This chapter explores the background and the historic developments in South Africa that necessitated land reform. It will further investigate the land distribution from 1652 until the 1994 election, when the country became a democratic society. In this respect, the competency around land ownership and the influence of legislations that was promulgated to explicate land segregation will be assessed. Emphasis will be placed on the period after 1913, when the Native Land Act of 1913 was promulgated.

The chapter further seeks to define land reform, its political, economic, social aspects and why there is a need for post-settlement support in land reform projects in South Africa. It also elaborates on post-settlement support within the context of land reform. This includes the processes, procedures and implementation of the land reform programme - whether provisions are made for post-settlement support and whether such support can result in sustainable development and improve the rural livelihoods. Furthermore, the relationship between post-settlement support and land reform is highlighted. The focus is, however, narrowed down to the inherent shortcomings of the programme and specific reasons for this state of affairs are provided, but the chapter will further identify measures to make post-settlement support effective. To operationalize the objectives of the study, the analysis will also

be centred on the three land reform programmes, namely distribution, restitution and tenure reform.

The chapter will look at the principles of land reform which in the following chapters of the study will be used as criteria to assess the effectiveness, efficiency and value of existing land reform imperatives and programmes in South Africa.

#### 2.2 LAND REFORM: CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXTUAL CLARIFICATION

Land ownership in South Africa has long been a source of conflict. The White Paper on land policy states "the history of conquest and dispossession, of forced removals and a racially-skewed distribution of land resources have left the country with a complex and difficult legacy" (DLA, 1997:4). Furthermore, Saunders (2003:1) argues that to address these challenges and complexities associated with ownership and use, land played an important role in shaping the political, economic and social processes in the country. In addition, Saunders (2003:1) argues that "these racially based land policies resulted in inefficient urban and rural land use patterns and a fragmented system of land administration that has severely restricted effective resource utilisation and development".

Adams (2003:3) defines land reform "as a planned change in terms and conditions on which land is held, used and transacted". Furthermore, Bruce (1993) defines land reform, as a government measure undertaken to redistribute land holdings. Lipton (1985) and Ghimire (2001:3) as cited by Manenzhe (2007:12), takes the definition further by stating that it involves a "significant change in the agrarian structure resulting in increased access to land by the rural poor and security of land rights and titles". From the above definitions, it is evident that the reformation in land is meant to change existing structures and practices related to land with the aim of changing the distribution of income, the social status and political structures. In her argument, Hall (2004:1) contends that the advent of non-racial democracy has seen a new configuration of class interests and the emergence of a powerful alliance that is committed to deracialising ownership but retaining the structure of the commercial farming sector rather than restructuring the agrarian regime. Moreover, Hall (2004:1) argues that South Africa's agrarian structure is 'dualistic' in the sense that it

comprises, in the former white rural areas, a capital-intensive commercial farming sector engaged in large-scale production and strongly linked to global markets and, in the former black homelands, an impoverished sector dominated by low-input, labour-intensive forms of subsistence production as a key source of livelihood along with migrant remittances and state pensions". Hall: (2004:1) further maintains that the two sectors were presented by past governments as reflecting 'modernity' and 'tradition', respectively, the economic function of the black 'reserves' was to reproduce, and subsidise the cost of labour. In this way, the reserves subsidised industrialisation and economic growth in "white" South Africa's manufacturing and mining sectors. Reform as practice refers to a structural change, and in any agrarian society, land is generally, the most important factor of production for food and other agricultural production (www.seameo.org/v/landreform/ir2htm). Moreover, land and its characteristics inevitably determine the agrarian structure and directly bear farreaching implications upon the economy as a whole (www.seameo.org). It is further argued that land characteristics are physical, social, economic and even political and this includes the distributive pattern of landholdings and landownership, the size of farms, the human-land ratio, the production structure, and forth SO (www.seameo.org). In furtherance of this argument, Jacobs (2003:16) avers that land transfers themselves do not ensure a long-lasting solution to poverty eradication unless they are accompanied by supplementary programmes or support services such as complementary development support to land reform beneficiaries, including assistance with productive and sustainable land use, infrastructure support, farm credit, agricultural inputs, and access to markets.

The success of any land reform programme is dependent on a comprehensive post-settlement support given to land reform beneficiaries after they have acquired land. The main objective of land reform in South Africa is to bring a just and equitable transformation of land rights. According to the White Paper on Land Policy (DLA, 1997:7), this objective has a number of dimensions: First, land reform should address the "gross inequality in landholding". Secondly, it should provide "sustainable livelihoods in ways that contribute to the development of dynamic rural economies". Third, particular attention should be given to the "needs of marginalised groups, especially women, in order to overcome past and present discrimination",

and finally, rural people themselves should "participate fully in the design and implementation of land reform policies".

The Constitution of 1996 and the White Paper of 1997 identified some critical aspects that necessitated the need for land reform in South Africa. These aspects formed the basis for the implementation of the land reform imperatives and programmes.

The next section of the discussion therefore focuses on the theoretical vantage points of land reform. These vantage points will give a basis or value for the existence of land reform in South Africa and in the next chapters it will also be used as a criterion to assess as whether the DARDLA is implementing the programme in an effective and efficient manner in terms of providing the post-settlement support to the land reform beneficiaries.

#### 2.3 THE IDEOLOGICAL VANTAGE POINTS OF LAND REFORM

Land reform was one of the main components of the ANC's agenda during its ascension to power. By stating that restrictions of land ownership on a racial basis shall be ended, and that all the land shall be divided amongst those who work for it to banish famine and land hunger, the Freedom Charter(1955) presented land reform not only as a decisive element of South Africa's ideological transition (ANC,1994). It was also seen as one of the conditions of political, economic and social stabilisation of the country (RDP, 1994). The 1997 White Paper on Land Policy further identified political, economic, social problems that South Africa faced. In essence, the land reform programme had to address the following aspects.

# 2.3.1 Political perspective of land reform

Land reform is said to be a deeply political process and it has emerged from a particular ideology such as socialism or communism (www.answers.com/topic/landreform). Centuries of colonialism and decades of apartheid have made South Africa one of the most unequal countries in the world and the distribution of land is a major aspect of such inequality (O'Sullivan, 2011:1).

It is argued that through this repressive legislation based on racist ideology, black people were denied civil and political rights, and excluded from economic rights such as benefiting from the resources of the country. Overall, O'Sullivan (2011:1) argues that of central concern in the newly democratic South Africa was the issue of how to repair the damage of the past and ensure a better life for those excluded and dispossessed through reparative and redistributive justice. Thus, in the processes of nation building, the establishment of independent political systems and the design of policies and development of strategies including land reforms and land policies was crucial (O'Sullivan, 2011:1). O'Sullivan continues to describe land reform "as a central to the future of democracy in South Africa and key to combating poverty, stimulating economic growth and creating a more equal society and that can lead to some equality in land access and use is also critical in ensuring economic growth in rural areas". Thus, the most common political objective of land reform is to abolish feudal or colonial forms of landownership, often by taking land away from large landowners redistributing it landless and peasants (www.MeriamWebster.com/dictionary/land%20 reform).

The election of South Africa's first majority Government in 1994 presented a historic opportunity to place equitable and pro-poor policies at the centre of the land reform agenda (htpp://www.simonbatterbury.net/pubs/final reportertesworkshops.htm). The ANC-led Government seems to have embraced a more neoliberal macroeconomic policy of a market approach. In line with this market approach, ANC's vantage point to land reform has been based on the use of free market mechanisms (Dlamini, 2008:50). Land reform was endorsed in accordance with the "willing-buyer- willing – seller" principle based on the criterion efficiency (World Bank, 1994). This approach, its merits and demerits within the land reform context, is presented in the next sections of the chapter.

#### 2.3.2 Economic perspective of land reform

Agriculture like mining, manufacturing, energy, telecommunications, finance and so forth are the key economic sectors of the South African economy. Agriculture accounts to 2.57% to the GDP of the country (Stats SA, 2013). DAFF (2013:3) argues that the growth in the contribution of agriculture to value added has remained

relatively low over the past eight years. This decline in attributed to the rising of input costs globally and domestically. Despite its relatively small contribution to the economy it continues to be the main source of income and the main employer of most people in rural communities and a leading net exporter of agricultural products like wine, citrus, maize, apples (DAFF, 2012-13). This in turn contributes to the earning and saving of foreign exchange through exports and towards accumulating domestic savings for investment and capital formation (Mabuza, 2009:36).

In rural communities, land is considered to be a major input and asset in the agrarian system. It is said that the majority of the rural communities rely on farming for living. However, by the end of apartheid, approximately 82 million hectares of land was owned by the white minority and almost 13 million blacks were left landless and were only restricted to farm in reserves and homelands where they were denied property rights (Anseeuw & Alden, 2011:13). This meant they could not make investments in the land and secure collateral to secure finance for production. It is argued that that "the contribution of land to economic growth depends upon security, duration and enforceability of property rights, since these provide an incentive for agricultural investment" (FAO, 2006). Without registered land tittles deeds, farmers find it difficult to access credit. As Lahiff (2012:7) points out: "Reserves and small landholding areas were characterised by extremely low per capita incomes and high rates of infant mortality, malnutrition and illiteracy relative to the rest of the country". Gwanya (2010:3) takes this issue further and argues that the final two decades of the National Party of South Africa's regime were damaging to the economic climate of the country, with stagnant economic growth (the average was just 1.7%), declining per capita income (0.7% annually). This according to Gwanya, was followed by an increase in unemployment from around 20% at the start of the 1970s to around 30% by 1994 and a spiralling debt problem (under the De Klerk government which was from 1989-1994 alone, the debt had increased from less than 3% of GDP to more than 9%, and the total government debt doubled more than twice (Gwanya, 2010:3). In the same vein, Lahiff (2003:7) argues that over the years, there has been a rising levels of unemployment, income poverty and income inequality, all in the context of a lacklustre economy. South Africa's economy was thus facing a variety of structural problems which has serious implications for land reform initiatives (RDP, 1994).

Land reform was seen as a means to reverse the adverse conditions caused by the apartheid laws. The 1996 Constitutional clause on property guaranteed the rights of existing owners but also granted specific rights of redress to victims of past dispossession and set the legal basis for a potentially far-reaching land reform programme (Lahiff, 2007:1578). This clause guaranteed the African farmers' rights to the land they are living and farming on. It also gave them the confidence to have long-term investment in the land and that, in turn, would promote higher productivity and rates of growth. The land reform programme through its redistribution programme was therefore meant to expand the land resource base to intensify agricultural production. Crucial to this point is the provision of the support or complementary services in the likes of production inputs, irrigation infrastructure, access to markets, and so forth. It was also anticipated of the land redistribution programme that it will ensure access to productive land to enable the country to build its economy by ensuring improved food security, creating employment opportunities, and increase income per capita.

# 2.3.3 Social and cultural perspective of land reform

In many African societies, land is regarded not simply as an economic or environmental asset, but as a social, cultural and ontological resource (AU, 2009). It is regarded as a key asset for poor people (Lahiff, 2003:12), "a finite resource which binds all together in a common destiny" (DLA, 1997). Owning it provides a means of livelihood to many, determines influence in local politics, permits participation in social networks, and influences intra-household dynamics (Lahiff, 2003:12). Furthermore, Thwala (2003:59) contends that the historical land dispossessions and segregation in South Africa also contributed to a serious neglect of human rights, dignity and acute inequalities in the country and it further led to differentiated social strata within the country. Inequality in the ownership and distribution of land in South Africa had profound consequences. The high population growth rates in rural areas (estimated to 51.7% of the total population in 1994) resulted to overcrowding and homelessness. This led to a movement of people from rural areas to informal settlements on the outskirts of cities. Land reform was therefore meant to bring back the dignity of the Africans by addressing the huge imbalances and inequalities on

land ownership and allocation that have existed for many years. By having access to land and other services, their social life would be improved.

For centuries, land inequality and issues of ownership in South Africa has been a source of conflict. The segregation in land ownership continued until the 1990s. The Constitution of 1996 marked the departure of the country's past history of land dispossessions. In the next section a historical overview of land reform in South Africa will be provided.

#### 2.4 CHRONICLES OF THE LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

In South Africa, the struggle for socio-economic and political liberation started as early as the Dutch colonialism which sparked the initial process of land dispossession triggered by the colonialists 'needs for raw materials. According to Lepheane (2007:7), "this history of land dispossessions in this country dates as far back as 1652 and marks the first European settlement at the Cape". Apartheid laws were passed which classified African people as non-whites and through these laws; they were forcefully removed to designated areas known as reserves. The land dispossession continued until 1994 when the new democratic government came to power and put new policies in place to redress unequal land distribution.

#### 2.4.1 Land reform in the colonial era

Land dispossession started in the centuries when the first white settlers arrived at the Cape and continued for approximately three centuries (Weideman, 2004:8). On 6<sup>th</sup> April 1652, Jan van Riebeeck arrived at the Cape of Good Hope from the Netherlands to establish an outpost for the Verenigde Oos Indiese Companjie (V.O.C.) (Saunders, 2003). This establishment of a refreshment station was to supply the crew of the Company's passing trading ships with fresh water, vegetables and fruit, meat and medical assistance on their way to the spice-rich Far East (<a href="https://www.sahistory.org.za:para1&4">www.sahistory.org.za:para1&4</a>). Van Riebeeck also built a fort to secure the area against invaders, such as the Khoikhoi, an indigenous group of people already living in the area (Saunders, 2003:10). This made it difficult for them to negotiate the sales of their land and on the other hand, Van Riebeeck refused them rights to their land

claiming that there was no written document that proves them as owners of the land. In an essence, it is argued that the arrival of the Van Riebeeck in 1652 marked the land "invasion" and "expropriations" from the beginning of Africans (www.sahistory.org.za). From then on, military conquest and colonial settlement became the standard methods of land dispossession, although legislation and trickery always played a part. The V.O.C. initially did not intend to establish a fullyfledged colony however, committed themselves to such a policy in 1657 and allowed nine company servants the freedom to establish private farms at Rondebosch, below the eastern slopes of Table Mountain (Saunders, 2003:10). Arguably so, Van Riebeeck laid the basis of a colony that expanded beyond the Cape Peninsula to other parts of the Republic of South Africa. "Under the rule of the VOC, a situation developed where most Europeans owned farms or businesses and held a preferred legal status as 'free burghers', while the indigenous people were working as slaves" (http://www.theapricity.com/forum/showthread.php?56316-Cape-Town-Western-Cape-South-Africa).

According to Saunders (2003:17), when Simon van der Stel arrived in 1679 as to replace Van Riebeeck as a governor in the Cape, a further twenty settlers were granted land beyond the dunes of the Cape Flats, in what became the district of Stellenbosch. In addition, Saunders states that in 1689 Simon brought in a further 180 Huguenot refugees from France to Stellenbosch district and this resulted in increased numbers of white settlers; who grew the small colony to a commercial enterprise and which expanded into most parts of the country (Saunders, 2003:10). Furthermore, Saunders (2003:18) contends that Black people were to a large extent driven off parts of their land, which was then occupied by white settlers and that led to a situation where a large number of black people began to enter the employment of the white settlers, because they were in many instances deprived of their land and cattle. It was difficult for them to make ends meet as land which was their main source of life had been taken away and they had to resort to cheap labour. The scenario of apartheid over land dispossession became more eminent in the 1950s and continued even beyond this period.

#### 2.4.2 Land reform in the 1950s

Inequality in land dispossession and racial domination continued in South Africa during the 1950s, where in a bulk of the agricultural land continued to be owned by a white minority. In furtherance of this action, Saunders (2004 in Fraser, 2007) maintains that this was based on the fact that the colonial and apartheid governments continued to pass laws that aimed to restrict access and control over land resources by black Africans of which the Natives Land Act of 1913 was the first major piece of segregation legislation passed by the Union Parliament and remained the cornerstone of apartheid (Fraser, 2007). This legislation had the most serious effects on the welfare of the blacks and was the first step in formalizing the limitations of the rights of black land ownership. The most systematic land dispossession by the state came into effect after 1913. The Natives Land Act of 1913 was made to divide the Union of South Africa into areas of blacks came to be the present tribal homelands and whites and it apportioned 8% of the land area of South Africa as reserves for the Africans and excluded them from the rest of the country, which was made available to the white minority population (Letsoalo, 1987:15). Furthermore, Letsoalo (1987:16) argues that land available for use by Africans was increased by 5% in 1936 bringing the total to 13% of the total area of South Africa, although much of the land remained in the ownership of the state through the South African Development Trust supposedly held in trust for the African people. Eighty percent (80%) of the population was confined to 13% of the land while less than 20% population owned over 80% of the land (Rugege, 2004:1). Black people were prohibited from buying land in areas outside the reserved scheduled areas.

Land dispossession and exploitation continued to destroy the emerging African peasantry and "others had their land taken, compelled to pay taxes in cash, and were forced to find wage labour in the mining sector and white farmers land" (Fraser, 1987:839). In addition, Letsoalo (1987:57) postulates that the loss of land and the resultant death of peasant Agriculture by blacks through this act was a severe blow for the black peasantry-the tribal economy and traditional mode of production could not survive without land base and access to resources. Intrinsic to the bigger policy framework was the ideology that Africans should be allowed in white areas only as servants and never as owners or independent producers (Weideman, 2004:8).

The importance of the creation of reserves was that they became one of the essential institutions of labour exploitation (through wage labour system) in South Africa. This apportionment of land remained until the end of apartheid in early 1990s and remains virtually unchanged (Rugege, 2004:1). However, proceeding to that period, apartheid laws and legislations were enacted to further divide the blacks and whites. This became evident during the period of 1948 to 1954.

After the war in 1948, the Nationalist Party (NP) came to power under the leadership of Dr D.F. Malan. Letsoalo (1987:43) states that although measures for segregating the nation according to race had already been instituted before 1948 the blacks and Bantu reserves were not differentiated on tribal basis. Letsoalo (1987:43) reports that with the emergence of the doctrine of apartheid, legislation increasingly began to divide the blacks according to tribal affinity. Thus, the Bantu reserves were transformed into Bantustans, as these areas later became known as tribal homelands. During Dr D.F. Malan's tenure, he further introduced new segregation laws (that centred on separating races) and policies in South Africa that affected not only the black people but all the people who were considered as non-white, like the Population Registration Act 30 of 1950, the Group Areas Act (1950), the Bantu Authorities Act 68 of 1951 and the Separate Amenities Act 49 of 1953 (Saunders, 2011:19). These acts, together with its many amendments created separate social environments for the White and other population groups and created development of local African governments in the different homelands (O'Malley, 2004). According to Platzky and Walker (1985:95 in Saunders, 2011:19), "the Apartheid manifesto of the NP consisted of three principles namely white dominance, segregation between different races and the development of one Christian National State". In furtherance of this principle, Saunders (2003:26) argues that in order to achieve these principles some key elements were identified which are evident in most of the policies and acts of the Apartheid years. According to Letsoalo (1987:20), "the apartheid-era South African polity also developed into a "bifurcated state" in which traditional leaders became "decentralised despots" - in the homeland areas were formally allocated farreaching powers with respect to land, labour, and gender relations". The policies of "grand apartheid" pursued Africans subjection indirectly via traditional leaders (Crais 2006:721 cited by Frazer, 2007:839). Thus, as further noted, the decentralization of power to intermediaries in the homelands recognized only to a limited extent the sovereignty of traditional leaders within their "invented" domains; the whites-only nation-state was the supreme chief in the reserves. Traditional chiefs were segregated to what is called "tribes" and were given minimal powers to make decisions on behalf of the people under their tribes. These arrangements according to (Lahiff, 2001:2) did not address the need for individual security of tenure and accountable forms of land administration.

#### 2.4.3 Period from 1958 to 1993

On the 2<sup>nd</sup> of September 1958 Dr H.F. Verwoerd took over as Prime Minister of the country. He elaborated on this aim of complete separation of development and "declared that South Africa was at a crossroad: the decision was to choose between a multiracial community with a common political society or the establishment of total separation in the political sphere" (Saunders, 2003:20). Underlying the policy of urban segregation was a desire to reduce the power of the black man in the urban areas by making it difficult for him to acquire a stake in town (Saunders, 2011:20).

It is further argued that this segregation and unequal land distribution between blacks and whites continued for decades and this generally resulted in black people to become poorer, poverty was pervasive and largely rural. Following the September 1989 election, De Klerk succeeded Botha as a President of South Africa after serving as a leader of the House of Assembly. In his biography, it is stated that early into his presidency, De Klerk announced important political changes in South Africa and worked in establishing a new, anti-apartheid constitution based on the principle 'one person, one vote' (http://www.biography.com/people/fw-de-klerk-9270025). It is further argued that "the threat of civil war combined with international boycotts and diplomatic pressure against South African led President de Klerk to release Mr Mandela well all as as other important political prisoners (http://www.biography.com/people/fw-de-klerk-970025).

In February 1990, Mandela was released from jail. This was followed by the suspension of execution and the unbanning of other banned political parties including the ANC. He (De Klerk) began negotiations to end Apartheid and his focus

was on building a racially integrated democracy, together with several black leaders including Mandela. In the same year, he announced that all Apartheid laws would be removed by parliament such as the Group Areas Act and the Land Act of 1913 and 1936 (Saunders, 2003:22).

In 1991, the NP developed a land policy that called for the abolishing of all the apartheid legislations. An important piece of legislation was the Abolition of Racial Land Laws Act 108 of 1991 which repealed the Land Acts of 1913 and 1936, the Group Areas Act 41 of 1950, the Asiatic Land Tenure Act 26 of 1946 and the Black Communities Development Act 4 of 1984 and addressed issues concerning the restitution of land tenure. This abolishment of these legislations meant that the historically disadvantaged people could now claim the land back or receive some sort of compensation for the loss of their land during the Apartheid era (Saunders, 2011:21). Weideman (2004:3) argues further that although this change in land policies was welcomed, the mere repeal of this legislation could not address the extreme inequities in access to land. Thus, a Commission that would investigate the land claims was appointed to that effect. This commission through the Act of Informal Town Establishment Nr 113 of 1991 ensured the provision of informal procedure for the establishment of black towns (Van der Walt & Pienaar, 1997:457, cited by Saunders, 2003:21).

On 17 November 1993 the National Party (NP) and the African National Congress (ANC) accepted a new interim Constitution. Although it was the first time in South African history that legislation reckoned all races as equal (Saunders, 2011:22), the interim constitution did not contain detailed provisions for land reform but created an obligation to ensure land reform (ANC, 1994). The new Government took a stance on property rights and stated that, "the unequal distribution of land led to the unequal distribution of resources amongst the inhabitants of South Africa and it pushed millions of black South Africans into overcrowded and impoverished reserves, homelands and townships" (Rungasamy, 2011:17). Furthermore, Rungasamy argued that as a result of the above and other related apartheid legislation, there existed landlessness, poverty, illiteracy, unemployment and insecurity of tenure amongst the country's majority population, namely the black people (Rungasamy,

2011:17). The culmination of these apartheid laws and actions resulted to the current land ownership patterns in South Africa to be racially skewed, with 87 percent of the land owned by white people and leaving blacks to settle in the remaining 13 percent of land. It is acknowledged that Mr de Klerk has highly contributed to ending of the country's apartheid system of racial segregation as he led a transition period leading to democracy and the first free and fair democratic elections which took place in 1994. The period of 1994 became a "new dawn" for South Africans and marked the end of apartheid laws.

# 2.4.4 Land reform in the post-1994 period

In 1994, South Africa held its first democratic election and the ANC became the governing party led by President Nelson Mandela. The ANC undertook to ensure that effective land reform takes place in South Africa as promised in its election manifesto to redress the inequality in land ownership. Specific emphasis had to be placed on the distribution of land to individuals and communities that lost land, or were denied access to land as a result of the institutionalisation of the previous Government's policy of separate development (South Africa, 1996). The final Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, promulgated in 1996, provided the legal foundation for the state's land reform programme (Jacobs, 2003:1). According to Rugege (2004:3), the Constitution, drafted by a democratically elected Constitutional Assembly, was more specific about land reform and more balanced in addressing the issue of property. It is argued further that land matters were treated as matters of basic human rights and included as such in the Bill of Rights and as such, section 25 of the Constitution furthermore guarantees the right of property against arbitrary deprivation but also provides for the power of the state to expropriate private property for public purposes or in the public interest subject to just and equitable compensation (Rugege, 2004:3). The Constitution (Section 25) specifies the need for land reform to address the legacy of the past policies based on racial discrimination (South Africa, 1996). In addition, Manenzhe (2007:4) argues that in a similar vein, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) has identified land reform as a key component of its programme of meeting basic needs and building the economy of South Africa. Through the RDP, the African National Congress (Manenzhe, 2007:2) regarded land reform as a central driving force of a programme

of rural development, and set a target of redistributing 30% of agricultural land within five years of achieving democratic governance.

According to Cousins (2000:56), the legacy of this history is immense bitterness amongst black South Africans and a powerful desire to have the land restored to its rightful owners. This is one reason why land reform was seen as a high priority by the ANC Government. Jacobs (2003:1) contends that, in South Africa, land reform has to be more than securing land rights and transferring a certain number of hectares to black people. In essence, it has to improve their livelihoods and deal with other challenges afflicting rural areas such as high unemployment, poverty, HIV/AIDS and dilapidated infrastructure (Jacobs, 2003:1).

It is against this historical background that Land Reform Programme was established with the main objective of redressing the skewed land distribution in South Africa. In the next section, the focus of the discussion will centre on the Land Reform Programme as applied in the South African context.

#### 2.5 POLICY OBJECTIVES OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME

As stipulated in the Department of Land Affairs' (DLA) White Paper (1997), land reform is aimed at dealing effectively with the various injustices of racially-based land dispossession (DLA, 1997). The main objective of the White Paper Policy is to achieve a more equitable distribution of land ownership. It was argued that land reform has to contribute to the reduction of poverty and economic growth, security of tenure for all and a system of land management that would support sustainable land-use patterns and rapid land release for development (Jacobs, Lahiff & Hall, 2003:2). The South African Land Reform Programme is also aimed at creating jobs, reduces poverty and inequalities.

According to the White Paper (1997:7), South Africa implemented the Land Reform Programme (LRP) with the purpose of achieving the following core (policy) objectives (DLA, 1997):

to redress the injustices of apartheid;

- to foster national reconciliation and stability;
- to underpin economic growth; and
- to improve household welfare and alleviate poverty.

The LRP in South Africa was pursued under three key pillars. These pillars are explored in the next section.

#### 2.6 PILLARS OF THE LAND REFORM PROGRAMME

Prior to the national elections in 1994, the ANC stated in its Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) that land reform was to address the injustices of forced removals and the historical denial of access to land (Sibanda, 2001:3). The RDP was to ensure security of tenure for rural dwellers, eliminate overcrowding, and to provide residential and productive land for agricultural purposes to the poorest communities of the rural population (ANC, 1994). All three (that is, distribution, restitution, and tenure reform) aspects of the South African LRP have their base in the South African Constitution, particularly Section 25(5), (6) and (7)(South Africa, 1996). Section 25(5) of the Constitution states for an example:

"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."

According to Rungasamy (2003:2), it was envisaged that all of these pillars had to be done in a manner that would promote sustainable development through joint effort by Government, beneficiaries and stakeholders making use of available resources. Through these programmes, the Government committed itself to deliver 30% of commercial agricultural land to the previously disadvantaged communities by 2015 (DLA, 1997). The three legs of the programme are as follows: land redistribution, land restitution and land tenure reform and they are briefly explained below.

#### 2.6.1 Land distribution

Land distribution programme was developed with the primary aim of redressing the racially skewed land distribution patterns of South Africa and to redistribute land to the landless for residential and agricultural purposes (DLA, 1997). Land distribution is said to be the largest component of the LRP in South Africa and is implemented in terms of the Provision and Land Assistance Act 126 of 1993 to provide for the acquisition and development of land for settlement and production purposes (Lubambo, 2011:9). The White Paper on South African Land Policy, 1997 stipulates that the approach to the implementation of the policy will not be rights-based or expropriation but rather be based on the principle of willing-buyer-willing-seller, whereby land would be acquired through purchases at market rates from owners who agreed to sell (DLA, 1997). This is called "negotiated land reform".

The White Paper 1997 further states that the LRP can be seen as one of the conditions or measures referred to in section 25(5) of the Constitution which states that 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 (South Africa, 1996). Government has set itself a target of redistributing 30% of agricultural land by 2015.

According to Rungasamy (2011:37), the specific objectives of the redistribution programme are set out in the *White Paper on South African Land Policy* as follows:

"The purpose of the land redistribution programme is to provide the poor with access to land for residential and productive uses, in order to improve their income and quality of life. The programme aims to assist the poor, labour tenants, farm workers, women, as well as emergent farmers. Redistributive land reform will be largely based on willing-buyer willing-seller arrangements. Government will assist in the purchase of land, but will in general not be the buyer or owner. Rather it will make land acquisition grants available and will support and finance the required planning process."

Since its inception, the distribution leg of the LRP has undergone legislative enactments to enable effective implementation. There were two distribution legislations that were amended, the first of which is the Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995, which was promulgated with the express intention of establishing a land development system in line with the new democratic values and dispensation (Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2006:61). The second legislation was the Provision of Land and Assistance Act 126 of 1993, which authorizes the Settlement and Land Acquisition Grant (Rungasamy, 2011:38), and is explained below.

# 2.6.1.1 Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)

From the period 1995 to 1999, the land redistribution programme was implemented through the Settlement and Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) that provided a grant to poor people, usually in groups, to purchase land for settlement and agricultural purposes.

A grant mechanism to a maximum of R15 000 per household was used to purchase land from willing sellers which was later, in 1998 increased to R16 000 per household (DLA, 1997). Beneficiaries were encouraged to pool together these funds to purchase white-owned farms for commercial agricultural purposes which they would not have been able to do individually because of the relatively high cost of farms (Rungamsy, 2011:9). A range of additional financial resources supported the basic grant such as the planning grant, facilitation and dispute resolution services (9% of the total grant amount of the project) (Lahiff & Rugege, 2002). The approach was application-based and did not involve the prior acquisition of land by the state for subsequent resettlement (that is, it was demand rather than supply driven). However, this programme was engulfed with many problems and was generally regarded ineffective. These problems have been widely documented on the DLA s White Paper on land policy (1997). According to the White Paper, land was both relatively costly and unavailable in small grant-sized parcels, people wishing to acquire land with the grant had to form themselves into groups to acquire land; there was an over reliance on market forces; inflated prices were paid for marginal land

and most importantly, and that there was a lack of any significant contribution to the development of semi-commercial and commercial black farmers (DLA, 1997).

SLAG made no provision for post-transfer support and a lack of integration and cooperation existed between the DLA, the DoA, and other relevant stakeholders. The programme prioritised land delivery over agrarian transformation. As a result, it failed to advance the vision of the ANC government of fast-tracking the development of black commercial farmers (Rungasamy, 2011:39-40). These distributive-related problems led to the formation of a revised programme for redistribution in the form of the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD). LRAD focused more on creating black commercial farmers in line with the 1996 policy on the Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) (Wegerif, 2004:11).

# 2.6.1.2 Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development Programme (LRAD)

In 1999, the former Minister of Agriculture and Land Affairs announced a review of land reform policy and programmes after the failure of SLAG (MALA, 2001). The land redistribution policies were reviewed, including a moratorium on new SLAG projects (Jacobs, et al. 2003:4). This resulted in the birth of the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) programme (a sub programme of the Land distribution programme), which was to become the primary mechanism for land redistribution. This programme was designed to assist historically disadvantaged South Africans to access land specifically for Agricultural purposes, to become progressive farmers and to improve nutrition and incomes of the rural poor (MALA, 2001). The strategic objectives of the programme was to redistribute 30% of the country's agricultural land by 2015, improving the nutrition of the rural people, and de-congesting former homeland areas (NDA, 2001). In essence, the LRAD programme aims to improve the livelihoods and quality life of the beneficiaries, as well as to stimulate the growth in the agricultural sector (MALA, 2001).

The programme included grants for individual aspiring farmers, food safety net grants for the rural poor, settlement grants for both urban and rural poor to access land for settlement and a revised commonage grants that would benefit both municipalities and tribal authorities (Jacobs, Lahiff & Hall, 2003:4). In addition, land redistribution is taking place in the context of a neo-liberal paradigm of political economy, which curtails the role of the state and public sector in the economy and promotes service delivery through the market (Jacobs, Lahiff & Hall, 2003:7). Thus, the broad aim of LRAD is to contribute more significantly to the agricultural market and to broaden the target group of beneficiaries including the emerging black farmers (Rungasamy, 2011:42).

With this programme, the grant amount was increased on a sliding scale of R20 000 to R100 000 depending on the amount on an individual's own contribution in kind, labour or cash. The minimum own contribution was R5 000, which an applicant can qualify a grant amount of R20 000, whilst an own contribution of R100 000 would qualify an applicant a grant amount of R400 000. The White Paper (1997) further stipulates that those people that apply as a group, the required own contribution and the total grant increased due to the number of individuals represented in the group (DLA, 1997). The more people were in a group, the more the amount grant they would qualify. However, the programme experienced problems similar to those of the SLAG programme, which resulted in the un-sustainability of the LRAD projects. There was of lack of post-settlement support which was caused by the lack of coordination between the Department of Agriculture (which is responsible for the post transfer) and the Department of Land affairs (which is responsible for land acquisition). Furthermore, Lahiff (2001) argues that despite the programme's potential to contribute significantly to economic development, the programme had particular limitations (Lahiff & Rugege, 2002):

- Land owners determine the volume, price of land and are not willing to sell or are demanding exorbitant prices and this led to slow progress on land distribution;
- The grant allocation was still not enough given the exorbitant price of the land:
- Poorly designed projects;
- Lack of post-settlement support to the redistribution beneficiaries;

- Because of the lack of coordination between the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Land Affairs, people do not know the particular responsibilities of various Government agencies.DLA transfers land and expects DoA to render the post-settlement support to the beneficiaries without proper communication; and
- No explicit role is allocated to local Government, despite the emphasis of the importance of the role of the third tier of Government in delivery of services to the people.

Due to the above identified problems associated with the LRAD, in 2005, Government introduced the Pro-active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) to replace the LRAD.

# 2.6.1.3 Pro-active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS)

Due to the continued lack of sustainability of LRAD projects, the former Minister of Land Affairs reaffirmed in 2005 during the National Land Summit that one of the measures that need to be in place to ensure that land and agrarian reform moves to the new trajectory that will contribute to the higher growth path, employment and equity by 2014, was the introduction of Pro-active Land Acquisition Strategy (PLAS) for targeted groups in the land market (DLA, 2007). It was suggested that the implementation of PLAS will contribute to a higher growth path, employment, and equity by 2014. According to DLA (2006:4) the PLAS dealt with two possible approaches, namely, a need-based approach and a supply-led approach. These approaches focused on the state as the lead driver in land redistribution rather than the then LRAD (beneficiary-driven redistribution) programme. These two approaches were streamlined into one approach called the State-driven Proactive Land Acquisition (DLA, 2007).

In terms of the PLAS (DLA, 2007:6), the programme is state-driven and the state proactively target land and match this with the demand for land. The state acquires land through expropriation, auction and market transaction or negotiated transfer, based on a quantified or un-quantified need or demand rather than providing grants

to beneficiaries which would enable them to purchase land (Kloppers, 2012:68). Thus, the state can buy suitable land that is available on the market on offer before or after beneficiaries have been identified (DLA, 2007).

It should be noted that once the state purchases the land, such land becomes a state property and must be registered in a state asset register. The state is required to comply with payment of tax, transfer duties once they assume ownership of the land until land is disposed to the identified beneficiaries (DLA, 2006).

Once a beneficiary has been identified to occupy the farm based on the requirements like resources available including the farming equipments and livestock, and etcetera, the farm is formally leased to him/her for a specified period. Lease agreements with an option to purchase are concluded with the selected beneficiaries and "linked to one production cycle of the enterprise that the beneficiaries are engaged in" (DLA, 2007). According to the strategy document (DLA, 2006), beneficiaries who are in arrears with their lease fees and who have not broken even during the lease period are removed from the farming operation and new beneficiaries will be installed. However, unforeseen circumstances that is beyond the beneficiaries' control such as drought, floods, and outbreak of diseases are considered before the decision is taken to remove under-performing beneficiaries (DLA, 2007).

According to the strategy document (DLA, 2006), since its inception in 2005, the programme has undergone major reviews and changes. As such it seems to be more effective in comparison to its predecessors due to the following key factors:

- the programme is state-driven;
- Government is able to acquire land in the nodal areas and in the identified agricultural corridors and other areas of high agricultural potential to meet the objectives of Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (ASGISA);
- it improves the identification and selection of beneficiaries and the planning of land on which people would be settled;

- it ensures maximum productive use of land acquired;
- the clubbing of beneficiaries into a small piece of land is avoided; and
- the approach is primarily pro-poor and is based on purchasing productive land that is suitable for particular agricultural activities that government would like to promote vis-à-vis redistribution, and/or because it is an especially good bargain.

However, DLA has also identified some challenges experienced with the implementation of the programme (DLA, 2006), namely:

- beneficiaries are not part in the process of land purchase;
- it is implemented as a "demand-led" as opposed to "supply-led" model; and
- there are limited land identification instruments available.

These challenges associated with the implementation of the programme are echoed by various authors such as the Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS, 2011 and Hall (2008) who argue that this strategy is bureaucratic in a sense that the since the beneficiaries are not directly involved in the purchase of the land, this may cause a more top-down approach in the planning and implementation of the project. However, despite these challenges, the PLAS is the main redistribution programme that is currently used by the Government of South Africa to assist people to acquire land for agricultural purposes.

The next section focuses on the implementation of the Restitution programme as one the pillars of the LRP which aims at compensating those who were unlawfully disposed of their land due to past policies.

#### 2.6.2 Restitution

The Restitution Programme deals with claims lodged in terms of the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994, under which a person or community dispossessed of property after 19 June 1913 (the date of the Natives Land Act), as a result of racially discriminatory laws or practice, is entitled to lodge a claim for restitution of that

property or comparable redress (Sibanda, 2001:1). The main purpose of the programme is to redress the past injustices of apartheid there by restoring land to people dispossessed by Apartheid colonial laws (DLA, 1997). In the same vein, the Restitution Act provides for the restitution of rights in land to persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices (Lahiff, 2001:3). The legislation that gives effect to the right to restitution is provided by the 1993 Interim Constitution, section 25(7) of the 1996 Constitution and the Restitution of Land Rights Act (Hall, 2009:5). Claimants who lost land can claim for restoration of their land or can be compensated financially in case the land is not feasible enough for restoration (Rungasamy, 2011). It should be noted that all restitution claims are made against the state and not against the current owners of the land (Lahiff, 2000:4).

Section 10(1) of the Restitution Act states that before a claim can reach the stage of settlement it must first go through a number of phases or business process as described below (DLA, 1997), namely:

- lodgement and registration;
- screening and categorisation;
- determination of the qualification in terms of the Restitution Act;
- preparations for negotiations; and
- implementation, settlement support and development support.

However, Kariuki (2004:11) argues that the success of restitution has been constrained by poor integration with national, provincial and local government programmes and where tangible developmental benefits have occurred; this has generally been attributable to considerable external support, coordinated planning and the active participation of claimants themselves. Arguably, the most significant challenge for restitution remains the settlement of rural claims in a way that contributes to the larger goals of land reform: redressing the racial inequities in landholding, while reducing poverty and enhancing livelihood opportunities (Hall, 2003).

#### 2.6.3 Land tenure

Tenure reform is the third leg of the government's land reform programme. According to Sibanda (2001), the programme aims to provide people with secure tenure where they live, to prevent arbitrary evictions and fulfil the constitutional requirement that all South Africans have access to land legally secure tenure in land. As section 25 (6) of the Constitution puts it (South Africa, 1996):

"A person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress."

The beneficiaries for this programme include amongst others the farm workers, former farm workers, sharecroppers, as well as labour tenants. Many black people migrated to the cities and commercial farms in search of employment because of the segregation and apartheid policies that denied them access to land (Rugege, 2004:13). Furthermore, Rugege (2004) argues that staying on those farms was based on a government permit or permission to occupy or with the consent of the landowner and as such that permission was likely liable to be withdrawn at any time (Rugege, 2004:13). The Prevention of Illegal Squatting Act 52 of 1951 was used to evict such illegal occupants and the court had no power to refuse the eviction order and as such black people had to move to the crowded black homelands.

With the new democratic dispensation, it was necessary to improve security of tenure for all vulnerable occupiers of land. It is in this context that constitutional provision was made requiring the state to pass an Act of Parliament providing for security of tenure to those with insecure use of land. The Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act 3 of 1996 therefore provides for the protection of the rights of labour tenants and gives them the right to claim land (DLA, 1997). The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act 31 of 1996 was passed as an interim measure to protect people in the former homelands against abuses of their land rights by corrupt chiefs, administrative measures or property developers who fail to consult the occupiers of affected land, while a new more comprehensive law was being prepared (Sibanda,

2001). The Extension of Security of Tenure Act (ESTA) of 1997 aims to protect people who live on land with the consent of the owner or person in charge against unfair eviction and create long term tenure security through on or-off-site settlement assisted by a government grant and the landowner. However, Cousins (2000:13) argues that the impact of these rights-based legislations has been more limited than expected, partly because of capacity constraints on the part of the state and partly on the inability of poor farm dwellers to access legal services (Cousins, 2000). According to the White Paper on Land Policy (1997), the Act is underpinned by the following principles:

- the law should prevent arbitrary;
- existing rights of ownership should be recognized and protected; and
- people who live on land belonging to other people should be guaranteed basic human rights.

In essence, this law promotes long-term security on the land where people are living at the moment. None of these laws, however, deals with the complex system of administering tenure in the former homelands and state-owned land that is the result of a myriad of inconsistent laws, proclamations, regulations and procedures. This is compounded by the gradual erosion of the administrative systems over many years as a result of the contestation of traditional authorities and their lack of budgetary resources to carry out these functions (Cousins et al., 2000).

Land reform has over the years taken a variety of approaches in an attempt to redress the skewed land ownership caused by apartheid laws. The next section discusses the approach to land reform implemented by South African Government.

#### 2.7 APPROACHES TO LAND REFORM

Over the years, land reform policies around the world have revolved around variations of distributive methods of land reform (Wegerif, 2004:6). These include the state-led land reforms and the more common market-based land reforms (Dlamini, 2008:27). It is argued that "in an effort to redress past inequalities to land and

stimulate self-sufficiency, many developing countries sought to redistribute land from big landowners to poorer peasants and the landless" (Brown, 2005:79). It is within this context that the first democratically elected government in South Africa followed international trends by adopting a market-based land reform (Wegerif, 2004:6). This is known as negotiated land reforms or also known as "willing-buyer-willing-seller" approach. The market-based approach to land redistribution has been rationalized on the basis of efficiency and this rationale, according to Thwala (2003:67), ensures that efficiency in the agricultural sector is maintained, so as to improve the current production level of the country and ensure food self-sufficiency. It is also aimed at maintaining or improving investor confidence. Thus, the aims of the approach are to promote economic growth, encourage sustainable management, and reduce poverty (Manenzhe, 2007:13). The approach further relies on voluntary land transfers based on negotiations between buyers and sellers, where the state's role is restricted to establishing the necessary framework and making available land purchase grant to eligible beneficiaries (Deininger, 1999:29). This is to provide a grant to subsidise the buyer, thus providing the equity that the poor do not have (Dlamini, 2008:28).

Land distribution in South Africa over the last decade has been market-based land reform (MBLR) and debates and experiences around major stakeholders and African countries have revolved increasingly around the merits and demerits of this approach. Lahiff (2001:1) argues that through this approach the Government has failed in achieving the objectives of redressing the racial imbalance in landholding, developing the agricultural sector and improving the livelihoods of the poor. Moreover, Moyo (2004) argues that the neo-liberal policies have led to the demise of African agriculture, expanded food insecurity and food import and aid dependence, and the inability of agriculture to accumulate investible resources and finance itself, without resorting to external debt entrapment. According to Moyo (2004), this pattern reinforces the limited agricultural land to transformation, hence the failed agrarian transition and agro-industrial growth, and the tendency for state resource allocations to discriminate against the poor and the weak. However, Deininger (1999:29) argues that the experience from the three countries (Brazil, Columbia and South Africa) who implemented the land reform programme through the approach, provided valuable lessons that can guide attempts to implement improved programmes of land reform and suggests that:

- land reform through negotiation can only succeed if measures are taken to make the market for land sales and rental more transparent and fluid;
- productive projects are a core element of market-assisted land reform that is designed to establish economically viable and productive projects at a socially-justifiable cost rather than to transfer assets;
- the only way to achieve effective coordination of the various entities involved in this process is through demand-driven and decentralized implementation; and
- the long run success of land reform is likely to depend critically on getting the private sector involved in implementation, and the ability to utilize the land purchase grant to crowd in private money.

The World Bank as a lender of development finance has been very influential in terms of policy formulation other than in terms of its monetary input into South Africa's land reform process (Karumbidza, 2002). It is arguably the institution that was most dedicated to the protection of private property rights in an attempt to redress the inequality of land distribution caused by apartheid laws. It has been at the forefront of propagating the idea that unclear tenure right hinder the development of agricultural and wider markets (Manji, 2006:32). As such it instituted the implementation of the market-based land reform in South Africa. The next section of the discussion focuses on the rationale for market-based land reform approach as viewed by the World Bank.

#### 2.7.1 The World Bank's view of market-based land reform

As early as 1993, the market-based approach has particularly been pushed by the World Bank on the basis that this was the only form of land reform that is compatible with its economic policies and those of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Dlamini, 2008:27). It was also based on the need to avoid top-down state interventions, promotion of land markets and general deregulation of the economy (Wegerif, 2004:6). Up to the 1990s, the role of the World Bank and other international organizations in promoting and supporting land reforms was rather

marginal and contradictory. Although they formally endorsed land reform in conference declarations, researches and policy statements, their actual support for it was ambivalent (FAO, 2006).

When the World Bank published its 1975 Land Reform Policy Paper, its major recommendations wanted to do away with customary communal tenure systems that are deemed to be backward. Moreover, these common land are traditionally used for the production of food crops and are thus incompatible with the World Bank's model of export-oriented agriculture to service the needs of the industrialized countries (World Bank, 2004). Privatization of land ownership would provide a more favourable environment for cash crop production. It likewise serves the objective of debt servicing since the proceeds of public land sales are used to generate state revenues which are channelled to the international creditors (World Bank, 2004). During the 1990s, the World Bank reviewed its Land Reform Policy Paper and started pushing market-assisted land reform as a concrete alternative to redistributive land reform (FAO, 2006).

### 2.8 Post-settlement support in the context of South African land reform

The South African Government's mandate in terms of Land Reform is not only restricted to the redistribution of land or making land more accessible but also to ensure that land acquired is utilised to its productive potential. Land reform is generally understood as the redistribution of rights in land for the benefit of the landless, tenants and farm labourers (Adams, 1995:1). Gilliomee (2001:3), as cited by Manenzhe (2007:12) takes the definition further by stating that it involves a significant change in the agrarian structure resulting in increased access to land by the rural poor and security of land rights and titles. This includes access to production inputs, markets and other complementary support services such as extension, training and mentorship programmes. According to the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO, 2006):

"Land reform becomes more effective when beneficiaries have or acquire the necessary experience in land use and management and when they have the capacity to generate sustainable income or sufficient food. Rural infrastructure, improved

technologies and a range of responsive rural services, including training, have proved essential to effective and lasting agrarian reform".

There is an intricate relationship between land redistribution and post-settlement support as part of Land Reform (Rungasamy, 2011:4). It is further argued that "the South African Government has an obligation to empower land distribution beneficiaries as to create an effective support foundation that ensures that sustainable development takes place" (Van der Elst, 2008:1). The need for post-settlement support was identified as early at the inception of the White paper on Land Reform Policy (DLA, 2006). The Land Reform Policy states:

"Government has a responsibility to provide assistance with farm credit, farm-inputs and marketing. Advice and assistance may be needed to facilitate the productive use of the land, as well as the provision of rural infrastructure (for example, water supplies, drainage, power supplies, and roads".

Post-transfer support is a key element in acquired land for agricultural production. Van der Elst (2007:290) asserts that within the context of land reform, sustainable development entails that, in order to be successful, beneficiaries' quality of life must improve substantially, and acquired land must be utilised to its full commercial potential, after resettlement on claimed land has occurred. Thus, in the context of land reform, post-settlement support refers specifically to Government's function and responsibility in assisting beneficiaries of the programme after they have received land (Rungasamy, 2011:4). The above definition means that beneficiaries of the various land reform programmes (redistribution, tenure or restitution) must be empowered to utilise the land in such a way that their livelihoods improves substantially within a given timeframe (Van der Elst, 2007: 290). The success of land reform in impacting positively on the livelihood of the poor is dependent on effective and productive use of the land concerned. Various studies undertaken in South Africa have indicated the need for the post-land transfer support after the transfer stage of the projects. The DLA's White Paper on South African Land Policy for example distinguishes between equitable distribution of land and the provision of complementary development or support services (Jacobs, 2003:8). Support services,

or complementary development support as specified in the White Paper, 1997, include the key functional areas of support, which are:

- extension and advisory services;
- skills development and capacity building: a variety of training programmes including management and mentorship programmes aimed at skills transfer;
- financial assistance: grant finance, credit facilities to assist with farming operations;
- infrastructure support: bulk on-farm infrastructure like irrigation and fencing;
   and
- access to feasible markets.

The combination of these factors will yield to sustainable agricultural development. It is further argued that the success of the LRP is dependent on effective and efficient systems and processes of distributing land and on the proper post-settlement support for those projects acquired through the LRP, where beneficiaries are generating income and making profits (Tilley, 2007:3). The attainment of sustainable development outcomes also depends on the provision of settlement support which should not be added at the end of the land reform process but should form an integral part of the entire process of land reform through the planning, transfer and post-transfer phases in an integrated manner involving all role-players (land reform beneficiaries, government departments, private sector partners, etc.) natural, financial and human resources (Rungasamy, 2011:53).

The next section of the study focuses on the phases of the post-settlement support.

#### 2.8.1 Phases of post- settlement support

In their strategic document, DLA asserts that when the state settles the claims where people have chosen physical restoration of their land and development, there are financial grants that are attached to the settlement of the claim for planning and developmental purposes (DLA, 2006). However, the post-settlement support in a

restitution programme depends on the nature of the settlement and therefore determines the intervention strategy required (DLA, 2006).

The purpose of post settlement is to provide support to beneficiaries of settled claims for planning, implementation and capacity building to take place. DLA developed responsibility areas for the provision of post-settlement support and its coordination support is done by a post-settlement unit (Rungasamy, 2011:65). The post-settlement support process map consists of 8 phases as is illustrated in the figure below:

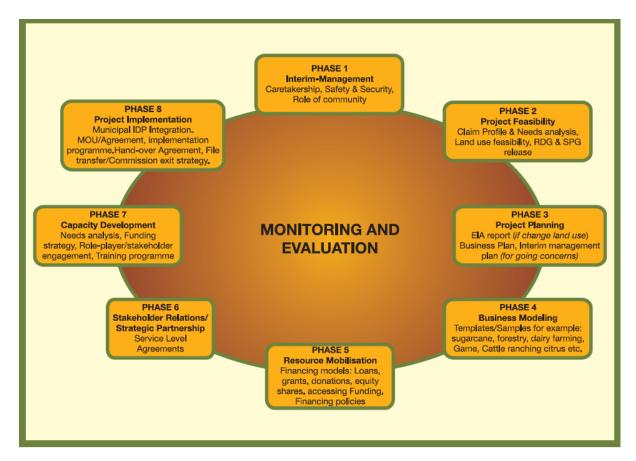


Figure 2.1: Post-settlement phases

Source: Rungasamy (2011:66)

The deliverables of the different phases for post-settlement in restitution projects are briefly captured below:

#### Phase 1: Interim management plan

The interim management plan is a pre-settlement phase which includes the provisional management plan /caretaker ship to manage the project during the transition period. A service level agreement and the lease agreement are drawn between DLA and the caretaker. A plan is also drawn which clearly states the role and the responsibilities of the caretaker within the project. This is to ensure that the caretaker takes ownership of the project until the legitimate structure or committee is in place. This phase usually takes about four months involving re-orientation training of the caretaker of interim farm manager to reflect the new relationship of the community through its legal entity being the new owner (SRS, 2010).

#### Phase 2: Project feasibility

When interim management plan is concluded, a feasibility study of the project is then done which aims to objectively and rationally uncover the strengths and weaknesses of the proposed project. It also analyses the opportunities and threats present in the environment as well as the resources that will be required to carry out the project activities and ultimately the prospects for success of the project (Georgakellos & Marcis, 2009:238). The evaluation and analysis of the project includes:

- Project profile report: This is a detailed project profile report that covers all the
  aspects of the project. In this case, the report should provide the background
  information of the project, from analysing the market, confirming the
  availability of various resources such as infrastructure and machinery, soil
  profiles, the previous and current farming practices and enterprises and to
  forecasting the financial requirements of the project. This report should be
  prepared by highly qualified and experienced consultants and the market
  research and analysis are supported by a panel of experts.
- Socio-economic report: The report should include the analyses of the demographics, poverty and unemployment rates, source of income, economic reviews and outcomes and so forth. This report should assist in analysing what impact the project will have on the community at large. This phase

should take between four to six months as it is an intensive research study, precede technical development and project implementation (SRS, 2010).

#### Phase 3: Project planning

The planning phase is done at the local municipality through the Integrated Development Planning (IDP), which is "an approach to planning that involves the entire municipality and its citizens in finding the best solutions to achieve good long-term development" (http://www.etu.org.za/toolbox/docs/localgov/webidp/html). It is aimed at co-ordinating service delivery plans of local and other spheres of government in a coherent plan to improve the quality of life for all the people living in an area. The plan looks at economic and social development of an area as a whole, taking into consideration the existing conditions and available resources for the project development. This includes the development of the business plan which will detail on what activities are to be carried out, who are the responsible people and when such activities are to be carried out and at what costs. It is assumed that this phase should usually take between four weeks to three months to be concluded and is coordinated by the RLCC.

#### Phase 4: Business modelling

Lee and Cole (2003:1) define a business model as "a statement of how a firm will make money and sustain its profit stream over time. A business model describes the rationale of how an organization creates, delivers, and captures value. It is essential to choose the best business model that will suit all the stakeholders of the project and which will generate income or realise profits for the project. Lahiff (2007:3), in his research report on business model for land reform, argues that choosing the appropriate model will depend on a range of internal and external factors that includes the differing interests and opinions of members of the group, its internal organisation and coherence, the assets at its disposal, the availability of potential partners, any conditions imposed as part of a Settlement Agreement.

There are four broad business models that can be used by the farmers, this includes amongst: individual production, group access, strategic partners and joint ventures

(Lahiff, 2007:3). Furthermore, it is also important to consider the element of risk, as different options carry different degrees of risk, and poor communities may be better advised to err of the side of caution rather than choose options that might promise higher returns but involve a greater degree of risk (Lahiff, 2007:4). A critical analysis of each model option is very important before a final decision is taken.

This phase should take no more than eight weeks to be concluded. At the end of this period, the project should be registered as a legal entity or business enterprise and a legal agreement based on the strategic partnerships or joint ventures should be finalised.

#### Phase 5: Resource mobilisation

According to the PLAAS (2003), sustainable production and income generation depend on access to finance for production start-up inputs like seed and fertiliser, and for fixed capital improvement. Once the project is registered as a legal entity and a business model is in place, the next phase will be the financing strategy for the selected business model. There are various financing models that can be used to finance the various business models: farmers can enter into strategic partnerships or joint ventures with commercial partners, loans from financial institutions and Government grants support. The Government has a responsibility to ensure sustainability of the land reform projects thereby ensuring that farmers are supported with the means for production. The issue of post-settlement support is imperative if land reform is to succeed and such support should be timely and well-funded. Financing strategy on different financing models should also be explored.

### Phase 6: Stakeholder relationship and strategic partnerships

This phase comprises stakeholder analysis and participation. Stakeholders are all those groups, units, individuals, or organisations, internal or external organisations, which are directly or indirectly benefiting from the project and impacts on the outcomes of the project. They are classified as primary, secondary and key stakeholders. If their support was to be withdrawn, it would result in the failure of the project. It is therefore crucial that the roles and the responsibility of each stakeholder

involved in each phase of the project be identified. This includes the Project Team, Sponsors, Steering Committee, contractor, strategic partners and beneficiaries. Therefore, stakeholder analysis has the goal of developing cooperation between the stakeholder and the project team and ensuring the successful outcomes for the project (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stakeholder\_analysis). It is important to identify all stakeholders for the purpose of identifying their success criteria and turning these into quality goals and to optimise satisfaction and production.

#### Service level agreements

Once the stakeholder analysis is completed, there should be some form of agreement between the various stakeholders within the project on how the project business will be carried out, done formally so in the form of a written service level agreement. This is a binding legal document and cannot be altered without following the legal way. This document includes the common understanding of the parties involved about services to be rendered, responsibilities, guarantees, warranties and termination of the contract.

This phase should take no more than about five months and by the end of the period there should be some form of agreement between all the stakeholders on how the project is going to be implemented and monitored (SRS, 2010). The success of the project is determined by having the right stakeholders who have the best interest of the project at heart. However, capacity building, coaching and mentoring of the stakeholders is essential in this phase. Farmer training is critical for the viability and sustainability of agricultural projects.

### **Phase 7: Capacity development**

Before any training or capacity building can be conducted, the following activities (that build up to the actual training) need to take place:

#### Need identification and analysis

This is an initial phase of capacity building, which starts with the training need identification of the stakeholders within the project. At all levels, there is an expectation that the skills, attitudes and knowledge required to deliver successful will be gained while develop projects these projects (http://www.snh.org.uk/uplandpathmanagement/5.1.shtml). this the case. imparting of the knowledge and skills to the land reform beneficiaries is very crucial. Training needs can be identified in a number of ways, such as during interviews through brainstorming sessions, competencies or knowledge tests, by observing work taking place in projects.

After the need identification is completed, this should be followed by the training need analysis. The analysis is done according to the importance or priority of the training and the available resources or funds. Once a list of needs has been determined, a timescale for achieving them has to be set down. This includes developing the training programme schedule or implementation plan. This plan should include the type of training (what), the trainer (who), when should the training take place and what are the cost implications of the whole training programme. This whole programme is essential as it should assist the implementers of the project to identify the funding strategy of the training programme prior to implementing the plan. It is advisable that this forms part of the business plan of the project and not a standalone sub-project. The commitment of the trainees or the stakeholders in the whole programme should be prioritised to avoid fruitless expenditures due to noncommitments during the training sessions. This phase should take six months. By the end of this period, it should be assumed that the stakeholders are ready for the execution of the project.

### **Phase 8: Project implementation**

The implementation phase of the project management process puts the project into action. "The Project Implementation plan represents a tentative chronological plan of project activities needed to ensure the delivery of outputs which will secure project outcomes and should indicate which year the relevant activities will take place" (http://www.norad.no/en/support/norhed/\_attachment/401291?\_ts=13d498648c7).

A memorandum of understanding should be reached between the implementers or strategic partners and the project owners or beneficiaries on the implementation plan of the project. This should ensure a convergence of will between the parties, indicating an intended common line of action which is not a legally enforceable agreement but however, there is a common understanding or agreement and will on the execution plan of the project. Once all the agreements are finalised by all the parties, the actual implementation of the project should resume based on the plan. Once the project is completed, it is then commissioned, ensuring that all the works and systems of the projects are designed, installed, tested, operated and maintained according to the operational requirements of the owner. The main objective of commissioning is to assure the safe and orderly handover of the unit from the constructor to the owner, guaranteeing its operability in terms of performance, reliability, and safety and information traceability. The final stage of the project should be the handing over of the project which is done once the project has been commissioned and has met all the requirements; it is then handed over to the project owners. The contractor should provide appropriate certification and reports as part of the handover process. The maintenance and operation of the project becomes the responsibility of the project owners, who should take ownership and control henceforth.

It should also be noted that the implementation of land reform projects, like any other project should be aligned with local development goals as expressed in the Integrated Development Plans (IDP) of each municipality. This implementation phase should take between one to four years, based on the project plan (ISR, 2010). Some of the above activities under the above phases can be done simultaneously and most of them start during the pre-settlement phase of the claim such as finalising the 'caretakership' agreement, identification of stakeholders and land use needs, feasibility studies and capacity development are conducted even before the claim is approved in terms of section 42D of the Restitution Act (Rungasamy, 2011:68).

# 2.8.2 The inherent shortcomings in the provision of post-settlement support under the South African land reform

According to the Institute for Poverty for Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS), 2008 led by Professor Cousins, one crucial element of land reform is support to assist the new owners of land to become productive users of such land and this is particularly important for poverty reduction, and to allay fears that land reform will undermine production for local or export markets. As defined by the White Paper on Land Policy, post-settlement support involves credit, farming inputs, water for irrigation, marketing arrangements, information and training. However, according to Van der Elst (2008:1-2), most of the beneficiaries who obtained ownership and access to land in rural areas through the land reform programmes, have up to now been unable to utilize the land to its full production potential. In addition, Van der Elst (2008) avers that the majority of the land reform beneficiaries are unskilled and lack the experience and expertise to develop and utilize the acquired land and thus the ideal of achieving a situation of sustainable development and improved quality of life, especially in terms of agricultural development has not been realised.

Recent studies on Land Reform in South Africa such as "Evaluating land and agrarian reform" by Jacobs (2003) and "Land reform in South Africa: the problems and prospects" by Hall (2004) amongst others, have shown that post-settlement support is a critical gap in the South African land reform. Land reform beneficiaries are unable to access to complementary support services such as infrastructure support, farm credit, agricultural inputs, training extension advice and access to markets and finance and production inputs.

According to Jacobs (2003:4), land reform in South Africa since 1994 has helped some rural poor people to gain access to land for a range of purposes but land-based livelihoods strategies and support after land transfer has been neglected by the state". In the same vein, Vink and Kirsten (2003) contend that "land reform beneficiaries and small scale farmers have been left alone struggling without access to complementary services such as infrastructure support, farm credit, agricultural inputs, training extension advice and access to markets for farm outputs and ploughing services and also assistance with productive and sustainable land use".

Furthermore, various scholars have argued that the challenge for land reform in South Africa is the absence of clear and coherent strategy on post-transfer support due to the absence of effective management arrangements for post-settlement support; the South African land reform programme has been unsuccessful in terms of sustainable development and improving the quality of life of beneficiaries, specifically in rural areas. Terreblanche (2008a: 62) is also of the opinion that the mere transfer of land to dispossessed people since 1994 has not necessarily reduced poverty or contributed to sustainable development.

The Department of Agriculture as a government agency has not provided effective post-settlement support as part of their responsibility in land reform process. This criticism is supported by the majority of land reform beneficiaries who remain subjected to poverty and underdevelopment even after receiving land through the land reform programme. As a result, the Department has been ineffective in achieving the objectives of facilitating post-settlement support to the beneficiaries who receive land in terms of the land reform programmes, despite cases of isolated successes. An assessment done by the DoA in 2004 found that between 60-70% of land reform projects, both in restitution and redistribution projects, in the post-settlement phase are experiencing operational difficulties or are considered dysfunctional (NDA, 2007). The reasons behind such a situation are attributed to the following:

- insufficient training and skills transfer to beneficiaries receiving title to land;
- failure to assess the land use needs from the persons who are to receive title to land in relation to the capacity and potential of the land;
- poor intergovernmental relations as well as between the private sector and civil society;
- identification of important role-players and stakeholders too late in the process:
- lack of funding;
- lack of capacity and skills on the part of government to develop and implement business plans; and
- lack of access to infrastructure, finance, markets.

The above analysis, according to Van der Elst (2007:294), acknowledges that the land reform programme currently lacks an effective coordinated post-settlement management and implementation support structure – a matter that needs to be addressed urgently in order to ensure effective poverty reduction and sustainability.

Post-settlement support needs to be aligned to the transferred land. The South African Government has thus a constitutional obligation to provide post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries in order to alleviate poverty and contribute to the economy of the country. It is in this context that the functions and responsibilities within the various spheres of Government with regard to post-settlement support are discussed in the next section.

### 2.8.3 Post-settlement support: functions and responsibilities

In terms of the land reform programme, the National sphere of Government is responsible for setting policy priorities, to provide implementation guidelines and advice and in the final analysis to monitor and review where necessary specific aspects of the land reform programme (Van der Elst, 2007:296). In addition, it is argued that the national sphere of government does not have an implementation responsibility, but is exclusively responsible for providing public policy guidelines and steering and monitoring governmental functions that influence South Africa as a whole (Venter, 2001). The national sphere of government is therefore mandated to ensure that public policies and legislation, as formulated by the legislative authority, are implemented through the provincial and local spheres of government (Van der Elst, 2008:22). The main responsibility of the national sphere of Government, boils down to the following activities (Van der Elst, 2007:296):

# Formulate post-settlement support policy

Adequate post-settlement support policy guidelines have been promulgated and, since 1994, legislation has been enacted. Government can utilise these guidelines to ensure that a proactive land reform programme and post-settlement support are initiated, implemented and maintained.

#### Set land reform priorities

Post-settlement support priorities are adequately stipulated in policy documents such as the Constitution, the RDP and the White Paper on Land Policy.

# Approve post-settlement support arrangement

Adequate approval structures are in place. All postsettlement support arrangements are currently approved at ministerial level.

# Establish a framework for intergovernmental cooperation

No effective framework currently exists. Different departments and institutions are performing their functions on an *ad hoc* basis. In line with the national governments' prescriptions, such as communication and coordination, a framework should be developed, facilitated and maintained.

# Develop a database for postsettlement support

As there are no effective databases, it is impossible to monitor progress. A comprehensive national database of all post-settlement support projects must be developed, updated and maintained within the national sphere of government.

# Monitor and review the process

Due to the absence of an effective database and because of ineffective intergovernmental cooperation, post-settlement support progress cannot be monitored and reviewed satisfactorily. This problem can be rectified by developing a database and ensuring effective intergovernmental relations.

In the Provincial Sphere of Government, the Provincial sector departments are key institutions in the implementation of the land reform programme. They are responsible for ensuring that the Government's land reform policy is implemented and for liaising with Provincial Government in land reform matters as set on the White Paper on Land Policy (DLA, 1997). Within this sphere of Government national public policy is translated into executive public policy which has to be implemented at the provincial spheres of government, thus the powers and functions of this sphere of Government naturally impact on the local sphere of Government (Van der Elst,

2008:23). It is also the responsibility of Provincial Governments to provide complementary development support to beneficiaries of land reform and ensures that it is implemented at the local sphere of Government. The provincial sphere of government is currently the main instrument through which post-settlement support is planned and steered through the following phases (Van der Elst, 2007:296):

Phase 1: Performing a feasibility study

Phase 2: Conducting an EIA

Phase 3: Land use planning

Phase 4: Business planning

Phase 5: Capacity building/technical advice

Phase 6: Ensure stakeholder participation

In the local sphere of government, municipalities are the arm of government closest to people responsible for the delivery of services to the people through its IDPs. It is the sphere of Government where the actual implementation of the land reform projects takes place. Once the land has been delivered to the beneficiaries, it becomes part of the municipal IDP projects that are to be given support by the relevant Institution or Department and it may be the Department of Agriculture, Water Affairs, Human Settlement, and so forth.

In the previous sections, it has been widely acknowledged by various scholars that the success of land reform programme depends amongst others the provision of the post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries. Implicit in that is the importance of the integration of land reform and the agricultural development. It is against this background that the next section focuses its discussion on the integration of land reform and agricultural development.

# 2.9 THE INTEGRATION OF LAND REFORM AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

The LARP concept document states that experience on land reform in South Africa has shown that access to land is essential, but insufficient to bring about agrarian reform (DOA, 2008). It is further argued that when beneficiaries do not gain access

to markets, credit, technology, labour and training, they soon find themselves either indebted or in a state of deepened poverty (Tilley, 2007:2). The post-settlement support provided to both the small scale and emerging farmers has been inadequate and inappropriately designed and not integrated with land reform (DOA, 2008).

In order to bridge the gap identified in land redistribution projects, namely the lack of post-settlement support, lack of agricultural support services, poor coordination amongst provincial Departments of Agriculture and Local Governments, leading to poorly designed projects, DoA and DLA developed agricultural-related strategies and programmes including the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) and the bottom-up integrated approach of LARP, including One-Stop Shop delivery and information centres.

## 2.9.1 Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)

According to Rungasamy (2011:48), transferring land in isolation from wider changes in access to resources and infrastructure leaves beneficiaries with constrained choices: to engage in low-input agriculture that they can finance themselves or to engage in joint ventures with public or private sector partners that sometimes leave them with minimal profits. CASP was therefore a post-settlement policy framework that was developed to complement LRAD programme. The programme is managed by the DoA and targets mainly the beneficiaries from the disadvantaged groups who acquired land through the land reform programme to improve household food security. The White Paper on Agriculture (1995), the White Paper on Land Policy (1997), and the Strauss Commission Report (1996) provide the strategic policy framework for CASP (MALA, 2004). It is through the Strauss Commission that the "sunrise package" was introduced, which aimed at improving the conditions of the land reform beneficiaries (MALA, 2004). The primary aim with CASP is to improve the quality of post-settlement support in agricultural projects and to streamline the provision of services to the targeted four different levels within the farming continuum (CASP, 2002). It was designed to enhance the provision of support services in order to promote and facilitate agricultural development, targeting beneficiaries of the land reform and agrarian reform programmes (Rungasamy, 2011). This includes beneficiaries of LRAD, SLAG, restitution, redistribution and tenure reform provided with farm level support. As such, 70% of DOA's conditional grant budget for projects was earmarked for land reform projects.

According to the concept document, the main priority areas under the CASP programme includes the following (CASP, 2002):

- information and knowledge management;
- technical and advisory assistance;
- financial support;
- training and capacity building;
- marketing and business development; and
- on- and off- farm infrastructure.

The DoA envisaged that for sustainability of land reform programme, these pillars are the necessary enablers and drivers of successful land reform projects. Targeted land reform beneficiaries receive a once-off grant for an agricultural-related project, and such grant must adhere to the guidelines as proposed in the LRAD operational manual (MALA, 2004). However, the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP), which was instituted as a conditional grant to provincial Departments of Agriculture for support under six pillars was not synchronised with LRAD (LARP, 2008). From its inception, the implementation of CASP focused on only one pillar, namely on and off farm infrastructure and thus the support under CASP was not comprehensive (MALA, 2004). The other five pillars of support were not adhered to.

A recent review of the implementation of CASP (2008) has confirmed these deficiencies. Therefore, there has been a need to rebrand CASP from its previous Division of Revenue Act (DORA) conditional grant characterisation to a comprehensive agricultural support programme that will address the LARP universal access priority (CASP, 2002). This also calls for a number of key improvements areas needed to heighten the impact of the programme, including the need for Government to act in a more integrated and aligned manner to:

- de-emphasizing collective farming;
- further decentralisation to districts and municipalities;
- embedding land reform into the Integrated Development Plans of municipalities;
   integrating all existing land reform and agricultural support services into a unified grant and a single approval process; and
- increasing the participation of the beneficiaries (LARP, 2008).

## 2.9.2 Land and Agrarian Reform Programme (LARP)

The failure of the majority of land reform projects as highlighted in the preceding sections necessitated the government to review its performance in implementing its policies in the land, agriculture and rural sector. This led to the Presidency challenging Directors-General to devise projects that would have maximum impact on the eradication of poverty, job creation, and economic growth (Rungasamy, 2011). This culminated in the Land and Agrarian Reform Project concept document. The Directors-General of the Departments of Agriculture and Land Affairs responded by proposing an accelerated land and agrarian reform project to be managed as a joint project of the DLA, the national DoA, provincial Departments of Agriculture, state-owned enterprises and sector partners (DOA, 2008). The project was accepted by the Presidency as one of 24 Presidential priorities commonly known as the 'Apex Priorities' in terms of the Government's Programme of action (LARP, 2008).

The Land and Agrarian Reform Project (LARP) concept document provides a new framework for delivery and collaboration on land reform and agricultural support to accelerate the rate and sustainability of transformation through aligned and joint action by all involved stakeholders (DoA, 2008). It creates a delivery paradigm for agricultural and other support services based upon the concept of "One-Stop Shop" service centres located close to farming and rural beneficiaries (OECD, 2009:7). This concept serves as a vehicle for the development, communication and information and to integrate services into primary rural communities at the local level through the IDP process, where services, information and other resources from the Government, NGOs, parastatals, business, and so forth are at a close proximity to the beneficiaries. This ensures that Government strategies respond directly to

community needs and allow them to engage in Government programmes for improvement of their lives.

According to the concept document (DOA, 2008), LARP has the following objectives:

- to redistribute 5 million hectares of white-owned agricultural land to 10 000 new agricultural producers;
- to increase the number of black entrepreneurs in the agribusiness industry by 10%;
- to provide universal access to agricultural support services to the target groups;
- to increase agricultural production by 10–15% for the target groups, under the LETSEMA-ILIMA Campaign; and
- to increase agricultural trade by 10–15% for the target groups.

The success of the programme is derived from a well co-ordinated, aligned bottomup approach based on joint planning at the local settlement project level and coordinated implementation within government and between government and its sector partners (Rungasamy, 2011:8).

# 2.10 THE ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE STAKEHOLDERS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF LAND REFORM PROGRAMME IN SOUTH AFRICA

The political, economic, cultural and social aspects of land reform have meant that there are numerous key stakeholders in the implementation of Land reform in South Africa. Some of the prominent stakeholders in the land reform programme and are briefly explicated below.

## 2.10.1 Department Rural Development of Land Reform

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (formerly known as DLA) is the lead Government agency responsible for land reform policies, land acquisition monitoring and evaluation of the impact of land reform (Jacobs, 2003). Land delivery has been gradually decentralised, which has introduced district-level planning and implementation among different directorates. The provincial offices of the Department therefore, are key institutions in the implementation of the land reform programme. Section 25(1-9) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 also infers that the erstwhile national Department of Land Affairs has, in terms of land reform, a responsibility and also a mandate to provide access to land and to extend land rights and ownership in urban and rural South Africa. This should be done through the formulation of policies that will ensure redistribution of land, tenure reform restitution of land, land development, and at the setting of national norms and standards with regard to land matters (South Africa, 1996). The emphasis, therefore, has to be on service delivery to previously disadvantaged individuals and communities which lost land, or were denied access to land, as a result of the institutionalization of the previous government's policy of separate development (Rungasamy, 2011:55). According to Van der Elst (2007:290), the DLA's responsibility, in terms of its specialist function, is not only restricted to land redistribution and restitution but it also has an obligation to empower land reform beneficiaries and such empowerment would be to establish an effective support foundation to ensure that sustainable development takes place.

#### 2.10.2 Department of Agriculture

Post-settlement support as part of the Land Reform Programme in the area of farming falls outside DLA's mandate (DLA, 1997). Integrating post-transfer support into redistribution and restitution are steps in the right direction at policy level, however, neither DLA nor the CRLR are well placed or suitably structured to attend to this task (Jacobs, 2003:5). Van der Elst (2008) argues that the practical implication is that post-settlement support cannot be the sole responsibility of the Department of Land Affairs. It only plays the facilitation role but not the physical implementation of post-settlement. In this regard, it is therefore imperative and unavoidable that a variety of government departments with specialist functions and other statutory bodies with specialised support functions be involved in the process of post-settlement support.

However, the primary responsibility for post-transfer support also lies with Provincial DoA, as stipulated in LRAD policy (Rungasamy, 2011). The National Development Agency (NDA) and the Provincial Departments of Agriculture, through its support programmes, are responsible for post-transfer support to land reform beneficiaries. This includes providing them with infrastructure, training, credits, extension services, markets and so forth. According to Jacobs (2003:5), the NDA has been restructured around six directorates or line functions, ostensibly to deliver better services to land reform beneficiaries. A Farmer Settlement Support (FSS) directorate has been established within NDA's national and provincial departments to co-ordinate post-transfer support to land reform projects, especially in the areas of agricultural extension, infrastructural support and training (NDA, 2001). The funding for this support services is from the equity share from provincial provinces and conditional grants from NDA, which is earmarked for post-settlement support of land reform projects.

#### 2.10.3 Land Bank

The Land Bank was established in 1912 to assist agricultural sector in the development and implementation of government agricultural policies and to promote commercial farming. More than eighty years later, it is being radically transformed to support the development of the agricultural economy in the new South Africa and to serve a whole new set of clients (Sibanda, 2001). Following the release of the Strauss Commission Report (1999), new legislation governing the operation of the Bank has been passed, a new corporate identity was unveiled, and loans targeted at the financial needs of the previously disadvantaged farming communities have been introduced (Land Bank, 1999 cited by Jacobs et al., 2003:22). Through state funds the Bank provides low interest mortgages and production loans valued at 80% of the production land value, earmarked for land purchases, mechanisation and production inputs for farming. The Land Bank follows a conservative valuation approach and is primarily interested in the price a property can command in the market place and in this regard, it distinguishes between the market value and production value of the land and uses the lesser of the two to determine how much clients can borrow (Jacobs et al., 2003:22). In this way, land reform beneficiaries with no security or collaterals and not considered bankable by commercial banks are able to benefit

from the bank's finance products. It is further argued that to assist the land reform beneficiaries, the bank partnered with DLA to assist the LRAD beneficiaries with 'starter up' production loans. However, the bank has widely been criticised for assisting mainly the white farmers as compared to black emerging farmers – a criticism dismissed by the Land Bank on the grounds that it needs commercial accounts to remain solvent (Sibanda, 2011).

## 2.10.4 The National Developing Agency (NDA)

The National Developing Agency, like any other statutory and non-statutory institution, is also engaged in post-transfer support to land reform beneficiaries. It is located in the Ministry of Social Development. Jacobs (2003:6) states that some agencies participate directly in land reform projects, while others deal with land reform as ancillary to their broader mandate to facilitate rural development. In April 2002, a trilateral agency agreement was signed with the CRLR, which commits the three agencies to allocate resources to restitution projects in order to facilitate sustainable rural development (Jacobs, 2003:6). Many of the land reform projects around the nine provinces of South Africa have been funded by the agency in infrastructural development and production inputs.

## 2.10.5 Organised Agriculture

According to PLAAS, (2006), agricultural organisations are well entrenched in South Africa's commercial farming sector and their membership control an overwhelming proportion of farmland and agricultural resources. In addition, Sibanda (2001) asserts that these organisations constitute important pressure groups in the land reform sector. It is further argued that they represent established and emergent black farmers with commercial aspirations and the organisation was established partly in response to the fact that none of the actors shaping South African agrarian policy represented black commercial farmers (Weideman, 2004:155).

The commercial farmers are represented by major unions of commercial farmers, namely, Agri South Africa (Agri-SA), National African Farmers' Union (NAFU) and

African Farmers Association of South Africa (AFASA). Agri-SA is by far the largest national formation of farmers in the country and its membership consists of predominantly white farmers (Jacobs, 2003:23), while NAFU represents the interests of black commercial and "emerging" farmers. He (Jacobs, 2003:24) further argues that farmer unions have different approaches to land reform and Agri-SA, for instance, strongly supports the willing-buyer-willing-seller basis of LRAD, while conversely, AFASA favours the expropriation approach of land acquisition. These organisations also provide post-settlement support on specific projects, including capacity building and mentorship programmes, while others are engaged in joint ventures with the emerging farmers. For a decade now, organised Agriculture has been involved as major stakeholders in the development of land reform policies and participates in agricultural sector forums. The Strategic Plan for South African Agriculture, which outlines how the agricultural sector plans to engage with LRAD, emerged from the collaboration between organised commercial agriculture and government (Jacobs, 2003:23).

## 2.10.6 Non-Governmental organisations

Non-Governmental organisations (NGOs) also play a key role in the implementation of land reform in South Africa. They usually collaborate with state and other stakeholders to accelerate land delivery and post-settlement support. Sometimes these non-state actors initiate interventions, especially where government has missed good opportunities. NGOs working on issues of post-settlement support do so mainly to secure livelihood benefits for communities. Private sector involvement is mainly in the form of strategic partnerships. For example, in Limpopo, farmers are encouraged by Provincial Department of Agriculture (PDoA) across the country, to participate in mentoring schemes (Jacobs, 2003). Occasionally, Provincial Agricultural Departments and NGOs collaborate formally or informally on specific aspects of projects and follow different approaches to community participation during the development of post-transfer plans.

#### 2.11 CONCLUSION

The colonial past is the major source of land conflict in South Africa. Land reform in South Africa is therefore intended to redress the racial skewed in land holdings inherited from the Apartheid laws and to improve the livelihood of the rural people and stimulating growth in the agricultural sector. This historical overview of land reform in South Africa indicates the persistence of economic inequalities and resource allocation in South Africa. During centuries of colonialism and apartheid, black South Africans were systematically dispossessed of their land. This amounted to exploitation and continued to destroy of the African peasantry. This land dispossession was a central part of the social, economic and political subjugation of black South Africans.

There was much resistance to this taking of the land and the liberation movements in South Africa all had demands relating to the question of land. The interim Constitution of 1993 and the final Constitution of 1996 recognised and protected existing land ownership, but also created an obligation to ensure land reform. Land reform was identified in the Constitution and was then legislated and made part of the government land reform programme. Through the market-based approach Government implemented the land reform programme within the three key areas: redistribution to address the legacy of racial inequalities thereby providing the poor with land for agricultural development and residential purposes, restoration of land rights taken away due to apartheid segregation laws after 19 June 1913 and tenure reform which provides protection against eviction and tenure security for people living on a land without ownership of that land.

In order for land reform to contribute to sustainable livelihoods for the beneficiaries of the restitution and the redistribution programmes, it must be supported by diversified programmes of pre- and post-settlement support of agrarian reform in a non-centralized and non-bureaucratic manner. Post-settlement support within the context of land reform has been defined. It refers to the government's responsibility in ensuring that the land reform beneficiaries are assisted with complementary support services after they have acquired land. It was also pointed out that post-transfer support is crucial for the overall success of land redistribution, yet it has been

virtually neglected by all the key role players. Consequently, these issues must be addressed in the context of the provision of post-settlement support to ensure that land reform projects become successful and sustainable.

Against the background of the above discussion, it is necessary to make an analysis of the relevant legislations regarding land distribution/land reform. This will be presented in Chapter 3. An analysis of these legislations will give an indication of how land distribution was governed by previous governments and the current legislations within which land reform is implemented. The chapter will also unravel whether there is a need to review some of the legislations.

## **CHAPTER 3**

# THE STATUTORY AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORK PERTAINING TO LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Through the land reform programme, the South African Government has developed land and agrarian-related policies and programmes, and passed several pieces of legislations with the aim of redressing inequalities in land distribution caused by apartheid laws. Using the methodological framework developed and presented in Chapter 2, this chapter provides an overview of the policies, legislations and regulations that make up the legal framework governing land reform in South Africa. This perspective is necessary to provide a second set of data for research triangulation purposes and provides statutory criteria which could be utilised to gauge and analyse post-settlement land reform challenges in the Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration, Mpumalanga Province.

This chapter provides a brief overview of each of piece of legislation and regulatory documentations. An analysis of the legislation is critical to understand the actions of previous and current governments in their quest to secure land. The Native Land Act (27 of 1913) was the first formal Act to forcefully take land away from the country's majority of the black population and the Act is the fundamental feature of the current land distribution issue. The chapter serves as the second leg in data triangulation (the first being the theoretical orientation in chapter 2) and provide the statutory and regulatory criteria to gauge the level of post-settlement support as the focus of this study.

The South African Constitution of 1996 and the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 marked the departure from the country's past history of land dispossession. Through this Act, black people were able to get their land back or in a position to apply for compensation for the lost land. New legislation addresses the problems surrounding the dispossession of land in this country.

It must be noted that there are two key departments that have been mandated by Government in ensuring the successful implementation of the Land Reform Programme in South Africa, namely, the Department of Land Reform and Rural Development (DRDLR) and the Department of Agriculture (DoA). DRDLR is responsible for land acquisition and DoA for post-settlement support. The DoA, like other departments, derives its core mandate from section 37(ii) of the Constitution and is currently responsible for over 30 pieces of legislation (DoA, 2003:14). The scope of the mandate of the national Department of Agriculture includes all economic activities from the provision of agricultural production inputs, agroprocessing, veterinary services, forestry and provision of agricultural extension advice to farmers. As such, the sector is continuously subjected to changes in the production technologies and marketing environment. Thus, the policies and legislative environment that governs the sector therefore need to continuously be adjusted through amendments and replacement of some archaic stipulations so as to speak to the current mandate as well as the international obligations of the Department (DoA, 2003:14). The chapter will conclude by exploring legislation that regulates the provision of the post-settlement support in land reform projects.

#### 3.2 STATUTORY FRAMEWORK ON LAND ACQUISITION

The statutory framework on land acquisition provides a legal framework for land acquisitions and usage for the purpose of land reform in South Africa. This framework has been passed by the South African national legislature and includes amongst others the South African Constitution of 1996, Acts and other national legislation.

## 3.2.1 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The Constitution supersedes all the other laws in the country. Section 25 of the 1996 Constitution marked a departure from the past by re-conceptualising access to land for the previously disadvantaged as a basic human right (Commission for Gender Equality, 2009:12). It provided the legal foundation for the state's land reform programme. Schedules 4 and 5 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

and in accordance with Section 104(1)(b) the Constitution places a duty on Government to take steps that would enable citizens to gain access to land (South Africa, 1996). It creates a constitutional mandate for the Department of Land Affairs, together with the Commission on Restitution of Land Rights to ensure that there is equitable land distribution and security of tenure among South Africans and that the injustices of land dispossessions dating back to 19 June 1913 are effectively addressed (DLA, 2005:6). The three pillars of the South African Land reform programme (redistribution, restitution and tenure reform) have their base in the South African Constitution, particularly Section 25(5-7).

Section 25 of the Constitution establishes the framework for the implementation of land reform (DRDLR, 2010:8). Section 25(5) deals with equitable access to land (land distribution); Section 25(6) addresses restitution; 25(7) concerns security of tenure; and Section 25(8) identifies land, water and related reforms (Saunders, 2003:38).

As stated in the Constitution (South Africa, 1996):

Section 25(1): No one may be deprived of property, except in terms of law of general application, and no law may permit arbitrary deprivation of property. Section 25(2): Property may be expropriated only in terms of law of general application -

- a) for a public purpose or in the public interest; and
- b) subject to compensation, the amount of which and the time and manner of payment of which have either been agreed to by those affected or decided or approved by a Court.

#### Section 25 (3):

The amount of the compensation and the time and manner of payment must be just and equitable, reflecting an equitable balance between the public interest and the interest of those affected, having regard to all relevant circumstances, including -

- (a) the current use of the property;
- (b) the history of the acquisition and use of the property;
- (c) the market value of the property;

- (d) the extent of direct State investment and subsidy in the acquisition and beneficial capital improvement of the property; and
- (e) the purpose of the expropriation.

#### Section 25 (4):

For the purposes of this section -

(a) the public interest includes the nation's commitment to land reform, and to reforms to bring about equitable access to South Africa's natural resources; and (b) property is not limited to land.

## Section 25 (5):

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 (6):

A person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure or to comparable redress.

#### Section 25 (7):

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 (8):

No provision of this section may impede the State from taking legislative and other measures to achieve land, water and related reform, in order to redress the results of past racial discrimination, provided that any departure from the provisions of this section is in accordance with the provisions of Section 36 (1).

Land rights are enshrined in the Constitution and found mainly within the context of property rights, although property is not limited to land (South African Human Rights Commission, 2007). It is further argued that land rights are largely shaped by the tension between protecting existing property rights and the need to achieve justice and equity in access to property (Saunders, 2003:38). However, within the same

context, the SAHRC argues that the implementation of these measures continues to highlight the tension involved in protecting existing property rights, while on the other hand attempting to bring about equity and justice in access to land on the other (SAHRC, 2007).

According to Saunders (2003:39), the first part of property rights in the Constitution deals with protecting existing rights to property and section 25(1) states that "no one may be deprived of property except in terms of law of general application, and no law may permit arbitrary deprivation of property". Thus the section can be seen both as protecting existing private property rights as well as serving the public interest, mainly in the sphere of land reform but not limited thereto and also as striking a proportionate balance between these two functions (Dlamini, 2008:18).

It is significant to note that the remaining sections of the Constitution identify circumstances under which interference with property rights may be justifiable (Saunders, 2003:39). Section 25(2a) requires that property only be expropriated in terms of a law of general application for a "public purpose" or in the "public interest". Section 25(4)(a) specifically provides that the "public interest" includes land reform, which is defined to include the nation's commitment to land reform and to bring equitable access to all South Africa's natural resources (Dlamini, 2008:21). Saunders (2003:39) argues further that Section 25(2)(a), together with section 25(4)(a), consider land reform to be a justifiable ground for interference with property rights. Section 25(I) (b) requires that where expropriation of land occurs, there must be some form of compensation to the land owners and section 25(3) specifically deals with the nature of compensation, and includes the determination of the value compensation.

As stated above, section 25(5) deals with land distribution. This section of the property clause, according to Dlamini, imposes a positive obligation on the state to enhance accessibility to land and it also creates a socio-economic right for those in need of land to call on the state to act and make land accessible (Dlamini, 2008:16). He (Dlamini) further points out that the Constitution manifests the moral, social and economic bases for rural land redistribution (Dlamini, 2008:22) by empowering the government to redistribute land and it specifies the mechanisms by which to

implement land redistribution. While Section 25(6) deals with those people or communities whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices (South Africa, 1996). The Labour Tenants Act 3 of 1996, and the Property Association Act 28 of 1996 and Extension of Security of Tenure Act 62 of 1997 (ESTA) to be discussed in the next section, all serve this purpose (Rungasamy, 2011:22).

Land restitution is dealt with in section 25(7) of the Constitution. It ensures that those that were dispossessed of their land properties after 19 June 1913 are given their land back through the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994. Furthermore, section 25(8) of the Constitution states that "no provision of this section may impede the state from taking legislative and other measures to achieve land, water and related reform, in order to redress the results of past racial discrimination" (South Africa, 1996). This section of the Constitution, as argued by Dlamini (2008:19), unambiguously contemplates proactive steps by the legislature and other governmental bodies to implement land reform and address the harms that emanated from land dispossession. Thus, Section 25 strikes a balance between the interests of property holders and the general public interest. It also empowers the state to redress the injustices of the past through redistribution of land and other natural resources to the advantage of the previously deprived (Hall et al., 2007). In essence, the Constitution laid a bases or foundation for the existence of land reform in South Africa and it has been used as a guideline in further developments of land reform policies and legislations. Several policy developments took place related to land redistribution, restitution and tenure reform programmes.

In South Africa, the struggle for socio-economic and political liberation started as early as the Dutch colonialism which sparked the initial process of land dispossession triggered by the colonialist's needs for raw materials. The Native Land Act of 1913 was one of the apartheid laws passed in June 1913 by the Union Government. The Act formed an important part of the apartheid system. It is thus of critical importance for this study to critique and analyse this piece of legislation within the context of land reform and its impact on the current land reform programme.

#### **3.2.2 The Natives Land Act 27 of 1913**

As discussed in the previous chapter, the colonial and apartheid governments passed laws aimed to restrict access and control over land resources by black Africans. It is said the Natives Land Act of 1913, which subsequently renamed the Bantu Land Act was the first major piece of segregation legislation passed by the Union Parliament, and remained a cornerstone of Apartheid until the 1990s when it of replaced by the current policy land restitution was (http://ndr.org.za/cultures/stories/403:para3). The Natives Land Act, 1913 (subsequently renamed Bantu Land Act, 1913 and Black Land Act 27 of 1913 was aimed at regulating the acquisition of land by "natives", that is, black people. The Act defined a "native" as "any person, male or female, who is a member of an aboriginal race or tribe of Africa; and shall further include any company or other body of persons, corporate or un-corporate, if the persons who have a controlling interest therein are natives." (www.sahistory.org.za/topic/natives land Act-1913: para 27). It was officially conceived as a first stage in drawing a permanent line between Africans and non-Africans. The Act formed an important part of the system of apartheid and is of importance for both legal and historical reasons, as it became a critical edifice in the construction of racially and spatially divided South Africa (Mahlangeni, 2013:3). The Act ordered that a small portion of the South African land, which totalled to 13%, could be owned by natives. In her opening address during the 2013 mining indaba, the Minister of Minerals Resources, Ms Shabangu remarked that of the most repressive laws enacted by the apartheid regime was the Natives Land Act which created a system of land tenure that deprived the majority of South Africa's inhabitants of the right to own land which had major socio-economic repercussions (DMR, 2013). Paragraph 27 of the Act further contends that the most catastrophic provision for Africans was the prohibition from buying or hiring 93% of land in South Africa. In essence, Africans despite being more in number were confined to ownership of 8% South Africa's land and was excluded from the rest of the country. When the Native and Land Trust Act were passed in 1936, this was increased to 13%. This percentage of land was owned by 80% of the population and while 20% of the population owned more than 80% of land (DLA, 1997).

Furthermore, the South African History online points out that the Act dictated that no African farmer should get land out of the reserves. Section 1, sub section 'a' of the 1913 Natives Land Act states that "a native shall not enter into any agreement or transaction for the purchase, hire, or other acquisition from a person other than a native, of any such land or of any right thereto, interest therein, or servitude there over." (www.sahistory.org.za/topic/natives land Act 1913:27). However, Africans were permitted to buy and sell land in reserves or scheduled areas while whites were prohibited from owning land in these places as the Act stated:

"A person other than a native shall not enter into any agreement or transaction for the purchase, hire, or other acquisition from a native of any such land or of any right thereto, interest therein, or servitude there over".

Arguably the most visible impact of the Act was the unequal distribution of land between blacks and whites (Saunders, 2011:26) and the Africans were denied access to land which they owned or had been leasing from White farmers meanwhile African farm workers struggled to hold on to a land of their own, no matter how small the piece was (SA History, 2007: internet source). Thus, the impact of the Land Act to black people was profound. It dispossessed and locked black people in servitudes. It has been explained that its major portion was intended to reduce Natives to 'serfs', which the Thesaurus online dictionary defines "as an agricultural labourer bound under the feudal system to work on his lord's estate in return for legal or customary rights". African people forced to move to the reserves often could not find enough fertile land to use for crops. It is argued that through this Act, the position of African farmers was further weakened when the Government began to offer low interests loans to white farmers only to make improvements to their farms and buy agricultural machineries (Natives Act, 1913). This destroyed the African peasantry and it was an impediment for economic independence of many Africans and by 1936, the majority of the African farmers have migrated to white farms as labourers as they could not afford the capital for production (Natives Act, 1913). Subsequent Acts such as the Urban Areas Act (1923), the Natives and Land Trust Act (1936) and the Group Areas Act (1950) reinforced the land dispossession and segregation in South Africa (SA History, 2007:internet source). By the end of apartheid, approximately 82 million hectares of commercial farmland were in the hands of white people (Rungasamy, 2011:18). These segregation policies were active until 1994, when the new democratic elected party took over and through the South African Constitution of 1996, the legacy of apartheid dispossession of land in South Africa was dealt with.

## 3.2.3 Legislations pertaining to land distribution

The Provision of Land for Settlement Act, 126 of 1993 provides a framework within which land for settlement can be demarcated or zoned (DLA, 2010). The Land Distribution Programme, which is the largest component of the land reform programme in South Africa, is implemented in terms of this Act (DLA, 1997).

This Act according to the Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs (2006:21) also provides for the acquisition of land for settlement purposes and production purposes and further provides financial assistance to people acquiring land for productive and settlement purposes. The grant system designed to assist beneficiaries to purchase the land from the willing sellers is being regulated by the provision of this Act. In 1998, the Act was amended to allow for land to be purchased without necessarily being designated and thus the Act also makes allowance for commonage land acquired by municipalities to be funded (MALA, 2006:21). The amended legislation also provides the Minister of Land Affairs with the power to expropriate land in line with section 25 (4) of the Constitution (DLA, 2009:15).

The restitution programme through the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 marked the welcome departure from the country's past history of land dispossession as it provides the right for people to own land dispossessed in the past by the Apartheid regime.

## 3.2.4 Legislation pertaining to restitution

The Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (as amended in 1997) set the legal basis for restitution and is provided for by the 1993 (interim) Constitution, as indicated Section 25(7) of the 1996 Constitution and the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 (as amended in 1997) (Lahiff, 2001:3). The Act provides for restitution

of land rights to persons or communities dispossessed of such rights after 19 June 1913 in terms of past racially discriminatory laws or practices (DLA, 1997). The strategic objectives of the CRLR include the following (Rungasamy, 2011:27):

- to provide equitable redress to victims of racial land dispossession in terms of the Restitution Act;
- to provide access to rights in land, including land ownership and sustainable development;
- to foster national reconciliation and stability; and
- to improve household welfare, underpinning economic growth, contributing to poverty alleviation.

In his policy brief report on land reform, Lahiff (2001:3) argues that this Act also provides for the establishment of a Commission on Restitution of Land Rights (sections 4 to 21) and a Land Claims Court (sections 22 to 38), and providing for all related matters. According to Du Plessis (2006:20), the Act makes provision for three broad categories of relief for claimants: restoration of land under claim, granting of alternative land or financial compensation. Claimants can also receive preferential access to state development projects. According to Section 2 of the Act, all claimants are entitled to restitution of a right in land if (DLA, 1997):

- the claimant was unfairly dispossessed of land after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices;
- it is a deceased estate dispossessed of right in land after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices;
- the claimant was not paid just and equitable compensation; and
- the claim was for such restitution lodged not later than December 31, 1998.

The Act further states that no person shall be entitled to restitution of a right to land if a just and equitable compensation as contemplated in section 25(3) of the Constitution; or any other consideration which is just and equitable, calculated at the time of dispossession of such rights, was received in respect of such dispossession (DLA,1997).

In 1997, the RLRA was amended to bring it into line with the new Constitution, allowing the Claimants direct access to the Land Claims Court and giving the Minister of Land Affairs greater powers to settle claims by negotiations (Rungasamy, 2011:26). These legislative changes contributed to a considerable acceleration in the settlement of claims.

Although the RLRA was enacted ahead of the finalisation of the 1996 Constitution, it remains the key law to regulate land restitution from the beginning to the end of the process (Du Plessis, 2006:21). However, it is not the responsibility of the RLRA to ensure pre-settlement and post-settlement support; these are the mandates of the DLA either in terms of the provisions of the RLRA. He (Du Plessis) asserted that, in order for land restitution to be sustainable and conducive to environmental protection, the RLRA must at least provide for a feasibility study or the meeting of minimum environmental requirements before a land claim process commences (Du Plessis, 2006:21).

The tenure reform programme as the third leg of land reform, constitutional provision was made requiring the state to pass an Act of Parliament providing for security of tenure to those with insecure use of land. The Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act of 1996 therefore provides for the protection of the rights of labour tenants and gives them the right to claim land (DLA, 1997). The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act 31 of 1996 and ESTA provide protection of people with untitled land rights.

## 3.2.5 Legislation pertaining to tenure reform

The Labour Tenants Act (LTA), 3 of 1996 provides labour tenants with a protection against unfair eviction, and gives them the right to acquire ownership of either the land they currently occupy, or suitable alternative land (DLA, 1997). This Act provides labour tenants and their associates' protection against unfair and arbitrary evictions and gives them the right to acquire ownership of the land they currently occupy by submitting labour tenant claims and these applications according to the Act had to have been lodged by 31 March 2001 (Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2006:49). The role of the state, according to the Ministry, is to act as a

facilitator in the purchasing of land, thereby making the land acquisition grants support and finance available (Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2006:49). In order to qualify for any of the protective measures in the act, a prospective applicant therefore first has to prove that he or she is a labour tenant as defined in the Act (Van der Walt, 2005:312). Those labour tenants that qualify in terms of the requirements set in Section 1 of the Tenure Act may then apply for an award of land rights and for financial assistance.

According to the Land Reform (Labour Tenants) Act of 1996 (Act 3 of 1996), the criteria for qualification includes (people have) (DLA, 1997):

- the right to occupy and use land notwithstanding the provisions of any other law, but subject to the provisions of subsection (2), a person who was a labour tenant on 2 June 1995 shall have the right with his or her family members:
  - to occupy and use that part of the farm in question which he or she or his or her associate was using and occupying on that date; and
  - to occupy and use that part of the farm in question of which right was granted to him or her in terms of this Act or any other law.
- the right of a labour tenant to occupy and to use a part of a farm as contemplated in subsection (1) together with his or her family members may only be terminated in accordance with the provisions of this Act, and shall terminate subject to the provisions of subsection (3) to (7), by the waiver of his or her rights subject to the provisions of subsection (4) and (5) on his or her death.

According to Saunders (2011:35), land tenure reform is a particularly complex process and involves the interests in land and the form that these interests should take. She (Saunders) argues further that, the Constitution guarantees that a person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of parliament, either to tenure which is legally secure, or to comparable redress (Saunders, 2011:35-36).

In terms of this Act, labour tenants are protected from eviction and they have a right to reside or acquire the ownership of the land. However, despite the introduction this new legislation, DLA has reported that the eviction of labour tenants is still prevalent.

The Interim Protection of Informal Land Rights Act, 31 of 1996 (IPILRA), was an interim measure instituted to protect the position of people with untitled land rights, aimed at disposing state land to people who actually own but have limited rights to the land pending a more comprehensive reform (DLA, 1997). Therefore, it is a shortterm measure to protect people with insecure tenure from losing their rights to land and it was meant to apply for only two years. According to DLA, the Act provides that people may not be deprived of an "informal right to land" without their consent except by expropriation (DLA, 1997). It is stated that the majority of the population in the socalled former homelands now called Provinces such as Limpopo and Mpumalanga live on land held under the tribal communal tenure and their land are registered in the name of the state, and in terms of section 25 (6) of the Constitution, the demand for restoration of this land and mineral rights constitutes the majority of tenure cases (ANC, 2012:6-7). The IPILRA was used as an instrument or interim measure to deal with development decisions which required Ministerial consent, while the waiting for CLARA to be finalised (MALA, 2006:42). The IPILRA required the consent of the land users before it is disposed of.

The Communal Land Rights Act, 28 of 1996 was promulgated on 14 July 2004. The Communal Land Rights Act 6 (CLARA), as described by Cousins and Hall (2011) was intended to give effect to Section 25(6) and (9) of the Constitution. The aim of CLARA was to provide for legal security of tenure through a process of transferring the communal land to communities or persons, usually on land held for communities by designated community leaders. Secondary aims were to award comparable redress where such transfer was not practicable; the conduct of land inquiries to determine the transition from old order rights to new order rights; the democratic administration of communal land; the establishment of land rights boards; and cooperation of municipalities in respect in respect of communal land (Lethobeng, 2011). The Communal Property Associations (CPA) Act 28 of 1996 enables communities or groups to acquire, hold and manage property under a written constitution.

The Extension of Security of Tenure Act was passed in November 1997. The Act provides tenure security to occupiers who live on someone else's land with the consent of the owner or person in charge by preventing unfair evictions. Lahiff (2006:2) states that Section 4 allows farm dwellers to apply for grants for on-off farm infrastructure development, while section 26 allows the Minister to expropriate land for such development. Occupiers can also acquire land in terms of section 4 of this Act and where they have to be relocated, suitable alternative accommodation should be available. Section 4 of ESTA allows farm dwellers to apply for grants for on-farm or off-farm developments (e.g. housing), while section 26 grants the Minister of Land Affairs to expropriate land for such developments (Lahiff, 2000:5).

The Land Titles Adjustment Act 111 of 1993 aims to provide registered title to one or more people who claim to be owners of land but do not possess registered title deed or a proof of ownership as a result of restrictive legislations or predecessor to effect transfer. Information about such land may be obtained from any person who is aware of land of which the rightful owner cannot be identified, or from a person who lays claim to ownership without having proof (DAFF, 2009).

The Land Administration Act 2 of 1995 commenced on 6 April 1995. The Act provides for the delegation of powers and the assignment of the administration of laws regarding land matters to the provinces, and for the creation of uniform land legislation.

## 3.3 STATUTORY FRAMEWORK ON POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT

The government has endorsed a statutory framework for post-settlement support for agriculture-related activities or projects. This framework includes the agricultural legislation that provides the guidelines for the provision of post-settlement support to agricultural projects including the land reform projects.

## 3.3.1 Agricultural related legislation

As stipulated by DAFF (2007:29) in their strategic plan of 2007-2008, the following list of Acts reflects the legislative mandate of the National and Provincial Departments of Agriculture. These include but are not limited to the following:

- Fertilisers, Farm Feeds, Agricultural Remedies and Stock Remedies Act 36 of 1947, which provides for the registration and regulation of fertilizers, farm feeds, agricultural remedies, stock remedies, sterilizing plants and pest control operators;
- Regulations for townships in Black Areas, 1962 (Proclamation R293 of 1962)
   which administers and control towns in the former homeland areas;
- Animal Protection Act 71 of 1962 which relates to the prevention and protection of animals against any form of cruelty;
- Medicines and Related Substances Control Act 101 of 1965 which makes provision for the registration and control of medicine intended for human and animal use and the registration of medical devices;
- Physical Planning Act 88 of 1967 which promotes co-ordinated environmental planning and utilisation of resources and for the control of the use of land;
- Land Regulations, 1969 (Proclamation R188 of 1967), which administers land development in tribal areas;
- Stock Theft Act 54 of 1972 that provides for the prevention of and control of theft of livestock;
- Foodstuffs, Cosmetics and Disinfectants Act 54 of 1972 which controls the sale, manufacture and importation of foodstuffs, cosmetics and disinfectants.
   This act protects the consumer against foodstuff that is harmful or detrimental to his/her health (including products from animal origin);
- Plant Breeders Rights Act 15 of 1976, which regulates registration of plants;
- Plant Improvement Act 53 of 1976, which regulates the improvements of plants;
- Health Act 63 of 1977, which provides for various issues associated with human health including the hygiene requirements for food premises and the transporting of food (products of animal origin);

- Veterinary and Para-Veterinary Professions Act 19 of 1982 which provides for the registration and control of people practising a veterinary profession and para-veterinary profession, which include veterinarians, animal health technicians and laboratory technologists. Animal Identification Act 6 of 2002 provides for the registration of animal identification marks and matters related to it;
- Conservation of Agricultural Resources Act 43 of 1983, which provides framework for the protection of all natural resources such as water, soil and vegetation. Good sustainable farming practices are promoted through the use of this legislation;
- Perishable Products Exports Control Act 9 of 1983 which regulates the control of export of perishable products;
- Agricultural Products Standards Act 119 of 1990 which provides for the standardisation of quality norms for agricultural and related products.
- Animal Diseases Act 35 of 1992 which provides measures for the control of animal diseases as well as animal parasites and promotes animal health;
- Abattoir Hygiene Act 121 of 1992 which provide standards for maintenance of hygiene in abattoirs.
- Provision of Land for Settlement Act, 126 of 1993, which provides a framework within which land for settlement can be demarcated, zoned and supported (Clause 10);
- The Marketing of Agricultural Products Act 47 of 1996 which provides for the establishment and enforcement of regulatory measures to intervene in the marketing of agricultural products, including the introduction of levies on agricultural products;
- Livestock Improvement Act 62 of 1998 which provides for the breeding, identification and utilisation of genetically superior animals in order to improve the production and performance of animals in the interest of South Africa;
- National Water Act 36 of 1998, which regulates water allocation; and
- Meat Safety Act 40 of 2000 which promotes meat safety and safety of animal products, which includes standards in respect of abattoirs and the importation and exportation of meat.

This concludes a brief overview of the most pertinent legislation providing a statutory framework for land reform in South Africa. In the next section, focus will shift to the regulatory framework for land reform.

## 3.4 THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK FOR LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

The regulatory framework for Land Reform in South Africa regulates the access, usage of land and the provision of post-settlement in land reform projects. This framework includes policy guideline documents, strategies and programmes. For the purpose of the study, these policy documents include amongst others the White and Green papers, and programmes. It is of critical importance to analyse the significance of these policy documents as well as the degree to which they impacted on the implementation of land reform in South Africa.

## 3.4.1 The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), 1994

In its 1994 election manifesto, the new democratic-elected government adopted the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) as a policy framework to achieve a broad transformation of South African society (ANC, 1994). This Programme provided a framework aimed at the redressing the apartheid land distribution injustices and it also provided a set of guidelines and principles that gave direction to the initial process of formulating the land reform policy and programme (ANC, 1994). The Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) aims for land reform was to raise incomes and productivity through better use of land and to ensure security of tenure for rural dwellers, eliminate overcrowding and to supply residential and productive land to the poorest section of the rural population (www.nda.agric.za/docs/Policy/policy98.htm.)

According to Rungasamy (2011:25), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) Policy Framework document stated that:

"A national land reform programme is the central and driving force of a programme of rural development.... [I]n implementing the national land reform programme...the

democratic government will build the economy by generating large-scale employment, increasing rural incomes and eliminating overcrowding"

Thus, the policy framework envisages that such a programme would effectively address the injustices of forced removals and the historical denial of access to land (Dlamini, 2008:15). It is further argued that the land reform process was seen not only to be a decisive element of the ideological transition, it was also held to be one of the conditions of political, economic and social stabilisation of the country (Anseeuw & Alden, 2011:16). It is through this policy framework that the ANC committed itself to redistributing 30% of the agricultural land by 2014.

In order to meet this objective, since the democratic elections several economic policies have been developed. The 1997 White Paper on Land Policy is an outcome of this extensive consultation and has since been used by government to provide guidelines in the implementation of land reform in South Africa.

## 3.4.2 White Paper on South African Land Policy, 1997

The White Paper on South African Land Policy was initially developed in 1991 by the Government of the National Party. This land policy called for the abolition of all apartheid land laws. Some of the important laws repealed by the Act included the 1913 and 1936 Land Acts, the Group Areas Act, the Asiatic Land Tenure Act and the Black Communities Development Act of 1988 (Weideman, 2004:3). He (Weideman) argues further that although the policy was welcomed, the mere repeal of this legislation could not address the extreme inequities in access to land as there was a danger that racially based economic inequities would be entrenched under the guise of racially neutral laws (Weideman, 2004:3). A number of important acts were not repealed. As such, the policy went to further reviews through the Advisory Commission on Land Allocation.

As discussed in the previous section, the RDP provided a set of guidelines that gave the direction to the process of formulating the land reform policy and programme, the formulation of laws and policies were then consolidated in April 1997. As a result of this consolidation, the White Paper was developed and published in the Government

Gazette in 1997(DLA, 1997). It sets out a vision for the implementation strategy for South Africa's land policy dealing with, both in urban and rural environments (Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2006:3).

The White Paper provided for the redistribution of 30 percent or 24.6 million hectares of privately owned commercial agricultural land over five years as one of its aims. In 1997, through this policy framework, the Government adopted the White Paper on South African Land Policy to inform land reform in this country, and its primary aim was to achieve a more equitable distribution of land ownership (DLA, 1997). There are three key pillars in South Africa's post-1994 land reform policy that reflects the constitutional pronouncement around land matters, namely: land redistribution, land tenure reform and land restitution. According to the White Paper, the land policy was pronounced with four objectives (DLA, 1997), namely:

- to correct past injustices of the past;
- to engender reconciliation and stability;
- to promote economic growth; and
- to improve to improve household welfare and alleviate poverty.

Issues that impact on land policy were identified, such as market-driven reform, the statutory framework within which land reform has to occur and environmental issues (DLA, 2001:20). However, in the past 15 years since its inception, this policy has failed to realise some of its objectives. For instance, PLAAS, 2011 argues that very little land has been redistributed; many land reform projects have failed to help create sustainable livelihoods, rural employment has plummeted and evictions have rocketed. Furthermore, land is still under the ownership of the white minority and by 2011 only 25% of the 30% of agricultural land has been transferred through restitution claims and redistribution (DRDLR, 2011). This is against the backdrop of the 30% aimed for distribution by 2014. During the ANC's national policy conference in Polokwane, the party through its President, J.G. Zuma declared that reinvigorating rural development and land reform was one of its most important priorities and a critical pillar of South Africa's programme of economic transformation (DLA, 2008). He announced a need for a new policy framework that will replace the 1997 white

paper on land policy; hence the draft of a green paper on land policy was necessary, which after public comments will become an official policy replacing the 1997 White Paper on Land Policy.

## 3.4.3 Green Paper on Land Policy, 2011

In 2011, the Department of Rural Development embarked on the process of a policy review of the 1997 White Paper on South African Land Policy as well as other programmes. The Green Paper of 2011 is said to be a draft policy which will become an official policy as a White Paper, replacing the White Paper on South African Land Policy of 1997. The policy is still at its draft stage and has just been released by the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform for further comments by the public. According to DLA (2011), the Paper attempts to generate ideas and responses to the policy questions facing land reform such as: why should the state continue to invest in transforming land relations: how important is land reform in South Africa today: is South Africa still primarily an agrarian society; with the extent of the historic dispossession and transformation of the majority of the dispossessed into wage-workers; is there an agreement about - the demand for land in South Africa and the purpose and prospective beneficiaries of land reform; and, can land reform represent a radical and rapid break from the past without significantly disrupting agricultural production and food security (DLA, 2011).

According to DLA (2011), the Green Paper proposes an improved trajectory for land reform which is supported by the following programmes and institutions: "a recapitalisation and development programme; a single land tenure system with four tiers; a Land Management Commission; a Land Valuer–General and a Land Rights Management Board" (DLA, 2012:11). It further argues that the change agenda pursued in the Green Paper is that "in order to create a new trajectory for land reform, a set of proposals are put forward which attempts to break from the past without significantly disrupting agricultural production and food security, and avoid redistributions that do not generate livelihoods, employment and income (DLA, 2011:12). According to DLA's Green paper, 2011, the Green Paper focuses on seven key areas, namely:

- a vision for land reform;
- principles underlying land reform;
- current challenges and weaknesses: rationale for change;
- an improved trajectory for land reform (including institutions to support land reform);
- the strategic thrust for land reform;
- land reform experiences elsewhere; and
- challenges and constraints of the land reform programme.

However, it seems that the Green Paper is still lacking guidance on how it will improve on the challenges that have been experienced on land reform in South Africa. Since its release, the paper has received criticism for its lack of clarity and outright avoidance on many critical issues in need of attention and some critics have labelled the document as being "insubstantial and vague". The Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS) (2011: para 3) is of the opinion that the policy fails to provide an analysis of the nature and shortcomings of land reform policy. The organisation (PLAS) indicated the following weak points to the draft policy (PLAAS) (2011: para 4):

- no guidance is given as to how the state plans to acquire land for acquisition;
- no answer is given on the status of the 'willing-buyer-willing-seller' model, no clarity is given as to when, and under what condition, will the state use expropriation as a way to acquire land;
- the four tier tenure system proposed by the Green paper will not solve any of the tenure systems faced by poor and marginalised South Africans;
- no policy justification is given for singling out non-nationals for conditional and curtailed property rights;
- the Paper provides no policy direction on how to solve the conflicts around the tenure rights of the two main rural constituencies: the 16 million people residing under communal tenure in the ex-Bantustans and the 3 million farm dwellers living on privately-owned commercial farms; and
- no useful guidance is provided as to how the implementation of land reform is
   to support sustainable livelihoods. The measures that are proposed a

recapitalisation programme, and partnerships with commercial farms – already exist, are implementable only in a few cases and will not resolve the systemic and deep-seated failures of the Government to provide coherent support to smallholder farming.

In the same vein, Agri-SA also raised their dissatisfaction with the Green Paper. They (Agri-SA) argued that the concept of production discipline on the draft policy is no guarantee for national food security and it cautions that whatever approach the government decides upon, greater care should be taken not to harm the investor confidence or endanger food security (Agri-SA, 2011:3). It is suggested that the government should complete this process taking into consideration the views of the public and enact a comprehensive land tenure reform to provide the proper foundation for development interventions. The key focus should be on ensuring how to get the implementation right, as Agri-SA suggests.

#### 3.4.4 Constitutional Mandates

The issue of food security has been critical in many parts of the world including South Africa. Access to food has always been a political issue in South Africa and the right to food is enshrined in international and national law (DAFF, 2011:1). In South Africa, food security received much attention after 1994 when South Africa became a democratic country. The right to "sufficient food" has been part of the Constitution since it was re-written in 1996, and was embedded in Section 26 and 27 of the South African Constitution. Section 27b of the Constitution states (South Africa, 1996):

"Everyone has the right to have access to sufficient food and the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right".

The White Paper on Land Policy further states that Government has a responsibility to provide assistance to land reform beneficiaries with farm credit, inputs and advice may be needed to facilitate the productive use of land (DLA, 1997). In the same vein, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and the Growth,

Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) of the Government of South Africa further articulated the importance of food security by providing the strategic framework for action to achieve food security for all (NDA, 1996, para: 7). The RDP's food security framework was refined in subsequent policy papers, such as the Agriculture White Paper (1995), BATAT, and the Agricultural Policy Discussion Document (1999), which were further consolidated and updated in the Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) of 1999, which is the policy of the Government of South Africa (IFSS, 2002:11). It is further argued that by establishing it (the right to food) in the most important legal documents of South Africa, the Government of South was obliged to ensure that even the most vulnerable members South African society could access adequate food (http://thinkafricapress.com/south-africa/right-food:para3).

In light of the above, the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries was mandated to develop agricultural policies and support programmes to ensure that South African citizens are given agricultural opportunities that will enable them to meet their basic food needs (DAFF, 2011:1). When land has been acquired and transferred to beneficiaries, it is the duty of the Department of Agriculture to provide the land reform beneficiaries with the support services through its various Agricultural support programmes. In the recent years, DAFF has developed and implemented support programmes and policies as an intervention to complement the land reform programmes and improve food security in the country. For the purpose of this discussion, the Agricultural Sector plan, (2001), the Integrated Food Security Strategy (2002), Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) (2005) and the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) (2009) will be discussed. These documents are critical in establishing a regulatory framework for land reform in South Africa.

## 3.4.4.1 Agricultural Sector Plan, 2001

The Sector Plan for South African Agriculture (November 2001) is a policy framework that guides the agricultural development imperatives in South Africa. In his State of the Nation Address on 9 February 2001, former President Thabo Mbeki indicated that "while balance and stability had been achieved at the macro level, the

growth rate of the economy was still too low". He (President) then announced an action plan to move the economy to a 'high-growth path'. "The plan should increase competitiveness and efficiency, raise employment levels and reduce persistent poverty and inequality" (Agricultural Sector Plan, 2001). In the same vein, the former President further indicated that these objectives could best be achieved through special attention within the Integrated Government Planning Framework to economic sectors demonstrating a high potential for growth and job creation(Agricultural sector Plan, 2001). He highlighted that agriculture, energy, tourism, cultural industries, certain export sectors (including agro-processing), and the information and telecommunications industry. The Agricultural Sector, described "as all activities relating to Agricultural input provision, farming and the processing and distribution activities that add value to farm products, remains an important sector in the South African economy despite its small direct share of the total gross domestic product" (NDA, 2001).

The sector plan was drafted in a consultative process with a wide range of stakeholders by the key strategic partners, namely, the National African Farmers' Union, Agri-SA and the Department of Agriculture. The process of developing the strategic plan was preceded by a number of government documents and other strategies. "All of these created a useful framework within which the agricultural sector strategy is shaped and included the following: The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy, The Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development Programme,1995 White Paper on Agriculture and the 1998 Discussion Document on Agricultural Policy"(NDA, 2011). According to the NDA (2001), the strategic sector plan has the following as its objectives:

- increased wealth creation in agriculture and rural areas;
- increased sustainable employment in agriculture;
- increased incomes and increased foreign exchange earnings;
- reduced poverty and inequalities in land and enterprise ownership;
- improved farming efficiency and improved national and household food security;
- stable and safe rural communities;

- sustained rural development; and
- improved investor confidence and greater domestic and foreign investment in agricultural activities and rural areas.

These objectives are to be achieved through the equitable access and participation as core strategy (Agricultural Sector Plan for Agriculture, 2001):

The objectives of this strategy are to enhance equitable access to and participation in agricultural opportunities; to deracialise land and enterprise ownership; and to unlock the full entrepreneurial potential in the sector. It focuses on land reform. The process of economic empowerment in South African agriculture starts with improved access to land and the vesting of secure tenure rights in people and to areas where these do not exist-all avenues of land access such as restitution, redistribution and tenure reform be given adequate attention, support services, start-up support packages for new entrants to farming, partnership and promotion of the sector (Agricultural Sector Plan for Agriculture, 2001).

The policy believes that new farmers are to be empowered to play a constructive role in the development of agriculture; it is necessary that they should have access to support. Key initiatives in this regard includes provision of post-settlement to farmers of land reform programme, improved market access and removal of market barriers to new entrants, enhanced transfer of technology to new farmers through one-stop farmer support centres at local level, improved access to a comprehensive range of rural financial services *via* outreach and efficiency of rural finance institutions (Agricultural Sector Plan for Agriculture, 2001).

## • Global competitiveness and profitability

The aim of this strategy is to enhance profitability through sustained global competitiveness in the agricultural sector's input supply, primary production, Agri-processing and Agri-tourism industries.

## • Sustainable resource management

This strategy aims to enhance farmers' capacities to use resources in a sustainable manner and to ensure the use and management of natural

resources. Priority programmes were identified for the implementation of the sector plan amongst others, where the fast tracking of the land redistribution programme for agricultural development (LRAD), transformation of system of agricultural technology development and transfer towards being more market responsive, establishment of accessible market information system that includes the economic analysis capacity in each province, and the implementation of the shared vision on labour and land reform.

The Agricultural Sector Plan has laid a foundation for Agriculture development in South Africa and in the recent years DAFF has developed policies and programs linked to the plan.

## 3.4.4.2 Integrated Food Security Strategy, 2002

The Constitution of South Africa, 1996 (Section 27) asserts that every citizen has a right to access sufficient food and water and that the state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to achieve the progressive realization of this right to sufficient food (South Africa,1996). In response to this imperative, the National Department of Agriculture in 2002 published the integrated food security strategy for South Africa. The strategy outlined by the Department of Agriculture aims, in accordance with Millennium Development Goals of eradicating hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by 2015 (DAFF, 2011:1). The purpose is therefore to ensure that all South Africans attains universal physical, social and economic access to sufficient and safe food to meet their dietary needs.

The Integrated Food Security Strategy (IFSS) of South Africa (2002:15) defines food security as the physical, social and economic access by all households at all times to adequate, safe and nutritious food and clean water to meet their dietary and food preferences for a healthy and productive life. Bonti-Ankomah (2001) explains that these definitions imply that either there will be an ability by an individual to be self-sufficient in food production through own production, or there will be accessibility to markets and ability to purchase food items. The strategy cited five key areas considered to be the key food security challenges in the country, namely: Inadequate safety nets, Weak Support Networks and Disaster Management Systems,

Inadequate and Unstable Household Food Production, Lack of purchasing power and poor Nutritional Status (IFSS, 2002:24-26).

Poverty and food insecurity in South Africa dates back to the 19<sup>th</sup> and the 20<sup>th</sup> century where colonial and apartheid policies were designed specifically to create general conditions unfavourable to the wellbeing of black people in all its aspects, especially in the former homelands (IFSS, 2002:18). As a result of these policies, black people lost their farming land and entrepreneurial activities and resorted to cheap labour in mines and white commercial farms. Poverty and food insecurity increased because black people no longer had the means to produce enough food on their own (DAFF, 2011). It is further argued that despite the country being considered self-sufficient in respect of food production, food insecurity continues to remain a substantive developmental challenge (DAFF, 2011). It is estimated that approximately 1.5 million South African children suffer from malnutrition, 14 million people are vulnerable to food insecurity and that 43% of households suffer from food poverty (DAFF, 2011:8).

In order to address these food security challenges facing South Africa, the strategy document identified the following strategic objectives (DAFF, 2011):

- increased household food production and trading;
- improved income generation and job creation opportunities;
- improve nutrition and food safety;
- increased safety nets and food emergency management systems;
- improved analysis and information management system; and
- provision of capacity building.

The strategy strives to ensure that related food security programmes are implemented by the Department to ensure food security for all. Programmes like Illima, zero hunger strategy, Masibuyele Emasimini and so forth, have widely been implemented by various Provinces. There is an interrelationship between land reform and food security. Achieving food security requires access, secure to, and control of land resources (Kepe &Terasso, 2012). However, it is argued that to date there are

no clear guidelines on the alignment between food security policies and land Agrarian reform. Some critics (Jacobs, 2003; Hall, 2004; Kepe & Terasso, 2012) further argue that where land reform is taking place, food security policies have not offered strategies to ensure economic growth and food security for all. This is cited by a lack of support services which includes infrastructural development, finances, skills development; and so forth. For land reform to be a success in South Africa, amongst others, (Kepe & Terasso, 2012) pointed out that South Africa needs a food security policy that is integrated with its land reform programme" and argues that food security and land reform policies should respect, and be based on, a broader understanding of dynamic land use practices in poor rural areas.

The Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) was developed as an intervention which aims to improve the quality of post-settlement support services as well as bridging the policy gap between land reform and agricultural development.

## 3.4.4.3 Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) policy framework, 2002

In order to address the challenges identified in land redistribution projects, namely the lack of post-settlement support, DoA and DLA introduced the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) as a policy framework to complement LRAD (Rungasamy, 2011:46). Its aim is to provide effective agricultural support and to streamline the provision of services to the targeted different levels of clients within the farming continuum (CASP, 2002:9). According to the Ministry of Agriculture (MALA, 2002:9), the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) draws its mandate from the recommendations of the Strauss Commission, 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. The purpose of the comprehensive agricultural support programme is therefore to establish financing mechanisms, referred to as "sunrise" subsidies and to streamline and align service delivery within three spheres of government by creating enabling conditions for beneficiaries through the "sunrise" package (DAFF, 2011:18).

The CASP concept document states that the programme deliverable is the financing mechanism and the alignment of support services that promote, support and facilitate agricultural development of targeted levels of clients within the six defined areas of support (CASP, 2002:10), namely: on- and off-farm infrastructure, information and knowledge management, financial assistance, technical and advisory services, training and capacity-building, and marketing and business development. According to the conditions of the grant, 70% of the budget allocation to Provincial Department of Agriculture (PDA) should be directed to land reform and 10% to food security programme. Provincial Departments of Agriculture have been given a mandate to implement the farmer support services within the CASP policy framework (LAMOSA, 2010:7).

However, according to the land access movement of South Africa (LAMOSA), some notable gains in terms of farmer support have been noted through CASP. The organisation argues further that one key limitation of the programme since inception in 2004 was "a lack of a holistic approach by implementers within the Provincial Departments, where emphasis has been on the provision of the on-farm infrastructure at the expense of other equally important support regimes such as marketing, skills development which compromises the full potential of CASP to act as a catalyst of growth for the beneficiaries of land reform programmes" (LAMOSA, 2010:8). This was confirmed by DAFF in their 2003-2005 CASP progress report, which acknowledged that the programme has been limited to on-off farm infrastructure only; yet the needs of the beneficiaries were more extensive and go beyond the infrastructure needs (DAFF, 2005:14). The policy has since undergone some reviews within vision of land and agrarian reform that is shared by agriculture and land affairs. It is against this background that the Comprehensive Rural Development framework was developed as a whole contingent to a large extent on improving the pace and quality outcomes of the Land and Agrarian Reform Programme.

### 3.4.4.4 Comprehensive Rural Development Framework, 2009

The initial concept of CRDP was developed by the Minister of DRDLD in 2009, based on the economic transformation resolutions taken at the 52<sup>nd</sup> policy

Conference of the African National Congress held at Polokwane, Limpopo Province in 2007. According to the strategy document (CRDP, 2009:6), a number of other key policies and legislations shaped the formulation of the Comprehensive Rural Development Programme(CRDP), including the National Rural Development Framework, the Constitution, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the Growth, Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR), the MTSF (2009-2014), the land reform programme, agricultural and economic development programmes, as well as other government programmes and non-governmental interventions.

The strategy further indicates that the basic thrust of the Government MTSF outlines 10 strategic priorities and the CRDP arises from the strategic objective number 3: comprehensive rural development strategy linked to land and agrarian reform and food security, which states that, there should be an aggressive implementation of land reform policies to ensure land reform is more coherently linked to the creation of livelihoods for the poor and that strategically located land is released for the most appropriate use without delay (CRDP, 2009:8).

According to the CRDP framework (2009:13), the strategic objective of the CRDP is to achieve social cohesion and development among the rural communities and is further aimed at being an effective response against poverty and food insecurity by maximizing the use and management of natural resources to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities. The CRDP hinges on a three-pronged strategy with interrelated objectives (CRDP, 2009:13-16):

- A coordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation, which includes amongst others, the use of appropriate technologies, modern approaches and indigenous knowledge systems, food security, dignity and improved quality of life for each rural household, facilitating the establishment of business initiatives, rural and agro-industries, cooperatives, cultural initiatives and vibrant local markets;
- Increased rural development, which includes social mobilisation to enable rural communities to take initiatives, non-farm activities for strengthening of

- rural livelihoods. Social cohesion and access to human and social capital, coordination, alignment and cooperative governance; and
- An improved land reform programme/strategy, which will focus on reviewing the Restitution, Redistribution and Tenure Reform. It includes the increased in the access to land by previously disadvantaged people through the redistribution of 30% of white-owned agricultural land, the productive use of transferred land to the landless, the effective development and beneficiation of land reform beneficiaries.

These objectives are interrelated, and are dependent on each other for the success implementation of the programme. Rural Development and Land Reform are the key strategic and socio-economic interventions of agrarian transformation. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform acts as an initiator, facilitator and coordinator and catalyst of the programme. "At Provincial Level, the Premier is the champion of the programme and he (Premier) may appoint an MEC with a rural development function to be the driver of the CRDP in the Province, with the Department of Agriculture, playing a leading role as a technical facilitator of the programme" (CRDP, 2009:24). All sector Departments by legislation are supposed to implement their programmes and projects within the CRDP framework.

#### 3.5 CONCLUSION

A sound land and agrarian policy is imperative for sustainable growth and development in South Africa. Land reform programmes should contribute to an increase in food production and poverty alleviation. As a cornerstone for reconstruction and development, the land policy should address the inequalities of land distribution resulting from the racially-based land policies of the Apartheid government. The South African Constitution of 1996 and White Paper on Land Policy of 1997 are the founding documents for Land Reform Programme in South Africa which should be viewed as a cornerstone in the development of our country. These policies provided the base for land reform in South Africa. With the efforts done so far by the Government on land acquisition, evidences still show that not enough has been done in ensuring equitable land distribution and sustainable development.

The Natives Land Act of 1913 and other Apartheid legislation are still evident in the post-Apartheid South Africa. As South Africa reached its 100 years after the passage of the Native Land Act (1913), it is still a matter of concern that land ownership in South Africa continues to be along racial lines. Land is still under the hands of the minority. Therefore, it is important that land redistribution be addressed swiftly as the radical land distribution may be pursued by politicians, which may lead to a violent land reform. Where land has been acquired, evidence of the 20 years shows that there has not been any notable agrarian transformation. Lands are still lying fallow without any production due to the lack agricultural support services.

A land and agrarian policy should therefore ensure accessible means of defined property rights and established norms and standards for land use planning which will provide the intended use of land. The success of these elements of the programme is dependent in the long run not only on access to land but also on ensuring that land is used productively. Coupled to this, is the provision of support services, infrastructural and other development programmes which is essential to improve the quality of life and the employment opportunities resulting from land reform. The Government therefore has a constitutional mandate to establish the necessary land and agrarian policies and legislations in order to address the injustices of the past in a manner that will contribute to reconstruction and development. The land reform programme should be aimed at achieving a better quality of life for all South Africans through the reduction of poverty, unemployment and inequality.

Against this background, the next chapter describes how DARDLA provides the post-settlement support to its land reform beneficiaries.

### CHAPTER 4

## AN ANALYSIS OF THE CURRENT LAND REFORM POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT: THE CASE OF DARDLA

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

In 1994, the new elected democratic Government inherited skewed racial inequalities in land distributions whereby the minority whites group owned the majority (87%) and blacks owned 13% of the productive agricultural land. To address these inequalities in land distribution, when the new government took over, it identified land reform as a key priority programme to act as a driving force for rural development and building the economy of the country. The priority was therefore not only to transfer more land to blacks, but also to ensure that the transferred land continued to be productive thereby continuing to reform the agricultural policy framework which made participation by the black population in agriculture so difficult in the past. In terms of the South African Constitution of 1996 Section 25, the government has the responsibility to ensure that land reform is implemented in a manner that will bring sustainable development and improve the livelihoods of the rural communities.

The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) and the Department of Agriculture (DoA), as government agencies, are the key Departments that have been entrusted to implement the land reform programme in collaboration with other stakeholders. DRDLR is responsible for the land acquisition and the latter (DOA) for the provision of the post-settlement support to the land reform beneficiaries in line with its mandate of ensuring food security for all. At a national sphere, these two departments (DRDLR and DOA) are responsible for policy developments and the provincial and the local sphere ensure that these policies are implemented.

The previous chapters have outlined and debated on the importance of post-settlement support as part of land reform. The chapters further outlined the intricate relationship between land distribution and post-settlement. If the land reform programme is to succeed, these two aspects (pre and post-settlement) have to be addressed simultaneously. However, various scholars argued that little or no attention is being given to ensure that there is proper post-settlement support after the restoration of land to ensure sustainable development. It is in this context that the role of DARDLA in providing the post-settlement support is analysed. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to describe and analyse the post-settlement support strategies provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries in Mpumalanga Province as a case study. The outcome of this chapter should assist DARDLA to critically review and analyse its policies taking into consideration the long-term ability to ensure food security, political stability and environmental sustainability.

## 4.2 AN OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF LAND REFORM IN MPUMALANGA PROVINCE

Mpumalanga is situated in the north-east of South Africa, borders with Mozambique and Swaziland in the east, and borders with KwaZulu-Natal and Free State in the south, Gauteng in the west, and Limpopo in the north. It consists of four districts, namely Ehlanzeni South and North (formerly known as Lowveld region), Gert Sibande and Nkangala district (formerly known as Highveld region) being the main land reform districts. According to the Stats SA's midyear report (2010), the province covers a vast surface area approximately 790,490 km², which is approximately 6.5 % of the surface area of South Africa (STATS, 2011:36). The population size of Mpumalanga is 4,039 million, which is 7, 8% of South African population (STATS, 2012). This makes the province the most populous province ahead of North-West, Free State and Northern Cape. Of the 4 039 939 people in Mpumalanga, 90.7% are African, 0.9% Coloured, 0.7% Indian and Asian, and 7.5% White (STATS, 2012).

Mpumalanga has a diverse economy with a comparative advantage in agriculture, construction, trade and mining (coal & platinum) sector. However, the Province is predominantly rural and most households depend on agriculture for living. According to the sector analysis done in 2010, the agricultural sector in Mpumalanga provides a

source of employment as well as being a potential focus for increased employment and sustainable livelihoods (Agri-seta, 2010). This sector accounts for 630 000 formal jobs in the province, which is equal to 8.1 of the total workforce (DARDLA, 2010). As a result, agriculture features as a key focus for economic development and growth and contributes 3.4% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the country (DARDLA, 2012). It has just less than 1 million (0.722m) hectares of highly productive commercial agricultural land in the hands of previously disadvantaged farmers transferred through land reform. The province is known for its forestry plantations and abundance of citrus and many other subtropical fruits such as mangoes, avocados, litchis and bananas in Ehlanzeni and is one of the largest citrus producing areas in South Africa, while the Highveld is dominant with grain crops and broiler production and Gert Sibande with crops like apples, grains and so forth.

A total of 4,840,940 hectares (63.2%) of the arable land 91% is owned by commercial farmers while 8.3% is under ownership of emerging farmers (DARDLA, 2010). According to the mid-year 2013 land reform report, since the inception of the land reform programme, a total of 1388116 hectares which accounts to 30% of the commercial land has been successfully transferred to beneficiaries through the various distribution land reform programmes (Land Claims Commissions, 2013). Land Redistribution Programme accounts for 44.7% while restitution constitutes 55.3% of the total hectares delivered to date (DRDLR, 2013). Since 1994 about 6,472 land claims were lodged and 1,502 claims (186,017 hectares) have been settled and transferred to claimants to date, from which 53535 households have benefitted and claimants received R453,174,795 in financial compensation (RLCC, 2013). The balance of 4970 claims was consolidated into 829 claims, which are still in various stages of validation. A total number of 58 land claims have been rejected.

The overview of the Land Reform Programme in the province explains why land reform is such an important programme and why it should be addressed in manner that addresses the questions of equitable land ownership as well as agricultural growth. While some achievements in land acquisition has been noted, the province acknowledges that it is far from reaching the target set of distribution of 30% in 2014. It is still more difficult for ordinary citizen or farmers who are living below the poverty line to acquire land for production because of the exorbitant land prices, which

makes land reform costly and unaffordable. Over and above these challenges, there are still outstanding land claims that have not yet been finalized by the state. The new Restitution Land Rights Amendment Bill (2013) recently adopted by Parliament, set a new deadline for claimants to put in land claims until December 2018. This piece of legislation is set provide a solution to the land that has not yet been restored to people who lost their land due to racially discriminatory past laws. The majority of the settled land reform farms are operating sub-optimally while others are lying fallow and dormant due to lack or absence of the post-settlement provisions in terms of infrastructure and technical support. This compromises food security, economic growth and much needed jobs as the current support is not aligned to the transferred land. Governments' mandate is not restricted only to make land accessible but also to ensure continued productive use of the transferred land. As part of dealing with the triple challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequality in line with Outcome 7, the Province is aiming at ensuring that these farms becomes productive through investments in human capital development, institutional restructuring, farming infrastructure and production inputs.

It is in this context, that the next section of the study describes and analyses the case of Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration (DARDLA), and undertake an analysis of the current post-settlement support strategies employed by the Department to assist the land reform beneficiaries. This will assist with recommendations on the challenges to ensure effective and efficient post-settlement supporting the following chapters of the dissertation.

#### 4.3 OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF DARDLA

The Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration (DARDLA) "is an integral part of the South African Public Service established in terms of section 197 of the Constitution and read with section 7 (1) and 7 (2) of the Public Services Act of 1994" (http://dardla.mpg.gov.za:para1). Its provincial headquarters is housed in Nelspruit while it has regional offices in the four districts, namely, Ehlanzeni South and North, Gert Sibande and Nkangala districts and has offices in the 18 municipalities of the province.

For the purpose of this study, the analysis will include amongst others the organisational structure, strategic intent and environmental analysis. It is important to critically examine the existing factors within and outside the organisation and to identify the impact these factors have on the achievement of DARDLA's strategic objectives.

The next section looks at the organisational structure of the Department which illustrates the lines of command, reporting and communication flow within the organization. This should help to determine the impact the structure has on the delivery of services and how the post-settlement support function is being carried out within the DARDLA.

# 4.3.1 Organisational structure of DARDLA with special reference to the (Land Reform Directorate)

As illustrated in the organogram of DARDLA (figure. 4.1 below), DARDLA is headed by the Member of the Executive Council (MEC) appointed by the Premier of the Mpumalanga as Political Head of the Department. At a strategic level, the MEC is assisted by the Head of Department, who is the Accounting Officer. In 2010/11 financial year, DARDLA restructured its sections/directorates in line with the national budget structure to accommodate the Land and Agrarian Reform Programme (LARP) and further aligned its activities in a matrix organisational structure. The LARP is responsible for the coordination of post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries while the district services "in support of agrarian reform and rural development, provide technical and infrastructure support to land reform beneficiaries, subsistence food producers, smallholder farmers and commercial farmers" (http://dardla.mpg.gov.za/prog3.html).

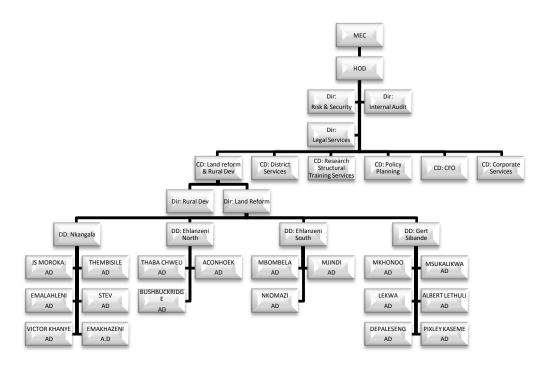


Fig 4.1: DARDLA's organisational structure

Source: DARDLA (2011)

As per figure 4.1, at a strategic level the Directorate is headed by the Chief Director for Land Reform and Rural Development whose responsibility is to handle strategic issues and policies relating to land reform and rural development. Reporting to the Chief Director is the Director responsible for land reform and is also situated at the Provincial Office. This Director is responsible for overseeing the implementation of post-settlement support provided by respective Managers at the district level.

The Province has four districts with 18 municipalities as illustrated in the above organisational structure. Each district has a LARP Directorate which is headed by a Deputy Director who manages the programme and is assisted by the Assistant Managers who are at the operational (that is, municipal) level. At this operational or municipal level, the implementation of post-settlement support programme is managed by the Assistant Directors who work closely with the extension officers to provide farmers with the extension advisory services, including training, technical support, production inputs and infrastructural development support. The matrix organisational structure of DARDLA ensures that the key strategic priorities of the

Department are implemented and monitored on a daily basis at the municipal level and provides a one-stop shop service for the land reform beneficiaries. It also allows for multi-reporting lines between the respective managers and directors.

The District Manager is responsible for the day-to-day monitoring of the performance of all the Departmental directorates while at the municipal level the Agricultural Manager (Deputy Director-district services) oversees and coordinates all the agricultural programmes and projects within the municipality.

The high vacancy rate of the LARP coordinators (Assistant Directors) at the municipal level poses a challenge in rendering an effective and efficient post-settlement support to farmers. The high vacancy rate is exacerbated by the fact that the roles and responsibilities are not clearly defined. Furthermore, there is a tendency for Managers to shift their responsibilities and accountabilities to junior officials. This in turn has detrimental effects on the overall performance of the front-line officials. As a result, service delivery suffers. Rahul (2012:20), in his community insights article, argues that in a poorly implemented matrix system the roles and responsibilities can easily get lost due to the fragmented nature of the structure. This may result in more confusion amongst the officials due to double reporting and unclear responsibilities. This statement seems to be true in the case of DARDLA.

The next section of the study discusses the foundation principles of DARDLA and how that assists in the provision of the post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries.

### 4.3.2 Strategic intent

According to DARDLA's 2012/13 Strategic Plan, the strategic interventions of DARDLA is in line with the National Agricultural Sector Plan (NASP), Provincial Growth Development Strategy (PGDS), State of the National Address (SONA), State of the Provincial Address (SOPA), and so forth. DARDLA's mandate is guided by its vision statement, mission and values developed to inspire and ensure alignment towards achievement of the Department's objectives (DARDLA, 2012):

#### Vision

The vision as stated in the 2012-13 Strategic Plan is that of a vibrant, equitable, integrated and sustainable urban and rural communities with a world class, united and prosperous agricultural, forestry and fisheries sector with food security for all. This vision statement outlines where the Department wants to see itself in future through its interventions and programmes.

### Mission

The mission of the Department indicates the purpose or what the Department stands for. Thus "the mission of DARDLA is "to lead and facilitate an integrated, comprehensive and sustainable development and social cohesion by participating and partnering with all sectors of society, through agriculture, rural development and land administration" (DARDLA, 2011). The mission of the Department is therefore appropriate as it clearly defines 'what is that they do (core mandate of DARDLA), how they do it, why do they do it and for whom are they doing it for.

#### Values

As stated on DARDLA's 2012/13 Annual Report, the services rendered are based on the following values (DARDLA, 2012:6):

- professional staff that is result-oriented in development and acts with honesty -and integrity;
- show sensitivity to the needs of all citizens, particularly the poor, women, youth, the elderly and the disabled;
- encourage community-owned and community-driven development;
- a learning organisation that is participatory in its approach and grows from its experiences and new knowledge; and
- promote and improve effective, efficient and responsive departmental systems and use of resources.

These values are guided by the principles of Batho-Pele principles (White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997).

## 4.3.3 Strategic outcome-oriented goals

The strategic goals of DARDLA are derived from its core constitutional imperatives and are stated as follows (DARDLA, 2012:15):

- to support the development of a sustainable agrarian reform and the large farming sector;
- to improve access to affordable and diverse food;
- to improve services to support healthy livelihoods;
- to create rural jobs and promote sustainable economic livelihoods; and
- to improve the institutional delivery environment by ensuring that there are credible Integrated Development Plan (IDP)'s and skills audit.

## 4.3.4 Legislative and other mandates

The Department is focusing on implementing its three core mandates namely agriculture, rural development and land administration. The Department derives its core mandate from the provisions of schedules 4 and 5 and section 104 (1) b of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (DARDLA, 2011). As part of the system of concurrent governance, DARDLA derives its administrative mandate from National Parliament (State of the Nations Address) and the Mpumalanga Provincial Legislature (DARDLA, 2011). It is further guided by a number of Acts and policies as reflected in the 2011 DAFF Strategic Plan.

The next section analyses organisational environment as this may have an impact on the effective and efficient delivery of post-settlement services to beneficiaries (that is, farmers).

## 4.4 Analysis of the organisational environment

As one of DARDLA's mission success factors, it is important to analyse the internal environmental factors that are available as strengths and weaknesses as well as the external opportunities and threats. The analysis of these factors is crucial as it

assists DARDLA to determine where it is now (current status) in order to clarify "where it is going in future" (PALAMA, 2009:20). In that way, DARDLA would be able to identify ways in which to exploit the organisation's strengths and capabilities as well as identifying those factors that can pose as threats or impede the successful delivery of services to farmers. It is further argued that systematic analysis of environmental factors, both internal and external, can facilitate strategic decision-making and the formulation of a competitive strategy (PALAMA, 2009:20). The analysis is therefore as follows:

## 4.4.1 External Environmental analysis

The external factors refer to the examination of the opportunities and threats that exist in an organisation in "an effort to spot budding trends and conditions that could become driving forces" in the achievement of organisational objectives (PALAMA, 2009:20). Opportunities refer to favourable conditions in the environment that the organisation can exploit to achieve its goals and objectives if acted upon properly, while threats refers to barriers that may prevent an organisation from reaching its objectives (www.mystrategicplan.com). An organisation may use the opportunities it has to avoid the potential threats.

The political, economic, social, technology, environmental, legal and security factors (PESTELS) are used to describe the external environmental factors to be analysed. These external factors impact on the organisation by influencing the strategic success or failure and help to identify strategic gaps (PALAMA, 2009:24). Table 4.1 below is used to analyse the external environmental factors:

**Table 4.1: External environmental factors** 

FACTORS	OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS	TRENDS
Political	Political support that	Instability	Focus on a better life
	focuses on rural	Political interference	for all throughout the
	communities	Change in political leadership	three spheres of
	Support on		Government
	programmes		
	Municipal approach		
Economic	SADC and international	Global issues: globalisation,	Petrol and Diesel
	markets(exportation	inflation and interests rates,	prices up
	markets)	national growth policy;	
	Contributes to 7% to	Petrol prices up	
	the GDP of the		
	Province		
	Create job		
	opportunities		
	LED forums(deal with		
	local economic issues)		
Social	Stakeholder	HIV pandemic	Emphasis to HIV
	involvement	High level of poverty	pandemic education
	Sector Departments	Inequalities	
	Highly supportive	High population	
	communities and	Migration	
	farmers	Believes, values, attitudes and	
	NGOs,	opinions	
	organised agricultural		
	structures		
	International		
	organisations support		
	e.g. Unicef, FAO		
Technological	Information knowledge	Systems not yet linked to	Manual mode
	systems	national advanced systems	
	IT systems		
	Research facilities		
Environmental	Favourable climatic	Land degradation	Unabated
	conditions	Pollution	Nationwide
	International	Climate change	

	regulations or policy	Urbanisation	
	framework	Waste disposal	
		Insufficient resources: water,	
		land	
Legal	Product safety	Abysmal failure legislative	Unabated (happens
	Constitution of SA	frameworks (not	now and then)
	Legislative mandates	implementable)	
Security	Information access	High crime rate	Unabated
	Policing forums	Influx of foreigners	Nationwide
	Police and commandos		
	Private security firms		

#### Political factors

Political factors "cover the external forces controlled by the government or other regulation bodies and consist of government and its political programmes and policies" (PALAMA, 2009:25). As illustrated on the above table, politics in the province present both opportunities and threats to the organisation and that impact on service delivery both positively and negatively. The strategic interventions that are employed by DARDLA in supporting farmers are in line with the national and provincial key priority areas of addressing the triple challenges of unemployment, poverty and inequalities. As a result, policies and other strategic documents have been developed that guide the implementation of its programmes and projects. Government is responsible for adopting policies that provide a good environment for business to create jobs and for establishing needed organizations and institutions of governance (pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\_docs/pnadq131.pd:11).

The political and community leaders are also the main point of entry in communities and have a high influence in community mobilisation. In community traditional setup, as a traditional norm and through IDP forums, the Department uses such forums to lobby for support and buy-in of its programmes. The ultimate goal is to ensure that every community member is

well informed about the food security programmes and the benefits thereof. Therefore, collaborating with them will ensure success in the dissemination of information as it will lessen the duplication and omissions of facts. In events like the road shows, information days and District launches, where the masses of the poorest communities are located, such leaders play a major role in mobilisation.

However, the political interference on DARDLA s' operational plans have resulted to unfunded mandates. Instability in politics also disturbs the service delivery, for example, politicians may push their own political agenda rather than concentrating on service delivery resulting in fights and conflicts amongst the communities. The constant change in leadership positions results in policy direction changes. Such policy changes put some pressure to the Department in terms of having to re-adjust its resources including financial and human resources. For example, due to policy directive to upscale Masibuyele Emasimini (ME) Project to a programme in all municipalities, the Department had to undergo organisational changes to respond to the new mandate and policy directive respectively. Officials had to be deployed to manage the programme and had to undergo intensive skills development.

#### Economic factors

Economic factors refer to macro-and micro-economic conditions that may pose as opportunities and threats on the achievement of the strategic objectives of the organisation. Farmers are able to export their produce to international markets and investors are able to invest in agriculture through formation of the strategic partnership with the local farmers. As such, agriculture contributes 3.4% to the GDP of the Province through the production of crops like sugarcane, fruits like oranges, bananas and livestock like poultry, and so forth. At local levels the local economic development (LED) forums play a vital role in promoting local economic growth development, especially in supporting small and medium enterprises (SMMEs). The United States Agency for International Development further argued that local government can do this while functioning as a facilitator,

engager of the business community, the private sector and non-governmental sectors to appropriately adapt services to local needs (pdf.usaid.gov/pdf\_docs/pnadq131.pd:2). While the global issues like increase in fuel prices, high tax rates inflations, recession have a negative effect on the economy of the country as farmers can only produce or farm at loss.

#### Social factors

The social and cultural factors include issues such as demography, lifestyles, values and the need for education, health and housing (PALAMA, 2009:26). These factors can pose as threat or opportunities to the organisation. The rural communities of the province are beset by high unemployment, poverty rates and inequalities. DARDLA as one of the Government agencies has the responsibility to ensure that through its programmes these challenges are addressed. These challenges can be addressed through proper planning and coordination with other stakeholders, sector departments and non-government organisations. The high prevalence of the HIV pandemic also affects the Departments' performance as it has to lose its critical skills due to the pandemic. However, the Department is able to educate the staff about the disease through educational awareness programmes.

## Technological factors

Technological factors refer to technology developments systems available in an organisation like the research facilities, IT and information knowledge systems and so forth that an organisation uses to conduct its business. Speed of technology transfer affects the way people work and how industry operates (PALAMA, 2009:25). The availability of IT systems, Internet services, and the extension suite online to the officials is assisting the Department to improve communication with its beneficiaries and to learn and adopt the use of new farming technologies to improve farmers' production.

#### Environmental factors

The environmental factors consist of natural resources, geographic and climatic conditions (PALAMA, 2009:28). The province has favourable climatic conditions, with good rains in summer and is characterised by good soils for crop production, grazing lands and the topography that permits farmers to farm productively. The province also faces water deficit, where water requirement exceed the available water resources. Huge water consumption is dominated by the transfers to mining and forestations. This affects the ability to fully utilise land resources as well as increase agriculture competitive advantage through irrigation. Land is also a scarce resource in the province. These factors continue to negatively affect the growth of the agricultural sector particularly its ability to compete with the mining and other manufacturing sectors.

## Security factors

In general, South Africa has a high crime rate emanating from the farm killings, theft and the province is not immune from these challenges. This problem affects the organisation (DARDLA) in a very negative way. Livestock theft in boarder areas of the Province is very common, which results in a huge outcry to many livestock farmers. Farms are also vandalised and infrastructure theft is also very common. Government cannot invest its resources in such state and consequently, farms remains white elephants with no production and farmers are left in abject poverty.

Farm killings are also a major problem. According to (Agri-SA, 2009), a farmer is brutally murdered every hour in South Africa. Farmers become scared of staying in secured remote areas and buying a farm becomes a risky business. The high crime rate cannot be matched with Government's intervention in ensuring the safety of the farmers. Local structures like policing forums are only effective in local residential areas. Government needs to change the way they do things by ensuring the safety of farmers in remote farms.

It is also critical for DARDLA to analyse its stakeholders as part of the internal environmental factors as they directly or indirectly influence and benefit from the services rendered by DARDLA.

## 4.4.2 Stakeholder analysis

Stakeholders are defined as those individuals or groups who depend on the organisation to fulfil their own goals and on whom, in turn, the organisation depends (PALAMA, 2009:33). It is further stated that the analysis of these stakeholders include a process of identifying and understanding stakeholders' influence, expectations and levels of satisfaction in respect of meeting the expectations (PALAMA, 2009:33). It is therefore important to identify the internal and external stakeholders that directly or indirectly influence or benefit from the services rendered by DARDLA. This includes how these stakeholder influence decision making in the organisation and what the organisation needs from them (PALAMA, 2009:12).

The analyses of the stakeholders that may directly or indirectly have an influence to DARDLA are indicated through Mendelow matrix on table 4.2 below:

Table 4.2: Stakeholder analysis (PALAMA, 2009)

Priority 1 Stakeholders  High level of influence-High level of Power	Priority 2 Stakeholders  High level of influence-Low level of power	
and importance	- Organised Agriculture	
- Emerging farmers	- Labour Unions	
- Subsistence farmers		
- Backyard gardeners		
Priority 3 Stakeholders	Priority 4 Stakeholders	
Low level of influence- High level of power	Low level of influence-Low level of power	
and importance	- Input Suppliers	
-Traditional Authorities	- Parastatals	
- Other Government Departments	- Public	
- Media	- NGO's	
- Political Stakeholders	- Contractors	
- Municipalities		

As illustrated in table 4.2, the stakeholders that are of the highest priority to the Department are the emerging land reform farmers, subsistence and so called backyard farmers. These are the main clients of the Department and they may have a high influence on decision-making. The agricultural unions also play a key role in looking after the interests of the farmers and hence they have a high level of influence and low power and importance. They need to be kept abreast of any development or new strategies related to farmer development that the organisation undertakes. The third and fourth categories of stakeholders are the traditional leaders, politicians, media and so forth whose influence within the organisation is highly rated as they represent various communities. It is therefore critical that DARDLA identifies its stakeholders, their expectations and the influence they have on the organisation as to know whose interest can be taken account when making strategic decisions.

This concludes the analysis of the DARDLA's environment. The next section of the study focuses on the analysis of the provision of post-settlement strategies used by DARDLA to support the land reform farmers.

## 4.5 CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE PROVISION OF POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT STRATEGIES IN DARDLA

The Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration (DARDLA) plays a key role in dealing with the existing high levels of poverty, inequality and unemployment within the Province. To deal with these challenges, the Department has various agricultural support programmes as post-settlement support strategies. It is through these strategies that the plight of the peasant and emerging farmers is addressed.

The next section describes and analyses the strategies that are employed by DARDLA in supporting farmers.

## 4.5.1 Analysis of strategies implemented by DARDLA as post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries

In providing post-settlement support, DARDLA uses certain approaches to ensure that the support it provides has a positive impact on the farmers.

## 4.5.1.1 Post-settlement approaches and/models

The Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration (DARDLA) is entrusted with the responsibility and mandate to provide post-settlement support to land reform farmers. In doing so the following approaches are used.

## 4.5.1.1.1 Municipal agro-based (Local Economic Development) LED approach

The municipal agro-based LED model was developed in 2006 by the Department after it was realised that the Department was delivering its agricultural support services mainly through the implementation of fragmented and uncoordinated agricultural development programmes in support of LED and IDP initiatives in municipalities (DARDLA, 2005). Prior to 2005, there was no coordination mechanism established involving the main stakeholders for development in agricultural projects. Municipalities, as the arm of government closest to people, were not linked to agricultural development. As a result, municipalities did not receive the priority they deserve and agriculture development was not absorbed in the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) of the District Municipality (DM) and Local Municipalities (LM) of the Province. The impact of the support services provided to farmers was therefore very minimal. Thus, this model was developed to link and support activities to the respective IDPs to ensure municipal support for business development for farmers and aspiring farmers with the purpose of ensuring that farmers on land reform and communal areas utilise improved support to generate sustainable agrobased livelihoods on economically viable farms.

The figure 4.2 below illustrates the agro-based LED model used by DARDLA.

## Municipal agro-based LED model

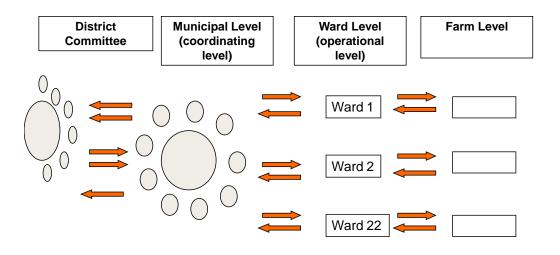


Fig.4.2: Agro-based LED model

Source: (DARDLA, 2005)

As illustrated in the above figure, agro-based local economic development provides for a forum for coordination at all levels (national, provincial, and municipal user levels) and facilitates the planning, implementation and monitoring of agricultural development. The forums are politically-led at all levels and supported administratively. They also debate and adopt projects for implementation in all municipal areas. Stakeholders collaborate at local government level for implementation of these projects.

At the district level, the forum is an advisory body that assists the district in effecting and interpreting agricultural development programmes. The local government agricultural coordinator coordinates and report to the Mayoral Committee and the District LED coordinator provides secretariat to the forum.

At the municipality level, the forum becomes an advisory body to assist the municipal agricultural extension staff in effecting and interpreting a total agricultural development programme for the area. The local government

agricultural coordinator coordinates and reports to the council and the LED coordinator provides secretariat to the forum which comprises the Deputy Director FSS, private sector, organised agriculture and the Municipal Manager The forum has the following responsibilities (DARDLA, 2005):

- to coordinate the rendering of service and to ensure responsible service and effective delivery;
- to promote and monitor the implementation of and participation in the development programme;
- to identifying present and emerging needs, problems and opportunities of the people;
- to assist with interpreting and supporting extension programme with Department and municipality; and
- to assess the agricultural development opportunities.

At the ward level, the forum is represented by the various commodity groups of producers and local stakeholders. The local councillor coordinates and reports to the Municipal Forum and the extension officer provides secretariat function to the forum which comprises Commodity groups, CBO, CDW, Ward committee member, traditional authority. The ward forum has the following focuses:

- to help identify broad problems areas of a ward;
- to determine needs for and help establish specialized/or commodity committees as needed;
- to co-ordinate work of specialized commodity committee;
- to work with ward extension staff to implement planned programmes;
   and
- to keep municipality forum informed of ward committee achievements.

The approach impacts positively on agricultural development. This approach directly contributes to capacity building of local municipalities and stimulates indirectly to their institutional development, as well as more economically oriented IDPs. It is

through this approach that the plans and programmes of the Department are aligned and integrated with the municipal IDPs. It is also a bottom-up approach and farmers are part of the planning and implementation of projects and that generally promotes ownership and control of their projects.

As part of its post-settlement support strategies, DARDLA supports farmers with onoff infrastructure development through the project-based approach.

## 4.5.1.1.2 Project based approach

DARDLA has a key role of ensuring a vibrant, equitable, sustainable rural communities and food security for all. The Department is also guided by these policy mandates: Land and Agrarian Reform, Rural Development and Land Administration. All these key policies are unpacked into programmes which are further translated into projects. Each programme has a dedicated budget for the implementation of its own planned projects. It is through the successful operationalization of its programmes and projects that the strategic goal of the department achieved.

DARDLA uses a project methodology to operationalise its strategic objectives and to implement its service delivery initiatives. Using this methodology, projects are planned and implemented within a specific time frame, cost structure and resources. The project based approach follow a sequential project cycle phases, illustrated in figure 4.3 below:

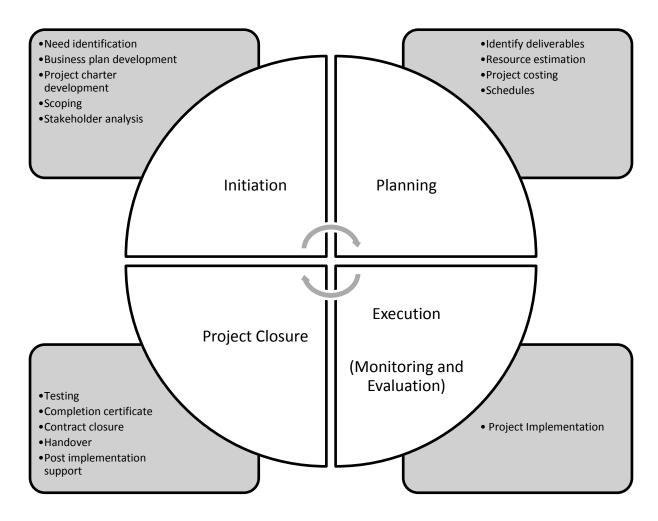


Fig 4.3: Project stages

Source: DARDLA (2008)

• Initiation phase: This is the initial phase where needs of the farmers are identified and prioritised. These needs are absorbed in the development of the project scope and project charter document. This phase also includes identification of the stakeholders that may directly or indirectly influence the project. All these form part of the business plan development, which passes through the Municipality and District Project Screening Committees for approval. The approved projects endorsed by the Head of the Department are later handed over to the engineers for the compilation of detailed operational plans and designs. The activities associated with this initiation phase are carried out from the municipal level with the involvement of farmers, ward councillors, and the extension officers, with the LARP Managers leading the process.

- Planning and designing: Once the approved business plans have been handed over to the engineers, they further identify the deliverables of the project and develop specifications and create the work breakdown structure (WBS) of the project. All the resources required are identified and costing (project budget) is done. Project schedules (that is, Gantt charts) are then developed, which indicate the implementation of the milestone timeframes to guide the implementers of the project on when the project is expected to start and finish. The project also goes through procurement process for appointment of the consultants and contractors for implementation.
- Project execution: Once the consultants and the contractors are appointed,
  the project is handed over to the consultant who will oversee the
  implementation of the project by the appointed contractor. The project is
  implemented according to the detailed plan designed in the project life cycle
  phases. During this phase, performance and progress reports are received for
  quality assurance and risks monitoring purposes and also to enable corrective
  actions. Site meetings are further held with the project beneficiaries for status
  reporting purposes.
- Project closure: During the project closure phase, the project is certified by
  the engineers for completeness and upon handover a completion certificate to
  the project beneficiaries. The complete project is officially handed over to the
  beneficiaries.

The project based approach used by DARDLA is aligned to the agro-based LED model where farmers' needs are analysed, business plans are developed and project screenings done at the various levels through the IDP process. However, budget constraints are a limiting factor and impact negatively in achieving Departmental goals and strategies. The Department currently does not have a formal programme and project governance structure for project coordination and implementation processes. The Project Management Unit is housed within Sustainable Resource Management Unit at the Provincial level and not decentralised to Districts and municipalities where the implementation of projects occurs. With the

current PMU, the lines of operation and reporting are not clear and their roles and responsibilities are not clarified as far as project implementation is concerned. No proper monitoring tools are in place to track on the progress of the projects. As such, project implementation is not done according to the principles and best practices of Project Management, thus resulting in poor project coordination and implementation. Project implementation guidelines are vague or unclear and in other cases they are not in place; it is also difficult to identify who is responsible for what (project governance). As a result, there is a duplication of responsibilities within the various programmes resulting in double dipping of resources. In some cases, officials find themselves working across various projects under different managers. This creates multi-reporting tasks, excessive demands and confusing expectations.

The next section discusses the Agricultural Co-operative Model, which is one of the approaches used in providing support to land reform farmers.

## 4.5.1.1.3 Agri-Co-operative Model

Small-holder farmers in Mpumalanga Province and country-wide are beset by a multitude of challenges of optimising their level of production due to lack of production inputs, market failures, value adding and agro-processing facilities, financing mechanism and collaterals (DARDLA, 2008). This has culminated in the birth of the agricultural co-operatives as a way of increasing production and by empowering individual farmers to work collectively and independently. The Agri-Co-operative Model was therefore developed in 2008 by DARDLA to be implemented by municipalities under Co-operatives Act 14 of 2005 and based on international principles of cooperatives, which was promulgated in South Africa in August 2005.

The Co-operative Act 14 of 2005 defines an Agricultural Co-operative as Co-operative that produces, processes or markets agricultural products and supplies agricultural inputs and services to its members (Co-operative Act of 2005: Chapter1). In support of the small-holder agriculture Co-operatives formation during the Co-operative Indaba held in 2012, DAFF indicated that Government has identified Co-operatives as one of the central pivots to reduce poverty, unemployment and high

levels of inequality and to accelerate empowerment and development for the benefit of previously disadvantaged majority (DAFF, 2012).

According to DARDLA's Co-operative strategy, the establishment of Co-operatives is based on the set of universally accepted co-operative principles of being voluntary, democratic and self-controlled business associations, autonomy and independence and member economic participation as prescribed by the International Cooperatives Association (DARDLA, 2013). The Co-operatives principles offer an institutional framework through which local communities gain control over productive activities from which they derive their livelihoods (DAFF, 2012). It is further argued that Cooperatives offer prospects that smallholder farmers would not be able to achieve individually such as helping them to secure land rights and better market opportunities by helping farmers expand market access and capture more of the value chain by getting involved in agro-processing activities (DAFF, 2012:2). As such, they have the bargaining powers and resource sharing by helping farmers collectively negotiate on their behalf better prices for seeds, fertilizers, transport and storage. It is further argued that Agricultural Co-operatives are viewed by Government as labour intensive and possess potential to create massive jobs and reduce poverty.

The fig 4.4 below, illustrates the Agricultural Co-operative model used by DARDLA in rendering the post-settlement support to land reform farmers.

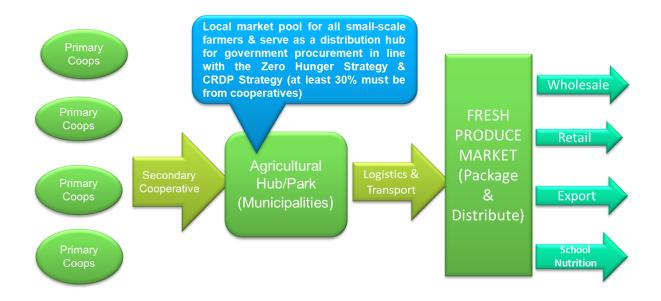


Fig.4.4: Agri-Co-operative Model

Source: DARDLA (2013)

As illustrated on the above model, the management of the co-operatives follow a basic organisational structure. However, for purposes of efficiency and good service delivery, over and above the Co-operative management structure, there is a committee that oversees and give guidance to the Co-operatives. Co-operatives are organised in two levels namely: the Primary and Secondary Co-operatives. At the operational level, DARDLA motivates individual farmers (producers) to organise themselves into commodity groups known as Primary Co-operatives. Primary Cooperatives in each municipality in turn form a Secondary Co-operative and become affiliates to the Secondary Co-operative. At the Secondary level, Co-operatives deal with issues of business management, capacity building and training, finance and logistics. These Co-operatives supply the Secondary cooperatives with fresh produce. The Secondary Co-operative as an umbrella body manages a distribution centre (that is, Agri-Hubs) from which schools, hospitals, correctional services and other markets are supplied. In this way, farmers are able to benefit throughout the value chain of their products. The Primary Co-operatives benefit in the proceedings of the processing plants through shareholding (delivery quotas). Farmers who are not members of Primary Co-operative are able to supply the Secondary Co-operative but cannot share the dividends.

These Co-operatives become legal entities as they get registered with the assistance from DEDET. Currently, there are 171 Primary and 10 Secondary Co-operatives that have been established in various municipalities by DARDLA. These Co-operatives are currently involved in the school nutrition programme which is linked to the Masibuyele Emasimini Programme (ME) whereby they are supplying schools with fresh vegetables as part of the school menu for learners. The Co-operatives are supported by Government to kick start projects. Such support comes in the form of financial and non-financial support, which includes training and mentorship programmes and provision of production inputs.

However, this Co-operative model has its benefits and limitations. Since its inception, the model has instilled the values of ownership and control, which allows producers to determine services and operations that will maximize their own farming profits rather than profits for the Co-operative itself. There has also been an improved service as farmers are able to do their own activities or manage the work done on their own without reliance to the government, and through the school nutrition programme farmers are able to generate income for their families and contributes to improved food security in the province. However, the support from the Government is not yet visible. There is still a lack of infrastructure in most farms which makes it difficult for the Co-operatives to deliver the quantity and quality of produce as required by the markets. The majority of small-holder farmer Co-operatives who are at production level still lack the financing mechanism in the absence of collaterals and very few of them have access to markets, value adding and agro-processing opportunities. For this model to be sustainable, the intervention from Government is of vital importance which should be combined with the continuous training and capacity building of the Co-operatives. Institutional arrangement issues are thus very critical at this level, because if well capacitated, the primary Co-operatives can function well and jobs can be sustained.

# 4.5.1.3 Strategic intervention/Agricultural development support programmes

The Department is increasingly required to provide agricultural support services to the land reform beneficiaries who come from the previously excluded groups. A large

number of the land reform projects cannot succeed unless they receive the appropriate support that they require, such as infrastructural development, production inputs, training and so forth.

In line with outcome 7, there is a need to attend to some of the land reform projects that are ailing. As part of economic rejuvenation and reform, agricultural production programmes have been put in place for the advancement of economic stability and food security to rural, semi-urban and other communities. The strategy of the Province in providing Government support to projects is informed by the need to stimulate economic activities in rural areas that generate livelihood. This often dictates that well-timed and sufficient intervention be made to take projects to break even points in order to enhance project sustainability (DARDLA, 2012).

To render its post-settlement to farmers, DARDLA focuses on the 7 key priorities or focus areas which are of cardinal importance to ensure sustainable growth within the Agricultural sector which would benefit emerging and commercial farmers (DARDLA, 2012). These areas are addressed in the strategic plan of DARDLA through its strategic objectives which are also linked to the MTSF and they include DARDLA, 2012):

- massification of Crop Production through the Masibuyele Emasimini Programme;
- accelerating and strengthening of Animal Production and Improvement through Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme;
- accelerating the Land and Agrarian Reform transformation agenda;
- accelerating Agribusiness Development and Marketing;
- strengthening the Skills Development, Community Mobilization and Empowerment;
- investing in Research and Development; and
- improvement of Spatial Planning and Tenure Security.

In order to achieve the key strategic focus areas and in line with its mandate of providing its post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries, in 2012/13

strategic plan, DARDLA committed to support 292 land reform farms in the 18 municipalities of the Province. This support is in the form of infrastructure development, technical advice, production inputs, mechanisation and forging strategic partnership. This support is in the form of high impact programmes, namely, extension and advisory services, massification of crop production (Masibuyele Emasimini), Comprehensive Agricultural support programme (CASP), Livestock improvement programme (Masibuyele Esibayeni) and Comprehensive Rural Development Programme.

## 4.5.1.3.1 Extension and advisory services

For almost decades now, Government has counted on agricultural extension to serve as a vehicle for Agricultural and the overall rural transformation. Bembridge (1991:59) defines extension as a basic tool in Government programmes and projects to bring about changes in agricultural production and raise the rural living standards of people and at the same time it is used as an instrument to achieve agricultural objectives and goals". It can thus be seen as an educational task of communicating information to farmers and helping them to adapt their farming methods to take full advantage of proven acceptable technologies.

Mpumalanga province still operates its extension services under the Ministry of Agriculture. The Ministry remains the major source of agricultural extension advice for small holder farmers in the province and is the biggest employer of the agricultural extension workers. The extension workers are based at the municipal areas and work closely with the team of subject matter specialists in various disciplines of economists, veterinarians, crop specialists, animal scientist, and so forth. The extension service is one crucial component of DARDLA that ensures that agriculture as the core function of DARDLA is being carried out and remains a key policy tool for promoting ecologically and socially sustainable farming practices. The main aim of the programme is provide farmers with comprehensive technical support through competitive and specialised advisory services and training and capacity building on various production aspects of crop and livestock production.

For some time now, there has been an outcry from farmers in various platforms about the poor performance of the extension services within the province. As a result, in 2005, DAFF developed norms and standards for extension and advisory services to improve efficiency and effectiveness of agricultural services in relation to accessing agricultural support. It is these norms and standards which are an expression of internationally-benchmarked quality measures for Extension and Advisory service, which inform and underpin the national Extension Recovery Plan (ERP) framework. The programme ensures that extension workers upgrade their qualifications for improved relevancy and harmonization of posts. More extension personnel are recruited to address the challenge of farmer extension ratio which has been a major challenge and they are also empowered with ICT gadgets like cell phones, laptops and smart pens to create an enabling environment and strengthening Extension and Advisory service performance. All these ERP pillars were aimed at improving the extension services and ensure that extension workers meet needs of the farmers and the ever-changing technologies in the agricultural sector. However, it remains to be seen as whether it improves the extension services in Mpumalanga province.

The comprehensive agricultural support programme is discussed in the next section.

## 4.5.1.3.2 Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)

In support of the rural development initiative, the Department promotes investment in rural infrastructure that is essential for agricultural development in collaboration with other departments, the private sector and the beneficiary communities. Since the inception of Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) in 2004/05, DARDLA has concentrated on developing on-and-off-farm infrastructure and the improvement of the support to farmer settlement, food security, and agrarian and land reform in general. The programme has enabled the province to invest in rural infrastructure that stimulate and sustain agricultural production and rural economic activities. The investment is done with an ultimate aim of contributing to sustainable agricultural production.

The Comprehensive Agriculture Support Programme (CASP) is complementing the efforts of the Department to provide infrastructure development for agriculture, which include irrigation, mechanisation, dams and construction of erosion control structures on communal land and land reform farms. Subsistence farmers involved in small-scale farming and food gardens are assisted with production inputs through Ilima and ME while small holder and commercial farmers are assisted with infrastructure development such as fencing, irrigation systems, and broiler infrastructure. Area wide planning is assisting the Department to identify projects that are to be supported through CASP.

The main goal of the programme is improved food security and creation of jobs. The main target for this programme is the land reform farmers.

#### 4.5.1.3.2.1 Implementation strategy

In operationalisation of the programme, DARDLA has adopted the following programme implementation strategy:

The programme is municipal focused and priority is on the 18 municipalities of the province. To qualify for the conditional grant, the applicants must have proof of tenure-(either title deeds, lease contracts), availability of water on the farm should be indicated and the institutional and governance system of the project is critical.

According to DARDLAs provincial CASP business plan, the programme is implemented under the following pillars, namely: on-off infrastructure, information and knowledge management; technical and advisory assistance; financial support; training and capacity building; and marketing and business development (DARDLA, 2012). The concept document further states that 70% of the CASP budget is allocated to the land reform projects and 10% to the food security projects, 10% training and capacity building and 5% vet infrastructure (DARDLA, 2010).

In each financial year, municipalities through their respective districts submit proposed infrastructural project lists with business plans to the provincial project office for further screening and approval. On approval by the Head of the Department, the consolidated provincial project list is presented to the national

CASP office for final approval. The Department has appointed engineering consultants to do the designs for the implementation of all the approved infrastructure projects and they also oversee the overall implementation of the projects through the project management model. All projects are implemented in line with the Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999 stipulations and the procurement processes through the tender advertisement or quotation system. Once the project implementation is completed, it is handed over to the beneficiaries.

Since the inception of the programme in 2005/6 few of the infrastructural projects have shown success in terms of improving the livelihoods and creation of jobs like the integrated environmental poultry houses, maize mills, and so forth. However, there are growing numbers of settled land reform projects that are showing signs of collapse and yet the available resources for infrastructural support are not adequate to meet the demands of these land reform farms. The intervention is on existing projects which means the new projects always have to wait a longer period before they are considered in the chain of assistance and often by that time it might be too late to sustain production. In that way, DARDLA is having a huge backlog of land reform farms that needs infrastructure development. Another challenge is that some of completed projects are not yet operational due to lack of production inputs and markets and such projects are prone to risks of being vandalised. Unfunded mandates results to shifting of CASP funds to other unfunded projects, which further results to backlogs and uncompleted projects.

Another disadvantage with the conditional grant was that it did not cater for production inputs and hence the Department introduced the Masibuyele Emasimini Programme (ME), loosely translated as 'let's go back to the field'. The next section discusses Masibuyele Emasimini Programme, how it is implemented and what the benefits are in improving the food security level of the farmers.

# 4.5.1.3.3 Massification of crop production (Masibuyele Emasimini) Programme

In 2005/06, the observation by the Mpumalanga Cabinet during outreach programmes in municipalities was that the communal lands, land reform farms and

backyards were lying fallow and under-utilized due to the lack of means for production (that is, production inputs and mechanisation). At the same time, over one million people of the province were still living under abject poverty with limited access to food. DARDLA acknowledged that its programmes were not fully addressing the needs of the poor and vulnerable households. This culminated into the birth of Masibuyele Emasimini Programme (ME), a food security strategy.

ME programme was conceptualized to urge and support the rural people in using their under-utilised land to enhance their food security and their livelihoods. (DARDLA, 2013). ME was also seen as a potential to increase food productivity, alleviate poverty and create jobs. Thus, the programme falls within the broader national food security policy framework which rests on the right to access to sufficient food also ensuring that the millennium development goals of eradicating poverty by 2014 are achieved.

The programme has multi-tiered objectives namely (DARDLA, 2013):

- to provide mechanisation support;
- increased access to food;
- create jobs; and
- to increase farm income through crop sale.

In its inception, the programme was piloted to three municipalities and in 2008/9 it was rolled out to all the 18 municipalities of the Province. The ME support comes under the following pillars:

#### 4.5.1.3.3.1 Pillars of support

In order to provide appropriate ME service and packages, DARDLA segmented its support according to the categories farmers. The farmers have been categorised according to the number of hectares each has. The table below describes the support provided to the various categories of farmers:

Table 4.3: ME pillars of support

Farmer category	Description	Pillar of support	Period
1.Subsistence farmers(0-1 hector)	Includes backyards,	Seeds, fertilisers, drip	
	school gardens and	irrigation and boreholes	
	communal gardens.		
	Mainly produces food		
	for consumption		5 years
		Seeds, fertilisers, agro	
2.Small holder farmers(1-5	These include farmers	chemicals and	
hectares)	who produce for	mechanisation	
	consumption and sale		3 years
3.Small holder/ commercial farmers	Land and agrarian	Mechanisation through	
	farmers who own land	cooperatives and the	
	of more than 5	strategic partnership	
	hectares		
			3 years

Source: DARDLA (2008)

#### 4.5.1.3.3.2 Implementation strategy

The implementation strategy for the programme is as follows:

The programme is municipal-based and implemented through ME committees and Co-operatives. According to the revised ME strategy ,the programme implements a 70/30% of the target principle, where 70% targets the land reform beneficiaries and delivers through the Cooperatives and the 30% target for the smallholder farmers and is implemented through the service providers (DARDLA, 2006). The budget for the programme is also split into 70/30 ratio.

For a farmer to qualify for a service, he needs to have land which is suitable for crop production. Farmers receive application forms which require them to request for such service. The applications go through the screening process by the local ME committees and the secondary co-operatives which are then consolidated into a municipal production plan. Qualified subsistence farmers (0-1 hectare), who are

producing crops in the back yard and school gardens receive a full support in the form of production inputs and irrigation infrastructure, if necessary during the lifespan period of the programme.

Those farmers who occupy land of 1-5 hectares receive production inputs, mechanisation and technical support. The mechanisation service is provided through the service providers who are employed by DARDLA to plough and plant for the farmers, while technical support is provided through the extension and advisory services of the Department. Within the land and agrarian reform category, the secondary Co-operative in each municipality is supported with tractors, implements and tractor operators and the farmers contribute their own the fuel and production inputs. The qualifying farmers according to the production plan are assisted with ploughing and planting of their farms. These farmers are also assisted with the formation of strategic partners and marketing information and strategies.

During and after the ploughing and planting period, it is expected that a farmer monitors his/her farm till harvesting and ensure that activities like weeding or scoffing are taken care of by the farmers.

## 4.5.1.3.3.3 Targeted hectares for ME for a period of 5 years

The table below summarises the hectares targeted by the Masibuyele Emasimini Programme for a five year period (2009/10-2013/14).

Table 4.4: Targeted ME hectares for a period of 5 years (DARDLA, 2008)

			BASELINE					
DISTRICT	LOCAL	TARGETED	(2008/09)	2009/10	2010/1	2011/1	2012/13	2013/1
MUNICIPALITY	MUNICIPALITY	AREA (Ha)	(ha)	(ha)	1 (ha)	2 (ha)	(ha)	4 (ha)
EHLANZENI	Bushbuckridge	38 023	4 055	8 109	12 000	15 000	18 000	21 000
	Mbombela	7 785	1 117	2 234	3 000	4 000	5 000	6 000
	Nkomazi	18 421	7 273	14 546	15 000	16 000	16 500	16 500
	Thaba Chweu	2 784	1 280	2 560	2 600	2 600	2 600	2 600
	Umjindi	1 506	187	374	500	1 000	1 500	1 500
EHLANZENI DISTRICT TOTAL		68 519	13 912	27 823	33 100	38 600	43 600	47 600
GERT SIBANDE	Albert Luthuli	9 619	5 478	7 500	8 000	8 000	8 000	8 000
	Dipaleseng	3 024	175	1 000	2 000	2 000	2 000	2 000
	Govan Mbeki	2 977	1 100	1 500	2 000	2 500	2 500	2 500
	Lekwa	5 500	1 457	3 000	4 000	4 500	4 500	4 600
	Mkhondo	7 331	1 295	4 000	5 000	6 000	6 500	6 500
	Msukalikwa	3 278	911	2 500	2 800	2 800	2 800	2 900
	Pixley Ka Seme	6 709	950	3 000	4 000	5 000	5 000	5 000
GERT SIBANDE DISTR	ICT TOTAL	38 438	11 366	22 500	27 800	30 800	31 300	31 500
	Victor Khanye	2 730	_	800	1 500	2 000	2 000	2 000
NKANGALA	Dr JS Moroka	23 705	2 597	10 000	15 000	18 000	20 000	21 000
	Emakhazeni	1 647	-	400	800	1 000	1 000	1 000
	Emalahleni	2 336	344	1 000	1 500	1 800	1 800	1 800
	Steve Tshwete	4 323	290	1 500	2 300	3 000	3 500	3 500
	Thembisile Hani	5 148	727	3 000	4 000	4 800	4 800	4 800
								34 100
NKANGALA DISTRICT TOTAL		39 889	3 958	16700	25 100	30 600	33 100	31 100
MPUMALANGA DISTRICT	TOTAL	146846	29236	67063	86000	100000	108000	113200

In the first three years of the performance review of the programme, it is estimated that the programme supported the cultivation of 10% (16,262 ha) of the estimated land under subsistence agriculture and land reform and which is almost 4% of the estimated people living under poverty in Mpumalanga (DARDLA, 2007). In an attempt to address the shortcomings of the programme in the first three years (2005-2007), the Department revised the implementation strategy during the 2008/09 period. The revised ME concept document is aligned to the five year strategic plan of DARDLA. The above table illustrates the number of hectares targeted for

implementation by each municipality from 2008 to 2014 through the ME programme. These projections of hectares are based on the land under previously disadvantaged individuals. Currently, the programme has covered 18 municipalities. According to the revised ME concept document, it is envisaged that by the end of the 2014 all the poverty pockets of the province would have been reached (DARDLA, 2008).

As stated earlier, Mpumalanga is largely rural and most of the people are living in abject poverty. Most of these people rely on agriculture to provide food for their families. However, the lack of capital and other means of production have made it impossible for them produce enough food as they have land as their only resource for production. Therefore, Masibuyele Emasimini food security programme was seen as a good strategy to eradicate poverty and increase food security. The strategy provides farmers with production inputs, mechanisation and technical support. According to the strategy, it has been reported that from its inception (2005 to 2008/9), 29,234 hectares have been cultivated, which benefitted 19,960 households and accounts to 11% of the population (DARDLA, 2009).

Elements in the strategy show that the programme has the potential to improve food security levels, change the lives of people and moreover, the landscape of agriculture in Mpumalanga. These achievements, however remains to be seen. The programme is in its 10<sup>th</sup> year of implementation and it has not yet reached its objectives of ensuring that the 1,045 077 targeted people of Mpumalanga are assisted by the ME programme in cultivation of 650305 hectares as indicated in the concept document (DARDLA, 2012). Since its inception in 2005/6, the programme seemingly has more challenges than the benefits. For the success of the programme, DARDLA needs to put intervention strategies in order to achieve the programme objectives of eradication of poverty levels of the people of the province.

The next section focuses its discussion on the livestock improvement programme which is aimed at assisting the livestock farmers to improve their livestock through the promotion of the best management practises and increasing their stock through the supply of good quality breeds to farmers for reproduction.

# 4.5.1.3.4 Livestock improvement programme (Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme)

The livestock improvement programme (LIP) is a food security programme that targets the livestock or potential livestock farmers. With the conceptualisation of the Masibuyele Emasimini programme in 2011/12 financial year, and livestock farmers left out in the mainstream of the economy and thus in the same year (2011), the Department initiated the livestock improvement programme known as Masibuyele Esibayeni loosely translated as "let's go back to grazing" (DARDLA, 2011).

The major problem in livestock of most emerging farmers was the low reproduction rate, due to poor selection or inability to purchase good quality animals to transfer good genes to the offspring (DARDLA, 2012). As a consequence, the livestock herds did not increase in numbers and the quality of the off-springs produced was usually of poor quality and that led to poor financial returns. Another challenge facing the livestock farmers is the livestock management practices. Most of these emerging farmers omitted the most basic tools required for livestock management improvement such as reliable animal scale, basic handling facilities and the stock registering book. According to the Masibuyele Esibayeni strategy, these tools are imperative in the maintenance of a flexible structural herd composition and thus allow calculated management techniques to be implemented which promote recording of performance data (DARDLA, 2011). Thus, the programme is aimed at addressing the shortage of good quality breeding animals, to instil and encourage the adoption of basic livestock management practices which are highly ignored by most emerging farmers. LIP seeks to further enhance the principle of food security, community upliftment, rural development and agrarian reform linked to the Zero Hunger Strategy (ZHS). The programme is thus aligned to the national food security programme, PGDS and the Millennium Development Goals.

The Department in partnership with the breeders of South Africa, research stations and the Independent Development Corporation (IDC) provides farmers with good quality livestock. These include Nguni cattle, Bonsmara and Drakensberger as well as other livestock commodities like pigs, goats, sheep and dairy cattle.

#### 4.5.1.3.4.1 Implementation strategy

The following is an implementation strategy that is used to implement the programme: The programme is municipal focused and has been rolled out to the 18 municipalities of the province. The programme entails allocation of breeding stock to beneficiaries in ratios of 1:30 (Nguni special project), 1:25 (bull & heifer project including dairy cattle); for small stock (goats and sheep) 1:25 and on pig production 1:10. The ratio is classified as no. of bull: no. of heifers (DARDLA, 2011). The animals are allocated to deserving livestock farmers for reproduction purposes for a period of 5 years and after that period the farmer is expected to return the livestock to DARDLA.

To qualify for the above livestock allocation, the farming area should have good handling facilities and be able to accommodate the proposed number of animals at scientifically recommended stocking rates which is 300 hectares for large stock and 150 hectares for small stock (DARDLA, 2011). Coupled to the above, the farmers should have proof of land ownership either right to occupy (RTO), lease and title deed of the land they are or intending to occupy. Over and above this qualification criterion, the farmers are subjected to a selection process which comprises of completion of an application form, short listing and farm assessments to verify the information provided. DARDLA procure and supply the livestock to those meeting the above criteria and on delivery the farmers signs the memorandum of understanding (MOU) with DARDLA.

Farmers are expected to manage and provide feed and supplements for the livestock. They also work hand in hand with the animal technicians, veterinary technicians to manage the livestock.

According to the Annual Report 2012/13, under the Nguni Project, 20 bulls and 600 heifers and under the Bull and Heifer Project, 9 bulls and 275 heifers have since been delivered through the programme with 591 farmers having benefitted from the programme (DARDLA, 2013). The programme is at its infant stage and thus has minimal measurable successful stories. The lack of infrastructural support by

DARDLA to the land reform beneficiaries like fencing, boreholes, handling facilities are seen as obstacles for farmers in benefitting from the programme. Most of the farms acquired through the Pro-active land acquisition (PLAS) programme are on a 5 year leasing contract and subject to be renewed based on the production performance of the farmer during the leasing period. Due to the lack of capital and other resources, farmers are unable to produce and that limits them to qualify for renewal of their leases and benefits of the programme.

The national comprehensive rural development programme was launched by DARDLA in 2009 as a programme that will improve the rural communities of the Province thereby ensuring the creation of jobs and improved food security.

#### 4.5.1.3.5 Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP)

The Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP) is aimed at being an effective response against poverty and food insecurity by maximising the use and management of natural resources to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities (DARDLA, 2009:7). The CRDP strategy further states that the programme s' main focus remain the rural areas where support base is poor and under resourced (<a href="https://www.mpumalanga.gov.za:para">www.mpumalanga.gov.za:para</a> 2). The programme puts emphasis on participation by communities to direct their own destiny.

The vision of the CRDP is to create vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities which include the following: contributing to the redistribution of 30% of the country's agricultural land; improving food security of the rural poor; creation of business opportunities, de-congesting and rehabilitation of over-crowded former homeland areas; and expanding opportunities for women, youth, people with disabilities and older persons who stay in rural areas (DARDLA, 2009:32).

According to the Mpumalanga CRDP (2009:7) concept document, the ultimate vision of creating vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities is achieved through a three-pronged strategy based on:

- a coordinated and integrated broad-based agrarian transformation;
- strategically increasing rural development; and
- an improved land reform programme.

According to the concept document (DRDLR, 2009), the CRDP requires a coordinated and integrated approach to meet the diverse needs of the communities and therefore the participation of various departments across the different spheres of government; non-governmental organizations, research institutions and communities are vital. It is against this background that the Mpumalanga provincial government instructed all government departments to participate in the national cry for implementation of the CRDP. The Department of Agriculture and Rural Development (DARDLA) was mandated as a Lead Department for this programme.

According to the Mpumalanga CRDP concept document, the mandate of DARDLA through the programme is as follows (DARDLA, 2009):

- manage and coordinate the implementation of CRDP in the province;
- develop implementation strategies for CRDP;
- coordinate other departments and stakeholders to participate in CRDP;
- monitor the activities and distribution of resources in all CRDP sites in the province; and
- mobilise investors to participate in CRDP.

Other role-players include the private sector; the farming community, institutions such as MEGA, MRTT, NGOs, CBOs, Traditional Authorities and any other structures that have interest in uplifting the standard of living of rural communities.

The programme was first launched and piloted in Mkhondo Municipality in 2009. The implementation was conceptualised in wave approach. The current implementation phase is within the 1st wave which comprises of the economically distressed and poor municipalities. The Province has gone beyond the pilot phase and rolled out the programme to selected wards of the seven municipalities with all wards in Mkhondo Municipality. Seeing the positive results the CRDP was yielding in the selected

wards, the provincial government took a decisive decision to roll out the programme in all wards of seven municipalities in August 2012. The municipalities include Thembisile Hani, Nkomazi, Chief Albert Luthuli, Dr Pixley ka Isaka Seme, Bushbuckridge and Dr JS Moroka and Dipaleseng. The decisive factors in rolling out of the programme to these selected municipalities was based on the analysis of the 2009 Socio-Economic Review outlook (SERO )report, which declared these municipalities as having amongst others, high poverty and unemployment rates and the Multiple Deprivation Index as compared to the other municipalities (DARDLA, 2009).

This is a one stop programme where all representatives of the stakeholders bring their services together through Council of Stakeholders (CoS) in all CRDP municipalities. These councils of stakeholders are composed of sector departments, Local municipalities, Village Committee, House of traditional houses, NPO and CBOs. The Council of Stakeholders (CoS) meet twice a month on scheduled dates to discuss on issues of basic services, social infrastructure, improved food security, quality education and health services and report on project progress, taking decisions on development and remedial actions are taken. This programme is also people centred in that communities take charge of their own development and destiny to improve their own livelihood. It is also participatory process through which rural people learn over time, through their own experiences and initiatives, how to adapt their indigenous knowledge to their changing world (DARDLA, 2009:10).

This is one programme that DARDLA has done well as a coordinating Department. The programme has more achievements than non-achievements although there are still challenges regarding funding of cooperatives, lack of a funding model for land reform farms in an effort to increase the agrarian reform and solidification of the markets. However, the programme has seen more improvements on this regard over the years. As it enters into the new medium term framework, it is envisaged optimistically that the majority of projects and businesses will be getting into the industrial phase (4<sup>th</sup> wave) of CRDP development scope.

#### 4.5.2 Farmers qualifying for the post-settlement support

Besides the qualification criteria prescribed by programmes, the following are the generic criteria used by DARDLA in selection of land reform beneficiaries that qualify for the post-settlement support (DARDLA, 2013):

- farmers should be occupying land reform farms of more than 5 hectares acquired through land reform programmes or privately owned initiatives;
- lease agreements for land use (proof must be attached);
- historically disadvantaged individuals (PDIs);
- viable business plans must be in place;
- secured markets or confirmed off-take agreements for produce will be an added advantage;
- farmers have management skills and farming experience; and
- must be a full time or hands-on on the business.

#### 4.6 CONCLUSION

Promoting smallholder agricultural development can be an effective strategy to ensure sustained food security and optimum utilisation of resources. Rural poor communities can be able to reach a high level of food security when production is massified within their localities. However, these hungry and vulnerable individuals cannot realize self-sustenance without Government's intervention. With the necessary farmer support development programmes, smallholder agriculture can contribute significantly to poverty alleviation by raising agricultural productivity and rural incomes. This is provided for in the Constitution that by legislative and other measures, one of the roles of Government is to ensure that services are provided in a sustainable manner. Outcome 7 of the Presidential outcomes, maintains that Government should provide farmers with support programmes to ensure a vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities and food security for all.

This chapter described and analysed how DARDLA as a Government agency provides its support to land reform beneficiaries. It is worth noting that the

agricultural development programmes offered by DARDLA to farmers have the potential to enhance food security and improve the lives of the rural people of the province. However, in many of these programmes, there seems to be poor planning and coordination, a tendency that has led to the poor or failure in implementation of its anchor projects. The lack of resources also poses as a main hindrance in ensuring that the needs of the land reform farmers are met. The bureaucratic nature of the extension services under the ministry makes it impossible for the extension agents to adequately promote agricultural production and meet the farmer's needs.

The next chapter therefore seeks to further analyse the post-settlement challenges of the land reform beneficiaries in Mpumalanga province based on the empirical investigations from the land reform beneficiaries themselves. The information gathered will assist in providing recommendations on how DARDLA can improve its post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries.

#### **CHAPTER 5**

# POST-SETTLEMENT SUPPORT PROVIDED BY DARDLA TO LAND REFORM BENEFICIARIES: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study attempts to unlock the key challenges that impede DARDLA in providing the post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries in Mpumalanga Province. The previous chapters gave a holistic overview of the principles of land reform and the legislative and policy framework that governs the implementation of land reform in South Africa. The second chapter further elaborated on the importance of post-settlement within the context of land reform where it described the regulatory framework that governs the usage of land and provision of the post-settlement support to farmers. This framework includes policy documents, strategies and programmes that guide the implementation of post-settlement support by the Provincial Departments of Agriculture.

Post-settlement support, as described in the previous chapters, refers to post-transfer support provided to land reform beneficiaries after they have acquired land. This is mainly done in the form of technical support, production inputs, infrastructural development, and training and capacity building. Chapter Four further gave a descriptive analytical view of the strategies employed by DARDLA in providing post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries.

It is against this background that this chapter seeks to obtain empirical evidence from the land reform beneficiaries regarding the extent to which post-settlement support is provided by DARDLA. In order to achieve this objective, the chapter commences by exploring the units of analyses within the case study. The chapter further gives a detailed outline on the research methodology and techniques used for data collection and the rationale for the choice of these tools and methods. The chapter concludes by presenting an analysis of the data gathered from the three

municipalities. The findings obtained will operationalize the research objectives and assist in identifying weaknesses and key challenges associated with the implementation of the post-settlement strategies by DARDLA.

#### 5.2 CASE STUDY DESIGN

The study was qualitative in nature and as such, it was conducted by means of a case study design. The central role of a research design is to minimize the chance of drawing incorrect causal inferences from data (www.nyu.edu/classes/bkg/methods:16).A case study, as defined by Parahoo (2006:142), refers to a plan that describes how, when, and where data are to be collected and analysed, while Tseole (2013:156) describes a case study as a process in which a number of units of analyses, which are highly representative of the particular population, are studied intensively by conducting fieldwork. It also allowed for interaction with the respondents as to get real life experiences and subjective meanings that people bring to their situation.

In this case study, empirical evidences were obtained from the land reform beneficiaries of the municipalities involved in land reform initiatives, namely, Victor Khanye, Emalahleni and Emakhazeni municipalities of the Nkangala District. The aim of the study was to ascertain the nature and extent of post-settlement support employed by DARDLA, with specific emphasis on the agricultural support programmes. The inferences obtained from the empirical evidences will assist in unlocking key challenges related to the post-settlement support of the LRP.

# 5.2.1 Description of the case study or study area

As explained in the previous chapter, DARDLA in Mpumalanga Province operates in four districts, namely Ehlanzeni-South, North, Gert Sibande, and Nkangala. As shown in figure 5.1 below, the case study was undertaken in three local municipalities forming part of the Nkangala District Municipality, namely, Emalahleni, Victor Khanye, and Emakhazeni. The district is situated in the Highveld side of the Province, bordering the Gauteng Province in the north, Gert Sibande district in the west and Ehlanzeni-South in the east, and Limpopo in the south. It covers a total

area of 16,892 kilometres square (STATS SA, 2012). The District comprises of six municipalities, namely, Thembisile Hani, Dr JS Moroka, Steve Tshwete, and the three municipalities of Emalahleni, Emakhazeni, and Victor Khanye (formerly known as Delmas). The district is known as an economic hub of the Province, contributing 39.9 percent to Mpumalanga's gross value added (GVA) through mining, manufacturing, electricity and agriculture (SERO, 2012).



Fig 5.1: Nkangala District map

Source: IDP (2012)

As already stated, the focus of the study is on Victor Khanye, Emalahleni and Emakhazeni local municipalities. These are the main land reform areas of the Province. The agricultural sector in Victor Khanye contributes 1,9%,Emalahleni 0, 5%, and Emakhazeni 4% to the GDP of the District (IDP, 2012). It is estimated that since the inception of the land reform programme, out of the hectares distributed

through the distribution and restitution programmes in Mpumalanga Province to date, Nkangala contributes 60% (RLCC, 2013) to the Province. According to the Strategic Plan of 2012/13, DARDLA indicated that it planned to provide post-settlement support to 282 farms and out of these total, 92 farms were from these three municipalities. Evidence on the ground also indicates that thousands of hectares are lying fallow without production or producing below the projects' potential due to the lack of infrastructure, capital, and other means of production. The Socio-economic Outlook Report (SERO, 2012) for the Province further indicated that Emalahleni has a high poverty rate (42%), Emakhazeni at 38% and Victor Khanye Municipality at 36%. Moreover, these local municipalities are further characterised by high unemployment rates.

The agricultural sectors in these three municipalities have a potential to create jobs, contribute to the economy of the country and improved food security. Therefore, it is imperative that this study unlocks the key challenges associated with post-settlement support provided by DARDLA to address poverty and to create sustainable jobs.

The next section of the chapter focuses on the research methodology used to collect empirical data regarding the support provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries.

### 5.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology can be regarded as a process of collecting and processing data within the framework of the research process. This section outlines the research design, population, sampling and data-collection techniques used to collect data.

#### 5.3.1 Design

A research design can be regarded as a plan which indicates how the researcher intends to conduct his or her study (Tseole, 2013:141) and to show how all the major parts thereof interacts. It spells out the strategy the researcher plans to adopt to develop information that is accurate and interpretable.

(uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/100500/651), including various approaches to be used in solving the research problem, sources and information-related to the problem and, timeframe and the cost budget (Rajasekar, 2006:22). The research design creates the foundation of the entire research work (Rajasekar, 2006:22).

A research design may further utilise qualitative, quantitative or mix-mode research approaches. In this study, a qualitative research approach which made use of a phenomenological approach has been used to gather relevant data. This approach concerns itself with understanding and interpreting the meaning that participants give to their everyday lives (Kobola, 2007:69). A qualitative research design should be considered in situations where a detailed understanding of a process or experience is wanted, where more information is needed to determine the exact nature of the issues being investigated, or where the only information available is in non-numeric form (Bazely, 2007:2). Thus, the study being qualitative in nature depends on the quality of the data collected rather than the quantity of information (Tseole, 2013:145).

The next subsection of the study discusses the population and sampling methods used for the collection of data.

#### 5.3.2 Sampling

Sampling in research, as defined by Mouton (2006:35), refers to a process of selecting units or people to be studied. A sample is drawn from a population. A population, as described by Kobola (2007:69) and Mouton (2006:164) refers to the study objects and consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events and the conditions to which they are exposed. In a qualitative research design, a non-probability sampling is used almost without exception (De Vos et al., 2011). Thus, in this case study, a purposive sampling in the form of non-probability sampling technique was chosen by the study based on the knowledge of the respondents on the research topic and their willingness to participate in the study.

As already stated, the main purpose of the study is to identify the key challenges associated with the implementation of the post-settlement support by DARDLA to

land reform beneficiaries. Therefore, the key people identified as respondents were the land reform beneficiaries who are the key recipients of the support provided by DARDLA as well as DARDLA officials as the implementers of the support programmes. The size of the population must be representative enough for generalisation of the results (De Vos et al., 2011:390).

A sample of 44 land reform beneficiaries (farmers) was drawn from a population of 82 land reform beneficiaries within the three municipalities of Nkangala District, namely, Victor Khanye, Emalahleni and Emakhazeni municipalities. These farmers were a representation of farmers who acquired land through the land reform programmes, namely, SLAG, LRAD, PLAS and Restitution programmes. It was crucial to have this type of representation of farmers as they depict the diversity or variation of the target population and generally have the same understanding and experience of the issues pertaining to land reform as well as agricultural development. In this respect, they could thus provide quality information. The sample was subdivided into 10 farmers from LRAD,15 farmers from the PLAS programme,10 farmers from the Restitution programme and 9 from the SLAG programme – each represents the respective target populations (units of analysis).

Sampling was further done to identify DARDLA officials who are primarily responsible for the implementation of post-settlement support programmes. This included two (2) Middle Managers, one (1) Senior Manager and three (3) extension workers (project officers)chosen from each municipality. This was also crucial to include this category of respondents into the study to obtain insight regarding managerial considerations, departmental policies and other strategic issues that may influence post-settlement support provided to land reform beneficiaries.

For ethical purposes, the respondents were informed about the objectives of the study and their right to choose either to participate on the study or not. Once they agreed to participate, they were given consent forms and were assured of their anonymity and confidentiality during and after the interviews. The venue used for the interviews was at their respective project sites, which created a familiar and conducive environment which allowed them to participate freely without any

obstruction. Interviews with the farmers and DARDLA officials were conducted at different venues and at different times.

The next section discusses the instrument used for data collection.

#### 5.3.3 Instrumentation

Interviews can be used as a primary data gathering method to collect information from individuals about their own practices, beliefs, and opinions. In this case study, face-to-face interviews consisting of semi-structured questions were used as data collection method. This collection data method was selected because the study's main aim was to obtain people's perception of the nature and extent of postsettlement support they receive from DARDLA as land reform beneficiaries. The researcher prepared a list of questions in a form of an interview schedule. The interview schedule ensured that the selected respondents answer the same questions and also to facilitate data analysis (Kobola, 2007:71). In the design of the interview schedule, the researcher ensured that all the aspects and dimensions of the research were covered. To ensure that the entire respondents will understand the questions the interview schedule was first subjected to a pilot study with a small sample of the target population. The pilot study revealed certain limitations and the researcher adjusted the questions in line with the level of understanding of the respondents. Once DARDLA granted official permission for the study, appointments with respondents were secured.

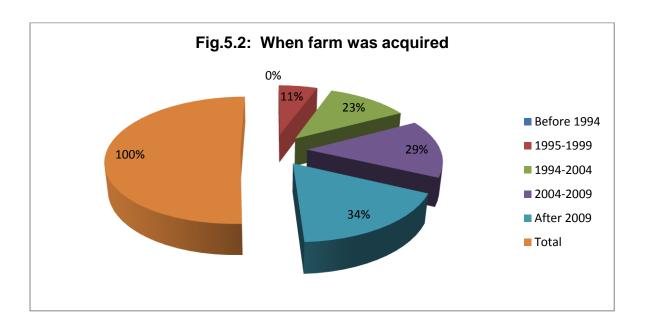
The next section presents the empirical findings by the land reform farmers on their perceptions of post-settlement provided by DARDLA.

#### 5.4 EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

The main respondents of the study were the land reform beneficiaries as well as DARDLA personnel who included the Extension Officers, Middle Managers and Senior Managers. The findings emanating from the interviews are presented below:

# 5.4.1 Farmers perception on the status of land reform in the three municipalities (see attached Annexure A)

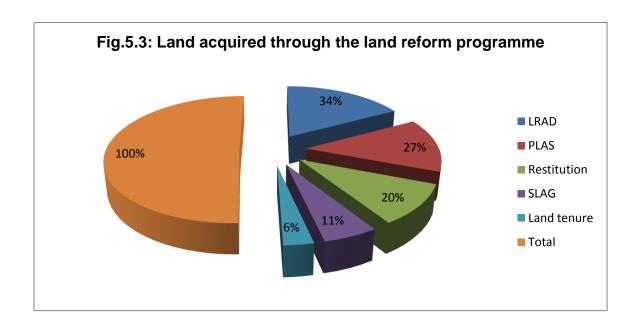
Question Nr.1: When did you acquire the farm?



Chapter Two of the study asserted the fact that after 1994, the newly elected Government identified land reform as key programme to address the triple challenges of poverty, inequalities and unemployment. This was to benefit the historically disadvantaged communities from all the walks of life. It is in that context that farmers were asked about when they acquired land. The results are shown in figure 5.2, which clearly indicates that out of the 44 respondents interviewed, none of them acquired land before 1994. After the introduction of the land reform programme, 11% of the respondents indicated that they benefited land through the SLAG and the Restitution programme, while 23% and 29% of the respondents respectively, indicated that they benefitted land through the land reform programme from 1994-2009. The majority of the respondents (34%) indicated that they

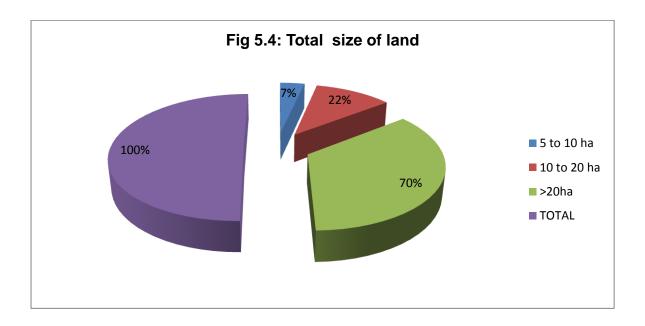
benefitted from the land reform programme after 2009. This was after the introduction of the PLAS programme that replaced the LRAD programme, which allows the state to acquire land on behalf of farmers. Therefore, from the above analysis, one can deduce that the majority of the farmers in the three municipalities acquired land after 2009. This is mainly due to the change and alignment of land reform policies to the needs of the farmers as confirmed in Chapter Two.

Question Nr.2: Under which programme was the land acquired?



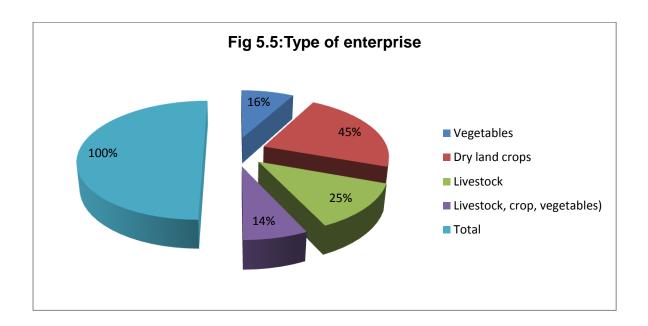
Chapter Two of the study highlighted and described the three pillars of land reform through which land reform was pursued. This is confirmed by figure 5.3, which indicates that the majority of the respondents indicated that they acquired land through the LRAD programme. This was due to the disbanding of the SLAG programme, which led to the introduction of the LRAD programme, as confirmed in Chapter Two. While 27% indicated that they benefitted through the PLAS programme, 20% indicated that they also acquired land through the Restitution programme by reclaiming back the land loss due to apartheid laws. A small portion of the farmers (11%) acquired land through the SLAG and 6% through the land tenure reform programme. In the light of the above results, one can conclude that the majority of the farmers within the three municipalities acquired land through the LRAD and PLAS programmes.

QuestionNr.3: What is the total size of the farm?



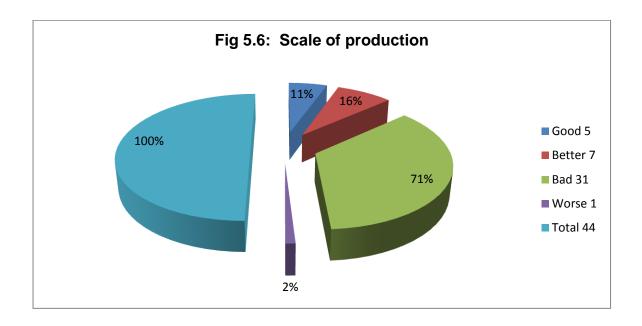
As depicted by figure 5.4, the minority of the respondents (7%) indicated that they own land of between 5 to 10 hectares. The majority of these farmers are land tenure and restitution farmers, where the acquired land has been divided amongst the other claimants and each claimant further sub-divided their portions of land for residential and agricultural purposes. The majority of the respondents (70%) indicated their land has more than 20 hectares for agricultural production. These categories of farmers acquired land through the LRAD and SLAG programmes. One can therefore deduce that the majority of land was acquired through LRAD and PLAS programmes.

Question Nr.4: What type of farming enterprise are you involved with?



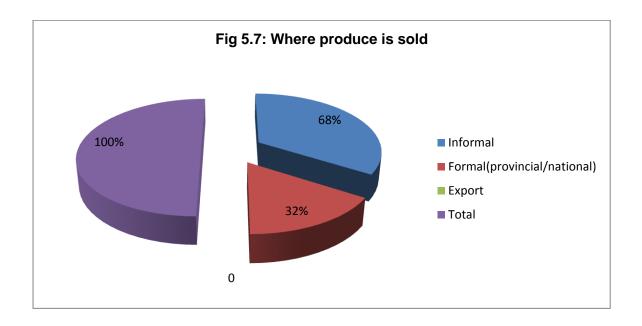
The importance of land reform, as explained in Chapter Two is, amongst others, to increase household food production and improved food security. It is in this context that land reform beneficiaries in the three municipalities are engaged in production of various commodities. Figure 5.5 indicates that 16% of the respondents are vegetable producers (mainly butternut, tomatoes and spinach), while the majority of the respondents (45%) are grain producers; producing maize, soya beans, dry beans, and so forth. Furthermore, the findings reveal that 34% of the respondents are livestock farmers who are farming mainly with cattle, sheep and poultry and 14% of these farmers as indicated in figure 5.5 are also producing vegetables and dry crops. Sixteen(16%) are engaged in mixed farming (producing vegetables, dry crops and farming with cattle). The above analysis shows that the main enterprises produced by farmers are grain crops followed by livestock enterprises. Therefore, there is a need to align the post-settlement support according to the enterprises which the majority of farmers are involved in.

Question Nr.5: Can you rate the scale of production?



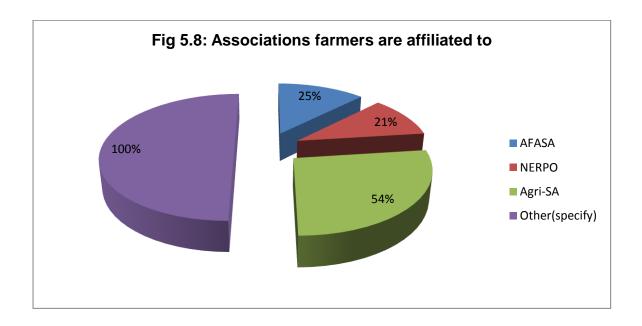
Eleven percent (11%) of the respondents indicated that the scale of production produced by the farmers is good. This could mainly be attributed to the financial support they received from Government and parastatals like MEGA for production. However, 16% of the respondents rated the production scale at 15%. The majority of the respondents indicated that their scale of production is bad and this, as explained by them, was attributed to the lack of, or inadequate support they are receiving as land reform farmers. A small fraction of the respondents (2%) reported that they are unable to make ends meet on the production they make in their projects because of the lack of the means of support they receive for production. Based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that the majority of the farmers are not producing optimally. This further implies that accessing land without complementary services cannot achieve sustainable development and improved food security. As confirmed in Chapter Two, one of the inherent shortcomings of the land reform programme is that beneficiaries have up to now been unable to utilize the land to its full potential because of numerous problems regarding access to complementary services which includes production inputs, finance, and technical advice.

Question Nr.6: Where are you selling your products?



The respondents were further asked on where they sell their products, and as illustrated in figure 5.7, the majority of the respondents indicated that they sell their produce at informal markets due to the relative poor quality of their produce and unavailability of markets within their local municipalities. Approximately a third of the respondents (31%) indicated that that they sell their produce at national and provincial markets like Maize More, Karan Beef and others. A conclusion that could be drawn from this finding is the significant need for beneficiaries to access markets for their produce. This fact is supported by the theoretical orientation (Chapter Two) which revealed that access to markets is crucial as part of the post-settlement support to be provided to land reform beneficiaries.

Question Nr.7: Which farmer associations are you affiliated to?



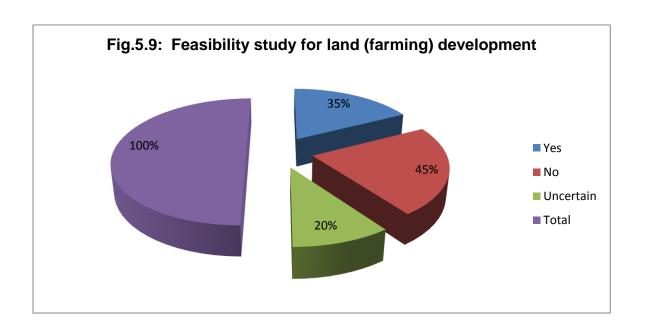
Section 2.10.5 of Chapter Two highlighted the role of farmer's associations and organised agriculture in the land reform programme. It is evident that such associations and organisations have played a major role in advocating on behalf of the farmers on the issues of land and have a considerable influence on policies pertaining to agricultural development. It was further indicated that these associations and organisations act as mentors for other farmers. The results presented in figure 5.8 indicate that 25% of the respondents interviewed indicated that they have affiliated to the African Farmers Association of South Africa (AFASA), while 20% of the farmers, who are mainly the livestock farmers, are affiliated to National Emergent Red Meat Producers Organisation (NERPO). The majority of the farmers interviewed indicated that they are not affiliated to any farmer organisation as they either are not aware of benefits they could obtain from these organisations, or never heard of them. This implies that the majority of the farmers in these municipalities are not belonging to any farmer organisation. This situation makes it difficult for their voices to be heard and leads to a situation where policy makers are not aware of the nature and extent of their problems.

The next section discusses the findings on the perception of farmers on postsettlement support provided by DARDLA.

#### 5.4.2 Farmers' perception of post-settlement in the three municipalities

In this section, questions related to the support provided by DARDLA were asked and the farmer's responses were as follows:

QuestionNr.9: Was there any feasibility study done before the land was awarded?



It was highlighted in Chapter Two, section 2.8.1, that when a farm has been acquired, a feasibility study should be done to confirm whether the availability of various resources such as infrastructure, machinery and soil profiles are adequate for farming production. Such study should also consider previous and current farming practices and enterprises to forecast the financial viability and production prospects of the project. Information obtained from a thorough feasibility study must assist the farmer in determining the nature of his enterprise. With this background, farmers were asked as to whether there has been any feasibility studies done before or after they acquired the farm. Figure 5.9 indicates that only 34% of the respondents indicated that feasibility studies were done by the local extension worker during the land acquisition process with the purpose of assisting the valuators and DLA in determining the feasibility, farming prospects and value of the farm. The majority of the respondents (45%) indicated that feasibility studies were not done on their farms; as such, they do not know the viability of the farms. Twenty percent (20%) indicated

that they were not sure whether such studies were done as they do not have any records or information of the study in their project files. In the light of the above analysis, one can conclude that most of the farms in these municipalities do not have feasibility study documents of their farms. This has a significant negative impact on the quality of land support and on farming prospects.

Question Nr.9.1: Rate the effectiveness of the post-settlement support by DARDLA in terms of the following?

# a) Business plan development

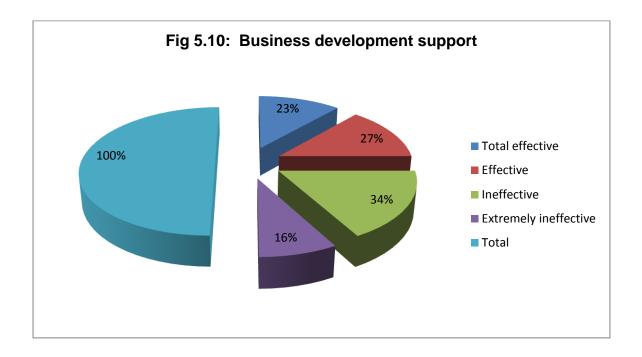
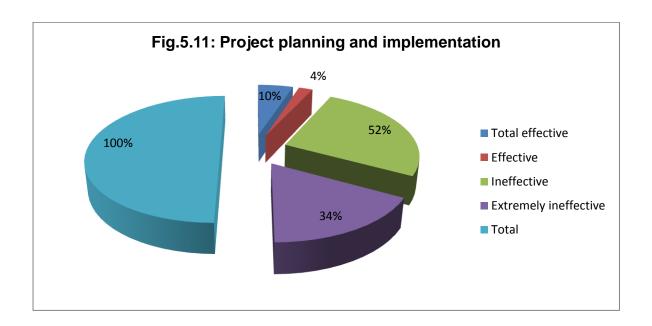


Figure 5.10 reflects the opinions the farmers have on the support provided by DARDLA in terms of business plan development. Out of the total respondents interviewed, 23% and 27% of them are of the opinion that business plan development support is effective and further indicated that DARDLA has assisted them with bankable business plans that have assisted them to get loans from financial institutions. However, the majority of the respondents 61% (27% + 34%) respectively are of the opinion that the business plans are ineffective as they have not received any assistance from DARDLA officials. This has prompted the farmers to ask for assistance from private institutions. Business plan development, as explained in Chapter Two and Three, is a crucial aspect of post-settlement support

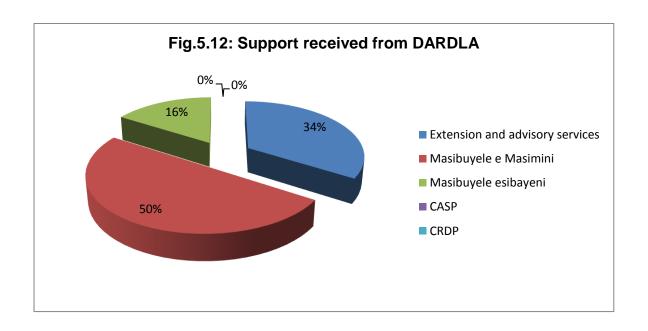
to be provided to land reform beneficiaries. Without a business plan, as in this case, farmers are unlikely to know how land should be used, what infrastructure and what activities are to be carried out, who are the responsible people, when such activities are to be carried out, and at what costs in their particular projects.

## b) Project planning and implementation



As explained in Chapter Two, a project implementation plan represents a tentative chronological plan of project activities needed to ensure the delivery of outputs to secure project outcomes. It is in that context that farmers were further asked on their opinion regarding the effectiveness of project planning and implementation conducted by DARDLA. Fig.5.11 shows that only 9% of respondents especially those that received CASP conditional grants 5 years ago, are of the opinion that they normally plan the projects together with the extension officers and engineers and are active participants in the implementation process. However, 34% and 40% respectively indicated that most of DARDLA's projects are poorly planned and hence the failures experienced during the implementation thereof. The reasons for these failures were the fact that most of the projects are imposed from higher offices and they are not part of operational planning. This implies that such projects are not sustainable and that it is virtually impossible for farmers to have total ownership and control of such projects.

Question Nr.10: Out of the support programmes received from DARDLA for the past two years, which one is applicable to you?

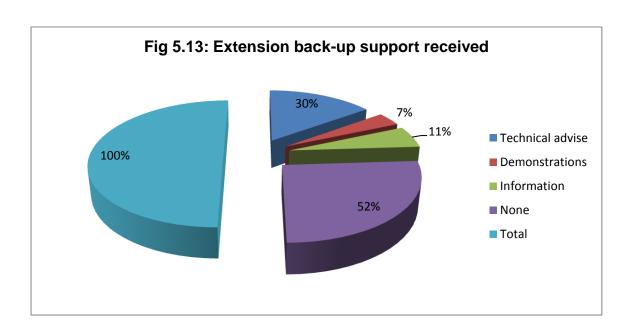


It was established in Chapter Two that sustainability of land reform projects can only be facilitated if farmers are supported with complementary services as part of postsettlement support. Such complementary services include amongst others extension and advisory services. Chapter Four of the study further highlighted the fact that agricultural development programmes could be utilised as strategic interventions by DARDLA in providing post-settlement support. As depicted in figure 5.12, the farmers were asked to choose the programmes that are used by DARDLA as strategies for post-settlement during the past two years. Out of the respondents interviewed, 34% of the respondents indicated that DARDLA adequately assists them with extension and advisory support while 50% of the respondents, mainly crop producers, indicated that they are adequately assisted through the Masibuyele Emasimini programme by receiving mechanisation support. Sixteen percent (16%) of the livestock farmers indicated that they are satisfactorily supported with livestock through the Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme. It was also noted that none of the respondents received any support from CASP and CRDP as part of the intervention strategies. A conclusion drawn from the analysis is that the beneficiaries from these municipalities receive support from DARDLA mainly in the form of extension and advisory services, and through the Masibuyele Emasimini and Masibuyele Esibayeni

programmes. The absence of CASP and CRDP programmes in these municipalities indicates a huge gap in terms of infrastructural support and job creation strategies.

#### **Question Nr.11: Agricultural Extension and Advisory services**

Question Nr.11.1: What kind of extension back-up support do you receive?



In terms of the extension support provided by DARDLA, as explained in Chapter Four, the support includes training and capacity building, technical advice, and marketing strategies. Out of the total respondents interviewed, 29% of farmers indicated that they do receive technical advice from the extension services. However, they pointed out that service is seldom rendered by the extension officers. Often the advice provided is of little help to their farming challenges and constraints. This was supported by 19% (7%+11%) of the respondents who argued that farming demonstrations and information related to their farming needs are rarely provided by DARDLA. This was further echoed by the majority of the respondents (52%) who cited that the absence of the extension services in their project poses a challenge for them because they are unable to increase production without the necessary technical advice and information. In the light of the above analysis, one can conclude that extension services in these three municipalities are either not accessible or not effective. This fact is supported in Chapter Two that one of the inherent

shortcomings of the post-settlement support is the absence of the post-transfer support to land reform beneficiaries to enable them to achieve a situation of sustainable development and improved quality of life.

Question Nr.11.2: What percentage of time do you think the extension worker spend on the following?

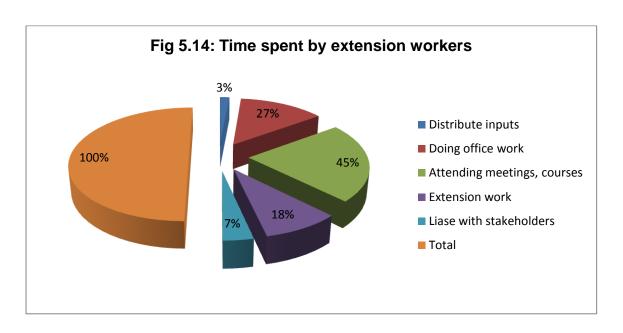


Figure 5.14 indicates that out of the total number of farmers interviewed on the time spend by extension workers distributing inputs, a total of 3% of the farmers are of the view that extension workers spend their time distributing inputs during the peak seasons of Masibuyele Emasimini programmes. A total of 72 %( 23% and 45%) of the respondents are of the opinion that extension workers spend most of their time on non-extension work. They spend less time in the field and are mainly involved with the compilation of reports and other administration duties. The majority of their time is absorbed by attending meetings organised by their supervisors. Twenty three percent (23%) of the respondents indicated that extension workers spend adequate time doing extension work, assisting them with information and technical advice. A further 7% of the respondents indicated that extension workers spent time liaising with financial and marketing institutions on their behalf. The above analysis highlights a challenge with the extension services provided to farmers. Extension workers are expected to spent most their time in the field with farmers than doing non-extension work.

Question Nr.11.3: How many visits does the extension worker undertake per month?

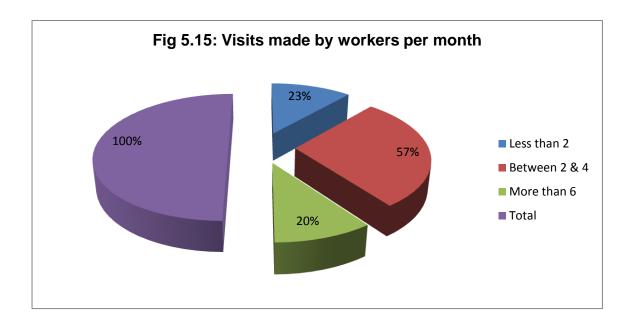
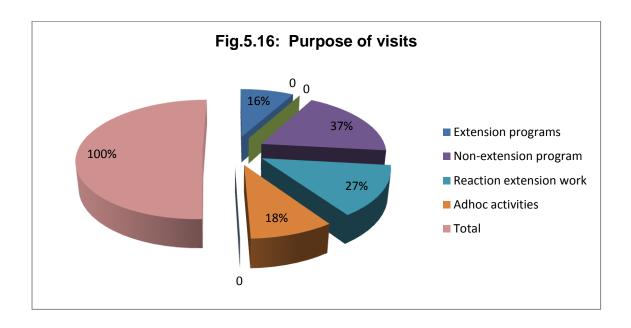


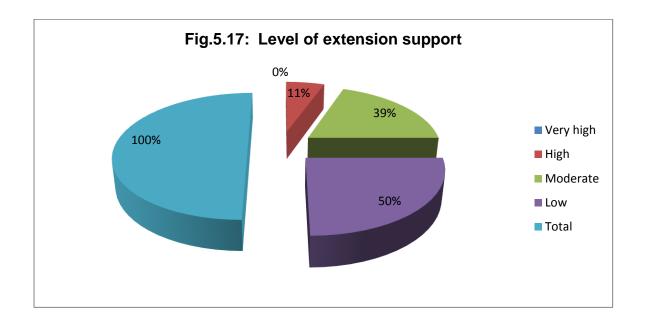
Figure 5.15 indicates that out the total farmers interviewed on the number of visits made by the extension workers a month, the majority of the famers (57%) indicates that the extension worker visits their projects between 2 and 4 days per month, while 23% of the farmers indicated that an extension officer pay less than 2 visits in a month. The minority of the farmers (20%) indicated that an extension officer visits them less than 2 days per month. In light of these results, one can conclude that the majority of the farmers have a view that the extension officers do not visit their projects as often as expected.

Question Nr.11.4: Purpose of visit



As illustrated in figure 5.16, 16% of the farmers interviewed indicated that the main purpose of the extension workers' visits is to provide technical advice and information on various production aspects in their projects. Thirty seven percent (37%) of the farmers indicated that they fail to see the value of the extension workers' visits since they just come and observe on the activities on the farm without giving proper technical advice pertaining to their farming needs and problems. A total of 45%(27% and 18%) indicated that the purpose of the visit is mainly reactionary and *ad hoc* in nature, acting as messengers or just responding to a farmer's call for urgent matters. One can therefore deduce that the purpose of the visits by the extension officer is not to facilitate the extension programmes, but are mainly reactive in nature.

Question Nr.11.5: Can you rate the level of support?



The farmers were asked to rate the level of support received from the extension services in the past two years and the results are shown in figure 5.17. Out of the total farmers interviewed, the majority of the farmers (50 %+), who are either farming commercially or are smallholder farmers, indicated that the support received is low (not adequate). The reasons cited for this response is that they still experience poor production levels due to the lack of technical information, resources, dilapidated onoff farm infrastructures, poor credit facilities and lack of markets to sell their produce. They further argued that programmes like CASP, earmarked for land reform farmers in terms of infrastructure development, marketing, and capacity building, are not accessible to them as land reform beneficiaries. However, the minority of the farmers (11%) indicated that some of the successes in their projects can be attributed to the support they receive from the extension services. A further 39% did agree that although they are not satisfied with the level of service they receive from the extension services, they do receive adequate support in the form of advice and technical information. Sometimes they are assisted with production inputs and mechanisation services. The analysis of the results indicates a need for DARDLA management intervention to further improve the level of extension support for beneficiaries in these municipalities.

### Question Nr.11.6: What are the problems that act as hindrances in effective implementation of the extension programmes?

The following are the summarised responses from the respondents:

- lack of on-off farm infrastructure such as irrigation, fences, handling facilities, and so forth:
- lack of visibility of trained extension personnel;
- lack of access to markets;
- group dynamic challenges amongst the project beneficiaries;
- lack of financial support;
- · poor coordination of projects;
- Inaccessibility of skills and mentorship programmes for farmers; and
- unclear guidelines in implementation of the extension programmes by the extension personnel.

These obstacles further accentuate the need for improved post-settlement support as highlighted under the problem statement in Chapter One.

### Question Nr.11.7: What remedial action will you suggest to improve the extension services?

As a remedial action for improved extension services, the farmers agreed that the following is required to improve the extension services:

- visibility of the extension cadre of well-trained extension personnel; they should be adequately qualified and sufficient in numbers and well resourced;
- adequate financial back-up support from the Government;
- proper project coordination of projects, with the involvement of farmers in planning, implementation and evaluation;
- Intervention strategies in dealing with the group dynamic challenges between the project members;

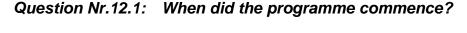
- Government should prioritise infrastructural development support as it is the main reason for the collapse of many of the land reform projects;
- capacity building and mentorship programmes for farmers; and
- clear guidelines for the successful implementation of extension programmes.

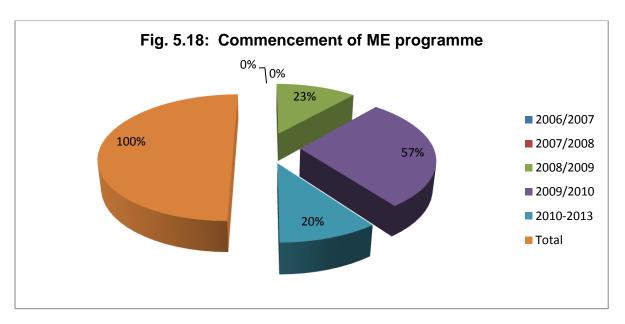
Farmers are at the coal face and have a first-hand experience in the services that are provided by DARDLA. It is imperative that policymakers within DARDLA pay utmost attention to these recommendations as proposed by the farmers.

The next section focuses on the perception of farmers on the support provided by DARDLA through Masibuyele Emasimini Programme (ME).

#### Question Nr.5.12: Masibuyele Emasimini Programme (ME)

Farmers were asked questions related to Masibuyele Emasimini Programme and the following were the responses:

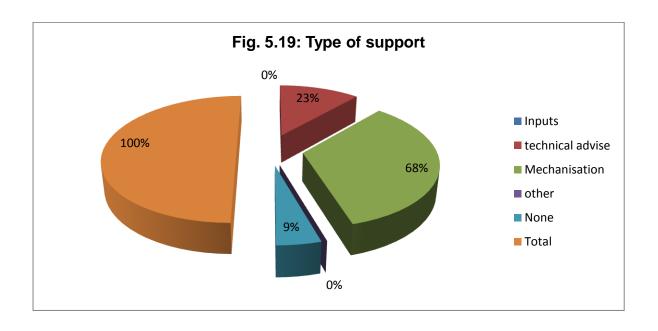




As explained in Chapter Four, the ME Programme was conceptualized by DARDLA as a food security programme to urge and support the rural people in using their under-utilized land to enhance their food security and their livelihoods. It is in this

context that the farmers were asked as to when the programme commenced. Figure 5.18 indicates that 23% of the farmers indicated that they became involved in the programme during the 2008/2009 financial year, while the majority of the respondents (58%) indicated that they became beneficiaries during the 2009/2010 financial year. It is also noted that a smaller portion (20%) of the respondents have been part of the programme from 2010 till 2013. In the light of the above analysis, one can deduce that the majority of the respondents became involved in the programme in 2009/2010. This was due to the expansion of the programme to all the wards of the municipalities as confirmed in Chapter Four.

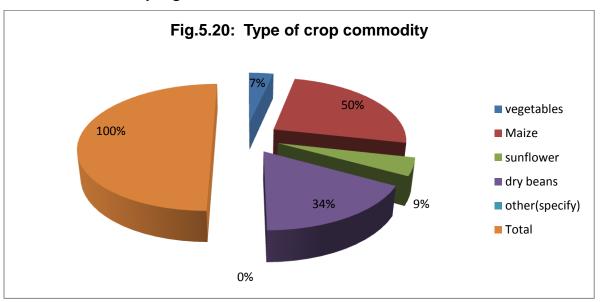




Chapter Four explained the pillars of support and the implementation strategy of the ME programme. Farmers were asked about the type of support they receive through the programme. As illustrated in figure 5.19, out of the respondents interviewed, the majority of 91% (23% and 68%) indicated that they are receiving technical advice and mechanisation equipment (for example, tractors and other farming implements) through the secondary cooperatives established in each municipality. Only 9% of the respondents argued that because of the shortage of mechanisation allocated for municipalities they end up not benefitting from the programme. They cited Victor Khanye Municipality as an example which has been allocated only two tractors for land reform farmers. This has caused farmers to queue for services and they end up

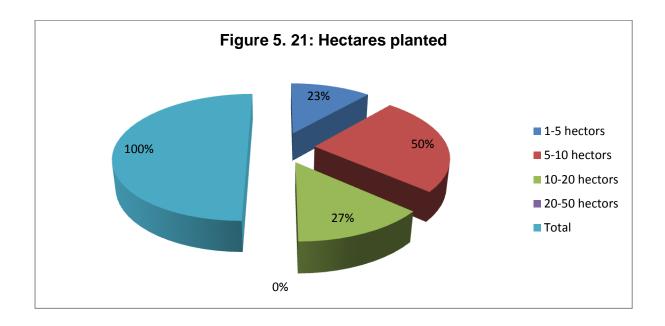
not ploughing their fields at all. From this situation, it can be deduced that the majority of the farmers receive mechanisation services as a pillar of support through the ME programme, but that the quantity thereof is not adequate to fully address the needs of farmers.

Question Nr.12.3: What type of crops have you planted through the programme?



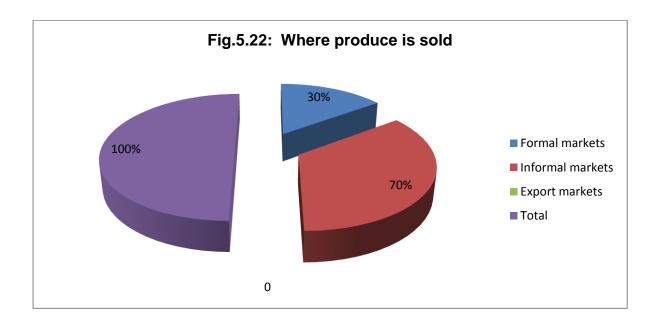
Chapter Four of the study indicated a variety of crop commodities that farmers can be planted through the programme. The question was also asked to assess whether there is any limitation in terms of crops that can be planted through the programme. It is that background that farmers were further asked to indicate the type of crop they are planting through the programme. As depicted in figure 5.20, 3% of the farmers interviewed indicated that they are planting vegetables, while 84% (50% +34%) of the farmers indicated that they are planting maize and dry beans. Nine percent of the farmers are sunflower producing farmers. In the light of the above analysis, a conclusion can be drawn that the majority of the farmers in these three municipalities are grain producing farmers as it was confirmed in the previous discussion in this chapter. This analysis will assist in future in establishing further research on the economic viability of these commodities in these municipalities.

Question Nr.12.4: Size of hectares planted through the programme?



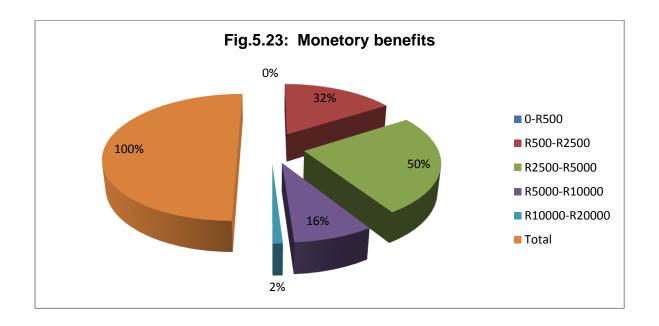
As illustrated in figure 5.21, farmers were asked about the number of hectares planted through the programme. Twenty three percent (23%) of the respondents indicated that they have planted between 1 and 5 hectares through the programme. Farmers in this category argued that though they have more than 20 hectares available for crop production, they cannot plant all the hectares due to high input cost such as diesel and labour. The same applies to those farmers in the category 10 to 20 hectares. This group indicated that through the programme they can only afford to plant 10 to 20 hectares and the rest of the other hectares are leased to neighbouring commercial farmers to supplement their income. Twenty seven percent (27%) of the respondents indicated that through the programme they have been planting maize and dry beans on a scale of 20 to 30 hectares and had to outsource additional mechanisation and implements to neighbouring commercial farmers. The above analysis indicates that the majority of the farmers are planting 10 to 20 hectares of crops through the ME programme. The challenges of high input costs and insufficient allocation of mechanisation as indicated above (figure 5.21) by the farmers, are confirmed in the ME concept document in Chapter Four as a weakness of the programme.

Question Nr.12.5: Where are you selling your crops?



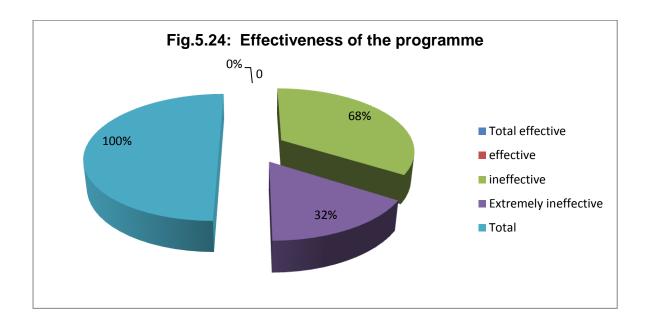
Chapter Two highlighted that the accessibility of markets as part of post-settlement support to farmers is crucial for success in land reform projects. It is therefore against this background that farmers were further asked as to where they are selling their produce. As illustrated in figure 5.22, out of the respondents interviewed, a minority of 30% of the farmers indicated that they sell through formal local markets. However, it was indicated that not all of their produce are sold at formal markets. Due to the poor quality of their produce, they often have to sell at informal markets. A significant portion (70%) indicated that they sell their produce informally at street markets (vendors) to local people due to poor quality of their produce and inaccessibility of markets. The above analysis implies that the majority of the farmers in these three municipalities are selling their produce locally to informal markets. As confirmed in Chapter Two, this is one of the inherent challenges of the land reform programme and demands serious attention by DARDLA to improve post-settlement support.

Question Nr.12.6: What are the benefits of the programme in monetary terms?



Based on the above illustration (figure 5.23), 32% of the farmers who mainly sell their produce at local streets vendors are generating an income of between R500 to R2 500 per annum, mainly from vegetables, maize and dry beans. The majority of the farmers (50%) are generating between R2 500 to R5 000 per annum through the sale of their produce at local informal markets. However, 7% of the farmers indicated that they are making between R5 000 to R10 000 per annum through the sale of the produce at formal markets. The minority (2%) of farmers who entered in strategic partnerships with other commercial farmers indicated that after harvesting they are able to make between R10 000 to R20 000. From this analysis it can be deduced that the majority of farmers in this municipality do not earn enough money out of the programme to sustain their livelihoods.

Question Nr.12.7: Rate the level of effectiveness of the programme



Farmers were asked to rate the level of effectiveness of the programme in terms of its implementation and benefits gained from the programme. The majority, 68% and 32% respectively, view the programme as ineffective due to the challenges they experience during the implementation of the programme. This further confirm the problem statement of this study, namely that strategic policy and managerial interventions are required by DARDLA to further improve post-settlement support in land reform endeavours.

### Question Nr.12.8: What are the challenges associated with the implementation of the programme?

The responses on the challenges are summarised as follows:

- there seems to be evidence of poor planning and implementation and overall coordination of the programme. This has resulted in the late ploughing and planting of crops on the farms every year resulting in poor yield;
- lack of capital to purchase production input such as fuel cost;
- lack of marketing support;
- DARDLA is using a blanket system in implementing the programme without looking or considering individual circumstances; ineffective of the extension

- personnel in giving proper technical advice which will yield to increase in good quality produce;
- the Co-operative model on land reform farmers did not yield good results.
   Most of the Co-operatives lack capital to procure fuel and other production inputs and this has led to many of the land reform farmers to lease land to commercial farmers:
- instead of being seen as an empowerment programme, the programme has created a dependency syndrome of farmers on Government. Farmers are no longer able to manage their projects and perform other activities; they expect Government to do everything for them; and
- tractors are abused by a selected group of individuals leading to inefficiency,
   ineffectiveness and the uneconomical implementation of the programme.

From these challenges it is evident that the programme is ineffective and strategies are needed to address these challenges.

## Question Nr.12.9: What are the suggested solutions for improvement of the programme?

Based on the aforementioned challenges, the following are the suggested solutions to ameliorate the situation:

- Better planning of the programme is essential. This includes analysing the needs and challenges faced by the land reform farmers. This can then be incorporated into the plans so that an effective strategy can be designed;
- Farmers need to be assisted with capital to finance production inputs;
- A review of the Co-operative model need to be done or farmers should be capacitated to be able to understand their role and responsibilities in assisting farmers during the implementation of the programme;
- The visibility of skilled extension personnel on the ground for technical advice during the ploughing and planting season should be ensured;
- There should be proper procurement and allocation of more good quality mechanisation in each municipality; and

 The alignment of the programme with other programmes like CASP, CRDP and agro-processing value chain should be done.

It is crucial that these suggested solutions be considered as strategies by DARDLA Programme Managers to improve the programme.

#### **Question Nr.13:** Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)

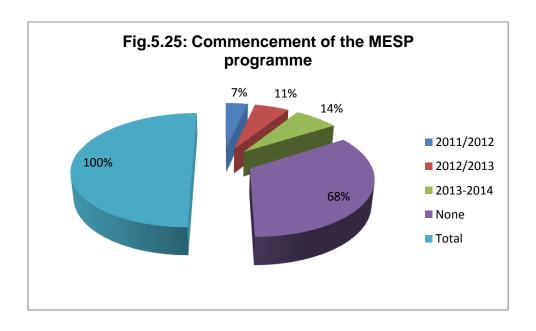
As explained earlier, farmers could not respond to questions related to CASP due to the inaccessibility of the programme within the municipalities in the past three years.

The next section of the study focuses perception of farmers on Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme as post-settlement support.

#### Question Nr.14: Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme

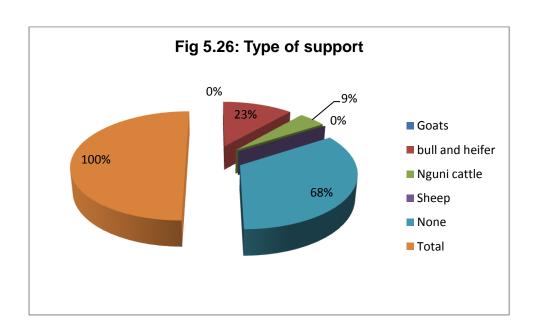
Farmers were asked questions regarding their perception on MESP programme and the response was as follows:

Question Nr.14.1: When did the programme commence?



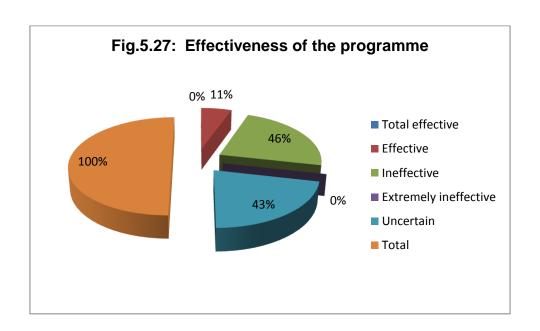
Section 4.5.1 of Chapter Four asserted that the Livestock Improvement Programme (LIP) as a food security programme was designed to target the livestock or potential livestock farmers and is aimed at addressing the shortage of good quality breeding animals. The LIP further aims to encourage the adoption of basic livestock management best practice. Such practices are generally not utilised by emerging farmers. It is against this background that the farmers were asked as to when the programme commenced. The results in the above illustration (figure 5.25) show that a total of 32% of farmers (6.8% + 11% + 14%) interviewed indicated that they became part of the programme since 2011. Sixty eight (68%) percent of the farmers indicated that they have not benefitted from the programme and have been excluded from the programme due to the criteria that is used to qualify for the programme. Others have also been waiting to become part of the programme, but without any success. From the above analysis, it can be concluded that the programme has not yet reached the majority of the livestock farmers in these three municipalities. This fact is confirmed in Chapter Four, that the lack of infrastructure has limited the majority of the farmers to benefit out of the programme and the fact that it is a newly introduced programme, only a few farmers have benefitted from the programme.

Question Nr.14.2: What type of support did you receive through the programme?



Based on Chapter Four, which described the type of support received by the livestock farmers through the programme, farmers were probed regarding the type of support they receive through the programme. As depicted in the above illustration (figure 5.26), 23% of the farmers indicated that they received bull and heifer cattle, while 9% of the livestock farmers indicated that they received Nguni cattle. One can therefore conclude that the majority of the farmers are not adequately benefitting from the programme while only a smaller part (23%) of livestock farmers did benefit.

Question Nr.14.3: Rate the effectiveness of the implementation of the programme



As depicted in figure 5.27, 11% of the farmers rated the implementation of the programme as effective while the majority of the farmers (45%) rated the implementation of the programme as ineffective. Farmers cited the qualification criteria for the programme, which includes amongst others, the size of the grazing land required and the unavailability of the necessary infrastructure as the main reasons for the ineffectiveness of the programme. A significant portion (43%) of the farmers indicated that they were uncertain as to whether the programme is effective or ineffective since they have not yet benefitted from the programme. A conclusion can be drawn that the majority of the farmers are of the view that the programme is ineffective. This further confirms the need for this study.

### Question Nr.14.4: What successes have you recorded since you benefitted from the programme?

In responding to this question, the majority of the farmers indicated that the success of the programme has been minimal since the benefits may only be seen after three years after receiving the livestock.

### Question Nr.14.5: What are the challenges associated with the Implementation of the programme?

In response to this question, farmers highlighted the following challenges summarised below:

- Lack of the infrastructural support like the handling facilities, fences and boreholes makes it impossible for them to benefit from the programme;
- Most of the farmers who acquired land through the PLAS programme are excluded from the programme because of their contract with DLA; and
- The size of the grazing land required also limits them to benefit from the programme.

## Question Nr.14.6: What can be suggested to improve the implementation of the programme?

In response to the above question, the farmers suggested the following to improve the implementation of the programme:

- There is a need for DARDLA to prioritise infrastructural development support for livestock farmers; and
- The criteria for qualification should be reviewed and be aligned to the circumstances of the farmers.

#### **Question Nr.15:** Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP)

The questions regarding the implementation of this programme were not responded to due to the inaccessibility of the programme within the municipalities.

### 5.4.2. Managers' perceptions on post-settlement support provided to land reform farmers

In Question Nr.16, Managers were asked as to whether they have policies in place that guides the implementation of the post-settlement support to land reform farmers. The response was summarised as follows:

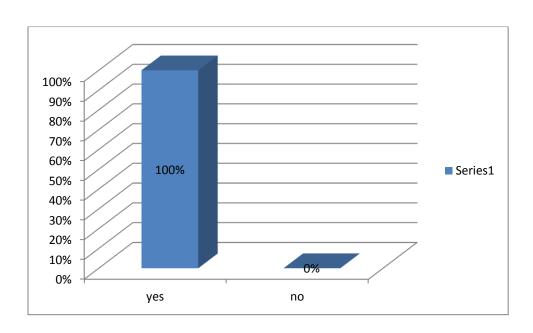


Fig. 5.28 Availability of policies

Chapter Three of the study described the legislative framework that regulates the provision of post-settlement support in land reform projects. It is in this respect that Managers were asked whether DARDLA has policies that guide the implementation of the post-settlement support projects. The response from the respondents was that indeed DARDLA has adequate policies in place to regulate the implementation of post-settlement support projects. The Department derives its core mandate from the provisions of schedules 4 and 5 and section 104 (1) b of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and is further guided by a number of Acts and policies as

reflected in the 2011 DAFF Strategic Plan. However, although respondents confirmed that policies are in place, some of them are still to be refined based on the changing needs of the farmers. This fact is supported by Chapter Two which alluded to the fact that the agricultural sector is continuously subjected to changes such as production technologies and as such, it needs to continuously adjust through amendments and replacement of some of the policy directives.

In Question Nr.17, the respondents were asked to rate effectiveness in adherence to the post-settlement policies and the response was as follows:

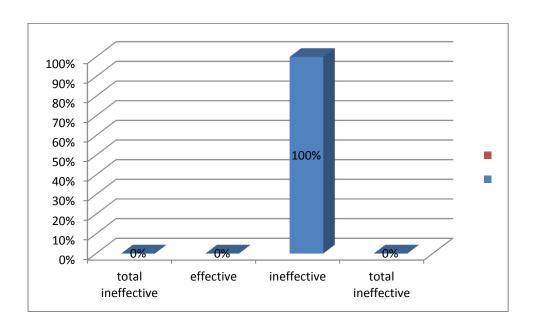
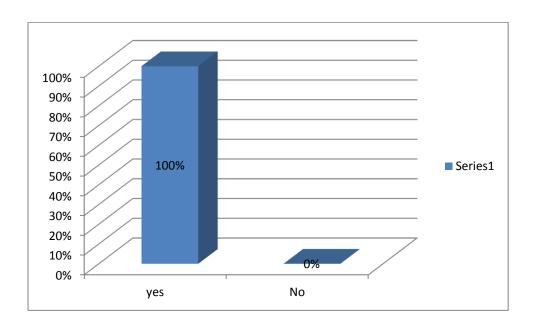


Fig.5.29: Effectiveness in adherence to post-settlement policies

Hundred percent (100%) of the respondents are of the opinion that the policy directives are not meticulously followed due to constant changes in management (that is, high staff turnover) and political interferences. This results in constant shifts in policy direction and unfunded mandates. This challenge is confirmed in Chapter Three, section 4.4.1, which indicated that such policy changes place the Department under pressure to constantly re-adjust its resource allocations, including financial and human resources, to deal with these unfunded mandates.

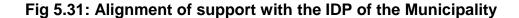
In Question Nr.18, Managers were asked whether the support is aligned to the transferred land and the responses are summarised below in figure 5.30 as follows:

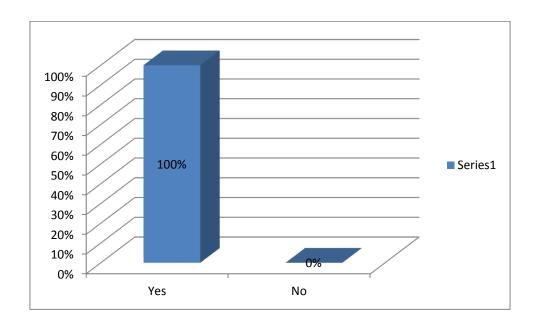
Fig.5.30: Support aligned to transferred land



Hundred (100%) of the respondents indicated that the support is not aligned with the transferred land in the three municipal areas. This was also confirmed in Chapter Four, an example cited in section 4.5.1.3.2.1 regarding the CASP programme indicated that DARDLA has a huge backlog in terms of infrastructural support and there is a growing number of settled land reform projects that are showing signs of collapse. The available resources for infrastructural support are thus not adequate to meet the demands on these land reform farms. This is a pressing challenge that demands immediate action by DARDLA.

In question Nr.19, Managers were asked whether the post-settlement support is aligned with the integrated development plans (IDPs) of the respective municipalities. The response from the Managers is presented below in figure 5.31.

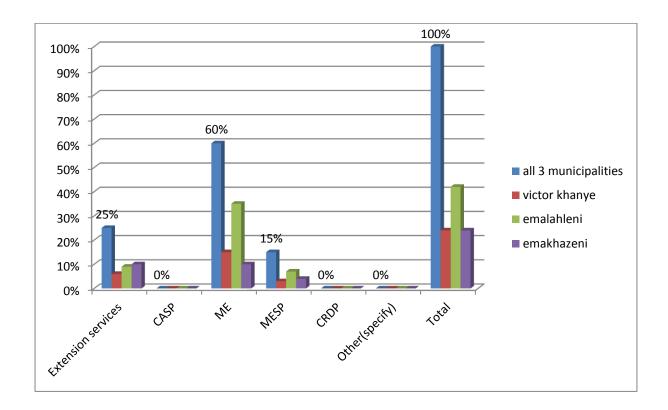




All respondents concurred that the support provided by DARDLA is aligned with the IDP structures of the municipalities. This question was based on the theoretical orientation in Chapter Two, which described the functions and roles of the three (3) spheres of Government in post-settlement support. This was further confirmed in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1.2.1, that the agro-based model used by DARDLA in implementing the post-settlement support was designed to link with and support activities of the respective IDPs to ensure municipal support for business development for farmers. The IDP is a useful instrument to ensure that farmers generate sustainable agro-based livelihoods on economically viable farms, thus assisting municipalities with local economic development imperatives.

In Question Nr.20, the Managers were asked to rate the accessibility of the following support programmes to land reform beneficiaries during the past three years. The response is summarised below in figure 5.32.

Fig.5.32: Accessibility of the programmes



Chapter Three of the study described and analysed the support programmes that are used by DARDLA as post-settlement support for land reform farmers in the three municipalities. It is that context that the respondents were asked to rate the accessibility of the support programmes to the land reform farmers. As illustrated in figure 5.32, the perception of the Managers on the overall access of the extension services support in the three municipalities is at 25%, with Emakhazeni receiving better extension services, while Emalahleni and Victor Khanye receiving less extension support. The Managers cited inadequate skills of the extension personnel as the main reason for such challenges. In all the three municipalities the CASP and CRDP programmes were not accessible at all, while the accessibility of the ME programme was said to be at 60%, Emalahleni being the municipality that receives better support and Victor Khanye as the municipality which is not performing as expected. Challenges cited include the shortage of mechanisation and the poor overall coordination of the programme. Based on a comparative analysis of the three municipalities, it is evident that the overall accessibility of the programmes is at 40%, with Victor Khanye and Emakhazeni municipalities being the lowest. The challenges cited by the respondents as the main factors for the inaccessibility of the programmes are confirmed in Chapter Four. The absence of the CASP and the CRDP in these three municipalities is a worrying factor as these programmes can create job opportunities and alleviate poverty in these municipalities.

In Question Nr.21, Managers were asked to elaborate on the challenges that are associated with the implementation of the support programmes. In response, the respondents mentioned the following challenges:

- lack of or inadequate resources allocated for the implementation of the support programmes. This includes amongst others
  - o lack of capacity to implement the support programmes;
  - constant policy direction changes results in poorly coordinated projects;
     and
  - budget allocation for the implementation of projects is not sufficient to support all the needy farmers.
- Group dynamic and conflict amongst stakeholders in projects mainly due to the following:
  - The 'rent a crowd' approach in LRAD and SLAG projects creates conflicts amongst the beneficiaries, mainly on the usage of the land;
  - The lack of title deeds in PLAS projects implies that Government cannot have long term investment on the farm as the ownership of the land vest with the state;
  - some of the people who acquired land are neither really farmers nor aspiring farmers, but are land owners. In such cases conflict regarding the usage of the land arises and the lack of commitment of farmers becomes a significant challenge.
- There is a dependency syndrome displayed by farmers. The continuous provision of support to farmers creates a dependency of the farmers on Government support programmes.

The following were suggested as solutions to remedy the challenges highlighted above:

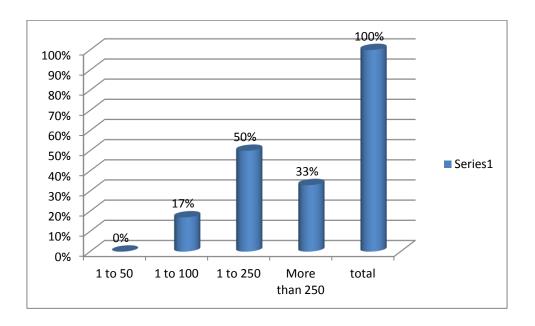
- DARDLA should improve its planning to allocate adequate resources and budgets for the implementation of land reform projects;
- Recruitment of adequate and highly skilled extension personnel should be done to ensure that farmers in these municipalities receive adequate support;
- Policies need to be aligned to the needs of the farmers and changes to such
  policies should be in such a way that it results in increased production and
  improved food security; and
- Various strategies which include the involvement of other stakeholders should be used to resolve challenges in projects. These include the involvement of DRDLR in resolving the title deeds challenges and review of the criteria used in accessing land to ensure that farmers or aspiring farmers are prioritised.

The next section discusses the perception of the post-settlement support provided to the land reform beneficiaries.

### 5.4.3. Extension workers' perception on post-settlement support provided to land reform beneficiaries

In Question Nr.22, extension workers were asked on the farmer: extension ratio. The response is summarised in figure 5.33 below.

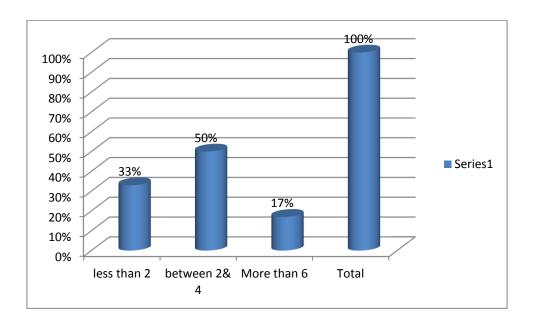
Fig. 5.33: Farmer extension ratio



This question was asked based on the norms and standards of extension as explained in Chapter Four of the study. These norms and standards include amongst others the visibility of the extension workers, which includes the number of farmers each extension worker should be allocated. As illustrated in figure 5.32, 17% of the respondents indicated that each extension worker is allocated 100 farmers, while 50% of the respondents are of the opinion that each extension worker is allocated 250 farmers. Thirty three (33%) percent of the respondents indicated that each extension worker is allocated more than 250 farmers. This situation is not conducive to provide quality support services.

In Question Nr.23, extension workers were asked about the number of visits they undertake per month. The response is summarised in figure 5.34 below.

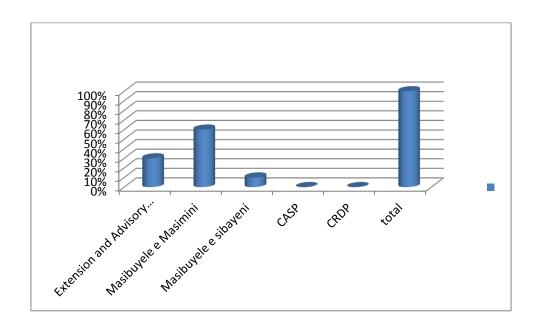




The norms and standards of extension prescribes as part of visibility of extension that more than 80% of the extension workers' time should be in the field with the farmers, assisting them with technical advice, training and providing them with information related to marketing and so forth. It is in that regard that the respondents were asked about the number of visits they undertake per month. In response as per the above figure 5.34, 33% of the respondents are of the view that two or less visits are done by the extension worker in a month, while 50% of the respondents indicated that an extension worker visits the farmers' fields between 2 and 4 times in a month. It was also noted that 17% of the respondents are of the view than an extension worker visits the farmers' field more than 6 times in a month. When further probed about the visits, they acknowledged that they are aware that less visits compromises the efficiency of farmers as they are not always updated and well informed and assisted with production recommendations. They mentioned the lack of resources, in terms of mobility, tools and equipments, and inadequacy of the extension personnel in these municipalities as main reasons for the lack of the adequate number of visits undertaken. Other reasons cited for their "invisibility" included the fact that they have a significant administrative burden as well as the wide variety of duties imposed on them by their supervisors.

In Question Nr.24, extension workers were asked about the support programmes implemented under their jurisdiction. The response is summarised in figure 5.35 below.

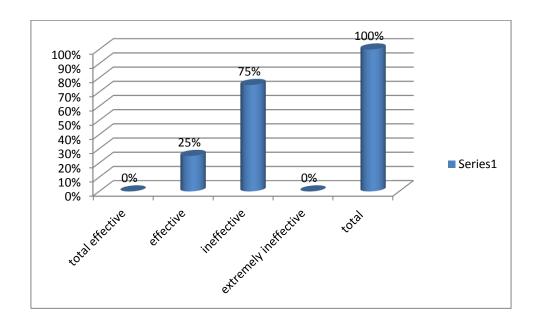
Fig. 5.35 Support programmes implemented



The question was aimed to assess the validity of the information provided by farmers regarding the accessibility of the support programmes within the three municipalities. As depicted from the above illustration (figure 5.35), when the respondents were asked on the accessibility of the support programmes provided in these municipalities, indication shows that the ME programmes are at 65%, extension services at 30% and MESP programme at 15%, while CASP and CRDP are not implemented by extension workers in these municipalities. The analysis therefore indicates that there seem to be some similarities between the farmers and the extension workers' perception on the support provided or accessed by farmers as post-settlement support.

In Question Nr.25, extension workers were asked on the effectiveness of the post-settlement support they provide in terms of planning and implementation of projects. The response is summarised in figure 5.36 below:





Chapter Two emphasised the project management approach as part of the phases of the post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries. The project management-based approach was also mentioned and described as outlined by DARDLA in Chapter Four as the approach used in implementation of its projects. It was in that context that the respondents were asked on the effectiveness of the support in planning and implementation of projects. As depicted in fig 5.36 above, 35% of the respondents are of the opinion that the planning and implementation of the projects are effective. The majority of the respondents indicated that projects are implemented in an ad hoc basis without following the project management approach. They further indicated that some projects are imposed on the farmers and in cases where they have been involved in planning, such plans are not implemented. The lack of implementation of infrastructural projects in these municipalities was mentioned as the major attribute to the failure in most of the land reform projects. The above challenges as indicated by the respondents were mentioned in Chapter Four by the study as some of the challenges faced by DARDLA in the implementation of projects.

In Question Nr.26, extension workers were asked about the level of the back-up support they receive from DARDLA to deliver on the extension programmes. The response is shown in figure 5.37 below:

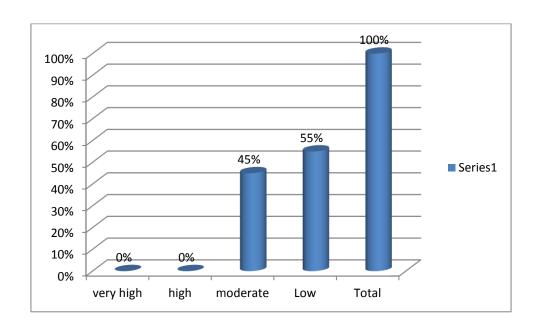


Fig. 5.37 Rate the level back-up support provided

One of the pillars of the Extension Recovery Plan as described in Chapter Four, section 4.5.1.3.1 is to ensure the extension workers are well equipped with ICT infrastructure and other resources as tools to improve access to agricultural support services and meet the needs of the farmers and the ever changing technologies in the agricultural sector. The respondents were asked on the level of support they are being provided by DARDLA as a backup for the implementation of the extension programmes. Forty five percent (45%) of the respondents rated the level of support to be moderate, while the majority of the respondents (65%) are of the view that the level of backup support provided by DARDLA is low. The respondents acknowledged that although DARDLA has improved in the recent years by ensuring that the extension workers are provided with laptops, cell phones and so forth for them to be able to be in regular contact with the farmers, the extension workers available are not sufficient in number and also lack the required skills to cover the whole spectrum of farmers.

In Question Nr.27, extension workers were asked on the challenges associated with the implementation of the agricultural development programmes. The responses are summarised below as follows:

- lack of resources:
- lack of capacity to deliver the on the planned targets;
- lack of capacity building and mentorship programmes earmarked for extension that are relevant to needs of the farmers;
- poor planning and coordination of projects;
- dependency syndrome of the farmers on Government's conditional grants and support programmes;
- most of the people who benefitted land through the land reform programmes are not really farmers but land owners;
- constant change in policy direction political interference on the operational plans has resulted in unfunded mandates, leading to shifting of resources from the original plans; and
- group dynamic challenges amongst the land reform beneficiaries in projects.

With the above challenges, extension workers are unable to deliver on the planned extension targets and intervention is needed to address these challenges.

In Question Nr.28, extension workers were asked to provide suggested solutions for the above challenges. The responses are summarised below as follows:

- DARDLA needs to improve on its budget as to ensure allocation of more resources as backup to be able to deliver on the planned targets or extension programmes and the allocation should factor the extent and scope of the extension service delivery to land reform farmers;
- Extension personnel should be allowed to attend in-service training and mentorship programmes to upgrade their knowledge and skills;
- There should be recruitment of adequate and skilled extension personnel;

- Activities done by DARDLA should be in line with the annual performance plan (APP) of the department. Constant political interferences should be avoided at all costs;
- DARDLA should develop an exit strategy for all its support programmes; and
- The selection criteria for people to qualify for acquiring of land through the land reform programme should be reviewed to ensure that qualifying farmers are prioritised to benefit from land acquisition programmes.

#### 5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter described the extent to which DARDLA provide its post-settlements support to land reform farmers. Through a qualitative research design an empirical investigation was conducted by means of a case study and interviews. An overview and description of the case study was provided which enabled insight into the problem statement as outlined in Chapter One. The chapter further presented a discussion on the research design, population, sampling and data-collection techniques used to collect data. The respondents for the study were sampled through purposive sampling. An interview schedule was compiled to collect data.

Data collected from the study was presented and findings were interpreted. A conclusion reached on the basis of evidence from the respondents indicated that indeed there are significant challenges associated with the support programmes used by DARDLA as post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries in the three municipalities.

The next chapter will conclude the study by giving a summary on how the chapters have operationalised the research objectives of the study, and finally, based on the challenges identified in this chapter, the study will provide recommendations to DARDLA in improving post-settlement support provided to land reform beneficiaries.

#### **CHAPTER 6**

#### RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Five dealt with the extent of post-settlement support provided by DARDLA as evident from the empirical findings. Data collected on the empirical findings associated with the support programmes that are provided by DARDLA as post-settlement support were analysed and presented.

This chapter concludes the study by summarising the main findings and make recommendations to DARDLA to address the current post-settlement challenges as well as to identify what can be considered as effective post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries. The chapter commences by summarising the extent to which the respective chapters operationalised the research objectives and questions of the study. This is followed by a discussing the main findings obtained from the literature survey and empirical investigation. Finally, the chapter concludes the study by providing recommendations to improve post-settlement support provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries as the main purpose of the study.

#### 6.2 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER OUTCOMES

The aim of the study was to identify land reform post-settlement challenges associated with the provision of support services by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries. The following is a brief synopsis of the structure of the study:

Chapter One provided an introduction to the study. This included the orientation and problem statement. The main objectives of the research study, data collection strategies, procedures and analysis as well as the chapter layout were also discussed.

Chapter Two provided a theoretical overview on the context and principles of the land reform programme in South Africa. This chapter explored the background and the historic developments that necessitated land reform in South Africa. The chapter further discussed the importance of post-settlement support in the context of land reform including functions and responsibilities, as well as the implementation processes.

Chapter Three explored the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LRP in South Africa. This chapter served as a yardstick criterion to gauge the extent to which support services are provided. This included discussions on the prescripts, acts and policies and policy guidelines pertaining to the LRP in South Africa. As such, the chapter provided a second leg in data triangulation (that is, answering the 'what should be?' question).

Chapter Four dealt with an analytical overview of the current land reform postsettlement support process. The chapter described and analysed the post-settlement support strategies provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries in Mpumalanga Province. As such, this chapter provided a further leg in data triangulation and act as antithesis of the study (that is, answering the 'what is?' question).

Chapter Five discussed the extent of post-settlement support provided by DARDLA to the land reform beneficiaries based on the empirical investigation. A qualitative research design in a form of a case study was selected as an approach for the study. An interview schedule in the form of semi-structured questions was used as an instrumentation method used to gather data. The interviews thus tested the nature of the adherence to theoretical principles (Chapter Two) and the statutory prescripts (Chapter Three) as well as the situation in DARDLA (Chapter Four). The chapter concluded by presenting post-settlement support data collected through the empirical investigation.

#### 6.2.1 Research Objectives

The following specific objectives and questions were used to operationalise the study:

#### 6.2.1.1 To explore the principles of the LRP as applicable in South Africa

In order to achieve the above objective, a question was asked in Chapter One as to what are the principles of the LRP as applicable in South Africa. To operationalise the objective and answer to the question, Chapter Two provided a theoretical overview on the principles and context of Land Reform in South Africa thereby exploring on the evolution of the land reform in South Africa. An analysis of the conceptual and contextual as well the ideological vantage points of land reform was discussed. Furtherance on this discussion was the definition of post-settlement support within the context of land reform, the procedures and implementation of the land reform programme and the relationship between land reform and post-settlement. The discussion was narrowed down to the shortcomings of post-settlement, but the chapter simultaneously identified management measures to streamline and make post-settlement support arrangements more effective.

### 6.2.1.2 To investigate the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LRP in South Africa

In Chapter One, a question was asked as to what is the statutory and regulatory framework pertaining to the LRP in South Africa. Chapter Three of the study provided an overview on the current legislation, policies, and regulations that make up the statutory and regulatory framework governing LRP in South Africa. In order to do so, the chapter presented an overview of South Africa's legislative framework, strategies and programmes aimed at redress in terms of inequalities in land distribution in South Africa.

### 6.2.1.3 To describe and analyse how the DARDLA provides post-settlement support to land reform projects

A question was asked in Chapter One as to what kind of post settlement-support does the DARDLA provide to Land reform projects and how is it coordinated, structured and processed. The question was addressed in Chapter Four which firstly described and analysed the organisational environment and how that had an impact on the effective and efficient delivery of post-settlement services to beneficiaries. The chapter further unpacked the support programmes that are used by DARDLA as strategies in providing the post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries. This included amongst others:

- the approaches used to implement the support strategies or support programmes;
- o pillars of support for each programme;
- o implementation strategies employed on each support programme; and
- o the weaknesses or challenges associated with each support programme.

# 6.2.1.4 To obtain empirical evidence through the land reform focus groups regarding the extent of post-settlement support provided by the DARDLA

A question posed in Chapter One, "What are the empirical evidences on the post-settlement support provided by the DARDLA to the land reform beneficiaries?" Chapter Five responded to the question by describing the extent of support provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries through the empirical evidence from the farmers and officials from DARDLA. The chapter outlined the research methodology and techniques used for data collection and the rationale for the choice of these tools and methods. The chapter concluded by presenting an analysis of the data gathered from the three municipalities (units of analyses).

# 6.2.1.5 To make recommendations to the DARDLA for it to address the current post-settlement challenges and identify effective post-settlement support to land reform projects

A question was posed in Chapter One as to what are the recommendations that can be suggested to the DARDLA to address the current post-settlement challenges and what can be considered as effective post- settlement support to land reform projects? The question is answered in this chapter by providing recommendations to address the key post-settlement challenges identified in chapter 5 as a way of improving the post settlement support provided by DARDLA.

The next section discusses the findings of the study.

#### 6.3 MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

As stated, the main purpose of the study was to identify the key challenges associated with the post-settlement support provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries. The results from the empirical investigations from the respondents show that indeed there are significant challenges associated with the support programmes used by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries in the three municipalities. The study has identified a distinction of challenges that are at governance level and those that are at operational or project level. The challenges identified are cross-cutting to all the support programmes provided by DARDLA.

The following therefore summarises the main findings on the key challenges identified in Chapter Five:

At the project level, the following **challenges** have been identified that impede the farmers in using their land to their full potential. These include amongst others:

 Poor planning, coordination and implementation of projects. Projects are planned without the involvement of beneficiaries and the relevant stakeholders and are then imposed to farmers for implementation. Such projects are not sustainable and it is virtually impossible for farmers to have total ownership and control of such projects. Coupled to this is the non-alignment of different programmes during planning, resulting in so-called 'double-dipping' of resources and duplication of roles and responsibilities.

- Lack of on-off farm infrastructure support. It has emerged from the empirical study that there is lack of support in terms of infrastructure development support in these three municipalities. This includes infrastructure support such as irrigation systems, fences and handling facilities. Without this support, farmers are unable to increase food production and make a living out of farming.
- Lack of extension and advisory support. Farmers, in virtually all the three municipalities, perceive the level of support they received from the extension services as inadequate. These include inadequate entrepreneurial skilled extension personnel that are able to assist farmers with technical advice, information and production recommendations on regular basis. It has been noted that the extension personnel seem to be "invisible" to help resolve farmers' problems. Extension is done on an ad hoc basis and is mainly for reaction extension work and non-extension programmes.
- Lack of access to markets and credit facilities. These include access to marketing information, infrastructure and technical advice. It was evident from the respondents that the lack of post-harvest facilities that includes amongst others pack houses, mills, silos, meat processing plants and other agroprocessing infrastructure is a major concern. Coupled to this constraint is the high-inflated transport costs of transporting the produce to the markets. Technical market information related to quality and quantity standards of the produce and the type of commodities that are in demand in markets is generally not available to the farmers. This constraint poses an impediment to farmers' productivity and growth.
- Lack of feasibility studies and bankable business plans. It was also evident that in most of the projects feasibility studies and business plans have not

been developed. The absence of these plans yield to a significant negative impact on the quality of land support and on farming prospects as farmers are unlikely to know how land should be used, what infrastructure and what activities are to be carried out, who are the responsible people, when such activities are to be carried out, and at what costs in their particular project.

- Lack of training and capacity-building programmes earmarked for the farmers so that they can gain experience and expertise to develop and utilise the acquired land in a profitable manner.
- Group dynamic challenges amongst the farmers. There is evidence of conflict
  amongst the beneficiaries in most of the projects. This is mainly caused by the
  lack of group cohesion attributed by having large groups of beneficiaries in
  one project, especially in SLAG and LRAD projects. In such cases, conflict
  arises as a result of lack of commitment from all members and different
  opinions on land usage. This situation resulted in many projects lying fallow
  without production.

The following subsection summarises the **challenges** identified associated with governance issues:

- Lack of or inadequate resources allocated for the implementation of the support programmes. This includes amongst others-
  - inadequate and skilled extension personnel to cover the spectrum of the farmers(farmer: extension ratio);
  - insufficient budget allocation to factor the extent and scope of extension; and
  - o lack of tools and equipments and other administrative support.
- Lack of capacity building and mentorship programmes earmarked for extension that are relevant to the needs and circumstances of the farmers.
   Extension personnel lacks knowledge to adapt to change in technologies and business approach to agriculture which includes proper planning, project

management, marketing strategies and financial management. This constraint pertaining to the inadequate skills of extension personnel impacts negatively on the level of scientific knowledge and skills to be imparted to farmers.

- Constant change in policy direction and political interference in the implementation of projects. It has also emerged from the empirical study that there is a tendency of socio-political interference in DARDLA's operational plans and change in policy direction due to changes in political leadership positions. This has resulted in unfunded mandates and also put pressure on DARDLA to halt some of their plans and having to re-adjust its resources to cater for the new mandate. This has a negative impact on DARDLA in achieving its strategic goals and objectives.
- Lack of or inaccessibility of support programmes. The absence of other support programmes like CASP and CRDP is a worrying factor and detrimental to the creation of jobs and poverty alleviation strategies in these three municipalities.
- Lack of exit strategies in the implementation of programmes. The continuous provision of support to farmers without a planned exit strategy on how the projects will continue production after the completion of the programme creates a dependency culture for farmers on Government support programmes. Farmers are unable to work independently without Government support and do not have a plan in place on what to do after the termination of the support programme.
- The lack of title deeds in most of the PLAS projects has been mentioned by the farmers as a challenge as it limits them to benefit from the support programmes. Government cannot have long-term investment on the farm as the ownership of the land vest with the state.
- Lack of monitoring and evaluation tools in all the programmes. It was also noted that there are no or proper monitoring tools in most of the support

programmes to track on the challenges and outcome of the project during and after the implementation of the projects.

The above identified challenges centred on the key functional areas of post-settlement support as specified in the White Paper on South African Land Policy of 1996, which include amongst others the lack of extension support, infrastructural support, access to markets and credit facilities, as well as training and capacity building. The absence of or ineffectiveness of such support, as described above, leads to un-sustainability of land reform projects.

Based on these empirical findings, the next section of the study focuses on the recommendations of the above challenges.

#### 6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Effective post-settlement support as described in Chapter One and Two includes complementary support services. Such support services include amongst others agricultural extension advisory services, infrastructural support, access to market and credit facilities, and training and capacity building. It is in this context that the recommendations for the identified challenges for effective post-settlement support will be based on these key functional areas of support as follows:

## Provisions of agricultural extension and advisory support services

Extension and advisory services is a core mandate of the DARDLA and key support service for the farmers in the Province. The norms and standards of extension were developed by DAFF to rejuvenate extension services. To improve the extension services support in the three municipalities, it is recommended that DARDLA adheres to the norms and standards of extension and the pillars of the Extension Recovery plan (ERP) by ensuring that:

 adequate and a cadre of committed and skilled extension personnel are recruited to cover the spectrum of farmers;

- extension personnel are equipped with adequate resources that will enable them to provide the necessary support to farmers. These include transport facilities, tools and equipments for training and trial demonstrations, as well as ICT tools. The use of the extension suite on line to be recommended for all the extension personnel to access information is also recommended. These resources must be viewed as an economic investment which should produce competitive economic returns;
- the advisory service should be provided in such a way that it is needsbased and participatory in nature. There should be synergy between extension and a project-based approach as a method to be used by extension personnel in managing projects;
- extension personnel should attend in-service training programmes to improve their knowledge and skills base and adapt to technological advances. Training courses in areas such as project management, financial management, and business management should be incorporated into their training. This will help them to cope to the ever changing environment of the agricultural sector; and
- the use of farmers' Green Book and Management Diary should be utilised as monitoring tools to ensure visibility and accountability of extension workers. This will ensure that extension workers account for the services they render to the farmers.

## Infrastructural support

To stimulate and sustain agricultural production and rural economic activities in land reform projects, the importance of the investment in agricultural infrastructure cannot be over emphasised. It is recommended that DARDLA prioritise the provision of infrastructural support to land reform farmers to enable them to create sustainable jobs and alleviate poverty. This includes amongst others irrigation infrastructure, boreholes, fencing, handling facilities, and so forth. The Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) was developed to ensure that land reform beneficiaries are assisted with

infrastructure and other support services must be utilised effectively to ensure that the farmers are assisted with the necessary infrastructure.

#### Access to markets and credit facilities

Market access can help drive sustainable productivity gains, improve livelihoods and reduce risks for smallholder communities. It is recommended that farmers must be assisted to access markets for their produce. Accessing markets must include access to production inputs, credit facilities and agroprocessing plants. Coupled with this, is the availability of technical advice and information to farmers on market related prices, quality standards, demand and supply and so forth. Regular interactions of farmers with extension officers must be encouraged to ensure participation of farmers in markets. There is also a need to link these farmers into the agro-processing value chain through the establishment of abattoirs, grain milling, meat processing plant and grain storage silos, and so forth within their localities. This will reduce transportation costs and ensure that they are producing for economic gains.

## Training and capacity building

Farmers need expertise and experience to be able to utilise land to its potential and in a profitable manner. It is recommended that DARDLA should prioritise the training of farmers in its plans as this will enable them to work independently without relying too much on the Department. Training of farmers should be needs-based and should be conducted at the farmers' field through practical demonstrations. It is also recommended that mentorship programmes must be provided to land reform farmers, thereby ensuring that each farm is assigned to a mentor who will provide hands-on experience on production recommendations.

Over and above these recommendations, attention should further be paid to the challenges associated with governance and strategic issues. Based on the empirical study, it is recommended that:

- During budget allocation, priority should be given to land reform farmers, so that the support provided to farmers is aligned with the transferred land and the needs of the farmers.
- A project-based approach could ensure that the best practices of project management be followed in the implementation of projects. Planning should be done with the involvement of all beneficiaries and other relevant stakeholders, as this will allow farmers to have ownership and control of their projects. Funded projects should be registered with clearly defined objectives, action plans and timelines. This will ensure that projects are completed on time and according to the plans. It is also essential that DARDLA should adjust and align its existing structures, systems and processes and such adjustments need to be made to inculcate a new paradigm and to incorporate processes and procedures to support project applications. The results of managing by projects paradigm will add significant benefits to both service providers and the beneficiaries.
- Political interference must be avoided at all costs. DARDLA should implement
  its projects according to the annual performance plan and the implementation
  plan of the Department. The change in management positions should not
  result in deviations from the core mandate, policies and strategic plans of the
  Department.
- The selection criteria for people to qualify for acquiring of land through the land reform programme should be reviewed to ensure that qualifying farmers who have a passion for farming are prioritised to benefit from land acquisition programmes.
- All support programmes and projects should have exit strategies that will allow continuity of the project activities after the termination of the programme.
   Such staggered withdrawal needs to be effected after the programme has been fully implemented.

Monitoring and evaluation tools and systems for all the support programmes
must be in place. These include regular tracking on the progress of the project
against the project objectives and making adjustments when necessary. This
system will ensure that projects are implemented timely and are able to
achieve the intended objectives of the projects within the timelines and
budgets.

## 6.5 CONCLUSION

The study was aimed at identifying key challenges associated with DARDLA postsettlement support to the land reform beneficiaries in the three municipalities of Nkangala District in Mpumalanga Province as well as to suggest possible recommendations in improving the post-settlement support towards achieving the objective of sustainable development.

A theoretical overview provided an in-depth insight on the best practices and principles of land reform, and furtherance to this study was the emphasis on the importance of post-settlement support as part of land reform. An analysis of the current post-settlement support strategies employed by the Department to assist the land reform beneficiaries was done and findings based on the empirical investigations into the land reform farmers as well as into the officials of the DARDLA were interpreted. Conclusions reached on the basis of evidence from the respondents indicated that indeed there are significant challenges associated with the support programmes used by DARDLA as post-settlement support to land reform beneficiaries in the three municipalities.

This chapter concludes the study by making recommendations to the DARDLA to address the identified post-settlement challenges as well as identifying what can be considered as effective post-settlement support to the land reform projects. The study concurs with arguments from various scholars that without post-settlement support, land reform will continue to yield poor results in sustaining the livelihood of the rural people and is not likely to meet the objectives of equity, sustainability and economic development. It is hoped that the study will be used as basis for further

research by DARDLA and will trigger more debate to ensure effective postsettlement support is provided to land reform farmers.

#### **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

Adams, M. 1995. Land Reform: New Seeds on Old Ground? No.6 October 1995. ODI. Portland House.

Adams, M. 2003. Land tenure policy and practice in Zambia: issues relating to the development of the Agriculture sector, Draft 2003, Oxford: Mokoro Ltd.

African National Congress (ANC). 1994. *Reconstruction and Development Programme: A Policy Framework*. Johannesburg: African National Congress.

African Union. 2009. Land policy in Africa: a framework to strengthen land rights, enhance productivity and secure livelihoods. Framework and guidelines on land policy in Africa. Nigeria.

Agricultural policy in South Africa. A discussion document. Retrieved from: <a href="https://www.nda.agric/docss/Policy/policy/policy/98htm">www.nda.agric/docss/Policy/policy/policy/policy/98htm</a>. Date accessed: 14 Feb. 2014.

Agri-seta. 2010. Sector analysis submitted for the Department of Education and training. Pretoria.

Agri-SA. 2009. Annual Report 2009-10. Pretoria.

Agri-SA. 2011. Comments on the Green Paper on Land Reform (DRAFT), 2011. Retrieved from: <a href="www.vslandbou.co.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket...tabid=83&mid.">www.vslandbou.co.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket...tabid=83&mid.</a> Date accessed: 15 Feb. 2014.

Andrew, M., Ainslie, A. & Shackleton, C. 2003. Evaluating Land and Agrarian Reform in South Africa: Land Use and Livelihoods. Occasional paper series No. 8. Cape Town: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAS): University of the Western Cape.

Anseeuw, W. & Alden, C. 2011. From Freedom Charter to Cautious Land Reform: The Politics of Land in South Africa. Discussion paper No.2. Postgraduate school of agriculture and rural development. University of Pretoria: Faculty of Agriculture and Natural Sciences.

Battery, S. 2002. Transformations in African Agriculture: natural resources, livelihoods and markets. Report on ESRC Research Seminar. Pretoria.

Bazeley, P. 2007. Qualitative data analysis with Nvivo. London: Sage Publications.

Bembridge, T.J. 1991. The practice of Agricultural Extension. A training manual. Pretoria: DBSA.

Bonti, A. 2001. Addressing Food Insecurity through the Household Food Security Programme. Retrieved from: www.afesis.org.za/.../1111-addressing-food-insecurity-through-the-house. Date accessed: 4 Nov. 2014.

Burger, A. & Silima, T. 2006. Sampling and sampling design. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):656-668.

Brown, T. 2005. Competing jurisdiction: Settling land claims in Africa. Retrieved from: www.theidlgroup.com/.../market\_based\_land\_reform\_zambia.pdf. Date accessed: 10 April 2014.

Bruce, D.B. 1993. A Review of Tenure Terminology. Wisconsin: Land Tenure Center, University of Wisconsin.

Commission for Gender Equality. 2009. A Gendered Analysis of Land Reform Policy and Implementation Outcome in South Africa (2006 – 2008/09). Pretoria: Commission for Gender Equality.

Cousins, B. 2000. At the cross roads: Land and Agrarian reform in South Africa into the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Cape Town: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, University of the Western Cape.

Dahal, S. 2013.Research proposal and Tips for literature review. Retrieved from: wwwslideshare.net/shantarimsundhir/research-proposal-tips for writing-lit. Date accessed: 06 Apr.2014

Deininger, K. 1999. Making Negotiated Land Reform Work: Initial Experience from Colombia, Brazil and South Africa World Bank. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No 2040). World Bank.

De Klerk, F.W. 2014. The Biography.com website. Retrieved from: <a href="http://www.biography.com/people/fw-de-klerk-9270025">http://www.biography.com/people/fw-de-klerk-9270025</a>. Date accessed: 08 April 2014.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. 2011. Research at Grass roots. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Dlamini, S.R.A. 2008. Taking land reform seriously: From willing seller-willing buyer to expropriation. Pretoria: University of South Africa (dissertation).

Du Plessis. A. 2006.Land restitution through the lens of environmental law: some comments on the South African. Bloemfontein: Vista.

Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO). 2006. Improving tenure security for the rural poor Rwanda: A country case study. LEP Working Paper 7. Workshop for Sub-Saharan Africa. Kigali.

Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO). 2006. FAO's Contribution to Good Policies and Practices in Agrarian Reform and Rural Development: A Brief Overview. Paper presented at the International Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development. Porto Alegre.

Fraser, A. 2007. Land reform in South Africa and the colonial present. *Social and Cultural Geography*, 8(6): 71-88.

Georgakellos, D.A. & Marcis, A.M. 2009. Application of the semantic learning approach in the feasibility studies preparation training process. *Information systems Management*, 26(3): 231-240.

Ghimire, K.B. 2001. Land Reform and Peasant Livelihoods: The social dynamics of rural poverty and agrarian reforms in developing countries. London: ITDG Publishing.

Gwanya, T.T. 2010. South Africa Position Paper on Rural development: A model for comprehensive rural development programmes. 31 March 2010 (Power Point presentation).

Hall, R. 2003. Rural Restitution. Cape Town: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, University of the Western Cape.

Hall, R. 2004. A Political Economy of Land Reform in South Africa. *Review of African Political Economy*, 100(1): 213-227.

Hall, R. 2007. Land and agrarian reform in integrated development plans. Report prepared for GTZ in collaboration with the Department of Provincial and Local Government. Pretoria.

Human Science Research Council, 2004. Food security in South Africa: Key policy issues for the medium term. Position Paper. Pretoria. HSRC.

Identifying and development needs. Retrieved from: <a href="http://www.snh.org.uk/uplandpathmanagement/5.1.shtml">http://www.snh.org.uk/uplandpathmanagement/5.1.shtml</a>). Date accessed: 20 Aug. 2013.

Integrated development plans. National Treasury. Retrieved from:mfma.treasury.gov.za/...%20Integrated%20Development%20plans. Date accessed: 14 Nov.2013.

Jacobs, P. 2003. Support for Agricultural Development. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Jacobs, P. 2003. Post-Transfer Support in South Africa's Land Reform Programme PLAAS. Bellville, Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Jacobs, P., Hall, R. & Lahiff, E. 2003. Evaluating Land and Agrarian Reform in South Africa. Occasional Paper Series No 1: Redistribution. PLAAS. Bellville, Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Kahn, N. 2007. Land and Agrarian Reform in South Africa: Policy Issues & Actors. Johannesburg: Centre for Policy Studies.

Kariuki, S.M. 2004. Creating the black commercial farmers in South Africa. ASC Working Paper 5(2004). Leiden: The Netherlands African Studies Centre.

Karumbidza, B.J. 2002. 'Redistributionist' versus 'Productionist' Land Reform: Contested Priorities in Donor Funded Land Reform in South Africa with Comparisons to Zimbabwe. Retrieved from: www.networkideas.org/feathm/may2002/donor\_13.pdf. Date accessed: 15 April 2014.

Kepe, T. & Tessaro, D. 2012. Integrating Food Security with Land Reform: A More Effective Policy for South Africa. Policy Brief No. 4. Retrieved from:www.africaportal.org/.../integrating-food-security-land-reform-more-eff.Date accessed: 15 April 2014.

Kinsey, B. & Binswanger, H. 1996. Characteristics of performance of the settlement programmes: A review. Washington: World Bank.

Kloppers, J. 2012. Improving land reform through CSR:A legal framework analysis. Potchefstroom: North West University Campus. (Thesis-PhD).

Kobola, W. 2007. The role of the school principal in the implementation of the revised national curriculum statement: a case study. Pretoria: University of South Africa (dissertation).

Lahiff, E. 2000. Land Redistribution in South Africa: Progress to date. Bellville: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, University of the Western Cape.

Lahiff, E. 2001. Land Reform in South Africa: Is it meeting the challenge? Policy Brief No.1. Bellville: Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies, University of the Western Cape.

Lahiff, E. & Rugege, S. 2002. A Critical assessment of Land Redistribution Policy in the Light of the Grootboom Judgment. *Law, Democracy and Development,* 2(3): 295.

Lahiff, E. 2006. With what land rights?. Tenure arrangements and support. Cape Town: PLAS, University of the Western Cape.

Lahiff, E. 2007. Business Models in Land Reform. Cape Town: PLAAS, University of the Western Cape.

Lahiff, E. 2007. Land Redistribution in South Africa: Progress to date. Paper presented at the Land Redistribution: Towards A Common Vision Regional Course, Southern Africa. Cape Town.

Lahiff, E. & Li, L. 2012. Land Redistribution in South Africa: A Critical Review. Cape Town: PLAS, University of the Western Cape.

Lahiff, E. 2012. Redistributive land reform and poverty reduction in South Africa. A working paper for the research project on live hoods after land reform. Cape Town: PLAS, University of Western Cape.

Land access movement of South Africa (LAMOSA). 2010. Commissioned Research on: The State of Land Reform in 2010.

Land reform: Basic elements. Retrieved from: www.seameo.org/v/landreform/ir2htm. Date accessed. 01 Dec. 2013.

Land reform definitions. Retrieved from: www.landreform answers.com/topic/land reform. Date accessed 14 Nov.2013.

Land reform Retrieved from: Merriam Webster Online. (www.MeriamWebster.com/dictionary/land%20 reform). Date accessed: 30 Nov. 2013

Lee, G.K. & Cole, R.E. 2003. Business model. Retrieved from: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Business\_model. Date accessed: 27 Oct.2013.

Lepheane, T.J. 2007. The historical justification of the South African land reform policy (unknown).

Lethobeng, P. 2011. Estate Law (dissertation). Retrieved from: dspace.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10394/8103/Lethobeng\_PAM.pdf? Date accessed: 12 Feb. 2014.

Letsoalo, P. 1987. Land Reform in South Africa. Johannesburg: Scottville Publishers.

Lipton, M. 1985. Capitalism and Apartheid. Cape Town: David Philip.

Lubambo, P. 2011. An appraisal of post transfer production trends of selected land reform projects in the North West Province. Mafikeng: University of North West (Dissertation). Retrieved from <a href="http://upetd.up.ac.za">http://upetd.up.ac.za</a>.

Mabuza, E.S. 2009. The contribution of Agriculture to the economic growth of South Africa. Johannesburg: University of Johannesburg (Dissertation).

Majam, T. & Theron, F. 2006. The Purpose and Relevance of a Scientific Literature Review: A Holistic Approach to Research. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1): 603-615.

Manenzhe, T.J. 2007. Post-settlement challenges for land reform beneficiaries: Three case studies from Limpopo Province. Cape Town: University of Western Cape. (Mini-dissertation-Masters).

Manji, E.S. 2006. The politics of land reform in Africa: from communal tenure to free markets. London: Zed Books.

Morgan, D.L. 1997. Focus groups in Qualitative Research. London: SAGE Publications.

Mouton, J. 2006. Understanding social research. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Moyo, S. 2004. Land, Food Security and Sustainable Development in Africa. Paper prepared for the United Nations Economic commission for Africa (UNECA), Sustainable Development Division, Ethiopia.

Neuman, W.L. 2006. Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. 6<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston: Pearson Education International.

Nkangala District 2012. Nkangala District. 2012. Integrated Development Plan (IDP) 2012-2016. Middleburg: Nkangala District

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2009. Agricultural Policies in Emerging Economies: Monitoring and Evaluation, OECD Publishing. Retrieved from: <a href="https://www.OECD-ilibrary.org">www.OECD-ilibrary.org</a>. Date accessed: 16 April 2014.

O'Malley, P.2004. The heart of Hope: South Africa's Transition from Apartheid to democracy, 19891996 A. Retrieved from; <a href="http://www.nelsonmandela.org/omalley/index.php/site/q/03lv02039.htm">http://www.biography.com/people/fw-de-klerk-9270025</a>. Date Accessed on 04 March 2014

O'Sullivan, S. 2011. <u>Towards Democratic Justice? Land Reform in South Africa</u>. Retrieved from: <a href="http://publish.ucc.ie/ijpp/2011/02/OSullivan/04/en.osullivan">http://publish.ucc.ie/ijpp/2011/02/OSullivan/04/en.osullivan</a>. Date accessed: 30 Nov. 2013.

Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA), 2009.Executive Development Programme: Strategic Planning and Management. Potchefstroom.NWU.Potchefstroom Campus. (Study guide SPM 671)

Parahoo, K. (2006). *Nursing research: principles, process, and issues*. Basingstoke, Hampshire, (England); New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Patten, M.L. 2004. Understanding research methods: an overview of the essentials. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Glendale: Pyrczak Publishing.

Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian studies (PLAAS), 2006. Land reform in post apartheid South Africa: a disappointing harvest. Retrieved from: http://www.plaas.org.za. Date accessed: 30 Oct. 2013.

Institute for Poverty, Land and Agrarian studies (PLAAS), 2011. Comment on the newly released Green Paper on Land Reform. Retrieved from: http://www.plaas.org.za/blog/comment-newly-released-green-paper-land-reform#sthash.BbSXBAX6.dpuf comments on the green paper. Date accessed: 30 Oct. 2013.

Plaatjie, S.T. 2007. Native Life in South Africa. Retrieved from: http://www.sahistory.org.za/topics/nativesland act). Date accessed: 17 Nov. 2013.

Prior, L. 2003. Using documents in social research. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE.

Rahul, K. 2012. Understanding matrix management in an organisation. Retrieved from: http://www.citehr.com/28926-article-understanding-matrix-management-organization. Date accessed: 07 Jan. 2014.

Rajasekar, S. 2006. Research methodology. Retrieved from: arxiv.org/pdf/physics/0601009. Date accessed: 24 March 2014.

Reconstruction and Development. Retrieved from: <a href="http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reconstruction\_and\_Development\_Programme">http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reconstruction\_and\_Development\_Programme</a>. Date accessed: 30 Oct. 2013.

Research design and methodology (n.d). Retrieved from: UNISA.uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/100500/651. Date accessed: 25 March 2014.

Rugege, S. 2004. Land reform in South Africa: An Overview. Retrieved from:http://www.ukzn.ac.za/ccs/files/LandreforminSouthAfrica.pdf. Date accessed: 9 Dec. 2013.

Rungasamy, L. 2011. The need for settlement support in land reform projects: focus on sustainable development. Pretoria: University of South Africa (Dissertation). Retrieved from http://umkndsp01.unisa.ac.za/. Date accessed: 14 Feb. 2014.

Saunders, S. 2003. Land reform in South Africa: an analysis of the land claim process. Potchefstroom: NWU (Dissertation).

Serf definition. (n.d). Thesaurus.com/browse/serf. Date accessed: 09 Nov.2013

Sibanda, S. 2001. Land reform and poverty alleviation in South Africa. Paper presented at the HSRC Conference on Land Reform and Poverty Alleviation in Southern Africa, Pretoria, 4-5 June 2001. Retrieved from:www.mokoro.co.uk/.../land\_reform\_poverty\_alleviation\_south\_africa. Date accessed: 20 May 2013.

South African Human Rights Council (SAHRC). 2003. Land rights, an overview. Retrievedfrom:http://www.sahrc.org.za/home/21/files/Reports/3rd%20esr%20report %20chapter 7.pdf. Date accessed: 14 Aug. 2013.

South Africa (Republic). 1913. Natives Land Act of 1913. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa (Republic) 1996. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa (Republic). 1997. Department of Land Affairs (DLA). Settlement and Implementation Support (SIS) Strategy. Pretoria: National Department of Land Affairs.

South Africa (Republic). 1997. White Paper on South African Land Policy. Department of Land Affairs. Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa (Republic). 1997. White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele principles). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa (Republic). 1999. Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa (Republic). 2001. National Department of Agriculture. Strategic plan for South African Agriculture. Pretoria: NDA.

South Africa (Republic). 2001. National Department of Agriculture. Report of the review of the strategic plan for South African agriculture. Pretoria: NDA.

South Africa (Republic). 2001. Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development: A Sub-Programme of the Land Redistribution Programme. Pretoria: MALA.

South Africa (Republic). 2002. Department of Agriculture. The integrated food security strategy for South Africa. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2002. National Department of Agriculture. The Strategic Plan for South African Agriculture. Pretoria: NDA.

South Africa (Republic). 2002. Department of Agriculture. The Integrated Food Security Strategy for South Africa. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2002. Department of Agriculture. Comprehensive agricultural support programme concept document. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2003. Department of Agriculture. Strategic plan for 2002-2003. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2004. Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs. Progress on the Implementation of the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP). Pretoria: Government Printers.

South Africa (Republic). 2005. Department of Agriculture. Comprehensive Agricultural Support programme (CASP). A draft progress report 2003 – 2005. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2005. Department of Land Affairs. Strategic Plan 2005-2010. Pretoria: DLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2005. Department of Agriculture and Land Administration. Municipality Agro-based Local Economic Development model in Mpumalanga Province. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2005. Department of Rural Development and Land Administration. Municipal Agro-based Strategy. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2006. Department of Agriculture Rural Development Land Administration. Masibuyele EMasimini (ME) Strategy. (Unpublished). Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2006. Department of Land Affairs. Implementation plan for the Proactive Land Acquisition Strategy. Version 1. Pretoria: DLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2006. Ministry of Agriculture and Land Affairs. Land distribution for Agricultural Development. Pretoria: DLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2006. Department of Land Affairs. A partnership to fast track land reform: A new trajectory towards 2014. Pretoria: DLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2006. Department of Land Affairs. Commission of Land rights. Briefing to the portfolio committee on Agriculture and Land Affairs on the Annual Report of 2006/2007. Pretoria: DLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2007. Department of Agriculture. Strategic plan Department of Agriculture 2007-2008. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2007. The National Department of Agriculture. A National Review of the Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme. Pretoria: NDA.

South Africa (Republic). 2007. Department of Land Affairs. Settlement and Implementation Support (SIS) Strategy. Pretoria: National Department of Land Affairs.

South Africa (Republic). 2007. Department of Land Affairs. Implementation plan for the proactive land acquisition strategy. Version 2. Pretoria: DLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2008. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. Masibuyele EMasimini (ME) revised strategy (unpublished). Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2008. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. Cooperative Development and Support Strategy. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2008. Department of Agriculture. LARP concept document. Pretoria: DoA.

South Africa (Republic). 2009. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. CRDP Framework. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2009. Department of Agriculture Forestry Fisheries. Annual Report 2009-2010(unpublished). Pretoria: DAFF.

South Africa (Republic). 2009. Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. The comprehensive rural development programme framework. Pretoria: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2009. Department Agriculture Forestry Fisheries. Strategic plan for 2008-2009. Pretoria: DAFF.

South Africa (Republic). 2009. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. CRDP Framework. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2010. Department of Rural development and Land Reform Strategic Plan (2011-2014). (Unpublished). Pretoria: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2010. Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration. Annual Report 2010-11 (unpublished). Pretoria: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2010. Department of Agriculture and Land Administration. Strategic plan for agriculture 2010-2014. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2010. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration (unpublished report). Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2011. Department Agriculture Forestry Fisheries. Food Security strategy document. Pretoria: DAFF.

South Africa (Republic). 2011. Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. Draft Green Paper on Land Reform. Pretoria: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2011. Department of Agriculture Rural Development Land Administration. Annual report for 2011/12. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2011. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. Masibuyele Esibayeni Support Strategy. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries. A report on the National Agricultural. Cooperatives Indaba "Towards the creation of a model to enable smallholder farmers to play a critical role in the establishment of sustainable cooperative enterprises. Pretoria: DAFF.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Rural Development & Land Reform. Strategic Plan for 2011 – 2012. Pretoria: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Rural Development Land Reform. Midterm Review of the Department of Rural Development &Land Reform (2012/13). Pretoria: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Agriculture Rural Development Land Administration. CASP Business plan 2012/13. (Unpublished) Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Agriculture, Rural Development and Land Administration. Annual performance plan for fiscal year 2012/13. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. Annual Report 2012-2013. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2012. Department of Finance. Provincial Socio-Economic Review and Outlook (SERO) Report, 2012/13. Nelspruit: DOF.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry. Economic Review of the South African Agriculture 2012/13. Pretoria: DAFF.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Rural Development Land Reform. Mid-year (2012/13) Report. Pretoria: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Rural Development Land Reform. Land Claims Commission Report. (Unpublished report). Nelspruit: DRDLR.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Agriculture Rural Development Land Administration. Annual performance report 2012/13. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. Revised Cooperative Development and Support Strategy. (unpublished) Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Agriculture Rural Development Land Administration. Draft post-settlement strategy for land reform farmers in Mpumalanga Province. (Unpublished). Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Agriculture Rural Development and Land Administration. Annual Report 2012-2013. Nelspruit: DARDLA.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Agriculture, Rural development and Land Administration DARDLA. http://dardla.mpg.gov.za. Date accessed: 02 Oct. 2013.

South Africa (Republic). 2013. Department of Mineral Resources. Mining Indaba 2013, South Africa: Cape Town International Convention Centre. Pretoria: DMR

South Africa (Republic).2013.Restitution Land Rights amendment Bill of 2013. Department of Rural Development and Land Reform. Pretoria: Government Printers

Stakeholder analysis. Retrieved from:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stakeholder\_analysis. Date accessed: 14 April 2012.

Statistics South Africa.2011.The People of South Africa.Mid year report, 2011.Pretoria: Statistics South Africa

Statistics South Africa. 2012. Statistics in brief 2012. Pretoria: Statistics of South Africa.

Statistics South Africa. 2013. The People of South Africa: Population Census, 2013. Census in Brief. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Strategy development (n.d.). Retrieved from: www.mystratergicplan.com. Date accessed: 16 April 2014.

Sustainable Restitution Support-South Africa Restitution Implementation Manual. 2010. Partnership for Sustainable Pre-and Post settlement support. Pretoria: SADC Centre for Land related Regional and Development Law and Policy.

Terreblanche, S.E. 2008a. Towards an improved Agricultural extension service as a key role player in the settlement of new farmers in South Africa. *South African Journal of Agricultural Extension*, 3(2): 60-63.

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP): A Policy Framework. Retrieved from: http://www.anc.org.za/rdp/rdpall.html. Date accessed: 01 Dec. 2013.

Thwala, W.D. (n.d.) Land and agrarian reform in South Africa. Retrieved from: <a href="http://www.unc.edu/~wwolford/Geography160/southafricalandreform.pdf">http://www.unc.edu/~wwolford/Geography160/southafricalandreform.pdf</a>. Date accessed: 14 April 2014.

Tilley, S. 2007. International Comparative Study of Strategies for Settlement Support Provision to Land Reform Beneficiaries. PLAAS. Cape Town: University of the Western Cape.

Transformation in African Agriculture. Retrieved from:

http://www.simonbatterbury.net/pubs/finalreportesrcworkshops.htm. Date accessed: 30 Nov. 2013.

Tseole, M.P. 2013. Performance management systems implementation challenges South African municipalities: The case of Dr Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality Potchefstroom: NWU. (Dissertation-Masters).

Van der Elst, H. 2007. Post-settlement support as a contributor to the success of the South African land reform programme (1994-1997). *Politeia: South African journal for Political Science and Public Administration*, 26(3)290-298

Van der Elst, H. 2008. Post-settlement land reform objectives in South Africa: towards a management model for sustainable development. Potchefstroom: NWU. (Thesis- PhD).

Van der Walt, A. 2005. Constitutional property law. Cape Town: Juta.

Van Zyl, B. 2011. Government support programmes for emerging farmers. *Farmers Weekly*, 3 February, pp. 27-28.

Venter, A. 2001. Government and politics in the new South Africa. Johannesburg: Van Schaik Publishers.

Vink, N. & Kirsten, J. 2003. Agriculture in the National Economy. In Nieuwoudt, L. & Groenewald, J. The Challenge of Change: Agriculture, Land and the South African Economy. Scottsville, South Africa: University of Natal Press.

Wegerif, M.A. 2004. Critical appraisal of South Africa's market-based land reform policy: The case of the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) programme in Limpopo. Research Report No. 19. Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies. Pretoria.

Webb, W. & Auriocombe, C. 2006. Research design in public administration: critical considerations. *Journal of Public Administration*, 41(3.1):588-602.

Weideman, M. 2004. Who Shaped South Africa's Land Reform Policy? *Politikon*, 31(2): 219-238.

What is research design? (n.d.) Retrieved from: www.nyu.edu/classes/bkg/methods:16. Date accessed: 24 March 2014.

World Bank. 2004(a). The theory behind market assisted land reform. Washington D.C: World Bank.

World Bank. 2004(b). Land policies for growth and poverty reduction. Washington D.C.: World Bank.

## **ANNEXURE A**

# SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: NWU-MASTERS STUDY

TITLE: POST-SETTLEMENT LAND REFORM CHALLENGES: THE CASE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, RURAL DEVELOPMENT AND LAND ADMINISTRATION, MPUMALANGA PROVINCE

## INTRODUCTION

The researcher is a student at the University of North West (Potchefstroom campus) and currently pursuing studies for a Master's degree in Public Administration in the Department of Public Management at the North-West University. The purpose of the Semi-Structured Interview Schedule is to gather information from the land reform beneficiaries as well as DARDLA officials from the three municipalities of Mpumalanga Province, namely Victor Khanye, Emalahleni and Emakhazeni, regarding the extent to which post-settlement support is provided by DARDLA to land reform beneficiaries. The study will assist in identifying key challenges associated with the implementation of the post-settlement strategies by DARDLA and then suggest possible solutions to those challenges. Based on these findings recommendations will be made to further improve the provision of post-settlement support in other South African municipalities.

Kindly take note that the information obtained will be used only for research purposes and no names or any identifying data regarding the participant will be revealed. Participation is voluntary.

## A. RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR FARMERS

NAME OF TH	IE FARMER:
PROJECT NA	AME:
MUNICIPALI <sup>*</sup>	ΓY:
DISTRICT:	
Question Nr.1	:When did you acquire the farm?
Before 1994	(1)
1995-1999	(2)
1999-2004	(3)
2004-2009	(4)
After 2009	(5)
Question Nr.2	2: Under which land was acquired?
LRAD	(1)
PLAS	(2)
RESTITUTIO	N (3)
SLAG	(4)
LAND TENUF	RE (5)
Question Nr.3	B: What is the total size of the farm?
5 to 10 hacter	rs (1)
10 to 20 hacte	ers (2)
>20 hacters	(3)

## Question Nr.4: What type of farming enterprise are you involved in?

Vegetables	livestock	Dry land crops	Both(mixed farming)
1	2	3	4

## Question Nr.5: Can you rate the scale of production?

Bad	better	Good
1	2	3

# Question Nr.6: Can you rate the scale of production?

Bad	better	Good
Informal	formal	National

Question Nr.7: Which association are you affiliated to?

AFASA (1)

NERPO (2)

AGRI-SA (3)

Others (specify)(4)

Question Nr.8: Was there any feasibility study done before or after the land was awarded?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Question Nr.9: Rate the effectiveness of the post-settlement support in terms of the following?

## a) Business plan development

Total effective	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective
1	2	3	4

# b) Project planning and implementation

Total effective	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective
1	2	3	4

Question Nr.10: Out of the support received from DARDLA for the past 2 years, which one is applicable to you?

Extension and Advisory services	(1)
Masibuyele eMasimini	(2)
Masibuyele e Sibayeni	(3)
CASP	(4)
CRDP	(5)
Question Nr.11: Agricultural Exter	nsion and Advisory services
Question Nr.11.1: What kind of back	up support did you receive from DARDLA?
Technical advice	(1)
Demonstration on a new technology	(2)
Information	(3)
Other	(4)

Question Nr.11.2: What percentage of time do you think the extension worker spend on the following?

Distribute inputs (1)

Doing office work (2)

Attend meetings, courses, etc (3)

Extension wor	k	(4)		
Others (specif	y)	(5)		
Question Nr.1	1.3: How mar	ny visits does the exter	nsion worker undertake per month?	
Less than 2	(1)			
Between 2& 4	(2)			
More than 6	(3)			
Question Nr.1	1.4: Out of the	visits, how many are	for?	
Extension prog	grams	(1)		
Non-extension	program	(2)		
Reaction Exte	nsion work	(3)		
Adhoc Activitie	es	(4)		
Question Nr.1	1.5: Can you	rate the level of suppo	rt?	
Total	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective	
effective				
1	2	3	4	
Question Nr.1		the problems that act extension programme	as hindrances in effective implementation?	on

Question Nr.	1.7: What remedial action will you suggest to improve the extension service
Question Nr	12: Masibuyele eMasimini
Question Nr.	2.1: When did the programme commence?
2006/2007	(1)
2007/2008	(2)
2008/2009	(3)
2009/2010	(4)
2010-2012	(5)
	12.2: What type of support do you receive?
Production in	
Technical ad Mechanisation	
Other	n (3) (4)
None	(5)
Question Nr.	2.3: What type of crops have you planted through the programme?
Vegetables	(1)
Maize	(2)
Sunflower	(3)
Dry beans	(4)
Others (spec	y)(5)

QUESTION IN.	12.4: Size of fied	ctares planted through t	ne programme?
1-5 hacters	(1)		
5-10 hacters	(2)		
10-20 hacters	(3)		
20-50 hacters	(4)		
Question Nr.12	2.5: Where are yo	ou selling your crops?	
Informal	Formal	Export	
1	2	3	
		benefits of the programn	ne in monetary terms?
0-R500	R500-R10000	R15000-R25000	
1	2	3	
			<u> </u>  -
Question Nr.12		el of effectiveness of the p	programme
Question Nr.12 Total effective	2.7: Rate the leve	el of effectiveness of the p	erogramme  Extremely ineffective
Total		·	
Total effective 1	Effective 2	Ineffective 3	Extremely ineffective

Question Nr.1	2.9: What are the suggested solutions for improvement of the programme?
Question Nr.	13: Comprehensive Agricultural Support Programme (CASP)
Not applicable	
Question Nr.	14: Masibuyele Esibayeni Programme
Question Nr.1	4.1: When did the programme commence?
2011/2012	(1)
2012/2013	(2)
2013-2014	(3)
Question Nr.1	4.2: What type of support did you receive through the programme?
Goats	(1)
Bull and Heife	r (2)
Nguni cattle	(3)
Sheep	(4)
Question Nr.1	4.3: Rate the effectiveness of the implementation of the programme?

Total effective	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective
1	2	3	4

Question	Nr.14.4:		succes gramme		have	you	recor	rded	since	you	benefitte	d from	the
Question	Nr.14.5	What a	are the o	challe	enges	asso	ciated	with	the im	nolem	entation of	the	
programm		vviide		oriano	origoo	4000	oiatoa	With	1110 111	ipioiri		1110	
Question	Nr.14.6: \	Vhat ca	an be s	ugge	sted to	o imp	rove tl	he im	pleme	entatio	n of the p	rogram	me?

**Question Nr.15: Comprehensive Rural Development Programme (CRDP)** 

Not applicable

## **B.RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR MANAGERS**

## NAME OF THE MANAGER

## **COMPONENT:**

Question 16:	Are there any policies guiding the implementation of the post-settlement
support?	

Yes (1)

Not (2)

Question 17: Rate the effectiveness in adherence to the adherence to post-settlement policies?

Total	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective
effective			·
1	2	3	4

Question 18: Is the support aligned to the transferred land?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Question 19: Rate the effectiveness of the alignment of the post-settlement support strategies within the IDP of the municipality

Total effective	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective
1	2	3	4

Question 20:	Rate the accessibility	of the following	programmes to	land reform	farmers

Extension and Advisory services (1)

CASP (2)

ME (3)

MESP	(4)		
CRDP	(5)		
Question Nr.20: What support programmes?	are the challenges that are	e associated with the implementation of	f the
Question Nr.21: What of the support program		s that can improve on the implementat	ion
C. RESEARCH QUES	TIONS FOR EXTENSION \	WORKERS	
NAME OF THE EXTE	ISION WORKER:		
MUNICIPALITY:			
SPECIALITY:			
Question Nr.22: Out o ratio?	f the wards under your juris	sdiction, what is the farmer: extension	
1-50 (1)			

1-1	100	(2)

1-250 (3)

Question Nr 23: How many visits does an extension worker undertake in a month?

Less than 2 (1)

Between 2&4 (2)

More than 6 (3)

Question Nr.24: Which of the following programmes do you implement under your area of jurisdiction?

Extension and Advisory services (1)

Masibuyele e Masimini (2)

Masibuyele e Sibayeni (3)

CASP (4)

CRDP (5)

Question Nr.25: Rate the effectiveness in the planning and implementation of projects?

Total	Effective	Ineffective	Extremely ineffective
effective			
1	2	3	4

Question Nr 26: Rate the level of support provided by DARDLA to deliver the extension programmes?

Very high	High	Moderate	Low
1	2	3	4

Question Nr.27: What are the challenges that are associated with the implementation of the	е
support programmes?	
<del></del>	
Question Nr.28: What are the suggested solutions that can improve on the implementation	ì
of the support programmes?	
·	

THANK YOU ALL.