SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND JOB CHARACTERISTICS AMONG FARM WORKERS IN MAFIKENG MUNICIPALITY, NORTH WEST PROVINCE

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DECLARATION

I Motlogelwa Doctor Silolo declare that the mini-dissertation for the Degree of Master of Business Administration at the North West University hereby submitted, has not been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that it is my own work in design and execution and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

Signed:.....

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ABSTRACT

The study examined personal and job characteristics and the socio-economic status of farm workers in the Mafikeng area, North West province, South Africa. A simple random sampling technique was used to select 100 farm workers to be interviewed. A structured questionnaire was developed based on the study objectives and related literature to collect data which were analysed using frequency count, percentages and multiple regression analysis. The results show that the majority of farm workers fall between 20-30 years age group with males dominating and most have gone through primary education. The mean salary of most of the farm workers per month was R1 250.00. Medical aids, Sectoral determination and Labour unions were non-existent in different farms. In terms of possession of materials, 79% of the farm workers have chickens while 64% have dogs. 92% have radio, 93% have beds, 89% have tables and 59% have electric stoves. Also, 82%have cell phones while 78% have boots and rain coats each.

The findings have implications for the level of socio-economic status of the farm workers and the need to improve on their livelihoods.

Keywords: farm workers, personal and job characteristics, socio-economic status

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The historical background to the deplorable conditions endured by South African farm workers lies generally in South Africa's history of colonial conquest and dispossession of indigenous people, but more particularly in the 1913 Natives Land Act. This piece of legislation outlawed the ownership of land by blacks in areas which were designated for white ownership. Essentially, it solidified the distribution of land that emerged from the era of colonial wars against indigenous tribes and polities. It further sought to roll back black ownership of land in certain areas. The outcome was that 87 percent of land became white owned, whilst blacks were relegated to the remaining 13 percent (SAHRC, 2003).

Since the dawn of democracy in 1994, the South African wine industry has been characterised by both, profound economic and political changes as well as continuities with its past, rooted in slavery, apartheid and paternalism. In this context, Black farm workers whose labour built the foundation of a prosperous agricultural industry, still belong to the most marginalised groups in post-apartheid society. A number of state and non-state actors, however, attempt to improve the economic and social positions of farm workers in South Africa (Schweitzer, 2008).

The advent of the Natives Land Act provoked protest and resistance amongst its victims. Solomon Tekhisho Plaatjie, one of the founding members of the South African Native National Congress, the forerunner of the African National Congress, wrote eloquently about the effect of the Native Land Act on black South Africans accurately characterising it as "class legislation" (SAHRC, 2003).

Preceding the Natives Land Act, large numbers of black people occupied ostensibly "white" farmland, often with the approval of the owner. This was at a time when many farmers were unable to cultivate or use the entire extent of their land due to lack of capital. Sharecropping arrangements with black families who possessed draught animals, ploughs and labour became commonplace, especially in grain producing

areas. In some districts, black sharecroppers outstripped white farmers in grain production (SAHRC, 2003).

While sharecropping was essential to the survival of poorer farmers, more prosperous farmers agitated incessantly for an end to "squatting" on white farms. Numerous petitions, complaining about the "idleness" of black squatters who refused to enter the wage labour market were directed to the government of the day (SAHRC, 2003).

The Natives Land Act tipped power in favour of white farmers, enabling them to either evict black communities living on white designated land, or to force more onerous conditions upon them. Thus, sharecroppers were pushed down a sliding scale of tenure security, becoming labour tenants (where labour is provided to the farmer in return for being allowed to remain on the land) and eventually, farm workers. Amendments to the original Act, aimed at outlawing sharecropping and labour tenancy, were only partially successful, as undercapitalised farmers continued to rely on such arrangements (SAHRC, 2003).

In the 1960s, the remnants of sharecropping were extinguished when the state came to play a more active role in white agriculture, extending generous subsidies and loans to white farmers. In poorer areas, this enabled landowners to end sharecropping arrangements, perceived by the state bureaucracy as a humiliating concession to blacks. Labour tenancy, despite being outlawed, survived in pockets in KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga until present (SAHRC, 2003).

A substantial portion of the farm-worker community in South Africa is comprised of descendants of people who may have occupied and farmed white-owned land in a relatively independent manner. However, there is also a large rural proletariat comprised of impoverished and landless people from the ex-Bantustans. Increasing numbers of illegal foreign workers from neighbouring countries now make up a substantial portion of the seasonal labour force in provinces such as Limpopo and Mpumalanga (SAHRC, 2003).

Schweitzer, (2008) argues that these so-called Black Empowerment projects are based on partnerships between white farmers, farm worker communities and complex

networks of actors, ranging from state agencies to nongovernmental organisations, international organisations, businesses and private individuals. The mobilisation of these actors and their resources allow farm workers to become land and business owners and in the process to acquire other economic, educational and symbolic benefits. While these projects demonstrate how marginalised Black farm workers become farmers, they also show a series of shortcomings – first and foremost, that the 'new Black farmers' do not obtain real autonomy.

A recent survey on behalf of the South African Wine and Brandy Company (SAWB) showed that 6 percent of employees in high management and 22 percent in middle management of private and cooperative cellars are Black (Kassier et al., 2004). Management and ownership structures in the wine industry apparently evoke apartheid patterns.

The same can be said about current living and working conditions of most Black farm workers. The latter still belong to the most marginalised social groups in post-apartheid society, as their income level shows that they are even the poorest in the formal economy (SAWB 2003: 23). Those who are permanently employed or whose relatives are permanently employed, usually stay on the farm in housing provided by the farmer. The quality of housing largely depends on the attitude of the farmer and ranges from "decent" to "scarcely fit for human habitation" (Ewert and Hamman 1999: 212). Similarly, the educational background of farm workers indicates their marginal position in society.

According to a recent study, almost one-fifth had no access to formal education and many are illiterate (Kassier 2005: 4, 10). Moreover, due to their working and living conditions, farm workers are two to three times more likely to get infected by tuberculosis than people living in urban areas (SAWB 2006: 23).

In part, the socioeconomic situation of farm workers can be attributed to the history of apartheid. However, apartheid is not the only reason. The life on farms is also rooted in the older history of slavery and paternalism. In the course of time, a set of asymmetrical power relations between Black farm workers and White farm owners evolved which was characterised by both exploitation of the workers and obligations

of the farmer. The farm was symbolically conceptualised as 'family', but materially, the domination of the farmer was apparent (Du Toit 1993; Huss et al. 2008).

1.2 Importance of agriculture in the economy

Farming plays a critical role in the South African economy. The affordability of food to the population at large is vital, however, it is of particular importance to the poorer segments of the population and those affected by HIV/AIDS as it directly impacts their ability to survive. There are human beings who are behind the end product that ends on our tables everyday, and they are nonetheless, farm workers who strive that the porridge, wheat, bread etc we eat everyday is properly produced, yet, they are underpaid, underrated, not well looked after and the list is endless. Women are particularly at risk during the hungry season, as their workloads rise on the farm and births peaks at this period. Anticipating hard work, mothers tend to wean their children, or if they continue, the food level is reduced as diets become poorer. The wet season is a period when malaria, diarrhea and skin infections peak, and for everyone, illness affects the timing, efficiency and availability of farm work; but it bears heavily on the poorer people who move into situations of dependency involving kin, neighbours, or money lenders, a situation from which they may not escape. This issue could have been avoided many centuries back where the very same farm workers used to own the land but now they are tenants on their own land. The domestic group provides a focal point for agricultural production, where age, sex and kin act as traditional determinants of who does what, who is dependent on whom and what are the rewards for one's labour. It is also the place where age and sex intersect through marriage, which is a key to internal differentiation, a sign of adulthood and the route to semi- or ultimate independence through access to resources such as land and labour (La Fontaine, 1978).

1.3 Farm workers

Only half of South Africa's potential labour force is able to find employment in the formal economy. Women, the less skilled and those who live in rural areas are more likely to be poor, and less likely to find formal sector employment. In this regard, the farm labour force sits at the junction between the formal and informal economies.

Farm workers earn more than those engaged in informal activities in urban and non-urban areas, yet they earn less than other workers in the formal economy. Many women work on farms alongside their partners, yet never share the benefits of full-time employers such as unemployment insurance, provident funds, etc. If for some reason her partner is dismissed, retrenched, retired, etc. she often also loses her right to accommodation on the farm even if she has worked there for many years. The theoretical literature on minimum wages is not helpful. There is much ambiguity around the actual effects of a minimum wage, to the extent that almost any optimistic or pessimistic view on the benefits or costs of a minimum wage can (and has been) justified in theory. In the same manner, the empirical literature is riddled with qualifications regarding the validity of the data rendering most of the results from empirical studies inconclusive. Their duties include inter-alia, applying pesticides, herbicides, and fertilizer to crops and livestock; plant, maintain, and harvest food crops; and tend livestock and poultry, repair farm buildings and fences. Duties may include: operating milking machines and other dairy processing equipment; supervising seasonal help; irrigating crops; and hauling livestock products to the market (Department of Labour, 2001).

1.4 Employment conditions

While farm workers are mainly men, the structure of farm work affects the entire family. When families do not travel together, parents, particularly fathers, are away from their children and families for long periods of time. On the farm site, women and children are confronted with many issues. Sexual harassment and abuse, inadequate educational opportunities, and the need for child labour for wages or for lack of childcare are serious concerns as well as the exposure of pregnant women and children to many of the health hazards listed above. Women also face discriminatory hiring practices and often significantly, lower wages, especially for piece-rate harvest work (Oxfarm-America, 2004).

1.5 Socio-economical status of farm workers

Socio-economic status (SES) is an economic and sociologically combined total measure of a farm worker's work experience and of an individual's or family's

economic and social position relative to others, based on income, education, and occupation. When analysing a family's SES, the household income earners' education and occupation are examined, as well as combined income, versus that of an individual, when their own attributes are assessed (NCES, 2008).

1.6 Research problem

Most people in the North West Province are employed on farms, making the agricultural sector the biggest employer in the province. Farm workers are crucial to our livelihoods because without their contribution to food production, people in the country all face starvation. Unfortunately, farm workers are the worst-paid labourers and their working conditions are not always favourable. This study will focus on the socio-economic status and job characteristics of farm workers in the Mafikeng, including inter-alia, remunerations and working conditions. Farm workers sighted anecdotal experiences of their suffering at the hands of farm owners whom they allege to have little or no regard for their well being. Some sighted painful incidents of injury on duty without any form of compensation by farm owners.

The reports about mistreatment of farm workers in the country led to this idea, as the bread and ham you eat for breakfast is the end product that was started by the very farm workers that are ill-treated. We hear a lot lately in the media about mistreatment of farm workers. It dies down, and crops up again. It seems as if this happens just enough to keep the masses reminded of the lie, that in general, white farmers treat their workers very badly. When it suits the particular agenda, this issue is used as a scapegoat, an additional excuse to justify murder, vandalism, theft, or whatever else has taken place. But we all know that whenever a worker is perceived as being treated badly, especially a black by a white, the issue is carried in the media, and every possible angle and details of the case are widely published. This is seldom the case when a black is treated poorly by another black. Perhaps they expect it, and it is not newsworthy enough.

A farmer is a highly trained and skilled individual, and in most cases, would regard his loyal workers as an asset, not to be mishandled. The government has come up with a very powerful workable instrument (Sectoral determination) yet this is not properly or not implemented at all in most of the farms. This study will highlight most of the

aspects that government and trade unions (Congress of the South African Trade Unions) need to strictly focus on. Literally, it will boost the economy through agriculture, indirectly as a happy, determined, satisfied farm worker will contribute immensely to agricultural production.

1.7 Objectives of the study

- Identify personal characteristics of farm workers.
- Determine the job characteristics of farm workers.
- Ascertain the socio-economic status of farm workers.
- Determine relationship between socio-economic status and job characteristics of farm workers.

1.8 Research Question

- What are the personal characteristics of farm workers?
- What job characteristics do they experience?
- What is their socio-economic status?
- What is the relationship between personal characteristics, socio-economic status and job characteristics?

1.9 Hypothesis of the study

There is no significant relationship between personal characteristics and socio-economic status of farm workers.

There is no significant relationship between personal characteristics and job characteristics of farm workers.

There is no significant relationship between job characteristics and socio-economic status of farm workers.

1.10 Definition of terms

A farm is an area of land, including various structures, devoted primarily to the practice of producing and managing food (produce, grains, or livestock), fibers and, increasingly, fuel. It is the basic production facility in food production. Farms may be owned and operated by a single individual, a family, a community, a corporation or a company. A farm can be a holding of any size from a fraction of a hectare to several thousand hectares (Adams, 1988).

Farming is a term that covers a wide spectrum of agricultural production work. At one end of this spectrum, is the subsistence farmer, who, farms a small area with limited resource inputs, and produces only enough food to meet the needs of his family. At the other end is commercial intensive agriculture, including industrial agriculture. Such farming involves large fields and/or numbers of animals, large resource inputs (pesticides and fertilizers.), and a high level of mechanisation. These operations generally attempt to maximise financial income from grain, produce, or livestock (Gregor, 1969).

A farm worker is a person hired to work in the agricultural industry. This includes work on farms of all sizes, from small, family-run businesses to large industrial agriculture operations. The farm worker may or may not be related to the individuals who own or run the farm, but his or her job entails a more formal relationship than a family member or neighbour who might do occasional chores on the farm. Depending on the location and type of farm, the work may be seasonal or permanent. Seasonal or migrant workers, are often low-wage workers, who may or may not be working in their country of origin. Permanent workers may have a particular set of skills or educational background that allow them to earn higher wages, and are often found on farms where there is year-round production, such as on dairy or beef cattle farms. Farm workers usually earn a wage, however, the work can be done on a voluntary basis or for educational reasons (Adams, 1988).

Socio-economic status (SES) is the position that an individual or family occupies with reference to the prevailing average standards of cultural possessions, effective

income, material possessions and participation in the group activities of the community (Akinbile, 2007).

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the review of literature. The review focuses on the world, Africa, Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) and primarily on South Africa.

2.2 Review on global trends

2.2.1 Recent trends in employment and wages

Increasingly, capital-intensive production and large-scale corporate ownership has resulted in greater levels of unemployment. In the Dominican Republic for example, there were 25 percent fewer workers on Large Scale Farms (LSF) in the late 1970s than in the first half of the 1950s. Mechanisation has particularly accentuated seasonal unemployment, shortening the annual work period. Tasks involving mechanical and chemical technology have tended to be reserved for a smaller number of skilled workers, supplemented by a large number of relatively unskilled labourers (Thomas, 1984; Seddon et al., 1979). This was documented in Sri Lankan plantations and in pre-revolution Cuba, where only 11 percent of agricultural workers worked the year round and 700 000 were out of work at the end of the sugar harvest (Rojas, 1986). Seasonal employment has forced workers to combine wage employment with other activities such as, small farming, fishing and public works projects (Loewenson, 1992).

Workers were commonly affected by exhaustion. One colonial authority documented that workers had "insufficient energy to do a full day work, owing to the poverty of their diet" (Turshen, 1987). Migrant labour, returning to peasant areas, spread the diseases of plantations and mines into the local community, with seasonal waves of diseases associated with labour migration patterns. In early Latin American plantations, casual workers or *mandamientos*, wandered for weeks in the heat and rain, trying to locate the estates to which they had been assigned. Plantation owners did not have the same interest in these workers as in their indentured or bonded workers, so they experienced the most hostile living and working conditions. Their

housing often consisted of a banana-leaf lean-to, with squalid water supplies and a meagre food intake (Loewenson, 1984).

2.2.2 Living conditions

In 1953, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) noted poor health and impoverished living conditions on plantations, inadequate and overcrowded housing, lack of ventilation in barracks-style accommodation, overcrowded communal or absent water supplies and sanitation and poor refuse disposal. Housing was poor even where Labour Codes specified minimum housing standards, such as in Malaysia. Improvements made to the living conditions of permanent labour were counterbalanced by little expenditure on the large group of semi-employed, casual labour (Loewenson, 1984). Two to three decades later, despite some scattered initiatives, little general improvement has been made. Located on remote private property, with little inspection on conditions, employers have minimal risk of penalty for poor housing (Elling, 1986 and Goldfarb, 1981).

Impoverished conditions have persisted even in an economy as industrialised as that of the United States. For example, in Florida in the 1970s, 40 percent of settlements did not meet minimum health and safety standards, with open wells, sewage dumps and housing made from tar paper, converted chicken coops, old trailers, condemned sheds and enclosures. One observer reported: "The smell of backed up toilets ... and odour of urine is everywhere. The water smells bad and sometimes is not portable. There is an absence of lighting. Wiring is exposed. Windows do not have screens. Pests, bugs and rats are a problem... these are homes congressmen from Washington would not keep their dogs in" (Goldfarb, 1981).

The issue of social development for farm workers has always been a contentious one, primarily due to a history of development being one of repression and exploitation. Decades of exploitative control have left a social situation characterised by poverty and extreme inequality of power, between farmer and worker, black and white people, and between men and women. The legacy of this brutal past is not only to be found in the conditions under which farm workers now live, but rather, the psychological and institutional barriers preventing their achievement of a better life though effectively

utilising the opportunities available to them. Poverty and marginalisation is a formidable barrier to overcome in this environment. It becomes clear that any development programme aimed at providing farm workers with support in their struggle for a better life - the essence of "development" - will of necessity need to address these factors (Husy and Samson, 2001).

An organiser for the United Farm Workers of America described the contrast of developed production systems coexisting with primitive habitations: Growers can have an intricate watering system to irrigate their crops, but they can't have running water inside the houses of their workers. Veterinarians tend to the needs of domestic animals, but they can't have medical care of their workers. "They can have land subsidies for the growers, but they can't have adequate unemployment compensation for the workers. They treat him like a farm implement. They have insulated barns for their animals, but the workers live in beat-up shacks with no heat at all'' (Elling, 1986).

In only a few countries, Malaysia for example, has government intervention resulted in subsidised housing being built for farm workers. Workers have generally had no rights to home ownership, no permanent residence status and negligible social security. The huge backlog of unfulfilled housing has raised the costs of construction to meet labour needs to considerable levels, as private producers have demanded subsidies, tax abatements, low-interest loans and even grants to meet the historical debt (Loewenson, 1984).

Calorie requirements in India increased by 50 percent with increasing work demands (Sanghvi, 1969). In periods of high employment in Kuttanad, calorie intake only reached 66 percent of the minimum requirements for energy output (Pannikar, 1978). Expenditure of energy in search of scarce work has thus exacerbated the nutritional problem (Loewenson, 1984).

Women on low wages with young children are at increased risk of ill health. Women involved in formal sector work also carry out domestic tasks such as child care, subsistence food production, foraging and purchasing of household needs. They bear the health burden of a double work load, while the family suffers the health

consequences of reductions in domestic work. The reallocation of women's labour has also resulted in less mother-child contact time, reducing infant feeding and less and less frequent preparation of meals, causing food to lose its vitamin content and to accumulate bacterial contamination (Chambers et al., 1981).

2.2.3 Food security and nutrition

In 1986, the World Bank defined "food security as access by all people at all times to enough food for an active and healthy life. It is evident that national self-sufficiency in food production does not guarantee all citizens the right to food". In an ILO study of seven Asian countries, a rise in per capita cereal production was associated with an increase in hunger and poverty (Chossoudovsky, 1983). Overall market scarcity of food is also not a necessary pre-condition for malnutrition. Food intake depends on access to food, a function of wages and food prices, access to means to grow or forage for food and the ability to obtain food on credit (Loewenson, 1984).

With relative consistency, different sources have estimated that about three-quarters of the agricultural wage was spent on food (Sircar et al., 1985; Lipton and de Kadt, 1985 and Krishnaswami, 1976). The average wage of agricultural workers has consistently been found to be below that required for minimum subsistence needs. Higher priced commercial foods and limited access to peasant markets have reduced the ability of plantation workers to buy sufficient food. In the pressure to use below-poverty wages to satisfy all household needs, food needs have sometimes suffered. "After all," as one Indian labour leader commented, "no-one sees your empty stomach. You can always tighten your *dhoti* (clothing) and walk with your head high. It is by your appearance that people judge you" (Tharamangalam, 1981).

Poor health (from whatever cause) can inflict great hardships on households, including debilitation, substantial monetary expenditures, loss of labour, and sometimes death. More broadly, the health and nutritional status of adults affect their ability to do work, and thus underpins the welfare of the household, including children's development. Treatable conditions often go untreated because of lack of access to healthcare. Many rural areas do not have clinics; the sick must be carried on the backs of young men or on bicycles to the nearest clinic. Moreover, clinics in rural

areas often lack adequate equipment or trained health personnel, and in many countries, they require payment before providing service. In the absence of health insurance, rural people are often unable to afford healthcare of any kind (Asenso-Okyere et al, 2011).

Poor health in turn affects agricultural production. Illness impairs the farmer's ability to innovate, experiment, and implement changes, and to acquire technical information available through extension activities. Healthcare expenses may consume resources that might be used to purchase improved seed, fertilizer, equipment, or other inputs. Households with sick members are less able to adopt labour-intensive techniques. As a counterpoint, health threats also affect the demand for agricultural output. Malnutrition and disease patterns influence market demand for food, in terms of quantity, quality, diversity, and the price people are able or willing to pay (Asenso-Okyere et al, 2011).

The long-term household impacts of ill health include loss of farming knowledge, reduction of land under cultivation, planting of less labour-intensive crops, reduction of variety planted, and reduction of livestock. The ultimate impact of ill health is a decline in household income and possible food insecurity—that is, a severe deterioration in household livelihood (Asenso-Okyere et al, 2011).

Food rations formed part of the wage in many parts of Asia and Africa. They generally provided only for the needs of the worker and, at most, one or two dependents. In one large-scale farming area of South Africa, for example, rations valued at R11.56 per head in 1973 were calculated to provide minimum needs for a family of 3.5 people at a time when the average family size was 6.2 people (Wilson et al., 1977).

Despite this, inaccessible and high-priced food stores and lack of time and transport have made rations more immediately acceptable to workers. Although compromised by monocropping, foraged foods have also been an important food source, particularly for underdeveloped workers (Loewenson, 1984).

In many parts of Asia, Africa and Latin America, food consumption is cut to a minimum in the "off" (non-farming) season. During seasonal underemployment in India, agricultural workers consumed cheaper cereals, reduced intake of purchased food and increased that of foraged and reduced intake of purchased food and increased that of foraged and reduced the number of meals per day. Malnutrition also rose in the period (Sanghvi, 1969).

Higher earnings during seasonal employment have given little compensation for huge increases in energy expenditure, with greater energy demands on plantation than peasant agriculture. In the sisal industry in Brazil, for example, wages were inadequate to replace the calories spent in labour, let alone to meet family needs (Laurell, 1981).

2.2.4 Patterns of ill health

In most countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America, rural populations have higher death rates than those in urban areas (Laurell, 1981). This is most evident among the working poor. A greater proportion of children die in the first year of life in agricultural worker communities compared to other sectors, as found in Algeria (Laurell, 1981), Brazil (Victoria and Blank, 1980), Sri Lanka (Lipton and de Kadt, 1985) and Assam in India (ILO, 1953). In the United States of America (USA), migrant farm worker infant mortality was reported to be double the national average in 1980. Infection and parasitic disease rates in US migrant farm workers were reported to be 200-500 percent higher than the national averages (Goldfarb, 1981).

Children in plantation communities have been reported to experience the highest levels of premature births and preventable diseases such as diarrhoea, measles, polio, whooping cough, tuberculosis and diphtheria. Frequent parasitic infections further undermine nutritional status. Malaria, respiratory and gastro-intestinal tract infections were the most frequently reported diseases from places as geographically distant as India, Haiti and Indonesia (ILO, 1953; Kawalewski, 1982). Seasonal migration of labour has resulted in regional disease epidemics. When labour militancy in Swazi sugar estates in the 1960s led to recruitment of Mozambican labour, epidemic increases malaria transmission occurred in that area (Packard, 1986).

Farm workers have also been found to be at increased risk of accidents, alcoholism, stress-transmitted diseases, attributed to social disruption, poverty and lack of penetration of health care onto plantations (Shenkin, 1974; Laurell, 1981; Hughes and Hunter, 1970). Nutritional and communicable diseases arise from the work process, such as low back pain and osteoarthritis of the hip due to poor ergonomics, injury from tools, implements and machinery, poisoning due to repetitive limb strain and organic dust-related lung diseases. In the Dominican Republic, one-third of all accidents in 1978 allegedly occurred on Gulf and Western's sugar estates. The unwitnessed burden of injury was reported in horror by one investigator into the company's activities in the Dominican Republic: We are not prepared for the response that awaited us when we asked: "do you have many accidents at work"? It was an unforgettable moment. Arms stretched out towards us –missing fingers, hands and arms bearing horrible, ragged, puffy scars- cruel proof of the violet nature of the work (Kawalewski, 1982).

Reported statistics of occupational illnesses are likely to be an underestimation, due to lack of coverage and use of health facilities, lack of diagnosis of occupational diseases and the disguising of occupational health problems by management controlled health services (Loewenson, 1992).

2.2.5 The health effects of underemployment

Agricultural production is a determinant of health, primarily through the consumption of food produced and through intermediary processes related to income and labour. In addition to providing some or all of the household's food needs, agriculture provides income for farmers and farm labourers, enabling access to food, water, land, information and education, and health related services—in short, enabling nutrition and good health. But agricultural labour can also affect the household's nutritional status adversely, both through high expenditure of energy and by usurping time that might be spent on childcare, food preparation, and other nutrition-related activities—or, if inefficiently utilised, detracting from more rewarding income-generating activities. Finally, agricultural labour exposes producers to a range of occupational health hazards, such as accidents, diseases, and poisoning from pesticides (Asenso-Okyere et al, 2011).

In contrast to the above work on the effect of illnesses on productivity, the impact of employment patterns on health appears to have received little attention. The shift to non-permanent employment is, however, likely to have resulted in a rise in ill health. Non-permanent labour has been excluded from environmental improvements, or legislated minimum standards exist, seasonal labour has had the poorest housing (Beckford, 1972); for details on Antigua, see Kawalewski, 1982; on the Dominican Republic, see Sajhau, 1986; on Chile, see Loveman, 1976). Hence, despite legal provisions in India, a 1984 Ministry of Labour study pointed to the continued presence of sub-standard housing. In the Indian tea industry, price stagnation and shortage of building materials were blamed for poor housing (Sircar et al., 1985).

In Latin America, seasonal workers "shared cramped quarters without adequate sanitary installations and were sometimes housed in sheds normally used for storing equipment or crops" (Sajhau, 1986). Investment to improve the quality of workers' housing in Sri Lanka, seen as necessary to minimise the risk of desertion, have only benefited permanent workers; seasonal labourers continue to live in overcrowded transit camps (de Silva, 1985; Sircar et al., 1985). Similarly, in African countries, improvements in housing have been targeted at permanent, semi-skilled and skilled rural labour (Sajhau, 1986).

In a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between seasonality in work and food intake in African and Asian peasants areas, Payne concluded that the burden of disease and undernourishment in the context of seasonal poverty "increases the risk that some irreversible downward steps will be taken" (Payne in Biswas and Andersen, 1985).

Technological change has not improved the physical wellbeing of workers. The expansion of irrigation has increased the prevalence of bilharzias and river blindness in many countries. Resurgence of malaria in Africa, Asia and Central America has at least in part, been attributed to the use of agro-chemicals on plantations. Increased mechanisation, irrigation and use of agro-chemicals have been associated with rising levels of occupational morbidity in Japan, Brazil, Mexico, Sri Lanka, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria and Sudan (ILO, 1982; Aidoo, 1982; Laurell, 1981 and Goldfarb, 1981).

2.2.6 The economic impact of ill health on plantations

Periodic research on the effects of farm workers illness on economic productivity perhaps, reflects employer interests in identifying the diseases that reduce productivity in order to target their control (Loewenson, 1984). Fenwick and Figenshon (1972) found differences in productivity of 3-5 percent between workers infected with bilharzias and non-infected workers, while Baldwin and Wesibrod (1974) found declines in labour productivity associated with parasitic diseases. Losses in productivity of up to 20 percent due to common parasitic, viral and bacterial infections were noted by Basta and Churchill in Indonesia (1974), by Griffith et al., (1971) in Thai rice production, in Sudanese cane cutters (Brandt, 1985) and cotton plantations (Leisinger, 1984), in the Philippines and in Guatemala (Brandt, 1985). These findings generally led to targeted interventions by company health services, such as administering anti-parasitic remedies. Improving the living environment was not part of the "therapy".

Studies in advanced capitalist countries have indicated that suicide, mental ill health and stress-related behaviours are a product of unemployment (Westcott, 1985). In underdeveloped economies, where information systems are poorer and poverty greater, little information exists on the unemployed, who have tended to disappear from the focus of data collection. The pressure of employment has made workers to often ignore illness, particularly during periods of intense seasonal labour. As a medical witness addressing a United State Senate committee investigating farm labour puts it: Most of the people live constantly on the brink of medical disaster, hoping that the symptoms they have or the pain they feel will prove transient or can somehow be survived, for they know that no help is available to them (Goldfarb, 181).

Apart from these scattered findings and seasonal changes in both employment and illness noted earlier, there are formidable gaps in our understanding of how current economic trends and employment patterns are affecting the rural working class in terms of food security, living conditions and patterns of ill health. While accurate records exist of the number of cotton bales marketed or the value of export sales from the sector, a vast number of rural workers are unmonitored and their social and economic conditions unmeasured (Loewenson, 1992).

Farmers use stronger concentrations of pesticides, with increased frequency of application, and they mix several pesticides together to combat pesticide resistance by pests (Chandrasekera et al. 1985; WRI 1998). Due to lack of training, many farmers contract pesticide-related diseases (Antle and Pingali 1994). Farm workers may not use protective clothing or equipment, because they are not aware of the dangers, the clothes are unavailable or unaffordable, or there are no regulations to enforce their use. Many of the negative health impacts resulting from pesticide use can be mitigated if protective measures are taken and recommended methods are followed when mixing and applying the chemicals. Consequences of large-scale pesticide use include hormone disruption and immune suppression (Straube et al. 1999), damage to skin and eyes, and even death. Prolonged exposure to pesticides can cause chronic health problems: cardiopulmonary problems, neurological and hematological symptoms, and adverse dermal effects (Davies et al, .1991).

The United States boasts of having the cheapest food supply in the world available to its consumers. While this might be true on the surface, it comes at a cost. This cost can be measured in the poverty and misery that result from a system that legally allows exploitation of those who produce the food. This cost often falls on the shoulders of farm workers who labour in the fields to provide the high quality, cheap foods we enjoy and boast about. The fact is that farm workers living in poverty subsidise food prices. It is an irony that those who labour to put food on our tables cannot themselves afford to buy the food, cheap as it is trumpeted to be. The 1960 CBS documentary ***"Harvest of Shame"***, exposed to the Nation and the world, the deplorable and often inhumane conditions under which agricultural migrant workers laboured to bring food to American tables (Smith-Nonini, 1999).

The years immediately following the exposure of the practices of exploitation saw improvements in the living and working conditions of migrant farm workers, largely through the efforts of the United Farm Workers of America, a California-based labour union representing the interests of farm workers. But by most accounts, the gains of the past decades have been lost and conditions of these workers have deteriorated, hidden from the public view in the fields, orchards and labour camps of the rural landscape. A report, recently released by the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC),

has highlighted the appalling conditions faced by South African farm workers (SAHRC, 2003).

The report was the result of an inquiry launched by the SAHRC in June 2001, in response to an increasing number of reports of brutality towards farm workers, execrable working and living conditions on farms, child labour practices and the ongoing murder of farmers. The terms of reference for the inquiry included investigating the incidence of human rights violations in farming communities since 1998; tenancy conditions; safety and security; economic and social rights and the underlying causes of human rights violations. Public hearings were held in all of South Africa's provinces, providing an opportunity for farm dwellers to give evidence to the Commission (SAHRC, 2003). The finalised report was eventually released in late August and paints a grim picture of the South African countryside: brutal living and working conditions, frequent evictions and physical assaults characterise the lives of many farm workers.

2.3 Reviews on Africa and Southern African Development Community (SADC)

In some developing countries, including Cameroon, Gabon, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania, India, Sri-Lanka and in most Caribbean and Latin American countries, labour laws now fix minimum standards for housing. In other countries Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand, provision of adequate housing is by convention rather than by law and the outcome is fixed by collective bargaining agreements. Even where minimum standards are legislated, housing conditions are poor, particularly for seasonal labour. Seasonal workers in Latin America were reported to "share cramped quarters without adequate sanitary installations, sometimes housed in sheds normally used for storing equipment or crops" (Sajhau, 1986).

The family or an adult individual occupies a social and economic position in relation to other members of the society. This position could be high or low depending on the possession and non-possession of those socio-economic status indicators adjudged important by members of the society. According to Chapin (1933) as cited by Rogers (1983), Akinola and Patel (1987), Tubbs (1988), Onwueme and Ugbor (1994), Akinbile (2007), and Marriage and Family Encycyclopedia (2010), socio-economic

status was the position an individual occupies in a society with respect to the amount of cultural possession, effective income, material possession, prestige and social participation. It implied the two dimensions of social and economic inequality.

The terms socio-economic status and social stratification are often used interchangeably. However, it should be understood that social stratification is an empirical process which leads to assignment of socio-economic statuses to members of a society (Ovwigho, 2011).

Otite and Ogionwo (1979), and Ekong (2003) stated that social stratification was an unequal distribution of members of human societies into available social positions. They maintained that the criteria for social stratification included authority, power (democratic and military), ownership of property in relation to the means of production and control over land, income (amount, type and sources), consumption pattern and styles of life, occupation or skill, education and wisdom, morality, place in high society, kinship connections and ancestry (inherited position), associational ties and connections, ethnicity, states, religion and race (Ovwigho, 2011).

The family is the main unit of any social stratification. Goode (1974) notes that it is the family that is ranked in the class structure and not the individual. Socio-economic status scales are important in the stratification of human societies. They equally serve as useful tools in evaluating changes resulting from development intervention programmes. Many rural development intervention programmes have been implemented in Nigeria without the in-built monitoring and evaluation instrument. This situation has resulted in the failure of many of the development intervention programmes. Many researchers shy away from constructing evaluation devices particularly socio-economic status scales because of the apparent difficulties and lack of technical know-how. According to Akinola and Patel (1987), very few studies have been carried out in the area of socio economic status scaling in Nigeria. This situation has persisted over the years. The two major studies in the area of socio-economic status scale construction in Nigeria were the socio-economic status scale constructed by Akinola and Patel (1987), and Akinbile (2007). Socio-economic status measurement is an empirical procedure which should be devoid of subjective measures.

The measurement scale adopted by Lundberg (1940) in measuring socio-economic status was rather subjective. He makes use of a six-point rating scale to measure the socio-economic status of 219 homes in a village community in England. The six-point rating scale consisted:

Upper Class ——— 1 ——— Upper part
——— 2 ——— Lower part
Middle Class ——— 3 ——— Upper part
——— 4 ——— Lower part.
Lower Class ——— 5 ——— Upper part
——— 6 ——— Lower part

The results obtained were compared with Chapin social status scale. Gupta (2005) states that measures of a social fact, phenomenon and psychological facts are often difficult and the outcome viewed subjectively. It is possible to develop an empirical instrument for the measurement of socio-economic status. The present study is aimed at constructing a socio-economic status scale from the socio-economic status indexes developed by Ovwigho (2009) for rural farm families in the north agricultural zone of Delta, Nigeria. The specific objectives, therefore, were to:

i. standardise validated socio-economic status indicators into a scale;
ii. determine the construct and concurrent validity of the scale; and
iii. ascertain the reliability of the scale.

Socio-economic status (SES) is the position that an individual or family occupies with reference to the prevailing average standards of cultural possessions, effective income, material possessions and participation in the group activities of the community (Akinbile, 2007).

Wilson (1985) describes SES as a classification of individual, household or family according to occupation, income, education or some other indicators of social status. Patel and Anthonio (1974) in their work on SES, posit that SES greatly influence the social behaviour of rural people that it is necessary to be able to identify and control those variables that indicate SES, especially in studies where other aspects of social behaviour are studied.

Reddy and Smith (1973) posit that people with higher SES are much more likely to become involved in voluntary actions than lower status people. This is of major importance in extension programmes as, for it to be successful, it must start where the people are. Thus, in the field of agricultural extension, status plays an important role in the understanding of clienteles and planning of development concerns. For this reason, Guarnachia et al. (1998) argued that a major factor affecting adoption of innovative economic strategies is SES, which is more important as a predictor than worldview and attitude towards change. They further posit that development projects need to assess socio-economic differentiation within a community as a major factor in understanding the response of different sectors of the economy to attempted interventions. This claim is corroborated by Okuneye (1992). The indicators of SES, according to Sender and Smith (1990), change with time and among various groups of people. SES can be as varied as the people's perception of their status, and this change accordingly.

The goods which people strive to acquire as soon as they could possibly afford, change with time, hence the indicators of SES change as those needs change. Among Tanzanian farmers, Sender and Smith (1990) discovered that crop type cultivated was an indicator of difference in SES among farmers. They found that the farmers with high SES engaged their land more in the production of coffee and tea, while those on the lower level of the rung were more into maize and cassava production. Thus, the dynamics of change which is continuous in every society makes it imperative to consider the significant changes that have taken place on the indicators of socio-economic status of farm families through the development and standardisation of a more current scale so that attempt to measure SES of farm families in contemporary dime will be more valid and reliable. A valid understanding of the SES of farmers will accelerate prospects of disseminating and retrieving agricultural messages (Akinbile, 2007).

This is because data on SES, which is latent in influencing changes along the lines of size of farm holding, patterns of investment and consumption trends have been neglected, unlike is the case with data on crop yield patterns, input use and land area cultivated. These have consequently resulted in policy conclusions that are at variance with the needs of the population or spatially adequate to meet people's needs. There is

thus the need to bridge the gap, as well as establish dependable database on which further data can be generated (Akinbile, 2007).

Depleuch et al. (2002) stated that SES scales are developed by computing a weighted sum of socio-economic characteristics of persons with given occupation, education, and usually income. However, Patel (1987) reports the use of either single factor indices (which is rarely used as a valid SES measure) or the multiple factor indices which include the summation of scores obtained from cultural possession, material possession and participation in group activities. It is discovered that previous efforts to measure SES of farmers in South Western Nigeria were standardised on the basis of indicators that were valid at the period (Patel and Anthonio, 1974; Ladele, 1990).

Most of the indicators are no longer valid for assessing the socio-economic status of farm families, hence the need to develop a standardised scale that will serve the need of the moment. It is important to note that electricity supply that is an issue in the contemporary situation, was not a significant issue in many rural communities about 30 years ago in the country. Also, the possession of gas lamps that was a valid indicator of SES about 30 years ago, is not an important possession in contemporary situation (Akinbile, 2007).

Previous studies have demonstrated the relationship between the socio-economic characteristics of farmers and their innovativeness (Patel and Anthonio, 1974; Ladele, 1990; Akinbile 1997). Thus, the higher a farmer's social status, the better his adoption behaviour tends to be when compared with other farmers. It thus suggests that extension agents and other community development workers, as well as rural sociologists, would be more successful in their efforts if the socio-economic status of farmers are determined and those with appropriate innovativeness are used in the diffusion of innovations (Akinbile, 2007).

The ability to identify and utilise rural dwellers with relatively higher socio-economic status in the early stages of the diffusion process will help in achieving high level of adoption of recommended innovations. This will be possible if valid scale for the measurement of socioeconomic status is available. The question that arises is thus how to construct and standardise a scale to measure the socio-economic status of farm

families in South Western Nigeria that will satisfy the needs of the moment (Akinbile, 2007).

Patel and Anthonio (1974) and Middleton (2002) submit that the differences in socioeconomic status affect the social behaviour of rural people, which suggests the need to understand the social behaviours by measuring their socio-economic status. It is therefore necessary that proper ingenuity is brought to bear to develop appropriate scale for the measurement of the socio-economic status of farm families. This is important to aid the adoption of innovations in efforts at achieving improved agricultural production so that the nation can progress towards achieving the much desired food security. This becomes important as peasant farmers who permeate the farm families in rural communities in the study area, produce the bulk of food consumed in the country (Okunmadewa, 1999).

2.3.1 Working, living and health conditions

Most farm workers in addition to their income, receive benefits from farm owners such as free access to accommodation and water, with the conditions of accommodation and also the type of sanitation varying greatly between farms. On some farms, however, farm workers had to pay for accommodation. On most of the farms, farm workers were able to buy subsidised food such as fresh milk, meat, maize meal, eggs, poultry or vegetables from the farm owner, depending on the type of farming. Education levels of farm workers were very low, with the majority of adults having education below or up to grade four. Education facilities for children on farm schools are limited to grade seven (Kruger et al., 2006).

Capitalist plantation agriculture produces some of the most profound examples of labour poverty. While harvests yield mountains of grain, workers and their families are malnourished and hungry. The labour that picks the cotton from which new fashions are styled, is clothed in tattered and threadbare garments. Workers herding cattle on extensive ranches have not tasted meat for years. The picture drawn from the many and varied fragments of information on agricultural workers' condition gives a consistent account of physical, mental and social impoverishment (Loewenson, 1992).

Turshen (1987) stated that with the introduction of plantation agriculture, extremely low wages, poor living environments and the lack of social benefits have frequently raised the incidence of malnutrition and communicable diseases. In addition, the introduction of new, often non-food crop species displaced climatically adapted, more nutritious peasant food crops. Famines coincided both with climatic variations and specific economic and political cycles, such as the East African famine of 1928-35, arising out of the international and national depression of the 1930s.

Kruger et al., (2006) conclude that another reason for concern was the conditions of residence on farms, which is linked to employment. When farm workers retire, they often lose the right to stay on the farm and therefore, lose security of residence. The same applies to relatives of farm workers. If a farm worker dies, his widow and children often have to leave the farm, if none of them is employed on the farm.

Kruger et al., (2006) stated that respondents also expressed concern with regard to access and availability of accommodation elsewhere. Furthermore, distance to towns and shops and lack of transport are frequently highlighted, which limits farm workers to buying food in the more expensive cafe's and smaller shops that are available on or around the farms. This constrains access to and availability of food and negatively impacts on household food security.

Chibalo labour in Mozambique suffered amongst the most gruelling conditions. They were entitled to neither food nor lodging, received little or no pay and were subjected to repeated physical abuses. Women, although legally exempt from *Chibalo*, were commonly recruited as young as fifteen years old and even when they were pregnant. Breastfeeding women were also forced to work (Isaacman and Isaacman, 1983). Chibalo workers lived on diets such as porridge and red ants and rudimentary housing was provided on only the largest estates. Despite the enormous expansion of plantation wealth, conditions have changed only slightly over the decades.

2.4 Agriculture sector in South Africa

2.4.1 Review on South Africa

The South African Agricultural Plantation and Allied Workers Union say the rights guaranteed by the country's constitution are meaningless for farm workers due to the

conditions under which they live and work. "Farm workers are an extremely vulnerable working class in our society" (SAPA, 2002).

"Farm workers' dependency on farmers for employment, accommodation and transport... makes it difficult for them to enforce their rights against abuse...," the union project coordinator, Bheki Hlatswayo, told the Human Rights Commission. He indicates very few farmers have contracts of employment and have to work long hours without proper remuneration. The union accuses farmers of showing a "shameful disregard for the health and safety" of farm workers by only providing them with unpurified water pumped from a dam. "Generally, most of the farms and estates do not have sanitation with running water... as a result, people have transmitted diseases" (SAPA, 2002).

The union affirms that the safety and security of farm workers is a big area of concern because they do not receive protection from the police and magistrates, unlike white farmers. Workers are still treated as though they "lived in the apartheid area" and receive little or no protection from the police. In contrast to this, the farmers' organisation, Agri-Gauteng, an affiliate of Agri-SA, say studies have shown that less than two percent of farm workers polled in a survey in the Free State and North West are unhappy with their working and living conditions. A subsequent study conducted in KwaZulu-Natal, showed a similar trend (Wegerif, 2007).

Wegerif (2007) states that Agri-Gauteng and its 134 members are in favour of labour legislation being extended to include farm workers. The organisation is doing everything in their power to ensure that its members treat their labourers fairly and that it would act against them if contraventions and incidents of abuse were reported.

Agri-Gauteng chairperson, Riann van Wyk, expressed concern over the high incident of farm attacks. "In addition to the human suffering that crime and violence have caused to those who work in and depend on the agricultural sector, the economic cost of crime in this sector is immense and totally unacceptable. After a farm murder is committed it takes up to 18 months for that farm to come into production again" Van Wyk points out (Wegerif, 2007).

2.4.2 Farm labour market

The market for farm labour is a highly flexible one. This flexibility is in terms of low and arbitrarily set wages, limited worker organisation, great flexibility (both upwards and downwards) in working time, task flexibility, and virtually no barriers to discretionary firing of workers. According to neo-liberal prescriptions, these characteristics should have made farm work a source of fantastic employment growth. Instead, low wages and unregulated labour relations have prevailed alongside dramatic job losses in the agricultural sector over a period of time (Dinkele et al, 1979).

As the Department of Labour pointed out earlier this year, employment in the agricultural sector fell by almost 10% since 1989 despite this sector being exempt from virtually all major labour laws until 1995. The few scandalous incidents of abuse of farm workers picked up by the media are just the tip of the iceberg, and are manifestations of the deep-rooted vulnerability and exploitation of farm workers There are estimated to be close to a million paid agricultural employees in the formal agricultural sector, of which about two thirds are full-time employees and the remainder casual and seasonal workers. In addition, there are many more undocumented workers, subsistence farmers, labour tenants, and dependent family members. Farm workers are amongst the poorest and most oppressed segments of the labour market, and this sector is thus one of the priorities for comprehensive transformation (Dinkele et al, 1979).

The rest of the time, it is left fallow to regain its natural vegetation and fertility. How would it be possible to farm the land during its fallow years as well? And without enough farm labourers (Dinkele et al., 1979). Rural women play multiple roles in the world's agricultural systems. They may be mothers, housekeepers, wage labourers, agricultural processors, market women, and entrepreneurs as well as agricultural producers. Most rural women make constant tradeoffs in allocating labour time and productive resources among their roles and obligations (Monson and Kalb, 1985).

The primary goal of a minimum wage should be to address inequalities within the agricultural sector. To this end, the minimum wage has to be accompanied by enforcement of basic conditions of employment, including programmes such as

Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) and other measures, to protect the interests of women, who consistently earn less than men, and who are less likely to be employed as permanent workers (Department of Labour, 2001). The introduction of a minimum wage and basic conditions of employment could contribute significantly to a rural development strategy to the extent that other programmes aimed at rural upliftment accompany their introduction.

Such other programmes include:

The revised land reform programme of the Departments of Land Affairs and the National Department of Agriculture. Dissatisfaction with the pace of implementation has resulted in a redesigned system of grants. The new proposals aim to provide a more flexible, demand-driven and decentralised programme, and to better accommodate the needs of new commercial farmers. Implementation, including the approval of grants, is to take place at the local rather than the national level.

Local economic development initiatives as part of the integrated development planning responsibilities of the newly-constituted municipalities in the third sphere of government in South Africa. Small business support programmes, largely the responsibility of the Centre for Small Business Promotion of the Department of Trade and industry. The key agencies are Khula, which provides financial services to small businesses, Ntsika, which plays an active role in support of small business development and a network of small business support centres throughout the country. Programmes to ensure access to rural financial services for small and emerging commercial activities throughout the agricultural supply chain. The key institution in this regard is the refocused Land Bank. Instruments such as the Step-up programme, the envisaged 'Land Bank Social Discount Product' and conventional Land Bank participation in the financing of farmers, cooperatives, etc (Department of Labour, 2001).

The refocusing of the Agricultural Research Council and the repositioning of institutions of higher education to better reflect the technology development needs of the country. This includes special research funding programmes of the Department of Trade and Industry (the THRIP programme) aimed at technology development, and of the National Research Foundation, that further the broader development objectives of South Africa. It also includes financial assistance to students of viticulture and

oenology at college, undergraduate and post-graduate level. The creation of the National Agricultural Marketing Council, which has been charged with the task, among others, of facilitating access to market opportunities for new entrants in the farming sector. The export promotion programmes of the Department of Trade and Industry, partly administered by the Industrial Development Corporation. This includes financial assistance for export market development (e.g. financial support to visit potential markets and to design and produce promotional material) and project finance at concessionary terms for the expansion of exportable production from the IDC (Department of Labour, 2001).

Various national and provincial level initiatives to promote foreign and domestic tourism. The new Water Act and especially the provisions made therein for preferential access to irrigation water for small farmers. Health policies, aimed at redressing the imbalance between preventative and curative health services delivery and improving access to health services, especially for the rural poor. Social policies, including welfare, housing, youth, gender and recreation for the people. Finally, the question has to be asked whether a minimum wage, accompanied by basic conditions of employment, is the best instrument for achieving these goals (Department of Labour, 2001).

Indigenous people in South Africa were systematically dispossessed through colonisation and apartheid. This saw many trapped in an exploitative labour system as migrant workers, farm workers and labour tenants. The experiences of dispossession for South Africans are common in some ways but different in many other ways, due to peoples' status in a society based on race, class and gender. Regardless of the experience of dispossession, however, it can be safely said that the apartheid system turned indigenous and African landowners into labour tenants and farm occupiers. It is therefore imperative that initiatives that exist to redress historic land injustices and the provision of basic needs, make a particular effort regarding the plight of farm dwellers (Ndlela, 2006).

Ndlela (2006) elaborated that farm dwellers were stripped of their land rights. Most provided cheap labour to colonial masters and the work that they were expected to do was overwhelming and draining. They were also moved from farm to farm to provide

labour. Those that could not provide labour because of health problems, old age or any other reason, were evicted from farms and sent to the homelands or reserves. In many cases, farm dwellers were allowed to bury their loved ones on farms, keep a few livestock, and do some crop farming, but apart from these limited rights, they did not enjoy any form of security of tenure during the colonial and apartheid period. In short, they lived at the mercy of the farm owners.

The process of dispossession and impoverishment was systemically structured and driven by the state to ensure the dominance by its racial and economic partner i.e. commercial farming. The legislation that was passed to impose this dispossession is lengthy and complex, yet served to ensure that indigenous people living on the land were tied into an emerging inequitable economy as labourers and nothing else (Ndlela, 2006).

Some of the Historic Land Laws in South Africa

Locations Acts of 1869, 1876, 1884 Glen Grey Act 30 of 1899, Land Act of 1913, The Group Areas Act (Act 41 of 1951), Black Administrations Act, The Natives Re-Settlement Act (Act 19 of 1954), The Native Trust and Land Act, later Development Trust and Land Act (The New Land Laws of South Africa Legal Resources Centre, 2003).

Redressing the inequalities of the past

On 27 April 1994, South Africa was fundamentally transformed. People were jubilant at the change and the promise it brought for a new life. Hopes were high for the delivery of basic services and infrastructure to the bulk of population — including farm dwellers. These high hopes were strengthened by the urgency of new government policies e.g. the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the release of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development (ISRD) document in 2000 and also by the new government's willingness to decentralise its programmes to all spheres of governance (Ndlela, 2006).

Regarding farm dwellers in particular, two key pieces of legislation were passed: the Extension of Security Tenure Act, 62 of 1997 (ESTA) and Labour Tenure Act, 3 of

1996 (LTA). The prime object of these laws was to regulate the relationship between landowners and farm dwellers on privately owned (agricultural) land, prevent illegal evictions, and make provision for the acquisition of land by farm dwellers. When these laws were passed, landowners realised that their powers were being tampered with, and started evicting farm dwellers in numbers. Different strategies were used to do this: ending farm workers' employment, converting the farm into game reserves or tourism ventures, forcing farm dwellers to reduce their livestock, denying farm dwellers the right to bury on farms, and denying farm dwellers the right of access to clean water (Ndlela, 2006).

2.4.3 Education department

The Education Department informed the Human Rights Commission (HRC) that there was a huge backlog with providing decent education to rural areas. The department's Len Davids said it was difficult to find qualified teachers to teach in rural and farm schools and the distances children had to travel to get to schools also presented a major problem. He said the department was working on the various problems in an attempt to supply children in rural farming communities with adequate and quality schooling. Female farm workers are some of the most disadvantaged and vulnerable people in today's South Africa. Despite current protective legislation for agricultural workers, wages are not sufficient for people to survive in the face of new challenges, such as rising food prices and precarious housing and living conditions. Female farm workers do not have a representative organisation through which to demand their rights from employers or the government, particularly with regard to women workers (SAPA, 2002).

Sikhula Sonke which means 'we grow together', is a trade union set up to improve the living and working conditions of female farm workers by building and strengthening the organisation. *Sikhula Sonke* aims at taking up workers' issues as well as gender issues and is building strong leadership structures, organising collective campaigns and negotiations, expanding into new areas and provinces, and ensuring national and international alliances are built to make the position of women agricultural workers visible. War on Want supports *Sikhula Sonke*' struggle for female farm workers' rights

2.4.4 New laws to protect farm workers

Before 1994, there were no real laws governing the working and/or living conditions of farm workers and dwellers. The post-apartheid era has seen a host of laws introduced specifically aimed at protecting the rights of these vulnerable communities. However, farmer backlash to the introduction of these laws have been severe. There was an unprecedented spate of farm workers evictions in the run up to the introduction of a law aimed at enhancing tenure security for farm workers. This trend continues alongside the trend towards casual labour. Despite an extensive system of subsidies to farmers towards the social development and labour costs of farm workers, most farmers now see the investment in social development as the exclusive responsibility of the state (Isaacs, 2003).

Despite all the new laws that are supposed to govern the employment relationship between farmer and farm worker, it is the historical unwritten rules of slavery that still largely define the interactions even today. While these laws are unwritten, there is a clear, shared understanding between worker and farmer about what these rules entail. Because of this, the nature of disputes remains highly personalised. In citing reasons for conflict with farm workers, farmers show no hesitation in describing farm workers as lazy, no-good, drunkards, thieving, etc. (Isaacs, 2003).

On the positive side, from those of us working directly with farm workers, there is a sense of increasing surfacing of the problems and a growing tension on the farmlands. Farmers complain that farm workers have become more problematic in recent times. However, the increase of visible conflict between farmer and workers should be seen as an indicator of the growing rights awareness and confidence of workers. Most confrontations do not lead to victories given the range of obstacles faced by workers. The mere fact that these fights are happening should be read as very slow relocation of farm workers as subject in the farming universe, to citizens in a constitutional democracy. Even in the face of a plethora of labour and tenure laws aimed at protecting the rights of farm dwellers, conditions remain much the same and farm life continues to be characterised by an extreme power imbalance between the commercial white farmers, and the work force. Despite all the undoubtedly positive

developments in South Africa, women who live and work on farms still suffer precarious livelihoods of profound insecurity and are likely to continue to do so for the foreseeable future (Isaacs, 2003).

When the survivors of the *mandamientos* straggle back to their home communities exhausted and infected by malaria, intestinal parasite and chest infections, many were too weak to work their subsistence plots or undertake the long journeys necessary for trade (McCreery, 1986). Within Southern Africa, by the 1920s, capitalist exploitation of labour was most sophisticated in South Africa. Research was carried out to find the minimum health measures possible for maximum profits. Colonial administrators from as far north as Tanzania, visited South Africa to observe the nature of health care and other social inputs in order to follow that example. Racial segregation and huge class disparities in social service provision became a characteristic feature of the whole region (Kaniki, 1979).

2.4.5 Human and environmental factors relating to safety

Human error is usually a major factor in the cause of accidents. Tiredness, not paying attention, and using poor judgement are frequent causes of accidents that involve animals. People younger than 25 and older than 64 have more accidents on the farm than people between the ages of 25 and 64. Farming is an occupation in which children are likely to be in the work area. Their curiosity and lack of experience can easily lead them into situations where they may get hurt. As people grow older, they tend to lose some of their strength and agility. They may have poorer balance and failing vision. This may cause them to have more accidents around animals. Sometimes, workers are not properly instructed in handling animals. This can also result in accidents involving livestock (Gillespie, 2004).

A worker who does not feel well may be more likely to have an accident. Sometimes, people are in a hurry to get the job done. This can lead to mistakes in judgement that cause accidents. Long hours of work during a day are often common in farm operations. Being tired increases the chance of having an accident. Workers, who fail to use personal protective equipment in dangerous environments, are more likely to be injured than those in livestock operations. These include slippery floors, manure pits,

corrals, dusty feed areas, silos, automatic feeding equipment, and confinement livestock buildings (Gillespie, 2004).

Many confinement livestock buildings have a manure storage pit that is cleaned out only a few times a year. If the building is not properly ventilated, the pit gases can kill workers and livestock. Vent pipes must be installed properly. Improperly installed vent pipes may allow gas fumes to be recycled into the building, which can cause illnesses and possible deaths. A standby source of electrical power is recommended for modern livestock farms. This is especially important for farms with confinement livestock buildings. If pit fans do not operate because of an electrical power failure, a build-up of toxic gases can result. An emergency source of power can be a life-saving measure should this sanitation occur (Gillespie, 2004).

The number of mainly black workers evicted from farms has increased since South Africa's democratic era began in 1994, primarily due to perceptions of political and economic risk (Wegerif, 2007).According to the National Evictions Survey conducted by the Nkuzi Development Association and Social Surveys, under 1.7 million people were evicted from farms in the period between 1994 and the end of 2004, compared to 942,000 in the previous decade. Wegerif, (2007) told IRIN that in terms of the manner in which people were booted off the land, "nothing has changed since the end of the apartheid era". Only 1 percent of those evicted from farms were involved in a legal process challenging their evictions. "South Africa is trying to implement a land reform programme [with a focus on land redistribution, restitution and security of tenure] ... yet 15 percent of adults evicted from farms had been born on them, while over 50 percent had been on the farm for over 10 years,"(Wegerif, 2007) noted. Those dispossessed - mainly black and mixed-race labourers - were not transient workers. "Many of those uprooted by evictions are families with long histories on the land," the report indicated, the very people who should benefit from land reform.
Wegerif (2007) pointed out that the survey indicated that the rate of evictions rose in periods of perceived "political uncertainty", such as when South Africa held its first democratic elections in 1994. Economic risks, including drought during 1982-84 and again in 1992, and the introduction of new labour legislation in 2003 that increased the minimum wage for farm workers, also resulted in increased evictions. In the post-apartheid period, the average monthly income of a full-time male farm worker is just

R529 (US $81), well below the minimum wage of $100-$124, although higher than the apartheid average of R93 ($14)

Of the evictees, "women and children are the most vulnerable, as they are treated by landowners and the courts as secondary occupiers allowed on a farm only due to their link with a male household member". Some 46,748 evicted children were also "involved in child labour when still living on farms", but the report maintains that "this number [of child labourers] did drop after 1994". The largest number of child evictions from farms - 71 percent - occurred during the apartheid era. The report indicates that evictees "are vulnerable members of our society, typically having low levels of education and low incomes, even when working". They are often unaware of their rights and even less aware of where to seek assistance (Wegerif, 2007).

2.4.6 Impact of evictions

As a result, the impact of eviction was often "devastating". "Families who lose their homes; people who had livestock on farms they were evicted from, and those who were growing maize and so on, lose their assets - it seems like we are forcefully removing black farmers from the land, as a significant percentage [of evictees] had their own agricultural assets, such as livestock,"(Wegerif, 2007). He adds that "clearly, not every black person wants or needs to be a farmer, but these are people who are farming in their own right, as well as working for [farm owners] and they are being forced out of it".

According to the survey, 44 percent of households had livestock prior to being evicted, with just 9.3 percent able to retain their livestock after being evicted. Wegerif adds that "49 percent of those evicted from farms have been children, which is of great concern when you look at the rights of the child and the general vulnerability of children". Farm evictions have also contributed to rapid urbanisation: 67 percent of evictees have migrated to urban centres, mostly to towns and cities in the central Gauteng province or the east-coast province of KwaZulu-Natal. "Since 1994, almost 1 million black people have been forced off 'white' farms," as mentioned in the report. The trend has consolidated apartheid-era geography, in which the separation of race groups was a key element. Forty-eight percent of evictees lived in

townships constructed to house black people during apartheid, 30 percent in informal settlements, and 14 percent in under-privileged former black 'homelands' created by the apartheid system.

"There is currently no provision or planning for the proper accommodation of people from farms; there are almost no planned settlements for farm-dwellers in farming areas," the report highlights .The study concluded that "evictions have undermined the limited gains of land reforms, and contributed to consolidating ownership of farmland into fewer hands". South Africa did not have an effective programme to limit the scale of evictions, or to ensure viable settlements for those displaced from farms. "Urgent policy and programme steps are needed to reverse the trend and establish new relations in commercial farming areas" (Wegerif, 2007).

2.4.7 Concept of job characteristics

Farm workers are the most vulnerable section of the South African working class and although there are a number of measures such as legislation that have been put in place to protect them, the majority are not enjoying better wages, improved and fair conditions of employment (Gabara, 2010).

2.4.8 Review of cases of job characteristics and socio-economic status of farm workers

It is a fact that working conditions for many farm workers still remain far from ideal, President Jacob Zuma indicated at the National Farm Workers Summit (Zuma, 2010). "Reports state that long and unpaid working hours are still a norm. Most of the workers do not have any kind of insurance, including Unemployment Insurance Fund, which means their future is not secure," said the President. He said farm workers do not have the opportunity and means to organise themselves, which means that they have very weak bargaining power. "The status and conditions of women and children on the farms also needs attention. Since this sector is often isolated, it takes long before practices such as child labour are uncovered, which calls for vigilance by government and non-governmental organisations," (Zuma 2010).

Zuma (2010) urged farm owners and the entire agricultural sector to engage actively with farm workers to ensure that they also enjoy their basic rights. "We must agree as farm owners, farm workers, government, labour and others that the Bill of Rights in the Constitution, especially provisions such as the right to human dignity, also applies to farm workers. Zuma (2010) further affirms "We must commit to work actively with farm workers to ensure that they enjoy these rights. They have the right to basic services, education, health, social security and a host of others". Zuma said farm owners should know that farm workers have rights to pensions, social grants and all social security measures that the State provides to qualifying citizens. "We will know that we have achieved a lot as a democratic and progressive society, when farm workers enjoy these rights fully.

"As government, our action plan involves the implementation of a comprehensive rural development strategy, linked to land and agrarian reform," said. The strategy links the improvement of the conditions of farm workers and farm-dwellers with the need to build the potential for rural sustainable livelihoods. He said the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform indicates his government's seriousness in ensuring an intense focus on rural development. "We are also mainstreaming the focus on rural areas. It must not only be the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform that sees rural areas as its responsibility (Zuma, 2010).

It is also a sector where workers are not unionised and it is our experience that where workers are not unionized, they cannot bargain or negotiate for inflation related salaries. Yes, farmers do pay farm workers a minimum wage and there are still many farmers who do not pay their workers a minimum wage. But, we are asking ourselves if a minimum wage is sufficient or if we should now start negotiating inflation related increases in salaries. We are discussing this with Congress of South African Trade Union (COSATU) and other unions such as the National African Farmer's Union (NAFU), Transvaal Agricultural Union (TAU) and Agri South Africa (Joe-Matta, 2010).

The Limpopo premier, Mr Cassel Mathale, urged both farm owners and farm workers to work together to transform the province into the country's food basket. He was speaking during the provincial farm worker summit held at Forever Resorts in Bela-Bela on 13 May 2010. The event, under the theme, "Towards a better life for

vulnerable workers," forms part of the national Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries' strategy to find ways of improving the welfare of all farm workers countrywide, including better steps to protect them. Mathale continued, "We are trying by all means to improve the living conditions of farm workers. The issue of farm workers and the poor treatment they are receiving has been publicly acknowledged for many decades. Farm workers were one of the poorly treated groups in the country during apartheid (Kgatla, 2010).

They were often beaten, tortured, killed and subjected to all forms of human degradation and regarded as the property of farm owners, with no rights. They have the right to be treated with dignity and, mostly, they have the right to form and join trade unions and participate in the activities and programmes of the unions." Through education, Mathale said, a child of a farm worker can become an engineer, an educator, an architect, a chartered accountant, a computer specialist or a member of any other profession. "The land redistribution programme has been marked by a number of difficulties. The process of introducing a new approach in this regard has commenced and we trust that the summit will accelerate the process of indigenising the land (Kgatla, 2010).

The land given to farm workers as commercial agricultural land must be used as such. We have availed programmes that are aimed at capacitating communities that have successfully claimed their land to continue with the farming business. The most important aspect that must be considered is that farming needs hard work, dedication and love," concluded Mathale. Major challenges or problems facing farm workers in Limpopo include: Low wages; No leave or holidays for farm workers; Lack of training; Lack of educational support; Unsafe working conditions; No maternity leave; Eviction of farm workers; Inappropriate clothing for farm workers; Child labour (Kgatla, 2010)

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the oppression laws of the past (apartheid era), reviews on literature by different authors that were duly acknowledged and farm workers'

summit held recently in South Africa. It highlighted the plight of farm workers in different countries, the living and working conditions of farm workers.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the process and method by which the study was conducted which include the area of study, sampling procedure, data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Area of study

North West is a province of South Africa. Its capital is Mafikeng. The province is located to the west of the major population centre of Gauteng.

North West was created after the end of Apartheid in 1994, and includes parts of the former Transvaal Province and Cape Province, as well as most of the former Bantustan of Bophuthatswana. It was recently the scene of political violence in Khutsong, Merafong City Local Municipality. Merafong has since been transferred to Gauteng province.

The current premier of North West province is Thandi Modise of the African National Congress; she is also serving as the Deputy Secretary General of the ANC. The Ngaka Modiri Molema District is the second largest district in North West, both in population and size, comprises of five local municipalities, namely Ditsobotla, Mafikeng, Ratlou, Tswaing and Ramotshere Moiloa. Central district is situated in the extreme north-western part of the North West province and shares an international airport with Botswana. Pinky Ntibane Rebecca Mokoto is the current executive mayor for Ngaka Modiri Molema, while Councilor Chris Jabanyane is the mayor for Mafikeng.

Much of the province consists of flat areas of scattered trees and grassland. The Magaliesberg mountain range in the northeast extends about 130 km (about 80 miles) from Pretoria to Rustenburg. The Vaal River flows along the southern border of the province. Temperatures range from 17° to 31°C (62° to 88°F) in summer and from 3° to 21°C (37° to 70°F) in winter. Annual rainfall totals about 360 mm (about 14 in), with almost all of it falling during the summer months, between October and April (Department of Tourism, 2004).

The North West shares borders with the following districts of Botswana: Kgatleng - far northeast, South-East – northeast, Southern – north, Kgalagadi – northwest. Domestically, it shares borders with the following provinces: Limpopo - northeast, Gauteng – east, Free State – southeast, Northern Cape – southwest. North West province is traversed by the northwesterly line of equal latitude and longitude

(Department of Tourism, 2004). The North West province has 4 district municipalities and 21 local municipalities.

3.3 Economy

The mainstay of the economy of the North West province is mining, which generates more than half of the province's gross domestic product and provides jobs for a quarter of its workforce. The chief minerals are gold, mined at Orkney and Klerksdorp; uranium, mined at Klerksdorp; platinum, mined at Rustenburg and Brits; and diamonds, mined at Lichtenburg, Christiana, and Bloemhof. The northern and western parts of the province have many sheep farms and cattle and game ranches. The eastern and southern parts are crop-growing regions that produce maize (corn), sunflowers, tobacco, cotton, and citrus fruits. The entertainment and casino complex at Sun City and Lost City also contributes to the provincial economy (Department of Tourism, 2004).

The province has the lowest number of people aged 20 years and older (5,9%) who have received higher education. The literacy rate is in the region of 57%. The majority of the residents are the Tswana people who speak Setswana. Smaller groups include Afrikaans, Sotho, and Xhosa speaking people. English is spoken primarily as a second language. Most of the inhabitants are Christians. (Figures according to Census 2001 released in July 2003).

3.4 Education

The province has two universities: the University of North West, formerly called the University of Bophuthatswana (founded in 1979), in Mmabatho; and Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (founded in 1869; became a constituent college of the University of South Africa in 1921 and an independent university in 1951). These two universities have been merged and now referred to as North West University.

3.5 Sampling Frame

The population of study is farm workers in the Mafikeng and Ramotshere Moiloa Municipalities. According to Statistics South Africa (2002), there were 5 349 farming

units (farms) in the North West province in 2002 and only 29 for Mmabatho (now referred to as Mafikeng). Eight farms i.e. three commercial farms and five communal farms were randomly selected (all the farm workers selected were black people). Number of workers in the selected farms differs from one to another. One Hundred farm workers were randomly selected and interviewed for this study.

3.6 Data collection

Data were collected using a structured questionnaire made up of three sections as follows: personal characteristics, socio-economic status and job characteristics. The personal characteristics section consisted of twelve (12) variables such as age, gender, marital status, nationality, educational level, job category, job positions, type of employment, salary grade, religion, source of information and family size. The job characteristics section consisted of forty-seven (47) items with three scale type of Satisfactory (3), Moderately Satisfied (2) and Not Satisfied (1). The last section was for socio-economic status with ninety-three (93) items and consists of three scale of Possess (Yes), and Possess (No), and Number of those items posses. Socio-economic status comprised of three sub-sections with the first one focused on socio-economic status of agricultural possession, the second on household possessions and the third on other utilities.

3.7 Data analysis

Data collected were sorted, coded and subjected to analysis using SPSS. The percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to describe data. The relationships between socio-economic status and personal characteristics were explained with multiple regression analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of data analysis of the study and is organised into three sub-sections namely; personal characteristics, socio-economic status (compressing of agricultural passion and other utilities) and job characteristics of farm workers described by mean and standard deviation.

4.2 Findings on Personal Characteristics

The majority of farm workers fall between 20-30 years age group, this may be as a result of high unemployment rate that the country is currently experiencing. Approximately 2% of farm workers are within 20 years and below age group, this may emanate from the fact that the majority of this age is still at school and some are not permitted to work by legislation as a result of their age (underage).

Kruger et al. (2006) concluded that employment is usually linked to men, while most women have access to casual jobs only. Males dominate the farming sector as farm workers as a result of the type of work associated with 'hard labour'. Females are known to take care of the families, as women are regarded as those who care for the house.

This study shows that 70% of all agricultural workers are male. Farm workers are also relatively young, their average household size is relatively small, and the overwhelming majority are South African citizens and female farm workers are paid less than male. This gender disparity exists despite the fact that females are better educated than males. Females are paid less because the tasks typically performed by them are viewed as less skilled, and because employers often choose to view male workers as 'permanent' while female are viewed as 'casual' workers whose employment is contracted via a male partner (Department of Labour, 2001).

Most of the respondents are not married, the figure of singles stands at 54%, and this may be due to the fact that most farm workers are between 20-30 years old while 27% of them are cohabiting as a result of testing each other's compatibility or saving money for *lobola*; with only 19% married.

Approximately 7% of farm workers are from the Republic of Zimbabwe. The collapse of agriculture in Zimbabwe has led to the influx of skilled farm workers to South Africa and 93% of farm workers are South African citizens due to the high rate of unemployment, most South African citizens have no other option but to look for job elsewhere and working on the farm is no exception.

Almost 28% of the population aged 20 years and older have completed at least secondary education (Statistics South Africa, 2007), this does not depict it as reality as educational level i.e. grade 1-6 of most farm workers stands at 91%, this may emanates from the fact that the type of work concern does not require any formal qualification. Only 9% of farm workers have gone beyond grade 6. Statistics South Africa (2007) outlined that the percentage of the population aged 20 years and above with no schooling, has declined from 17,9% in 2001 to 10,3% in 2007. Vorster et al (2000) conclude that farm workers have the lowest literacy rate in South Africa and the immense backlog in education services still persists on farms.

Due to the high rate of unemployment, it does not present a problem for labour brokers or farmers to find people seeking temporary employment (Schweitzer, 2008)... "On any given day, there are many more work seekers than the farmer needs ... the farmer or his foreman can pick and choose amongst those clambering to get onto the lorry for a day's wage" (Ewert and Du Toit 2005: 329). Temporary workers are frequently less educated and earn less than their permanent colleagues (Ewert and Du Toit 2005: 317; Kritzinger et al. 2004: 27).

Deregulation, globalisation and increasing competition has led to the intensification and specialisation of labour. Gradually, more permanent workers take over better qualified and more elaborated tasks such as irrigation, spraying and tractor driving (Kritzinger et al., 2004: 21–22). It is not all of them (farm workers) that are involved in the technical operations. This study reveals that only 13% can perform the tasks of technical operators while 87% are general workers.

"Farm workers generally thought they had very little. And now with the significant move from permanent to casual labour, being a permanent worker has become a

privilege, even though in real terms, it's still a dog's life. It's ironic, when you think about it, people who thought they had little and now they are privileged" (NGO worker, personal communication, June 28, 2006). This correlate with this research outcome where 87% of farm workers are permanent and mostly classified as general labourers, the interaction was that honesty can lead to one being registered as a permanent worker; and only 13% of them temporary. Temporary workers present a heterogeneous assemblage of casual, seasonal and contract workers who have far less legal rights than their permanently employed counterparts (Schweitzer, 2008).

Monetary-wise, it shows that 63% of farm workers earn R10 000—R15 000 per annum and the mere 37% earning R16 000—R20 000, this may be as a result of compensation from public holidays and Sundays work.
Kruger et al., (2006) found out that women permanently employed in a farm had a mean cash income of R500.00* per month; the mean income of male workers on farms in the Ventersdorp district was R544.00 per month. Most farm workers in addition to their income, received benefits from farm owners such as free access to accommodation and water, with the conditions of accommodation and also the type of sanitation varying greatly between farms.

According to Statistics South Africa (2007), ownership of a radio, television, computer, refrigerator and cell phone has increased considerably between Census 2001 and Community Survey 2007. This concurs well as 91% of farm workers rely on the radio as a source of information, this may be because of the price tag on radio compared to other audio-visual equipment and only 9% rely on a television.

Sixty-one percent have families ranging from 1-3 members, 36% made up of 4-6 members and 3% made up of six members and above. This might be due to the cost of living; as more and more families have tried though in vain to reduce the size of the family due to high food prices, school fees, clothing, toiletries, transport etc.

Husy and Samson (2001) observed that as opposed to those employed on farms, consideration has to be given to the dependents of these workers who are resident on farms. In general, dependents constitute additional 4-5 members of the family unit, reflecting an approximate national number of employees and dependents permanently

residing on farms at 4 million people. This number does not include the number of families and persons resident on farms who are neither employed, nor dependent on an employee.

There is considerable evidence of a cycle of debt together with high interest rates either to farm shops or directly to the employer on many farms. This appears to be due to the isolation of farms and reliance on employers to provide transport to town. Workers also identified what can be termed 'forced purchases' where the employer insists that they buy certain items, normally farm produce, at specific rates (Department of Labour, 2001).

Table 1: Percentage distribution of farm workers on the basis of personal characteristics.

Variables	Percentage
AGE	
Less than 20 Years	2
20-30 years	39
31-40 years	26
41-50 years	23
51-60 years	10
GENDER	
Male	74
Female	26
MARITAL STATUS	
Single	54
Married	19
Cohabiting	27
NATIONALITY	
Republic of South Africa	93
Republic of Zimbabwe	7
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	
Grade 1-6	91
Grade 7-11	9
JOB CATEGORY	
Technical Operators	13
General Labourer	87
TYPE OF EMPLOYMENT	
Permanent	87
Temporary	13
SALARY GRADE	
R10 000- R15 000 per annum	63
R16 000- R20 000 per annum	37
SOURCE OF INFORMATION	
Radio	91
Television	9
FAMILY SIZE	
1--3	61
4--6	36
Above 6	3

4.3 Findings on socio-economic status

4.3.1 Findings on socio-economic status (Agricultural possession)

The indicators of socio-economic status change with time in every community because of the dynamics of human existence. With the agrarian- based community made up of some disguisedly poor ruralite and a generally poverty ridden farming population (Olawoye, 2002), there is an inability to discern correct indices of ascribing socio-economic status. Dogs and chickens are the most popular animals farm workers own. They may keep the dog as pet and primarily for security reasons, like they say 'a dog is the man's best friend'. They pointed out that they keep chickens for the 'dire times' for use as relish. Only five respondents own cattle and sixteen of them own more than three goats each. Fourteen respondents own turkeys, while three own sheep and only one respondent owns a tractor and land. Horses, donkeys and pigs are the only animals that farm workers do not possess.

Table 2: Percentage distribution of farm workers on the basis of agricultural possessions

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS (Agric. possession)			
Items	**0**	**1--3**	**Above 3**
Cattle	92	3	5
Horse	100	0	0
Sheep	97	2	1
Goats	84	0	16
Pigs	100	0	0
Dogs	36	63	1
Cats	92	8	0
Donkey	100	0	0
Donkey-Cart	100	0	0
Tractor	99	1	0
Chickens	21	1	78
Turkeys	86	0	14
Peacocks	98	0	2
Land	99	1	0

4.3.2 Findings on socio-economic status (Household materials)

Radio, bed, blankets, pillows, table, water-buckets, bath, calendar, window panes, wooden door and eating utensils are the most common objects that almost every farm worker possesses. These are the basic needs for every farm worker, and are vital in improving their persona. Farm workers have pointed out that none of them insured their household items. Husy and Samson (2001) observed that in 1994, only one-fifth of all farm workers had access to a telephone within 100 metres of their homes, while 42% had to travel more than 1 kilometre to a telephone. On Kwazulu-Natal farms, the proportion of farm workers with access to television is 19%, while 27% of workers have access to telephones.

Table 3: Percentage distribution of farm workers on the basis of household possessions

Household materials	0	1--3	Above 3
Radio	8	92	0
Television set	52	48	0
DVD Player	75	25	0
Heater	79	21	0
Bed	1	99	0
Wardrobe	50	50	0
Kitchen unit	36	64	0
Table	11	89	0
Chairs	3	57	40
Fridge	91	9	0
Electric stove	41	59	0
Microwave	99	1	0
Kettle	26	74	0
Boiler	100	0	0
Decoder	100	0	0
Satellite dish	100	0	0
Plates	0	4	96
Table spoon	0	39	61
Tea spoon	3	63	34
Knives	0	96	4
Fork	16	77	7
Computer	100	0	0
Air-conditioner	100	0	0
Blankets	0	5	95

Pillows	0	79	21
Curtains	6	64	30
Bath	0	100	0
Mug	0	39	61
Glasses	7	51	42
Window pane	6	69	25
Wooden door	6	94	0
Ironing board	72	28	0
Coffee table	90	10	0
Sofas	96	4	0
Water-buckets	0	95	5
Lawnmower	100	0	0
Drill-machine	99	1	0
Welding-machine	95	5	0
Washing-machine	100	0	0
Sewing-machine	99	1	0
Calendar	4	96	0
Spade	49	51	0
Rake	54	46	0
Spade-fork	78	22	0
Saw	54	46	0

4.3.3 Findings on socio-economic status (other utilities)

On other utilities, there are findings that only one farm worker from the rest owns a motor vehicle (according to the explanation of the farm worker concern, he used to work somewhere and upon retrenchment, he used the money/package he worked for, to purchase a second hand, old model motor vehicle and he conquered that one will find it difficult to can purchase a motor vehicle with the wage they are getting on their current farm-worker job), and most households have electricity except 21% of households yet these household belong to the farmer A substantial portion of the farm-worker community in South Africa is comprised of descendants of people who may have occupied and farmed white-owned land in a relatively independent manner (SAHRC, 2003). Those who are permanently employed or whose relatives are permanently employed, usually stay on the farm in housing provided by the farmer. The quality of housing largely depends on the attitude of the farmer and ranges from "decent" to "scarcely fit for human habitation" (Ewert and Hamman 1999: 212). Protective clothing and cell phones seem to be the most common item they possess.

There seems to be no interest on calculators, cameras, toolboxes and diaries. Ewert and Hamman (1999) argue that similarly, the educational background of farm workers indicates their marginal position in society.

Table 4: Percentage distribution of farm workers on the basis of other utilities

Other utilities	**0**	**1--3**	**Above 3**
Car	99	1	0
Bicycle	100	0	0
Wheelbarrow	72	28	0
Electricity	21	79	0
Protective clothing	8	74	18
Running portable water	6	94	0
Toilet/ablution facility	11	89	0
Cell phone	18	82	0
Camera	100	0	0
Umbrella	16	77	7
Travelling bag/suitcase	1	80	19
Jackets	0	70	30
Trousers	15	21	64
Blouse	75	7	18
Shirts	24	39	37
T-Shirts	0	37	63
Denim jeans	16	79	5
Gown	75	9	16
Sunglasses	58	42	0
Raincoat	22	78	0
Boots	10	78	12
Shoes	0	86	14
Socks	0	71	29
Hats	0	74	26
Underwear	4	54	42
Tool-box	88	12	0
Yard	96	4	0
Gate	96	4	0
Pens	21	79	0
Notebook	28	72	0
Diary	92	8	0
Watch	39	61	0
Calculator	100	0	0
Washing line	100	0	0

4.4 Findings on job characteristics

The following job characteristics aspects were statistically tested, this includes: Infrastructure for work; Working Hours; Get a chance to vote during National, Provincial and Municipal elections; Relationship with manager/foreman; Relationship with subordinates; Accommodation provided on the farm; Does accommodation provided on the farm have electricity; Does accommodation provided on the farm have ablution facilities; Does accommodation provided on the farm have running potable water; Work Equipment (Resources); Leave entitlement; Salary every month; Pay-day on the agreed date between employer and employee; Job specialisation; In-job training; Meal intervals during working hours; Provision of food within the farm, and Does employer know employees' physical address of their next of kin in case of unforeseen circumstances have a mean deviation of more than two (2), which shows that they are satisfied with the above-mentioned aspects.

Management and ownership structures in the wine industry apparently evoke apartheid patterns. The same can be said about current living and working conditions of most Black farm workers. The latter still belong to the most marginalised social groups in post-apartheid society, as their income levels show that they are even the poorest in the formal economy (SAWB 2003: 23). Those who are permanently employed or whose relatives are permanently employed, usually stay on the farm in housing provided by the farmer. The quality of housing largely depends on the attitude of the farmer and ranges from "decent" to "scarcely fit for human habitation" (Ewert and Hamman 1999: 212).

Moreover, due to their working and living conditions, farm workers are two to three times more likely to get infected by tuberculosis than people living in urban areas (SAWB 2006: 23). Most farm workers in addition to their income, received benefits from farm owners such as free access to accommodation and water, with the conditions of accommodation and also the type of sanitation varying greatly between farms. On some farms, however, farm workers had to pay for accommodation. On most of the farms, farm workers were able to buy subsidised food such as fresh milk, meat, maize meal, eggs, poultry or vegetables from the farm owner, depending on the type of farming (Kruger et al., 2006).

Statistical test performed reveal that the pressure on improved performance; Salary; Farm policies; Morale within the farm Authority within the farm; Job status; Promotion; Medical Aid; Loan Schemes; Working Conditions; Overtime Remunerations; Salary advice/Pay slip; Labour Union; Sectoral Determination; Job Description; Response to challenges; Bonuses; Documents and Contracts written in vernacular language; Night shift allowance; Compensation for Sunday and Public Holiday work; Foul language within the farm; Qualification for job; Job security; Deductions on your salary; Flexibility and initiative, and Burial rites within the farm are the aspects that have less than two (2) mean deviation, this means that farm workers are not satisfied about these aspects.

While the process of casualisation and externalisation of labour turns out to be also an unintended effect of the introduction of new labour laws, the ANC government's actual objective was to grant rights to a group of people who did not have any legal protection under apartheid. Previously, White farmers had the power to discriminate farm workers based on race and gender, evict them from their land and fire them at will. However, the new legislation based on a series of social, labour and tenure laws (e.g. Basic Conditions of Employment Amendment Act 1993, Employment Equity Act 1998, and Extension of Tenure Security Act 1997), forces farmers now to adhere to laws, which are quite progressive compared to international standards. In addition to new laws in favour of farm workers, the end of apartheid opened a space for unions and civil society organisations to organise farm workers, disperse important information for them, and lobby for their rights. With varying success, these organisations limit the power of White farmers over farm workers (Schweitzer, 2008).

Table 5: Job Characteristics with mean and standard deviation

JOB CHARACTERISTICS		
Items	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Pressure on improved performance	1.92	0.6
Infrastructure for work	2.03	0.69
Working Hours	2.28	0.93
Vote during National, Provincial and Municipal elections	2.41	0.75
Relationship with manager/foreman	2.16	0.58
Relationship with subordinates	2.04	0.45

Accommodation provided at the farm	2.48	0.78
Accommodation electricity	2.43	0.89
Accommodation ablution facilities	2.38	0.79
Accommodation running portable water	2.6	0.53
Salary	1.59	0.53
Farm policies	1.62	0.55
Morale within the farm	1.62	0.49
Authority within the farm	1.98	0.51
Job status	1.58	0.49
Promotion	1.52	0.5
Medical Aid	1	0
Loan Schemes	1.13	0.34
Working Conditions	1.86	0.49
Work Equipment (Resources)	2.35	0.74
Leave entitlement	2.01	0.92
Overtime Remunerations	1.66	0.71
Salary advice/Pay slip	1.97	0.98
Labour Union	1	0
Sectoral Determination	1	0
Job Description	1.98	0.45
Response to challenges	1.8	0.4
General operations	2	0.25
Bonuses	1.63	0.52
Documents and Contracts written in vernacular language	1.01	0.1
Night shift allowance	1.45	0.67
Compensation for Sunday and Public Holiday work	1.66	0.63
Pay/salary in South African Currency	3	0
Salary on every month-end	2.77	0.55
Pay-day on the agreed date between employer and employee	2.74	0.58
Foul language within the farm	1.95	0.43
Conflicting orders	2	0.35
Qualification for job	1.94	0.44
Job specialization	2.07	0.38
Job security	1.98	0.81
In-Job training	2.36	0.69
Deductions on your salary	1.9	0.57
Flexibility and initiative	1.74	0.44
Meal intervals during working hours	2.61	0.75
Provision of food within the farm	2.55	2.04
Does employer know the physical address of the next of kin in case of unforeseen circumstances	2.48	0.87
Burial rites within the farm	1.2	0.4

Table 6: Multiple regression analysis of relationship between, socio-economic status and personal characteristics of farm workers

	Job characteristics					Socio-economic status				
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	76.31	25.37		3.00	.003	138.29	44.9		3.08	.003
Age	6.75	1.45	.48	4.66	.000	8.53	2.56	.289	3.32	.001
Gender	8.48	3.18	.25	2.66	.009	17.54	5.63	.249	3.11	.002
Marital status	5.62	1.62	.33	3.46	.001	-1.66	2.87	-.046	-.57	.56
Nationality	-1.90	9.13	-.03	-.20	.835	-10.62	16.16	-.088	-.65	.51
Educational level	13.12	4.44	.25	2.95	.004	-5.61	7.86	-.052	-.71	.47
Job category	-12.54	3.50	-.28	-3.57	.001	.18	6.21	.002	.03	.97
Type of employment	-10.68	3.36	-.24	-3.17	.002	-26.03	5.95	-.283	-4.37	.00
Information sources	4.19	8.03	.08	.52	.602	-1.03	14.21	-.010	-.07	.94
Family size	-3.46	1.04	-.34	-3.32	.001	8.99	1.84	.424	4.88	.00
F	10.53					19.3				
p	0.00					0.00				
R	0.72					0.81				
R square	0.51					0.65				

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter described the personal characteristics with percentage distribution, similarly with socio-economic status and job characteristics rated with standard and mean deviation of farm workers. Multiple regression analysis of relationship between socio-economic status and personal characteristics was also carried out.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The study was designed to determine and identify personal characteristics of farm workers, determine the job characteristics of farm workers, ascertain the socio-economic status of farm workers and the relationship between socio-economic status and job characteristics of farm workers. One hundred farm workers were randomly selected from different farms (both on commercial and communal farms). Data were collected using a structured questionnaire which made of personal characteristics, socio-economic status and job characteristics. Data collected were coded and subjected to analysis using the percentages, mean and standard deviation to describe the data.

5.2 Major findings of the study

The findings of this study show that most farm workers interviewed were males as compared to their female counterparts. Ninety-one percents (91%) of farm workers in this study rely on the radio as their mode of information. Although most of them are employed permanently, they are either singles (not married) or are co-habiting with someone on the farm or from outside the farm. Ninety-one percent (91%) of them have not gone beyond primary education (illiteracy level is of great concern).

There is still a concern that most farm workers are not paid according to Sectoral Determination. Farm policies and morale within the farm are of concern as most farm workers reside and work on the farm. In such instances, there is no way to go after work except on holidays or during the different kinds of leave to relieve the stress of work and residential environment. Overtime work, Sunday and public holiday work are not properly remunerated as pointed out by most of the farm workers. There is concern that there are some deductions on their monthly salary (including those who borrowed money from the employer during the course of the month; some form of loan scheme) and this cannot be accounted for, as most farm workers do not receive

salary advice/pay slips before they can get their monthly salary, as to budget their pay when it is due. Sixty-three percent (63%) of them earn between R10 000-R15 000 per annum after deductions and the mere thirty-seven percent (37%) earn between R16 000—R20 000 per annum. Having pointed this out, there is a satisfactory mood on salaries being paid by South African currency and they get it at the end of every month. There is no implementation of sectoral determination on the work place. The labour unions do not exist on most of the farms.

None of the one hundred farm workers has medical aid; it is a cause of concern in case of chronic ailments. Most of farm workers from time to time pointed out they receive In-Job training and accorded a chance to vote during elections, they are also provided with accommodation at the farm and most cases they are allowed to enjoy their meal intervals during working hours.

Only eight percent (8%) of farm workers interviewed own cattle and only one farm worker has a land. Most this farm workers keep dogs as pets. They have most of the household items such as radio; bed; eating utensils; tables; blankets; pillows; water buckets and calendars. None of them (those interviewed possess the following items: boiler; decoder; satellite dish; computer; air-conditioner; lawnmower; or washing machine. Only one farm worker possess a car whereas the whole 99% does not have any means of transport. Twenty-one percent (21%) of farm workers do not possess electricity and only eight percent (8%) do not have protective clothing, this is a contravention of Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997 and Occupational and Safety Act, 85 of 1993.

5.3 Conclusion

The following conclusion can be drawn based on the findings, focusing on the objectives and hypothesis of the study. The majority of farm workers are males. Most of the farm workers are illiterate with very few above primary level of education. The majority earn between R10 000—R15 000 per annum. None of the farm workers possess medical aid. Agricultural possession can be observed in only few of farm workers. There was multiple regression analysis of relationship between socio-economic status and personal characteristics of farm workers such as age, gender,

marital status, nationality, education level, job category, type of employment, information sources, and family sizes. This study manages to answer the research question based on the findings.

5.4 Recommendations

Recommendations are made with regards to different stakeholders.

It is recommended that Government should:

- Make an effort to audit progress with regard to Sectoral determination;
- Convey a platform for every farm worker to voice the concerns through that channel;
- In conjunction with farm owners (farmers) to establish Adult Basic Education and Training centres to cater for high illiteracy level on farm workers at different farms. This will not only help the farm worker but also a farmer as workers will be able to read and interpret different items such as: direction for use in livestock medicine, seeds packages, operations of different farming machinery/implements.

Farm workers should:

- Seek help from relevant channels to voice out flawed activities in the working environments;
- Be willing to learn when the ABET systems are introduced in the farms; this will be for their own good as capacity building;
- Participate in different forums such as labour unions and field-days/workshops and empower themselves when given time to participate in these forums. If they don not have unions, they cannot bargain or negotiate for salaries or any aspects related to work activities.

APPENDIX I

Employment Act for farm workers

Sectoral Determination

I, Membathisi Mphumzi Shepherd Mdladlana, Minister of Labour, hereby in terms of section 50 of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997, make a Sectoral Determination establishing conditions of employment and wages for employers and employees in the Farm worker sector, South Africa, in the schedule hereto and determine the second Monday after the date of publication of this notice as the date from which the provisions of the said Sectoral Determination shall become binding (Mdladlana, 2/12/2002).

Guidelines

1. Notice period and termination of employment

In terms of the Sectoral Determination, any party to an employment contract must give written notice, except when an illiterate farm worker gives it, as follows:

- One week, if employed for six months or less
- Four weeks if employed for more than six months.

Notice must be explained orally by or on behalf of the employer to a farm worker if he/she is not able to understand it.

The employer is required to provide the farm worker who resides in accommodation situated on the premises of the employer or provided by the employer, with accommodation for a period of one month, or if it is a longer period, until the contract of employment could lawfully have been terminated.

The farm worker is entitled to keep livestock on the premises for a period of one month or until the contract of employment could lawfully have been terminated.

The farm worker who has standing crops on the land is entitled to tend to those crops, harvest and remove them within a reasonable time after they become ready for harvesting unless the employer pays the farm worker an agreed amount for the crops.

All monies due to the farm worker for any wages, allowance or other payments that have not been paid, paid time-off not taken and pro-rata leave must be paid.

2. Procedure for termination of employment

While the contract of employment makes provision for termination of employment, it must be understood that the services of an employee may not be terminated unless a valid and fair reason exists and fair procedure is followed. If an employee is dismissed without a valid reason or without a fair procedure, the employee may refer the matter to the CCMA for assistance

Pro-rata leave and severance pay is payable.

In the event of a farm worker being unable to return to work due to disability, the employer must investigate the nature of the disability and ascertain whether or not it is permanent or temporary. The employer must try to accommodate the employee as far as possible for example, amending or adapting their duties to suit the disability. However, in the event of it not being possible for the employer to adapt the farm worker's duties and/or to find alternatives due to the disability, such employer may terminate the services of the farm worker.

The Labour Relations Act, 66 of 1995 sets out the procedures to be followed at the termination of services in the Code of Good Practice, in Schedule 8.

3. Wage/remuneration/payment

There is a prescribed minimum wage. Additional payments (such as for overtime or work on Sundays or Public Holidays) are calculated from the total wage as indicated in clause 5.3 of the contract. The total remuneration is the total of the money received

by the employee and the payment in kind, which may not be more than 10% each of the wage for food and accommodation.

4. Transport allowances

Sectoral Determination 13: Farm workers Sector, South Africa does not regulate this and is therefore open to negotiation between the parties.

5. Hours of work

5.1 Normal hours (excluding overtime)

A farm worker may not be made to:

- work more than 45 ordinary hours a week;
- work more than nine hours a day for a five day work week; and
- work more than eight hours a day for a six day work week.

5.2 Extension of ordinary hours of work

By written agreement, ordinary hours of work may be extended by not more than five hours per week for a period of not more than four months and be reduced by the same number of hours during a period of the same duration in the same twelve-month period.

The employer must pay the farm worker the wage he/she would have received for his/her normal hours worked.

Extended hours not reduced must be paid as overtime on termination.

5.3 Overtime

A farm worker may not work more than 15 hours overtime per week but may not work more than 12 hours on any day, including overtime.

Overtime must be paid at 1.5 times the employee's normal wage or an employee may agree to receive paid time off.

5.4 Daily and weekly rest periods

5.4.1 A daily rest period of 12 consecutive hours and a weekly rest period of 36 consecutive hours, which must include Sunday, unless otherwise agreed, must be allowed.

5.4.2 The daily rest period may by agreement, be reduced to 10 hours for an employee who lives on the premises whose meal interval lasts for at least three hours.

5.4.3 The weekly rest period may by agreement, be extended to 60 consecutive hours every two weeks or be reduced to eight hours in any week if the rest period in the following week is extended equivalently.

5.5 Night work

5.5.1 Night work means work performed after 20:00 and before 04:00

5.5.1 Only worked if agreed to in writing and must be compensated by an allowance of at least 10% the ordinary daily wage and if transport is available.

6. Meal intervals

A farm worker is entitled to a one-hour break for a meal after not more than five hours work. Such interval may be reduced to 30 minutes, by agreement between the parties. When a second meal interval is required because of overtime worked, it may be reduced to not less than 15 minutes. If required or permitted to work during this period, remuneration must be paid.

7. Work on Sundays

Must be paid as follows:

Time worked on Sunday

Time worked on a Sunday	Payment
One hour or less	Double the wage for one hour
More than one hour but not more than two hours	Double the ordinary wage for time worked
More than two hours but not more than five hours	The ordinary daily wage.
More than five hours	The greater of double the wage payable in respect of time worked (excluding overtime) or double the ordinary daily wage.

A farm worker who does not reside on the farm who works on a Sunday, must be regarded as having worked at least two hours on that day.

8. Public holidays

The days mentioned in the Public Holidays Act must be granted but the parties can agree to further public holidays. Work on a public holiday is entirely voluntary and a farm worker may not be forced to work on such public holiday.

The official public holidays are:

New Years Day	Youth Day
Human Rights Day	National Women's Day
Good Friday	Heritage Day
Family Day	Day of Reconciliation
Freedom Day	Christmas Day
Workers Day	Day of Goodwill

Any other day declared an official public holiday from time to time must also be granted. These days can be exchanged for any other day by agreement. If the employee works on a public holiday, he/she shall be paid double the normal day's wage.

9. Annual leave

Annual leave may not be less than three weeks per year for full-time workers or by agreement, one day for every 17 days worked or one hour for every 17 hours worked.

The leave must be granted not later than six months after completion of the period of 12 consecutive months of employment. The leave may not be granted concurrent with any period of sick leave, nor with a period of notice of termination of the contract of employment.

10. Sick leave

During every sick leave cycle of 36 months, an employee is entitled to an amount of paid sick leave equal to the number of days the employee would normally work during a period of six weeks.

During the first six months of employment, an employee is entitled to one day's paid sick leave for every 26 days worked.

The employer is not required to pay an employee if the employee has been absent from work for more than two consecutive days or on more than two occasions during an eight-week period and, on request by the employer, does not produce a medical certificate stating that the employee was unable to work for the duration of the employee's absence on account of sickness or injury.

11. Maternity leave

The employee is entitled to at least four consecutive months for maternity leave. The employer is not obliged to pay the farm worker for the period for which she is off

work due to her pregnancy. However, the parties may agree that the farm worker will receive part of or her entire salary/wage for the time that she is off due to pregnancy.

12. Family responsibility leave

Employees employed for longer than four months and for at least four days a week are entitled to take three days paid family responsibility leave during each leave cycle when the employee's child is born, or when the employee's child is sick or in the event of the death of the employee's spouse or life partner or parent, adoptive parent, grandparent, child, adopted child, grandchild or sibling.

13. Deductions from the remuneration

The Sectoral Determination prohibits an employer from deducting any monies from the farm worker's wages without his/her written permission.
A deduction of not more than 10% each of the wage may be held back for food and accommodation provided on a consistent and regular basis and provided the house has a roof that is durable and waterproof, has a glass window that can be opened, electricity and tap water is available inside the house and a flush toilet or pit latrine available inside or close to the house.

14. Other issues

There are certain other issues which are not regulated by the Sectoral Determination such as probationary periods, right of entry to the employer's premises, afternoons off, weekends off and pension schemes, medical aid schemes, training/school fees, funeral benefits and savings account. However, the aforementioned may be negotiated between the parties and included in the contract of employment.

15. Prohibition of employment

The Sectoral Determination prohibits employment of any person under the age of 15 and it is therefore important for an employer to verify the age of the farm worker by requesting a copy of the identity document or birth certificate.

16. Other conditions of employment

There is no provision, which prevents any other conditions of employment being included in a contract of employment but any provision, which sets conditions, which are less favourable than those set by the Determination, would be invalid.

APPENDIX II

Data Collection:- Questionnaire

A. Personal Characteristics

Please indicate category you belong to for each of the following indicators of personal characteristics

i). AGE

Less than 20 years	
20-30 years	
31-40 years	
41-50 years	
51-60 years	
Above 60years	

ii) Gender

Male	
Female	

iii) Marital Status

Single	
Married	
Cohabiting	
Divorced	
Widow	

iv) Nationality

Kingdom of Swaziland	
Kingdom of Lesotho	
Republic of Malawi	
Republic of Mozambique	
Republic of South Africa	
Republic of Zimbabwe	

v) Educational Level

Grade 1-6	
Grade 7-11	
Matric	
Diploma	
Degree	

v) Job Category

Technical Operators	
General Labourer	

vii) Job Positions

Messenger	
Administration Officer	
Manager	

viii) Type of Employment

Permanent	
Temporary	
Fixed-term contract	

ix) Salary Grade

Below R50 000 per annum	
R51 000 – R100 000 per annum	
R110 000 – R150 000 per annum	
R151 000 – R200 000 per annum	
R201 000 – R300 000 per annum	
Above R300 000 per annum	

x) Religion

Christian	
Muslim	
Rastafarism	
Other	

xi) Source of Information

Internet	
Newspaper	
Magazine	
Radio	
Television	
Books	

xii) Family Size .....

B. Job Characteristics

Please indicate from the following items the degree of satisfaction or dissatisfaction you and about your job and its related characteristics.

NO	Items	Satisfactory	Moderately Satisfactory	Not Satisfactor
1	Pressure on improved performance			
2	Infrastructure for work			
3	Working Hours			
4	Get a chance to vote during National, Provincial and Municipal election			
5	Relationship with manager/foreman			
6	Relationship with subordinates			
7	Accommodation provided at the farm			
8	Does accommodation provided at the farm have electricity			
9	Does accommodation provided at the farm have ablution facilities			
10	Does accommodation provided at the farm have running portable water			
11	Salary			
12	Farm policies			
13	Morale within the farm			
14	Authority within the farm			
15	Job status			
16	Promotion			
17	Medical Aid			
18	Loan Schemes			
19	Working Conditions			
20	Work Equipment (Resources)			

21	Leave entitlement			
22	Overtime Remunerations			
23	Salary advice/Pay slip			
24	Labour Union			
25	Sectoral Determination			
26	Job Description			
27	Response to challenges			
28	General operations			
29	Bonuses			
30	Documents and Contracts written in vernacular language			
31	Night shift allowance			
32	Compensation for Sunday and Public Holiday work			
33	Pay/salary in South African Currency			
34	Salary on every month-end			
35	Pay-day on the agreed date between employer and employee			
36	Foul language within the farm			
37	Conflicting orders			
38	Qualification for job			
39	Job specialization			
40	Job security			
41	In-Job training			
42	Deductions on your salary			
43	Flexibility and initiative			
44	Meal intervals during working hours			
45	Provision of food within the farm			
46	Does employer know your physical address of your next of kin in case of unforeseen circumstances			
47	Burial rites within the farm			

C. Socio-Economic Characteristics

ITEMS	**Posses (YES)**	**Posses (NO)**	**Number of those Items**
Cattle			
Horse			
Sheep			
Goats			
Pigs			
Dogs			
Cats			
Donkey			
Donkey-Cart			
Car			
Tractor			
Bicycle			
Wheelbarrow			
Radio			
Television Set			
DVD Player			
Land			
Heater			
Electricity			
Bed			
Wardrobe			
Kitchen unit			
Protective clothing			
Running portable water			
Toilet/ablution facility			
Table			
Chairs			

Fridge			
Electric stove			
Microwave			
Kettle			
Boiler			
Cell phone			
Camera			
Decoder			
Satellite dish			
Plates			
Table spoon			
Tea spoon			
Knives			
Fork			
Umbrella			
Computer			
Travelling bag/suitcase			
Air-conditioner			
Blankets			
Pillows			
Curtains			
Jackets			
Trousers			
Blouse			
Shirts			
T-Shirts			
Denim jeans			
Gown			
Sunglasses			
Raincoat			
Spade			

Rake			
Spade-fork			
Saw			
Tool-box			
Yard			
Gate			
Bath			
Mug			
Glasses			
Window pane			
Wooden door			
Ironing board			
Washing line			
Coffee table			
Sofas			
Chickens			
Turkeys			
Peacocks			
Water-buckets			
Boots			
Shoes			
Socks			
Hats			
Underwear			
Lawnmower			
Drill-machine			
Welding-machine			
Washing-machine			
Sawing-machine			
Pens			
Notebook			
Diary			

Calendar			
Watch			
Calculator			

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